

# Numerical Methods - Root Finding & Optimization

David Wiczer

Wash U Econ 5121

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# Outline

- 1 Mortensen Pissarides Model
- 2 Root Finding and Optimization
  - One Dimension
  - Multidimensions
- 3 Discretizing Autoregressive Processes

# Mortensen Pissarides Model

# The setup

- Linear production, productivity  $z$
- Employed workers are paid  $w(z)$
- Unemployed workers on the dole get  $b$
- Preferences are linear in time and goods
- Firms flow profits are  $\pi = z - w(z)$

# Search & Matching

- There's a congestion friction in the market: more workers around mean it's more difficult for each to find the jobs
- Just to keep them off the dock, firms make offers,  $v$ , each costing  $\kappa$
- The mass of supplicants is  $u$
- Total matches are  $m(u, v)$ 
  - ▶ Offers arrive at rate  $p(\theta) = \frac{m}{u}$
  - ▶ Applications arrive at rate  $q(\theta) = \frac{m}{v}$
- $\theta = \frac{v}{u} \Rightarrow q(\theta)\theta = p(\theta)$
- Separations occur exogenously at rate  $\delta$

# Dynamic problems

We're going to do this in discrete time, as Pissarides (AER 1985). The value of employed and unemployed workers is:

$$W(z) = w(z) + \beta E[(1 - \delta)W(z') + \delta U(z')] \quad (1)$$

$$U(z) = b + \beta E[p(\theta)W(z') + (1 - p(\theta))U(z')] \quad (2)$$

Firms who are matched or posting vacancy are valued:

$$J(z) = z - w(z) + \beta E[(1 - \delta)J(z') + \delta V(z')] \quad (3)$$

$$V(z) = -\kappa + \beta E[q(\theta)J(z') + (1 - q(\theta))V(z')] \quad (4)$$

Free entry gives us that

$$V(z) = 0 \quad \forall z$$

# Solving the model!

- Divide profits of the match by Gen N-B
- Define the match surplus

$$S(z) = W(z) - U(z) + J(z)$$

- Workers' bargaining power is  $\mu$  and wages solve  $\max(W(z) - U(z))^\mu J(z)^{1-\mu}$ , which yields

$$w(z) = \mu z + (1 - \mu)b + \mu z \kappa \theta \quad (5)$$

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- From the zero profit and value of firm:

$$\kappa = \beta q(\theta) E[J(z')]$$

- Using the surplus equation to sub out  $J$  (and a bunch of other stuff) we get a stochastic difference equation

$$\frac{\kappa}{\beta q(\theta(z))} = E[(1 - \mu)(z' - b) - \kappa \mu \theta(z') + \frac{(1 - \delta)\kappa}{q(\theta(z'))}] \quad (6)$$

With discrete values for  $z$  we have a system of equations!



## Limits of the model

- Mortensen and Nagypal (2007) document how it fares with cyclical fluctuations (poor)
- Also! It cannot account for unemployment duration

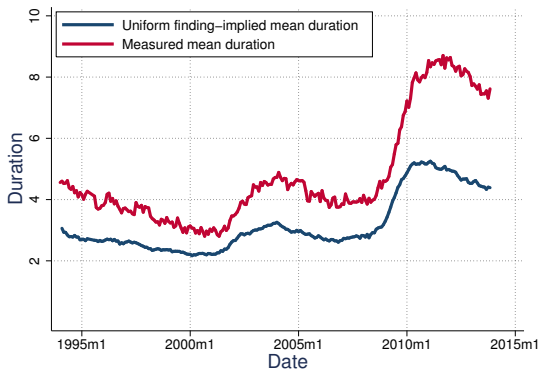


Figure: The mean duration before finding a job

# Translating it for the computer

- Suppose

$$z' = (1 - \rho)\bar{z} + \rho z + \sigma\epsilon'$$

- We can discretize this AR(1) as a Markov chain with  $z \in \{z_0, \dots, z_N\}$  (more on this later)
- Then expectations are just a dot product, let  $P$  be the Markov transition matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\kappa}{\beta q(\theta_0)} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\kappa}{\beta q(\theta_N)} \end{pmatrix} - P \begin{pmatrix} (1 - \mu)(z_0 - b) - \kappa\mu\theta_0 + \frac{(1-\delta)\kappa}{q(\theta_0)} \\ \vdots \\ (1 - \mu)(z_N - b) - \kappa\mu\theta_N + \frac{(1-\delta)\kappa}{q(\theta_N)} \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad (7)$$

- This is  $N + 1$  equations to solve for  $N + 1$  values of  $\theta$ .

