

Lecture XIV

Solving for the Equilibrium in Models with Idiosyncratic and Aggregate Risk

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Quantitative Macroeconomics

Aiyagari model with aggregate productivity shocks

- **Aggregate and Idiosyncratic Risk.** The aggregate productivity shock z only takes two values, $z \in Z \equiv \{z_b, z_g\}$ with $z_b < z_g$.
- We also assume only two values for the individual productivity shock, $\varepsilon \in E \equiv \{\varepsilon_b, \varepsilon_g\}$ with $\varepsilon_b < \varepsilon_g$.
- Let

$$\pi(z', \varepsilon' | z, \varepsilon) = \Pr(z_{t+1} = z', \varepsilon_{t+1} = \varepsilon' | z_t = z, \varepsilon_t = \varepsilon)$$

be the Markov chain that describes the joint evolution of the exogenous shocks.

- Notation allows transition probabilities for ε to depend on z, z'

Aiyagari model with aggregate productivity shocks

- **Production side.** From the firm's optimization problem we have:

$$w = zF_H(K, H)$$

$$R = 1 + zF_K(K, H) - \delta$$

- Note: prices depend on the K/H ratio, not just on K , but **the dynamics of H can be perfectly forecasted, conditional on (z, z')** , through π because labor supply is exogenous.
- Rig π so that Z is a sufficient statistic for H (KS, 1998)
- H is time varying, but we know how to forecast it, e.g.:

$$H(z) = \sum_{\varepsilon \in E} \varepsilon \Pi_z(\varepsilon)$$

Aiyagari model with aggregate productivity shocks

- **State variables**— The two individual states are $(a, \varepsilon) \in S$ and the two aggregate states are $(z, \lambda) \in Z \times \Lambda$ where $\lambda(\cdot)$ is the measure of households across states.
- λ represents the beginning-of-period distribution of wealth and employment status (ε), after this period employment status is realized (wealth is inherited from last period saving decision).
- The individual states are directly budget relevant
- The aggregate states are needed to compute prices
- The law of motion Ψ is needed to forecast prices

Aiyagari model with aggregate productivity shocks

- **Household Problem** in recursive form:

$$v(a, \varepsilon; z, \lambda) = \max_{c, a'} \left\{ u(c) + \beta \sum_{\varepsilon' \in E, z' \in Z} v(a', \varepsilon'; z', \lambda') \pi(z', \varepsilon' | z, \varepsilon) \right\}$$

s.t.

$$c + a' = w(z, \lambda) \varepsilon + R(z, \lambda) a$$

$$a' \geq -\underline{a}$$

$$\lambda' = \Psi(\lambda, z, z')$$

where $\Psi(\lambda, z, z')$ is the law of motion of the endogenous aggregate state

- Dependence on z' is inherited from π , but it does not apply to the marginal with respect to wealth (wealth is predetermined).
- $\Psi(z, z', \lambda)$ is the new equilibrium object

Equilibrium

- We focus on **RCE**, where (i) the individual saving decision rule is a time-invariant function $g(a, \varepsilon; z, \lambda)$ and (ii) next period cross-sectional distribution is a time invariant function $\Psi(\lambda, z, z')$ of the current distribution and of current and next period aggregate shocks.
- **Key complication**: the decision rule depends on λ which is a distribution.
- **Where is this dependence coming from?** To solve their problem, households **need to forecast prices next period**. Prices depend on aggregate capital, and aggregate capital this period and next period, K and K' , depends on how assets are distributed in the population.

Why is the distribution a state variable?

- Consider the Euler equation associated to the problem above:

$$u_c(R(z, \lambda)a + w(z, \lambda)\varepsilon - g(a, \varepsilon; z, \lambda)) \geq \beta \mathbb{E} [R(z', \lambda')u_c(R(z', \lambda')g(a, \varepsilon; z, \lambda) + w(z', \lambda')\varepsilon' - g(g(a, \varepsilon; z, \lambda), \varepsilon'; z', \lambda')))]$$

- To solve for g , households need to forecast prices next period, and next period prices depend on λ'
- Agents need to know the equilibrium law of motion Ψ to forecast λ' given λ
- Ψ is a mapping from distributions into distributions: complicated
- Note:** if prices were exogenous (SOE), the wealth distribution would not be a state variable in this example
- What if the government pays a lump sum transfer and balances the budget with a labor (or capital) income tax?

The Krusell and Smith approach

- Krusell and Smith (KS, 1998) propose to approximate the distribution through a finite set of moments
- Let \bar{m} be a $(M \times 1)$ vector of moments of the *wealth distribution*, i.e., the marginal of λ with respect to a
- Our new state vector has law of motion, in vector notation,

$$\bar{m}' = \Psi(z, \bar{m})$$

- Note that we lost the dependence on z' since we are only interested in the wealth distribution.

The Krusell and Smith approach

- To make this approach operational, one needs to: (i) choose M and (ii) specify a functional form for Ψ
- **KS main finding**: one obtains a very precise forecasting rule by simply setting $M = 1$ and by specifying a law of motion of the form:

$$\log K' = b_z^0 + b_z^1 \log K,$$

or similarly in levels instead of logs.

