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JOURNAL OF
Economic
Dynamics
& Control

Journal of Economic Dynamics & Control 30 (2006) 569–593

www.elsevier.com/locate/jedc

Optimal time aggregation of infinite horizon control problems

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Received 20 February 2004; accepted 17 February 2005

Available online 3 May 2005

Abstract

This paper proposes a novel method that enhances numerical approximation of infinite horizon optimal control problems. For direct numerical optimization, a continuous-time infinite horizon model needs to be first recast as a discrete-time, finite-horizon control problem. The very transformation itself may significantly degrade the quality of the optimization results, if due care is not taken to preserve the salient features in the original model. Mercenier and Michel (1994. *Econometrica* 62, 635–656, 2001. *Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control* 25, 1179–1191), for instance, propose time aggregation methods that minimize approximation errors at the steady-state. Using their scheme, we show that overall optimization performance can be further improved if the discretization of the transient phase is optimal as well. Three sample problems are numerically solved to demonstrate the potential benefits.

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JEL classification: C61; C63

Keywords: Infinite-horizon optimal control; Time aggregation; Direct numerical optimization

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1. Introduction

Infinite horizon continuous-time optimization problems appear frequently in various fields of economics. Generally, the nonlinearities in cost functionals and/or system dynamics and the presence of path constraints do not allow for an explicit solution. Despite the challenges posed by high-dimensional nonlinearity, recent advances in computing technology have enabled economists to study richer and more complex sets of economic dynamics rather than a compromise on the modeling exercise to obtain analytical solutions. In this vein, there has been a growing interest in computational aspects of infinite horizon optimal control problems.¹

Often, an approximation is adopted at the outset that assumes quadratic objective and linear dynamics which affords an analytical solution. In cases where linear/quadratic approximation is not appropriate, the solution has to be computed numerically. For given initial states, open-loop solutions can be computed either by a numerical approximation of the necessary conditions by the Pontryagin's Maximum Principle, or by direct optimization of the objective functional using nonlinear programming techniques. If a feedback solution is more appropriate to the problem at hand then, numerical dynamic programming algorithms can be used.

Numerical methods for open-loop solutions can be classified into two broad classes: indirect and direct methods (Von Stryk and Bulirsch, 1992; Kraft, 1994). Indirect methods iterate on solutions until they satisfy the necessary conditions by the Pontryagin's Maximum Principle. Generally, gradient and shooting methods are applied (Bryson, 1999; Bryson and Ho, 1975). Direct methods, on the other hand, first approximate the original problem by discretizing the system dynamics in time and thus transforming them into a set of equality and inequality constraints. Then, a suitable nonlinear programming algorithm, local or global, can be used to numerically optimize the objective functional subject to the constraints.²

Dynamic programming yields optimal policies as feedback solutions. However, in practice dynamic programming methods are limited by the size of the problem. The term curse of dimensionality (Bellman, 1961) refers to the fact that an increase in the dimensionality of the problem causes an exponential increase in computational and memory requirements to find a solution.³ There exists two broad approaches to dynamic programming: higher order approximations and adaptive gridding techniques. High-order approximations, which can be very efficient when the optimal value function is sufficiently smooth, include approximations using smooth functions like Chebyshev polynomials (Rust, 1996; Judd, 1996; Jermann, 1998), Splines (Daniel, 1976; Johnson et al., 1993; Trick and Zin, 1993, 1997) or piecewise high-order approximations (Falcone and Ferretti, 1998) and other high-order strategies, like in finite difference approximations (Candler, 2001), Gaussian

¹See among others, Flam and Wets (1987), Grüne (1997), Judd (1992), Kehoe and Levine (1992) and Mercenier and Michel (1994a, b, 2001).

²See Hull (1997) and Betts (1998) for surveys.

³There exists approaches such as randomly distributed grid points (Rust, 1997) or so called low discrepancy grids (Rust, 1996; Reiter, 1999) which are able to break the curse of dimensionality.

Quadrature discretization (Tauchen and Hussey, 1991; Burnside, 2001) and perturbation techniques (Judd, 1996). Adaptive gridding schemes are based on flexible grids generated using local and/or global error estimates (Marcet, 1994; Grüne, 1997; Munos and Moore, 2002; Grüne and Semmler, 2003).⁴

In this paper, our focus will be on the direct methods of optimization. More specifically, we aim to contribute to direct optimization methods by showing that an optimal choice of time intervals in the discrete representation of the problem will enhance optimization performance. Direct methods transform the original optimal control problem into a nonlinear programming problem through discretization in time thereby relieving the computational burden relative to the methods that rely on the necessary conditions for numerical approximation. Consequently, an optimal choice of time grids will further improve the efficiency of direct optimization.

Mercenier and Michel (1994a) propose a time aggregation method for optimal control programs that have steady-state solutions. The method ensures that discrete models have the same steady-states as the infinite-horizon continuous-time counterparts. The steady-state invariance property is achieved by imposing some simple restrictions on the discount factor in the time aggregated model. Later, Mercenier and Michel (2001), extend their results to optimal control programs that exhibit endogenously generated constant steady-state growth.

The time aggregation method in Mercenier and Michel (1994a, 2001) works for any given partition of the decision horizon provided that the truncation date is sufficiently late, and that the discount factor in the time-aggregated model obeys a certain recursion. That is, the steady-state in the discrete model will closely approximate that of the continuous-time analog, independent of how exactly the transient phase is divided. Thus, the proposed method is geared towards minimizing steady-state approximation errors from a discrete transformation.

Unlike in continuous models where controls are active at every instant, in discrete models, control frequency is also subject to a choice. An arbitrary choice of time intervals between decisions may significantly worsen the numerical results. This aspect of discrete approximation is often ignored in computational exercises where the frequency of decision making is assumed to be uniform; or, even if it is recognized, the dates so chosen are not necessarily optimal.

Mercenier and Michel (1994b), for instance, develops a measure which determines decision dates with frequencies that die out as time elapses (referred as M–M gridding hereafter). This criterion rests crucially upon the assumption that the speed of convergence along the transient phase is constant.⁵ We show in our sample problems, the above uneven sampling method does indeed improve the optimization accuracy over uniform time steps when it is used in conjunction with the steady-state invariance restrictions. Unfortunately, however, in order for this idea to be useful,

⁴In passing, we note that adaptive ‘state’ gridding is similar in spirit to the optimal ‘time’ gridding suggested in this paper.

⁵Unless the system dynamics are linear, the speed of convergence will not generally be constant. Thus, time intervals given by this scheme will be suboptimal with nonlinear dynamics that start far from steady-state.

one needs to know the largest stable root of the linearized system around the stationary equilibrium. This is a significant drawback as it is computationally inefficient. After having derived the necessary conditions, linearized the system dynamics around the stationary equilibrium and computed the stable root, what would be the advantage of going back to approximate it once again, this time, with the direct methods?

Hence, the important question as to how ‘best’ to divide the decision horizon is still left unresolved. In fact, not only that time grids themselves should be best in some sense, but also that the method to discover them should also be efficient. This is the specific problem we tackle in this paper. The answer is simple enough: Use direct methods to also optimize the time intervals in the discrete models aggregated as in [Mercenier and Michel \(1994b, 2001\)](#). Indeed, given the number of decisions, the computational tradeoff that exists between the minimization of approximation errors at the steady-state and the transient phase, is an integral part of the optimization approach we propose. This way, the most important advantage of the direct methods namely, computational efficiency will not be compromised. We show that if time aggregation is carried out with a view to minimizing the overall approximation errors, the optimization performance, accuracy and speed, will significantly improve.

We take up three sample optimal control problems that frequently appear in the literature and compare our method with approximations using uniform decision dates and nonuniform decision dates as suggested by [Mercenier and Michel \(1994b, 2001\)](#). For numerical optimization, we use genetic algorithms (GAs) as a global search heuristic.⁶ First, a simple regulator problem is adopted for its analytical tractability. Given a fixed number of inputs, optimal and M–M gridding enhance optimization accuracy over uniform gridding equivalently. Direct optimization of the time intervals is however more efficient in terms of better average performance and lower standard deviation over a number of runs than both M–M and uniform discretization. Next, we reconsider the Ramsey growth model in [Mercenier and Michel \(1994a\)](#). Again, if investments take place at optimal dates as per our method or, at unequally spaced M–M dates, welfare significantly improves over equally spaced investment dates. Our direct method has a slight performance advantage over M–M, but the real gain again is in terms of computational efficiency. Over a number of runs, the average performance is substantially higher with a lower variance compared to both approximations with uniform and M–M time grids. Finally, [Lucas’ \(1988\)](#) growth model is numerically solved with the same parametrization as in [Mercenier and Michel \(2001\)](#). Since the model involves an economy wide externality, approximation involves both optimization and solution to a fixed point problem. We develop parallel GAs to tackle both tasks simultaneously. With the given parameters the approach to steady-state is almost linear so that the manner in which the transient phase is partitioned does not matter much. However, our method

⁶GA implementation, however, is not essential to our results; any other direct numerical optimization routine could do just as well.

approximates more efficiently, and captures better the qualitative features of the transient phase.

2. Optimal step sizes in time aggregated models

Generally speaking, two critical decisions need to be made for any discrete representation. First, the length of the transient phase and the stationary conditions thereafter have to be considered. Assuming that a continuous-time problem becomes stationary after some date, say T , then the objective functional can be truncated at T with the stationary tail adjoined. Analogously, the discrete objective functional can also be appended with the stationary tail as a terminal criterion to approximate the model at the steady-state. Obviously, if additional accuracy is desired in approximating the transition dynamics, this will require a relatively larger T with, of course, incremental computational costs.

