

*Numerical Methods in Economics*

MIT Press, 1998

**Notes for Chapter 5: Nonlinear Equations**

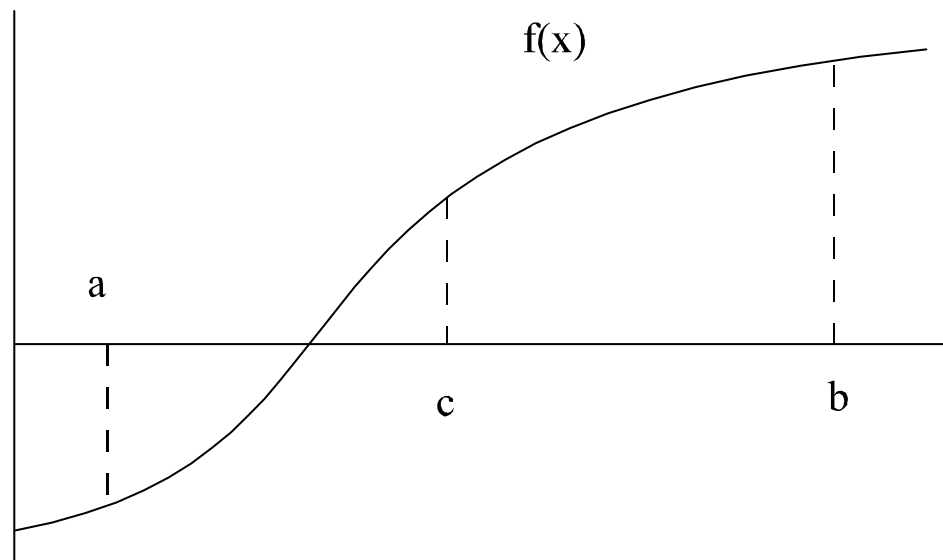
October 7, 2007

# Nonlinear Equations

- Two forms of equations: zeros and fixed points of  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ 
  - A *zero of  $f$*  is any  $x$  such that  $f(x) = 0$
  - A *fixed point of  $f$*  is any  $x$  such that  $f(x) = x$ .
  - Note:  $x$  is a fixed point of  $f(x)$  iff it is a zero of  $f(x) - x$ .
- Existence of solutions is examined in Brouwer's theorem and its extensions.
- Examples
  - Arrow-Debreu general equilibrium: find a price at which excess demand is zero
  - Nash equilibrium of games with continuous strategies
  - Transition paths of deterministic dynamic systems
  - Approximate policy functions in nonlinear dynamic problems

## One-Dimensional Problems: Bisection

- Suppose that  $f(a) < 0 < f(b)$
- Step 1: Pick a point  $c \in (a, b)$ 
  - If  $f(c) = 0$ , stop
  - If  $f(c) < 0$ , reduce interval to  $(c, b)$
  - If  $f(c) > 0$ , reduce interval to  $(a, c)$
- Repeat



# One-Dimensional Problems: Newton's Method

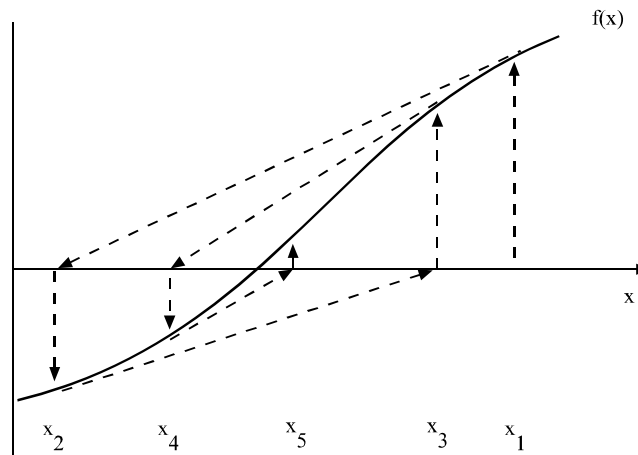
- Given guess  $x_k$ , compute linear approximation

$$f(x) \doteq f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x - x_k)$$

and let  $x_{k+1}$  be zero of linear approximation:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)} \tag{5.2.1}$$

- Graph of Newton's method:



- Convergence: Suppose  $f$  is  $C^2$  and  $f(x^*) = 0$ . If  $x_0$  is close to  $x^*$ ,  $f'(x^*) \neq 0$ , and  $|f''(x^*)/f'(x^*)| < \infty$ , then (5.2.1) converges to  $x^*$  quadratically; that is,

$$\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - x^*|}{|x_k - x^*|^2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{|f''(x^*)|}{|f'(x^*)|} < \infty . \tag{5.2.2}$$

## Pathological Examples

- Newton's method works well when it works, but it can fail.
- Example:  $f(x) = x^{1/3}e^{-x^2}$ .

