Dynamic Programming: Preliminaries

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Preliminary topics

- Reminders, notation
- The curse of dimensionality
- (General state) Markov chains
- Nonlinear functional equations

References

- Stokey and Lucas (1989)
- Stachurski (2009)

Reminder 1: Distributions

Let S be a nonempty set

A **distribution** ϕ on S is a function that assigns probabilities to subsets of S:

$$\phi(B) = \text{ probability mass assigned to } B \subset S$$

I'll often use notation such as

$$\int g(x)\phi(\mathrm{d}x)$$

Think of this as $\mathbb{E} g(X)$ when $X \sim \phi$

Example. If $S = \mathbb{R}$ and ϕ has a density f, then

$$\int g(x)\phi(\mathrm{d}x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x$$

Example. If $S=\mathbb{R}^2$ and ϕ has a density f, then

$$\int g(x)\phi(dx) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x_1, x_2) f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2$$

Example. If $S = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$, then

$$\int g(x)\phi(\mathrm{d}x) = \sum_{i=1}^n g(x_i)\phi(x_i)$$

Reminder 2: Metric Spaces

Let $\mathscr G$ be a nonempty set and let ρ map $\mathscr G \times \mathscr G$ to $\mathbb R$

The pair (\mathcal{G}, ρ) is called a **metric space** if, for any x, y, z in \mathcal{G} ,

- $\rho(x,y) = 0$ if and only if x = y
- $\bullet \ \rho(x,y) = \rho(y,x)$
- $\rho(x,z) \leqslant \rho(x,y) + \rho(y,z)$

Example. $\mathscr{G} = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\rho(x,y) = ||x-y||$

Example. $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and \mathscr{C} is all continuous bounded functions from S to \mathbb{R} ,

$$\rho(f,g) := \sup_{x \in S} |f(x) - g(x)|$$

The three axioms hold for (\mathscr{C}, ρ)

For example, if f,g and h are in $\mathscr C$ and $x\in S$, then

$$|f(x) - h(x)| = |f(x) - g(x) - (g(x) - h(x))|$$

$$\leq |f(x) - g(x)| + |g(x) - h(x)|$$

$$\leq \rho(f, g) + \rho(g, h)$$

$$\rho(f,h) \leq \rho(f,g) + \rho(g,h)$$

Optimization and Computers

Some optimization problems are pretty easy

- All functions are differentiable
- Few choice variables (low dimensional)
- Concave (for max) or convex (for min)
- First order / tangency conditions relatively simple

Textbook examples often chosen to have this structure

In reality many problems don't have this structure

- Can't take derivatives
- No analytical solution for FOCs
- Many choice variables (high dimensional)
- Neither concave nor convex local maxima and minima

Can Computers Save Us?

For any function we can always try brute force optimization

Here's an example for the following function



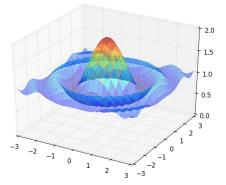


Figure: The function to maximize

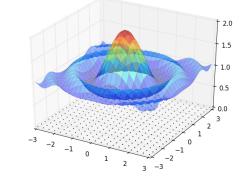


Figure: Grid of points to evaluate the function at

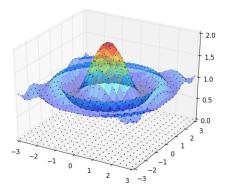


Figure: Evaluations

```
import numpy as np
from numba import jit
grid = np.linspace(-3, 3, 20)
@jit
def compute_max():
    m = -np.inf
    for x in grid:
        for y in grid:
            z = np.cos(x**2 + y**2)/(1 + x**2 + y**2) + 1
            if z > m:
                m = z
    return m
compute_max()
```

Grid size = $20 \times 20 = 400$

Outcomes

- Number of function evaluations = 400
- Time taken = almost zero.
- Maximal value recorded = 1.951
- True maximum = 2

Not bad and we can easily do better

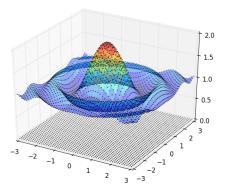


Figure: $50^2 = 2500$ evaluations

- Number of function evaluations = 50^2
- Time taken = $400 \ \mu s$
- Maximal value recorded = 1.992
- True maximum = 2

So why even study optimization?

The problem is mainly with larger numbers of choice variables

- 3 vars: $\max f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
- 4 vars: $\max f(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$

If we have 50 grid points per variable and

- 2 variables then evaluations $= 50^2 = 2500$
- 3 variables then evaluations $=50^3=125,000$
- 4 variables then evaluations $=50^4=6,250,000$
- 5 variables then evaluations = $50^5 = 312,500,000$

Example. Recent study: Optimal placement of drinks across vending machines in Tokyo

Approximate dimensions of problem:

- Number of choices for each variable = 2
- Number of choice variables = 1000

Hence number of possibilities = 2^{1000}

How big is that?

