INSEIKAI Tohoku BootCamp 2024

Mathematics IV

Computational Macroeconomics

Quang-Thanh Tran *

Graduate School of Economics and Management Tohoku University

August 23, 2024

Contents

1	Two-period OLG					
	1.1	Motivations				
	1.2	Simple Diamond's Model				
	1.3	Nonlinear Solver				
	1.4	Backward-looking Transition Dynamics				
2	Infi	nite-Horizon Representative Agent Model				
	2.1	Motivations				
	2.2	Ramsey Model				
	2.3	Method of Undetermined Coefficients				
	2.4	Pertubation Methods: Linear Approximation				
	2.5	Value Function Iteration				
3	Large-scale OLG 2					
	3.1	Motivations				
	3.2	The Model				
	3.3	Steady State				
	3.4	Direct Computation				
	3.5	Value Function Iteration				
A	Exc	ercise List 36				
В	Арр	pendix 3'				
	B.1	Illustrations of Root Finding Algorithms				
	B.2	Other Iterative Methods to Solve Ramsey				
\mathbf{C}	Codes					
	C.1	Ramsey's Value Function Iteration				
		OLG Direct Computation				

^{*}tran.quang.thanh.p1@dc.tohoku.ac.jp

Preface

Most of the current macroeconomic models cannot be solved by hand when the agents in the model live longer than 2 periods. In those cases, numerical methods are necessary. In this camp, we will learn how to solve these models in their most basic forms and derive the solutions via computational methods.

Requirements

- 1. Being comfortable with basic calculus (mostly differentiation).
- 2. Know at least some programming, such as Julia and Python. (basic level is sufficient). You can use Excel or MATLAB, but they are not free.

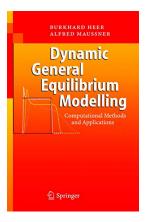
Schedule

This course closely follows chapters 1, 2, and 9 from the celebrated Heer and Maußner (2009). Apparently, you can download the book for free from this link. We will use Julia and Python as the main programming languages.

- 1. First, we study the simple OLG model to practice coding and solution concepts.
- 2. We study the infinite-horizon Ramsey model. Here, you will learn that solutions are not easy to obtain due to the infinite lifetime. We use value function iteration and perturbation methods to pin down the policy function.
- 3. We study a finite-horizon OLG model. Here, we can use backward induction to solve the model because lifetime is finite. To pin down the policy function, we use the direct computation method.

Materials

We will occasionally visit materials from their other editions (Heer and Maußner, 2005, 2024) and other books about DSGE such as Costa (2018); Torres (2020) and large-scale OLG modeling such as Heer (2019); Feldstein and Auerbach (2002a,b). Other useful online materials include Eric Sims' Ph.D. Macro Theory II (link), Chris Edmond's teaching notes (link) Vermandel's DSGE Dynare Model Matlab Codes (link). You can also find many valuable materials here: Computational Econs, coding cheat sheet.



I want to express my sincere gratitude to Mamiko Kishida and Zhang Ye (Tony), who helped me greatly with preparing this material. Mamiko Kishida wrote the answers to the exercises and coding practices.

1 Two-period OLG

1.1 Motivations

When we want to investigate the behaviors of the economy in the long run (every 25 to 35 years), this model is extremely powerful. One of the main contributors to this model is Modigliani in Modigliani (1954). The model explores individual consumption-saving behavior and later emphasizes the importance of savings on national wealth (Modigliani, 1986). In Samuelson (1958), Samuelson used a two-period framework without capital to study the necessity of the medium of exchange between periods. The medium he proposed was money. It was an important paper to show the concept of social planning. Later on, Diamond extended this concept and introduced capital as a storage technology (Diamond, 1965). This paper combines the two previous ideas and sets up the basic model we study today. The model has been studied extensively to include and explain fertility, human capital, debt, environment, endogenous growth, and many, many more. Suggested readings: de La Croix and Michel (2002), de la Croix and de La Croix (2013), Galor (2005).

The model is very simple in its setting:

- 1. Agents are homogenous in preferences.
- 2. Each agent lives for two periods: young and old. They work inelastically when young and retire when old. Consumption when old is the motivation to save.
- 3. Agents are perfect foresight.

Predictions:

- 1. (Life-cycle saving hypothesis) The consumption-smoothing behavior over a life-time.
- 2. (Convergence hypothesis) On the aggregate level, there is a convergence of per capita GDP. Different countries may have different starting points but will converge to the same level of wealth at the end.

Spoilers: there is enough evidence to believe that they are true.

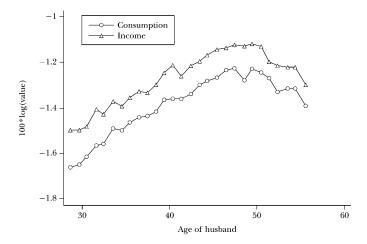


Fig. 1. Life-cycle pattern of income and consumption (Browning and Crossley, 2001).

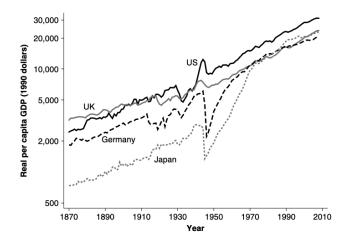


Fig. 2. GDP per capita (Jones and Vollrath, 2013)

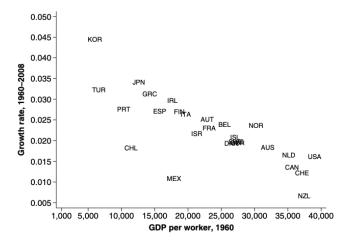


Fig. 3. Growth rate versus initial GDP per capita (Jones and Vollrath, 2013)

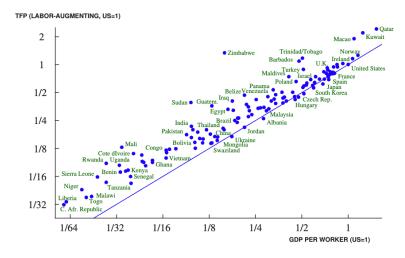


Fig. 4. TFP and GDP per worker from Jones (2016). Here, the data is computed using the Penn World Tables 8.0 assuming a common capital share $\alpha = 0.3$.

1.2 Simple Diamond's Model

Household

Preferences

$$U(c_t, d_{t+1}) = u(c_t) + \beta u(d_{t+1}), \tag{1}$$

subject to constraints

$$c_t + s_t = w_t,$$

$$d_{t+1} = R_{t+1} s_t.$$

The utility must have the following properties: u'(c) > 0, u''(c) < 0 for all c > 0 and $\lim_{c \to 0} u'(c) = +\infty$. The functional form of utility can take one of the following ¹

$$u(c) = \begin{cases} \frac{c^{1-\frac{1}{\sigma}} - 1}{1 - \frac{1}{\sigma}} & \text{if } \sigma > 0, \sigma \neq 1 \text{ (CIES)}, \\ \frac{c^{1-\sigma} - 1}{1 - \sigma} & \text{if } \sigma \geq 0, \sigma \neq 1 \text{ (CRRA)}, \\ \ln(c) & \text{if } \sigma = 1. \end{cases}$$

The population grows with a deterministic rate of n.

1. Solve the agent's problem by maximizing (1) subject to the two budget constraints. (Hint): Write the Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L} = u(c_t) + \beta u(d_{t+1}) - \lambda_t (c_t + \frac{d_{t+1}}{R_{t+1}} - w_t)$$

and solve for its FOC wrt c_t, d_{t+1}, λ_t and obtain the Euler equation $u'(d_{t+1})/u'(c_t)$.

2. Show that if you use the $u(c) = \ln(c)$, you will get:

$$s_t = \frac{\beta}{1+\beta} w_t, \tag{2}$$

$$c_t = \frac{1}{1+\beta} w_t,\tag{3}$$

$$d_{t+1} = \frac{\beta}{1+\beta} R_{t+1} w_t. {4}$$

3. Solve the agent's problem to get $s_t(w_t, R_{t+1})$ using CIES utility as follows

$$u(c) = \frac{c^{1-1/\sigma}}{1-\frac{1}{\sigma}}.$$

You should obtain

$$s_t = \frac{1}{1 + \beta^{-\sigma} R_{t+1}^{1-\sigma}} w_t. \tag{5}$$

Eq.(3) implies consumption as a constant fraction of income. Check Fig.1.

¹The constant term (-1) can be omitted in CIES and CRRA.

Production

A representative firm maximizes its profit with a Cobb-Douglas production technology

$$Y_t = F(K_t, L_t) = AK_t^{\alpha} L_t^{1-\alpha}.$$

where $\alpha \in (0,1)$, the TFP A > 0 and profit

$$\Pi_t = Y_t - w_t L_t - R_t K_t.$$

Define the capital-labor ratio as

$$k_t = \frac{K_t}{L_t}.$$

Solve the firm problem to obtain $w_t(k_t)$ and $R_t(k_t)$.

$$w_t = (1 - \alpha)Ak_t^{\alpha},\tag{6}$$

$$R_t = \alpha A k_t^{\alpha - 1}. (7)$$

Alternatively, we can use a more general production function of the CES form

$$F(K_t, L_t) = A[\alpha K_t^{-\rho} + (1 - \alpha) L_t^{-\rho}]^{-1/\rho}.$$

with $\alpha \in (0,1), A > 0, \rho > -1, \rho \neq 0$. The elasticity of substitution between K and L is $1/(1+\rho)$. An increase in ρ implies the two inputs become less substitutable. In this case, we can obtain the temporal equilibrium.

$$w_{t} = A(1 - \alpha)(\alpha k_{t}^{-\rho} + 1 - \alpha)^{-(1+\rho)/\rho},$$

$$R_{t} = A\alpha(\alpha k_{t}^{-\rho} + 1 - \alpha)^{-(1+\rho)/\rho}.$$

Intertemporal Equilibrium

Labor market clears

$$L_t = N_t$$
.

Capital market clears

$$K_{t+1} = s_t N_t,$$

in capital-labor ratio

$$k_{t+1} = \frac{K_{t+1}}{L_{t+1}} = \frac{s_t}{1+n}. (8)$$

Goods market clears

$$Y_t = N_{t-1}d_t + N_t(c_t + s_t).$$

Definition 1 (Intertemporal Equilibrium). Given initial capital-labor ratio $k_0 > 0$, the intertemporal equilibrium is defined as a sequence of factor prices $\{R_t, w_t\}_{t=1}^{\infty}$, a sequence of allocations for young agents' consumptions and saving $(d_1, \{c_t, s_t, d_{t+1}\}_{t=1}^{\infty})$, and a sequence of firm allocation $\{K_t, L_t\}_{t=1}^{\infty}$ such that

1. Factor prices determined $\{R_t, w_t\}_{t=1}^{\infty}$ by Eqs.(6),(7) and solve the firm problem

- 2. The allocation $(d_1, \{c_t, s_t, d_{t+1}\}_{t=1}^{\infty})$ defined by Eqs.(2),(3),(4) solve the household problem.
- 3. All markets (labor, capital, goods) clear.