- **Near-aggregation** because (i) the wealth-rich have close-to-linear saving rules, (ii) they matter a lot more in the determination of aggregate wealth, and (iii) aggregate shocks do not induce significant wealth redistribution across agents

The Krusell and Smith algorithm

1. Specify a functional form for the law of motion, for example, linear or loglinear. In the linear case:

$$\bar{m}' = B_z^0 + B_z^1 \bar{m}$$

where B_z^0 is $M \times 1$ and B_z^1 is $M \times M$

2. Guess the matrices of coefficients $\{B_z^0, B_z^1\}$
3. Specify how prices depend on \bar{m} . Since $\bar{m}_1 = K$:

$$R(z, \bar{m}) = 1 + zF_K \left(\frac{\bar{m}_1}{H(z)} \right) - \delta$$

$$w(z, \bar{m}) = zF_H \left(\frac{\bar{m}_1}{H(z)} \right)$$

The Krusell and Smith algorithm

4. Solve the household problem and obtain the decision rule $g(a, \varepsilon; z, \bar{m})$ with standard methods.

Note you have additional state variables \bar{m} on which you have to define a grid.

At every point $(a, \varepsilon, z, \bar{m})$ on the grid solve for the choice $a' = a^*$ that satisfies the following EE:

$$u_c(R(z, \bar{m})a + w(z, \bar{m})\varepsilon - a^*) \geq \beta \sum_{z', \varepsilon'} [R(z', \Psi_1(z, \bar{m}))u_c(R(z', \Psi_1(z, \bar{m}))a^* + w(z', \Psi_1(z, \bar{m}))\varepsilon') - g(a^*, \varepsilon'; z', \Psi(z, \bar{m})))] \pi(z', \varepsilon' | z, \varepsilon)$$

where $\Psi_1(\cdot)$ is the forecasting function of the mean (first moment)

5. Simulate the economy for N individuals and T periods. In each period compute \bar{m}_t from the cross-sectional distribution

The Krusell and Smith algorithm

6. Run an OLS regression

$$\bar{m}_{t+1} = \hat{B}_z^0 + \hat{B}_z^1 \bar{m}_t$$

and estimate the coefficients $\{\hat{B}_z^0, \hat{B}_z^1\}$.

Since the law of motion is time-invariant, we can separate the dates t in the sample where the state is z_b from those where the state is z_g and run two distinct regressions.

7. If $\{\hat{B}_z^0, \hat{B}_z^1\} \neq \{B_z^0, B_z^1\}$, try a new guess and go back to step 1
8. Continue until convergence: fixed point algorithm in (B_z^0, B_z^1)
9. Assess whether the solution is accurate enough. If fit at the solution is not satisfactory add moments of the distribution or try a different functional form for the law of motion.

