

Parameterized Expectations Algorithm

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Overview

- Two PEA algorithms
- Explaining simulations PEA
- Advantages and disadvantages
- Improvements of Maliar, Maliar & Judd
- PEA to introduce learning

Model

$$\begin{aligned}c_t^{-\nu} &= \mathbb{E}_t \left[\beta c_{t+1}^{-\nu} \left(\alpha z_{t+1} k_{t+1}^{\alpha-1} + 1 - \delta \right) \right] \\c_t + k_{t+1} &= z_t k_t^\alpha + (1 - \delta) k_t \\ \ln(z_{t+1}) &= \rho \ln(z_t) + \varepsilon_{t+1} \\ \varepsilon_{t+1} &\sim N(0, \sigma^2) \\ k_1, z_1 &\text{ given}\end{aligned}$$

k_t is beginning-of-period t capital stock

Two types of PEA

❶ As a standard projections algorithm:

- ❶ parameterize $E_t[\cdot]$ with $P_n(k_t, z_t; \eta_n)$
(note that $E_t[\cdot]$ is a function of the usual state variables.)
- ❷ solve c_t from

$$c_t = (P_n(k_t, z_t; \eta_n))^{-1/\nu}$$

and k_{t+1} from budget constraint

- ❸ \implies only difference is that $E_t[\cdot]$ is parameterized instead of consumption or capital choice.

❷ Simulation PEA (stochastic and non-stochastic)

Stochastic PEA based on simulations

- ➊ Simulate $\{z_t\}_{t=1}^T$
- ➋ Let η_n^1 be initial guess for η_n

Stochastic PEA

③ Iterate until η_n^i converges using following scheme

① Generate $\{c_t, k_{t+1}\}_{t=1}^T$ using

$$\begin{aligned} c_t^{-\nu} &= P_n(k_t, z_t; \eta_n^i) \\ k_{t+1} &= z_t k_t^\alpha + (1 - \delta) k_t - c_t \end{aligned}$$

② Generate $\{y_{t+1}\}_{t=1}^{T-1}$ using

$$y_{t+1} = \beta c_{t+1}^{-\nu} \left(\alpha z_{t+1} k_{t+1}^{\alpha-1} + 1 - \delta \right)$$

③ Let

$$\hat{\eta}_n^i = \arg \min_{\eta} \sum_{t=T_{\text{begin}}}^T \frac{(y_{t+1} - P_n(k_t, z_t; \eta))^2}{T}$$

④ Update using

$$\eta_n^{i+1} = \omega \hat{\eta}_n^i + (1 - \omega) \eta_n^i \text{ with } 0 < \omega \leq 1$$

Stochastic PEA

- $T_{\text{begin}} \gg 1$ (say 500 or 1,000)
 - ensures possible bad period 1 values don't matter
- $\omega < 1$ improves stability
 - ω is called "dampening" parameter

Stochastic PEA

- Idea of regression:

$$y_{t+1} \approx P_n(k_t, z_t; \eta) + u_{t+1},$$

- u_{t+1} is a prediction error $\implies u_{t+1}$ is orthogonal to regressors
- Suppose

$$P_n(k_t, z_t; \eta) = \exp(a_0 + a_1 \ln k_t + a_2 \ln z_t).$$

- You are *not* allowed to run the linear regression

$$\ln y_{t+1} = a_0 + a_1 \ln k_t + a_2 \ln z_t + u_{t+1}^*$$

Why not?

PEA & RE

- Suppose η_n^* is the fixed point we are looking for
- So with η_n^* we get best predictor of y_{t+1}
- Does this mean that solution is a rational expectations equilibrium?

Disadvantages of stoch. sim. PEA

- The inverse of $X'X$ may be hard to calculate for higher-order approximations
- Regression points are clustered \implies low precision
 - recall that even equidistant nodes are not enough for uniform convergence; with simulated data, the "nodes" are even less spread out with stochastic PEA)

Disadvantages of stochastic PEA

- Projection step has sampling error
 - this disappears slowly (especially with serial correlation)

Advantages of simulated nodes

- Regression points are clustered
 \implies better fit *where it matters* **IF** functional form is poor
(with good functional form it is better to spread out points)

Advantages of simulated nodes

- **BIG ADVANTAGE:** Not subject to the exponential curse of dimensionality as standard projection methods.