Show that the law of motion for the capital-labor ratio is

1. With Cobb-Douglas technology and log utility:

$$k_{t+1} = \phi(k_t) = \frac{\beta A(1-\alpha)}{(1+n)(1+\beta)} k_t^{\alpha}.$$
 (9)

2. With CES technology ($\rho < 0$) and log utility:

$$k_{t+1} = \phi(k_t) = \frac{\beta A(1-\alpha)(\alpha k_t^{-\rho} + 1 - \alpha)^{-(1+\rho)/\rho}}{(1+n)(1+\beta)}.$$
 (10)

Steady State

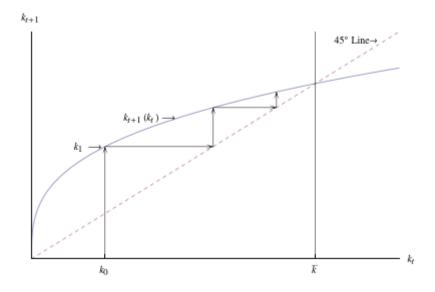
In the steady state, it must be that

$$k_{t+1} = k_t = k^*$$
.

Using the above, solve Eq.(9) for an analytical solution

$$k^* = \left(\frac{\beta A(1-\alpha)}{(1+n)(1+\beta)}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}.$$
 (11)

Solving Eq.(10) by hand is impossible. In such a case, we can use a computer algorithm to find the solution. Below is a plot of Eq.(9). Here, you can see that (1) an economy that starts off with low capital per worker can grow faster than those with initial high capital per worker (Check Fig.2 and 3). Under the same TFP, countries may eventually converge to the same level of wealth. (2) If you look at the steady state (11), you can see that if A is high, so is k^* . That is, countries with high TFP also tend to also high levels of wealth (Check Fig.4).



Parameters

Let us now solve the model numerically. With the set of parameters in Table. 1, you can calculate k^* from Eq.(11) as 3.26519. Sometimes, it is not easy to solve just by plugging numbers into a nice equation. In those situations, we may need to solve numerically. Let us learn some techniques to do this. We begin by using only Eq.(9), assuming that we do not know how to obtain the form (11).

Table 1: Calibration

β	α	ρ	A	n
0.99^{30}	0.3	-1.5	10	0.3

1.3 Nonlinear Solver

There are many ways to solve Eq.(9) numerically for the steady state. First, we can prove that a solution exists.

Exercise 1 (Existence). Sometimes, a solution cannot be made explicitly like Eq.(9). To justify the use of numerical methods, we first need to show a solution exists.

- 1. We can use the intermediate value theorem on Eq.(9) to prove the existence of k^* in Eq.(10). (Hint): Since $\phi(0) \neq 0$, divide both sides by k and apply the IVT.
- 2. Another way is to investigate the concavity of the dynamical equation. Show that $\phi'(k) > 0, \phi''(k) < 0$ and $\phi(0) \neq 0$

Then, we rewrite it to

$$k - \frac{\beta A(1 - \alpha)}{(1 + n)(1 + \beta)}k^{\alpha} = 0.$$
 (12)

Solving for k is the same as finding the root of this equation. We will see how some algorithms (such as Bisection, Newton, and Secant) work to find this root. For illustrations, visit Appendix B.1.

Bisection

The function must be continuous on an interval [a, b]. Furthermore, f(a) and f(b) must have opposite signs. The algorithm helps us find $p \in [a, b]$ s.t. f(p) = 0. First, choose a point halfway between a and b and check its sign. It will have the same sign as either f(a) or f(b). If it has the same sign as a, assign c as the new a and repeat.

- 1. Choose a and b such that $f(a) \times f(b) < 0$.
- 2. Set i = 1.
- 3. Calculate f(a).
- 4. Choose a point c where

$$c = a + \frac{b - a}{2}.$$

5. Calculate f(c) and evaluate its sign.

- (a) if |f(c)| < tol, end the program and output c.
- (b) Else: if $f(c) \cdot f(a) > 0$
 - i. assign: a = c,
- (c) Else, assign b = c.
- 6. Repeat step 2 by setting i = i + 1.

Newton-Raphson

It is commonly used when you can obtain the derivative of the function nicely. This method approximates a function by its tangent line to get a successively better estimate of the roots. Let n be the n^{th} iteration, the general formula for the next value is

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}. (13)$$

- 1. Provide an initial guess c_0 .
- 2. Set i = 1.
- 3. Set $c = c_0 \frac{f(c_0)}{f'(c_0)}$.
- 4. Calculate $\varepsilon = |c c_0|$:
 - (a) if $\varepsilon < tol$, end the program and output c.
 - (b) Else, set i = i + 1, update the guess: $c_0 = c$.

Secant Method

The disadvantage of the Newton method is that sometimes, evaluating the derivative can be challenging or analytically impossible. In such a case, we can approximate it by using linear approximation

$$f'(x_{n-1}) = \lim_{x \to x_{n-1}} \frac{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})}{x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}}.$$

Given two initial guesses x_0, x_1 , we can iterate to find the root. This method is very similar to Newton's method above. The main difference is that in step 2, we will use approximated values. Also, the second method requires two initial guesses instead of 1.

- 1. Provide two initial guesses c_0, c_1 .
- 2. Find $f(c_0)$ and $f(c_1)$.
- 3. Update the guess (look at Eq.(13)).

$$c = c_1 - f(c_1) \frac{c_1 - c_0}{f(c_1) - f(c_0)}.$$

- 4. Calculate $\varepsilon = |c c_1|$:
 - (a) if $\varepsilon < tol$, end the program and output c.
 - (b) Else, set i = i + 1, $c_1 = c$.

Exercise 2. For each algorithm above, do the following:

1. Write a simple loop, following the algorithms to find the root. Test with the following function

$$f(x) = \cos(x) - x^3 + 1.$$

In Julia, just type cos(x) - x^ 3. Correct answer: 1.12656.

2. Make it into a function. Input: the function, guesses. Output: the root.

Built-in Program

The easiest way is to use built-in functions. Of course, you need to know the syntax.

```
// Python code example
from scipy.optimize import fsolve

def func_k(k, beta, alpha, A, n):
    F = k - beta * A * (1-alpha) * (k**alpha) / ((1+n)*(1+beta))
    return F

k_guess = 2
sol_k = fsolve(func_k, k_guess, args=(beta, alpha, A, n))

kstar = sol_k[0]
```

```
// Julia code example
using NLsolve

function func_k!(F, k, beta, A, alpha, n)
    F[1] = k[1] - beta*A*(1-alpha)*(k[1]^alpha) / ((1+n)*(1+beta))
end

k_guess = [2]
sol = nlsolve((F, k) -> func_k!(F, k, beta, A, alpha, n), k_guess)
kstar = sol.zero[1]
```

Gauss-Seidel Algorithm (Fixed Point Iteration)

If your dynamics have a fixed point k^* and it is stable, i.e.

$$|\phi'(k^*)| < 1$$
 given $k_{t+1} = \phi(k_t)$.

then, by successive iteration of a given initial value, you will get to that fixed point.

Algorithm 1 (Gauss-Seidel). To solve a simple OLG with one state variable.

- 1. Guess the initial value of k_0
- 2. Calculate other endogenous variables w, R based on (6) and (7)
- 3. Solve optimal saving decision s based on (2).

- 4. Calculate again the capital-labor ratio and get k_1 based on (8).
- 5. Calculate the error and verify if the algorithm has converged

$$error = \frac{k_1 - k_0}{k_0}.$$

If error > 0, update the capital-labor ratio with $0 < \lambda < 1$ as the update parameter

$$k_{0.new} = \lambda k_1 + (1 - \lambda)k_0.$$

and repeat step 2. Otherwise, if error = 0, stop.

```
# some functions to calculate at step 2
function func_w(k)
    return (1 - alpha) * A * (k^alpha)
end
function func_s(k)
    w = func_w(k)
    return beta * w / (1 + beta)
end
function func_k(k)
    s = func_s(k)
    return func_s(k) / (1 + n)
end
# loop preparation
lamda = 0.5
                           # update parameter
                          # threshold (close to 0)
tol = 1e-6
max_iter = 100
error = 1.0
# initial guess
k = 2.0
# loop
iter = 1
while error > tol && iter < max_iter
    k_new = lamda * func_k(k) + (1 - lamda) * k
    error = abs(k_new - k)
    k = k_new
    iter += 1
end
println("kstar: ", k)
println("Number of iterations: ", iter)
```

After 33 iterations, the algorithm also gives us the same result for the steady state at 1e-6 tolerance error.

Remark 1. Some general tips for writing good code.

1. When you perform a while loop routine, remember to set a maximum number of iterations. This will avoid infinite looping situations when there is something wrong with the code. The following code provides a minimal example in Python.

```
i = 1
err = 1
max_i = 100
tol = 1e-6

while i < max_i and err > tol:
    do something
    update error
    i = i + 1
```

2. When you get stuck or repeatedly make errors, try to print out some parts of the results to see if they get updated after each loop.

1.4 Backward-looking Transition Dynamics

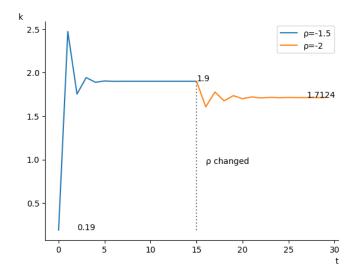
In this section, we follow the definition of an intertemporal equilibrium. When we simulate a change in parameters or policy, it is natural to calculate the new steady states. Furthermore, investigating the transition dynamics is also interesting in order to see how variables respond to such a structural change.

In this example, we simulate the situation when population growth reduces from 0.3 to 0.2. Assuming that the economy is initially at the previous steady state, we want to see how capital evolves given a sudden change in n.

```
n = 0.2
T = 8
                              # number periods to simulate
                                 # an array of new values of k
knew = zeros(T)
                                 # an array of time
time = zeros(T)
                            # initial k (calculated previously)
knew[1] = k
for t in 2:T
    knew[t] = func_k(knew[t-1])
    time[t] = t
end
using Plots
plot(time, knew, xlabel="Time", ylabel="k", title="Transition of
\rightarrow k(t)")
```

Exercise 3. In this exercise, you must solve for the steady state of Eq.(10).