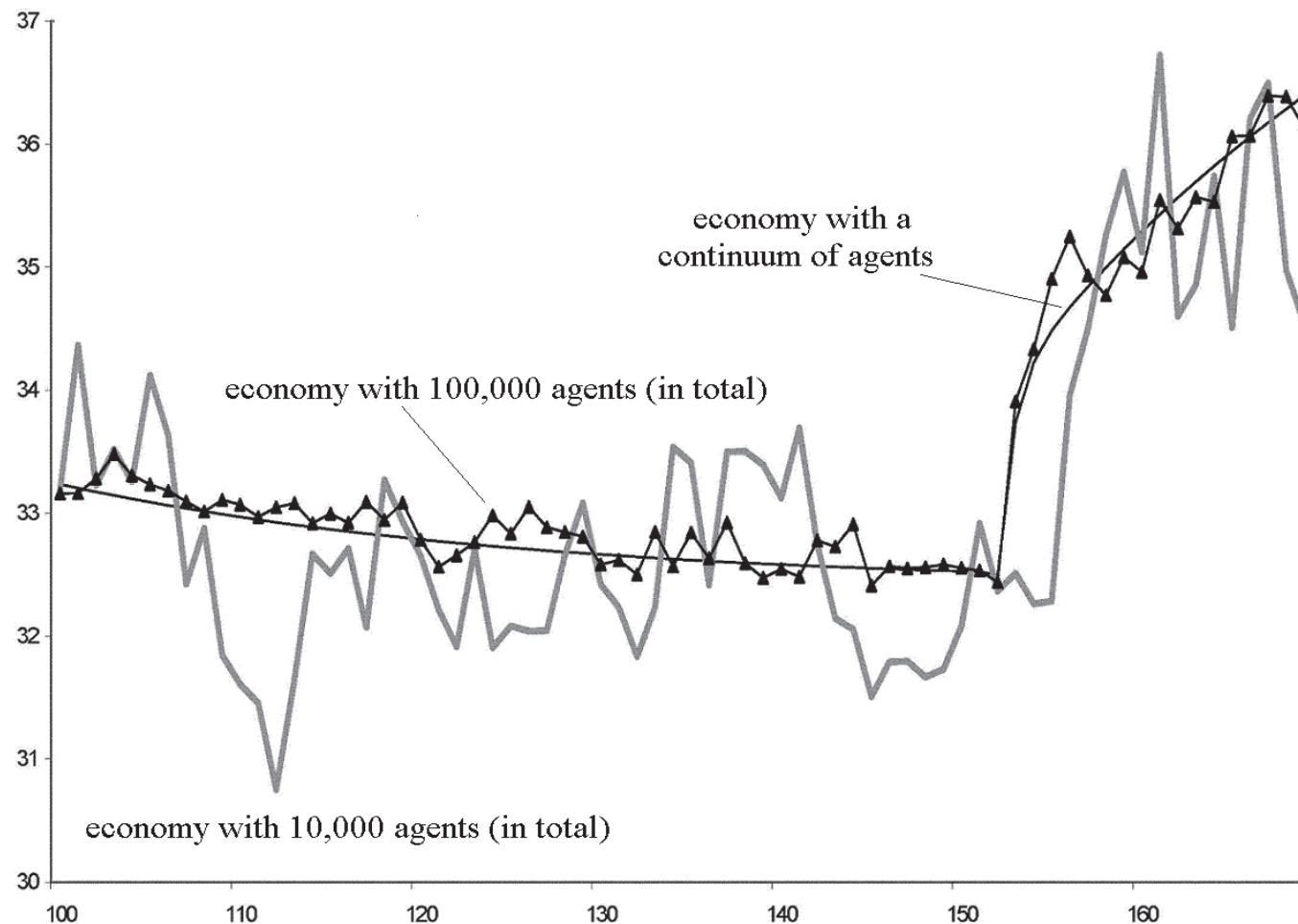
Stochastic simulation

- This method approximates the continuum of agents with a large but finite number of agents and uses a random number generator to draw both the aggregate and the idiosyncratic shocks.
 1. Simulate the economy for N individuals and T periods. For example, $N = 10,000$ and $T = 1,500$.
 2. Draw first a random sequence for the aggregate shocks of length T . Next, one for the individual productivity shocks for each $i = 1, \dots, N$, conditional on the time-path for the aggregate shocks.
 3. Initialize at $t = 0$ from the stationary distribution, for example.
 4. Drop the first 500 periods when computing statistics.

