

# PERTURBATION METHODS

Kenneth L. Judd

Hoover Institution and NBER

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## Local Approximation Methods

- Use information about  $f : R \rightarrow R$  only at a point,  $x_0 \in R$ , to construct an approximation valid near  $x_0$

- Taylor Series Approximation

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &\doteq f(x_0) + (x - x_0) f'(x_0) + \frac{(x - x_0)^2}{2} f''(x_0) + \cdots + \frac{(x - x_0)^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(x_0) + \mathcal{O}(|x - x_0|^{n+1}) \\ &= p_n(x) + \mathcal{O}(|x - x_0|^{n+1}) \end{aligned}$$

- Power series:  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$

– The *radius of convergence* is

$$r = \sup\{|z| : \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n < \infty\},$$

–  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  converges for all  $|z| < r$  and diverges for all  $|z| > r$ .

- Complex analysis

–  $f : \Omega \subset C \rightarrow C$  on the complex plane  $C$  is *analytic* on  $\Omega$  iff

$$\forall a \in \Omega \quad \exists r, c_k \left( \forall \|z - a\| < r \left( f(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (z - a)^k \right) \right)$$

– A *singularity* of  $f$  is any  $a$  s. t.  $f$  is analytic on  $\Omega - \{a\}$  but not on  $\Omega$ .

– If  $f$  or any derivative of  $f$  has a singularity at  $z \in C$ , then the radius of convergence in  $C$  of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x-x_0)^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(x_0)$ , is bounded above by  $\|x_0 - z\|$ .

• Example:  $f(x) = x^\alpha$  where  $0 < \alpha < 1$ .

- One singularity at  $x = 0$
- Radius of convergence for power series around  $x = 1$  is 1.
- Taylor series coefficients decline slowly:

$$a_k = \frac{1}{k!} \frac{d^k}{dx^k} (x^\alpha) \Big|_{x=1} = \frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1) \cdots (\alpha - k + 1)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdots k}.$$

Table 6.1 (corrected): Taylor Series Approximation Errors for  $x^{1/4}$

		Taylor series error				$x^{1/4}$
$x$	N:	5	10	20	50	
3.0		5(-1)	8(1)	3(3)	1(12)	1.3161
2.0		1(-2)	5(-3)	2(-3)	8(-4)	1.1892
1.8		4(-3)	5(-4)	2(-4)	9(-9)	1.1583
1.5		2(-4)	3(-6)	1(-9)	0(-12)	1.1067
1.2		1(-6)	2(-10)	0(-12)	0(-12)	1.0466
.80		2(-6)	3(-10)	0(-12)	0(-12)	.9457
.50		6(-4)	9(-6)	4(-9)	0(-12)	.8409
.25		1(-2)	1(-3)	4(-5)	3(-9)	.7071
.10		6(-2)	2(-2)	4(-3)	6(-5)	.5623
.05		1(-1)	5(-2)	2(-2)	2(-3)	.4729

## Implicit Function Theorem

- Suppose  $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is defined in  $H(x, h(x)) = 0$ ,  $H : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , and  $h(x_0) = y_0$ .

– Implicit differentiation shows

$$H_x(x, h(x)) + H_y(x, h(x))h_x(x) = 0$$

– At  $x = x_0$ , this implies

$$h_x(x_0) = -H_y(x_0, y_0)^{-1}H_x(x_0, y_0)$$

if  $H_y(x_0, y_0)$  is nonsingular. More simply, we express this as

$$h_x^0 = - (H_y^0)^{-1} H_x^0$$

– Linear approximation for  $h(x)$  is

$$h^L(x) \doteq h(x_0) + h_x(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

- To check on quality, we compute

$$E = \hat{H}(x, h^L(x))$$

where  $\hat{H}$  is a unit free equivalent of  $H$ . If  $E < \varepsilon$ , then we have an  $\varepsilon$ -solution.

- If  $h^L(y)$  is not satisfactory, compute higher-order terms by repeated differentiation.

–  $D_{xx}H(x, h(x)) = 0$  implies

$$H_{xx} + 2H_{xy}h_x + H_{yy}h_x h_x + H_y h_{xx} = 0$$

– At  $x = x_0$ , this implies

$$h_{xx}^0 = - (H_y^0)^{-1} (H_{xx}^0 + 2H_{xy}^0 h_x^0 + H_{yy}^0 h_x^0 h_x^0)$$

– Construct the quadratic approximation

$$h^Q(x) \doteq h(x_0) + h_x^0(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}(x - x_0)^\top h_{xx}^0(x - x_0)$$

and check its quality by computing  $E = H(x, h^Q(x))$ .

