# Topics in Macroeconomics

Lecture - Introduction

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#### Course Information

- ► E-mail: de\_sousa\_rodrigues.diego@uqam.ca.
- ► This course: Provides techniques for the analysis and evaluation of dynamic economic models, e.g. DSGE, firm and industry models.
- ► Target group: Students who intend to do quantitative research in macro, applied micro, or structural econometrics.
- **Background:** Dynamic programming / Recursive macro.
- Main programming languages: MATLAB and Julia.

## Road Map

- 1. Why Study Numerical Methods?
- 2. Issues in numerical methods and programming
- 3. Useful course information

## Why Study Numerical Methods?

- Paper-and-pencil has its limits.
- Closed-form solutions are often hard or impossible.
- Increasing computational power allows us to study complex models.
- ➤ Techniques are useful in other fields (applied micro, trade, labour) structural estimation.
- Drawbacks: Only approximate solutions, no theorems/proofs, room for human error, . . .

## A Computational Experiment

- ▶ A researcher poses a quantitative question, uses theory to construct a model economy, and solves it on the computer to answer the question.
- Computational experiments are used in other disciplines (physics, engineering, etc.).

## Five steps of a computational experiment:

## A Computational Experiment

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- Computational experiments are used in other disciplines (physics, engineering, etc.).

#### Five steps of a computational experiment:

- 1. Pose a question.
- 2. Use a theory and construct a model.
- 3. Calibrate (estimate) and solve numerically the economy.
- 4. Run the experiment.

## 1. Pose a Question

- ► The first (and perhaps most important and difficult) step is to come up with a well-defined question.
- ► A well-posed question should not be vague or too general and should have quantitative implications (e.g., for policy evaluation).

## 1. Pose a Question

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## Examples:

- What are the welfare consequences of a tax reform? (Gravelle and Kotlikoff, 1995).
- ▶ *Is growth good for the poor?* (Dollar and Kraay, 2002).
- ► What is the quantitative nature of fluctuations induced by technology shocks? (Kydland and Prescott, 1982).
- ▶ Do barriers to technology adoption account for income disparities across countries? (Parente and Prescott, 1999).

## 2. Use a theory and construct a model

- "An explicit set of instructions for building a mechanical imitation system" (Lucas, 1980). It should have internal and external consistency.
- Example: the neoclassical growth model.
- Of course, there are plenty of issues that the growth model fails to answer, but recall that as long as it serves well in analyzing the question posed this is satisfactory.
- ▶ Old, well-tested theories were once new and untested sometimes it's worth exploring new theories.

# 3. Calibrate (estimate) and solve numerically the economy

- Use data from a true economy (e.g., Canada) to tie down parameters so the model mimics the true economy — at least in dimensions important for your question.
- ▶ Solve the model numerically with appropriate techniques (we will cover this in the course).

## 4. Run the Experiment

- With the replicated laboratory, you can run counterfactual experiments.
- Keep in mind limitations of computers:
  - ▶ Model uncertainty vs. computer pseudorandomness.
  - Discrete finite machine: approximations (grids, etc.).
  - ► Computational constraints: improve algorithms/computing power/language.

# Programming and Computing: Jargon

- ► Algorithm: sequence of steps for doing a calculation.
- Programming language: translates algorithms into executable code (e.g., MATLAB, Fortran, Julia, Gauss).
- Routine/program/code: algorithm translated into a language (MATLAB: .m files).
- ▶ Built-in functions: provided by the language (e.g., mean in MATLAB).
- ► Iteration/recursion/loop: repeated steps (e.g., for, while).

## Algorithms: Example

#### **Basic structure:**

```
define parameters/variables
statement 1
statement 2
end
Example: compute 4!:
x = 1
x = x * 2
x = x * 3
```

What about 200!?

x = x \* 4

## Calculating 200! with a Loop

#### Pseudocode:

```
x = 1
for n = 2 to 200
 x = x * n
end
MATLAB:
x = 1;
for n = 2:200
x = x * n;
end
```

## Computing Issues

- ► Accuracy: computers are finite; cannot capture the continuum of real numbers.
- ▶ Efficiency: for heavy algorithms, coding "tricks" can be crucial.
- Direct vs iterative methods: trade off precision and speed.
- Dealing with infinity: approximate limits with stopping rules.

## Pseudorandom Number Generators

- ► Computers generate **pseudorandom** (deterministic-looking) sequences.
- ► MATLAB examples:

```
% Uniform[0,1], 5 elements (column)
x = rand(5.1):
% Normal(0,1), 5 elements
v = randn(5,1):
% Normal(10, 4), 5 elements
r = 10 + 2*randn(5,1);
% Fixed seed / repeatability
s = rng;
        % current settings
x = rand(1,5); % some values
rng(s);
        % restore settings
v = rand(1.5); % same values: x == v
```

## Simulation: Coin Toss Example

Goal: repeat 100 tosses, then repeat the experiment 1000 times.

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```
repeat 1000 times
for i = 1 up to 100 r = RAND
  if r < 0.5
    record H
else
    record T
end
stop when i becomes 100
    stop after repeating 1000 times</pre>
```

## Simulation

- ▶ In the same way, after computing the equilibrium of a model economy, you could in principle produce manually realisations of the economy.
- ► However, you might be interested in calculating statistics for the economy that would involve simulating it many thousands of times.

# Stopping Rules

▶ For an iterative sequence  $x_n \rightarrow x^*$ , stop when

$$||x_n-x_{n+1}||<\varepsilon.$$

- ▶ MATLAB's floating-point epsilon:  $eps = 2^{-52}$ .
- Often better to use relative tolerance:

$$\frac{\|x_n - x_{n+1}\|}{\|x_n\|} < \varepsilon, \qquad \frac{\|x_n - x_{n+1}\|}{\|x_n\| + 1} < \varepsilon.$$

## Programming Style

#### Bad:

```
n=100
theta=0.8
u=randn(n,1);
y=zeros(n,1);
for t=2:n
y(t)=theta*y(t-1)+u(t);
end
```

# Programming Style

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n=100
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u=randn(n,1);
v=zeros(n,1):
for t=2:n
y(t)=theta*y(t-1)+u(t);
end
Better (comments, spacing, indentation):
% AR(1) with N(0.1) errors
n = 100; % sample size
u = randn(n,1); % shocks
v = zeros(n,1); % init
for t = 2:n
 v(t) = theta*v(t-1) + u(t);
```

# Debugging

▶ Bugs: syntax vs logic errors.