## Some discussion on parameters

- Note the crucial two values, the size of the surplus and firms' share of it determine  $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}$
- Shimer (2005) suggests that MP cannot match fluctuations with ordinary parameter values (Hosios condition and 40% replacement)
- Hagedorn and Manovskii (2008) counter that we can juice the replacement and the firms' share
- There is also the issue of the elasticity of the matching function

$$p(\theta) = \frac{\theta}{(1 + \theta^\phi)^{1/\phi}} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta} \frac{\theta}{p} = (1 + \theta^\phi)^{-1}$$

Given HM parameters, this is about 0.52, but it's .38 in data.

# Root Finding and Optimization

# Big themes

- These will all be iterative:
  - 1 Create an approximation of the function (often called a “model”)
  - 2 Find it's zero
  - 3 From that new point, re-approximate and solve
- We need to keep in mind what's global and what's local
- Optimization is just root-finding because we're looking for a zero of the derivative.

# Root Finding and Optimization: One Dimension

# Bisection

Bisection and golden section assume we can pick points on the domain straddling a zero

- 1 Start with  $(x_L^0, x_H^0)$  such that  $f(x_L^0) < 0$  and  $f(x_H^0) > 0$
- 2 Choose  $x_M^0$  in between  $(x_L^0, x_H^0)$
- 3 Evaluate  $f(x_M^0)$
- 4 If  $f(x_M^0) < 0$  then set  $x_L^1 = x_M^0, x_H^1 = x_H^0$ , and if  $f(x_M^0) > 0$  set  $x_L^1 = x_L^0, x_H^1 = x_M^0$
- 5 Check two objectives:  $|f(x_M)| < \epsilon_f$  and  $|x_H - x_L| < \epsilon_x$
- 6 If neither is satisfied return to step 2

Bisection splits  $x_M = \frac{1}{2}(x_L + x_H)$ . Golden section uses two middle values at

$$x_{ML} = x_L + \frac{3 - \sqrt{5}}{2}(x_H - x_L) \quad x_{MH} = x_L + \frac{\sqrt{5} - 1}{2}(x_H - x_L)$$

## Quadratic approximation/Brent's Method

We can easily find the minimum of a quadratic function

- 1 Evaluate at three points  $x_0^0, x_1^0, x_2^0 \in [x_L, x_H]$
- 2 Solve for  $a, b, c$  in  $ax^2 + bx + c$ , i.e. interpolate the three using a quadratic function.
- 3 Analytically compute the minimum,  $x_*$
- 4 Replace  $\operatorname{argmax}_{x_0^0, x_1^0, x_2^0} f(x)$  with  $x_*$  to make  $x^1$
- 5 Test whether  $|x_0^1 - x_1^1|, |x_0^1 - x_2^1|, |x_1^1 - x_2^1| < \epsilon_x$  or whether  $|f(x_*) - \max_{x_0^0, x_1^0, x_2^0} f(x)| < \epsilon_f$

Brent's method adds some additional checks to make it robust.

- If the solution  $x_*$  is “reasonable,” continue with quadratic
- Otherwise, use golden section search with the points we've already computed to find the next point.



# Newton's Method - Root Finding

Uses a 1st order Taylor approx, iteratively

- 1 Begin at  $x^0$
- 2 Compute a first-order Taylor expansion around  $x^0$ , which requires we compute analytical or numerical derivatives.

$$\tilde{f}(x) = f(x^0) + f'(x^0)(x - x^0)$$

- 3 We know that at the solution  $f(x) = 0$ , plugging that in the incremental optimal is:

$$x_* = -\frac{f(x^0)}{f'(x^0)} + x^0$$

- 4 Check for optimality:  $|f(x_*)| < \epsilon_f$  or  $|x^0 - x_*| < \epsilon_x$

# Newton's Method - Optimization

Uses a 2nd order Taylor approx at  $x^0$

- 1 Begin at  $x^0$
- 2 Compute a second-order Taylor expansion around  $x^0$ , this involves numerical or analytical derivatives

$$\tilde{f}(x) = f(x^0) + f'(x^0) \cdot (x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}(x - x_0)^2 f''(x^0)$$

- 3 Solve for  $\tilde{f}'(x_*) = 0$ , which in one dimension is

$$x_* = x^0 - \frac{f'(x^0)}{f''(x^0)}$$

- 4 Check whether  $|f(x^0) - f(x_*)| < \epsilon_f$  or  $|x^0 - x_*| < \epsilon_x$
- 5 Set  $x^0 = x_*$  and return

# Root Finding and Optimization: Multidimensions

# Simple iteration for root finding

We wish to solve:

$$0 = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ f_J(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

- We will take one dimension at a time, solving for  $f_j(\mathbf{x}^0)$
- After solving, we have  $\mathbf{x}^1$
- Solve  $f_j(\mathbf{x}^1) \forall j$
- Repeat!

