Solving High-Dimensional Asset Pricing Models via Newton–Kantorovich Iteration

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ABSTRACT. To be written

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1. Introduction

As with many sub-fields in economics and finance, researchers working on asset pricing face the need to handle a growing list of state variables when trying to match existing theory to the data. For example, while the seminal paper of Bansal and Yaron (2004) used just two state variables to model the wealth-consumption ratio, subsequent work has added many features to the consumption side of this model. For example, Schorfheide et al. (2018) add preference shocks and an additional stochastic volatility term, leading to four state variables, while Gomez-Cram and Yaron (2021) use six to handle expectations of inflation.

To date, the standard method for handling these kinds of models has been loglinearization. However, the underlying models are highly nonlinear and, moreover, it has been shown that these nonlinearities matter for endogenous quantities

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of interest, such as the risk premium (see, e.g., Pohl et al. (2018)). Hence researchers are seeking better global solution methods that capture the full impact of underlying nonlinearities.

At the same time, for a model of this type, even a moderate number of state variables leads to challenging computational problems. One reason is the nonlinearities discussed above. Another is that, in standard calibrations, discount factors are very close to unity (e.g., 0.998 in Bansal and Yaron (2004)), implying slow convergence of some solution methods. Moreover, the consumption problem is typically embedded in a larger model with still more state variables, so fast and accurate solutions are essential.

In this paper we show how to efficiently approximate global solutions to the kinds of asset pricing models listed above using Newton–Kantorovich iteration backed by three features: automatic differentiation, just-in-time compilation and execution on hardware accelerators such as GPUs. We focus on computing the wealth-consumption ratio in the asset pricing models we consider, since this ratio is one of the key elements of the stochastic discount factor used to recover asset prices. Typically, when log-linearization is avoided, calculating the wealth-consumption ratio is the most computationally intensive part of approximating the stochastic discount factor.

To implement the features listed above, we use JAX. JAX is scientific library within the Python ecosystem that provides data types, functions and a compiler for fast linear algebra operations, automatic differentiation, and automated GPU/TPU support via a just-in-time compiler. Initially developed in-house at Google, JAX is typically used for machine learning and AI, since it can scale to large data operations and automatically differentiate loss functions for gradient decent. However, JAX is sufficiently low-level that it can be used for many purposes, including asset pricing.

Using Newton–Kantorovich iteration exploits several key features of JAX. First, automatic differentiation can be used to efficiently compute the Jacobian of the operator that defines the wealth-consumption ratio. Second, by switching Newton's method, rather than a more direct algorithm such as from successive approximation (i.e., fixed point iteration), we change the problem from many small iterations

to a small number of computationally expensive ones. This offers greater opportunities for parallelized calculations. Third, JAX permits inversion of the Jacobian without actually instantiating the full Jacobian matrix. This is essential for successfully solving high dimensional problems asset pricing problems.

We also note that automatic differentiation offers the following important advantage: compared to numerical derivatives, exact derivatives from automatic differentiation are more accurate. This is matters because discount rates are very low (i.e., discount factors are very close to unity), which makes convergence is fragile.

TODO. Complete once all experiments are done. Provide some explanation of what we achieve. Review of related literature.

2. Set Up

In this section we introduce the model and progress to stating the functional equation for the wealth-consumption ration. Then we outline the Newton–Kantorovich iteration scheme.

2.1. **The Wealth-Consumption Ratio.** In discrete-time no-arbitrage environments, the equilibrium price process $\{P_t\}_{t\geqslant 0}$ associated with a cash flow $\{G_t\}_{t\geqslant 1}$ obeys the fundamental recursion

$$P_t = \mathbb{E}_t M_{t+1} (P_{t+1} + G_{t+1})$$
 for all $t \ge 0$, (1)

where $\{M_t\}$ is the sequence of single period stochastic discount factors (see, for example, Kreps (1981), Hansen and Richard (1987) or Duffie (2001)). Most of the well-known "puzzles" in asset pricing theory relate to the difficulty of matching (1) to the data across a diverse range of asset classes. Attempts to resolve these puzzles typically involve relatively sophisticated models for the stochastic discount factor (SDF) process $\{M_t\}$.