Second, given the length of the transient phase, T , one must then decide on a specific sequence of dates, $t_n \in [0, T]$ and $n \in \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$, at which controls will be activated. Any sequence of dates will partition $[0, T]$ such that $\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \Delta_n = T$, where $\Delta_n = t_{n+1} - t_n$ and $t_0 = 0$. Obviously, the closer the dates, (the smaller Δ_n) the better will be the approximation. At this juncture, the experimenter has to again weigh the enhanced numerical accuracy against the increased computational costs associated with a more frequent decision making.

Note that for any given T , a specific sequence of decision dates is comprised of the number, N , and the frequency of control actions, Δ_n . For instance, if T is arbitrarily fixed and decision intervals are assumed uniform, as is usually done in computational exercises, then, $\Delta_n = \Delta$ for all $n \in \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$ and $N = T/\Delta$. As an alternate paradigm, we propose to fix the number of control actions, N , and treat the intervals, Δ_n , also as control parameters. Thus, if T is fixed ahead of time, then a sequence of optimal intervals, Δ_n^* , must obey the constraint, $\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \Delta_n^* = T$. Otherwise, the time at which the system becomes stationary is approximated as $\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \Delta_n^* = T^*$.

2.1. Steady-state invariance

Consider the following generic multi-dimensional infinite horizon control problem, with a state vector $x(t) \in \mathcal{R}^n$ and $h(t) \in \mathcal{R}$ and a control vector $u(t) \in \mathcal{R}^m$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 J = \max \quad & \int_0^\infty e^{-\rho t} h(t)^a g(x(t), u(t)) dt, \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & \dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t)), \quad x(0) = \bar{x}, \\
 & \frac{\dot{h}(t)}{h(t)} = \varphi(x(t), u(t)), \quad h(0) = \bar{h}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Under standard differentiability conditions Pontryagin’s maximum principle will hold and a balanced-growth path will exist. Assuming the maximized functional in

Eq. (1) is concave, [Mercenier and Michel \(2001\)](#) propose the following discrete transformation of Problem (1):

$$\begin{aligned}
 J_d = \max \quad & \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Delta_n}{y_{t_{n+1}}} g(x_{t_n}, u_{t_n}), \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & x_{t_{n+1}} - x_{t_n} = \Delta_n f(x_{t_n}, u_{t_n}), \quad x_{t_0} = \bar{x}, \\
 & y_{t_{n+1}} = y_{t_n} [1 + \Delta_n (\rho - a\varphi(x_{t_n}, u_{t_n}))], \quad y_{t_0} = \bar{y}
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

with no restriction on the choice of Δ_n .

The discrete approximation above preserves the steady-state invariance property in the sense that the constant optimal values of the control, state and the co-state variables for problem (2) will also be the optimal values for the continuous time problem (1) at the steady-state. Moreover, since the optimal values of x_{t_n} and u_{t_n} do not depend on y_0 , it can arbitrarily be set to one. Finally, defining $\alpha_n = 1/y_{t_{n+1}}$ and substituting in the equation governing the motion of $y_{t_{n+1}}$, [Mercenier and Michel \(2001\)](#) gets

$$\alpha_n = \frac{\alpha_{n-1}}{1 + \Delta_n (\rho - a\varphi(x_{t_n}, u_{t_n}))}. \tag{3}$$

The recursion (3) is a generalization of the results in [Mercenier and Michel \(1994a\)](#) where growth is assumed to have ceased in the long-run, i.e., $\varphi = 0$.

Now, assuming that problem (1) reaches a stationary equilibrium (\hat{x}, \hat{u}) at some T , it can be restated as

$$J = \max \int_0^T e^{-(\rho - a\hat{\gamma})t} g(x(t), u(t)) dt + G(\hat{x}),$$

where, by definition,

$$G(\hat{x}) = \int_T^{\infty} e^{-(\rho - a\hat{\gamma})t} g(\hat{x}, \hat{u}) dt = \frac{e^{-(\rho - a\hat{\gamma})T}}{\rho - a\hat{\gamma}} g(\hat{x}, \hat{u}).$$

The time aggregated version of the truncated problem becomes

$$J_d = \max \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \frac{\Delta_n}{y_{t_{n+1}}} g(x_{t_n}, u_{t_n}) + \beta_N G(x_N). \tag{4}$$

[Mercenier and Michel \(2001\)](#) shows that if $G(\hat{x}) = G(x_N)$ and recursion (3) holds for $n = 0, 1, \dots, N - 2$ with $\gamma_N = \varphi(u_{t_N}, x_{t_N})$ and $\beta_N = 1/y_{t_N}$ then (\hat{x}, \hat{u}) will be a solution also to (4).

Note that the steady-state invariance holds for any sequence of time intervals, $\Delta_n, n = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$. However, in passing from continuous to discrete time, a new state variable, decision dates, is introduced which evolves according to $t_{n+1} = t_n + \Delta_n$, with the initial condition $t_0 = 0$. If T is fixed ahead of time, the evolution of decision dates, t_n , will terminate with $t_N = T$ otherwise, t_N is also freely chosen. In [Mercenier and Michel \(1994b, 2001\)](#), this state evolution is ignored as it is immaterial to the steady-state (or steady-growth) invariance results. Hence, by

choosing the decision intervals optimally, the decision dates can be optimized without nullifying the recursion (3).

Given any N , assuming T is free, we constrain the intervals by, $0 \leq \Delta_n \leq \Delta_{\max}$ so that $\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \Delta_n \leq T^u$ where $T^u = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \Delta_{\max}$. Now, if we can show the existence of a sequence of time intervals that maximizes problem (4), then that sequence will also satisfy the steady-state invariance (steady-growth invariance) restrictions in problem (1).

The following argument establishes the existence of a sequence, $\{\Delta_n^*\}_{n=0}^{N-1}$, that maximizes problem (4). Since $x_{t_1} = x_{t_0} + \Delta_0 f(x_{t_0}, u_{t_0})$ and $y_{t_1} = y_{t_0}(1 + \Delta_0(\rho - a\varphi(x_0, u_{t_0})))$, x_{t_1} depends continuously on u_{t_0} , Δ_0 and x_{t_0} , and y_{t_1} depends continuously on u_{t_0} , Δ_0 , x_{t_0} and y_{t_0} . Also, because $x_{t_2} = x_{t_1} + \Delta_1 f(x_{t_1}, u_{t_1})$ and $y_{t_2} = y_{t_1}(1 + \Delta_1(\rho - a\varphi(x_1, u_{t_1})))$, x_{t_2} is a continuous function of $u_{t_1}, u_{t_0}, \Delta_1, \Delta_0$ and x_{t_0} and y_{t_2} is a continuous function of $u_{t_1}, u_{t_0}, \Delta_1, \Delta_0$ and x_{t_0} , and y_{t_0} . Proceeding in this manner, it can be shown that $x_{t_1}, x_{t_2}, \dots, x_{t_N}$ all depend continuously on $u_{t_0}, u_{t_1}, \dots, u_{t_{N-1}}, \Delta_0, \Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_{N-1}$ and x_{t_0} . Similarly, $y_{t_1}, y_{t_2}, \dots, y_{t_N}$ are all continuous functions of $u_{t_0}, u_{t_1}, \dots, u_{t_{N-1}}, \Delta_0, \Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_{N-1}, x_{t_0}$ and y_{t_0} . Thus, the objective function in problem (4) is a continuous function of those $2N$ variables since x_{t_0} and y_{t_0} are fixed. Since the constraint set

$$\left\{ (u_{t_0}, u_{t_1}, \dots, u_{t_{N-1}}, \Delta_0, \Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_{N-1}) \mid u_m \in U, \right. \\ \left. 0 \leq \Delta_n \leq \Delta_{\max}, n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \text{ and } \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \Delta_n \leq T^u \right\}$$

is compact, we conclude that problem (4) possesses a solution.⁷

3. Numerical solution method

Once the original problem is transformed into a nonlinear programming problem as per our method, then any local/or global search algorithm can be used for numerical optimization. Though, it is not essential for our main argument, we use GAs to approximate the solutions. There are several good reasons why we choose GAs to implement our solution method. GAs are global search algorithms which start completely blind but, learn as they solve. Starting from a random initial population of candidate solutions, they ensure convergence to an approximate global optimum by exploiting the domain space and relatively better solutions through genetic operators. Gradient based optimization methods, on the other hand, may get stuck in a local optimum or fail to converge at all, depending on the initial parameters. Furthermore, in addition to the inherent parallelism in a single GA,

⁷Note that for the steady-state invariance to hold, the continuous-time problem has to be concave. If the original control problem is nonconcave, neither the steady-state invariance nor optimization of time intervals will be valid.

several GAs can be implemented in parallel to approximate dynamic games or distribute computational tasks that require task-specific learning. Indeed, in one of our sample problems, we ease the computational burden by assigning one GA to optimize while another one to solve a fixed point problem. Against the aforementioned advantages, however, GAs are considerably slower than gradient based local search routines.

3.1. Genetic algorithms as an optimization heuristic

A GA, is an iterative search heuristic based on the mechanics of natural evolution. At any generation, say s , the algorithm maintains a constant-size population, $Pop(s)$, of candidate solutions to breed yet better solutions. By iterating on a population of well-adopted sample points rather than a single point, the probability of getting stuck at a local optimum is reduced. The GA operators are simple enough, involving no more than random number generation, string copying and partial string exchanging; yet, the resulting search performance is impressive (Goldberg, 1989).