– Unique zero of  $f$  is at  $x = 0$ .

– Newton's method is

$$x_{n+1} = x_n \left( 1 - \frac{3}{1 - 6x_n^2} \right) \quad (5.2.4)$$

which has two pathologies.

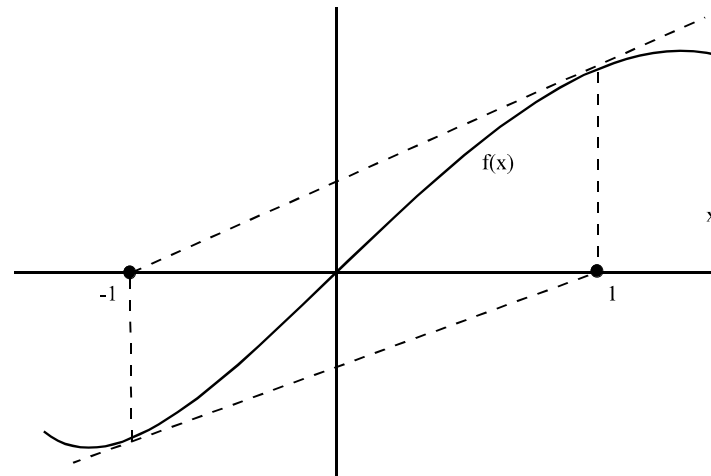
\* For  $x_n$  small, (5.2.4) reduces to  $x_{n+1} = -2x_n$ ; hence, (5.2.4) converges to 0 only if  $x_0 = 0$  is the initial guess.

\* For  $x_n$  large, (5.2.4) becomes  $x_{n+1} = x_n(1 + \frac{2}{x_n^2})$ , which diverges, but will eventually satisfy stopping rule at some large  $x_n$ .

– Divergence due to  $f''(0)/f'(0) = \infty$

– “Convergence” arises because  $e^{-x^2}$  factor squashes  $f$  at large  $x$ ; in some sense, since  $f(\pm\infty) = 0$ .

- Example: convergence to a cycle:



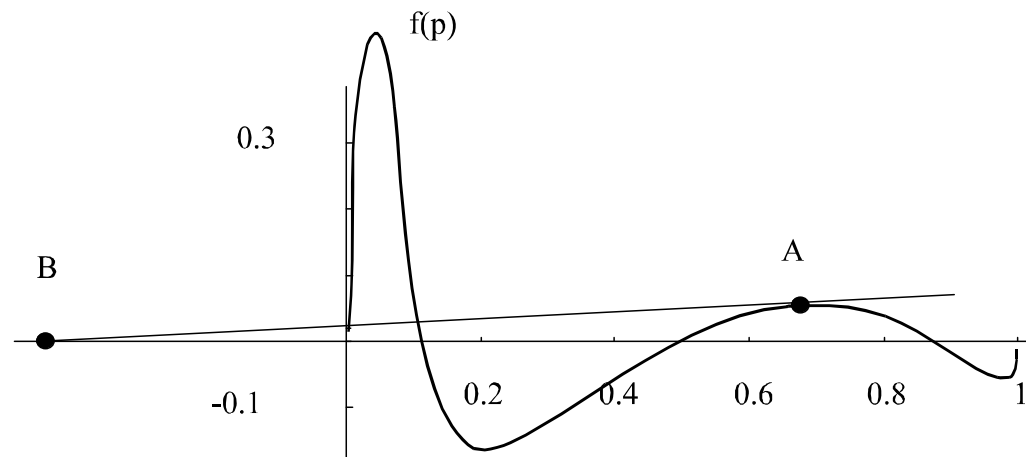
## A General Equilibrium Example

- Demand function is

$$d_j^i(p) = \theta_j^i I^i p_j^{-\eta_i}$$
$$\theta_j^i \equiv (a_j^i)^{\eta_i} / \sum_{\ell=1}^2 (a_\ell^i)^{\eta_i} p_\ell^{(1-\eta_i)}$$

- Three equilibria: (0.5, 0.5), (0.1129, 0.8871), (0.8871, 0.1129).
- Reduce to a one-variable problem by  $p_2 = 1 - p_1$ , producing

$$f(p_1) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^2 d_1^i(p_1, 1 - p_1) - \sum_{i=1}^2 e_1^i = 0 \quad (5.2.6)$$



- Notice: Newton's method may send  $p$  negative.

