Topic 0 Introduction to Numerical Solutions and Coding

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Roadmap

Lecture Overview

- 2 Numerical Solutions Motivation
- 3 Numerical Solutions in Research

4 Coding



Discretisation

7 Conclusion

The Menu for Today

- What role does a computer play in solving economic models?
- e How do numerical solutions compare with pen and paper methods you studied with Giammario in Macro I?
- What types of research can you use numerical solutions for?
- What's coding?
- What are the basics of Matlab?

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7 Conclusion

- This course will all be about model solving using a computer.
- Why do we need to use computers for such activities at all?
- Complicated models can't be solved with a pen and paper.

• Take the social planner's problem for the neoclassical growth model for example.

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

subject to

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

• How would you solve this in an exam using pen and paper?

Solution can be characterised by the Euler equation and resource constraint

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

$$c_t + k_{t+1} = f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t.$$
 (2)

• Where does one go from here?

- There are really two options.
- (1) Impose assumptions on the problem to get an analytical (pen and paper) solution.
- (2) Take it to a computer and solve it numerically.

- What's the tradeoff?
- Numerical solutions usually involve "less restrictive" assumptions.
- But your solution only holds for a specific set of parameters.

- In the context of our neoclassical growth model, we can get analytical solutions under the right assumptions.
- Assume the following

$$u(c_t) = \log(c_t)$$
$$f(k_t) = k_t^{\alpha}$$
$$\delta = 1.$$

• We can then use the guess and verify method to find an analytical solution.

• What is a state variable?

• What is a policy function?

- Conjecture that $k_{t+1} = \omega y_t$ for $\omega \in [0,1]$ where $y_t = k_t^{\alpha}$.
- Says that your investment is some fraction of final output.
- Get then from equation (2) that $c_t = (1 \omega)y_t$.
- I.e. consumption takes the remainder of final output.

• Recall equation (1), but now under our assumptions

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

• Notice that $\alpha k_{t+1}^{\alpha-1} = \alpha y_{t+1}/k_{t+1}$.

Follows then that

$$1 = \beta \frac{(1-\omega)y_t}{(1-\omega)y_{t+1}} \alpha \frac{y_{t+1}}{k_{t+1}}$$
$$\Rightarrow 1 = \alpha \beta \frac{y_t}{k_{t+1}}$$
$$\Rightarrow k_{t+1} = \alpha \beta y_t = \alpha \beta k_t^{\alpha}$$

• This is our solution: tell me the current period capital stock k_t and then, using equation (3), I can tell you k_{t+1} through

$$k_{t+1}(k_t) = \alpha \beta k_t^{\alpha}.$$
 (3)

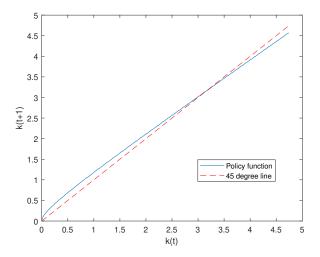
• What can we do with a policy function?

• What if we don't like log utility and full depreciation though?

• Say we want
$$u(c_t) = \frac{c_t^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma}$$
 with $f(k_t) = k_t^{\alpha}$.

• Set
$$lpha$$
 = 0.33, δ = 0.10, σ = 2.0 and eta = 0.95.

• Solve for the numerical equivalent of $k_{t+1}(k_t)$ in (3).



• Finding these numerical solutions is what this course is all about.

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Discretisation



- You use these methods to answer quantitative questions.
- If the government increases this tax rate by 1%, GDP will drop by X%.

- Can also use them to gauge the quantitative significance of certain channels in your model.
- E.g. stick additional friction into a standard model.
 - Estimate the baseline model with all the features in place.
 - Compare with a more standard model without the friction.
 - What differs? Maybe the counterfactual you're running gives different qualitative or quantitative results.

- Positives of this type of research:
 - Can put any features you want into a model and be able to solve it.
 - Easily interpretable results.
 - Super useful for policy analysis.
 - Tons of fertile areas of application.

- Negatives of this type of research:
 - "Black boxy": can't do closed-form comparative statics.
 - How do you choose parameters? Derogatory term: "theory with numbers".
 - General scepticism from pure empiricists or pure theorists.
 - Solving these things is hard and time-consuming!

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Discretisation



Talking to the Machines

- Human language: words, letters and numbers.
- Machine language: binary of 0s and 1s.
- How do we communicate with the machines? Through coding/programming languages.

Talking to the Machines



Languages

- Programming languages take our commands and then translate to binary for the machines to understand.
- Lots of alternatives with different pros and cons.
- Matlab is pretty close to a standard for economics.
- Or at the least, it's a good starting point.

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Discretisation



Matlab

- Stands for Matrix Laboratory.
- Basically an interface built over the top of C/C++.
- Matlab always works fastest when you use lots of matrices in your code.

Very Basics

- Matlab script (code) files have .m extensions. E.g. PS1.m.
- We'll proceed in the lecture by example.

