Chaos in Exchange Rate Models

Dartmouth College Department of Mathematics Daniel Salas

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Abstract

This paper analyzes the dynamic behavior of exchange rate models. Chaos is easily found in discrete models, but not in most continuous models below 4 dimensions. The paper concludes with a brief look at the real data and the challenges it presents.

1 Introduction

Exchange rates are a hot topic in economics. Currency manipulation (government intervention in the exchange rate instead of letting it 'float'), exchange rate crises, and currency unions are a few areas of interest. Large changes in exchange rates can have dramatic impacts on many countries' economies. In finance, the exchange rate is an important factor in the return on foreign assets. As a result, many people (especially Forex traders) would like to predict exchange rates.

Unfortunately, their exact behavior over short time horizons is still unknown. Most economists have put their focus toward stochastic models, but some still try and explain the behavior with nonlinear dynamics note. Over long time horizons, relatively simple models that use comparative statics can accurately predict the equilibrium exchange rate. But over short time horizons, exchange rates have drastically different behavior. One observation that has led economists to believe in some nonlinear dynamics is the evidence of exchange rate overshooting. The Dornbusch model (1976) was the first model to imply the existence of exchange rate overshooting. As a result, the principles of the Dornbusch model are the foundation for many linear and nonlinear dynamic models. First, I will show that even simple models of exchange rates can display 'random' behavior that is actually just chaotic and determinant behavior. Then I will explore the dynamics of simple dynamic ODE models. Lastly, I will briefly look at time-delay embedding in real data.

2 One Dimensional Discrete Map

First, I looked at the behavior of a 1 dimensional nonlinear map. For iterative maps, it is possible to get chaos with only 1 dimension (logistic map with a = 4) and that's what one can find using a very simple exchange rate model. The derivation of the model is short and requires some heavy assumptions.



Figure 1: Bifurcation of α .

Exchange rates in each period are determined by the previous period's exchange rate and various parameters. The parameters are assumed to be constant. The relationship between the change in the speculators demand for foreign currency and the equation for the trade balance are combined to yield the next period's exchange rate in terms of the previous exchange rate and various parameters. First, the speculators' demand for foreign currency is quantified:

$$S_t = \alpha (e_f/e_t - 1). \tag{1}$$

 α is a sensitivity parameter defined to be greater than zero (varying this sensitivity gives chaotic behavior). e_t is the current nominal exchange rate. e_f is the equilibrium exchange rate (fixed point in the map). The intuition is that the demand is proportional to the relative deviation of the equilibrium exchange rate to the current exchange rate. When α is small, speculators don't adjust their demand to deviations very strongly, thus the pressure on the next exchange rate to change is small. As α gets larger, the deviations are met with larger changes in demand, keeping the exchange rate within a tighter band around the equilibrium. As shown in the bifurcation plot, when alpha is sufficiently large (approximately 11), the speculators' demand responds so strongly that the exchange rate is quickly brought to its equilibrium level. The uninteresting case is when $\alpha = 0$. Then speculators play no role in determining the exchange rate since they never want foreign currency.

Next, the trade balance is defined

$$T_t = \beta(e_t - e_f) + \gamma(e_{t-1} - e_f).$$
 (2)

The relative size of γ to β is important. When gamma is larger, more trade is done using the previous exchange rate (common for purchase agreements to be made well in advance of the actual purchase at the current exchange rate). When β is larger, the opposite is true. As both get large, the volume of trade increases. As shown in the bifurcation plots, when γ/β gets larger/smaller the chaotic behavior increases. When the γ is small enough relative to β , the exchange rate settles into the equilibrium rate instead of chaotically orbiting around it. Lastly, if all constants (α, β, γ) are increased and held to the same ratio, the behavior doesn't change. The bifurcation plot is just a set of horizontal line(s) with then



Figure 2: Bifurcation of β . Blows up near zero because of β term in denominator.



Figure 3: Bifurcation of γ .

number of lines depending on the period of the sink. The period is differs by changing the ratio $\alpha : \beta : \gamma$.