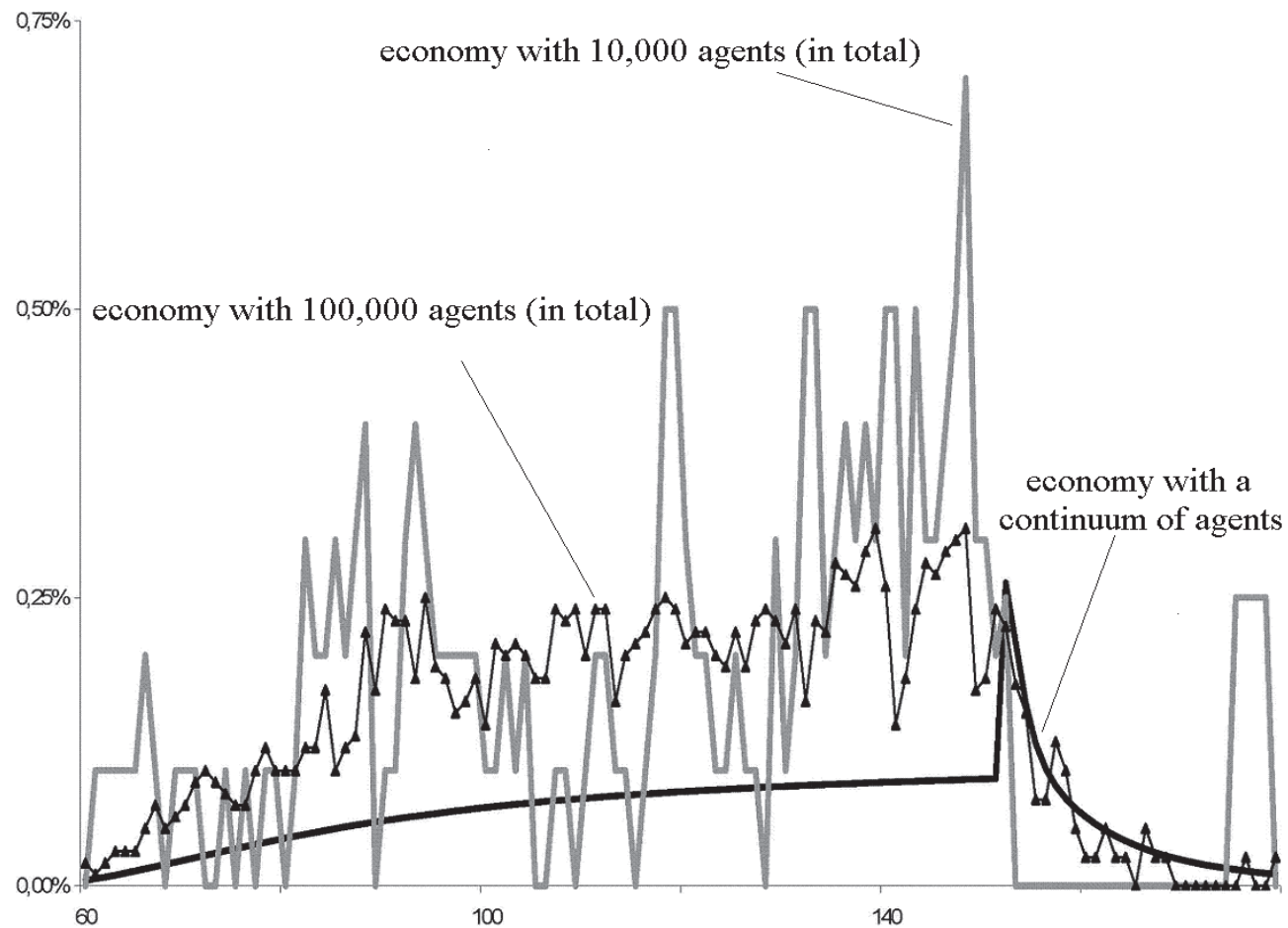
Stochastic simulation

- There will be **cross-sectional sampling variation** in the simulated cross-sectional data, while— conditional on the aggregate shock— there should be none if the model has a continuum of agents.
- Simulated data tend to cluster and clustering is bad for function approximation.
- Algain-Allais-Den Haan-Rendhal document that moments of asset holdings of the unemployed (which are few) are subject to substantial sampling variation.
- Similarly for agents at the constraint
- It is **pretty slow, but it can be parallelized easily across the N dimension**

Wealth per capita of the unemployed



Fraction of agents on the borrowing constraint



Non-stochastic simulation

- Same idea as approximation of pdf discussed earlier
 - Advantage wrt to approximation of cdf? No calculation of inverse policy function (and hence no monotonicity of the policy function) required.
1. Draw a long series of aggregate shocks of length T .
 2. Construct a fine grid over capital $[a_{\min}, a_{\max}]$, say, of 1,000 points, i.e. $J = 1,000$.
 3. Initialize the distribution at $t = 0$ from the stationary distribution
 $\lambda_0(a, \varepsilon) = \lambda^*(a, \varepsilon)$

Non-stochastic simulation

4. Suppose we are at a given date t of the simulation with aggregate states (\bar{m}_t, z_t) and next period aggregate shock is z_{t+1} .

Loop over the finer grid and for every ε and a_j on the finer grid for wealth compute $g(a_j, \varepsilon; z_t, \bar{m}_t)$

Identify the two adjacent grid points a_k and a_{k+1} that contain $g(a_j, \cdot)$. Then compute:

$$\lambda_{t+1}(a_{k+1}, \varepsilon') = \sum_{\varepsilon \in E} \pi(\varepsilon', z_{t+1} | \varepsilon, z_t) \frac{a_{k+1} - g(a_j, \varepsilon; z_t, \bar{m}_t)}{a_{k+1} - a_k} \lambda_t(a_j, \varepsilon)$$

$$\lambda_{t+1}(a_k, \varepsilon') = \sum_{\varepsilon \in E} \pi(\varepsilon', z_{t+1} | \varepsilon, z_t) \frac{g(a_j, \varepsilon; z_t, \bar{m}_t) - a_k}{a_{k+1} - a_k} \lambda_t(a_j, \varepsilon)$$

5. Use these discretized distributions to compute the moments \bar{m}_t period by period. This method is called the **histogram method**.

Explicit aggregation (Den Haan-Rendhal, 2010)

- **Idea:** derive aggregate laws of motion directly from individual policy rules **without simulating cross-sectional distr. of agents**
- Decision rules (suppose we discretize wrt to \bar{m}) can be written as:

$$g(a, \varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) = \sum_{j=0}^J \phi_j(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) a^j$$

- End of period aggregate wealth (denoted by $\hat{\cdot}$), for type ε is:

$$\hat{m}_\varepsilon(1) = \int \sum_{j=0}^J \phi_j(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) a^j d\lambda_\varepsilon = \sum_{j=0}^J \phi_j(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) \int a^j d\lambda_\varepsilon = \sum_{j=0}^J \phi_j(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) \bar{m}_\varepsilon(j)$$

where the index 1 denotes the first moment, and λ_ε denotes the wealth distribution conditional on type ε .

- It **depends on all the higher beginning-of-period moments $\bar{m}_\varepsilon(j)$** .

Explicit aggregation method

- When $J = 1$ and decision rules are linear, the equation above is sufficient to calculate exactly $\hat{m}_\varepsilon(1)$
- And thus, together with the value of z' , next period aggregate wealth $\bar{m}'_{\varepsilon'}(1)$ since:

$$\bar{m}'_{\varepsilon'}(1) = \sum_{\varepsilon \in E} \pi(\varepsilon', z'; \varepsilon, z) \hat{m}_\varepsilon(1) \Pi_z(\varepsilon)$$

- The calculation is **virtually impossible if there is just a little bit of nonlinearity in the decision rules.**
- For simplicity, suppose that $J = 2$. The aggregate states are then $(\bar{m}_\varepsilon(1), \bar{m}_\varepsilon(2))$ for all ε .