The first step of optimization with a GA is to code the parameter set of the optimization problem as a finite-length string, usually over the binary alphabet $\{0, 1\}$. The initial population, $Pop(0)$, is generally random. To approximate the control problem (4), GA evolves $\{u_{s,t_n}^1, \Delta_{s,n}^1, \dots, u_{s,t_n}^k, \Delta_{s,n}^k\}_{n=0}^{N-1}$, a k -sized population of candidate solutions, which is random at $s = 0$.

Next, given an objective function, each string, l , is evaluated by computing its performance relative to the population, namely, its fitness score. For the control problem (4) this is

$$prob_l = \frac{J_d(x_{t_0}, y_{t_0}, u_{s,t_n}^l, \Delta_{s,n}^l)}{\sum_{j=1}^k J_d(x_{t_0}, y_{t_0}, u_{s,t_n}^j, \Delta_{s,n}^j)} \quad \text{for all } l \text{ and } s.$$

Based on the fitness scores, the individuals in $Pop(s - 1)$ are copied into $Pop(s)$ by a randomized selection procedure. The probability of a certain schemata, a given binary configuration, in $Pop(s - 1)$ being present in $Pop(s)$ is proportional to that schemata's fitness score in $Pop(s - 1)$. By selecting structures for reproduction in such a way that the number of offspring of a given structure is proportional to that structure's performance (relative to the population), a GA achieves the important property of inherent parallelism: the number of structures that contain any given schemata, changes at a rate roughly proportional to the observed average performance of all structures that contain the given schemata (Holland, 1975; Theorem 6.2.3, p. 102.)⁸ This operation is an artificial version of natural selection, a Darwinian survival of the fittest among individuals. GA searches the space of binary combinations by generating and testing points in the space of structures. Since the latter space is exponentially smaller than the former, a GA is a highly efficient search procedure (Holland, 1975).

⁸A schema is a similarity template: it is the set of all potential strings (chromosomes) with prespecified characters occupying designated positions.

Next, in order to breed fitter individuals (explore other points in the search space), some variation is introduced into the new population by means of genetic recombination operators without disrupting the selection process. Crossover is the primary recombination operator in generating new populations. Crossover recombines two binary strings at a random point by exchanging the segments to the right of this point. Thus crossover provides for further exploration within the search space. The secondary search operator, mutation, also introduces diversity in the population by randomly changing 1's or 0's of the structure at particular locations. Finally, the evolution terminates after a specified number of generations. The general outline of a GA is

```

procedure GA;
begin
initialize population Pop(0);
evaluate Pop(0);
t = 1;
repeat
    select Pop(s) from Pop(s-1);
    recombine Pop(s);
    evaluate Pop(s);
until (termination condition);
    
```

Our third sample problem requires parallelization of the above procedure as it involves both optimization and solution to a fixed point problem.⁹ There, a representative agent takes a sequence of externality \bar{w}_{t_n} as given and optimizes by choosing a sequence of actions w_{t_n} and v_{t_n} . In optimizing, she is, however, unaware that in equilibrium $w_{t_n} = \bar{w}_{t_n}$. We construe this as a Nash equilibrium between two artificially intelligent players.

Player one is a GA, GA^O , which evolves $\{w_{s,t_n}^1, v_{s,t_n}^1, \Delta_{s,n}^1, \dots, w_{s,t_n}^k, v_{s,t_n}^k, \Delta_{s,n}^k\}_{n=0}^{N-1}$, a k -sized population of candidate solutions, based on the fitness score

$$prob_l = \frac{J_d(x_{t_0}, y_{t_0}, w_{s,t_n}^l, v_{s,t_n}^l, \Delta_{s,n}^l, \bar{w}_{s-1,t_n}^*)}{\sum_{j=1}^k J_d(x_{t_0}, y_{t_0}, w_{s,t_n}^j, v_{s,t_n}^j, \Delta_{s,n}^j, \bar{w}_{s-1,t_n}^*)} \quad \text{for all } l \text{ and } s,$$

where \bar{w}_{s-1,t_n}^* is the best performing candidate solution in the previous generation communicated by the second player.

The second player is also a GA, GA^F , evolving a k -sized population of potential solutions, $\{\bar{w}_{s,t_n}^1, \dots, \bar{w}_{s,t_n}^k\}_{n=0}^{N-1}$, based on the fitness score,

$$prob_l = \frac{J_f(\bar{w}_{s,t_n}^l, w_{s-1,t_n}^*)}{\sum_{j=1}^k J_f(\bar{w}_{s,t_n}^j, w_{s-1,t_n}^*)} \quad \text{for all } l \text{ and } s,$$

⁹The details of the parallel GAs can be found in Alemdar and Özyıldırım (1998). This parallelism is later extended to an online approximation of Stackelberg equilibria in Alemdar and Sirakaya (2003) and feedback Nash equilibria in Sirakaya and Alemdar (2003).

where w_{s-1,t_n}^* is the the best performing candidate solution in the last generation exchanged by GA^O . The raw fitness of the second player is equal to,

$$J_f = \min \left(\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |\bar{w}_{t_n} - w_{t_n}|^2 \right)^{1/2} .$$

The exchange of best-to-date candidate solutions takes place via the computer shared memory synchronously at every generation. Essentially, GA^O , optimizes while GA^F forecasts. Under evolutionary pressure GA^O learns to optimize better for any given forecast \bar{w}_{s-1,t_n}^* . GA^F , on the other hand, learns from past forecasts to better predict given any w_{s-1,t_n}^* . Thus, the equilibrium of this game between the optimizer, GA^O , and the forecaster, GA^F , is the approximation of J_d and also the equilibrium $w_{t_n} = \bar{w}_{t_n}$. The following pseudo code outlines the steps involved in the parallel GA search.

<pre> procedure GA^O; begin Randomly initialize $Pop^O(0)$; copy initial w_{0,t_n}^l to shared memory; synchronize; evaluate $Pop^O(0)$; s = 1; repeat select $Pop^O(s)$ from $Pop^O(s - 1)$; copy best w_{1,t_n}^l to shared memory; synchronize; crossover and mutate $Pop^O(s)$; evaluate $Pop^O(s)$; s = s + 1; until(termination condition); end; </pre>	<pre> procedure GA^F; begin Randomly initialize $Pop^F(0)$; copy initial \bar{w}_{0,t_n}^l to shared memory; synchronize; evaluate $Pop^F(0)$; s = 1; repeat select $Pop^F(s)$ from $Pop^F(s - 1)$; copy best \bar{w}_{1,t_n}^l to shared memory; synchronize; crossover and mutate $Pop^F(s)$; evaluate $Pop^F(s)$; s = s + 1; until(termination condition); end; </pre>
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4. Numerical experiments

For numerical optimization, we use the genetic operators in Genesis 5.0 (Grefenstette, 1990), a GA package. We fine tune search parameters and/or distribute computational tasks as the problem demands it. Each experiment starts with a randomly initialized constant size, 50, population. In Genesis 5.0, the selection of individuals is done by a stochastic procedure whereby each structure is allocated a portion of a spinning wheel proportional to that structure’s relative fitness. A single spin of the wheel determines the number of offsprings assigned to every structure. The selection pointers are then randomly shuffled, and the selected structures are copied into the new population. This selection procedure is quite successful when the

search terrain is relatively free of noise; it leads to a fast convergence. If, however, the search terrain is highly erratic as is the case in the third sample problem where optimization and fixed point iterations go in parallel, it may lead to a premature convergence. Consequently, to avoid false convergence, we use *rank* selection in parallel GAs. Furthermore, we use a selection strategy that ensures that the best performing structures always survive intact from one generation to the next. In the absence of such an *elitism*, it is possible that the best structure may disappear after a mutation or a crossover operation. In all simulation, we adopt a crossover rate of 0.60 and a mutation rate of 0.001 which are both suggested by Grefenstette (1986) after experimenting on a number of optimization problems. We gradually increase the number of generations until no substantial improvement in performance is observed. Genesis 5.0 is compiled on a IBM RS/6000 running AIX 5.2.

In order to compare our discretization method with those using uniform and nonuniform M–M step sizes, we take up three sample problems. All our sample problems involve equality and inequality constraints. We simply substitute the equality constraints. If inequality constraints are violated, the fitness is reduced by a large penalty. The simple infinite-horizon discounted cost continuous-time regulator problem admits a unique closed-form solution, thus allowing for a direct comparison with the exact solution. Indeed, given N , optimal and M–M time-gridding equally improves performance accuracy over uniform gridding. Next, we reconsider the Ramsey growth problem. Though, there is a small advantage in favor of our method over M–M, both methods improve welfare over uniform gridding substantially. The improvement becomes more pronounced when the initial capital stock is relatively small compared to the steady-state. As a last experiment, we numerically solve Lucas’ (1988) human capital model using the parametrization in Mercenier and Michel (2001). Here, rapid dynamics are further compounded by the presence of an externality. Our solution algorithm is novel, and successfully handles both complications. However, since the approach to steady-state is very fast and almost linear, transient dynamics do not matter much in terms of overall performance: The welfare gain from a more accurate approximation of the transition path is small. Nonetheless, the qualitative features of the transition, such as early full allocation of labor to production, is only captured by optimal time gridding.