Setting $T_t = \Delta S_t$ yields a quadratic relationship between the current exchange rate and the previous exchange rate with the following positive root of e_t :

$$\beta e_{t-1}e_t^2 - ((\beta + \gamma)e_f e_{t-1} - \gamma e_{t-1}^2 - \alpha e_f)e_t - \alpha e_f e_{t-1} = 0$$

$$e_{t} = \frac{(\beta + \gamma)e_{f}e_{t-1} - \gamma e_{t-1}^{2} - \alpha e_{f} + \sqrt{((\beta + \gamma)e_{f}e_{t-1} - \gamma e_{t-1}^{2} - \alpha e_{f})^{2} + 4\beta e_{t-1}\alpha e_{t-1}}}{2\beta e_{t-1}}$$
(3)

The intuition for setting the change in demand equal to the trade balance is that the value of goods being sold by a country must be equal to the money flowing into the country. This is related to the idea of balance of payments. The balance of payments means that the current account (value of exported products in home currency - value of imported goods in home currency) should equal the capital account (the foreign purchases of domestic assets with home



Figure 4: Bifurcation of β holding fixed $\gamma = 4\beta$.



Figure 5: Bifurcation of β holding fixed $\gamma = 4\beta$ and $\alpha = 6\beta/4$. The sink is period 2 in this case.



Figure 6: Time series illustrates sensitive dependence and unpredictable movements.

currency - the domestic purchases of foreign assets with foreign currency). The following thought experiment explains the reasoning behind the assumption.

If the dollar is worth more than the euro, then Europe will buy less of the US's exports since they are relatively more expensive. In turn, the US will buy more of Europe's exports since they are relatively cheaper (the US imports more). Thus, the US's net exports are negative. In the capital market, the return (yield, interest rate, etc.) on European assets (bonds, stocks, etc.) is weaker because the euro is less valuable than the dollar. So, people in both countries would shift their purchases in the capital market to US assets since these assets now have a higher return. The balance of payments implies that the shifts in the net exports (part of the current account) and investment in assets (capital account) should be equal. (Assume net exports are a positive value and an increase in domestic purchases of foreign assets (capital outflow) is a positive value. Also, for simplicity, assume the world is made up of only two separate trading partners (US and Europe).)

From map defined in (3), we assume when the parameters are not varied, they are $\alpha = 6$, $\beta = 4$, $\gamma = 26$, $e_0 = .9$, and $e_f = 1$. These parameters are used in the time series plot, calculating the Lyapunov exponent, and the time delay embedding. The time series plot illustrates the sensitive dependence. The second point iterated is only 10^{-8} greater than e_0 , but it reaches a maximum distance away from e_0 after only 50 iterations. The Lyapunov exponent is numerically calculated to be approximately .3491(> 0 necessary for chaos). Lastly, the plot of the time delay embedding contrasted with the time series plot emphasizes that while the two points seem to deviate from each other randomly, they are both following the same exact relationship between e_{n+1} and e_n .



Figure 7: Calculating the Lyapunov exponent $\left(h=.3491\right)$



Figure 8: Time delay embedding shows the shape of the iterating function.



Figure 9: Phase plane and behavior near unstable manifold

3 Giavazzi's Simplified Dornbusch Model

Giavazzi (2007) shows the Dornbusch model can be simplified to the following 2D system of linear ODEs. Since the model is 2D and linear, it does not exhibit chaotic behavior (Alligood). Even though it is not chaotic, the model does have some interesting properties and implications that are useful to know before expanding into a 3D nonlinear system. e = exchange rate, p = price level, m = quantity of money in economy, r = the interest rate, and $r_f = \text{the foreign interest rate}$. All variables will be in log terms (real money $= \ln(M/P) = m - p$). First, Giavazzi derives the \dot{e} relationship from the money market equilibrium. The money market equilibrium requires that money demand equal a fixed money supply, $m^S - p = \bar{m} - p = m^D - p = -\lambda r + \psi y$. $\lambda, \psi > 0$ and they represent the sensitivity of money demand to income y and interest rate r. Then assume that the interest parity condition holds, $r = r_f + \text{E}(\dot{e})$ (no arbitrage in capital market). Using Dornbusch's assumption that speculators have perfect foresight, $\text{E}(\dot{e}) = \dot{e}$, so the expected change = the actual change. After combining these equations, \dot{e} has solution:

