Bonus Lecture: Solving Systems of Equations

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September 6, 2020

Grad IO

Basic Setup

Often we are interested in solving a problem like this:

Root Finding f(x) = 0

Optimization $\arg \min_{x} f(x)$.

These problems are related because we find the minimum by setting: $f^{\prime}(x)=0$

Root Finding

Newton's Method for Root Finding

Consider the Taylor series for f(x) approximated around $f(x_0)$:

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0) + f''(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0)^2 + o_p(3)$$

Suppose we wanted to find a root of the equation where $f(x^*) = 0$ and solve for x:

$$0 = f(x_0) + f'(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0)$$
$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

This gives us an iterative scheme to find x^* :

- 1. Start with some x_k . Calculate $f(x_k), f'(x_k)$
- 2. Update using $x_{k+1} = x_k \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}$
- 3. Stop when $|x_{k+1} x_k| < \epsilon_{tol}$.

Halley's Method for Root Finding

Consider the Taylor series for f(x) approximated around $f(x_0)$:

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0) + f''(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0)^2 + o_p(3)$$

Now let's consider the second-order approximation:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{2f(x_n) f'(x_n)}{2 [f'(x_n)]^2 - f(x_n) f''(x_n)} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n) - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \frac{f''(x_n)}{2}}$$
$$= x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \left[1 - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \cdot \frac{f''(x_n)}{2f'(x_n)} \right]^{-1}$$

- Last equation is useful because we only need to know $f(x_n)/f'(x_n)$ and $f''(x_n)/f'(x_n)$
- If we are lucky $f''(x_n)/f'(x_n)$ is easy to compute or ≈ 0 (Newton's method).

Root Finding: Convergence

How many iterations do we need? This is a tough question to answer.

• However we can consider convergence where f(a) = 0:

$$|x_{n+1} - a| \le K_d * |x_n - a|^d$$

- d=2 (Newton's Method) quadratic convergence (we need f'(x))
- d=3 (Halley's Method) cubic convergence (but we need f''(x))

Root Finding: Fixed Points

Some (not all) equations can be written as f(x) = x or g(x) = 0: f(x) - x = 0.

• In this case we can iterate on the fixed point directly

$$x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$$

- ullet Advantage: we only need to calculate f(x).
- There need not be a unique solution to f(x) = x.
- But... this may or may not actually work.

Contraction Mapping Theorem/ Banach Fixed Point

Consider a set $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and a function $f: D \to \mathbb{R}^n$. Assume

- 1. D is closed (i.e., it contains all limit points of sequences in D)
- 2. $x \in D \Longrightarrow f(x) \in D$
- 3. The mapping g is a contraction on D : There exists q<1 such that

$$\forall x, y \in D: ||f(x) - f(y)|| \le q||x - y||$$

Then

- 1. There exists a unique $x^* \in D$ with $f(x^*) = x^*$
- 2. For any $x^{(0)} \in D$ the fixed point iterates given by $x^{(k+1)} := f\left(x^{(k)}\right)$ converge to x^* as $k \to \infty$
- 3. $x^{(k)}$ satisfies the a-priori error estimate $\left\|x^{(k)} x^*\right\| \leq \frac{q^k}{1-q} \left\|x^{(1)} x^{(0)}\right\|$
- 4. $x^{(k)}$ satisfies the a-posteriori error estimate $||x^{(k)} x^*|| \le \frac{q}{1-q} ||x^{(k)} x^{(k-1)}||$

Some notes

- Not every fixed point relationship is a contraction.
- Iterating on $x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$ will not always lead to f(x) = x or g(x) = 0.
- ullet Convergence rate of fixed point iteration is slow or q-linear.
- When q is small this will be faster.
- q is sometimes called modulus of contraction mapping.
- A key example of a contraction: value function iteration!

Accelerated Fixed Points: Secant Method

Start with Newton's method and use the finite difference approximation

$$f'(x_{n-1}) \approx \frac{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})}{x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}}$$
$$x_n = x_{n-1} - f(x_{n-1}) \frac{x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}}{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})}$$

- ullet This doesn't have the actual $f'(x_n)$ so it isn't quadratically convergent
- Instead is is superlinear with rate $q=\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}=1.618<2$ (Golden Ratio)
- Faster than fixed-point iteration but doesn't require computing $f'(x_n)$.
- Idea: can use past iterations to approximate derivatives and accelerate fixed points.

Accelerated Fixed Points: Anderson (1965) Mixing

Define the residual $r(x_n) = f(x_n) - x_n$. Find weights on previous k residuals:

$$\widehat{\alpha^n} = \arg\min_{\alpha} \left\| \sum_{k=0}^m \alpha_k^n \cdot r_{n-k} \right\| \text{ subject to } \sum_{k=0}^m \alpha_k^n = 1$$

$$x_{n+1} = (1 - \lambda) \sum_{j=0}^m \widehat{\alpha_k^n} \cdot x_{n-k} + \lambda \sum_{j=0}^m \widehat{\alpha_k^n} \cdot f(x_{n-k})$$

- Convex combination of weighted average of: lagged x_{n-k} and lagged $f(x_{n-k})$.
- Variants on this are known as Anderson Mixing or Anderson Acceleration.

