INTRODUCTION TO DEEP LEARNING FOR ECONOMICS

LECTURE 0: INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL IDEAS

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- 1. Introduction
- 2. Formal introduction and general ideas
- 3. Introduction to deep learning for econometrics
- 4. Setup: what are neural nets?
- 5. Network design
- 6. Backpropagation

Outline

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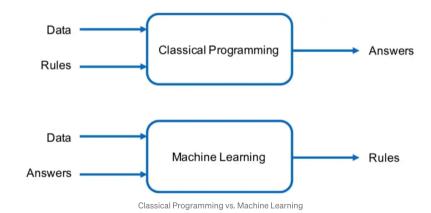
General references

- Goodfellow, Bengio, and Courville (2016): Deep Learning,
- Zhang et al. (2021): Dive into Deep Learning,
- Bartlett, Montanari, and Rakhlin (2021): Deep learning: a statistical viewpoint,
- Bottou, Curtis, and Nocedal (2016): Optimization Methods for Large-Scale Machine Learning.

Machine Learning

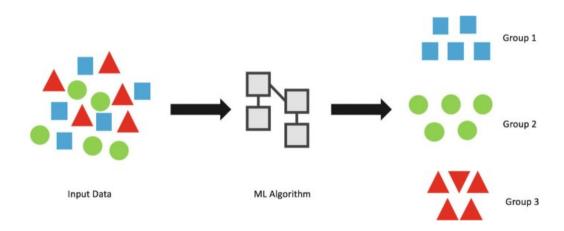
- Wide set of algorithms to detect and learn from patterns in the data (observed or simulated):
 - · for decision making,
 - and/or forecast future realizations of random variables.
- Focus on recursive processing of information to improve performance over time. item In fact, this is clearer to see in its name in other languages
 - · French: Apprentissage automatique,
 - · Spanish : aprendizaje automático,
 - · even in English: Statistical learning.
- More formally: we use rich datasets to select appropriate functions in a dense functional space.

ML and "Classical" programming



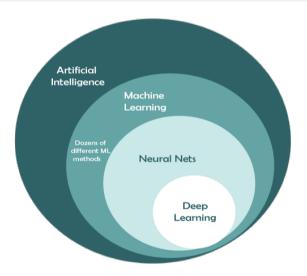
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Unsupervised ML



AI, ML, Deep Learning

AI, ML, Deep Learning



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Why now?

- Many of the ideas of machine learning (e.g., basic neural network by (Mcculloch and Pitts, 1943), and perceptron by (Rosenblatt, 1958)) are decades old.
- Previous waves of excitement followed by backlashes.
- Four forces behind the revival;
- Big data.
- Long tails.
- Cheap computational power.
- Algorithmic advances.
- Likely that these four forces will become stronger over time.
- Exponential growth in industry,
 - · ⇒ plenty of libraries for Python, R, and other languages

Popular Languages (2018)





Some DL libraries











ML in economics(some examples)

"Classical" ML:

- Applied Micro / Microeconometrics(mostly for policy evaluation): Mullainathan and Spiess (2017), Athey and Imbens (2019), Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy (2019), . . .
- Theoretical econometrics: there are many papers working on good inference practices for method using ML tools, e.g., Chernozhukov et al. (2017), this is an active area of research.
- · Macro: Goulet Coulombe et al. (2022), ...

DI:

- · New solution methods for economic models: Azinovic, Gaegauf, and Scheidegger (2022), . . .
- Alternative to older bounded rationality models: reinforcement learning(e.g., (Finan and Pouzo, 2021)),...
- · Alternative empirical models for micro policy evaluation(aka., Treatment Effects): Chernozhukov et al. (2021), Hartford et al. (2017), Farrell, Liang, and Misra (2021), . . .

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2. Formal introduction and general ideas

The problem

All exact science is dominated by the idea of approximation,

Betrand Russell.

Let us suppose we want to approximate ("learn") an unknown function

$$y = f(\mathbf{x})$$

where y is a scalar and $\mathbf{x} := (x_0 = 1, x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)^{\mathsf{T}}$ a vector (why a constant?).

- We care about the case when p is large (possibly in the thousands!).
- Easy to extend to the case where y is a vector (e.g., a probability distribution), but notation becomes cumbersome.
- In economics, $f(\mathbf{x})$ can be a value function, a policy function, a pricing kernel, a conditional expectation(e.g., a regression function), a classifier, . . .