Explicit aggregation method

- How do we compute $\hat{m}_\varepsilon(2)$?

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{m}_\varepsilon(2) &= \int g(a, \varepsilon; z, \bar{m})^2 d\lambda_\varepsilon = \sum_{j=0}^2 \int [\phi_j(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) a^j]^2 d\lambda_\varepsilon \\ &= \phi_0(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})^2 + 2\phi_0(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})\phi_1(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) \int a d\lambda_\varepsilon \\ &\quad + \left[2\phi_0(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})\phi_2(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) + \phi_1(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})^2 \right] \int a^2 d\lambda_\varepsilon \\ &\quad + 2\phi_1(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})\phi_2(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) \int a^3 d\lambda_\varepsilon + \phi_2(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})^2 \int a^4 d\lambda_\varepsilon \\ &= F(\bar{m}_\varepsilon(1), \bar{m}_\varepsilon(2), \bar{m}_\varepsilon(3), \bar{m}_\varepsilon(4))\end{aligned}$$

We need first 4 moments of the wealth distribution.

- But to predict the third and four moments, we need even more moments...and so on
- **Conclusion:** whenever $J > 1$ one has to include an infinite set of moments as state variables to get an exact solution

Explicit aggregation method (case $J = 2$)

- Den Haan and Rendhal (2010) suggest the following algorithm:
 1. Define, e.g., as aggregate states, $\bar{m} = (\bar{m}_\varepsilon(1), \bar{m}_\varepsilon(2))$
 2. Use a quadratic approximation for $(a')^2$ that you can use in the aggregation step:

$$(a'_\varepsilon)^2 = h(a, \varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) \equiv \psi_0(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) + \psi_1(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})a + \psi_2(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})a^2$$

then, the explicit aggregation step involves computing

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{m}_\varepsilon(2) &= \int [\psi_0(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) + \psi_1(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})a + \psi_2(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})a^2] d\lambda_\varepsilon \\ &= \psi_0(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) + \psi_1(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})\bar{m}_\varepsilon(1) + \psi_2(\varepsilon; z, \bar{m})\bar{m}_\varepsilon(2)\end{aligned}$$

- Thus, to predict the second moment, you only need the second moment!

Explicit aggregation method (XPA) in practice

- In practice, Den Haan and Rendahl (2010) approximate individual policy rule with a high-order spline, but...
- ... they obtain the aggregate law of motion by aggregating a simple linear approximation of the individual policy rule, and show that they can get an accurate solution with this approach.
- Alternative implementation of XPA when aggregate K is enough:

$$\hat{m}_\varepsilon(1) = \int g(a, \varepsilon; z, \bar{m}) d\lambda_\varepsilon \simeq g(\bar{m}(1), \varepsilon; z, \bar{m}(1))$$

$$\bar{m}(1) = \sum_{\varepsilon \in E} g(\bar{m}(1), \varepsilon; z, \bar{m}(1)) \Pi_z(\varepsilon)$$

- In general: XPA much faster (10-50 times) because you don't need to do the simulation step

Assessing accuracy of the approximated law of motion

- KS suggest to compute **the R^2** to measure the fit of the regression on the simulated data and use it to assess accuracy of the approximation for the law of motion.
- Unfortunately, it is not a good measure of fit: **solutions with an R^2 in excess of 0.9999 sometimes can be inaccurate.**
- Why? We want to assess the accuracy of the law of motion

$$K_{t+1} = b_{z_t}^0 + b_{z_t}^1 K_t$$

- Recall that this law of motion is based on the best linear fit of the time series for average capital $\{K_t^*\}$ obtained from a panel simulated via the decision rules, jointly with a sequence for $\{Z_t\}$.
- Thus **K_{t+1}^* and K_t^* are only related through the decision rules, not directly through the previous law of motion**

Assessing accuracy of the approximated law of motion

- Define: $u_{t+1} = K_{t+1}^* - K_{t+1}$ where K_t^* is the true value of the capital stock obtained from the simulation and K_{t+1} is the predicted one based on the law of motion. Then:

$$u_{t+1} = K_{t+1}^* - (b_{z_t}^0 + b_{z_t}^1 K_t^*)$$

since each period one starts with the true value and evaluates how the approximation performs starting from the truth.