$$\dot{e} = -\frac{\bar{m}}{\lambda} + \frac{p}{\lambda} \tag{4}$$

Then Giavazzi looks at a sluggish price level proportional (δ) to the discrepancy between aggregate demand and aggregate supply. Holding aggregate supply fixed at 0, and assuming the demand relation is $\dot{p} = \delta(y^D - y^S)$, the \dot{p} equation is

$$\dot{p} = \delta(e - p). \tag{5}$$

The equilibrium point is $\bar{e} = \bar{p} = \bar{m}$ by solving $\dot{e} = \dot{p} = 0$, thus in matrix form the relation is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{p} \\ \dot{e} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\delta & \delta \\ 1/\lambda & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p - \bar{p} \\ e - \bar{e} \end{bmatrix}.$$

I found the eigenvalues to be $\mu_{1,2} = -\frac{\delta}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{\delta^2 + 4\delta/\lambda}}{2}$, and confirmed Giavazzi's result that the eigenvectors (the manifolds) are $\vec{v}_{1,2} = [\lambda \mu_{1,2} \ 1]$ (second is stable). Since δ and λ are assumed to be greater than zero, the equilibrium point will always be a saddle since there will always be one negative and one positive eigenvalue of the linear ODE. Below, I have shown the phase plane and the behavior



Figure 10: Phase plane and behavior near stable manifold

of solutions near the stable and unstable manifold (I modified a phase plane code from http://www-users.math.umd.edu/ petersd/246/matlabode2.html). Since, the equilibrium solution is always a saddle, very small deviations away from the stable manifold lead to solutions that diverge to ∞ or $-\infty$.

4 Nonlinear 3D system of ODEs

Asada et. al (2003) expand upon many models including the Dornbusch model. The nonlinear model proposed (Asada et. al p.227) gives rise to some interesting behavior. Unfortunately, this model does not have chaotic behavior, but it gets pretty close. The derivation of this model is much more complex, but the assumptions and relationships are still similar. The 3rd variable in this ODE system is the adjustment of the expected exchange rate. Previously, the expectations were assumed to be perfect, but now the expectations change along with the price level and the exchange rate. The dynamic behavior is described by the system:

$$\dot{e} = \beta_e (\bar{r}^* + \beta_\epsilon (e_0 - e) - \frac{\phi \bar{y} + p - \bar{m}}{\alpha_r})$$
$$\dot{p} = \beta_p ((\gamma - 1)\bar{y} + \delta(e - p) + \bar{u})$$
$$\dot{\beta}_\epsilon = \beta_{\beta_\epsilon} (v(\beta_\epsilon) - \beta_\epsilon), v(\beta_\epsilon) = \beta_p \delta(1 + \frac{1}{\alpha_r \beta_\epsilon})$$
(6)

All of the β 's are sensitivity parameters, and the exchange rate and price level changes are determined by a few more relationships. The equations are derived by Asada et. al by modifying some of Dornbusch's assumptions. For example, the $v(\beta_{\epsilon})$ is introduced by Asada to consider the relationship between "the believed and the actual adjustment speed of exchange rates" (p. 226). The time series plots of this model show an overshooting behavior consistent with the Dornbusch model and some oscillation around the equilibrium that looks chaotic!



Figure 11: e vs t. Overshooting occurs quickly, then violent oscillations around the equilibrium. Initial conditions vary by .01



Figure 12: p vs t. Overshooting occurs quickly, then violent oscillations around the equilibrium. Initial conditions vary by .01



Figure 13: β_{ϵ} vs t. Overshooting occurs quickly, then violent oscillations around the equilibrium. Initial conditions vary by .01



Figure 14: Time Delay Embedding using e_n, e_{n+1}, e_{n+2}



Figure 15: Time Delay Embedding using e_n, e_{n+10}, e_{n+20}

Out of curiosity, I looked at the "discrete" values of the exchange rate (continuous relationship calculated numerically so not really continuous, but the ODE system is meant to be interpreted continuously). The spacing between "discrete" values is 1 and 10 indices.

The time delay pattern starts looking like a rose bud with one time unit separation, at 10 time units the petals start to blossom or spread, and finally when the time step between observations is 100 units the pattern is a large 3 dimensional tangle.