## Regular Perturbation: The Basic Idea

- Suppose  $x$  is an endogenous variable,  $\varepsilon$  a parameter

- Want to find  $x(\varepsilon)$  such that  $f(x(\varepsilon), \varepsilon) = 0$

- Suppose  $x(0)$  known.

- Use Implicit Function Theorem

- Apply implicit differentiation:

$$f_x(x(\varepsilon), \varepsilon)x'(\varepsilon) + f_\varepsilon(x(\varepsilon), \varepsilon) = 0 \quad (13.1.5)$$

- At  $\varepsilon = 0$ ,  $x(0)$  is known and (13.1.5) is linear in  $x'(0)$  with solution

$$x'(0) = -f_x(x(0), 0)^{-1}f_\varepsilon(x(0), 0)$$

- Well-defined only if  $f_x \neq 0$ , a condition which can be checked at  $x = x(0)$ .

- The linear approximation of  $x(\varepsilon)$  for  $\varepsilon$  near zero is

$$x(\varepsilon) \doteq x^L(\varepsilon) \equiv x(0) - f_x(x(0), 0)^{-1}f_\varepsilon(x(0), 0)\varepsilon \quad (13.1.6)$$

- Can continue for higher-order derivatives of  $x(\varepsilon)$ .

– Differentiate (13.1.5) w.r.t.  $\varepsilon$

$$f_x x'' + f_{xx} (x')^2 + 2f_{x\varepsilon} x' + f_{\varepsilon\varepsilon} = 0 \quad (13.1.7)$$

– At  $\varepsilon = 0$ , (13.1.7) implies that

$$\begin{aligned} x''(0) = & -f_x(x(0), 0)^{-1} \left( f_{xx}(x(0), 0) (x'(0))^2 \right. \\ & \left. + 2f_{x\varepsilon}(x(0), 0) x'(0) + f_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(x(0), 0) \right) \end{aligned}$$

– Quadratic approximation is

$$x(\varepsilon) \doteq x^Q(\varepsilon) \equiv x(0) + \varepsilon x'(0) + \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon^2 x''(0) \quad (13.1.8)$$

- General Perturbation Strategy

- Find special (likely degenerate, uninteresting) case where one knows solution
  - \* General relativity theory: begin with case of a universe with zero mass:  $\varepsilon$  is mass of universe
  - \* Quantum mechanics: begin with case where electrons do not repel each other:  $\varepsilon$  is force of repulsion
  - \* Business cycle analysis: begin with case where there are no shocks:  $\varepsilon$  is measure of exogenous shocks
- Use local approximation theory to compute nearby cases
  - \* Standard implicit function may be applicable
  - \* Sometimes standard implicit function theorem will not apply; use appropriate bifurcation or singularity method.
- Check to see if solution is good for problem of interest
  - \* Use unit-free formulation of problem
  - \* Go to higher-order terms until error is reduced to acceptable level
  - \* *Always* check solution for range of validity



## Single-Sector, Deterministic Growth - canonical problem

- Consider dynamic programming problem

$$\max_{c(t)} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\rho t} u(c) dt$$
$$\dot{k} = f(k) - c$$

- Ad-Hoc Method: Convert to a wrong LQ problem

– McGrattan, JBES (1990)

- \* Replace  $u(c)$  and  $f(k)$  with approximations around  $c^*$  and  $k^*$
- \* Solve linear-quadratic problem

$$\max_c \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\rho t} \left( u(c^*) + u'(c^*)(c - c^*) + \frac{1}{2}u''(c^*)(c - c^*)^2 \right) dt$$
$$\text{s.t. } \dot{k} = f(k^*) + f'(k^*)(k^* - k) - c$$

- \* Resulting approximate policy function is

$$C^{McG}(k) = f(k^*) + \rho(k - k^*) \neq C(k^*) + C'(k^*)(k - k^*)$$

- \* Local approximate law of motion is  $\dot{k} = 0$ ; add noise to get

$$dk = 0 \cdot dt + dz$$

- \* Approximation is *random walk* when theory says solution is stationary

– Fallacy of McGrattan noted in Judd (1986, 1988); point repeated in Benigno-Woodford (2004).

- Kydland-Prescott

- Restate problem so that  $\dot{k}$  is linear function of state and controls
- Replace  $u(c)$  with quadratic approximation
- Note 1: such transformation may not be easy
- Note 2: special case of Magill (JET 1977).

- Lesson

- Kydland-Prescott, McGrattan provide no mathematical basis for method
- Formal calculations based on appropriate IFT should be used.
- Beware of *ad hoc* methods based on an intuitive story!