## Debugging

- Bugs: syntax vs logic errors.
- Syntax bugs are often caught by the interpreter; logic bugs require careful checking.
- ► Tips:
  - Test special cases with known answers.
  - Use intuition about expected results.
  - Step through code; modularize into small testable parts.

# Our Running Example for a Large Fraction of the course: Standard RBC Model

► Representative agent with preferences:

$$\mathbb{E}_{t=0}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}\beta^{t}u(c_{t})\right].$$

► Representative firm with CRS technology:

$$Y_t = z_t F(K_t, L_t).$$

► Capital accumulation:

$$K_{t+1} = (1 - \delta)K_t + I_t.$$

► Resource constraint:

$$c_t + I_t = F(K_t, L_t).$$

No government; competitive equilibrium; work with planner's problem (2nd welfare theorem).

## Log-Utility, Cobb-Douglas, Full Depreciation

If  $u(c) = \log c$ ,  $F(K, L) = K^{\alpha}L^{1-\alpha}$ , and  $\delta = 1$ , we know the closed-form solution — useful for comparing numerical methods. With  $L_t = 1$ , write F(K, 1) = f(K).

#### Planner's problem:

$$V(K, z) = \max_{c, K'} \left\{ u(c) + \beta \mathbb{E}[V(K', z')] \right\}$$
  
s.t.  $c + K' = zf(K) + (1 - \delta)K$ .

#### Consumer solves

$$\max_{\substack{\{c_t, k_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty} \\ \text{s.t.}}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t), \quad 0 < \beta < 1$$
s.t.  $k_{t+1} + c_t \le f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t, \quad k_0 > 0, \ c_t \ge 0.$ 

Assume u and f strictly concave; f satisfies INADA.

## Concave Programming & FOCs

For finite horizon T, interior solution (INADA) satisfies Kuhn–Tucker/FOCs:

$$u'(c_t) = \beta \big( f'(k_{t+1}) + (1-\delta) \big) u'(c_{t+1}), \quad t = 0, 1, \dots, T.$$
  
$$u' \big( f(k_t) + (1-\delta) k_t - k_{t+1} \big) = \beta \big( f'(k_{t+1}) + (1-\delta) \big) u' \big( f(k_{t+1}) + (1-\delta) k_{t+1} - k_{t+2} \big).$$

Transversality (finite horizon):

$$\beta^T u'(f(k_T) + (1 - \delta)k_T - k_{T+1}) k_{T+1} = 0.$$

Assume  $u(c) = \ln c$ ,  $\delta = 1$ ,  $f(k) = k^{\alpha}$ .

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{c_t} &= \beta \alpha k_{t+1}^{\alpha - 1} \frac{1}{c_{t+1}}, \quad c_t = k_t^{\alpha} - k_{t+1}, \\ k_{t+1}^{\alpha} - k_{t+2} &= \beta \alpha k_{t+1}^{\alpha - 1} (k_t^{\alpha} - k_{t+1}). \end{split}$$

Let 
$$z_t \equiv \frac{k_{t+1}}{k_t^{\alpha}}$$
. Then  $[1-z_{t+1}] = \beta \alpha \left(\frac{1}{z_t}-1\right)$ .

# Pencil-and-Paper Example

Recursive solution (finite T):

$$egin{aligned} z_{T} &= 0, \ z_{T-1} &= rac{lphaeta}{1+lphaeta}, \ z_{T-2} &= rac{lphaeta(1+lphaeta)}{1+lphaeta+(lphaeta)^2}, \ z_{t} &= rac{lphaeta(1+lphaeta+\cdots+(lphaeta)^{T-t-1})}{1+lphaeta+\cdots+(lphaeta)^{T-t}}. \end{aligned}$$

## Pencil-and-Paper Example III

Closed form:

$$z_t = \alpha \beta \frac{1 - (\alpha \beta)^{T-t}}{1 - (\alpha \beta)^{T-t+1}}, \qquad k_{t+1} = z_t k_t^{\alpha}.$$

As  $T \to \infty$ , the limit coincides with the infinite-horizon solution:  $k_{t+1} = \alpha \beta k_t^{\alpha}$ .

## Different Methods & Helpful Techniques

- ▶ Multiple solution methods to solve the problem above and a lot more; suitability depends on problem structure.
- ► Helpful techniques: root-finding, interpolation, discretization of stochastic processes, etc.
- Extensions: stationary distributions, idiosyncratic/aggregate risk, OLG, calibration, simulation-based estimation.

## Some Helpful Material

#### References:

- Adda and Cooper, Dynamic Economics.
- Judd, Numerical Methods in Economics.
- Marimon and Scott, Computational Methods for the Study of Dynamic Economies.
- Miao, Economic Dynamics in Discrete Time.
- Sauer, Numerical Analysis.

#### **Online resources:**

- Wouter den Haan: http://www.wouterdenhaan.com
- Karen Kopecky: http://www.karenkopecky.net
- Makoto Nakajima: https://sites.google.com/site/makotonakajima/