4.1. Example I: a simple regulator

As a benchmark for comparison, consider the following continuous-time regulator problem,

$$\begin{aligned}
 J = \min \quad & \int_0^\infty e^{-\rho t} ((x(t) - 1)^2 + u(t)^2) dt, \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & \dot{x}(t) = x(t) + u(t) - 1,
 \end{aligned}$$

and $x(0) = \bar{x}$. Particularly, assume an initial state, $x(0) = 0.1$ and a discount rate, $\rho = 0.1$. In this problem, the optimal state and control trajectories are, $x(t) =$

$1 - 0.9e^{-1.3293t}$ and $u(t) = 2.0964e^{-1.3293t}$, respectively. The feedback control is, $u = 2.3293(1 - x)$, yielding a minimum cost, $J = 1.8869$.

For direct numerical optimization, the regulator problem is first recast in the time aggregated form as

$$J_d = \min \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \alpha_n \Delta_n ((x_{t_n} - 1)^2 + u_{t_n}^2) + \beta_N ((x_{t_N} - 1)^2 + u_{t_N}^2),$$

s.t. $x_{t_{n+1}} - x_{t_n} = \Delta_n (x_{t_n} + u_{t_n} - 1)$

and the initial condition $x(0) = 0.1$. The discount factor, α_n , obeys Eq. (3) for $n = 0, 1, \dots, N - 2$ and terminates with $\beta_N = \alpha_{N-1}$. When approximating with uniform step sizes, we fix the number of inputs, N , at 25 and assume the system to have reached the steady-state at $T = 10$ so that $\Delta = 0.40$. After $T = 10$, the terminal cost, $(x_{t_N} - 1)^2 + u_{t_N}^2$, becomes zero. When control intervals are also optimized, they are constrained by $0.01 \leq \Delta_n \leq 10$, so that $\sum_{n=0}^{24} \Delta_n \leq 250$. M–M decision dates are given by $t_n = (1/\lambda) \log(1 - (n/N)(1 - \exp(\lambda T)))$ for $n = 0, \dots, N$, where λ is the stable eigenvalue which is -1.3293 in this example.

Table 1 and Fig. 1 summarize our numerical results. From Table 1, observe the improvement in performance that comes along with nonuniform sampling times. The minimum total cost is reduced from 2.4630 with uniform steps to 1.9601 with optimized decision intervals, and to 1.9650 with M–M time gridding. In both cases, there is a gain in performance of around 20 percent. This reduction in costs is largely achieved by a more assiduous use of the fixed number of inputs, which calls for a more frequent control action early on to steer the system more rapidly towards the steady-state. Recall however, that in order for M–M time gridding method to realize this gain in accuracy, it would require the knowledge of the negative eigenvalue whereas our interval selection method assumes no such information and it is completely blind.

Reported in Table 1 are also the optimal and M–M decision dates. Note that in our method T is not fixed ahead of time so that the final decision date is optimally chosen weighing the incremental reduction in the transient versus the steady-state costs. The final M–M decision date, on the other hand, is always equal to T , the assumed length of transient phase. In Fig. 1, the exact trajectory of the state variable is also displayed to better gauge the gain in accuracy from optimal time-aggregation.

4.2. Example II: transient growth

In order to demonstrate the computational payoffs and the potential welfare gains from an optimal sequencing of decision dates, we next adopt the one sector optimal growth model in Mercenier and Michel (1994a).¹⁰

¹⁰The growth model in Mercenier and Michel (1994a) is standard and adopted from Manne (1991) for numerical comparisons.

Table 1
A simple regulator^a

<i>n</i>	Uniform grids				Optimal grids				M–M grids			
	Δ_n	t_n	xt_n	ut_n	Δ_n	t_n	xt_n	ut_n	Δ_n	t_n	xt_n	ut_n
0	0.40	0.00	0.1000	1.6982	0.0100	0.0000	0.1000	2.1574	0.0307	0.0000	0.1000	2.0941
1	0.40	0.40	0.4193	1.0959	0.0341	0.0100	0.1126	2.0640	0.0320	0.0307	0.1367	2.0092
2	0.40	0.80	0.6254	0.7069	0.0356	0.0474	0.1527	1.9700	0.0334	0.0627	0.1733	1.9240
3	0.40	1.20	0.7583	0.4562	0.0372	0.0865	0.1927	1.8770	0.0350	0.0962	0.2100	1.8387
4	0.40	1.60	0.8441	0.2942	0.0387	0.1284	0.2325	1.7846	0.0367	0.1312	0.2467	1.7529
5	0.40	2.00	0.8994	0.1899	0.0405	0.1716	0.2719	1.6933	0.0386	0.1679	0.2834	1.6676
6	0.40	2.40	0.9351	0.1224	0.0423	0.2170	0.3111	1.6008	0.0407	0.2065	0.3201	1.5816
7	0.40	2.80	0.9581	0.0792	0.0446	0.2641	0.3496	1.5125	0.0430	0.2471	0.3568	1.4961
8	0.40	3.20	0.9730	0.0510	0.0467	0.3118	0.3880	1.4232	0.0456	0.2901	0.3934	1.4106
9	0.40	3.60	0.9826	0.0329	0.0492	0.3622	0.4258	1.3345	0.0486	0.3357	0.4301	1.3251
10	0.40	4.00	0.9888	0.0212	0.0520	0.4153	0.4632	1.2477	0.0519	0.3843	0.4668	1.2400
11	0.40	4.40	0.9928	0.0134	0.0552	0.4718	0.5002	1.1613	0.0557	0.4362	0.5035	1.1537
12	0.40	4.80	0.9953	0.0090	0.0587	0.5319	0.5367	1.0764	0.0602	0.4919	0.5401	1.0687
13	0.40	5.20	0.9970	0.0058	0.0630	0.5947	0.5727	0.9928	0.0655	0.5521	0.5767	0.9830
14	0.40	5.60	0.9981	0.0037	0.0684	0.6614	0.6083	0.9094	0.0717	0.6176	0.6134	0.8975
15	0.40	6.00	0.9988	0.0022	0.0745	0.7335	0.6437	0.8269	0.0793	0.6893	0.6500	0.8126
16	0.40	6.40	0.9992	0.0016	0.0823	0.8111	0.6788	0.7450	0.0886	0.7686	0.6867	0.7275
17	0.40	6.80	0.9995	0.0010	0.0920	0.8964	0.7137	0.6639	0.1005	0.8572	0.7234	0.6418
18	0.40	7.20	0.9997	0.0005	0.1044	0.9909	0.7484	0.5830	0.1160	0.9576	0.7601	0.5568
19	0.40	7.60	0.9998	0.0004	0.1211	1.0970	0.7830	0.5029	0.1372	1.0736	0.7969	0.4717
20	0.40	8.00	0.9999	0.0001	0.1448	1.2199	0.8176	0.4222	0.1679	1.2107	0.8337	0.3867
21	0.40	8.40	0.9999	0.0003	0.1805	1.3651	0.8523	0.3410	0.2164	1.3786	0.8708	0.3018
22	0.40	8.80	1.0000	0.0000	0.2400	1.5458	0.8872	0.2597	0.3050	1.5950	0.9081	0.2167
23	0.40	9.20	1.0000	0.0000	0.3573	1.7870	0.9224	0.1777	0.5214	1.9000	0.9462	0.1314
24	0.40	9.60	1.0000	0.0000	0.7085	2.1448	0.9582	0.0940	7.5785	2.4215	0.9866	0.0151
25		10.00	1.0000	0.0000		2.8519	0.9953	0.0047		10.0000	0.9992	0.0008

^aRespective minimum costs with uniform, optimal and M–M intervals are 2.4630, 1.9601 and 1.9650.

The model assumes logarithmic preferences, a Cobb–Douglas production technology, no capital depreciation, a constant population growth at rate g , and a post terminal growth at rate g over an infinite horizon. The time-aggregated economic model is

$$\max \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left\{ \frac{1+g}{g} [1 - (1+g)^{-\Delta n}] \alpha_n \log(c_{t_n}) \right\} + \frac{\alpha_{N-1}}{\rho} \log(c_{t_N})$$

s.t.

$$k_{t_{n+1}} - k_{t_n} = \frac{1}{g} [1 - (1+g)^{-\Delta n}] [i_{t_n} - gk_{t_n}],$$

$$c_{t_n} + i_{t_n} = ak_{t_n}^b,$$

$$c_{t_n} \text{ and } k_{t_n} \geq 0 \text{ and } k_{t_0} = \bar{k}.$$

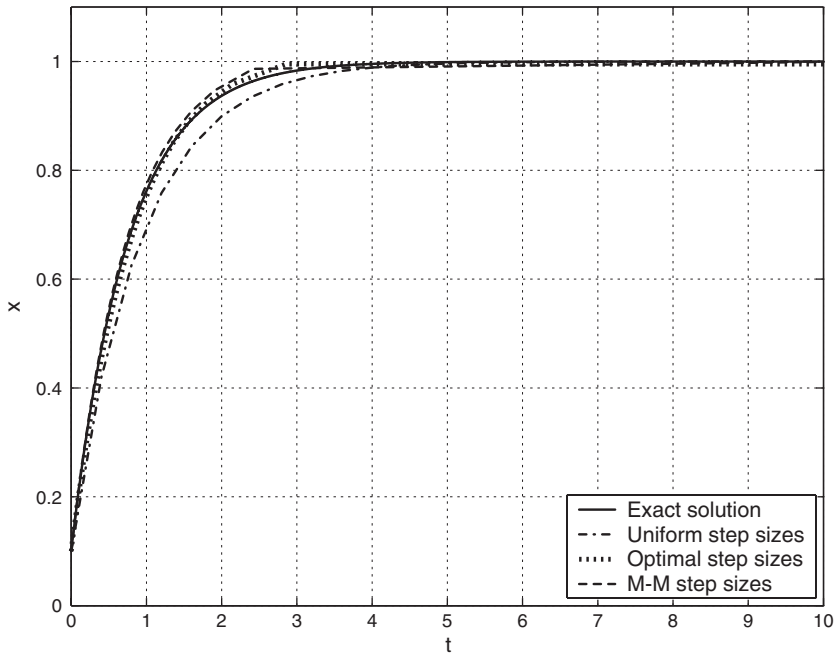


Fig. 1. Exact and approximate state trajectories.

