

# Computational Methods for Dynamic Equilibria with Heterogeneous Agents

Kenneth L. Judd      Felix Kubler      Karl Schmedders

Hoover Institution   Stanford University   MEDS-KGSM

## Computational Methods

- A Natural Part of Econometrics as defined by Frisch
  - “.. as long as we confine ourselves to statements in general terms about one economic factor having an effect on some other factor, almost any sort of relationship may be selected..”
  - Economic analysis requires a comparison of magnitudes of complex interactions operating in all directions.
  - “Mathematics is indispensable ... necessary for discussing issues safely and consistently”
- Computational methods are necessary to examine the complex relationships in modern dynamic stochastic models.
- Early methods
  - Based on economically intuitive stories, such as tattonnement
  - Suffered from many problems - poor convergence properties, low accuracy
- The past decade
  - A substantial influx of mathematical technique
  - Development of faster and more reliable methods for dynamic economic models
- Our objective
  - Give an overview of some of the key ideas
  - Give examples of their advantages.

## Perfect Foresight Models

- Canonical model

$$g(t, x_t, x_{t+1}) = 0, \quad t = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (1)$$

- Fair-Taylor (Ecm., 1983)

- A Gauss-Jacobi scheme: Given a guess for  $x_{t+1}$ , use time  $t$  equation to find new guess for  $x_t$
- Slow, possibly nonconvergent; loose accuracy

- L-B-J (see Boucekkine, (JEDC, 1995), and Juillard et al (JEDC, 1998))

- Jacobian is sparse since time  $t$  equation depends on only  $(x_t, x_{t+1})$

$$J(x) = \begin{pmatrix} g_2(1, x_1, x_2) & g_3(1, x_1, x_2) & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & g_2(2, x_2, x_3) & g_3(2, x_2, x_3) & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & g_2(3, x_3, x_4) & g_3(3, x_3, x_4) & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & g_2(4, x_4, x_5) & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

- Use sparse Newton method from literature on solving large systems
- Far faster than Fair-Taylor

- Gilli - Paultetto (JEDC, 1998)
  - Inverting even sparse matrices is difficult
  - Use Krylov methods to invert Jacobian in a Newton scheme
- Judd (2000) - parametric path method
  - Observe that solutions tend to be smooth in  $t$
  - Approximate  $x_t$  with a polynomial-exponential expression in  $t$

$$\left( \sum_{i=0}^N a_i t^i \right) e^{-\lambda t} + x^* (1 - e^{-\lambda t}) \quad (3)$$

- Use orthogonal polynomial, integration ideas to find a good subset of  $M > N$  equations

$$g(t_j, x_{t_j}, x_{t_{j+1}}) = 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, M \quad (4)$$

- Use this subset to solve for coefficients (use overidentification method)
- Conclusion: Application of methods for solving large nonlinear systems have produced faster and more reliable solution methods for perfect foresight models.

## Projection Methods

- The mathematical literature on projection methods (also called method of weighted residuals) provides us with a framework for describing many algorithms for solving dynamic economic models.

- Simple One-Agent Example

$$\begin{aligned} u'_i(C(k, \theta)) &= \beta E \{u'(C(k^+, \tilde{\theta}))R(k^+, \tilde{\theta}) \mid \theta\} \\ k^+ &= F(k, \theta) - C(k, \theta) \end{aligned}$$

- Step 0: Choose function to approximate

- $C(k, \theta)$  is natural here
- Wright and Williams (1982): approximate conditional expectation function, a smoother function.

- Approximate  $C(k, \theta)$

- Polynomial in  $(k, \theta)$  or  $(\log k, \log \theta)$  or etc.
- Orthogonal polynomials

$$\widehat{C}(k, \theta) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \varphi_i(k, \theta) \tag{5}$$

- Define residual of the approximation

$$R(k, \theta; a) = u'_i(\widehat{C}(k, \theta; a)) - \beta E \{u'(\widehat{C}(k^+, \tilde{\theta}; a))R(k^+, \tilde{\theta}) \mid \theta\} \tag{6}$$

- Replace conditional expectation with a numerical approximation

- Gaussian quadrature, monomial rules
- Monte Carlo, quasi-Monte Carlo

- Define (and numerically approximate) projection conditions relative to a set of test functions  $p_i(\cdot)$ :

$$P_i(a) \equiv \langle R(\cdot; a), p_i(\cdot) \rangle_2, i = 1, \dots, n. \quad (7)$$

- Solve projection conditions

$$P_i(a) \equiv 0, i = 1, \dots, n. \quad (8)$$

- Tatonnement or learning story
  - Solve backwards from some fixed date
  - Newton's method
  - Homotopy or Scarf method
- Test candidate solution  $a^*$  by computing some test norm with high accuracy
    - Judd (1992) computes  $\|R(k, \theta; a)\|_p$  using deterministic quadrature for  $p = 1, 2, \infty$
    - den Haan and Marcet (1994) computes moments of  $R(k_t, \theta_t; a^*)$  in Monte Carlo simulations