# Perturbation Method for Dynamic Programming

- Formalize problem as a system of functional equations

- Bellman equation:

$$\rho V(k) = \max_c u(c) + V'(k)(f(k) - c) \quad (1)$$

- $C(k)$ : policy function defined by

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= u'(C(k)) - V'(k) \\ \rho V(k) &= u(C(k)) + V'(k)(f(k) - C(k)) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

- Apply envelope theorem to (1) to get

$$\rho V'(k) = V''(k)(f(k) - C(k)) + V'(k)f'(k) \quad (1_k)$$

- Steady-state equations

$$\begin{aligned} c^* &= f(k^*) & \rho V(k^*) &= u(c^*) + V'(k^*)(f(k^*) - c^*) \\ 0 &= u'(c^*) - V'(k^*) & \rho V'(k^*) &= V''(k^*)(f(k^*) - c^*) + V'(k^*)f'(k^*) \end{aligned}$$

- Steady State: We know  $k^*$ ,  $V(k^*)$ ,  $C(k^*)$ ,  $f'(k^*)$ ,  $V'(k^*)$ :

$$\rho = f'(k^*), \quad C(k^*) = f(k^*), \quad V(k^*) = \rho^{-1}u(c^*), \quad V'(k^*) = u'(c^*)$$

- Want Taylor expansion:

$$\begin{aligned} C(k) &\doteq C(k^*) + C'(k^*)(k - k^*) + C''(k^*)(k - k^*)^2/2 + \dots \\ V(k) &\doteq V(k^*) + V'(k^*)(k - k^*) + V''(k^*)(k - k^*)^2/2 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

- Linear approximation around a steady state

- Differentiate (1<sub>k</sub>, 2) w.r.t.  $k$ :

$$\rho V'' = V'''(f - C) + V''(f' - C') + V''f' + V'f'' \quad (1_{kk})$$

$$0 = u''C' - V'' \quad (2_k)$$

- At the steady state

$$0 = -V''(k^*)C'(k^*) + V''(k^*)f'(k^*) + V'(k^*)f''(k^*) \quad (1_k^*)$$

- Substituting (2<sub>k</sub>) into (1<sub>k</sub><sup>\*</sup>) yields

$$0 = -u''(C')^2 + u''C'f' + V'f''$$

- Two solutions

$$C'(k^*) = \frac{\rho}{2} \left( 1 \pm \sqrt{1 + \frac{4u'(C(k^*))f''(k^*)}{u''(C'(k^*))f'(k^*)f'(k^*)}} \right)$$

- However, we know  $C'(k^*) > 0$ ; hence, take positive solution

- Higher-Order Expansions

- Conventional perception in macroeconomics: “perturbation methods of order higher than one are considerably more complicated than the traditional linear-quadratic case ...” – Marcet (1994, p. 111)
- Mathematics literature: No problem (See, e.g., Bensoussan, Fleming, Souganides, etc.)

- Compute  $C''(k^*)$  and  $V'''(k^*)$ .

- Differentiate  $(1_{kk}, 2_k)$ :

$$\rho V''' = V''''(f - C) + 2V'''(f' - C') + V''(f'' - C'') \quad (1_{kkk})$$

$$+ V'''f' + 2V''f'' + V'f'''$$

$$0 = u'''(C')^2 + u''C'' - V''' \quad (2_{kk})$$

- At  $k^*$ ,  $(1_{kkk})$  reduces to

$$0 = 2V'''(f' - C') + 3V''f'' - V''C'' + V'f''' \quad (1_{kkk}^*)$$

- Equations  $(1_{kkk}^*, 2_{kk}^*)$  are *LINEAR* in unknowns  $C''(k^*)$  and  $V'''(k^*)$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} u'' & -1 \\ V'' - 2(f' - C') \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C'' \\ V''' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Unique solution since determinant  $-2u''(f' - C') + V'' < 0$ .

- Compute  $C^{(n)}(k^*)$  and  $V^{(n+1)}(k^*)$ .

- Linear system for order  $n$  is, for some  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ ,

$$\begin{pmatrix} u'' & -1 \\ V'' - n(f' - C') \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C^{(n)} \\ V^{(n+1)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Higher-order terms are produced by solving linear systems

- The linear system is always determinate since  $-nu''(f' - C') + V'' < 0$

- Conclusion:

- Computing first-order terms involves solving quadratic equations

- Computing higher-order terms involves solving linear equations

- Computing higher-order terms is easier than computing the linear term.