The discount rate follows the recursion

$$\alpha_n = \frac{\alpha_{n-1}}{1 + \rho \frac{1+g}{g} [1 - (1+g)^{-\Delta n}]}$$

for any $\alpha_0 > 0$, and $n \leq N - 1$, and the terminal welfare becomes

$$\frac{\alpha_{N-1}}{\rho} \log(c_{t_N}) = \frac{\alpha_{N-1}}{\rho} \log(ak_{t_N}^b - gk_{t_N}),$$

where ρ is the rate of pure time preference in the continuous time analog.

Undoubtedly, the best test of the strength of our method would be to weigh our numerical results against the exact solution to the continuous-time growth model as in the previous section. Unfortunately, however, because of the inherent nonlinearities, no closed form solution exists to allow for such a comparison. To proceed further, we fix the parameter values, $\rho = 0.05/4$, $g = 0.03/4$, $a = 0.2$, $b = 0.24$ as in Mercenier and Michel and approximate the growth model using uniform and optimal time intervals assuming two different initial capital stocks, $k_{t_0} = 2.4$ and $k_{t_0} = 0.01$.

In approximations with uniform grids, we assume $T = 350$ and $N = 35$ so that $\Delta_n = 10$. Thus, whether starting poor, $k_{t_0} = 0.01$, or with a head-start, $k_{t_0} = 2.4$,

economic growth has to be optimized by a choice of 35 investment rates at equally distanced dates of 10 periods. In contrast, when the time intervals are optimized, as per our method, GAs also search for the optimal investment dates, subject to the constraints, $0.01 \leq \Delta_n \leq 350$, so that $\sum_{n=0}^{34} \Delta_n \leq 12,250$. M–M grids, on the other hand, are given by $t_n = (1/\log(\lambda)) \log(1 - (1 - \lambda^T)(n/N))$ for $n = 0, \dots, N$, where λ is the stable root and equal to 0.972.¹¹

Table 2 reports our numerical results. Note that a major source of approximation error using time-aggregation along the transient phase is the assumption that controls are constant within given time intervals. Consequently, the sharper are the optimal adjustments during the transition, the larger will be the approximation errors with uniform step sizes. When the economy starts relatively well-off, with the initial capital stock, $k_{t_0} = 2.4$, only 25 percent below the steady-state, the desired adjustments along the state trajectory are relatively small. Nonetheless, even with such a ‘smooth’ transition to the steady-state, our solution algorithm improves the optimization performance from -131.8716 with uniform time intervals to -117.6428 , a welfare gain of more than 10 percent. Improvement over approximation with M–M time intervals is relatively small from -119.1260 to -117.6428 , a gain of about 1 percent. In contrast, when the economy begins relatively poor, $k_{t_0} = 0.01$, the desired initial adjustments along the state trajectories are sharp, and so is the performance enhancement that comes along with an optimal choice of discretization steps. Our method improves welfare from -166.4245 to -139.0410 compared to uniform time intervals, a gain of more than 15 percent, and from -141.3519 to -139.0410 compared to M–M time intervals, a gain of about 2 percent. However, to be able to use M–M method, one would again need the dominant stable root from the linearized system dynamics.

From Table 2, it is also apparent that the M–M sequence of investment dates are suboptimal. In contrast, when investment dates are also optimized, we observe a more frequent investment activity at earlier stages when the desired adjustments are larger. As the capital stock approaches its steady-state value, investment becomes less frequent and eventually dies out.

Also noteworthy from Figs. 2 and 3 is the fact that the steady-state invariant optimal time aggregation method captures the stationary equilibrium reasonably well. Though, the steady-state performance worsens a bit when $k_0 = 0.01$, this is more than offset with the superior performance along the transient phase. Obviously, in order to improve the steady-state performance, either T can be fixed at a relatively larger number, e.g., $T = 350$, or the number of sample points N can be increased, or both. While the former is suboptimal, the latter is simply costly. Ultimately, given N , optimal choice of time aggregation with steady-state equivalence better captures the transition dynamics thus providing a better approximation to the continuous model.

¹¹Mercenier and Michel (1994a) find the stable root by assuming equal unit grids and linearizing the discrete dynamics around the steady-state with the above parameters.