Neural network

• A neural network is an approximation to $f(\cdot)$ of the form:

$$y pprox g^{NN}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{ heta}) = heta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^k heta_j \phi(z_j),$$

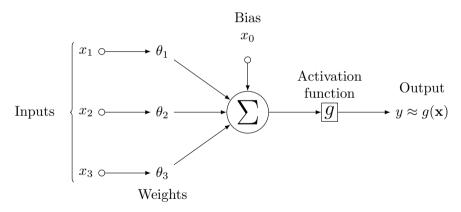
where $\phi(\cdot)$ is an **activation function** and:

$$z_j = \sum_{l=0}^p \theta_{l,j} x_l.$$

- The x_i 's are known as the features of the data, which belong to a feature space X.
- The $\phi(z_i)$'s are known as the representation of the data.
- *k* is known as the width of the model (wide vs. thin networks).
- "Training" the network: selecting θ such that $g^{NN}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ is as close to $f(\mathbf{x})$ as possible given some relevant metric (e.g., the \mathcal{L}^2 norm).

Neural network

Flow representation:



Comparison with other approximations

Compare:

$$y \approx g^{NN}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \theta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^k \theta_j \phi \left(\sum_{l=0}^p \theta_{l,j} x_l \right),$$

with a standard projection:

$$y pprox g^{CP}(\mathbf{x}; oldsymbol{ heta}) = heta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^k heta_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x}),$$

where $\phi_i(\cdot)$ is, for example, a Chebyshev polynomial.

- Note:
 - We exchange the rich parameterization of coefficients for the parsimony of basis functions.
 - In a next course, I will explain why this is often a good idea. Suffice it to say now that evaluating a neural network is straightforward.
 - · How we determine the coefficients is also different, but this is less important.

Deep learning

• A deep learning (neural) network is a **multilayer** composition of M > 1 neural networks:

$$z_j^0 = \theta_{0,j}^0 + \sum_{l=1}^p \theta_{l,j}^0 x_l,$$

and

$$z_j^1 = \theta_{0,j}^1 + \sum_{i=1}^{k_1} \theta_j^1 \phi^1(z_j^0)$$

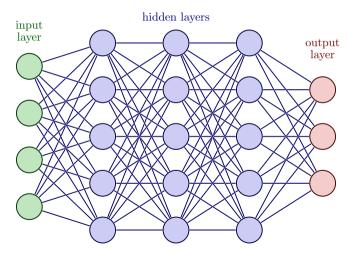
:

$$y pprox g^{DL}(\mathbf{x}; oldsymbol{ heta}) = heta_0^M + \sum_{i=1}^{k_M} heta_j^M \phi^M(z_j^{M-1}),$$

where the k_1, k_2, \ldots , and $\phi^1(\cdot), \phi_2(\cdot), \ldots$ are possibly different across each layer of the network.

Deep learning

Flow representation:



Deep learning

- M is known as the depth of the network (deep vs. shallow networks). The case M=1 is the neural network we saw before.
- From now on, we will refer to neural networks as including both single and multilayer networks.
- As before, we select θ such that $g^{DL}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ approximates a target function $f(\mathbf{x})$ as closely as possible under some relevant metric.
- We can also add multidimensional outputs.
- Or even to produce a probability distribution as output, for example, using a softmax layer:

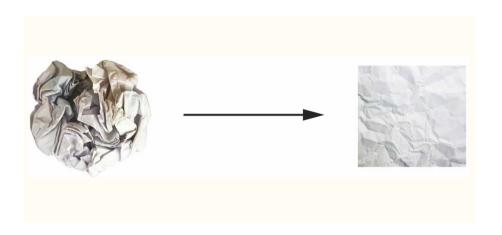
$$y_j = \frac{exp(z_j^{M-1})}{\sum_{j=1}^k \exp(z_j^{M-1})}.$$

• All other aspects (selecting $\phi(\cdot)$, M, k, ...) are known as the network architecture. We will discuss extensively further in the course how to determine them.

Why do neural networks "work"?