## Accuracy Measure

Consider the one-period relative Euler equation error:

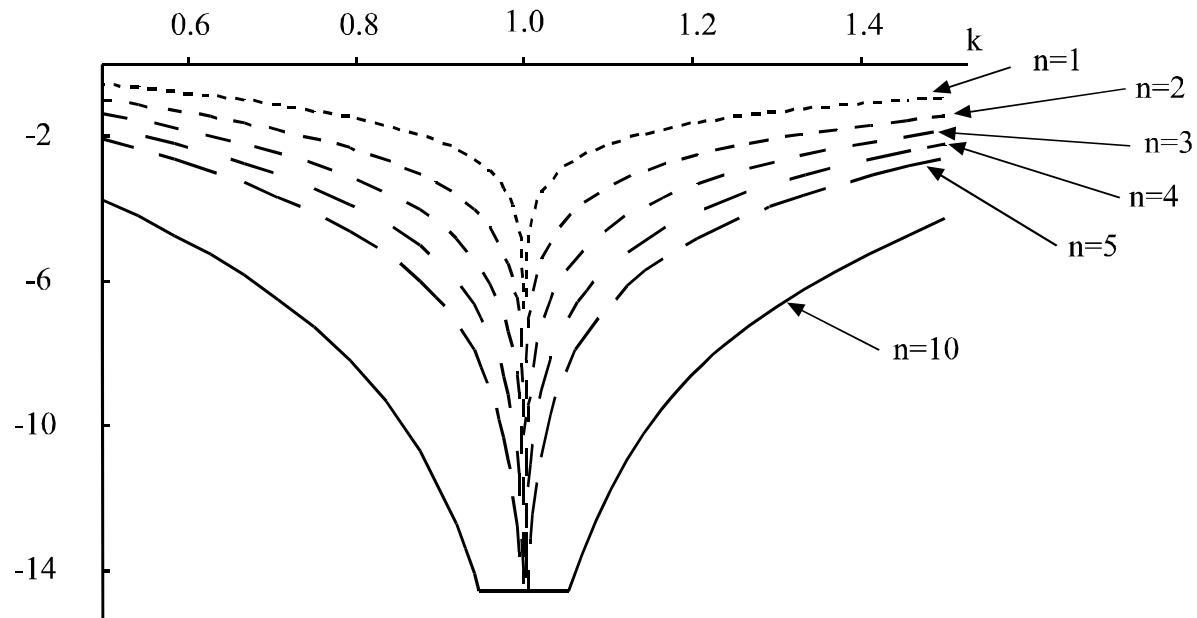
$$E(k) = 1 - \frac{V'(k)}{u'(C(k))}$$

- Equilibrium requires it to be zero.
- $E(k)$  is measure of optimization error
  - 1 is unacceptably large
  - Values such as .00001 is a limit for people.
  - $E(k)$  is unit-free.
- Define the  $L^p$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , *bounded rationality accuracy* to be

$$\log_{10} \| E(k) \|_p$$

- The  $L^\infty$  error is the maximum value of  $E(k)$ .

# Global Quality of Asymptotic Approximations



Graph of  $\log_{10} |E(k)|$

- Linear approximation is very poor even for  $k$  close to steady state
- Order 2 is better but still not acceptable for even  $k = .9, 1.1$
- Order 10 is excellent for  $k \in [.6, 1.4]$



## Bifurcation Methods

- Suppose  $H(h(\varepsilon), \varepsilon) = 0$  but  $H(x, 0) = 0$  for all  $x$ .

– IFT says

$$h'(0) = -\frac{H_\varepsilon(x_0, 0)}{H_x(x_0, 0)}$$

–  $H(x, 0) = 0$  implies  $H_x(x_0, 0) = 0$ , and  $h'(0)$  has the form  $0/0$  at  $x = x_0$ .

– l'Hospital's rule implies, if which is well-defined if  $H_{\varepsilon x}(x_0, 0) \neq 0$ ,

$$h'(0) = -\frac{H_{\varepsilon\varepsilon}(x_0, 0)}{H_{\varepsilon x}(x_0, 0)}.$$

## Example: Portfolio Choices for Small Risks

- Simple asset demand model:

- safe asset yields  $R$  per dollar invested and risky asset yields  $Z$  per dollar invested
- If final value is  $Y = W((1 - \omega)R + \omega Z)$ , then portfolio problem is

$$\max_{\omega} E\{u(Y)\}$$

- Small Risk Analysis

- Parameterize cases

$$Z = R + \varepsilon z + \varepsilon^2 \pi \tag{1}$$

- Compute  $\omega(\varepsilon) \doteq \omega(0) + \varepsilon\omega'(0) + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}\omega''(0)$ . around the deterministic case of  $\varepsilon = 0$ .
- Failure of IFT: at  $\varepsilon = 0$ ,  $Z = R$ , and  $\omega(\varepsilon)$  is indeterminate, but we know that  $\omega(\varepsilon)$  is unique for  $\varepsilon \neq 0$