In the model, the wealth-consumption ratio obeys

$$eta^{ heta} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\left(rac{\lambda_{t+1}}{\lambda_t}
ight)^{ heta} \left(rac{C_{t+1}}{C_t}
ight)^{1-\gamma} \left(rac{w(X_{t+1})}{w(X_t)-1}
ight)^{ heta}
ight] = 1,$$

where $\{X_t\}_{t\geqslant 0}$ is a stationary time-homogeneous Markov process on $X\subset \mathbb{R}^d$. Rearranging the previous expression gives

$$(w(X_t) - 1)^{\theta} = \beta^{\theta} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\left(\frac{\lambda_{t+1}}{\lambda_t} \right)^{\theta} \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} \right)^{1-\gamma} w(X_{t+1})^{\theta} \right]$$
$$= \beta^{\theta} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\exp \left\{ \theta g_{\lambda,t+1} + (1 - \gamma) g_{c,t+1} \right\} w(X_{t+1})^{\theta} \right],$$

where

$$g_{c,t+1} := \ln \frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t}$$
 and $g_{\lambda,t+1} := \ln \frac{\lambda_{t+1}}{\lambda_t}$. (2)

Let \mathbb{H} be the linear operator defined by

$$(\mathbb{H}f)(x) = \mathbb{E}_x f(X_{t+1}) \exp \{\theta g_{\lambda,t+1} + (1-\gamma)g_{c,t+1}\}$$
 (3)

at each $x \in X$, where \mathbb{E}_x conditions on $X_t = x$. With this notation we can write the equation for the wealth-consumption ratio as $(w(x) - 1)^{\theta} = \beta^{\theta} [(\mathbb{H}w)(x)^{\theta}]$. Rearranging once more gives the functional equation

$$w = 1 + \beta (\mathbb{H}w^{\theta})^{1/\theta}. \tag{4}$$

Stachurski et al. (2022) show that, under mild conditions, (4) has a unique solution w^* in the space of continuous everywhere positive functions on X if and only if $r(\mathbb{H})^{1/\theta} < 1$, where $r(\mathbb{H})$ is the spectral radius of the operator \mathbb{H} . This condition is satisfied in the models we consider.

2.2. **Solution Methods.** A function w solves (4) if and only if w is a fixed point of the (nonlinear) operator \mathbb{T} defined by

$$\mathbb{T}w = 1 + \beta \, (\mathbb{H}w^{\theta})^{1/\theta}. \tag{5}$$

Stachurski et al. (2022) also show that, under the same spectral radius condition $r(\mathbb{H})^{1/\theta} < 1$ and with w^* denoting the unique fixed point of \mathbb{T} , the convergence $\lim_{k\to\infty} \|\mathbb{T}^k w - w^*\|_{\infty} = 0$ holds for any strictly positive initial condition w, where $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ is the supremum norm. Hence successive approximation (i.e., iteration with \mathbb{T}) provides one reliable and globally convergent method for computing w^* .

However, successive approximation is typically slow, since (a) in these models, the discount factor is very close to unity, and (b) successive approximation is inherently sequential and offers relatively limited opportunities for parallelization. For this reason we focus instead on Newton–Kantorovich iteration,

Background on Newton's algorithm in \mathbb{R}^N . Let f be a smooth map from \mathbb{R}^N to itself. We want to find the $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$ that solves f(x) = x. Ordinary successive approximation uses

$$x_{k+1} = f(x_k) \tag{6}$$

Newton's method first sets g(x) = f(x) - x, so that we are seeking a root x satisfying g(x) = 0, and then iterates on

$$x_{k+1} = g(x_k) + J(x_k)^{-1}g(x_k)$$
(7)

where J(x) is the Jacobian of g at x.

3. APPLICATIONS

3.1. **Example: The SSY Case.** To implement the Koopmans operator \mathbb{T} , we need to specify the linear operator \mathbb{H} . Here we specify \mathbb{H} for the long run risk model of Schorfheide et al. (2018).

In this model, the state process takes the form

$$X_t := (h_{\lambda,t}, h_{c,t}, h_{z,t}, z_t)$$
 (8)

where

$$z_{t+1} = \rho z_t + (1 - \rho^2)^{1/2} \sigma_{z,t} \varepsilon_{t+1}$$

and

$$\sigma_{i,t} = \varphi_i \, \bar{\sigma} \, \exp(h_{i,t}), \qquad h_{i,t+1} = \rho_i \, h_{i,t} + s_i \, \eta_{i,t+1}, \qquad i \in \{z,c,\lambda\}.$$

The consumption and preference shock growth rates are

$$g_{c,t+1} = \mu_c + z_t + \sigma_{c,t} \, \xi_{c,t+1} \quad \text{and} \quad g_{\lambda,t+1} = h_{\lambda,t+1}.$$
 (9)

The innovations are all independent and standard normal.