## Secant Method

- Problem:  $f'(x)$  may be costly.
- Solution: *secant method* approximates  $f'(x_k)$  with secant of  $f$  between  $x_k$  and  $x_{k-1}$ :

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)(x_k - x_{k-1})}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})} \quad (5.3.1)$$

- Convergence: If  $f(x^*) = 0$ ,  $f'(x^*) \neq 0$ , and  $f''(x)$  is continuous near  $x^*$ , then (5.3.1) converges at rate  $(1 + \sqrt{5})/2$ , that is

$$\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - x^*|}{|x_k - x^*|^{(1+\sqrt{5})/2}} < \infty \quad (5.3.3)$$



## Multivariate Equations: Gauss-Jacobi Algorithm

- Suppose  $f : R^n \rightarrow R^n$ , and we want to solve  $f(x) = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f^1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0, \\ &\vdots \\ f^n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0. \end{aligned} \tag{5.4.1}$$

- Gauss-Jacobi method.

- Given  $k$ th iterate,  $x^k$ , use equation  $i$  to compute  $x_i^{k+1}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f^1(x_1^{k+1}, x_2^k, x_3^k, \dots, x_n^k) &= 0, \\ f^2(x_1^k, x_2^{k+1}, x_3^k, \dots, x_n^k) &= 0, \\ &\vdots \\ f^n(x_1^k, x_2^k, \dots, x_{n-1}^k, x_n^{k+1}) &= 0. \end{aligned} \tag{5.4.2}$$

- Gauss-Jacobi repeatedly solves  $n$  equations in one unknown.
- Gauss-Jacobi is affected by the indexing scheme.
  - \* Otherwise, there are  $n(n-1)/2$  different Gauss-Jacobi schemes.
  - \* Sometimes there is a natural scheme implying diagonal dominance (or, gross substitutes)
  - \* Strategy: choose indexing which makes Jacobian nearly diagonal

## Multivariate Equations: Gauss-Seidel Algorithm

- Gauss-Jacobi: use new guess of  $x_i$ ,  $x_i^{k+1}$ , only after we have computed the entire vector of new values,  $x^{k+1}$ .
- Gauss-Seidel: use new guess,  $x_i^{k+1}$ , as soon as it is available.
- Formal definition: construct  $x^{k+1}$  componentwise by solving

$$\begin{aligned} f^1(x_1^{k+1}, x_2^k, x_3^k, \dots, x_n^k) &= 0, \\ f^2(x_1^{k+1}, x_2^{k+1}, x_3^k, \dots, x_n^k) &= 0, \\ &\vdots \\ f^{n-1}(x_1^{k+1}, \dots, x_{n-2}^{k+1}, x_{n-1}^{k+1}, x_n^k) &= 0, \\ f^n(x_1^{k+1}, \dots, x_{n-2}^{k+1}, x_{n-1}^{k+1}, x_n^{k+1}) &= 0. \end{aligned} \tag{5.4.4}$$

- Both indexing and ordering matter in GS.
  - Back-substitution on triangular system is GS
  - Strategy: choose indexing and ordering which makes Jacobian nearly triangular

- Features of Gaussian methods:
  - Each step in GJ or GS is a nonlinear equation
    - \* Usually solved by some iterative method.
    - \* Economize on effort at each iteration with loose stopping rule.
  - Can apply extrapolation and acceleration methods
  - Can apply ideas at block level - “block GJ, block GS”
    - \* Find groups of variables and orderings such that Jacobian is nearly block diagonal or block triangular.
    - \* Example: in {apples, oranges, cheddar cheese, swiss cheese} problem, put cheeses in one block, fruit in the other, and use Newton to solve blocks
  - Convergence is at best linear
    - \* Discussion of convergence in chapter 3 applies here.
    - \* Key fact: for any  $x^{k+1} = G(x^k)$  the spectral radius of  $G_x(x^*)$  is asymptotic linear rate of convergence.

## Fixed-Point Iteration

- The simplest iterative method for solving  $x = f(x)$  is

$$x^{k+1} = f(x^k) \tag{5.4.8}$$

called fixed-point iteration; also known as *successive approximation*, *successive substitution*, or *function iteration*.

- Method is sensitive to transformations: Consider

$$x^3 - x - 1 = 0 \tag{5.3.3}$$

– Rewrite as  $x = (x + 1)^{1/3}$ ; then the iteration

$$x_{k+1} = (x_k + 1)^{1/3}. \tag{5.3.4}$$

converges to a solution of (5.3.3) if  $x_0 = 1$ .