- 1. Solve the steady state k_1^{ss} (assuming no changes in parameters).
- 2. Let the initial k_0 at $0.1k_1^{ss}$. Plot the evolution of k_t over time. (try 10, 15, and 20 periods).
- 3. Let the old steady state k_1^{ss} be the initial point of a new loop. Now, assume that ρ drops to -2. Derive the new steady state k_2^{ss} and plot the transition dynamics from k_1^{ss} to k_2^{ss} for 10 periods.



2 Infinite-Horizon Representative Agent Model

2.1 Motivations

In the previous version, each person lived through only two periods. Hence, each period spans many years in real life. Although long-run growth patterns can be well-explained, they cannot be used to explain or examine short-term economic fluctuations. To do this, economists think of an infinite horizon framework. That is, in the short run, when agents make economic choices, they do not think much of death (psychologically). Rather than thinking they may die tomorrow, they make consumption-saving plans based on what they have today and what they may have tomorrow. The work is pioneered by Frank Ramsey (Ramsey, 1928). The paper tries to answer the question of optimal growth: how much should a nation save? (in what follows, our job is to find that "policy function"). Later on, Koopmans (1963) and Cass (1965) completed the framework by fusing it with the Solow (1956)'s model. Hence, this is often called the RCK model (Ramsey-Cass-Koopmans) or neoclassical growth model. This is the main engine behind the DSGE framework, such as the Real Business Cycle and the New Keynesian model.

Contrary to the previous example, growth can have a lot of fluctuations. However, the short-term adjustments tend to agree with the trend in the long term. These fluctuations can be accounted for by individuals' collective response to a shock. Here, we show two examples of how an RBC framework (based on the Ramsey model) can explain quite well the fluctuations captured in the real economy when a single shock process hits the economy.

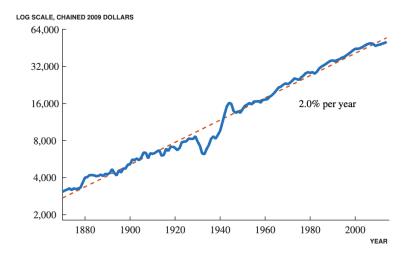


Fig. 5. GDP per capita in the US. Source: Jones (2016).

Premise

- 1. There is one representative agent who lives forever. This is justified when you think of agents as households. Members are periodically born and die, but households sustain and, therefore, become infinite.
- 2. There is no retirement, as agents live forever. They provide capital and labor and consume goods every period.
- 3. Population is normalized to 1.

In this section, we will not replicate the RBC model. We only study the RCK core inside. The goal is to learn how to solve the model both analytically and numerically.

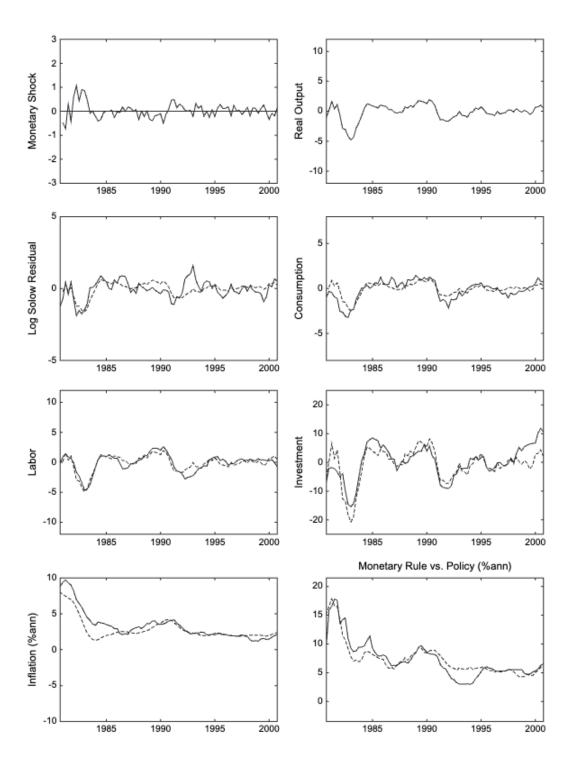
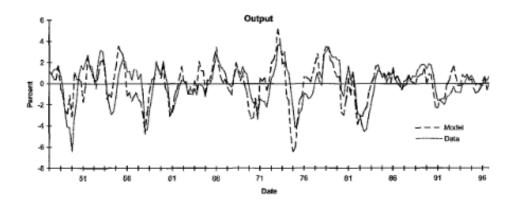
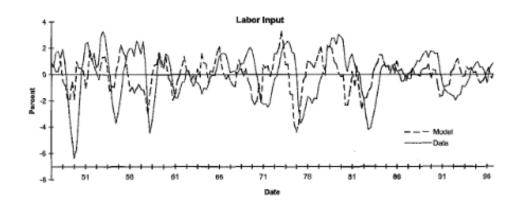
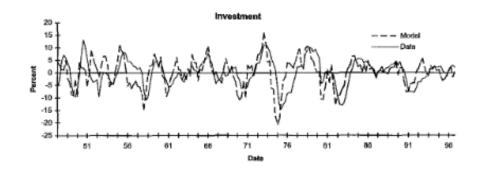


Fig. 6. Data (solid) versus model (dashed). Source: Nakamura (2009).







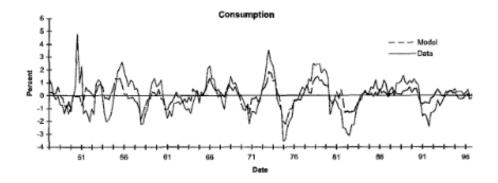


Fig. 7. Data (solid) versus model (dashed). Source: King and Rebelo (1999).

2.2 Ramsey Model

Household problem

$$\max_{c_t, k_{t+1}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t).$$

subject to

$$c_t + k_{t+1} = f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t,$$

 $k_0 > 0.$

Solve for the FOC (in this case, the FOC is the Euler)

1. With Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^{t} u(c_{t}) + \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{t} \left[f(k_{t}) + (1 - \delta)k_{t} - k_{t+1} - c_{t} \right]$$

Grouping all the summation and rewriting the Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \left[\beta^t u(c_t) + \lambda_t \left(f(k_t) + (1 - \delta) k_t - k_{t+1} - c_t \right) \right].$$

The term inside the sum is optimized at each t following the modified Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L} = \beta^t u(c_t) + \lambda_t \left(f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1} - c_t \right).$$

FOC: (Note that k_{t+1} appears twice at time t and t+1)

$$(c_t): \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial c_t} = \beta^t u'(c_t) - \lambda_t = 0.$$
(14)

$$(k_{t+1}): \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial k_{t+1}} = -\lambda_t + \lambda_{t+1} \left[f'(k_{t+1}) + (1-\delta) \right] = 0.$$
 (15)

By virtue of Eq. (14), we see that:

$$\beta^{t+1}u'(c_{t+1}) = \lambda_{t+1}.$$

Plugging back to Eq. (15) and rearranging give us the Euler equation:

$$\frac{u'(c_t)}{u'(c_{t+1})} = \beta \left[f'(k_{t+1}) + (1 - \delta) \right].$$

For sufficient, the following transversality condition holds ²

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \beta^T u'(c_T) k_{T+1} = 0.$$

The intuition of the transversality condition is partly that "there are no savings in the last period." However, as there is no "last period" in an infinite horizon environment, we take the limit as time goes to infinity. Put differently, the present value of the capital in an infinitely distant future must be zero.

 $^{^2}$ to see why, you can visit: $\label{local_stackex} {\tt https://economics.stackexchange.com/questions/15290/transversality-condition-in-neoclassical-growth-model}$

2. With Bellman equation

Assume that we have found the optimized sequence of capital holding $\{k_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$, then the value of lifetime utility associated with that optimum is

$$V(k_t) = \max_{\{c_t, k_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{+\infty}} \sum_{t=0}^{+\infty} \beta^t u(c_t).$$

where

$$c_t = f(k_t) - k_{t+1} + (1 - \delta)k_t.$$

We can write it in recursive form

$$V(k_t) = \max_{k_{t+1}} \left[u(f(k_t) - k_{t+1} + (1 - \delta)k_t) + \beta V(k_{t+1}) \right].$$

Choosing c_t is the same as choosing k_{t+1} . Maximizing the Value function wrt. the control variable k_{t+1} :

$$\frac{\partial V(k_t)}{\partial k_{t+1}} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial u(k_{t+1})}{\partial k_{t+1}} + \beta \frac{\partial V(k_{t+1})}{\partial k_{t+1}} = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow -u'(c_t) + \beta \frac{\partial V(k_{t+1})}{\partial k_{t+1}} = 0.$$

By the Envelope theorem, we obtain the Benveniste-Scheinkman Equation

$$\frac{\partial V(k_t)}{\partial k_t} = (f'(k_t) + 1 - \delta)u'(f(k_t) - k_{t+1} + (1 - \delta)k_t),$$

Forwarding 1 period

$$\frac{\partial V(k_{t+1})}{\partial k_{t+1}} = (f'(k_{t+1}) + 1 - \delta)u'(f(k_{t+1}) - k_{t+2} + (1 - \delta)k_{t+1})$$
$$= (f'(k_{t+1}) + 1 - \delta)u'(c_{t+1}).$$

Derive the Euler equation relating the dynamics of the choice variable.

$$\frac{u'(c_t)}{u'(c_{t+1})} = \beta(f'(k_{t+1}) + (1 - \delta)).$$

Assume the following functional form

$$u(c_t) = \ln c_t,$$

$$f(k_t) = k_t^{\alpha}.$$

Exercise 4 (Solve for the steady state). At the steady states

$$c_t = c_{t+1} = \bar{c},$$

 $k_t = k_{t+1} = \bar{k}.$

Using the Euler, prove that the steady state is

$$\bar{k} = \left(\frac{\alpha\beta}{1 - (1 - \delta)\beta}\right)^{1/(1 - \alpha)},$$

$$\bar{c} = \left(\frac{1 - \beta[1 - (1 - \alpha)\delta]}{\alpha\beta}\right) \left(\frac{\alpha\beta}{1 - (1 - \delta)\beta}\right)^{1/(1 - \alpha)}.$$
(16)

Thus far, we have only solved the Euler equation and the steady states. However, the solution is a sequence of $\{c_t, k_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ that solves the lifetime utility. To derive the sequence, we need to pin down the policy function

$$k_{t+1} = h(k_t).$$

The mission is to estimate this $h(\cdot)$ function. Below, we introduce some solution methods to find such a function.