# Jacobi and Seidel approaches

But, when to plug it back in?

➊ **Jacobi** : solve the  $j^{th}$  function as

$$0 = f_j(\mathbf{x}^0) \forall j$$

➋ **Seidel** : solve the  $j^{th}$  and then  $j + 1^{th}$  function as

$$f_j \begin{pmatrix} x_0^1 \\ \vdots \\ x_j^0 \\ \vdots \\ x_j^0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow f_{j+1} \begin{pmatrix} x_0^1 \\ \vdots \\ x_j^1 \\ x_{j+1}^0 \\ \vdots \\ x_j^0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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# Newton's method in multiple dimensions:

- 1 Begin at  $\mathbf{x}^0$  with a Taylor expansion
- 2 Compute a Taylor expansion around  $\mathbf{x}^0$ , this involves numerical or analytical gradient and hessian. For root-finding or optimization we have:

$$\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}^0) + Jf(\mathbf{x}^0) \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$$

$$\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}^0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0) \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)' \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^0)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$$

- 3 Solve for  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}_*) = 0$  or  $\nabla \tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}_*) = 0$ , which is

$$\mathbf{x}_* = \mathbf{x}^0 - |Jf(\mathbf{x}^0)|^{-1} f(\mathbf{x}^0) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{x}_* = \mathbf{x}^0 - |\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^0)|^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0)$$

- 4 Check whether  $|f(\mathbf{x}^0) - f(\mathbf{x}_*)| < \epsilon_f$  or  $|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}_*| < \epsilon_x$
- 5 Set  $\mathbf{x}^0 = \mathbf{x}_*$  and return

# Quasi-Newton Methods

- The hessian sucks. Especially in multiple dimensions, QN methods help:
  - ▶ Do not update the entire Hessian every iteration
  - ▶ Use approximation methods that ensure negative semi-definiteness.
- Why is this ok? Look at:

$$\mathbf{x}_* = \mathbf{x}^0 - |\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^0)|^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0)$$

- The Hessian really only gives us the "rate" at which we approach. The gradient gives us the direction.
- A very simple Quasi-Newton would be a constant for  $|\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^0)|^{-1}$



# Quasi-Newton Methods

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- The Hessian really only gives us the "rate" at which we approach. The gradient gives us the direction.
- A very simple Quasi-Newton would be a constant for  $|\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^0)|^{-1}$
- These are LOCAL methods.
- The true, global Hessian may actually be a hindrance, especially if it's costly to compute and not negative semi-definite.

# Discretizing Autoregressive Processes

# Discretizing a process

- The general idea is to take a distribution  $f$  and find a set of points  $\{x_i\}$  and assign to them probability  $Pr[x_i] = \int_{c_i}^{c_{i+1}} f(x)dx$  for some set of cut off points  $\{c_i\} : c_i \in (x_i, x_{i+1})$
- Generally we are concerned with making a markov chain and generally dynamic process will not be row-identical.
- With Tauchen (1986), you can conveniently pick the points of the process at which to evaluate and choose probabilities to suit.
- To accurately approximate a process with the fewest points, we can often do better. However, that may not be the point

# Tauchen's Method

- Fit  $z' = \rho z + \epsilon$  :  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$  with  $n \times n$  transition matrix  $\Pi$  and vector of points  $\{z_i\}$
- The stationary distribution of  $z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_z^2)$  :  $\sigma_z^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{1-\rho^2}$
- Choose a grid for  $\{z_i\}$ , *tradition*: equidistant cutoffs between  $z_0 = -\lambda\sigma_z$ ,  $z_l = \lambda\sigma_z$  and let  $c_i = \frac{z_{i+1} + z_i}{2}$
- Because  $Pr[z' \in [c_{j-1}, c_j] | z_i] = Pr[\epsilon' \in (c_j - \rho z_i, c_{j-1} - \rho z_i) | z_i]$

$$p_{ij} = \Phi\left(\frac{c_j - \rho z_i}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{c_{j-1} - \rho z_i}{\sigma}\right)$$

- on the ends:  $p_{i0} = \Phi\left(\frac{c_0 - \rho z_i}{\sigma}\right)$      $p_{il} = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{c_{l-1} - \rho z_i}{\sigma}\right)$

## Rouwenhorst method

- With extremely persistent processes, we often need many points in Tauchen and the performance is poor.
- Kopecky and Suen (2009) introduce a simple way to construct the matrix. The size- $N$  grid is evenly spaced over the domain.
- The basic idea is to approximate a normal distribution with binomials. CLT says this works
- We can build it recursively, multiplying probabilities of landing in a bin each time.