– Rewrite (5.3.3) as  $x = x^3 - 1$ ; then the iteration

$$x_{k+1} = x_k^3 - 1 \tag{5.3.5}$$

diverges to  $-\infty$  if  $x_0 = 1$ .

- Naive implementations of the fixed-point iteration approach often fail.
- However, most algorithms have the form  $x_{k+1} = f(x_k)$ .
- Aim: construct fixed-point iteration which works.

## Contraction Mapping Case of Function Iteration

- For a special class of functions, fixed-point iteration will work well.
- A *differentiable contraction map on  $D$*  is any  $C^1$   $f : D \rightarrow R^n$  defined on a closed, bounded, convex set  $D \subset R^n$  such that

–  $f(D) \subset D$ , and

–  $\max_{x \in D} \| J(x) \|_\infty < 1$ ,  $J(x)$  is Jacobian of  $f$ .

- (*Contraction mapping theorem*) If  $f$  is a differentiable contraction map on  $D$ , then

–  $x = f(x)$  has a unique solution,  $x^* \in D$ ;

–  $x^{k+1} = f(x^k)$  converges to  $x^*$ ; and

– there is a sequence  $\epsilon_k \rightarrow 0$  such that

$$\| x^* - x^{k+1} \|_\infty \leq (\| J(x^*) \|_\infty + \epsilon_k) \| x^* - x^k \|_\infty$$

- If  $f(x^*) = x^*$ ,  $f$  is Lipschitz at  $x^*$ , and  $\rho(J(x^*)) < 1$ , then for  $x^0$  close to  $x^*$ ,  $x^{k+1} = f(x^k)$  is convergent.

# Stopping Rule Problems for Multivariate Systems

- Use ideas from chapter 1
- First, use a rule for stopping.
  - If we want  $\|x^k - x^*\| < \epsilon$ , we continue until  $\|x^{k+1} - x^k\| \leq (1 - \beta)\epsilon$  where  $\beta = \rho(G_x(x^*))$ .
  - Sometimes we know  $\beta$ , as with some contraction mappings
  - Otherwise, estimate  $\beta$  with

$$\hat{\beta} = \left( \frac{\|x^k - x^{k+1}\|}{\|x^{k-L} - x^{k+1}\|} \right)^{1/L}$$

for some  $L$ .

- Second, check that  $f(x^k)$  is close to zero.
  - Require that  $\|f(x^k)\| \leq \delta$  for some small  $\delta$ .
  - You should have each component of  $f$  small
  - Be careful about units; check should be unit-free
- $\delta$  and  $\epsilon$  should not be less than square root of error in computing  $f$ .

# Newton's Method for Multivariate Equations

- Sequential linear approximations:

- Replace  $f$  with a linear approximation at  $x^k$
- Solve linear approximation for  $x^{k+1}$

- Formally:

- Newton approx around  $x^k$  is  $f(x) \doteq f(x^k) + J(x^k)(x - x^k)$ .
- Zero of approx is

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - J(x^k)^{-1} f(x^k) \quad (5.5.1)$$

- Convergence: If  $f(x^*) = 0$ ,  $\det(J(x^*)) \neq 0$  and  $J(x)$  is Lipschitz near  $x^*$ , then for  $x^0$  near  $x^*$ , the sequence defined by (5.5.1) satisfies

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|x^{k+1} - x^*\|}{\|x^k - x^*\|^2} < \infty \quad (5.5.2)$$

- Problems with Newton method
  - Jacobian,  $J(x)$ , may be expensive to compute (but not if you use automatic differentiation)
  - May not converge
  - Should really be called the Newton-Raphson-Fourier-Simpson method
- Solutions
  - Broyden approximates  $J(x)$
  - Powell hybrid improves likelihood of convergence.
  - Homotopy methods will converge



## Secant Method (Broyden)

- Jacobian,  $J(x)$ , is costly to compute
  - Analytic expressions are difficult to compute
  - Finite-difference approximations require  $n^2$  evaluations of  $f$ .
- In  $R$ , we used the secant; can we do this for  $R^n$ ?
- Broyden method
  - Start with initial Jacobian guess,  $A_0$
  - Use  $A_k$  to compute the Newton step,  $s^k$ :  $A_k s^k = -f(x^k)$
  - Set  $x^{k+1} = x^k + s^k$ .
  - Choose  $A_{k+1}$  to be
    - \* close to  $A_k$
    - \* consistent with secant equation  $f(x^{k+1}) - f(x^k) = A_{k+1} s^k$
    - \* for any direction  $q$  orthogonal to  $s^k$ , want  $A_{k+1} q = A_k q$ , i.e., no change in directions orthogonal to Newton step

– Broyden update is

$$A_{k+1} = A_k + \frac{(y_k - A_k s^k) (s^k)^\top}{(s^k)^\top s^k}$$
$$y_k \equiv f(x^{k+1}) - f(x^k)$$

– Stop iteration when  $f(x^k)$  is close to zero, or when  $s^k$  is small.