Parameters

Parameters	Value
β	0.99
α	0.3
δ	0.1

2.3 Method of Undetermined Coefficients

(Also known as Guess and Verify) First, we need to guess the functional form of the Value function using some parameters. Assume that

$$V = a + b \ln(k)$$
.

with a and b is yet undetermined coefficients. We can rewrite the recursive form as

$$\max_{k'} \ln(f(k) - k' + (1 - \delta)k) + \beta(a + b \ln k').$$

The FOC wrt k' is

$$k' = \frac{\beta b}{1 + \beta b} k^{\alpha}.$$

We plug this back into the value function to derive a and b. This method is very limited as the guess must be correct, and the function is analytically differentiable. We derive below some alternatives. The first is a local solution called the perturbation method, and the second is a global solution method known as value function and policy function iteration.

Exercise 5. Write a program that solves and plots this policy function.

2.4 Pertubation Methods: Linear Approximation

The exact solution to the policy function could be obtained in previous methods. However, this is not always feasible. In some cases, approximation is preferred as it provides faster computation, especially in models with stochastic elements.

Taylor Approximation

Consider the following case system

$$x_{t+1} = f(x_t, y_t), y_{t+1} = g(x_t, y_t).$$
(17)

Consider the linear dynamics in $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$. Given the initial state (x_0, y_0) . Assume that

$$\bar{x} = f(\bar{x}, \bar{y}),
\bar{y} = g(\bar{x}, \bar{y}).$$
(18)

be the steady state (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) of the system (17). The first-order Taylor expansion of $f(\cdot)$ around a steady state:

$$f(x,y) - f(\bar{x},\bar{y}) \approx f'_x(\bar{x},\bar{y})(x-\bar{x}) + f'_y(\bar{x},\bar{y})(y-\bar{y}).$$

Similarly for $g(\cdot)$:

$$g(x,y) - g(\bar{x},\bar{y}) \approx g'_x(\bar{x},\bar{y})(x-\bar{x}) + g'_y(\bar{x},\bar{y})(y-\bar{y}).$$

From (17),(18), we can write them in matrix form ³ as

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{t+1} - \bar{x} \\ y_{t+1} - \bar{y} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} f'_x(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) & f'_y(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \\ g'_x(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) & g'_y(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{I}} \begin{pmatrix} x_t - \bar{x} \\ y_t - \bar{y} \end{pmatrix}.$$
(19)

where, as we all know by now, J is the Jacobian matrix. The system has been "linearized" and can be analyzed similarly to the linear case.

Linear Approximation of Saddle Path⁴

From the resource constraint and Euler equation

$$k_{t+1} + c_t = f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t,$$

$$u'(c_t) = \beta u'(c_{t+1})[f'(k_{t+1}) + (1 - \delta)].$$

At the steady state

$$\bar{c} = f(\bar{k}) - \delta \bar{k},$$

$$1/\beta = f'(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta).$$

We can write the behavior of variables near the steady state as

$$\begin{pmatrix} k_{t+1} - \bar{k} \\ c_{t+1} - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} k_t - \bar{k} \\ c_t - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{20}$$

We want to estimate A, B, C, D. Near the steady state (\bar{c}, \bar{k}) we have

$$c_t = \bar{c} + (c_t - \bar{c}),$$

$$f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t \approx f(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta)\bar{k} + (f'(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta))(k_t - \bar{k}),$$

$$k_{t+1} \approx \bar{k} + (k_t - \bar{k}).$$

Substituting these into the resource constraint

$$k_{t+1} + \bar{c} + (c_t - \bar{c}) = f(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta)\bar{k} + (f'(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta))(k_t - \bar{k}).$$

Rearranging

$$(k_{t+1} - \bar{k}) = (1/\beta)(k_t - \bar{k}) - (c_t - \bar{c}). \tag{21}$$

³This is called to "linearize" around the steady state

⁴For more detail, check Chris Edmond's Lecture 5: growth theory and dynamic optimization (link)

Next, we need one more equation containing $c_{t+1} - \bar{c}$, let us use the **Euler equation** and log-linearize it

$$\ln u'(c_t) - \ln u'(c_{t+1}) - \ln \beta = \ln[f'(k_{t+1}) + (1 - \delta)]. \tag{22}$$

At the steady state, since $c_{t+1} = c_t = \bar{c}$

$$\ln u'(\bar{c}) - \ln u'(\bar{c}) - \ln \beta = \ln[f'(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta)]. \tag{23}$$

Subtract Eq.(23) from (22) to obtain

$$(\ln u'(c_t) - \ln u'(\bar{c})) - (\ln u'(c_{t+1}) - \ln u'(\bar{c})) = \ln[f'(k_{t+1}) + (1 - \delta)] - \ln[f'(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta)].$$
(24)

Near the steady state (\bar{c}, \bar{k}) we have

$$\ln u'(c_{t+1}) - \ln u'(\bar{c}) \approx \frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})}(c_{t+1} - \bar{c}),$$

$$\ln u'(c_t) - \ln u'(\bar{c}) \approx \frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})}(c_t - \bar{c}),$$

$$\ln[f'(k_{t+1}) + (1 - \delta)] - \ln[f'(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta)] \approx [\ln(f'(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta))]'(k_{t+1} - \bar{k})$$

$$= \frac{f''(\bar{k})}{f'(\bar{k}) + (1 - \delta)}(k_{t+1} - \bar{k})$$

$$= \beta f''(\bar{k})(k_{t+1} - \bar{k}).$$

Plugging back to (24) yields

$$\frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})}(c_t - \bar{c}) - \frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})}(c_{t+1} - \bar{c}) = \beta f''(\bar{k})(k_{t+1} - \bar{k}). \tag{25}$$

Rearranging

$$-\beta f''(\bar{k})(k_{t+1} - \bar{k}) - \frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})}(c_{t+1} - \bar{c}) = -\frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})}(c_t - \bar{c}).$$
 (26)

Combining (21) and (26) yields the system

$$(k_{t+1} - \bar{k}) + 0 \cdot (c_{t+1} - \bar{c}) = (1/\beta)(k_t - \bar{k}) - (c_t - \bar{c}),$$

$$-\beta f''(\bar{k})(k_{t+1} - \bar{k}) - \frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})}(c_{t+1} - \bar{c}) = 0 \cdot (k_t - \bar{k}) - \frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})}(c_t - \bar{c}).$$

Write this in matrix form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\beta f''(\bar{k}) & -\frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} k_{t+1} - \bar{k} \\ c_{t+1} - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\beta & -1 \\ 0 & -\frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} k_t - \bar{k} \\ c_t - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix}.$$

To transform it into a form similar to (20), we premultiply both sides with the inverse of the first matrix and obtain

$$\begin{pmatrix} k_{t+1} - \bar{k} \\ c_{t+1} - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\beta f''(\bar{k}) & -\frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1/\beta & -1 \\ 0 & -\frac{u''(\bar{c})}{u'(\bar{c})} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} k_t - \bar{k} \\ c_t - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1/\beta & -1 \\ \frac{u'(\bar{c})f''(\bar{k})}{u''(\bar{c})} & 1 + \beta \frac{u'(\bar{c})f''(\bar{k})}{u''(\bar{c})} \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{I}} \begin{pmatrix} k_t - \bar{k} \\ c_t - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix}.$$

This Jacobian **J** has two eigenvalues λ_1, λ_2 satisfying

$$\det \mathbf{J} = 1/\beta = \lambda_1 \lambda_2,$$

$$tr \mathbf{J} = 1 + \frac{1}{\beta} + \frac{\beta u'(\bar{c}) f''(\bar{k})}{u''(\bar{c})} = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = \Delta.$$

Since u'' < 0, f'' < 0, we can say that

$$|1 + \det \mathbf{J}| = 1 + 1/\beta$$

The steady state is a saddle point, implying that $\lambda_1 < 1 < \lambda_2$. The smaller root is stable, while the bigger root is unstable. We can extract $\lambda_1 = \triangle - \lambda_2$. Then

$$\det \mathbf{J} = \lambda_2(\triangle - \lambda_2)$$

$$\iff \triangle = \frac{\det \mathbf{J}}{\lambda_2} + \lambda_2.$$

Hence, λ_1, λ_2 are the solutions of the following quadratic function

$$\phi(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \triangle \lambda + 1/\beta.$$

The eigenvector associated with the eigenvalues are

$$(\lambda_1): \begin{pmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{12} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad (\lambda_2): \begin{pmatrix} v_{21} \\ v_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Stacking them in a new matrix

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} v_{11} & v_{21} \\ v_{12} & v_{22} \end{pmatrix},$$

with its inverse matrix

$$V^{-1} = \frac{1}{v_{11}v_{22} - v_{12}v_{21}} \begin{pmatrix} v_{22} & -v_{21} \\ -v_{12} & v_{11} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The eigen diagonal matrix is

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then, we can eigendecompose the matrix J to

$$\mathbf{J} = V\Lambda V^{-1}.$$

The system is now written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} k_{t+1} - \bar{k} \\ c_{t+1} - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix} = V\Lambda V^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} k_t - \bar{k} \\ c_t - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Iterating forward, starting from initial c_0, k_0 implies

$$\begin{pmatrix} k_t - \bar{k} \\ c_t - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix} = V \Lambda^t V^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} k_0 - \bar{k} \\ c_0 - \bar{c} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Writing out explicitly

$$k_{t} - \bar{k} = v_{21} \frac{v_{22}(c_{0} - \bar{c}) - v_{12}(k_{0} - \bar{k})}{v_{11}v_{22} - v_{12}v_{21}} \lambda_{1}^{t} - v_{22} \frac{v_{21}(c_{0} - \bar{c}) - v_{11}(k_{0} - \bar{k})}{v_{11}v_{22} - v_{12}v_{21}} \lambda_{2}^{t},$$

$$c_{t} - \bar{c} = v_{11} \frac{v_{22}(c_{0} - \bar{c}) - v_{12}(k_{0} - \bar{k})}{v_{11}v_{22} - v_{12}v_{21}} \lambda_{1}^{t} - v_{12} \frac{v_{21}(c_{0} - \bar{c}) - v_{11}(k_{0} - \bar{k})}{v_{11}v_{22} - v_{12}v_{21}} \lambda_{2}^{t}.$$

If λ_2 is the unstable root, set

$$c_0 - \bar{c} = \frac{v_{11}}{v_{21}}(k_0 - \bar{k}).$$

will neutralize the unstable root (explosive dynamics). That's why consumption is also called the jump variable. Plugging it back to the initial consumption yields

$$c_t - \bar{c} = v_{11} \frac{v_{22} \frac{v_{11}}{v_{21}} - v_{12}}{v_{11} v_{22} - v_{12} v_{21}} \lambda_1^t (k_0 - \bar{k}) = \frac{v_{11}}{v_{21}} \lambda_1^t (k_0 - \bar{k}).$$

and so the capital accumulation

$$k_t - \bar{k} = v_{21} \frac{v_{22} \frac{v_{11}}{v_{21}} - v_{12}}{v_{11} v_{22} - v_{12} v_{21}} \lambda_1^t (k_0 - \bar{k}) = \lambda_1^t (k_0 - \bar{k}).$$

Hence, the solution of k_t is

$$k_{t+1} - \bar{k} = \lambda_1 (k_t - \bar{k}). \tag{27}$$

where λ_1 is the stable root.