Table 2
Optimal investment, consumption and capital stock^a

Uniform grids				Optimal grids				Uniform grids				Optimal grids				M–M grids						
$k_0 = 2.4000$				$k_0 = 0.0100$				$k_0 = 0.0100$				$k_0 = 0.0100$				$k_0 = 2.4000$						
n	Δ_n	t_n	k_{t_n}	c_{t_n}	Δ_n	t_n	k_{t_n}	c_{t_n}	Δ_n	t_n	k_{t_n}	c_{t_n}	Δ_n	t_n	k_{t_n}	c_{t_n}	Δ_n	t_n	k_{t_n}	c_{t_n}		
0	10	0	2.4000	0.2121	0.01	0.0000	2.4000	0.2061	10	0	0.0100	0.0439	0.0100	0.0000	0.0100	0.0161	1.0207	0.0000	0.0100	0.0293	2.4000	0.2077
1	10	2.5602	0.2183	1.8585	0.0100	2.4002	0.2079	10	0	0.2241	0.0925	0.2343	0.0100	0.0105	0.0217	1.0511	1.0207	0.0473	0.0434	0.0434	2.4214	0.2086
2	10	2.6866	0.2230	1.9823	1.8685	2.4385	0.2097	10	20	0.6610	0.1286	0.3186	0.2443	0.0211	0.0277	1.0835	2.0718	0.1020	0.0550	0.0550	2.4428	0.2096
3	10	2.7860	0.2267	2.1115	3.8508	2.4773	0.2114	10	30	1.1167	0.1551	0.4134	0.3629	0.0373	0.0341	1.1179	3.1553	0.1664	0.0651	0.0651	2.4642	0.2105
4	10	2.8641	0.2296	2.2331	5.9623	2.5162	0.2131	10	40	1.5186	0.1749	0.5227	0.9763	0.0620	0.0484	1.1545	4.2731	0.2370	0.0742	0.0742	2.4857	0.2115
5	10	2.9252	0.2318	2.3664	8.1954	2.5550	0.2148	10	50	1.8531	0.1897	0.6289	1.4990	0.0900	0.0484	1.1937	5.4277	0.3121	0.0825	0.0825	2.5071	0.2124
6	10	2.9731	0.2336	2.4634	10.5618	2.5936	0.2165	10	60	2.1244	0.2011	0.7469	2.1279	0.1319	0.0557	1.2356	6.6213	0.3908	0.0903	0.0903	2.5286	0.2133
7	10	3.0107	0.2349	2.6068	13.0252	2.6311	0.2181	10	70	2.3416	0.2098	0.8842	2.8748	0.1811	0.0632	1.2805	7.8569	0.4721	0.0977	0.0977	2.5501	0.2143
8	10	3.0400	0.2360	2.7594	15.6320	2.6682	0.2198	10	80	2.5140	0.2165	1.0065	3.7590	0.2409	0.0720	1.3288	9.1374	0.5556	0.1046	0.1046	2.5717	0.2153
9	10	3.0630	0.2368	2.9188	18.3914	2.7045	0.2213	10	90	2.6502	0.2217	1.1087	4.7655	0.3091	0.0791	1.3809	10.4662	0.6411	0.1114	0.1114	2.5932	0.2162
10	100	3.0810	0.2374	3.0404	21.3102	2.7400	0.2229	10	100	2.7574	0.2257	1.2628	5.8742	0.3856	0.0870	1.4373	11.8472	0.7280	0.1179	0.1179	2.6148	0.2172
11	110	3.0950	0.2379	3.0858	24.3506	2.7738	0.2243	10	110	2.8416	0.2288	1.4122	7.1370	0.4722	0.0959	1.4985	13.2845	0.8163	0.1241	0.1241	2.6362	0.2181
12	10	3.1059	0.2383	3.2516	27.4364	2.8054	0.2256	10	120	2.9077	0.2312	1.5364	8.5492	0.5669	0.1042	1.5651	14.7830	0.9058	0.1301	0.1301	2.6577	0.2191
13	130	3.1145	0.2386	3.4429	30.6880	2.8359	0.2270	10	130	2.9594	0.2331	1.6513	10.0856	0.6675	0.1116	1.6379	16.3481	0.9963	0.1359	0.1359	2.6792	0.2200
14	140	3.1211	0.2389	3.5265	34.1309	2.8650	0.2282	10	140	2.9999	0.2345	1.7900	11.7369	0.7736	0.1194	1.7179	17.9860	1.0879	0.1416	0.1416	2.7007	0.2210
15	150	3.1263	0.2391	3.5696	37.6574	2.8919	0.2293	10	150	3.0316	0.2357	1.9362	13.5269	0.8849	0.1272	1.8060	19.7039	1.1802	0.1473	0.1473	2.7222	0.2220
16	160	3.1303	0.2392	3.7294	41.2270	2.9166	0.2303	10	160	3.0563	0.2366	2.0445	15.4631	1.0005	0.1345	1.9036	21.5099	1.2732	0.1526	0.1526	2.7436	0.2229
17	170	3.1334	0.2393	3.8189	44.9564	2.9400	0.2313	10	170	3.0756	0.2373	2.2432	17.5076	1.1177	0.1419	2.0125	23.4135	1.3669	0.1578	0.1578	2.7649	0.2238
18	180	3.1358	0.2394	3.9802	48.7753	2.9615	0.2322	10	180	3.0906	0.2378	2.3867	19.7508	1.2399	0.1495	2.1345	25.4260	1.4614	0.1631	0.1631	2.7862	0.2247
19	190	3.1376	0.2395	4.1389	52.7555	2.9815	0.2330	10	190	3.1023	0.2382	2.5177	22.1375	1.3618	0.1566	2.2723	27.5604	1.5563	0.1682	0.1682	2.8076	0.2257
20	100	3.1390	0.2395	4.1088	56.8944	3.0000	0.2338	10	200	3.1116	0.2386	2.6065	24.6352	1.4826	0.1631	2.4291	29.8327	1.6517	0.1732	0.1732	2.8290	0.2266
21	210	3.1401	0.2396	4.2247	61.0032	3.0163	0.2345	10	210	3.1186	0.2388	2.7844	27.2617	1.5998	0.1693	2.6092	32.2618	1.7476	0.1782	0.1782	2.8502	0.2276
22	220	3.1408	0.2396	4.3907	65.2279	3.0312	0.2351	10	220	3.1242	0.2390	2.9224	30.0461	1.7167	0.1751	2.8181	34.8710	1.8439	0.1830	0.1830	2.8714	0.2285
23	230	3.1415	0.2396	4.3935	69.6186	3.0448	0.2356	10	230	3.1286	0.2392	3.1555	32.9625	1.8311	0.1812	3.0634	37.6890	1.9407	0.1877	0.1877	2.8925	0.2294
24	240	3.1419	0.2397	4.5197	74.0121	3.0568	0.2361	10	240	3.1320	0.2393	3.4363	36.1240	1.9439	0.1867	3.3555	40.7524	2.0378	0.1924	0.1924	2.9135	0.2303
25	250	3.1421	0.2397	4.8255	79.1718	3.0692	0.2366	10	250	3.1345	0.2394	3.4945	39.5603	2.0566	0.1923	3.7093	44.1079	2.1355	0.1970	0.1970	2.9346	0.2312
26	260	3.1424	0.2397	5.1531	83.9973	3.0793	0.2370	10	260	3.1367	0.2394	3.7609	43.0548	2.1600	0.1974	4.1465	47.8172	2.2335	0.2016	0.2016	2.9556	0.2321
27	270	3.1424	0.2397	5.4035	89.1324	3.0886	0.2375	10	270	3.1382	0.2395	4.3269	46.8157	2.2590	0.2022	4.7008	51.9638	2.3320	0.2061	0.2061	2.9766	0.2330
28	280	3.1425	0.2396	6.0808	94.5359	3.0966	0.2378	10	280	3.1394	0.2395	4.6224	51.1426	2.3620	0.2063	5.4265	56.6646	2.4309	0.2105	0.2105	2.9975	0.2338
29	290	3.1429	0.2397	6.1936	100.6167	3.1043	0.2381	10	290	3.1404	0.2396	4.9753	55.7650	2.4609	0.2109	6.4179	62.0911	2.5303	0.2149	0.2149	3.0185	0.2347
30	300	3.1431	0.2397	7.1529	106.8103	3.1112	0.2384	10	300	3.1413	0.2396	5.8064	60.7403	2.5530	0.2148	7.8543	68.5090	2.6302	0.2193	0.2193	3.0394	0.2356
31	310	3.1432	0.2397	8.2371	113.9632	3.1174	0.2389	10	310	3.1421	0.2396	6.7281	66.5467	2.6462	0.2193	10.1249	76.3634	2.7308	0.2236	0.2236	3.0602	0.2365
32	320	3.1432	0.2397	10.3165	122.2003	3.1235	0.2389	10	320	3.1426	0.2396	9.588	73.8328	2.7413	0.2235	14.2673	86.4883	2.8323	0.2279	0.2279	3.0812	0.2373
33	330	3.1433	0.2396	14.9238	132.5168	3.1291	0.2391	10	330	3.1432	0.2396	14.6531	83.4208	2.8403	0.2278	24.3774	100.7556	2.9354	0.2322	0.2322	3.1023	0.2382
34	340	3.1438	0.2397	31.2014	147.4406	3.1349	0.2394	10	340	3.1436	0.2397	30.4822	98.0739	2.9492	0.2325	224.8670	125.1330	3.0421	0.2376	0.2376	3.1241	0.2393
35	350	3.1443	0.2397	178.6420	178.6420	3.1414	0.2397	10	350	3.1444	0.2397	128.5561	128.5561	3.0861	0.2388	350.0000	350.0000	3.1250	0.2395	0.2395	3.1409	0.2397

^aTotal discounted utilities under uniform, optimal and M–M time intervals are respectively, –131.8716, –117.6428 and –119.1260 when $k_0 = 2.4000$, and –166.4245, –139.0410 and –141.3519 when $k_0 = 0.0100$.

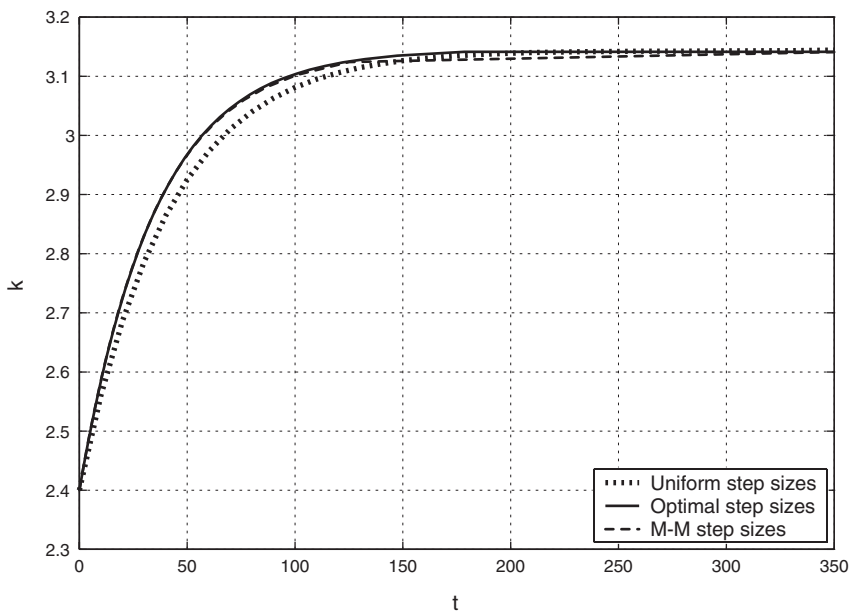


Fig. 2. $k_0 = 2.4000$: capital stock.

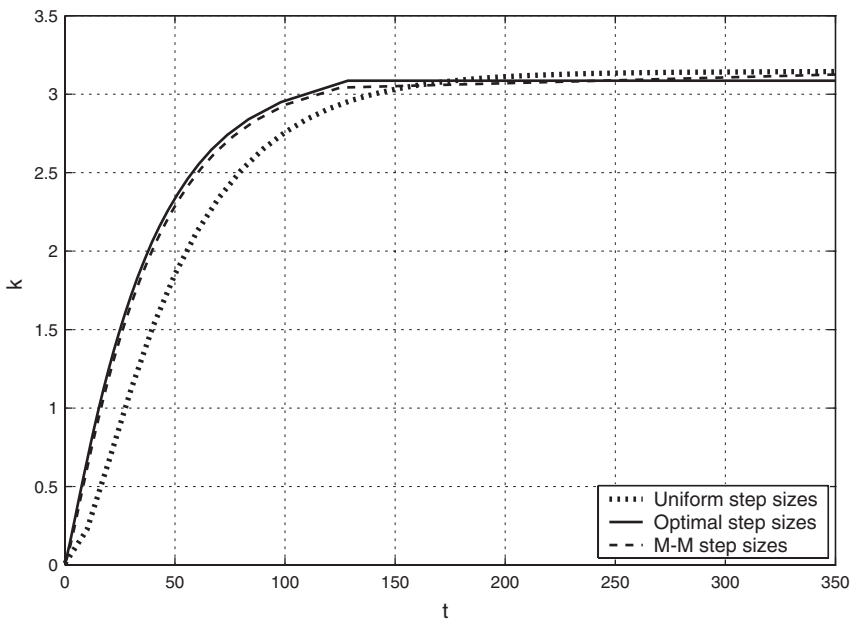


Fig. 3. $k_0 = 0.0100$: capital stock.