– Convergence: There exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that if  $\|x^0 - x^*\| < \epsilon$  and  $\|A_0 - J(x^*)\| < \epsilon$ , then the Broyden method converges superlinearly.

– Key properties of Broyden versus Newton

\* Convergence asserted only  $x^k$ , not  $A_k$

\* Need good initial guess for  $A_0$

\* Each iteration of the Broyden method is cheap to compute

\* Broyden method will need more iterations than Newton's method.

\* For large systems, Broyden dominates

## Use Least Squares To Improve Chances of Convergence

- Nonlinear Equations as an optimization problem

- Any solution to  $f(x) = 0$  is a *global* solution of

$$0 = \min_x \sum_{i=1}^n f^i(x)^2 \equiv SSR(x) \quad (5.6.1)$$

- Benefits of (5.6.1)

- \* Can use optimization procedures
    - \* Will always converge to something
    - \* May give a good initial guess for any solver

- Problems with (5.6.1):

- \* Hessian is generally ill-conditioned; roughly equals the square of the condition number of  $J(x)$
    - \* (5.6.1) may have many local minima

- Powell's Hybrid Method

- Do Newton, except check if Newton step reduces the value of  $SSR(x)$

- If not, then switch to least squares

- Powell (1970) implemented procedure which avoids some conditioning problems of naive scheme.

# Simple Continuation Method

- Continuation idea

- Suppose that we

- \* want to solve  $f(x; t^*) = 0$

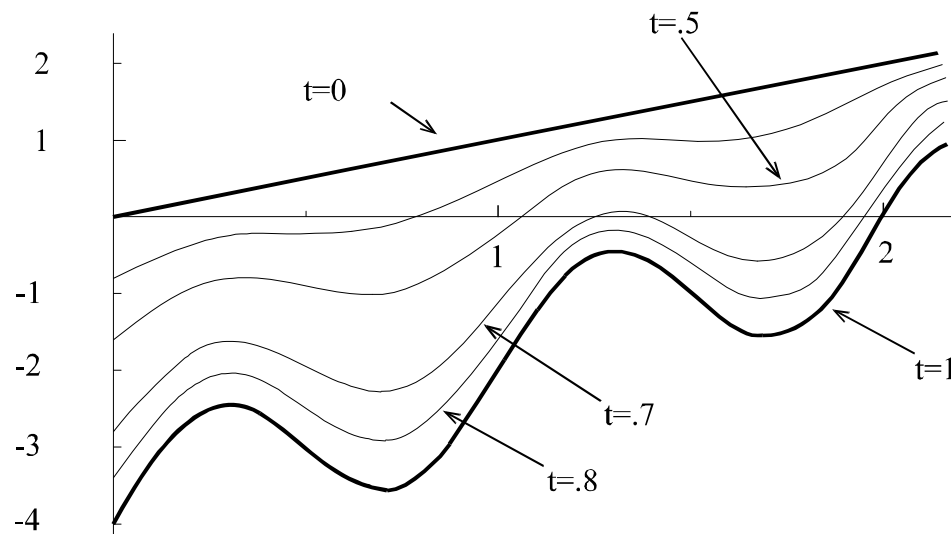
- \* know that  $x = x^0$  solves  $f(x; t^0) = 0$