Unfortunately, this model doesn't show chaotic behavior. The attractor is a straight line in 3 dimensions. Using a modified code provided by Professor Barnett (lyapflow.m), the Lyapunov exponents with these parameters are calculated to be all negative ($h_1 = -.572, h_2 = -4.728, h_3 = -13.891$). The parameters can be manipulated to give rise to positive exponents, but this occurs by making β_e too large. The model breaks down well before the Lyapunov exponents are positive (points shoot off to infinity or negative infinity). Asada et. al find chaotic attractors in the 8D, 10D, and 12D models that take a few chapters to explain.

Time Delay Embedding of 'discrete' data



Figure 16: Time Delay Embedding using $e_n, e_{n+100}, e_{n+200}$



Figure 17: Real Data Time Series: US/Japan. Time units are 1 month

5 Chaos in Real Data?

As seen in the time delay plots of the dollar/yen exchange rate, there doesn't seem to be an underlying pattern.

The time delay plots indicate that the best guess of the next exchange rate is the current exchange rate and some noise. I tried looking at the deviation of the current exchange rate as a new variable $w_t = e_t - \bar{e}_t$, where $\bar{e}_t \approx \frac{1}{9} \sum_{i=t-4}^{t+4} e_i$. This resulted in an incomprehensible blob. Even thought the blob doesn't show a clear pattern, it is more promising because it suggests that maybe there is some relationship, we just can't tell what it is. The relation is possibly more than 3 dimensions and I could be omitting some important variable like prices, or interest rates.



Figure 18: Real Data Time Delay Embedding: US/Japan. e_t, e_{t+1}, e_{t+2} . Time units are 1 month. Relationship is a noisy x = y = z relationship with x = z a little bit less accurate.



Figure 19: Real Data Time Delay Embedding: US/Japan. $w_t,w_{t+1},w_{t+2}.$ Time units are 1 month and $w_t=e_t-\bar{e}_t$

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6 MATLAB

6.1 One Dimensional Map

```
\% chaos 1d ex rate
% Daniel Salas
% M53 Project code
% November 23, 2015
clear
clc
close all;
% bifurcation plots take a lot of time...so set these to zero if you don't
\% want to see them
bifgamma = 0;
bifbeta = 0;
bifalpha = 0;
bifratio = 0;
bifratio 2 = 1;
N = 1100; \% N-1 = number of iterations
e = zeros(N,1); % array for exchange rates
e(1) = .9; \% initial exchange rate
B = 4; \% beta
g = 26; \% gamma
ee = 1; \% equilibrium exchange rate
a = 6; \% alpha
% Bifurcation Plot of Alpha
if bifalpha == 1
B = 4;
a = 6;
g = 26;
f = @(e) ((B+g).*ee.*e-g.*e.^{2}-a.*ee)./(2.*B.*e) + sqrt(((B+g).*ee.*e-g.*e.^{2}-a.*e)).
for i = 1:N-1
   e(i+1) = f(e(i));
end
figure (1)
scatter(a.*ones(200,1), e(N-199:N), '.k')
xlabel('\alpha')
ylabel('e')
title ('Bifurcation plot: e vs \alpha')
hold on
for a = 0.01:.01:12
```

```
 \begin{split} &f = @(e) \quad ((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)/(2*B*e) + sqrt(((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)^2+4*B*e*a \\ &for \ i = 1:N-1 \\ & e(i+1) = f(e(i)); \\ &end \\ &scatter(a*ones(200,1), e(N-199:N), '.k') \\ &end \\ &hold \ off \\ &end \\ \end{split}
```

```
B = 4;
a = 6;
g = 26;
e1 = zeros(N,1);
e1(1) = .9;
e2 = zeros(N,1);
e^{2}(1) = .9 + 10^{(-8)};
f = @(e) ((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)/(2*B*e)+sqrt(((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)^2+4*B*e*a)
for i = 1:N-1
    e1(i+1) = f(e1(i));
    e^{2}(i+1) = f(e^{2}(i));
end
figure (2)
plot (0:150, e1(1:151))
hold on
plot(0:150,e2(1:151))
xlabel('t (period)')
ylabel('e (exchange rate)')
title ('Exchange rate discrete in time')
legend ('e_0 = .9', 'e_0 = .9+10^{(-8)}')
hold off
```

```
figure (3)

plot (0:100, log (abs (e2(1:101) - e1(1:101))))

title ('Calculating Lyapunov Exponent')

xlabel ('t (period)')

ylabel ('ln | e_{.9}(t) - e_{.9+10^{-}{-8}(t)|')

hold on

y2 = log (abs (e2(51) - e1(51)));
```