4.3. *Example III: permanent growth*

Consider now the Lucas’ (1988) model with a constant population that is normalized to unity:

$$\begin{aligned}
 J = \max \quad & \int_0^\infty e^{-\rho t} c(t)^a dt \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & \dot{K}(t) = F(K(t), w(t)H(t)\bar{H}(t)^\gamma) - c(t) - \mu K(t), \quad K(0) = K_0 \text{ given,} \\
 & \dot{H}(t) = \delta(1 - w(t))H(t), \quad H(0) = H_0 \text{ given,}
 \end{aligned}$$

where c is consumption, K and H are physical and human capital, w is the share of non-leisure time devoted to the production of goods and $1 - w$ the share devoured to human capital accumulation, an overbar denotes an externality, $F(\cdot)$ has constant returns, and γ, δ and μ are all positive scalars. Using the following transformations:

$$h(t) = H(t)\bar{H}(t)^\gamma, \quad x(t) = K(t)/h(t), \quad v(t) = c(t)/h(t)$$

and rearranging we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 J = \max \quad & \int_0^\infty e^{-\rho t} h(t)^a v(t)^a dt \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & \dot{x}(t) = F(x(t), w(t)) - c(t) - \mu x(t) - \delta(1 - w(t))x(t) \\
 & \quad - \gamma\delta(1 - \bar{w}(t))x(t) - v(t), \\
 & \frac{\dot{h}(t)}{h(t)} = \delta(1 - w(t)) + \gamma\delta(1 - \bar{w}(t)), \\
 & x(0) = x_0 \text{ given,} \quad h(0) = h_0 \text{ given.}
 \end{aligned}$$

For direct numerical optimization, the problem is first recast in the time aggregated form as

$$\begin{aligned}
 J_d = \max \quad & \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \frac{\Delta_n}{y_{t_{n+1}}} v_{t_n}^a + \beta_N \frac{v_{t_N}^a}{\rho - a(\delta(1 - w_{t_N}) + \gamma\delta(1 - \bar{w}_{t_N}))} \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & x_{t_{n+1}} - x_{t_n} = \Delta_n(F(x_{t_n}, w_{t_n}) - c_{t_n} - \mu x_{t_n} - \delta(1 - w_{t_n})x_{t_n}, \\
 & \quad - \gamma\delta(1 - \bar{w}_{t_n})x_{t_n} - v_{t_n}), \quad x_0 = 0.5, \\
 & y_{t_{n+1}} = y_{t_n}[1 + \Delta_n(\rho - a(\delta(1 - w_{t_n}) + \gamma\delta(1 - \bar{w}_{t_n})))]], \quad y_0 = 1.0
 \end{aligned}$$

with $\beta_N = 1/y_{t_N}$.

Assuming temporal aggregation with uniform intervals, we fix the number of inputs, N , at 25 and assume the system to have reached the steady-state at $T = 500$ so that $\Delta = 20$. If time aggregation is optimal, on the other hand, control intervals must also obey, $0.01 \leq \Delta_n \leq 500$ so that $\sum_{n=0}^{24} \Delta_n \leq 12,500$. A quarterly model serves

as benchmark. We use the following parameter values: $a = 0.1$, $\gamma = 0.01$, $\delta = 0.05/4$, $\rho = 0.04/4$, $\mu = 0.04/4$ and $\beta = 0.25$. We generate the M–M grids using $t_n = \log(1 - n/(N + 1))/(1/T) \log(1/(N + 1))$ for $n = 0, \dots, N$. This formula builds on the criterion in Mercenier and Michel (1994b) and is proposed by Mercenier and Michel (2001) for endogenous growth models.¹²

As mentioned earlier we use parallel GAs to approximate the model. Every generation, GA^F evolves a population of externalities, \bar{w}_{t_n} s best of which are passed to the GA^O which breeds a population of w_{t_n} , v_{t_n} and Δ_n to optimize economic growth. Simultaneously, GA^O copies the best performing individual w_{t_n} to the computer shared memory so that GA^F can evaluate fitness of the individual forecasts in its population. GA^F ranks forecasts in the population, \bar{w}_{t_n} s, according to their fitness based on, $J_f = \min(\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |\bar{w}_{t_n} - w_{t_n}|^2)^{1/2}$. The Nash equilibrium of this game between the optimizer and the forecaster are: w_{t_n} , v_{t_n} and Δ_n that maximize economic growth and \bar{w}_{t_n} that solves the fixed point problem $\bar{w}_{t_n} = w_{t_n}$.

From Table 3, observe that optimal policy calls for a full allocation of time to production until physical capital grows sufficiently large. This is so since labor can immediately increase production while the physical capital is still relatively low. Subsequently, more time is devoted to accumulate human capital thereby increasing the efficiency of now reduced labor time. Moreover, as also depicted in Figs. 4 and 5, all these transient adjustments are rather fast so that the economy can get on the balanced growth path as quickly as possible. Consequently, on balance, welfare that accrues along the steady-state path weighs relatively more than the welfare enjoyed along the transient phase. Though, the transition dynamics do not feature prominently in this model, nonetheless, optimal time aggregation improves welfare albeit, by small margins. More significantly, qualitative features of the transition dynamics, such as initial full allocation of time to production, are better captured under optimal time aggregation.

5. Computational efficiency

Thus far, we have emphasized the improved accuracy due to the optimal time-aggregation of the transient phase. Enhanced accuracy, however, also comes with higher computational costs. Since, the intervals are also optimized, the number of variables subject to search increases by $N - 1$. It can be argued that perhaps the same, or maybe a better degree of accuracy can be achieved with the equivalent computational resources by simply adding $N - 1$ sample points to a transient phase that is divided either by a uniform or M–M gridding scheme thereby shrinking the time intervals. A theoretical exposition of this query is beyond the scope of this

¹²Note that this discretization scheme does not require the stable root of the linearized system. When this measure is used for discretization, the regulator problem has a minimum cost of 2.1254 while the transient growth problem has a maximum welfare of -121.7689 when $k(0) = 2.4$ and -146.6402 when $k(0) = 0.01$. Since, the general performance is substantially worse than for the other criterion, we do not report the results in detail.

Table 3
Permanent growth model^a

Uniform grids										Optimal grids										M–M grids									
<i>n</i>	Δ_n	t_n	x_{t_n}	v_{t_n}	w_{t_n}	\bar{w}_{t_n}	Δ_n	t_n	x_{t_n}	v_{t_n}	w_{t_n}	\bar{w}_{t_n}	Δ_n	t_n	x_{t_n}	v_{t_n}	w_{t_n}	\bar{w}_{t_n}											
0	20	0	0.5000	0.4860	0.7760	0.7780	0.4813	0.0000	0.5000	0.2933	1.0000	0.9999	6.0190	6.0190	0.0000	0.5000	0.4510	0.9894	0.9894										
1	20	20	4.5660	0.9130	0.8030	0.8010	0.5796	0.4813	0.7611	0.3469	1.0000	0.9997	6.0190	6.0190	6.0190	2.7762	0.7406	0.9916	0.9918										
2	20	40	9.9760	1.1750	0.7960	0.7950	0.7060	1.0608	1.0970	0.4012	1.0000	0.9995	6.2647	12.2837	5.9963	0.9531	0.9391	0.9392	0.9392										
3	20	60	13.9290	1.3200	0.7880	0.7880	0.8257	1.7668	1.5285	0.4634	1.0000	0.9996	6.5314	18.8150	9.1000	1.1068	0.8913	0.8913	0.8913										
4	20	80	16.3200	1.3990	0.7840	0.7850	0.9676	2.5926	2.0514	0.5279	1.0000	0.9992	6.8217	25.6368	11.7124	1.2179	0.8556	0.8555	0.8555										
5	20	100	17.6700	1.4410	0.7810	0.7800	1.1205	3.5601	2.6787	0.5956	1.0000	0.9998	7.1391	32.7759	13.7781	1.2982	0.8302	0.8302	0.8303										
6	20	120	18.4020	1.4620	0.7790	0.7790	1.3261	4.6806	3.4148	0.6647	0.9999	0.9995	7.4875	40.2634	15.3514	1.3561	0.8128	0.8279	0.8279										
7	20	140	18.7960	1.4740	0.7780	0.7780	1.4279	6.0067	4.2905	0.7380	0.9998	0.9997	7.8717	48.1351	16.5212	1.3972	0.8007	0.8007	0.8007										
8	20	160	19.0070	1.4810	0.7780	0.7780	1.5945	7.4346	5.2301	0.8118	1.0000	0.9995	8.2974	56.4325	17.3725	1.4264	0.7927	0.7927	0.7927										
9	20	180	19.1230	1.4850	0.7780	0.7780	1.6062	9.0290	6.2636	0.8757	1.0000	0.9990	8.7717	65.2042	17.9819	1.4463	0.7871	0.7870	0.7870										
10	20	200	19.1820	1.4860	0.7780	0.7780	1.7206	10.6352	7.3710	0.9474	0.9999	0.9991	9.3037	74.5079	18.4130	1.4614	0.7834	0.7837	0.7837										
11	20	220	19.2150	1.4880	0.7780	0.7760	1.8233	12.3557	8.5131	1.0134	0.9991	0.9985	9.9043	84.4122	18.7003	1.4704	0.7810	0.7809	0.7809										
12	20	240	19.2310	1.4860	0.7770	0.7770	1.9629	14.1790	9.7176	1.0741	1.0000	0.9998	10.5879	95.0001	18.8966	1.4780	0.7801	0.7796	0.7796										
13	20	260	19.2420	1.4860	0.7770	0.7750	1.9799	16.1419	10.9247	1.1329	1.0000	0.9995	11.3729	106.3730	19.0244	1.4807	0.7789	0.7789	0.7789										
14	20	280	19.2490	1.4870	0.7780	0.7790	2.0314	18.1217	12.0549	1.1868	0.9825	0.9810	12.2837	118.6567	19.1162	1.4835	0.7782	0.7782	0.7782										
15	20	300	19.2770	1.4880	0.7770	0.7780	2.2829	20.1531	13.2619	1.2395	0.9476	0.9487	13.3531	132.0098	19.1730	1.4857	0.7779	0.7777	0.7777										
16	20	320	19.2560	1.4870	0.7770	0.7780	2.4475	22.4360	14.3682	1.3010	0.9033	0.9041	14.6267	146.6365	19.2032	1.4865	0.7777	0.7777	0.7777										
17	20	340	19.2510	1.4900	0.7780	0.7780	3.0678	24.8835	15.4166	1.3300	0.8817	0.8794	16.1690	162.8055	19.2210	1.4870	0.7775	0.7774	0.7774										
18	20	360	19.2290	1.4880	0.7780	0.7780	3.7250	27.9513	16.5182	1.3808	0.8430	0.8427	18.0754	180.8809	19.2286	1.4874	0.7776	0.7776	0.7776										
19	20	380	19.2490	1.4880	0.7780	0.7780	4.1939	31.6762	17.3353	1.4089	0.8171	0.8169	20.4922	201.3732	19.2339	1.4872	0.7775	0.7777	0.7777										
20	20	400	19.2580	1.4870	0.7770	0.7770	5.6623	35.8701	18.0785	1.4470	0.7924	0.7934	23.6566	225.0297	19.2431	1.4875	0.7775	0.7773	0.7773										
21	20	420	19.2570	1.4890	0.7780	0.7790	6.9911	41.5324	18.4750	1.4583	0.7848	0.7849	27.9798	253.0095	19.2486	1.4877	0.7775	0.7774	0.7774										
22	20	440	19.2540	1.4890	0.7780	0.7790	7.7180	48.5234	18.7488	1.4639	0.7830	0.7827	34.2445	287.2539	19.2469	1.4882	0.7776	0.7775	0.7775										
23	20	460	19.2510	1.4890	0.7780	0.7780	11.6085	56.2414	19.0890	1.4877	0.7889	0.7904	44.1488	331.4027	19.2363	1.4876	0.7776	0.7776	0.7776										
24	20	480	19.2490	1.4890	0.7780	0.7780	13.2025	67.8499	19.1215	1.4805	0.7787	0.7761	62.2242	393.6270	19.2479	1.4880	0.7776	0.7777	0.7777										
25	20	500	19.2490	1.4890	0.7780	0.7770	81.0523	19.2314	1.4874	0.7774	0.7774	0.7774	106.3730	500.0000	19.2377	1.4876	0.7775	0.7774	0.7774										