- If  $t^*$  is near  $t^0$ , use

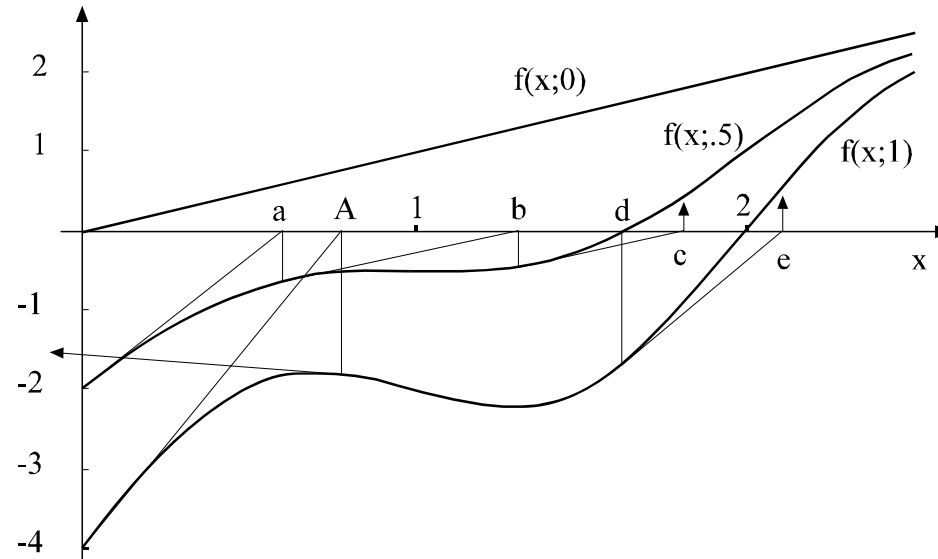
- \*  $x^0$  as initial guess in solving  $f(x; t^*) = 0$ .

- \* Jacobian of  $f(x; t^0)$  as initial guess for Jacobian of  $f(x; t^*)$  - a hot start

- If  $t^*$  is not close to  $t^0$ , construct sequence of problems  $f(x; t^i) = 0$ ,  $t^0 \approx t^1 \approx \dots \approx t^n \approx t^*$ .



- Continuation method often converges in problems where standard methods fail, but continuation may fail.



- Continuation method is an approach to mass production of solutions
  - Solve  $f(x; t^0) = 0$  - a fixed cost
  - Solve  $t$  sequence - a small (hopefully) marginal cost

## Homotopy Methods - Almost Sure Convergence

- Construct homotopy functions,  $H(x, t)$ ,  $H : R^{n+1} \rightarrow R^n$ ,  $H \in C^0(R^{n+1})$ , that continuously deforms  $g$  into  $f$ :

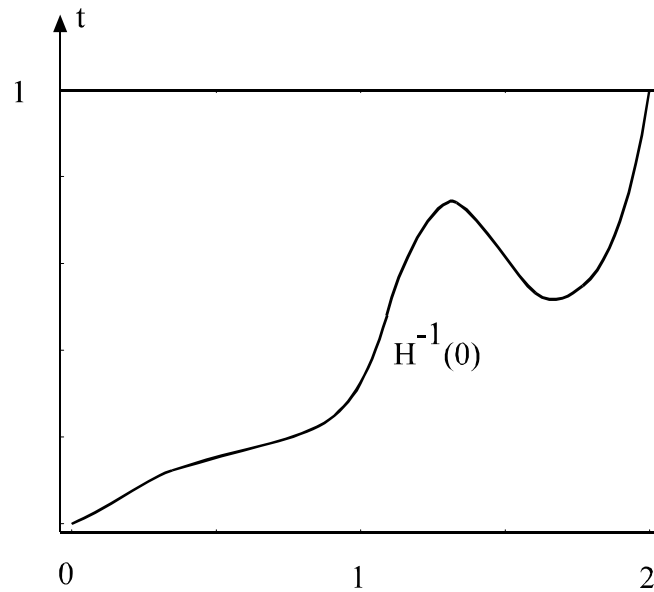
$$H(x, 0) = g(x), \quad H(x, 1) = f(x) \tag{5.9.1}$$

- $H(x, 0)$  should be a simple function with a unique, obvious zero
- $H(x, 1) = f(x)$
- *Newton homotopy*:  $H(x, t) = f(x) - (1 - t)f(x^0)$  for some  $x^0$ .
- *Fixed-point homotopy*:  $H(x, t) = (1 - t)(x - x^0) + tf(x)$  for some  $x^0$ .
- *Linear Homotopy*:  $H(x, t) = tf(x) + (1 - t)g(x)$