## Models with Many Agents

- Simple Two-Agent Growth Example, common preferences

$$\begin{aligned}
 u'_i(C^i(k_1, k_2)) &= \beta u'(C^i(k_1^+, k_2^+))R(k^+), \quad i = 1, 2 \\
 k_i^+ &= Y^i(k) - C^i(k), \quad i = 1, 2 \\
 Y^i(k) &= k_i R(k) + w(k), \quad i = 1, 2 \\
 R(k) &= F'(k_1 + k_2) \\
 w(k) &= F(k_1 + k_2) - (k_1 + k_2)F_k(k_1 + k_2)
 \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

- Same procedure as with one agent, just with more Euler equations and more consumption functions

– Tensor product approximation of  $C^i(k_1, k_2, \theta)$

$$C^i(k; a) \doteq \sum_{j_1=0}^{J_1} \sum_{j_2=0}^{J_2} a_{j_1 j_2}^i k_1^{j_1} k_2^{j_2}, \quad i = 1, 2 \tag{10}$$

– complete polynomial approximation

$$C^i(k; a) \doteq \sum_{\substack{0 \leq j_1 + j_2 \leq d \\ 0 \leq j_1, j_2 \leq d}} a_{j_1 j_2}^i k_1^{j_1} k_2^{j_2}, \quad i = 1, 2 \tag{11}$$

- Suppose we had  $m$  agents (See Gaspar and Judd (1997))

–  $c_i$  depends on  $k_i$  and other  $k$ 's but symmetrically, so

$$C^m(k; a) \doteq \sum_{\substack{0 \leq i+j \leq d \\ 0 \leq i, j \leq d}} a_{i,j} k_m^i \varphi_j(k_1, \dots, k_{m-1}, k_{m+1}, \dots, k_n) \quad (12)$$

where  $\phi_j(k_{-i})$  is a symmetric polynomial

– Linear and quadratic symmetric polynomials are

$$\begin{aligned} &x + y + \dots + z \\ &x^2 + y^2 + \dots + z^2 \\ &(x + y + \dots + z)^2 \end{aligned}$$

and cubic ones are

$$\begin{aligned} &x^3 + y^3 + \dots + z^3 \\ &x^2y + x^2z + \dots + y^2z + \dots \\ &(x + y + \dots + z)^3 \end{aligned}$$



- Suppose we had a continuum of agents.
  - Krusell and Smith (1997) use approximation

$$C_i(k; a) \doteq \sum_{\substack{0 \leq i+j \leq d \\ 0 \leq i, j \leq d}} a_{i,j} k_m^i f(\mu, \sigma^2) \quad (13)$$

which is a symmetric polynomial with a continuum of variables

- den Haan (1997) parameterizes the distribution of wealth more flexibly than just mean and variance

$$F(k) \doteq \exp \left( \sum_{i=0}^N b_i k^i \right)$$

$$C_i(k; a) \doteq \sum_{\substack{0 \leq i+j \leq d \\ 0 \leq i, j \leq d}} a_{i,j} k_m^i f(b)$$

den Haan (2000) shows that more flexibility is needed sometimes.

- Define and solve projection conditions

$$P_i(a) \equiv 0, i = 1, \dots, n. \quad (14)$$

- Test candidate solution  $a^*$  by computing some test norm with high accuracy

## Incomplete Asset Markets: A Competitive Example

- Basic Problem
  - Two Agents, with idiosyncratic Markovian endowment risk
  - Two assets (a stock and a bond)
- Heaton and Lucas (1996)
  - Discretized asset space ( $30 \times 30$ )
  - Solve backwards in time
  - Converged, computed two-digit accuracy (on average) in market-clearing price
- Marcet and Singleton (1999)
  - Parameterized conditional expectation with low-order polynomial
  - Use learning iteration
  - Report convergence problems
- Judd, Kubler, and Schmedders (1999)
  - Use cubic splines to approximate consumption, investment, and price laws
  - Use homotopy methods to compute state-specific equilibria
  - Backward-in-time method, converged - relatively rapidly
  - Euler equation residuals on order of 1 in 10,000

- General problems
  - Must impose some kind of asset constraint
    - \* Portfolios tend to wander in equilibrium with incomplete assets
    - \* Shorting constraints are natural but they create kinks in policies and conditional expectations
  - Arbitrage problems
    - \* Algorithms search price space
    - \* Some guesses imply arbitrage opportunities, undefined demand
  - Ill-conditioning problems
    - \* Bonds and equities tend to be good substitutes
    - \* Jacobian of demand function is ill-conditioned
    - \* Need to use algorithm which can handle ill-conditioning - homotopy methods, TENSOLVE