Exercise 6. Write a program that solves the policy function using (27).

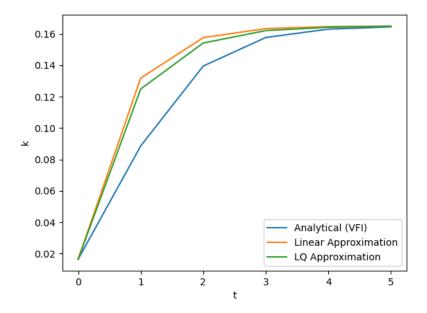


Fig. 8. Comparisons of the accuracy of different perturbation methods.

There are also other perturbation methods, including the LQ method. It was proposed by Hansen and Prescott (1995). L means linearity of constraint, and Q means

quadratic utility function. We must look for a linear law of motion and put all remaining nonlinear relations into the current consumption. We do not study that method here, but here is a comparison for accuracy. You can see that the equilibrium path is slightly "off" from the true solution, i.e., "perturbed," as it is an approximation, which is why it is called a perturbation method.

2.5 Value Function Iteration

The above methods are called local methods as they try to approximate the policy function point-by-point. In this section, we use one global method called Value Function Iteration. First, we do it by hand. You will then see how the algorithm works. Doing it by hand also delivers an analytical solution so you can check with the method of undetermined coefficients. Later, we write a code that does the iteration for us.

First, drop t notation for short and use a "prime" to denote variables at t + 1. The true value function is the limit of the following

$$V^{s+1}(k) = \max_{k'} u(f(k) - k' + (1 - \delta)k) + \beta V^s(k').$$

- 1. Initial guess: $V^0 = 0$.
- 2. s = 1: with V^0 known, we find k' that maximizes $V^1(k)$, then substitute this k' back to V^1 to derive the value of V^1 .
- 3. s = 2: with V^1 known previously, we find k' that maximizes $V^2(k)$, then substitute this k' back to V^2 to derive the value of V^2 .
- 4. iterate as many as you can until you see the pattern.
- 5. take the limits of $s \to \infty$.

The method works because Ramsey's value function is a contraction mapping (Acemoglu, 2008, p.190-194). You should be able to derive

$$k' = \alpha \beta k^{\alpha}$$
.

Now, we use a computer to perform this iteration based on the following procedure.

1. Choose a grid that must contain the steady state. The grid should contain a steady state. The steady-state satisfies

$$f'(\bar{k}) = \frac{1}{\beta} \Rightarrow \bar{k}.$$

We also want to find the maximal sustainable capital stock (consume nothing)

$$f(\hat{k}) = \hat{k} \Rightarrow \hat{k}.$$

The minimum grid point should be larger than 0, and the maximum grid point minimum than \hat{k} . We generate n points equally spaced on this grid, indexed by i.

2. Initiate an array of initial guesses

(naive)
$$V^0 = 0$$
,
(smart) $V^0 = \frac{u(\bar{c})}{1-\beta}$.

3. For each point k(i), find a k(j) on the grid that maximizes⁵

$$V_i^{s+1} = \sup_{k_j \in kgrid} u(f(k_i) - k_j) + \beta V_j^s.$$

substitute k_j back to V_i^{s+1} to derive the value V^1 . Update V^0 to V^1 , and store the value of optimal k_j .

4. For each iteration s, check the error $|V^0 - V^1|$. If it is smaller than tol, stop. Otherwise, go back to step 3.

Exercise 7. Write a program to solve the model based on value function iteration. If you struggle with how to code the algorithm, you can check page 21 of this note.

The sample code is found in the Appendix. In the sample code, we use naive guesses. In your implementation, try to use smart guesses.

The value function iteration is a slow process, as the convergence rate is β . There are other iterative methods that produce faster convergence, such as policy function iteration or Euler equation iteration. You can see some examples of such algorithms in the Appendix.

⁵or use the Binary Search algorithm. Basically, it searches on the grid and returns the index of the point that maximizes the objective function.

3 Large-scale OLG

3.1 Motivations

Previous models mostly focus on economic growth over time. In both models, economic agents are homogenous, as there is only one type of person. In this model, we focus on a more realistic setup of a life-cycle pattern where there are many agents of different ages, all living at the same time. The model was pioneered by Auerbach and Kotlikoff (1987) to explain life cycle patterns and pensions. Different from the Diamond OLG model, where each phase in human life is simplified to just one period, this version of the OLG model allows a realistic lifetime to be modeled. Since the work of Auerbach and Kotlikoff, many papers have improved and extended it with often very realistic features such as human capital, survival rate, debt, etc., that can explain various heterogeneity among agents with different characteristics. Seminal contributions include Aiyagari (1994); Huggett (1996); Krusell and Smith (1998); Huggett et al. (2006).

In this section, we study the most basic setup for this framework, based on the Auerbach-Kotlikoff model with 60 ages (also known as AK60). Before that, let me draw some motivations from the following life-cycle wealth profile. Our goal is to build a model that can replicate this feature. There are a lot of papers that provide both empirical evidence and theoretical construction for this model, such as Owen (1989); Conesa et al. (2009); Kitao and Yamada (2024).

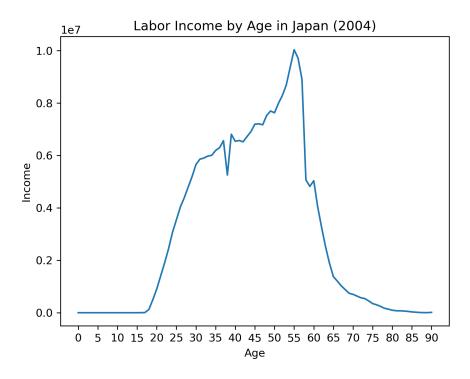


Fig. 9. Life cycle Wealth in Japan

Premise

- 1. Agents are heterogeneous in age.
- 2. There is retirement. Agents do not live forever.
- 3. Population is constant forever.

3.2 The Model

Building Blocks

Age structure: The representative household's life span is 60, such that

$$T + TR = 40 + 20 = 60.$$

where T is the working length and TR is the retirement length. Labor supply n_t^s follows

$$l_t^s = 1 - n_t^s \text{ for } t \in \{1, 2, \dots, 40\},$$
 (28)

$$l_t^s = 1 \text{ for } t \in \{41, 42, \dots, 60\}.$$
 (29)

where l_t^s is leisure. After T years, retirement is mandatory. The agent's maximization problem is

$$\sum_{s=1}^{T+TR} \beta^{s-1} u(c_{s+t-1}^s, l_{t+s-1}^s). \tag{30}$$

where β is the discount factor. The instantaneous utility function:

$$u(c,l) = \frac{((c+\psi)l^{\gamma})^{1-\eta} - 1}{1-\eta}.$$
(31)

An agent is born without wealth and leaves no bequests upon death, thus $k_t^1 = k_t^{61} = 0$. The real budget constraint of the working agent is given by

$$k_{t+1}^{s+1} = (1+r_t)k_t^s + (1-\tau_t)w_t n_t^s - c_t^s \text{ for } s = 1,\dots, T.$$
(32)

where r_t, w_t are the interest and wage rates, while τ is the social security contribution tax. Once retired, the agents receive public pensions b and no labor earnings. The budget constraint for a retiree is

$$k_{t+1}^{s+1} = (1+r_t)k_t^s + b - c_t^s \text{ for } s = T+1,\dots,TR.$$
 (33)

Production is Cobb-Douglas technology:

$$Y_t = N_t^{1-\alpha} K_t^{\alpha}.$$

Let $\delta \in [0,1]$ be the depreciation rate. The factor prices are

$$w_t = (1 - \alpha)K_t^{\alpha}N_t^{1-\alpha},$$

$$r_t = \alpha K_t^{\alpha-1}N_t^{-\alpha} - \delta.$$

Its budget is balanced every period such that

$$\tau w_t N_t = \frac{TR}{T + TR} b.$$

Equilibrium

To derive the equilibrium, we need to solve the household problem.

Exercise 8. Solve a young household's problem by maximizing (30), using the functional form at (31), with respect to (28) and (32) by doing the following steps

- 1. Write the Lagrangian.
- 2. Derive the FOC for c and l.
- 3. Derive the Euler equation.

Solving a retiree household's problem by maximizing (30), using the functional form at (31), with respect to (29) and (33).

- 1. From (29), we know that $n_t^s = 0$.
- 2. Derive the Euler equation

Answer 1. The FOC:

$$\frac{u_l(c_t^s, l_t^s)}{u_c(c_t^s, l_t^s)} = \gamma \frac{c_t^s + \psi}{l_t^s} = (1 - \tau_t) w_t.$$
(34)

The Euler:

$$\frac{1}{\beta} = \frac{u_c(c_{t+1}^{s+1}, l_{t+1}^{s+1})}{u_c(c_t^s, l_t^s)} (1 + r_{t+1}) = \frac{(c_{t+1}^{s+1} + \psi)^{-\eta} (l_{t+1}^{s+1})^{\gamma(1-\eta)}}{(c_t^s + \psi)^{-\eta} (l_t^s)^{\gamma(1-\eta)}} (1 + r_{t+1}).$$
(35)

We can also represent the households' problem recursively. Let $V^s(k_t^s, K_t, N_t)$ be the value of the objective function of s-year old agent with wealth k_t^s, K_t, N_t . It is defined as the solution to the dynamic program

$$V^{s}(k_{t}^{s}, K_{t}, N_{t}) = \begin{cases} \max_{k_{t+1}^{s+1}, c_{t}^{s}, l_{t}^{s}} u(c_{t}^{s}, l_{t}^{s}) + \beta V^{s+1}(k_{t+1}^{s+1}, K_{t+1}, N_{t+1}) \text{ for } s = 1, \dots, T. \\ \max_{k_{t+1}^{s+1}, c_{t}^{s}} u(c_{t}^{s}, 1) + \beta V^{s+1}(k_{t+1}^{s+1}, K_{t+1}, N_{t+1}) \text{ for } s = T+1, \dots, T+TR-1. \end{cases}$$

$$(36)$$

subject to Eq.(32) and (33), respectively. Furthermore

$$V^{T+TR}(k_t^{T+TR}, K_t^{T+TR}, N_t^{T+TR}) = u(c^{T+TR}, 1)$$

implying that agents obtain nothing if they save after they die. The recursive formulation is useful for the Value Function Iteration method.