- Examine the set

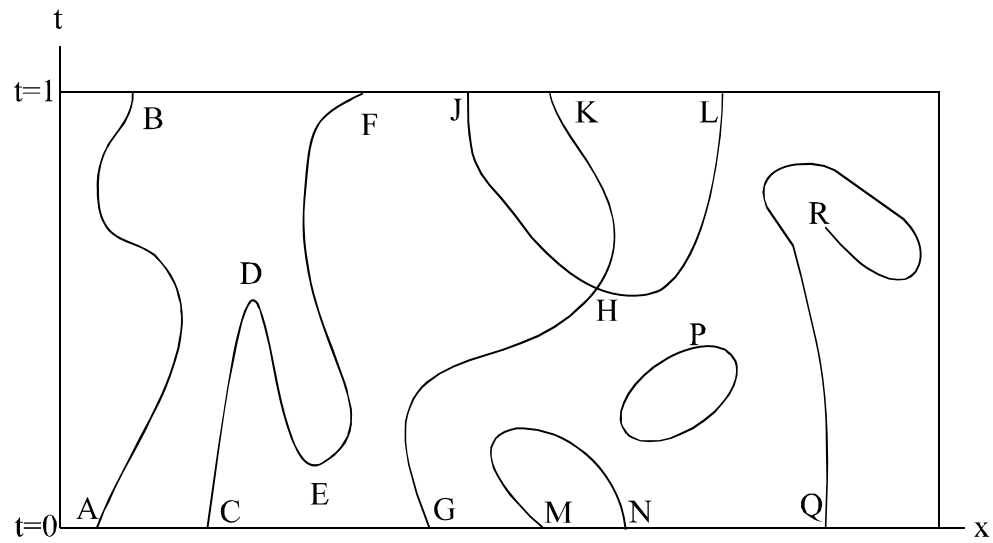
$$H^{-1}(0) = \{(x, t) \mid H(x, t) = 0\}$$

- Idea: trace out a path in  $H^{-1}(0)$  connecting zeros of  $H(x, 0)$  to zeros of  $f(x) = H(x, 1)$ .
- Continuation will fail in the sense that there is no nearby solution at some values of  $t$ , but homotopy aims at tracing out the path even as it turns down.



•  $H^{-1}(0)$  may not be simple; may have

- turning points
- branch points
- extraneous components





- Parametric approach

- $(x(s), t(s))$  traces path in  $(x, t)$  as function of parameter  $s$ .
- Implicit differentiation of  $H(x(s), t(s)) = 0$  w.r.t.  $s$  implies

$$\sum_{i=1}^n H_{x_i}(x(s), t(s))x'_i(s) + H_t(x(s), t(s))t'(s) = 0 \quad (5.9.3)$$

- Define  $y(s) = (x(s), t(s))$ ;  $y$  obeys

$$\frac{dy_i}{ds} = (-1)^i \det \left( \frac{\partial H}{\partial y} (y)_{-i} \right), \quad i = 1, \dots, n+1 \quad (5.9.4)$$

- Garcia and Zangwill (1981) call (5.9.4) the *basic differential equation*.
- (5.9.4) is defined only if  $H_y = (H_x, H_t)$  has full rank; i.e.,  $H$  is *regular*

- Good homotopy choices: some basic theorems

- Suppose that  $f \in C^2$ ,  $D$  compact with nonempty interior. Define

$$H(x, t) = (1 - t)(x - x^0) + tf(x).$$

- If  $H$  is regular, and  $H(x, t) \neq 0$  for all  $0 \leq t < 1$  and  $x \in \partial D$ , then  $f$  has a zero at the end of a path joining  $t = 0$  and  $t = 1$  in  $H^{-1}(0)$ .

- If  $B^n \equiv \{x \in R^n \mid |x| < 1\}$  and  $f : \overline{B^n} \rightarrow \overline{B^n}$  is  $C^1$ , then

$$H : B^n \times (0, 1) \times B^n \rightarrow R^n,$$

$$H(a, t, x) = (1 - t)(x - a) + t(x - f(x)),$$

- is regular and for almost all  $a \in B^n$ ,  $H^{-1}(0)$  is a smooth curve joining  $(0, a)$  to a fixed point of  $f$  at  $t = 1$ .

- There is an open and dense subset of  $C^2$  functions,  $\mathcal{F}$ , such that for  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $H^{-1}(0)$  is a smooth curve of  $H(x, t) = tf(x) - x$ .

- Simplicial methods (a.k.a. piecewise linear homotopy) are also useful.
- Practical adaptations
  - $H^{-1}(0)$  could have infinite length and oscillate as  $t \rightarrow 1$ ; not a major concern in practice
  - Could try more natural homotopies
    - \* Homotopy parameter could be taste parameters
    - \* Homotopy parameter could be an endowment parameter
    - \* Economically intuitive homotopies may lack theory but be better in practice
  - One often should switch to a Newton-style method after partially traversing  $H^{-1}(0)$ ; homotopy methods are only linearly convergent but should get close enough for Newton to work.

# CGE Problems

- Assume

- $m$  goods

- $n$  agents

- \* utility of type  $i$  is  $u^i(x)$ ,  $x \in R^m$ .

- \* endowment of good  $j$  for type  $i$  is  $e_j^i$ .