Accelerated Fixed Points: SQUAREM (Varadhan and Roland 2008)

Define the residual $r(x_n) = f(x_n) - x_n$ and $v(x_n) = f \circ f(x_n) - f(x_n)$.

$$x_{n+1} = x_n$$
 $-2s [f(x_n) - x_n]$ $+s^2 [f \circ f(x_n) - 2f(x_n) + x_n]$
= x_n $-2sr$ $+s^2(v-r)$

Three versions of stepsize:

$$s_1 = \frac{r^t r}{r^t (v - r)}, \quad s_2 = \frac{r^t (v - r)}{(v - r)^t (v - r)}, \quad s_3 = -\sqrt{\frac{r^t r}{(v - r)^t (v - r)}}$$

Idea: use two iterations to construct something more like the quadratic/Halley method.

Note: I am hand-waving, don't try to derive this.

Newton-Raphson for Minimization

We can re-write optimization as root finding;

- We want to know $\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \ell(\theta)$.
- Construct the FOCs $\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} = 0 \rightarrow$ and find the zeros.
- \bullet How? using Newton's method! Set $f(\theta) = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta}$

$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \left[\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial \theta^2}(\theta_k)\right]^{-1} \cdot \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta}(\theta_k)$$

The SOC is that $\frac{\partial^2 \ell}{\partial \theta^2} > 0$. Ideally at all θ_k .

This is all for a single variable but the multivariate version is basically the same.

Newton's Method: Multivariate

Start with the objective $Q(\theta) = -l(\theta)$:

- ullet Approximate Q(heta) around some initial guess $heta_0$ with a quadratic function
- ullet Minimize the quadratic function (because that is easy) call that $heta_1$
- Update the approximation and repeat.

$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \left[\frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'}\right]^{-1} \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \theta}(\theta_k)$$

- The equivalent SOC is that the Hessian Matrix is positive semi-definite (ideally at all θ).
- In that case the problem is globally convex and has a unique maximum that is easy to find.

Newton's Method

We can generalize to Quasi-Newton methods:

$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \lambda_k \underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'}\right]^{-1}}_{A_k} \underbrace{\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \theta}(\theta_k)}$$

Two Choices:

- Step length λ_k
- Step direction $d_k = A_k \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \theta}(\theta_k)$
- ullet Often rescale the direction to be unit length $rac{d_k}{\|d_k\|}.$
- ullet If we use A_k as the true Hessian and $\lambda_k=1$ this is a full Newton step.

Newton's Method: Alternatives

Choices for A_k

- $A_k = I_k$ (Identity) is known as gradient descent or steepest descent
- BHHH. Specific to MLE. Exploits the Fisher Information.

$$A_{k} = \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \ln f}{\partial \theta} (\theta_{k}) \frac{\partial \ln f}{\partial \theta'} (\theta_{k})\right]^{-1}$$
$$= -\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial^{2} \ln f}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} (Z, \theta^{*})\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial \ln f}{\partial \theta} (Z, \theta^{*}) \frac{\partial \ln f}{\partial \theta'} (Z, \theta^{*})\right]$$

- Alternatives SR1 and DFP rely on an initial estimate of the Hessian matrix and then approximate an update to A_k .
- Usually updating the Hessian is the costly step.
- Non invertible Hessians are bad news.

Extended Example: Binary Choice

Binary Choice: Overview

Many problems we are interested in look at discrete rather than continuous outcomes:

- Entering a Market/Opening a Store
- Working or a not
- Being married or not
- Exporting to another country or not
- Going to college or not
- Smoking or not
- etc.

Simplest Example: Flipping a Coin

Suppose we flip a coin which is yields heads (Y = 1) and tails (Y = 0). We want to estimate the probability p of heads:

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ with probability } p \\ 0 \text{ with probability } 1 - p \end{cases}$$

We see some data Y_1, \ldots, Y_N which are (i.i.d.)

We know that $Y_i \sim Bernoulli(p)$.

Simplest Example: Flipping a Coin

We can write the likelihood of N Bernoulli trials as

$$Pr(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, \dots, Y_N = y_N) = f(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N | p)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{N} p^{y_i} (1-p)^{1-y_i}$$
$$= p^{\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i} (1-p)^{N-\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i}$$

And then take logs to get the log likelihood:

$$\ln f(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N | p) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N y_i\right) \ln p + \left(N - \sum_{i=1}^N y_i\right) (1-p)$$

Simplest Example: Flipping a Coin

Differentiate the log-likelihood to find the maximum:

$$\ln f(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N | p) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N y_i\right) \ln p + \left(N - \sum_{i=1}^N y_i\right) \ln(1-p)$$

$$\rightarrow 0 = \frac{1}{\hat{p}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N y_i\right) + \frac{-1}{1-\hat{p}} \left(N - \sum_{i=1}^N y_i\right)$$

$$\frac{\hat{p}}{1-\hat{p}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N y_i}{N - \sum_{i=1}^N y_i} = \frac{\overline{Y}}{1-\overline{Y}}$$

$$\hat{p}^{MLE} = \overline{Y}$$

That was a lot of work to get the obvious answer: fraction of heads.

More Complicated Example: Adding Covariates

We probably are interested in more complicated cases where p is not the same for all observations but rather p(X) depends on some covariates. Here is an example from the Boston HMDA Dataset:

- 2380 observations from 1990 in the greater Boston area.
- Data on: individual Characteristics, Property Characteristics, Loan Denial/Acceptance (1/0).
- Mortgage Application process circa 1990-1991:
 - Go to bank
 - Fill out an application (personal+financial info)
 - Meet with loan officer
 - Loan officer makes decision
 - Legally in race blind way (discrimination is illegal but rampant)
 - Wants to maximize profits (ie: loan to people who don't end up defeaulting!)