 $y1 = \log(abs(e2(1)-e1(1)));$ plot([0 50],[y1 y2]); hold off slope = (y2-y1)/50

figure(4)
scatter(e1(1:N-1),e1(2:N))
hold on
scatter(e2(1:N-1),e2(2:N),'.r')
title('Time Delay Embedding')
xlabel('e_{n}')
ylabel('e_{n+1}')
legend('e_0 = .9', 'e_0 = .9+10^{(-8)})
hold off

```
if bifbeta == 1
B = 4;
a = 6;
g = 26;
for i = 1:N-1
   e(i+1) = f(e(i));
end
figure (5)
scatter (B.*ones (200,1), e(N-199:N), '.k')
xlabel('\ beta')
ylabel('e')
title ('Bifurcation plot: e vs \beta')
hold on
for B = 0.1:.01:15
f = @(e) ((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)/(2*B*e)+sqrt(((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)^2+4*B*e*a)
for i = 1:N-1
   e(i+1) = f(e(i));
end
scatter (B*ones (200,1), e(N-199:N), '.k')
```

```
end
hold off
end
% Bifurcation Plot of Gamma
if bifgamma == 1
B = 4;
a = 6;
g = 26;
f = @(e) ((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)/(2*B*e)+sqrt(((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)^2+4*B*e*a))
for i = 1:N-1
   e(i+1) = f(e(i));
end
figure (6)
scatter (g.*ones (200,1), e(N-199:N), '.k')
xlabel('\gamma')
ylabel('e')
title ('Bifurcation plot: e vs \gamma')
hold on
for g = 14:.05:40
f = @(e) ((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)/(2*B*e)+sqrt(((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)^2+4*B*e*a))
for i = 1:N-1
   e(i+1) = f(e(i));
end
scatter(g*ones(200,1), e(N-199:N), '.k')
end
hold off
end
% Bifurcation Plot of Gamma/Beta
if bifratio == 1
B = 4;
a = 6;
g = 4 * B;
f = @(e) ((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)/(2*B*e)+sqrt(((B+g)*ee*e-g*e^2-a*ee)^2+4*B*e*a))
for i = 1:N-1
   e(i+1) = f(e(i));
end
```

end

```
for B = .1:.01:25
g = 4*B;
a = 6/4*B; % keep ratio between alpha, beta, and gamma fixed (hint: no chaos)
```