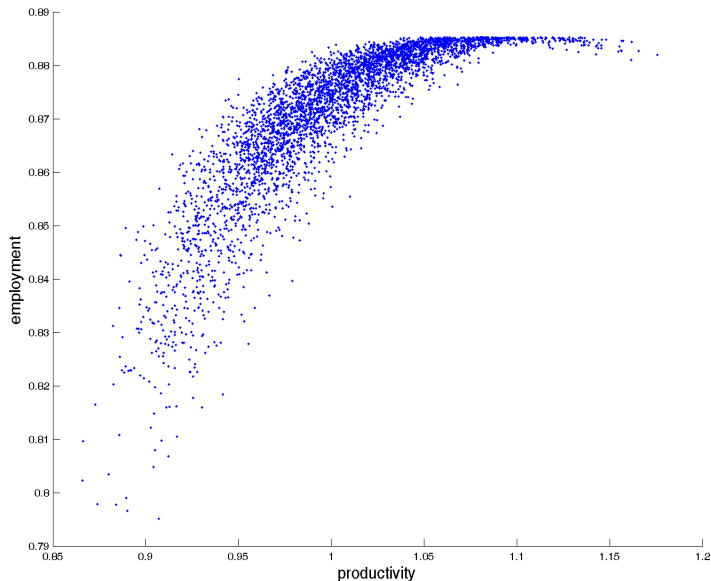
Advantages of simulated nodes

- Grid: you may include impossible points

Simulation: model itself tells you which nodes to include

- (approximation also important and away from fixed point you may still get in weird places of the state space)

Odd shapes ergodic set in matching model



Non-stochastic Simulations PEA

Improvements from Maliar, Maliar & Judd (2010,2011)

- ❶ Use flexibility given to you
- ❷ Use $\hat{E}[y_{t+1}]$ instead of y_{t+1} as regressand
 - $\hat{E}[y_{t+1}]$ is numerical approximation of $E[y_{t+1}]$
 - even with poor approximation the results improve !!!
- ❸ Improve regression step

Use flexibility

Many $E[\cdot]$'s to approximate.

❶ Standard approach:

$$c_t^{-\nu} = E_t \left[\beta c_{t+1}^{-\nu} \alpha \beta c_{t+1}^{-\nu} \left(\alpha z_{t+1} k_{t+1}^{\alpha-1} + 1 - \delta \right) \right]$$

❷ Alternative:

$$k_{t+1} = E_t \left[k_{t+1} \beta \alpha \beta \left(\frac{c_{t+1}}{c_t} \right)^{-\nu} \left(\alpha z_{t+1} k_{t+1}^{\alpha-1} + 1 - \delta \right) \right]$$

- Such transformations can make computations easier, *but* can also affect stability of algorithm (for better or worse)

$E[y]$ instead of y as regressor

- $E[y_{t+1}] = E[f(\varepsilon_{t+1})]$ with $\varepsilon_{t+1} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$
 \implies Hermite Gaussian quadrature can be used
(MMJ: using $\hat{E}[y_{t+1}]$ calculated using one node is better than using y_{t+1})
- Key thing to remember: sampling uncertainty is hard to get rid off

$E[y]$ instead of y as regressor

- Suppose:

$$y_{t+1} = \exp(a_0 + a_1 \ln k_t + a_2 \ln z_t) + u_{t+1}$$

$$u_{t+1} = \text{prediction error}$$

- Then you **cannot** estimate coefficients using LS based on

$$\ln(y_{t+1}) = a_0 + a_1 \ln k_t + a_2 \ln z_t + u_{t+1}^*$$

- You have to use non-linear least squares

$E[y]$ instead of y as regressor

- Suppose:

$$\begin{aligned}E[y_{t+1}] &= \exp(a_0 + a_1 \ln k_t + a_2 \ln z_t) + \bar{u}_{t+1} \\ \bar{u}_{t+1} &= \text{numerical error}\end{aligned}$$

- Then you **can** estimate coefficients using LS based on

$$\ln E[y_{t+1}] = a_0 + a_1 \ln k_t + a_2 \ln z_t + \bar{u}_{t+1}^*$$

- Big practical advantage

Simple way to improve regression

- The main underlying problem is that $X'X$ is ill conditioned which makes it difficult to calculate $X'X$
- This problem is reduced by
 - ① Scaling so that each variable has zero mean and unit variance
 - ② Hermite polynomials