- It is a **one-step ahead forecast error** of the law of motion
- Suppose the approximating law of motion is bad and would want to push the observations away from the truth each period. The error terms defined this way **underestimate the problem**, because the true dgp (“*”) is used each period to put the approximating law of motion back on track

Meaningless of the R^2

Table 1: Meaninglessness of the R^2

equation	R^2	$\hat{\sigma}_u$	implied properties	
			mean	stand. dev.
$\alpha_3 = 0.96404$ (fitted regression)	0.99999729	4.1×10^{-5}	3.6723	0.0248
$\alpha_3 = 0.954187$	0.99990000	2.5×10^{-4}	3.6723	0.0217
$\alpha_3 = 0.9324788$	0.99900000	7.9×10^{-4}	3.6723	0.0174
$\alpha_3 = 0.8640985$	0.99000000	2.5×10^{-3}	3.6723	0.0113

Notes: The first row corresponds to the fitted regression equation. The subsequent rows are based on aggregate laws of motion in which the value of α_3 is changed until the indicated level of the R^2 is obtained. α_1 is adjusted to keep the fitted mean capital stock equal.

$$K_{t+1} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 z_t + \alpha_3 K_t$$

Assessing accuracy of the approximated law of motion

- Another problem is that R^2 is based on mean (squared) errors, but it is best to define discrepancies as **maximal errors**.
- Finally, if you express the law of motion in terms of changes ΔK_{t+1} instead of levels K_{t+1} , even though the law of motion is the same, you get:

$$\Delta K_{t+1} = b_{z_t}^0 + (b_{z_t}^1 - 1) K_t$$

whose R^2 are a lot lower, of the order of 0.85.

Assessing accuracy of the approximated law of motion

- **Alternative procedure.** Define the error as

$$\tilde{u}_{t+1} = K_{t+1}^* - (b_{z_t}^0 + b_{z_t}^1 K_t),$$

i.e., use K_t instead of K_t^* to predict the capital stock next period, thus we allow errors to propagate over time

- Then, report the maximal error in the simulation.
- One can even plot the true and approximated series, and by analyzing it one can figure out in which histories deviations are the largest.
- Even better: do it for ΔK_t
- **P.S.** KS also suggest to use T -step ahead forecast error for u_{t+1} : much better than R^2 , and nearly equivalent to the alternative R^2

Trivial market clearing

- When prices are determined by marginal product of the aggregate state variable (e.g., physical or human capital), then iterating over the law of motion for the aggregate state yields a solution where prices are consistent with market clearing
- Given a simulated history of $\{z_t\}$, and an initial condition K_t : (i) prices at t depend only on K_t which is known; (ii) individual saving decisions do not affect prices at t , but they aggregate into the same K_{t+1} predicted by the law of motion, and hence the asset market clears next period; (iii) next period prices equal again the marginal product of K_{t+1} .
- What makes market clearing trivial is that prices (wages and rates of return) only depend on a pre-determined variable K_t
- Suppose now decisions at time t affect prices at time t . Examples: (i) endogenous labor supply; (ii) risk-free bond; (iii) housing market

Endogenous labor supply

- Define **first-step decision rules** for assets and hours worked $g_a(\varepsilon, a, z, K; H)$ and $g_h(\varepsilon, a, z, K; H)$, **a function of aggregate labor input H as well**

Define aggregate laws of motion:

$$\begin{aligned} K' &= b_z^0 + b_z^1 K = \Psi_K(z, K) \\ H &= d_z^0 + d_z^1 K = \Psi_H(z, K) \end{aligned}$$

- Guess initial decision rules and aggregate laws of motion
- At every point on the grid solve for (h^*, a^*) using the EE:

$$\begin{aligned} u_c(R(z, K, H)a + w(z, K, H)\varepsilon h^* - a^*) &\geq \beta \sum_{z', \varepsilon'} [R(z', \Psi_K(z, K), \Psi_H(z', \Psi_K(z, K))) \cdot \\ &\cdot u_c(R(z', \Psi_K(z, K), \Psi_H(z', \Psi_K(z, K)))a^* + \\ &w(z', \Psi_K(z, K), \Psi_H(z', \Psi_K(z, K)))\varepsilon' g_h(\varepsilon', a^*, z', \Psi_K(z, K), \Psi_H(z'; \Psi_K(z, K))) \\ &- g_a(a^*, \varepsilon', z', \Psi_K(z, K); \Psi_H(z', \Psi_K(z, K))))] \pi(z', \varepsilon' | z, \varepsilon) \end{aligned}$$

Endogenous labor supply

and the intratemporal first order condition:

$$v_h(h^*) = w(z, K, H) \varepsilon \cdot u_c(R(z, K, H) a + w(z, K, H) \varepsilon - a^*)$$

- Once these first-step decision rules are obtained from this system of equations, use the decision rules to simulate an artificial panel, but **at every date t one must solve for H_t^* that satisfies the labor market clearing condition at date t :**

$$\int g_h(\varepsilon, a, z_t, K_t, H_t^*) d\lambda_t = F_H \left(\frac{w(z_t, K_t, H_t^*)}{z_t}, K_t \right)^{-1}$$

- This time series $\{z_t, H_t^*, K_t\}$ is used to update the guess of the aggregate laws of motion.
- Once converged is achieved, we can solve for the *second-step (and final) decision rules* $g_a(\varepsilon, a, z, K)$ and $g_h(\varepsilon, a, z, K)$ **only as a function of K**