^aRespective maximum utilities with uniform, optimal and M–M time intervals are 103.9175, 104.9467 and 104.6046. Respective forecast errors are 0.005 and 0.005 and 0.0150.

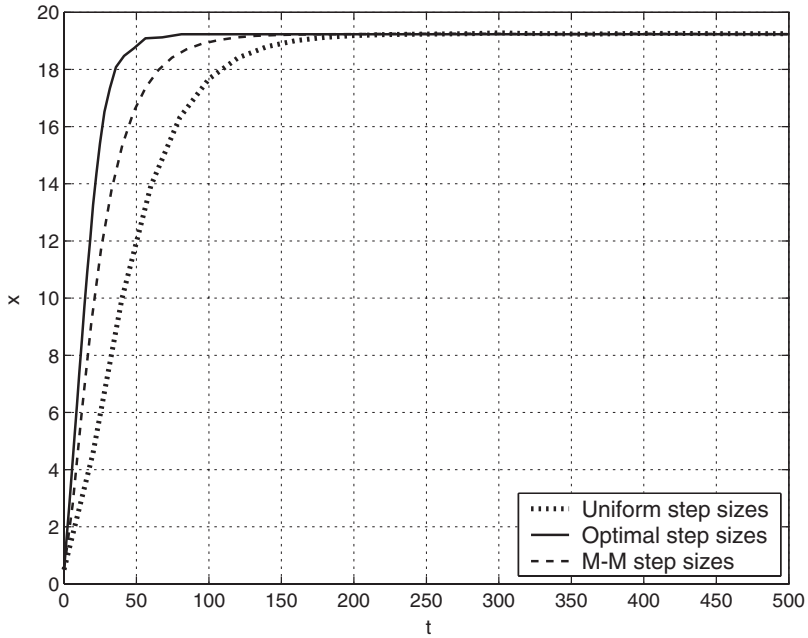


Fig. 4. Transformed capital stock.

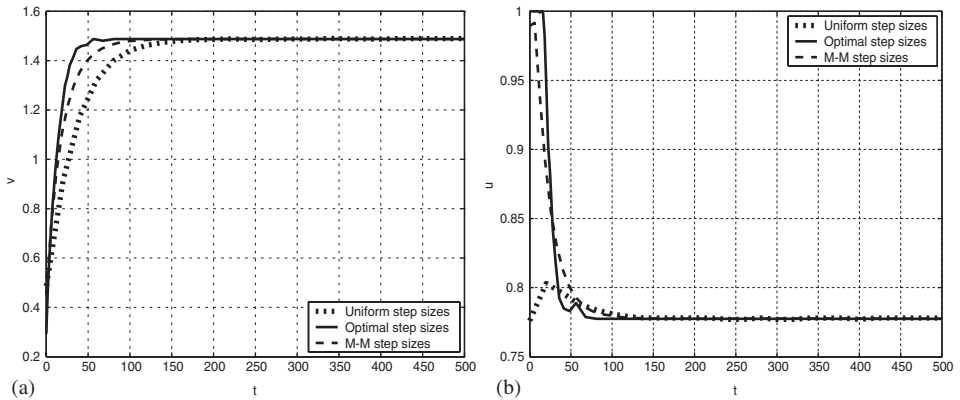


Fig. 5. (a) transformed consumption (b) labor time¹³.

paper. Instead, we experiment on the sample problems to test this proposition. For each test problem, we repeat the optimization experiment from different random populations for 30 times.

¹³The observed non-monotonicity in the labor time is due to approximation and certainly not optimal.

Table 4
Comparison of computational efficiency

	Uniform grid	Optimal grid	M–M grid
<i>Regulator</i>			
# of generations	1000	1000	1000
Average performance	3.4351	2.4678	6.5350
Standard deviation	0.3029	0.0634	1.8537
CPU time	45.39s	42.71s	44.72s
<i>Transient growth</i>			
# of generations	7000	7000	7000
Average performance	–124.3065	–117.3030	–120.1896
Standard deviation	1.4233	1.0107	1.7124
CPU time	1071.04s	872.14s	1323.33s
<i>Permanent growth</i>			
# of generations	2000	2000	2000
Average performance	104.1450	104.6165	104.5313
Standard deviation	0.0141	0.0436	0.0611
CPU time	737.14s	547.10s	735.11s

When decision intervals are objects of search, we keep the number of sample points, N , unchanged. However, N is increased for uniform and M–M gridding so that all three methods search for the same number of optimal values. We increase N to 50 in the regulator, 70 in the transient growth and 37 in the permanent growth problems so that the respective uniform step sizes are now reduced to 0.2, 5 and 13.5135. We increase numbers of sample points in the aforementioned formulas to generate the M–M grids which are now denser. All sample problems are approximated 30 times each of which starts with a randomly initialized population of 50. For each problem, we increase the number of generations by increments of 1000 until all 30 runs contain at least one feasible solution in the population. A summary of the numerical findings is reported in Table 4.

Numerical experiments indicate that with comparable computational effort, optimal time-aggregation of transient phase yields better average performance. Furthermore, this conclusion is robust since optimal time-aggregation also reduces the variance across random initial populations. From Table 4, it is also noteworthy that an added advantage of direct optimization of discretization steps is its speed. The method proposed in this paper not only improves accuracy, but it computes faster than the other alternative methods. Given the extra time needed for paper and pencil derivation and offline computation of the stable root for the M–M method, we conclude that our direct optimization method complements the steady-state invariant time aggregation by increasing its efficiency.

We attribute the increased efficiency in our method to the fact that our search algorithm evolves not only a fixed number of sample points on the state trajectories, but also the associated distances between them. Thus, the fitness of a candidate solution in the population depends not only on how well it approximates the ‘level’

of the sample points, but also on how accurately it represents the ‘speed’ with which a sample point is reached from another. Consequently, step-sizes are accordingly adjusted in evolutionary steps to improve overall performance thereby speeding up learning of the transient phase. Ultimately, our method reduces approximation errors not only at the steady-state, but also during transition phase. Of course, further numerical accuracy can be achieved by increasing the number of control actions, N , at the expense of larger computational costs.

6. Conclusion

This paper has shown that an optimal choice of discretization steps in time-aggregated models with steady-state invariance would significantly enhance the numerical approximation of the transient dynamics. Conversely, if the length of the transient phase is arbitrarily set and uniformly partitioned as is usually done, numerical results can deteriorate dramatically. An alternative scheme that sets nonuniform intervals is the M–M method. Since, this approach relies on the stable root of the linearized dynamics around the steady-state, it is less efficient than the direct method we propose.

We have demonstrated the benefits from our method in three sample problems: a simple regulator, a transitory and an endogenous growth models. All experiments indicate that optimal timing of control actions also becomes important in time-aggregated discrete models. Furthermore, repeated experiments from random initial populations, have shown the proposed method to be numerically efficient. Extension of our results to time-optimal control problems is immediate.

Acknowledgements

An earlier version of this paper was presented under the title ‘Optimal Discretization of Continuous Time Control Problems’ at the Seventh International Conference of the Society for Computational Economics at Yale University. We would like to thank Tarık Kara and Süheyla Özyıldırım for their helpful suggestions and comments. Of course, any remaining errors are ours.

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