The performance is good even as the number of discretization points falls

- Distribution moments are still close
- We still have flexibility to choose which moments to match more closely

# Rouwenhorst method

- There are 2 ways of deriving the transition matrix.
- Consider the matrix-recursive form: For  $N = 2$ ,

$$\Pi_2 = \begin{pmatrix} p & 1-p \\ 1-q & q \end{pmatrix}$$

Then, as  $N > 2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi_{N \geq 3} = & p \begin{pmatrix} \Pi_{N-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 0 \end{pmatrix} + (1-p) \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \Pi_{N-1} \\ 0 & \mathbf{0}^T \end{pmatrix} \\ & + (1-q) \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0}^T & 0 \\ \Pi_{N-1} & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix} + q \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{0}^T \\ \mathbf{0} & \Pi_{N-1} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- At each step, normalize to be a stochastic matrix: divide by 2
- This has the flavor of using binomials to approximate a normal.

# Rouwenhorst's method for an AR(1)

- We can choose  $p, q$  to hit more rich process
- But, because  $z$  is normal and we restrict the grid, there is little freedom.
- Let  $p = q = \frac{1+\rho}{2}$  to hit the autocorrelation
- Spacing is determined to hit variance

Table 1: Selected Moments of the Markov Chain

Conditional Mean	$E(y_{t+1} y_t = \bar{y}_i)$	$(q - p) \psi + (p + q - 1) \bar{y}_i$
Conditional Variance	$\text{var}(y_{t+1} y_t = \bar{y}_i)$	$\frac{4\psi^2}{(N-1)^2} [(N-i)(1-p)p + (i-1)q(1-q)]$
Unconditional Mean	$E(y_t)$	$\frac{(q-p)\psi}{2-(p+q)}$
Unconditional Second Moment	$E(y_t^2)$	$\psi^2 \left\{ 1 - 4s(1-s) + \frac{4s(1-s)}{N-1} \right\}$
First-order Autocovariance	$\text{Cov}(y_t, y_{t+1})$	$(p + q - 1)\text{var}(y_t)$
First-order Autocorrelation	$\text{Corr}(y_t, y_{t+1})$	$p + q - 1$

# More on Rouwenhorst's method

- $p^{N-1}$  is the probability of staying in the high state
- $q^{N-1}$  the probability of staying in the low state
- $p \neq q$  implies that shocks are heteroskedastic, which might be a goal, but not in the normal case
- For the grid size, choose evenly spaced over  $[\mu - \nu, \mu + \nu]$ , where
$$\nu = \sqrt{\frac{N-1}{1-\rho^2}} \sigma_\epsilon$$
- This will match the unconditional variance.



# How to simulate from a Markov Chain

We begin with a vector of points  $\mathbf{z}$  and a transition matrix  $\Pi$

There are 2 methods to initialize the starting state:

- ❶ Initialize from the unconditional distribution
  - ▶ Use  $\Pi$  to get the unconditional distribution:  $\bar{\pi}$
  - ▶ Draw a uniform random variable  $x \in [0, 1]$
  - ▶ Set  $z_0 = z_i \in \mathbf{z}$  such that  $x \leq \sum_{j=1}^i \bar{\pi}_j$
- ❷ Initialize from an ad hoc/arbitrary state  $z_0 \in \mathbf{z}$

# How to simulate from a Markov Chain

For each draw in the chain:

- ➊ Begin with  $z_{i,t-1}$ , the value in state  $i$  from last period
- ➋ Draw a uniform random variable  $x \in [0, 1]$
- ➌ Set  $z_{k,t} \in \mathbf{z}$  such that  $x \leq \sum_{j=1}^i \pi_{i,j}$

Things to remember:

- Store your sequence of  $x_t$  or set a “seed” so that every time you run your program, you get the same results.
- Often, drawing the whole vector, the history of  $x_t$  is faster than drawing one at a time
- Try to estimate the AR(1) process given your simulation to check the accuracy