Asset in zero net (or exogenous) supply

- Examples: household-supplied IOU, government bond, land
- Price of bond q . Cash-in-hand:

$$\omega = R(z, K) a + b$$

- Define the decision rule for capital and bonds $g_a(\varepsilon, \omega, z, K; q)$ and $g_b(\varepsilon, \omega, z, K; q)$ and the aggregate laws of motion:

$$K' = b_z^0 + b_z^1 K = \Psi_K(z, K)$$

$$q = d_z^0 + d_z^1 K = \Psi_q(z, K)$$

- Obtained these first-step decision rules, the simulation step requires that, at each date t , one looks for the q_t^* that satisfies the market clearing condition:

$$\int g_b(\varepsilon, \omega, z_t, K_t; q_t^*) d\lambda_t = 0$$

Asset in zero net (or exogenous) supply

- Time series $\{z_t, q_t^*, K_t\}$ is used to update the guess of the aggregate laws of motion.
- Upon convergence, we can solve for the **second-step decision rules** $g_a(\varepsilon, \omega, z, K)$ and $g_h(\varepsilon, \omega, z, K)$ only as a function of K

- Shortcut (**no need to add q as a state**): instead solve for

$$g_d(\varepsilon, \omega, z, K) = g_b(\varepsilon, \omega, z, K) + q(z, K)$$

- Imposing market clearing at every t , aggregation of $g_d(\cdot)$ gives the bond price which is then used in the simulation step to update the law of motion:

$$q_t = \int g_d(\varepsilon, \omega, z_t, K_t) d\lambda_t$$

- Then, upon convergence, obtain $g_b(\cdot) = g_d(\cdot) - q(z, K)$

Projection-Perturbation approach (Reiter JEDC 09)

- It combines features of projection and perturbation methods
- **Idea:** compute a solution that is fully nonlinear in the idiosyncratic shocks, **but only linear in the aggregate shocks**
- The solution method has three steps:
 1. Provide a **finite representation** of economy at any date t , i.e.:
 - (a) **representing the saving function g_a by a vector ϕ_t** which contains the values of g_a at the grid points over a (if g_a is approximated through a spline) or the polynomial coefficients (if g_a is approximated by a family of orthogonal polynomials).
 - (b) **representing the distribution as a vector $\lambda_t = \{\lambda_{\varepsilon,t}\}_{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{E}}$** of probability mass of households of each type ε within specified intervals of asset holdings.

Projection-Perturbation approach

2. Compute the steady-state of the economy, i.e., **the stationary economy when aggregate shocks are zero**. This step yields a finite representation for the stationary saving function and the invariant distribution $\{\phi^*, \lambda^*\}$.
 3. Compute **a first-order perturbation** of all variables $\{\phi_t, \lambda_t, z_t\}$ around the steady-state solution of the model with uninsurable risk $\{\phi^*, \lambda^*, 0\}$.
- Note that we are treating **(i) the coefficients of the policy function and (ii) the quantiles of the distribution as variables in the perturbation step**

Details on step 1

- Grid over ε , call it \mathcal{E} , with n_ε points
- Grid for the consumption policy rule over a , call it \mathcal{A}^p with n_a^p points, the dimension of the vector ϕ_t
- A denser grid for the density, call it \mathcal{A}^d with n_a^d points. The dimension of the vectors $\{\lambda_{\varepsilon,t}\}$ (one for each value of ε) is $n_a^d - 1$.
- Need to define the **system of equations representing the economy** at date t . It comprises of:
- The law of motion for the exogenous aggregate state:

$$\log z_{t+1} = \rho \log z_t + \sigma \eta_{t+1}$$

Note: it is convenient to treat z_t as a continuous shock. Drawback: we cannot easily handle dependence of π from z

Details on step 1

- **Euler equation.** We have one equation for each point $(\varepsilon, a_j) \in \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{A}^p$, i.e., $n_\varepsilon \times n_a^p$ equations:

$$\begin{aligned} u' (w (z_t, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_t) \varepsilon + R (z_t, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_t) a_j - g_a (a_j, \varepsilon; \boldsymbol{\phi}_t)) \geq \\ \beta \mathbb{E}_t [R (z_{t+1}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{t+1}) \sum_{\varepsilon' \in \mathcal{E}} u' (w (z_{t+1}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{t+1}) \varepsilon' + R (z_{t+1}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{t+1}) g_a (a_j, \varepsilon; \boldsymbol{\phi}_t) \\ - g_a (g_a (a_j, \varepsilon; \boldsymbol{\phi}_t), \varepsilon'; \boldsymbol{\phi}_{t+1})) \pi (\varepsilon', \varepsilon)] \end{aligned}$$

- **Equilibrium prices (2 equations):**

$$\begin{aligned} w (z_t, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_t) &= z_t F_H \left(\sum_{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{E}} \sum_{a_k \in \mathcal{A}^d} a_k \lambda_{\varepsilon, t} (a_k), H (z_t) \right) \\ R (z_t, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_t) &= 1 + z_t F_K \left(\sum_{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{E}} \sum_{a_k \in \mathcal{A}^d} a_k \lambda_{\varepsilon, t} (a_k), H (z_t) \right) - \delta \end{aligned}$$