- Neural networks consist entirely of chains of tensor operations: we take **x**, we perform affine transformations, and apply an activation function.
- Thus, these tensor operations are geometric transformations of x.
- In other words: a neural network is a complex geometric transformation in a high-dimensional space.
- Deep neural networks look for convenient geometrical representations of high-dimensional manifolds.
- The success of any functional approximation problem is to search for the right geometric space in which to perform it, not to search for a "better" basis function.

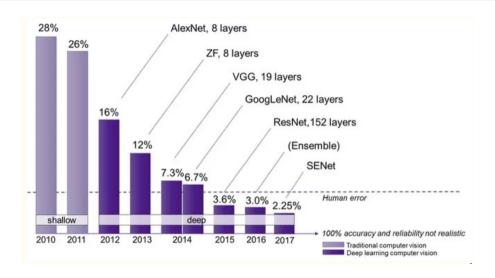
Why do neural networks "work"?



Why do deep neural networks "work" better?

- Why do we want to introduce hidden layers?
 - 1. It works! Evolution of ImageNet winners.
 - The number of representations increases exponentially with the number of hidden layers while computational cost grows linearly.
 - 3. Intuition: hidden layers induce highly nonlinear behavior in the joint creation of representations without the need to have domain knowledge (used, in other algorithms, in some form of greedy pre-processing).

Why do deep neural networks "work" better?



Some consequences

- Because of the previous arguments, neural networks can efficiently approximate extremely complex functions.
- In particular, under certain (relatively weak) conditions:
 - 1. Neural networks are universal approximators.
 - 2. Neural networks break the "curse of dimensionality."
- Furthermore, neural networks are easy to code, stable, and scalable for multiprocessing (neural networks are built around tensors).
- The richness of an ecosystem is key for its long-run success.

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3. Introduction to deep learning for econometrics

Takeaways

- Deep learning is regression with complicated functional forms.
- Design considerations in feedforward networks include depth, width, and the connections between layers.
- Optimization is difficult in deep learning because of
 - 1. lots of data
 - 2. and even more parameters
 - 3. in a highly non-linear model.
- ⇒ Specially developed optimization methods.
- Cross-validation for penalization is computationally costly, as well.
- A popular alternative is sample-splitting and early stopping.

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4. Setup: what are neural nets?

Deep Neural Nets

Setup

- Deep learning is (regularized) maximum likelihood, for regressions with complicated functional forms.
- We want, for instance, to find θ to minimize

$$E\left[\left(\left(Y-f(X,\theta)\right)^{2}\right],\right.$$

for continuous outcomes Y, or to maximize

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\sum_{y}\mathbf{1}(Y=y)\cdot\log\left(f(X,\boldsymbol{\theta})\right)^{2}\right]$$

for discrete outcomes Y.

What's deep about that?

Feedforward nets

• Functions *f* used for deep (feedforward) nets can be written as

$$f(x, \theta) = f^k \left(f^{k-1} \left(\dots f^1(\mathbf{x}, \theta^1), \theta^2 \right), \dots, \theta^k \right).$$

- Biological analogy:
 - Each value of a component of f j corresponds to the "activation" of a "neuron."
 - Each f^{j} corresponds to a layer of the net: Many layers \Rightarrow "deep" neural net.
 - \cdot The layer-structure and the parameters θ determine how these neurons are connected.
- Inspired by biology, but practice moved away from biological models.
- Best to think of as a class of nonlinear functions for regression.

So what's new?

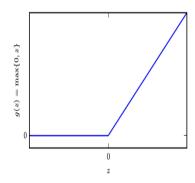
- Very non-linear functional forms f. Crucial when
 - · mapping pixel colors into an answer to "Is this a cat?,"
 - · or when mapping English sentences to Mandarin sentences.
 - · Probably less relevant when running Mincer-regressions.
- Often more parameters than observations.
 - Not identified in the usual sense. But we care about predictions, not parameters.
 - · Overparametrization helps optimization: Less likely to get stuck in local minima.
- Lots of computational challenges.
 - 1. Calculating gradients: Backpropagation, stochastic gradient descent.
 - 2. Searching for optima.
 - 3. Tuning: Penalization, early stopping.