Out [10]:

How long would that take?

```
In [16]: (2**1000 / 10**9) / 31556926 # In years
Out [16]:
```

339547840365144349278007955863635707280678989995 899349462539661933596146571733926965255861364854 060286985707326991591901311029244639453805988092 045933072657455119924381235072941549332310199388 301571394569707026437986448403352049168514244509 939816790601568621661265174170019913588941596

What about high performance computing?

- more powerful hardware
- faster CPUs
- GPUs
- vector processors
- cloud computing
- massively parallel supercomputers
- • •

Let's say speed up is 10^{12} (wildly optimistic)

```
In [19]: (2**1000 / 10**(9 + 12)) / 31556926
Out[19]:
```

3395478403651443492780079558636357072806789899958 9934946253966193359614657173392696525586136485406 0286985707326991591901311029244639453805988092045 9330726574551199243812350729415493323101993883015 7139456970702643798644840335204916851424450993981 6790601568621661265174170019

For comparison:

In [20]: 5 * 10**9 # Expected lifespan of sun

Out[20]: 5000000000

Message: There are serious limits to computation

What's required is clever analysis

Exploit what information we have

- without information (oracle) we're stuck
- with information / structure we can do clever things

Examples later on...

Discrete Time Markov Processes

Let

- S be any set (called the state space)
- P(x, dy) be a **stochastic kernel** on S a distribution over S for each $x \in S$

If $\{X_t\}$ is a stochastic process satisfying

$$P(x,B) = \mathbb{P}\{X_{t+1} \in B \mid X_t = x\}$$

then called a Markov process with stochastic kernel P

$$x$$
 X_{t+1}

Example. Consider the stochastic difference equation

$$X_{t+1} = g(X_t, W_{t+1})$$
 with $\{W_t\} \stackrel{\text{\tiny IID}}{\sim} \phi$

This is a Markov process with stochastic kernel

$$P(x,B) = \phi\{w \in \mathbb{W} : g(x,w) \in B\}$$

$$x \\ \bullet g(x, W)$$

Example. Let $S = \mathbb{R}$, let $\{W_t\} \stackrel{\text{\tiny IID}}{\sim} N(0,1)$ and let

$$X_{t+1} = aX_t + b + \sigma W_{t+1}$$

This is a linear Gaussian Markov process with kernel

$$P(x, \mathrm{d}y) := N(ax + b, \sigma^2)$$

That is, $P(x,B) = \int_B p(x,y) dy$ where

$$p(x,y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{(y - ax - b)^2}{\sigma^2}\right\}$$

Example. Consider the Solow-Swan model

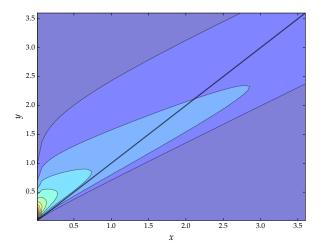
$$k_{t+1} = sf(k_t)W_{t+1} + (1-\delta)k_t \qquad \{W_t\}_{t\geqslant 1} \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim} \phi$$

Here

- k_t takes values in $S = (0, \infty)$
- $s, \delta \in (0,1)$ and f(k) > 0 when k > 0

The stochastic kernel is

$$P(k,B) = \phi \{ w \in \mathbb{W} \mid sf(k)w + (1-\delta)k \in B \}$$



Markov Operators

Given stochastic kernel P on S and $h: S \to \mathbb{R}$, let

$$Ph(x) = \int h(y)P(x, \mathrm{d}y)$$

Called the Markov operator corresponding to P

Interpretation:

$$Ph(x) = \mathbb{E}\left[h(X_{t+1}) \mid X_t = x\right]$$

Solving Equations

What is/are the solution/solutions to these equations?

1.
$$x = ax + b$$

2.
$$x = x + 1$$

3.
$$x^2 = 1$$

Now let x be $n \times 1$ and A be $n \times n$

When does this vector equation have a solution?

$$Ax = b$$



When does this vector equation in \mathbb{R}^n have a unique solution?

$$x = Ax + b$$

When does the method of successive approximations converge?

- 1. pick any $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2. set $x_{n+1} = Ax_n + b$ for n = 0, 1, ...

Is there a unique k > 0 that solves

$$k = sk^{\alpha} + (1 - \delta)k$$

Does $k_{n+1} = sk_n^{\alpha} + (1 - \delta)k_n$ converge to the solution?

Discussion: Consider the asset price equation

$$q_t = \beta \mathbb{E}_t[q_{t+1} + \delta(X_{t+1})]$$

Here $\{X_t\}$ is Markov $\sim P$ and $\delta(X_t)$ is current dividend

Guess $q_t = q(X_t)$ and rewrite as

$$q(X_t) = \beta \mathbb{E}_t[q(X_{t+1}) + \delta(X_{t+1})]$$

or as the functional equation

$$q(x) = \beta \int q(y)P(x,dy) + \beta \int \delta(y)P(x,dy)$$
 $(x \in S)$

Unique solution? How to solve?