end

6.2 Giavazzi's 2D map: Phase Plane Code

```
% Modified Code from http://www-users.math.umd.edu/~petersd/246/matlabode2.html
clear; close all; clc
% Daniel Salas
\% Phase Plane M53 project
% November 23, 2015
h = .01;
m = 1;
d = 2;
1 = .5;
u1 = -d/2 + sqrt(d^2+4*d/1)/2;
u2 = -d/2 - sqrt(d^2+4*d/1)/2;
yo = (1+h) \cdot * [1*u1;1];
f = @(t, y) [d*(y(2)-y(1));(y(1)-m)/1];
figure (1)
vectfield(f, m-2.5:.25:m+2.5, m-2.5:.25:m+2.5)
xlabel('p')
ylabel ('e')
title ('Saddle Behavior: Phase Plane and Unstable Manifold')
hold on
plot([m-2.5,m+2.5],[0,0],'-k')
plot([0,0],[m-2.5,m+2.5],'-k')
plot(10.*[-l*u1, l*u1]+m, 10.*[-1, 1]+m, '-k')
plot(10.*[-l*u2, l*u2]+m, 10.*[-1, 1]+m, '-k')
for y_{20} = 0.4:0.1:1.2
  [ts, ys] = ode45(f, [0, 10], [1*u1; y20]+m);
  plot(ys(:,1), ys(:,2))
  scatter (ys(1,1), ys(1,2), 'o')
end
axis ([m-2.5 m+2.5 m-2.5 m+2.5])
hold off
figure (2)
vectfield(f, m-2.5:.25:m+2.5, m-2.5:.25:m+2.5)
xlabel('p')
ylabel('e')
```

```
title ('Saddle Behavior: Phase Plane and Stable Manifold')
hold on
plot ([m-2.5,m+2.5],[0,0],'-k')
plot([0,0],[m-2.5,m+2.5],'-k')
plot(10.*[-l*u1, l*u1]+m, 10.*[-1, 1]+m, '-k')
plot(10.*[-l*u2, l*u2]+m, 10.*[-1, 1]+m, '-k')
for y_{20} = 0.4:0.1:1.2
  [ts, ys] = ode45(f, [0, 10], [1*u2; y20]+m);
  plot(ys(:,1), ys(:,2))
  scatter (ys(1,1), ys(1,2), o')
end
axis ([m-2.5 m+2.5 m-2.5 m+2.5])
hold off
%vectfield vector field for system of 2 first order ODEs
%
    vectfield (func, v1val, v2val) plots the vector field for the system of
%
    two first order ODEs given by func, using the grid of y1val and
%
    y2 values given by the vectors y1val and y2val. func is either a
%
    the name of an inline function of two variables, or a string
%
    with the name of an m-file.
%
    By default, t=0 is used in func. A t value can be specified as an
%
    additional argument: vectfield (func, y1val, y2val, t)
function vectfield (func, y1val, y2val, t)
if nargin==3
  t = 0;
end
n1=length(y1val);
n2 = length(y2val);
vp1=zeros(n2,n1);
yp2=zeros(n2,n1);
for i=1:n1
  for j=1:n2
    ypv = feval(func, t, [y1val(i); y2val(j)]);
    yp1(j, i) = ypv(1);
    yp2(j, i) = ypv(2);
  end
end
quiver(y1val,y2val,yp1,yp2,'r');
axis tight;
%vectfieldn
              vector field for system of 2 first order ODEs,
%
              with arrows normalized to the same length
%
    vectfield (func, y1val, y2val) plots the vector field for the system of
%
    two first order ODEs given by func, using the grid of y1val and
%
    y2 values given by the vectors y1val and y2val. func is either a
%
    the name of an inline function of two variables, or a string
%
    with the name of an m-file.
%
    By default, t=0 is used in func. A t value can be specified as an
%
    additional argument: vectfield (func, y1val, y2val, t)
function vectfieldn (func, y1val, y2val, t)
```

```
if nargin==3
  t = 0;
end
n1 = length(y1val);
n2 = length(y2val);
yp1=zeros(n2,n1);
yp2=zeros(n2,n1);
for i=1:n1
  for j=1:n2
    ypv = feval(func, t, [y1val(i); y2val(j)]);
    yp1(j,i) = ypv(1);
    yp2(j, i) = ypv(2);
  end
end
len = sqrt(yp1.^2 + yp2.^2);
quiver (y1val, y2val, yp1./len, yp2./len, .6, 'r');
axis tight;
```

6.3 Asada's Nonlinear Map

Plots % Models 2D clcclear close all; h = .001;m = 2;d = 3;rf = 0;eo = 1.1;ar = 3;u = 1.3;g = .9;yb = 2; Bp = .3;Be = 10;BBe = 10;ph = .8;

% Equilibrium points $z1 = Bp*d/2+sqrt((Bp*d)^2+4*Bp*d/ar)/2;$ y1 = (rf+z1*(eo-(-u/d-(g-1)*yb/d))-(ph*yb-m)/ar)/(1/ar+z1);x1 = y1 - u/d - (g-1)*yb/d;