Definition 2. Equilibrium

1. Individual and aggregate behaviors are consistent

$$N_{t} = \sum_{s=1}^{T+TR} \frac{n_{t}^{s}}{T+TR},$$
(37)

$$K_t = \sum_{s=1}^{T+TR} \frac{k_t^s}{T+TR}.$$
 (38)

The formulation means that aggregate labor (capital) supply is equal to the sum of supplies of each cohort, weighted by its mass 1/(T + TR) = 1/60.

2. Goods market clear

$$N_t^{1-\alpha} K_t^{\alpha} = \sum_{s=1}^{T+TR} \frac{c_t^s}{T+TR} + K_{t+1} - (1-\delta)K_t.$$

3. Given $\{w_t, r_t, b, \tau\}$, the household's problem is solved according to Eq.(34) and (35), the firm's optimization is solved, and the government budget is balanced.

3.3 Steady State

The concept of a steady state can be characterized by a constant distribution of capital stock over generations.

$$\{k_t^s\}_{s=1}^{60} = \{k_{t+1}^s\}_{s=1}^{60} = \{\bar{k}^s\}_{s=1}^{60}.$$

As a consequence, every other variable, such as r, w, b, τ , also becomes a constant.

The computation of the steady states is more complex than Section 1. However, since our functions are well-behaved, we can use the simple iteration method to reach the steady state by following the algorithm below.

- 1. Make initial guesses of the steady state values of K and N.
- 2. Compute w, r, τ, b that solve the firm's problem and the government's budget set.
- 3. Compute the optimal path for consumption, savings, and labor supply by backward iteration.
 - (a) We know $k^1 = k^{61} = 0$. Make a guess of k^{60} .
 - (b) With k^{61} , k^{60} known, solve for k^{59} , k^{58} , ..., k^2 , k^1 .
 - (c) Compute k^1 :
 - i. if $k^1 = 0$. Stop the loop and output the series of k^1, \ldots, k^{60} .
 - ii. else, if $k^1 \neq 0$, update k^{60} using the secant method.
- 4. Recompute the new aggregate K and N.
- 5. If they are the same as the initial guess. Stop. Otherwise, update a new K and N and go back to step 2 until convergence.

Parameters

Parameters	Value
β	0.98
η	2
α	0.36
δ	0.1
γ	2
ψ	0.001

To calculate the tax rate, set the replacement ratio $\xi = 0.3$ such that

$$\xi = \frac{b}{(1-\tau)w\bar{n}}.$$

with \bar{n} is the average labor supply, which equals to N(T+TR)/T. Since we want a realistic value, you can set the target values for the steady states of

$$\bar{n} = 0.35,$$
 $\tau = \frac{\xi}{2+\xi},$ $r = 0.045.$

Given N and r, we can calculate w and K, then solve for b, which completes step 2.

3.4 Direct Computation

To solve for each (n_t, k_t) pair, we need to know the values of $(n_{t+1}, k_{t+1}, n_{t+2}, k_{t+2})$. We know the terminal and initial values of them. The idea is to solve the FOC backward by making a guess of unknown future values and updating the guess until convergence.

Exercise 9. In this exercise, you are asked to perform direct computation at each age. Note that there are three crucial age thresholds: age 39 (work at 39, work at 40); age 40 (work at 40, retire at 41); age 41 (retire for the rest of life).

- 1. Write the FOC and Euler equations for the young from age 1 to 39.
- 2. Write the FOC and Euler for age 40 only.
- 3. Write the Euler from age 41 to 60.
- 4. Write 3 functions that solve the decision rules for young age, age 40, and retirees.
- 5. Next, write 1 iteration, given k[61], n[61], and a given value of k[60], n[60], perform backward iteration and solve until n[1], k[1]. For this iteration, assume k[60] = n[60] = 0. What is the value of k[1]?
- 6. Next, write a program of many iterations as step 5. The goal is to update the correct guess of k[60]. For each iteration, you calculate the error value and update k[60] using the secant method.
- 7. Step 6 completes an inner loop. Compress it into a function, taking a guess of N as argument (input), and output 2 arrays: age profile k^s and n^s .
- 8. Write an outer loop. In each loop, take N as given, run the backward iteration function written in step 6, output the new aggregate N, and then update the new guess if necessary.

Tips

- There are 2 loops:
 - 1. (inner) loop with an initial guess of k[60] and constantly update it until convergence, i.e., until you get k[1] = 0.
 - 2. (outer) loop with an initial guess of N (and K), run the inner loop, and update it until convergence: until the real N is equal to the initial guess.
- Because we are solving backward, it is better to use Julia because Julia's index system starts from 1. Of course, there is no harm in using Python.
- Technically, once the agent retires, he supplies zero labor and only cares about how much to consume and save, which is governed by the Euler equation. Hence, the current capital holding can be solved explicitly.
- For young agents, you need to solve simultaneously a system of 2 equations (FOC and Euler) of 2 variables (consumption and labor). As the model cannot be solved explicitly, use this code snippet to solve:

```
using NLsolve
# solving for x,y -> z, with parameters a,b,c
function system_eq!(F, z, a, b, c)
    x, y = z
    F[1] = x^2 + y^2 - a + 2b
    F[2] = (x * y)^c - a - b^2
end
#specify values of parameters
a = 1.0
b = 2.0
c = 2.0
z_guess = [0.0, 0.0] # Initial guess for x and y
# Solve the system of equations
result = nlsolve((F, z) -> system_eq!(F, z, a, b, c), z_guess)
# Extract the solution
x_solution = result.zero[1]
y_solution = result.zero[2]
```

Note: The correct guess is very important when applying this solver. The closer it is to the true solutions, the more accuracy it gets. With backward iteration, I recommend taking the previously solved known value as the guess. For example, in Auerbach-Kotlikoff, the guess to solve k^{39} should take the initial guess (for the solver) of k and n from k^{40} , k^{41} , n^{40} .

More on step 6

For backward iteration, since $k^{61} = 0 = k^1$, we only need to calculate the decision rule for $k^{59}, k^{58}, \ldots, k^2$.

For $t = 59, \ldots, 41$: Since the retiree does not work, we only need to deal with the Euler equation to determine k. To calculate the optimal k^{59} , we need the information of k^{60} and k^{61} . Although k^{61} is known, k^{60} is not. Here, we provide the first 2 guesses for the first 2 iterations

$$k_1^{60} = 0.15, k_2^{60} = 0.2.$$

the subscript denotes the i^{th} iteration.

For t = 40, you need to find the optimal values of $n^{40}(n^{41}, k^{41})$, $k^{40}(k^{41}, k^{42}, n^{41}, n^{42})$. As this is the last period with a positive labor supply, we have $n^{41} = n^{42} = 0$. Capital holdings k^{41} , k^{42} have been solved in the retiree's problem. Hence, you have 2 equations of 2 unknowns. We can use Julia's 'NLSolve'.

For t = 39, ..., 1, we will do things similar to the previous steps. Note that when we calculate k^1 , if it is different from the tolerance, we must update K and N.

Updating k^{60} using the Secant Method:

$$k_i^{60} = k_{i-1}^{60} - \frac{k_{i-1}^{60} - k_{i-2}^{60}}{k_{i-1}^1 - k_{i-2}^1} k_{i-1}^1.$$

More on step 7

It is actually sufficient to make only a guess of N since K must scale up with it due to Cobb-Douglas technology. Since there is a target for the steady state N, it is a more appropriate approach than guessing randomly. In the code, nbar is the aggregate N.

The update algorithm is simple:

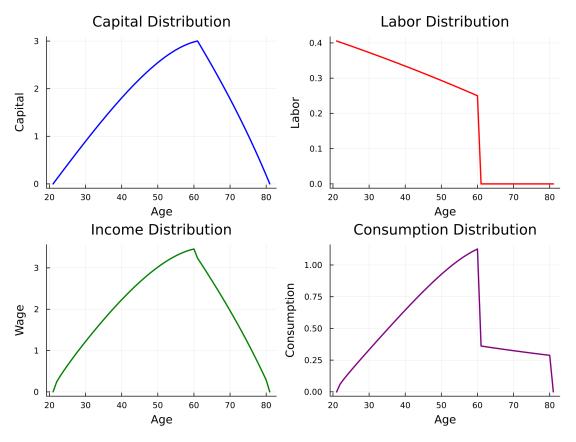
$$N_j^{guess} = \phi N_{j-1}^{guess} + (1 - \phi) N_{j-1}^{out}.$$

with ϕ is the learning rate, j is the j^{th} iteration. N^{out} is the outcome of an iteration taking N^{guess} as an input. The algorithm should update and converge at iteration \hat{j} such that $N^{guess}_{\hat{j}} = N^{out}_{\hat{j}}$.

For the first 2 initial guesses, use $N_1 = 0.15$, $N_2 = 0.25$.

Results

You should find the steady state of K and N as 0.913 and 0.221, respectively.



3.5 Value Function Iteration

We know that k[61] = 0. In the direct computation method, when we solve for k[59], we need to make a guess of k[60] and keep updating the inner loop until k[1] = 0. However, by using the Value Function Iteration, we do not need to run that many loops.

- 1. Create a grid of points for k^s , n^s , and the value V_0 .
- 2. Make a guess of N. Output w, r, b.
- 3. (Backward iteration) On each value of k on this grid, calculate the policy function by searching on the grid the value of k such that it solves the maximization problem described in Eq.(36). After that, it is used to calculate the value function that will be used for the next k. If the calculated value is off the grid point, use linear or cubic interpolation.

4. Working agents will have to iterate the value function on a 2-dimensional grid. Preferably, one can extract n^s as a function of k^s so the problem becomes 1-dimensional. To pin down the labor supply, we can then use the Euler equation and resource constraints.

For a detailed review of how to code the VFI in OLG, you can visit: Computation of the 60-period OLG model using value function iteration in Python.

Further Applications

Many other solution methods exist, such as projection methods. As they require more advanced programming, this camp does not have enough time to cover them. As indicated in Heer and Maußner (2009), the direct computation is fast, reliable, and accurate. Whenever possible, this method should be applied. You can extend this model with more sophisticated features, such as

- age-specific productivity (Huggett, 1996)
- age-specific survival probabilities (İmrohoroglu et al., 1995; Huggett and Ventura, 1999)
- money holding (Heer et al., 2007)
- government debt (Braun and Joines, 2015)

One limitation of this method is that it is not feasible to solve the model with idiosyncratic uncertainty, such as stochastic autocorrelated productivity shocks. In such an environment, you need to use value function iteration or projection methods.