- Strategy of economic theory:

- First, construct demand function for each agent given prices  $p \in R^m$

$$\begin{aligned} d^i(p) = & \arg \max_x u^i(x) \\ \text{s.t. } & p \cdot (x - e^i) = 0, \end{aligned} \tag{5.10.1}$$

- Construct excess demand function:  $E(p) = \sum_i^n (d^i(p) - e^i)$ .

- Equilibrium is  $p \in R^m$  such that  $E(p) = 0$ .

- By degree zero homogeneity of  $d^i(p)$ , if  $E(p) = 0$  then  $E(\lambda p) = 0$  for any  $0 \neq \lambda \in R$ ; find equilibrium on unit simplex.

- To prove existence, construct  $g(p)$  on unit simplex

$$S^{m-1} = \left\{ p \left| \sum_{j=1}^m p_j = 1 \right. \right\}$$

such that  $E(p^*) \leq 0$  at any fixed point  $p^*$  of  $g(p)$ .

- Computation: Fixed-Point Iteration Method

- Define

$$g_j(p) = \frac{p_j + \max [0, E_j (p)]}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^m \max [0, E_j (p)]} \quad (5.10.2)$$

- Since  $g : S^{m-1} \rightarrow S^{m-1}$  is continuous, it has a fixed point.

- Could compute iteration  $p^{k+1} = g(p^k)$ .

- Easy if we have closed-form individual demand functions

- No need to compute Jacobians.

- Iterates stay in unit simplex.

- No assurance of convergence.

- Computation:  $E(p) = 0$  as a Zero Problem

- Send  $E(p) = 0$  to a nonlinear equation solver.
- Must consider degree zero homogeneity of  $E$ . Hence we solve is

$$\begin{aligned} E_1(p) &= 0, \\ &\vdots \\ E_{m-1}(p) &= 0, \\ \sum_{i=1}^m p_i &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

- Easy if we have closed-form individual demand functions
- Without closed-form expressions for  $d^i(p)$ , we compute  $d^i(p)$  numerically.
  - \* Easy problem: concave objective with linear constraint
  - \* However, numerical error in  $d^i(p)$  computation implies
    - Errors affect numerical approximation of Jacobians
    - Errors in  $d^i(p)$  means that convergence criterion for  $E(p) = 0$  must be relatively loose

- Computation: First-Order Conditions and Market Balance

- Create large system with individuals' first-order conditions and market equilibrium. In  $m$ -good,  $n$ -agent model

- \* First-order condition

$$u_j^i(x^i) = p_j \lambda^i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, \dots, m \quad (5.10.3)$$

- \* Budget constraint for each agent

$$p \cdot (x^i - e^i) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (5.10.4)$$

- \* Market balance for goods 1 through  $m - 1$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (x_j^i - e_j^i) = 0, \quad j = 1, \dots, m - 1 \quad (5.10.5)$$

- \* Simplex condition for prices

$$\sum_j p_j = 1 \quad (5.10.6)$$

- \* Unknowns are  $p$ ,  $x^i$ , and  $\lambda^i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

- System is large, but has a sparse Jacobian

- Computation: Negishi Method

- Key observations

- \* Any competitive equilibrium maximizes social welfare

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x^1, x^2, \dots} & \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda^i u^i(x^i), \\ \text{s.t.} & \sum_{i=1}^n (e^i - x^i) = 0. \end{aligned} \tag{5.10.7}$$

- for some weights,  $\lambda^i > 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

- \* Prices are proportional to marginal utilities since  $p_j/p_1 = u_j^i/u_1^i$

- \* Negishi approach to computing general equilibrium: Look for  $\lambda$  s.t. solution to (5.10.7) is equilibrium  $x^i$



– Algorithm:

\* For  $\lambda$  vector, compute  $X(\lambda) \in R^{m \times n}$  that solves (5.10.7).

\* Compute prices in unit simplex implied by  $X(\lambda)$

$$p_j = \frac{u_{x_j^1}(X^1(\lambda))}{\sum_{\ell=1}^m u_{x_\ell^1}(X^1(\lambda))} \equiv P_j(\lambda)$$

\* Compute, for each  $i$ , excess wealth  $W_i(\lambda) \equiv P(\lambda) \cdot (e^i - X^i(\lambda))$ .

\*  $P(\lambda)$  are equilibrium prices iff  $W_i(\lambda) = 0$

\* Negishi approach solves the system

$$W_i(\lambda) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \tag{5.10.8}$$

for  $\lambda$ , and then computes  $P(\lambda)$  to get equilibrium prices.

– Negishi approach is very good if there are  $n < m$

– Representative agent model is an example.