 $z2 = Bp*d/2-sqrt((Bp*d)^2+4*Bp*d/ar)/2;$

```
Xo1 = [x1; y1; z1] - h;
Xo2 = [x2; y2; z2] - h;
Xo1h2 = Xo1 -h;
Xo2h2 = Xo2-h;
t = [0:.01:100];
f = @(t,X) [Be*(rf+X(3)*(eo-X(1))-(ph*yb+X(2)-m)/ar);...
             Bp*((g-1)*yb+d*(X(1)-X(2))+u);...
             BBe*(Bp*d*(1+1/(ar*X(3)))-X(3))];
[T1, X1] = ode45(f, t, Xo1);
[T2, X1h2] = ode45(f, t, Xo1h2);
N = numel(X1(:, 1));
dX1 = zeros(N,3);
for i = 1:N
    dX1(i,:) = f(1,X1(i,:));
end
figure (1)
plot(T1, X1(:, 1))
hold on
plot(T1, X1h2(:, 1))
xlabel('T')
ylabel('Exchange rate (e)')
title ('Overshooting and orbiting around Equilibrium: e vs t')
hold off
figure (2)
plot(T1, X1(:, 2))
hold on
plot(T1, X1h2(:, 2))
xlabel('T')
ylabel('Price Level')
title('Lagging Price fluctuations: p vs t')
hold off
figure (3)
plot(T1, X1(:, 2))
hold on
plot(T1, X1h2(:, 2))
xlabel('T')
ylabel('\ beta_{\ epsilon} } (Expectations Parameter)')
title('Changing expectations: \beta_{\epsilon} vs t')
hold off
```

```
% Time Delay Embedding

M = 900; % how many points

sp = 100; % spacing between points

figure (4)

plot3 (X1(N-(M+2*sp):N-2*sp,1),X1(N-(M+sp):N-sp,1),X1(N-M:N,1))

hold on

scatter3 ([X1(N-(M+2*sp),1) X1(N-2*sp,1)],[X1(N-(M+sp),1) X1(N-sp,1)],[X1(N-M,1) X1(N-sp,1)],[X1(N
```

```
% figure(9)
% plot(T,X1(:,1))
% xlabel('T')
% ylabel('Exchange rate (e)')
% title('Close to stable manifold (roundoff error): e vs p')
```

```
Modified lyapflow codes:
```

```
% lyapunov exponents in a flow in R<sup>3</sup>, eg Lorenz attractor
% Needs the function lorenz_time1map.m which returns the time-1 map
% barnett 11/19/07
clear
close all;
clc
```

```
% My additions
h = .01; \% .01
m = 2; \%2
d = 3; \%3
rf = 0; \% 0
eo = 1.1; \% 1.1
ar = 3; \%3
u = 1.3; \% 1.3
g = .9; \% .9
yb = 2; \% 2
Bp = .1; \%.1
Be = 10; \%10, good .001
BBe = 10; \%10
ph = .8; \%.8
c = [m;
   d ;
```

rf; eo; ar; u; g;yb; Bp; Be; BBe; ph];% Equilibrium points $z1 = Bp*d/2+sqrt((Bp*d)^2+4*Bp*d/ar)/2;$ y1 = (rf+z1*(eo-(-u/d-(g-1)*yb/d))-(ph*yb-m)/ar)/(1/ar+z1);x1 = y1 - u/d - (g-1)*yb/d; $z_{2} = Bp*d/2 - sqrt((Bp*d)^{2} + 4*Bp*d/ar)/2;$ y2 = (rf+z2*(eo-(-u/d-(g-1)*yb/d))-(ph*yb-m)/ar)/(1/ar+z2); $x^2 = y^2 - u/d - (g-1)*yb/d;$

% Measure Lyapunov exponents... % ----- Re-orthogonalizing version, repeated averaging M = 20;% how many averaging loops N = 50;% how many its per meas step x = Xo1;h = zeros(3,1);% place to store averaged lyap exps for m=1:M J = eye(3);% Id is where Jacobean starts for n=1:N $[x Jx] = exlorenz_time1map(x,c);$ J = Jx * J: % update Jacobean [Q,R] = qr(J);% re-orthogonalize % but keep them correct lengths J = Q * diag(diag(R));end rN = abs(diag(R))% print out progress % sum up lyap exps from each run $h = h + \log(rN)/N;$ end % final answer: mean (over runs) of lyap exps h = h/M

% you can see the middle lyap exp is v close to 0 - in fact all flows have % a zero exponent if they are bounded and hit no equilibrium points.