References

- Acemoglu, D. (2008). <u>Introduction to Modern Economic Growth</u>. Princeton University Press.
- Aiyagari, S. R. (1994). Uninsured idiosyncratic risk and aggregate saving. <u>The Quarterly</u> Journal of Economics, 109(3):659–684.
- Auerbach, A. and Kotlikoff, L. (1987). <u>Dynamic Fiscal Policy</u>. Cambridge University Press.
- Braun, R. A. and Joines, D. H. (2015). The implications of a graying japan for government policy. Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control, 57:1–23.
- Browning, M. and Crossley, T. F. (2001). The life-cycle model of consumption and saving. Journal of Economic Perspectives, 15(3):3–22.
- Cass, D. (1965). Optimum growth in an aggregative model of capital accumulation. <u>The Review of Economic Studies</u>, 32(3):233–240.
- Conesa, J. C., Kitao, S., and Krueger, D. (2009). Taxing capital? not a bad idea after all! American Economic Review, 99(1):25–48.
- Costa, C. (2018). <u>Understanding DSGE Models: Theory and Applications</u>. Vernon Press.
- de la Croix, D. and de La Croix, D. (2013). <u>Fertility, education, growth, and sustainability</u>. Cambridge University Press.
- de La Croix, D. and Michel, P. (2002). A theory of economic growth: dynamics and policy in overlapping generations. Cambridge University Press.
- Diamond, P. A. (1965). National debt in a neoclassical growth model. <u>American</u> <u>Economic Review</u>, 55(5):1126–1150.
- Feldstein, M. and Auerbach, A. J. (2002a). <u>Handbook of Public Economics (Volume 3)</u>. Elsevier.
- Feldstein, M. and Auerbach, A. J. (2002b). <u>Handbook of Public Economics (Volume 4)</u>. Elsevier.
- Galor, O. (2005). From stagnation to growth: unified growth theory. <u>Handbook of</u> Economic Growth, 1:171–293.
- Hansen, G. D. and Prescott, E. C. (1995). Recursive methods for computing equilibria of business cycle models. <u>Frontiers of Business Cycle Research</u>. Nova Jersey: Princeton University, pages 39–64.
- Heer, B. (2019). Public economics: The macroeconomic perspective.
- Heer, B. and Maußner, A. (2005). <u>Dynamic General Equilibrium Modeling:</u> Computational Methods and Applications (1st edition). Springer.
- Heer, B. and Maußner, A. (2009). <u>Dynamic General Equilibrium Modeling:</u> Computational Methods and Applications (2nd edition).

- Heer, B. and Maußner, A. (2024). <u>Dynamic General Equilibrium Modeling:</u> Computational Methods and Applications (3rd edition). Springer.
- Heer, B., Maussner, A., and McNelis, P. D. (2007). The Money-Age Distribution: Empirical Facts and Limited Monetary Models. Technical report.
- Huggett, M. (1996). Wealth distribution in life-cycle economies. <u>Journal of Monetary</u> Economics, 38(3):469–494.
- Huggett, M. and Ventura, G. (1999). On the distributional effects of social security reform. Review of Economic Dynamics, 2(3):498–531.
- Huggett, M., Ventura, G., and Yaron, A. (2006). Human capital and earnings distribution dynamics. Journal of Monetary Economics, 53(2):265–290.
- İmrohoroglu, A., Imrohoroglu, S., and Joines, D. H. (1995). A life cycle analysis of social security. Economic Theory, 6:83–114.
- Jones, C. and Vollrath, D. (2013). Introduction to Economic Growth. W. W. Norton.
- Jones, C. I. (2016). The facts of economic growth. In <u>Handbook of Macroeconomics</u>, volume 2, pages 3–69. Elsevier.
- King, R. G. and Rebelo, S. T. (1999). Resuscitating real business cycles. <u>Handbook of Macroeconomics</u>, 1:927–1007.
- Kitao, S. and Yamada, T. (2024). The time trend and life-cycle profiles of consumption. Review of Economics of the Household, pages 1–41.
- Koopmans, T. (1963). On the concept of optimal economic growth. Cowles Foundation Discussion Papers 163, Cowles Foundation for Research in Economics, Yale University.
- Krusell, P. and Smith, Jr, A. A. (1998). Income and wealth heterogeneity in the macroe-conomy. Journal of Political Economy, 106(5):867–896.
- Modigliani, F. (1954). Utility analysis and the consumption function: Interpretation of cross-section data.
- Modigliani, F. (1986). Life cycle, individual thrift, and the wealth of nations. Science, 234(4777):704–712.
- Nakamura, E. (2009). Deconstructing the success of real business cycles. <u>Economic</u> Inquiry, 47(4):739–753.
- Owen, J. D. (1989). Labor supply over the life cycle: The long-term forecasting problem. International Journal of Forecasting, 5(2):249–257.
- Ramsey, F. P. (1928). A mathematical theory of saving. <u>The Economic Journal</u>, 38(152):543–559.
- Samuelson, P. A. (1958). An exact consumption-loan model of interest with or without the social contrivance of money. Journal of Political Economy, 66(6):467–482.
- Solow, R. M. (1956). A contribution to the theory of economic growth. <u>The Quarterly</u> Journal of Economics, 70(1):65–94.
- Torres, J. L. (2020). <u>Introduction to Dynamic Macroeconomic General Equilibrium Models</u>. Vernon Press.

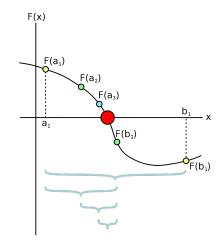
A Excercise List

Ex	Page	Content	Hint
1	8	Prove the existence of the fixed point	show that the LHS is increasing, bounded from 0 to $+\infty$, while the RHS is decreasing, bounded from ∞ to 0. Thus, they must cut somewhere between $[0,\infty)$.
2	10	write 3 programs to find root	
3	12	write programs to find root of a CIES	rewrite it like Eq.(12)
4	18	Solve for Ramsey's steady states	derive $u'(c)$, use Euler to solve for \bar{k} , then use the resource constraint to derive \bar{c} .
5	19	write a program for undetermined coeff.	find \bar{k} , create an array of k from 0 to $1.5 \times \bar{k}$. Write a function policy_func(k) and apply the function on the array k .
6	23	write a program of the perturba- tion met hod for policy function	similar to the previous, write a policy function and apply it on the array of k .
7	25	value function iteration	see Appendix C.1
8	27	solve for the FOC of the OLG	just follow the steps
9	30	solve the OLG by direct computation	do it incrementally. Check this Github link for each step.
			1. agentopt.jl is step 4, which solves the first 3 steps.
			2. agentopt_liter.jl completes step 6.
			3. agentopt_func.jl writes the whole inner loop into a function (step 7).
			4. agentopt_multi_iter.jl completes step 8, where we loop with each guess of initial N.

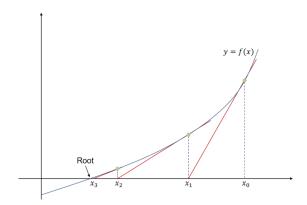
B Appendix

B.1 Illustrations of Root Finding Algorithms

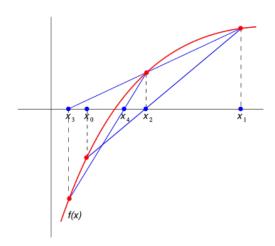
Bisection



Newton-Raphson



Secant



B.2 Other Iterative Methods to Solve Ramsey

Euler Equation Iteration

Consider the Ramsey model with log utility, full depreciation and $y_t = Ak_t^{\alpha}$.

$$\max \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \ln c_t,$$
s.t. $c_t + k_{t+1} = Ak_t^{\alpha}$.

The Euler equation becomes

$$\frac{1}{c_t} = \frac{1}{c_{t+1}} A \alpha \beta k_{t+1}^{\alpha - 1} = \alpha \beta \frac{1}{c_{t+1}} \frac{y_{t+1}}{k_{t+1}}.$$

The Transversality condition

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \beta^T u'(c_T) k_{t+T} = \beta^T \frac{k_{t+T}}{c_T} 0.$$

Using the budget constraint

$$c_t + k_{t+1} = y_t.$$

and adding 1 to both sides

$$\frac{c_t + k_{t+1}}{c_t} = 1 + \alpha \beta \frac{c_{t+1} + k_{t+2}}{c_{t+1}}.$$
(39)

Define

$$z_t = \frac{c_t + k_{t+1}}{c_t} \equiv \frac{y_t}{c_t}.$$

Iterating (39), we get

$$\begin{split} z_t &= 1 + \alpha \beta z_{t+1} = 1 + \alpha \beta + (\alpha \beta)^2 z_{t+2} \\ &= \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} (\alpha \beta)^t + \lim_{T \to \infty} (\alpha \beta)^T z_{t+T} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - \alpha \beta} \text{ since } \alpha \beta < 1 \text{ and the transversality condition holds.} \end{split}$$

If we use the definition of z_t , it is easy to solve

$$c_t = (1 - \alpha \beta) y_t,$$

$$k_{t+1} = \alpha \beta y_t.$$

Policy Function Iteration

This section borrows from the Notes for Macro II by Rincón-Zapatero (link). First, pick a feasible policy function

$$k_{t+1} = h_0(k) = 0.5Ak^{\alpha}$$
.

The value function is

$$V^{h_0}(k) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \ln(Ak_t^{\alpha} - 0.5Ak_t^{\alpha})$$
$$= \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \ln(0.5Ak_t^{\alpha})$$
$$= \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t (\ln(0.5A) + \alpha. \ln k).$$

Note that

$$k_t = 0.5Ak_{t-1}^{\alpha} = 0.5A(0.5Ak_{t-2}^{\alpha})^{\alpha} = 0.5^{\alpha+1}A^{\alpha+1}k_{t-2}^{\alpha^2},$$

implying

$$k_t = Dk_0^{\alpha^t}$$
.

Substituting this into V^{h_0} yields

$$V^{h_0}(k) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t (\ln(0.5A) + \alpha \ln D + \alpha^{t+1} \ln k_0) = E + \frac{\alpha}{1 - \beta \alpha} \ln k_0.$$

We then compute

$$\max_{k'} V := \ln(Ak^{\alpha} - k') + \beta \left(E + \frac{\alpha}{1 - \beta \alpha} \ln k' \right).$$

The FOC

$$-\frac{1}{Ak^{\alpha} - k'} + \frac{\beta \alpha}{A - \beta \alpha} \frac{1}{k'} = 0.$$

thus

$$k' = \alpha \beta A k^{\alpha}$$
.

The policy improvement algorithm converges in a single step.