## Time Consistency Problems: A Strategic Example

- Basic Problem
  - Government's future actions affect current private behavior
  - Government cannot commit
- General approach
  - Strategic agents have value functions,  $V^i(x)$ , and Bellman equations
 
$$V^i(x, u) = \max_{u_i} \pi(u, x) + \beta V^i(f(x, u)), \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (15)$$
  - Competitive agents have policy functions for decision rules given by Euler equations which determine the law of motion  $f(x, u)$
  - Method: parameterize value functions and competitive agents decision rules
- Early Computational Examples
  - Gov't oil storage vs. private storage: Williams and Wright (Bell, 1982)
  - Approximate private and gov't decision rules: WW used degree 6 polynomials.
  - Similarly in Kotlikoff-Shoven-Spivak (1986) computation of strategic bequests.
  - Low accuracy level (two digits) and slow
- Recent examples of time consistency computations
  - Miranda and Rui (1996): strategic storage game between producers of a commodity
  - Ha and Sibert (1997): strategic capital taxation game between countries with capital flows
  - Both used orthogonal polynomial and collocation methods to achieve higher accuracy in more complex models

## Perturbation and Asymptotic Methods

- General Problem

$$\begin{aligned} E \{g(x_t, y_t, x_{t+1}, y_{t+1}, \epsilon) | x_t\} &= 0 \\ x_{t+1} &= F(x_t, y_t, \epsilon z_t) \end{aligned} \tag{16}$$

with solution  $Y(x, \epsilon)$

$$E \{g(x, Y(x, \epsilon), F(x, Y(x, \epsilon), \epsilon z), Y(F(x, Y(x, \epsilon), \epsilon z), \epsilon)) | x\} \doteq 0 \tag{17}$$

- Compute steady state

$$\begin{aligned} g(x^*, y^*, x^*, y^*, 0) &= 0 \\ x^* &= F(x^*, y^*, 0) \end{aligned}$$

- Construct Taylor series approximation

$$Y(x, \epsilon) \doteq y^* + Y_x(x, 0)(x - x^*) + Y_\epsilon(x, 0)\epsilon + (x - x^*)' Y_{xx}(x, 0)(x - x^*) + \dots \tag{18}$$

- Magill and usual linearization method

- Replaced nonlinear problem with a LQ example with same local deterministic dynamics
- RBC models use special case of Magill expositied in Kydland-Prescott
- Certainty equivalent, hence only valid for variance approximations, not means or utility. Computes only

$$Y(x, \epsilon) \doteq y^* + Y_x(x, 0)(x - x^*) \tag{19}$$

ignoring first order term  $Y_\epsilon(x, 0)\epsilon$  as well as higher-order terms.

- Only local validity

- Want higher-order approximations
  - Linear approximations often do poorly away from deterministic steady state
  - Linear approximations implicitly assume quadratic utility, which has unappealing properties: e.g., increasing ARA
- Mathematics literature
  - Can compute high-order Taylor series approximation
  - Can compute certainty nonequivalent methods
- Recent applications
  - Judd and Guu (1993) show how to use perturbation methods to solve simple one sector optima growth problems.
  - Gaspar and Judd (1997) apply perturbation methods to optimal control problems.
  - Zadrozny and Chen (2000), and Collard, Fève, and Juillard (2000) examine general rational expectations models.
  - Mrkaic (1998) uses perturbation methods to evaluate some econometric procedure.

## Bifurcation Methods for Small Noise Portfolio Problems

- Suppose there are assets
  - Demand at  $\sigma^2 = 0$  is not well-defined since all assets are substitutes
  - “Deterministic steady state” is not well-defined
  - Linear-quadratic examples do not do well - Kim-Kim (1999)
  - Campbell - proposes an ad hoc procedure

- Bifurcation methods

- Parameterize simple one-period portfolio problem

$$Z = R + \epsilon z + \epsilon^2 \pi, \tag{20}$$

- First-order condition

$$0 = E\{u'(R + \omega(\epsilon z + \epsilon^2 \pi)) (z + 2\epsilon \pi)\} \equiv G(\omega, \epsilon). \tag{21}$$

- $\omega$  is indeterminate at  $\epsilon = 0$  since

$$0 = G(\omega, 0), \forall \omega. \tag{22}$$

- Implicit differentiation implies that

$$0 = G_\omega \omega' + G_\epsilon. \tag{23}$$

but appears invalid since  $G_\omega = 0$

- L'Hospital's rule says that if  $G_\omega(\omega(0), 0) = 0$  then

$$\omega'(0) = -\frac{G_{\epsilon\epsilon}(\omega(0), 0)}{G_{\omega\epsilon}(\omega(0), 0)} \tag{24}$$

- Bifurcation theory says choose  $\omega(0)$  so that  $G_\omega(\omega(0), 0) = 0$ , and use L'Hospital's rule (and multidimensional extensions) to compute Taylor series of  $\omega(\epsilon)$
- Can be used to compute asset market equilibrium with small noise and multiple investors - see Judd and Guu (2000)

## Conclusions

- There is steady progress in computing equilibria in markets with several agents
- Key tools
  - Exploitation of approximation theory
  - Methods for solving large systems
- Tractable problems
  - Dynamic markets with complete or incomplete asset markets
  - Strategic interactions, such as time inconsistency problems
- Further progress is likely
  - Integration of symbolic and numerical methods make perturbation methods more tractable
  - More advanced integration methods make higher-dimensional problems more tractable