Hermite polynomials; Definition

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j H_j(x)$$

where the basis functions, $H_j(x)$, satisfy

$$\mathbb{E} [H_i(x) H_j(x)] = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j$$

$$\text{if } x \sim N(0, 1)$$

Hermite polynomials; Construction

$$H_0(x) = 1$$

$$H_1(x) = x$$

$$H_{m+1}(x) = xH_m(x) - mH_{m-1}(x) \text{ for } j > 1$$

This gives

$$H_0(x) = 1$$

$$H_1(x) = x$$

$$H_2(x) = x^2 - 1$$

$$H_3(x) = x^3 - 3x$$

$$H_4(x) = x^4 - 6x^2 + 3$$

$$H_5(x) = x^5 - 10x_3 + 15x$$

One tricky aspect about scaling

Suppose one of the explanatory variables is

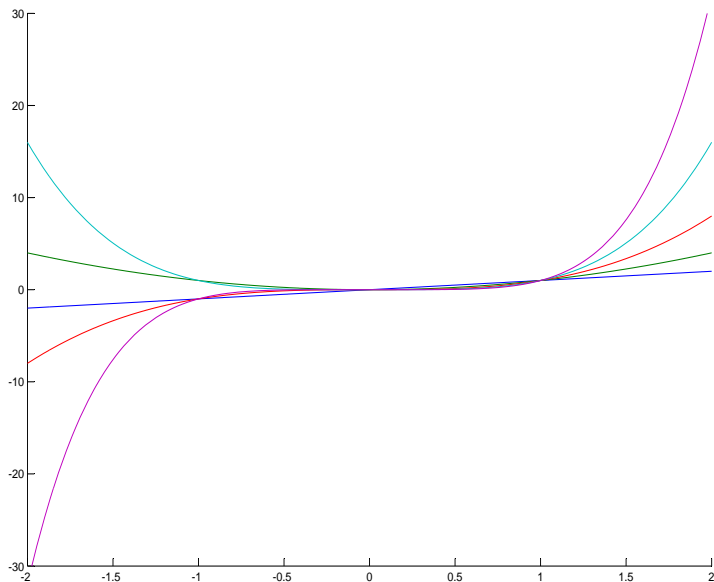
$$x_t = \frac{k_t - M_T}{S_T}$$

$$M_T = \sum_{t=1}^T k_t / T \text{ \& } S_T = \left(\sum_{t=1}^T (k_t - M_T)^2 / T \right)^{1/2}$$

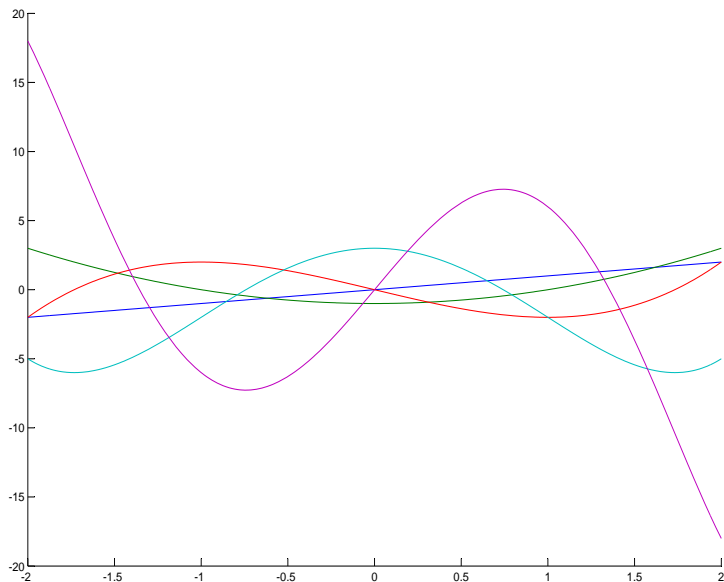
One tricky aspect about scaling

- \implies each iteration the explanatory variables change (since M and S change)
- \implies taking a weighted average of old and new coefficient is odd
- I found that convergence properties can be quite bad
- So better to keep M_T and S_T fixed across iterations

Two graphs say it all; regular polynomials



Two graphs say it all; Hermite polynomials



More ways to improve regression

- ① LS-Singular Value Decomposition
- ② Principal components

See Maliar, Maliar, Judd (2010,2011) for details.

PEA and learning

- Traditional algorithm:
 - simulate an economy using belief η_n^i
 - formulate new belief η_n^{i+1}
 - simulate *same* economy using belief η_n^{i+1}

PEA and learning

- Alternative algorithm to find *fixed point*
 - simulate T observations using belief η_n^{T-1}
 - formulate new belief η_n^T
 - generate 1 more observation
 - use $T + 1$ observations to formulate new belief η^{T+1}
 - continue

When convergence has taken place is more difficult to determine, since each additional observation has smaller weight since T increases.

PEA and learning

- Modification of alternative algorithm is economically interesting
 - simulate T observations using belief η_n^{T-1}
 - use τ observations to formulate new belief η_n^T
 - generate 1 more observation
 - use last τ observations to formulate new belief η^{T+1}
 - continue
- Beliefs are based on limited past \implies time-varying beliefs

PEA and learning

- Suppose the model has different regimes
 - e.g. high productivity and low productivity regime
 - agents do not observe regime \implies it makes sense to use limited number of past observations
- With the above algorithm agents gradually learn new law of motion

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