Very Basics

• Clear the memory and workspace, then crunch the sum of $1{+}1$

```
clear;clc;
1+1;
1+1
```

gives the output



• The ; suppresses output: i.e. the 1+1 was only printed once when the ; didn't follow.

Arrays

- Best practice is always to declare the size of arrays (vectors) before filling them.
- Declare an array (call it A) of size 3 × 1 and then fill it with the numbers 1, 2 and 3.

A = zeros (3,1); A(1,1) = 1; A(2,1) = 2; A(3,1) = 3;A

gives the output

A =

1
2
3

Arrays

• Declare an array (call it *B*) of size 1 × 3 and then fill it with the numbers 1, 2 and 3.

B = zeros(1,3); B(1,1) = 1; B(1,2) = 2; B(1,3) = 3; B

gives the output

B = 1 2 3

• The same idea follows for matrices.

Arrays

- There is a difference between matrix operations and element-by-element operations.
- Declare two matrices of size 2 × 2. Call them *C* and *D*. Fill them both with ones.

C = zeros(2,2); D = zeros(2,2); C(:,:) = 1; D(:,:) = 1;



• Then multiply them together (in the matrix sense).

C * D

gives the output

>> C*D ans = 2 2 2 2

Arrays

Now multiply C and D together element-by-element

C.*D

gives the output

>> C.*D ans = 1 1 1 1

which is like crunching C(1,1) * D(1,1), C(1,2) * D(1,2), ... etc and storing the results in a 2 × 2 matrix.

For Loops

- These are known as "do loops" in other languages.
- Says to perform an operation several times, where each run is indexed by an integer.

For Loops

• Create a 3 × 1 array of ones called *E*. Loop through each element of the array and print the output from multiplying each element by its position number.

```
E = zeros(3,1);
E(:,:) = 1;
for i = 1:length(E);
    i*E(i,1)
end;
```

gives output

ans = 1 ans = 2

If Statements

- The conditional statement.
- If something is true then do this.

If Statements

• Using the *E* array you created, perform the same for loop as before. But for the second entry, instead of printing the entry number, print the number 100.

```
E = zeros(3,1);
E(:,:) = 1;
for i = 1:length(E);
    if (i == 2)
        100
    else
        i*E(i,1)
    end
end;
```

If Statements

• Gives output

ans = 1 ans = 100 ans =

3

While Loops

• Keep repeating some action until some condition is satisfied.

While Loops

• Create a variable called k. Set this variable equal to zero. Keep increasing k by an increment of 1 until it reaches a value of 3. Print the output at each increment.

While Loops

• Yields output



Functions

- A function is a script that you can call from another, which performs specified tasks.
- It takes *input arguments* and then gives you *outputs*, to which they correspond.
- You need to follow a special syntax in writing the function script to get it to work properly.

Functions

- For a function with one input and one output, first line should read function output = myfunction(input)
 where output (input) is the name of your output (input) and myfunction is the name you give the script.
- The word function must always the first in the script.
- You must also always save the function script as *myfunction*.m (where *myfunction* is whatever name you chose above).

Functions

- Write a function that takes an input then multiplies it by 100. Call this function from the main body of your script using an input of 10.
- The function script (separate from the main script) would say

end

```
where the main script calls it as follows
```

```
myfunction(10)
```

gives

>> myfunction(10)

```
output =
```

1000

Roadmap

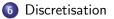
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• Computers can't handle infinite dimensional objects.

• Instead we approximate the object at a finite number of points.

• Consider the function

$$f(x) = x^3, x \in [0, 1].$$

• Notice that the continuum [0,1] is uncountably infinite.

• How would we plot this object using a computer?

• "Chop-up" the interval into a discrete set of points.

• I.e. define a set X to approximate [0,1] such that

$$X \equiv \{x_0, x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$$

where $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $x_0 = 0$ and $x_n = 1$.

• Then evaluate the function at each point in the set X.

• I.e. define a set F such that

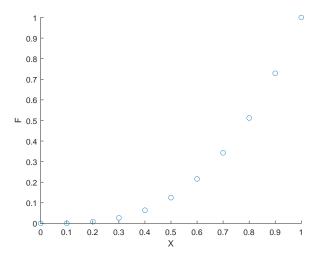
$$F \equiv \{f(x_1), f(x_2), ..., f(x_n)\}.$$

• Then simply plot the set *F* against the set *X*.

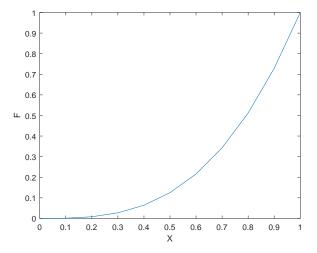
• Let's set
$$n = 11$$
 for the $f(x) = x^3$, $x \in [0, 1]$ example.

```
x_ub = 1;
x_lb = 0;
x_inc = 1/10;
x_vec = [x_lb:x_inc:x_ub];
y_vec = x_vec.^3;
scatter(x_vec,y_vec);
```

• With n = 11 and then using the *scatter* command.



• The *plot* command joins the dots.



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- That's more-or-less the basics for us to get started with Matlab.
- Should have all the background to do PS0 now.