%exlorenz_time1map.m

function $[x, DFx] = exlorenz_time1map(xo, c)$ % evolve Lorenz flow for 1 time unit, including finding the jacobean matrix

```
m = c(1);
     d=c(2);
     r f = c (3);
     eo = c(4);
     ar = c(5);
     u = c(6);
     g = c(7);
     yb=c(8);
     Bp=c(9);
     Be=c(10);
     BBe=c(11);
     ph=c(12);
F = @(t,X) [Be*(rf+X(3)*(eo-X(1)) - (ph*yb+X(2)-m)/ar);...
             Bp*((g-1)*yb+d*(X(1)-X(2))+u);...
             BBe*(Bp*d*(1+1/(ar*X(3)))-X(3))]; \% vec flow field
Df = @(y) [-Be*y(3) -Be/ar Be*(eo-y(1));...
            Bp*d - Bp*d 0; \ldots
            0 0 BBe*(-Bp*d/(ar*y(3)^2)-1); % DF at y
```

J0 = eye(3); % initial Jac matrix

% 12-component ODE flow given by 3 components of solution and 9 components % of the J matrix (J satisfies the ODE dJ/dt = Df.J) $G = @(t,z) [F(t,z(1:3,:)); Df(z(1:3,:))*z(4:6,:); Df(z(1:3,:))*z(7:9,:); \dots$ Df(z(1:3,:))*z(10:12,:)];[ts, xs] = ode45(G, [0 1], [xo; J0(:)], odeset('abstol', 1e-3)); % numerically solve in t domain x = reshape(xs(end,1:3), [3,1]); % extract the answer at the final time t=1 J = xs(end,4:end); % same for the J components DFx = reshape(J,[3 3]); % send J out as a 3x3 matrix.

6.4 Real Data Plots

% math exp with dollar yen % data from http://fxtop.com/en/historical-exchange-rates.php?A=1&C1=USD&C2=JPY clear clc close all; M = [122.50176]120.022268 120.175646 123.128729 123.397559123.730861 120.87394119.617625 120.340684118.671782 118.279355119.263228 116.282652 107.989769 107.283792 102.966938 101.723027 102.056261 101.763971 102.530867 102.354868 102.019534 103.942137 103.385798 100.028352 97.781882 99.203056 97.93082799.695216 97.366185

```
\begin{array}{c} 101.018171\\ 97.904468\\ 94.869816\end{array}
```

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89.047084
83.612486
81 017717
78 081006
78.381330
78.602062
78.092903
78.985946
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79.72825
81.296217
82.477133
78.458511
76.967734
77.811325
77.470746
76.653714
76.79352
76.995641
79 402519
80 448579
81 174027
01.174907
03.391242
81.724659
82.625214
82.628231
83.290905
82.513022
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85.332527
87.541869
90.919565
92 150954
93 48913
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120.449895
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357.425501357.055715357.279053357.28324357.312873 357.961206357.665591 357.561898357.651666357.882079358.097067 359.326465 358.802558 358.890533358.029968357.581236 357.613592 357.743517 357.645345;

```
z1 = M(1:numel(M) - 2);
z_2 = M(2:numel(M)-1);
z3 = M(3:numel(M));
w = zeros(numel(M) - 8, 1);
for i = 5:numel(M)-4
    a = (M(i-4)+M(i-3)+M(i-2)+M(i-1)+M(i)+M(i+1)+M(i+2)+M(i+3)+M(i+4))/9;
    w(i-4) = M(i)-a;
end
sp = 1;
w1 = w(1:numel(w)-2*sp);
w2 = w(1+sp:numel(w)-sp);
w3 = w(1+2*sp:numel(w));
figure (1)
scatter3(z1, z2, z3)
xlabel('z_{n}')
ylabel ('z_{-}{n+1}')
zlabel ('z_{-}{n+2}')
figure (2)
plot(0:numel(M)-1,M)
figure (3)
scatter3(w1,w2,w3)
xlabel('w_{-}\{n\}')
ylabel('w_{-}\{n+1\}')
zlabel('w_{-}\{n+2\}')
```

```
numel(w)
numel(M(5:numel(M)-4))
figure(4)
scatter3(M(5:numel(M)-4),w,M(6:numel(M)-3))
```

```
 xlabel('z_{-}{n}') 
ylabel('w_{-}{n}') 
zlabel('z_{-}{n+1}')
```

numel(M)