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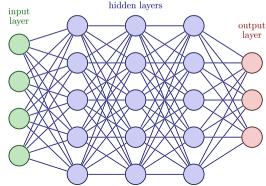
Activation functions

- Basic unit of a net: a neuron i in layer j.
- Receives input vector x_jⁱ (output of other neurons).
- Produces output $g(x_i^j, \theta_i^j + \eta_i^j)$.
- Activation function $g(\cdot)$:
 - · Older nets: Sigmoid function (biologically inspired).
 - Modern nets: "Rectified linear units:"
 g (max(0, z)): More convenient for getting gradients.



Architecture

- These neurons are connected, usually structured by layers. Number of layers: Depth. Number of neurons in a layer: Width.
- Input layer: Regressors.
- Output layer: Outcome variables.
- A typical example:



Architecture

- Suppose each layer is fully connected to the next, and we are using RELU activation functions.
- Then we can write in matrix notation (using componentwise max):

$$\mathbf{x}^{j} = t^{j} \left(\mathbf{x}^{j-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{j}
ight) = \max \left(0, \mathbf{x}^{j-1} \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}^{j} + \boldsymbol{\eta}_{j}
ight),$$

- Matrix θ^{j} :
 - · Number of rows: Width of layer j 1.
 - · Number of columns: Width of layer *j*.
- Vector **x**^j:
 - · Number of entries: Width of layer j.
- Vector η_i :
 - · Number of entries: Width of layer j.
 - · Intercepts. Confusingly called "bias" in machine learning.

Output layer

- Last layer is special: Maps into predictions.
- Leading cases:
 - 1. Linear predictions for continuous outcome variables,

$$f^k(\mathbf{x}^{k-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^k) = \mathbf{x}^{k-1} \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}^k.$$

2. Multinomial logit (aka "softmax") predictions for discrete variables.

$$f^{k,y_j}(\mathbf{x}^{k-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^k) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{x}_j^{k-1} \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}_j^k)}{\sum_{j'} \exp(\mathbf{x}_{j'}^{k-1} \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j'}^k)}$$

Network with only output layer: Just run OLS / multinomial logit.

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6. Backpropagation

Backpropagation

The chain rule

- In order to maximize the (penalized) likelihood, we need its gradient.
- Recall that

$$f(x, \theta) = f^k \left(f^{k-1} \left(\dots f^1(\mathbf{x}, \theta^1), \theta^2 \right), \dots, \theta^k \right).$$

• By the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{i}^{j}} = \left(\prod_{j'=j+1}^{k} \frac{\partial f^{j'}(\mathbf{x}^{j'}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{j})}{\partial \mathbf{x}^{j'-1}} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial f^{j}(\mathbf{x}^{j-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{j})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{i}^{j}}.$$

- A lot of the same terms show up in derivatives w.r.t different θ_i^j :
 - $\cdot \mathbf{x}_{i}^{j'}$ (values of layer j').
 - $\frac{\partial f^{j'}(\mathbf{x}^{j'}, \theta^{j})}{\partial \mathbf{x}^{j'-1}}$ (intermediate layer derivatives w.r.t. $\mathbf{x}^{j'-1}$).

Backpropagation

The chain rule

- Denote $\mathbf{z}^j = \mathbf{x}^{j-1} \theta^j + \eta^j$. Recall $\mathbf{x}^j = \max(0, \mathbf{z}^j)$.
- Note $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^j}{\partial z^j} = \mathbf{1} \left(\mathbf{z}^j \geq 0 \right)$ (componentwise), and $\frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^j}{\partial \theta^j} = \mathbf{x}^{j-1}$.
- First, forward propagation: Calculate all the z^{j} and x^{j} starting at j=1
- Then **backpropagation**: Iterate backward, starting at i = k;
 - 1. Calculate and store

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{x}^{j-1}} = \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{x}^{j}} \cdot \mathbf{1}(\mathbf{z}^{j} \geq 0)\boldsymbol{\theta}^{j'}.$$

2. Calculate

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}^j} = \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{x}^j} \cdot \mathbf{1}(\mathbf{z}^j \geq 0) \mathbf{x}^{j-1}.$$

Backpropagation

Advantages

- Backpropagation improves efficiency by storing intermediate derivatives, rather than recomputing them.
- Number of computations grows only linearly in number of parameters.
- The algorithm is easily generalized to more complicated network architectures and activation functions.
- Parallelizable across observations in the data (one gradient for each observation!).

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