C Codes

C.1 Ramsey's Value Function Iteration

(Python)

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from scipy.optimize import minimize_scalar
# params
beta = 0.98
delta = 0.1
theta = 0.36
# Define global variables
vlast = np.zeros(100)
k0 = np.linspace(0.1, 6, 100)
# Function to calculate the value function
def valfun(k): # k as k'
    global vlast, beta, delta, theta, kt
    g = np.interp(k, k0, vlast)
    c = kt**theta - k + (1 - delta) * kt
    if c <= 0:
        val = -888 - 800 * abs(c)
        val = np.log(c) + beta * g
    return -val
# Initialize arrays
v = np.zeros(100)
kt1 = np.zeros(100)
numits = 1000
error = 1
tol = 1e-6
its = 0
# Begin recursive calculations
while error > tol and its < numits:
    for j in range(100):
        kt = k0[j]
        ktp1 = minimize_scalar(valfun, bounds=(0.01, 6.2),
        \hookrightarrow method='bounded').x
        v[j] = -valfun(ktp1)
        kt1[j] = ktp1
    if its % 48 == 0:
        plt.plot(k0, v, label='iter. ' + str(its))
        plt.xlabel('k(t)', fontsize=16)
        plt.ylabel('V(k(t))', fontsize=16)
        plt.legend(loc='center left', bbox_to_anchor=(1, 0.5))
        plt.draw()
    error = np.max(np.abs(v - vlast))
    its += 1
    vlast = v.copy()
```

```
plt.show()

# Plot the policy function
plt.plot(k0, kt1)
plt.plot(k0, k0, ls=':', label='45 degree line')
plt.xlabel('k(t)', fontsize=16)
plt.ylabel('k(t+1)', fontsize=16)
plt.show()
```

C.2 OLG Direct Computation

(Julia)

```
using Plots
using NLsolve
# -----
# == Parameters =======
beta = 0.98
gamma = 2
alpha = 0.36
delta = 0.1
eta = 2
repl = 0.3
T = 40
TR = 20
tau = repl / (2 + repl)
psi = 0.001
r = 0.045
phi = 0.5 # Learning rate for nbar update
# key variables calculation
function update_w(k, n)
  return (1 - alpha) * k^alpha * n^(-alpha)
end
function update_kbar(n, r)
  return n * (alpha / (r + delta))^(1 / (1 - alpha))
end
function update_b(w, n)
  return 0.3 * ((1-tau) * w * n)
end
# == these functions solve the decision rules for ks and ns=
# 1. Going to use for s = 59, 58, \ldots, 41
function solve_ks_old(ks1, ks2)
```

```
ks = (1 / (1 + r)) * ((beta * (1 + r))^(1 / eta) * ((1 + r) * ks1)
              \rightarrow + b - ks2 + psi) - (b - ks1 + psi))
            return ks
end
\# 2. At s = 40, given ks41 and ns41, solve ks40 and ns40
function fs40!(F, X, ks1, ks2)
            ns1 = 0
            ks, ns = X
            F[1] = (1 - tau) * w * (1 - ns) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - n
             \rightarrow tau) * w * ns - ks1 + psi)
            F[2] = 1 / beta - (((1 + r) * ks1 + (1 - tau) * w * ns1 - ks2 + tau) * w * ns1 - ks2 + tau)
              \rightarrow psi) / ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - tau) * w * ns - ks1 + psi))^(-eta)
              \rightarrow * (((1 - ns1) / (1 - ns))^(gamma / (1 - eta))) * (1 + r)
end
# 3. At s = 39, 38, ..., 1, given ks[s+1], ns[s+1], ks[s+2], solve
 \rightarrow ks[s] and ns[s]
function fs_young!(F, X, ks1, ns1, ks2)
            ks, ns = X
            F[1] = (1 - tau) * w * (1 - ns) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + ns) * ks + (1 - ns)) / gamma - ((1 + ns) * ks + (1 -
             \rightarrow tau) * w * ns - ks1 + psi)
            F[2] = 1 / beta - (((1 + r) * ks1 + (1 - tau) * w * ns1 - ks2 + tau) * w * ns1 - ks2 + tau)
              \rightarrow psi) / ((1 + r) * ks + (1 - tau) * w * ns - ks1 + psi))^(-eta)
               \rightarrow * (((1 - ns1) / (1 - ns))^(gamma / (1 - eta))) * (1 + r)
end
            ______
# == Backward Iteration Function
         # == input: given nbar, solve the decision rules and ss age-profile
# == output: series of steady state age-profile ks_true and ns_true
# == in the inner loop, first guess k[60] and iterate until k[1] = 0
 # Target: loop backward iteration until we get k[1] = 0
# change the guess of k[60] and iterate again if k[1] is not 0
max_iter = 30
function backward_iteration(nbar)
            k60_guess = zeros(max_iter + 1)
            k1_res = zeros(max_iter + 1)
             # true value
            ks_true = zeros(61)
            ns_true = zeros(61)
            # set tol value
             i = 1
             tol = 1e-6
             err = 0.1
             while i <= max_iter && abs(err) > tol
```

```
# an empty array to store the results
        ks = zeros(61)
        ns = zeros(61)
        # update k60 guess
        if i == 1
            k60_guess[i] = 0.15
        elseif i == 2
            k60_guess[i] = 0.2
        else
             # update by secant method
            k60_{guess[i]} = k60_{guess[i-1]} - (k1_{res[i-1]} - 0) *
             \leftrightarrow (k60_guess[i-1] - k60_guess[i-2]) / (k1_res[i-1] -
             \rightarrow k1_res[i-2])
        end
        # initiate a guess for k[60]
        ks[60] = k60_guess[i]
        # calculate k[s] and n[s] for s = 59, 58, \ldots, 1
        for s in 59:-1:1
            if s >= 41
                 # at s = 59, 58, ..., 41, given k[s+1] and k[s+2],
                 \rightarrow solve k[s]
                 ks[s] = solve_ks_old(ks[s+1], ks[s+2])
                 ns[s] = 0
             elseif s == 40
                 \# at s = 40, given k41 and n41, solve k40 and n40
                 result = nlsolve((F, X) \rightarrow fs40!(F, X, ks[s+1],
                 \rightarrow ks[s+2]), [ks[s+1], ns[s+1]])
                 ks[s] = result.zero[1]
                 ns[s] = result.zero[2]
             else
                 # at s = 39, 38, ..., 1, given k[s+1] and n[s+1],
                 \hookrightarrow solve k[s] and n[s]
                 result = nlsolve((F, X) -> fs_young!(F, X, ks[s+1],
                 \rightarrow ns[s+1], ks[s+2]), [ks[s+1], ns[s+1]])
                 ks[s] = result.zero[1]
                 ns[s] = result.zero[2]
             end
        end
        # store the results
        ks_true = ks
        ns_true = ns
        # store k1 and calculate the error
        k1_res[i] = ks[1]
        # update error value
        err = ks[1]
        # increase the iteration if the error is still greater than
        \rightarrow the tolerance, otherwise break the loop
        if abs(err) > tol
            i += 1
        else
             break
        end
    end
    return ks_true, ns_true
end
```

```
______
# == Outer Loop Algorithm
   _____
# == input: a guess of nbar distribution
  # == output: the true nbar with its associated ks_true and ns_true
outer_max_iter = 30
outer_tol = 1e-6
outer_err = 1.0
outer_i = 1
# results
K = 0
N = 0
Nv = 0
ks_true = zeros(61)
ns_true = zeros(61)
# Initial guess for nbar
nbar = 0.2
kbar = update_kbar(nbar, r)
w = update_w(kbar, nbar)
b = update_b(w, nbar)
# the loop algorithm
while outer_i <= outer_max_iter && abs(outer_err) > outer_tol
   kbar = update_kbar(nbar, r)
   w = update_w(kbar, nbar)
   b = update_b(w, nbar)
   # solve the decision rules steady state age-profile
   ks_true, ns_true = backward_iteration(nbar)
   # calculate aggregate capital
   K = sum(ks_true) / (T + TR)
   # calculate aggregate labor
   N = sum(ns\_true) / (T + TR)
   Ny = sum(ns_true) / T #workers only
   # nbar error
   nbar_error = N - nbar
   #println("nbar error: ", nbar_error)
   # update nbar
   if abs(nbar_error) > outer_tol
       nbar_new = phi * nbar + (1 - phi) * N
       nbar = nbar_new
       outer_err = nbar_error
       outer_i += 1
   else
       break
```

```
end
end
#
# == Calculate other variables
  # == earnings, consumption, welfare
   _____
# earnings
function cal_income(s, k, n)
   if s <= 40
       return (1 + r) * k + (1 - tau) * n * ((1 - alpha) * k^alpha *
        → n^(-alpha))
    elseif s <= 60
       return (1 + r) * k + b
    else
       return 0
    end
end
# consumption
function cal_c(s, n, w, k1)
    if s \le 40
       return (1 - tau) * w * (1-n) / gamma - psi
    elseif s <= 60
       return w - k1
    else
       return 0
    end
end
# welfare
function cal_welfare(s, c, n)
   return beta^(s - 1) * (((c + psi) * ((1 - n)^gamma))^(1 - eta) -
    \hookrightarrow 1) / (1 - eta)
end
# using ks_true and ns_true to calculate the variables
ws_true = zeros(61)
cs_true = zeros(61)
us_true = zeros(61)
age_true = zeros(61)
for s in 1:60
   age\_true[s] = s + 20
   ws_true[s] = cal_income(s, ks_true[s], ns_true[s])
   cs_true[s] = cal_c(s, ns_true[s], ws_true[s], ks_true[s+1])
   us_true[s] = cal_welfare(s, cs_true[s], ns_true[s])
end
ws_true[61] = 0
cs\_true[61] = 0
us\_true[61] = 0
```

```
age_true[61] = 81
# == Print the steady states ========
println("Final nbar: ", nbar)
println("Final K: ", kbar)
println("Final N: ", N)
println("Final Ny: ", Ny)
println("b: ", b)
# -----
# == Plotting =======
# =========
# show 4 plots at the same time
# plot of ks
plotk = plot(age_true, ks_true, label="ks", title="Capital
\hookrightarrow Distribution", xlabel="Age", ylabel="Capital", legend=false,
\hookrightarrow color=:blue, lw=2, dpi=300)
plotn = plot(age_true, ns_true, label="ns", title="Labor
→ Distribution", xlabel="Age", ylabel="Labor", legend=false,
\hookrightarrow color=:red, lw=2, dpi=300)
plotw = plot(age_true, ws_true, label="ws", title="Income
_{\hookrightarrow} Distribution", xlabel="Age", ylabel="Wage", legend=false,

    color=:green, lw=2, dpi=300)

plotc = plot(age_true, cs_true, label="cs", title="Consumption
→ Distribution", xlabel="Age", ylabel="Consumption", legend=false,

    color=:purple, lw=2, dpi=300)

fig = plot(plotk, plotn, plotw, plotc, layout=(2, 2), legend=false,

    size=(800, 600))

#savefig(fig, "AK60.png")
#savefig(plotw, "AK60w.png")
```