- Bifurcation analysis

- The first-order condition for  $\omega$

$$0 = E\{u'(WR + \omega W(\varepsilon z + \varepsilon^2 \pi))(z + \varepsilon \pi)\} \equiv G(\omega, \varepsilon) \quad (2)$$

$$0 = G(\omega, 0), \quad \forall \omega. \quad (3)$$

- Solve for  $\omega(\varepsilon) \doteq \omega(0) + \varepsilon\omega'(0) + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}\omega''(0)$ . Implicit differentiation implies

$$0 = G_\omega \omega' + G_\varepsilon \quad (4)$$

$$G_\varepsilon = E\{u''(Y)W(\omega z + 2\omega\varepsilon\pi)W(z + \varepsilon\pi) + u'(Y)\pi\} \quad (5)$$

$$G_\omega = E\{u''(Y)(z + \varepsilon\pi)^2\varepsilon\} \quad (6)$$

- At  $\varepsilon = 0$ ,  $G(\omega, 0) = G_\omega(\omega, 0) = 0$  for all  $\omega$ .

- No point  $(\omega, 0)$  for application of IFT to (3) to solve for  $\omega'(0)$ .

- We want  $\omega_0 = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \omega(\varepsilon)$ .

– Bifurcation theorem keys on  $\omega_0$  satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= G_\varepsilon(\omega_0, 0) \\ &= u''(RW)\omega_0\sigma_z^2W + u'(RW)\pi \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

which implies

$$\omega_0 = - \frac{\pi}{\sigma_z^2} \frac{u'(WR)}{Wu''(WR)} \tag{8}$$

– (8) is asymptotic portfolio rule

- \* same as mean-variance rule
- \*  $\omega_0$  is product of risk tolerance and the risk premium per unit variance.
- \*  $\omega_0$  is the limiting portfolio share as the variance vanishes.
- \*  $\omega_0$  is not first-order approximation.

- To calculate  $\omega'(0)$ :

– differentiate (2.4) with respect to  $\varepsilon$

$$0 = G_{\omega\omega}\omega'\omega' + 2G_{\omega\varepsilon}\omega' + G_{\omega}\omega'' + G_{\varepsilon\varepsilon} \quad (9)$$

where (without loss of generality, we assume  $W = 1$ )

$$G_{\varepsilon\varepsilon} = E\{u'''(Y)(\omega z + 2\omega\varepsilon\pi)^2(z + \varepsilon\pi) + u''(Y)2\omega\pi(z + \varepsilon\pi) + 2u''(Y)(\omega z + 2\omega\varepsilon\pi)\pi\}$$

$$G_{\omega\omega} = E\{u'''(Y)(z + \varepsilon\pi)^3\varepsilon\}$$

$$G_{\omega\varepsilon} = E\{u'''(Y)(\omega z + 2\omega\varepsilon\pi)(z + \varepsilon\pi)^2\varepsilon + u''(Y)(z + \varepsilon\pi)2\pi\varepsilon + u''(Y)(z + \varepsilon\pi)^2\}$$

– At  $\varepsilon = 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} G_{\varepsilon\varepsilon} &= u'''(R)\omega_0^2 E\{z^3\} & G_{\omega\omega} &= 0 \\ G_{\omega\varepsilon} &= u''(R)E\{z^2\} \neq 0 & G_{\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon} &\neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

– Therefore,

$$\omega' = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{u'''(R)}{u''(R)} \frac{E\{z^3\}}{E\{z^2\}} \omega_0^2. \quad (10)$$

– Equation (10) is a simple formula.

\*  $\omega'(0)$  proportional to  $u'''/u''$

\*  $\omega'(0)$  proportional to ratio of skewness to variance.

\* If  $u$  is quadratic or  $z$  is symmetric,  $\omega$  does not change to a first order.

– We could continue this and compute more derivatives of  $\omega(\varepsilon)$  as long as  $u$  is sufficiently differentiable.

- Other applications - see Judd and Guu (*ET*, 2001)
  - Equilibrium: add other agents, make  $\pi$  endogenous
  - Add assets
  - Produce a mean-variance-skewness-kurtosis-etc. theory of asset markets
  - More intuitive approach to market incompleteness than counting states and assets