Details on step 1

- The law of motion for the pdf, $n_\varepsilon \times (n_a^d - 1) \times 2$ equations. Two equations for each point $(\varepsilon, a_j) \in \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{A}^d$

$$\lambda_{\varepsilon', t+1}(a_{k+1}) = \sum_{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{E}} \pi(\varepsilon', \varepsilon) \frac{a_{k+1} - g_a(a_j, \varepsilon; \phi_t)}{a_{k+1} - a_k} \lambda_{\varepsilon, t}(a_j)$$

$$\lambda_{\varepsilon', t+1}(a_k) = \sum_{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{E}} \pi(\varepsilon', \varepsilon) \frac{g_a(a_j, \varepsilon; \phi_t) - a_k}{a_{k+1} - a_k} \lambda_{\varepsilon, t}(a_j)$$

- As a result: system of $1 + (n_\varepsilon \times n_a^p) + 2 + n_\varepsilon \times (n_a^d - 1) \times 2$ equations that can be written as:

$$\mathbb{E}_t [\mathcal{F}(y_{t+1}, y_t, x_{t+1}, x_t)] = 0$$

where $x_t^1 = z_t$, $x_t^2 = \lambda_t$, $y_t = \phi_t$

Details on steps 2 and 3

- Steady state of the system:

$$\mathcal{F}(y^*, y^*, x^*, x^*) = 0$$

requires computing the policy functions and invariant distribution at the steady-state ($z = 0$)

- We know how to do first-order perturbations of (ϕ_t, λ_t, z_t) around $(\phi^*, \lambda^*, 0)$.
- **Lots of equations**, e.g., if $n^\varepsilon = 2$, $n_a^p = 30$ and $n_a^d = 1,000$ we have over 4,000 equations. **Most costly is the state space for the distribution**
- Remedies: yes, the “smooth density approximation”

Smooth approximation for asset density

- Define a smooth $n - th$ order polynomial approximation of the asset density for type ε at date t as $P(a; \kappa_t(\varepsilon))$ where $\kappa_t(\varepsilon)$ is a vector of coefficients.
- $P(a; \kappa_t(\varepsilon))$, together with the decision rule at date t , is sufficient to obtain $P(a; \kappa_{t+1}(\varepsilon))$
- Then, two options:
 1. **Reiter-style**: First-order perturbation of $\kappa_t(\varepsilon)$ wrt to z : much lower-dimensional than the vector of density quantiles
 2. **KS-style**: Look for a law of motion of the coefficients $\kappa(\varepsilon)$, if following a KS-style algorithm

Algorithm

1. Use $P(a; \kappa_t(\varepsilon))$ and $g_a(a, \varepsilon; \phi_t)$ to determine a set of moments for the end-of-period distribution $\{\hat{m}_{\varepsilon,t}(j)\}$ and, through the law of motion of the idiosyncratic shock, determine the beginning of next period moments $\{\bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t+1}(j)\}$
 2. Given the vector $\{\bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t+1}(j)\}$, find the values $\kappa_{t+1}(\varepsilon)$ of the coefficients of the approximating density $P(a; \kappa_{t+1}(\varepsilon))$ that ensure that the moments of the approximating density are close enough to $\{\bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t+1}(j)\}$.
- 1. and 2. determine, implicitly, a mapping between $\kappa_t(\varepsilon)$ and $\kappa_{t+1}(\varepsilon)$, and thus between current and next-period distribution as a function of z , that can be included in the system of equations and appropriately perturbed

Details on step 2.

- Algan, Allais, and Den Haan (2008) suggest using:

$$\begin{aligned} P(a; \kappa_t(\varepsilon)) &= \kappa_t^0(\varepsilon) \exp[\kappa_t^1(\varepsilon)(a - \bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t}(1)) \\ &+ \kappa_t^2(\varepsilon) \left((a - \bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t}(1))^2 - \bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t}(2) \right) + \dots \\ &+ \kappa_t^n(\varepsilon) \left((a - \bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t}(1))^n - \bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t}(n) \right)] \end{aligned}$$

- Step 2 is a root-finding problem: find $\{\kappa_t(\varepsilon)\}$ that solve a set of equations. With this form for density, the coefficients (except for $\kappa_t^0(\varepsilon)$), can be found with the following minimization routine:

$$\min_{\{\kappa_t^1(\varepsilon), \dots, \kappa_t^n(\varepsilon)\}} \int P(a; \kappa_t(\varepsilon)) da$$

- This minimization leads to the right answer, because the FOCs correspond to the condition that the first n moments of $P(a; \kappa_t(\varepsilon))$ equal to the corresponding moments obtained from decision rule.

Details on step 2.

For example, the FOC wrt to $\kappa_t^2(\varepsilon)$ is :

$$\int \left[(a - \bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t}(1))^2 - \bar{m}_{\varepsilon,t}(2) \right] P(a; \kappa_t(\varepsilon)) da = 0$$

- $\kappa_t^0(\varepsilon)$ is determined residually by the condition that the density integrates to one
- Advantage for projection-perturbation method: just need to keep track of $\{\kappa_t(\varepsilon)\}$, many fewer parameters than size of \mathcal{A}^d grid (say, twenty instead of one thousand): faster perturbation step.
- Disadvantage: slower updating step than with the histogram method because it requires solving a minimization problem each time