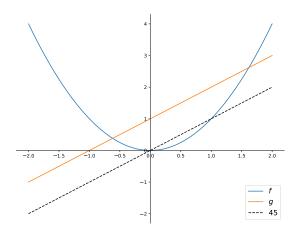
Fixed Points

Let (\mathscr{G}, ρ) be a metric space and let $T \colon \mathscr{G} \to \mathscr{G}$

A fixed point of T is a point $x^* \in \mathscr{G}$ such that $Tx^* = x^*$

Examples.

- If $f(x) = x^2$ on \mathbb{R} , then 0 and 1 are fixed points
- If g(x) = x + 1 on \mathbb{R} , then g has no fixed points on \mathbb{R}



T is called a **contraction map** on (\mathscr{G}, ρ) if

$$\exists \alpha < 1$$
 such that $\rho(Tx, Ty) \leqslant \alpha \rho(x, y), \forall x, y \in \mathscr{G}$

Example. $f(x) = \alpha x + b$ on metric space $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ with $|\alpha| < 1$, since

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = |\alpha x - \alpha y| = |\alpha||x - y|$$

Fact. Every contraction T is continuous on $\mathscr G$

Proof: If $x_n \to x$ in (\mathscr{G}, ρ) , then

$$\rho(Tx_n, Tx) \leqslant \alpha \rho(x_n, x) \to 0$$

Fact. If T is a contraction map on (\mathcal{G}, ρ) and $x \in \mathcal{G}$, then $\{T^k x\}$ is Cauchy

Sketch of proof: Along the trajectory $\{T^k x\}$ from x, we have

$$\rho(T^{k+1}x, T^kx) \leqslant \alpha \rho(T^kx, T^{k-1}x)$$

$$\leqslant \alpha^2 \rho(T^{k-1}x, T^{k-2}x)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\leqslant \alpha^k \rho(Tx, x)$$

Banach's Fixed Point Theorem

Theorem. If (\mathscr{G}, ρ) is complete and T is a contraction, then T has a unique fixed point x^* in \mathscr{G} and, for all $x \in \mathscr{G}$,

$$\lim_{k\to\infty}\rho(T^kx,x^*)=0$$

Proof: Pick any $x \in \mathcal{G}$

The sequence $\{T^kx\}$ is Cauchy and hence converges to some x^*

The point x^* is a fixed point, since

$$Tx^* = T(\lim_k T^k x) = \lim_k T(T^k x) = \lim_k T^{k+1} x = x^*$$

Regarding uniqueness, if x^* and x^{**} are fixed points of T, then

$$\rho(x^*, x^{**}) = \rho(Tx^*, Tx^{**}) \leqslant \alpha \rho(x^*, x^{**})$$

$$\rho(x^*, x^{**}) = 0$$

$$\therefore x^* = x^{**}$$

Application: Asset Pricing

Recall the asset pricing equation

$$q(x) = \beta Pq(x) + \beta P\delta(x)$$

Let \mathscr{C} be all continuous bounded functions on S with metric

$$\rho(f,g) := \sup_{x \in S} |f(x) - g(x)|$$

Let P have the Feller property, which is to say that

$$h \in \mathscr{C} \implies Ph \in \mathscr{C}$$

Let $\delta \in \mathscr{C}$ and let $\beta \in (0,1)$

Claim: The asset pricing equation

$$q(x) = \beta Pq(x) + \beta P\delta(x) \qquad (x \in S)$$

has a unique solution $q^* \in \mathscr{C}$

We often write this as $q = \beta Pq + \beta P\delta$

Remarks:

• Equivalent: the operator $T \colon \mathscr{C} \to \mathscr{C}$ defined by

$$Tq = \beta Pq + \beta P\delta$$

has a unique fixed point in $\mathscr C$

To prove this we need to show that

- 1. $Tq = \beta Pq + \beta P\delta$ is in $\mathscr C$ when $q \in \mathscr C$
- 2. the pair (\mathscr{C}, ρ) forms a complete metric space
- 3. T is a contraction map on (\mathscr{C}, ρ)

Here (1) follows from assumption and the proof of (2) is omitted

Regarding (3), fix any q, q' in $\mathscr C$ and any $x \in S$

We have,

$$|Tq(x) - Tq'(x)| = |\beta Pq(x) + \beta P\delta(x) - \beta Pq'(x) - \beta P\delta(x)|$$

$$= \beta \left| \int q(y)P(x, dy) - \int q'(y)P(x, dy) \right|$$

$$= \beta \left| \int [q(y) - q'(y)]P(x, dy) \right|$$

$$\leq \beta \int |q(y) - q'(y)|P(x, dy)$$

$$\leq \beta \sup_{y} |q(y) - q'(y)| = \beta \rho(q, q')$$

Taking the supremum with respect to x completes the proof