In this setting, the operator H takes the form

$$(\mathbb{H}f)(x) = \mathbb{E}_x f(X_{t+1}) \exp \left\{ \theta h_{\lambda,t+1} + (1-\gamma)(\mu_c + z_t + \sigma_{c,t} \xi_{c,t+1}) \right\}.$$

We can reduce dimensionality in the conditional expectation by integrating out the independent innovation $\xi_{c,t+1}$, which leads to

$$(\mathbb{H}f)(x) = \exp\left\{(1-\gamma)(\mu_c+z) + \frac{1}{2}(1-\gamma)^2\sigma_c^2\right\} \mathbb{E}_x f(X_{t+1}) \exp\left\{\theta h_{\lambda,t+1}\right\}, (10)$$

where the conditioning is on $X_t = x$ as given in (8). We can write the operator more explicitly as

$$(\mathbb{H}f)(x) = \kappa(z, h_c) \mathbb{E}_x f(X_{t+1}) \exp\left\{\theta h_{\lambda, t+1}\right\},\tag{11}$$

where

$$\kappa(z, h_c) := \exp\left\{ (1 - \gamma)(\mu_c + z) + \frac{1}{2}(1 - \gamma)^2 [\varphi_c \,\bar{\sigma} \, \exp(h_c)]^2 \right\}. \tag{12}$$

The baseline parameter values can be found in the code repository.

3.2. **Example: The GCY Case.** In this section, we analyze the stability properties of the model of Gomez-Cram and Yaron (2020). The authors add inflation dynamics to a long-run risk model similar to the one of Schorfheide et al. (2018). In particular, they assume that the expected inflation rate $z_{\pi,t}$ affects the mean growth rate of consumption:

$$g_{c,t+1} = \ln\left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t}\right) = \mu_c + z_t + \sigma_{c,t} \, \xi_{c,t+1},$$
 (13)

where

$$z_{t+1} = \rho z_t + \rho_{\pi} z_{\pi,t} + \sigma_{z,t} \eta_{t+1}$$
$$z_{\pi,t+1} = \rho_{\pi\pi} z_{\pi,t} + \sigma_{z\pi,t} \eta_{\pi,t+1}$$

and

$$\sigma_{i,t} = \varphi_i \,\bar{\sigma} \, \exp(h_{i,t}) \tag{14}$$

with

$$h_{i,t+1} = \rho_i h_{i,t} + s_i \eta_{i,t+1}$$
 for $i \in \{z, c, z\pi\}$.

Note that also the expected inflation rate $z_{\pi,t}$ has stochastic volatility $\sigma_{z\pi,t}$. As in the model of Schorfheide et al. (2018), the process $\{\lambda_t\}$ follows (9) and all shocks are IID and standard normal. Hence, the state vector x contains 6 states and is given by

$$x = (z, z_{\pi}, h_z, h_c, h_{z\pi}, h_{\lambda}) \in X := \mathbb{R}^6.$$

We can apply the same conditioning as in the model of Schorfheide et al. (2018) and we need to compute S_c numerically again. The baseline parameter values can be found in the code repository.

4. SOLUTION METHOD

4.1. **Discretization.** For computation, the state process is distcretized onto a state space $S = \{x_1, ..., x_N\}$ of size $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and the operator \mathbb{H} is represented by a matrix \mathbf{H} , with

$$\mathbf{H}(n,n') = \sum_{n'=1}^{N} \exp \left\{ \theta g_{\lambda}(x_n, x_{n'}, \xi) + (1 - \gamma) g_c(x_n, x_{n'}, \xi) \right\} \mathbf{P}(n,n'), \quad (15)$$

where **P** is an $N \times N$ matrix with **P**(n, n') representing the probability that the discretized state process transitions from state x_n to state $x_{n'}$ in one unit of time.

The discretization of \mathbb{T} is written as **T** and the problem is to find the fixed point of

$$(\mathbf{T}w) = 1 + \beta (\mathbf{H}w^{\theta})^{1/\theta} \tag{16}$$

in the set of strictly positive vectors in \mathbb{R}^N .

5. Conclusion

TODO describe outcomes.

One research avenue we have not explored here is that one can potentially differentiate the fixed point with respect to the parameters using automatic differentiation. These gradients are helpful to study how the wealth-consumption ratio and stochastic discount factor respond to shifts in underlying parameters, as well as providing Jacobians for gradient decent in estimation problems. We leave these topics for future work.

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