Data-intensive Innovation and the State: Evidence from AI Firms in China

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ABFER webinar
November 3, 2021

Motivation: government data as input in AI innovation

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$\Longrightarrow$ **Government data** can exceed privately-collected data in magnitude/scope; or lack good substitutes altogether

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- Think about **facial recognition AI firms in China**...
  - Train algorithms with, e.g., video streams of faces from many angles
  - The state's public security units collect this form of data through their surveillance apparatus, and contract AI firms for services
  - AI firms gaining access to surveillance data can use it to train algorithms and develop software

This paper

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1. If gov't data and algorithms are **sharable** across uses, they can be used to develop AI products for commercial markets
   (e.g., a facial recognition platform for retail stores)

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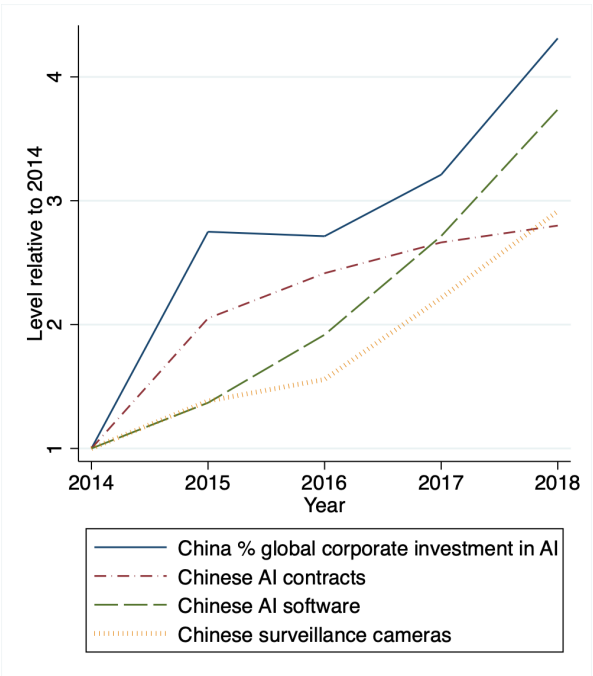
Evidence of this in China's facial recognition AI sector

Two implications

1. Access to gov't data contributed to Chinese firms' emergence as leading innovators in facial recognition AI

   - Indeed, this has coincided with the expansion of the government's procurement of AI and surveillance capacity



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2. Novel role for the state in data-intensive economies
   - So far, emphasis on the regulation of privately-collected data due to antitrust or privacy concerns (Tirole, 2020; Aridor et al., 2020)
   - AI procurement and policies of gov't data collection and provision could, **whether intentionally or not**, stimulate and shape the direction of innovation in a range of sectors

Empirical challenges

Would like to compare software output changes after receipt of gov't procurement contracts giving access to more v. less data

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1. Dataset linking AI firms to govt. contracts did not exist
2. Dataset on AI firms' software did not exist (our measure of *product innovation*). Also, critical for us to classify by use (commercial or not)
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Identification challenges

1. Non-random assignment of gov't contracts
2. Contracts work through other mechanisms unrelated to data

Data 1: linking AI firms to govt. contracts

1. Identify all facial recognition AI **firms**
    - 7,837 firms
    - Two sources: Tianyancha (People's Bank of China) and PitchBook (Morningstar)
    - Include: *(i)* firms specialized in facial recognition AI (e.g., Yitu); *(ii)* hardware firms that devote substantial resources to develop AI software (e.g., Hik-Vision); *(iii)* facial recognition AI units of large tech conglomerates (e.g., Baidu AI)

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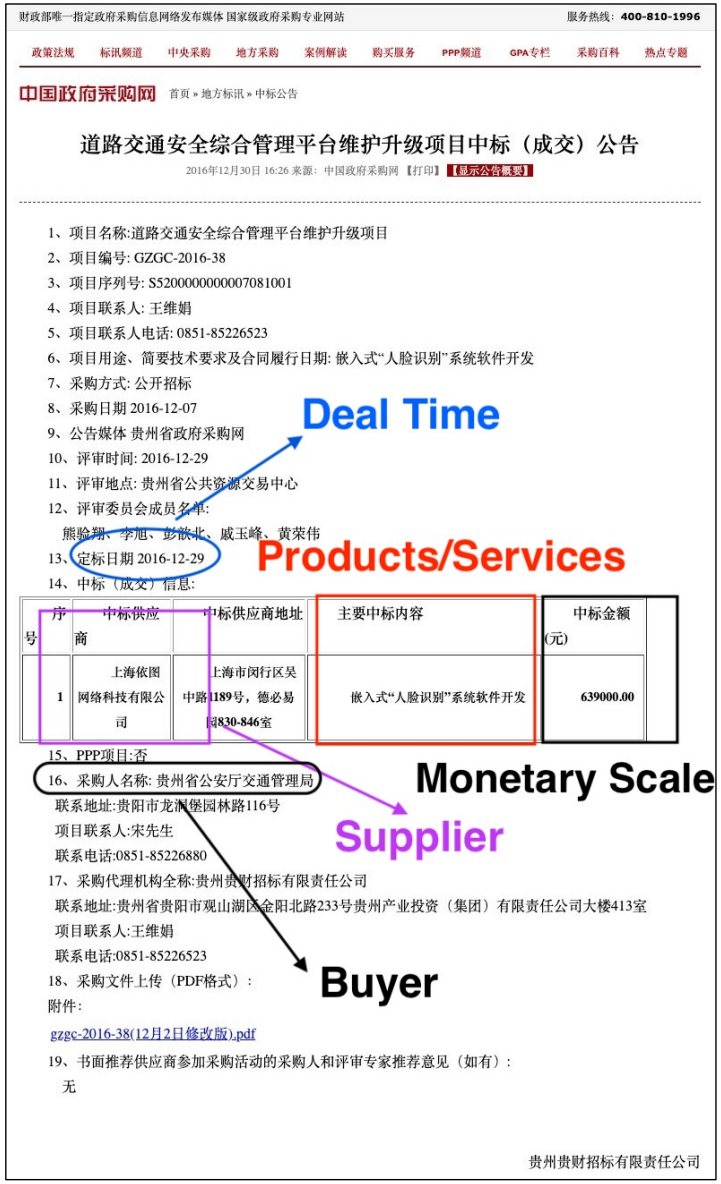
3. Link government **buyers** to AI **suppliers**



Data 2: AI firms' software production

Registered with Min. of Industry and Information Technology

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Categorize by intended customers:

1. **Commercial:** e.g., *visual recognition system for smart retail*;
2. **Government:** e.g., *smart city — real time monitoring system on main traffic routes*;
3. General: e.g., *a synchronization method for multi-view cameras based on FPGA chips*.

Categorization: analyze text using machine learning

- Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) model using tensorflow
  - Corpus: 13,000 manually labeled software programs
  - Word-embedding: converted sentences to vectors based on word frequencies and used the words from full datasets as dictionary
  - Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) algorithm: 2 layers of 32 nodes
  - 90% of corpus for training, 10% for validating
  - 10,000 training cycles are run for gradient descent on loss function
- Results robust to perturbing parameters of learning model

Data 3: measuring access to government data

Within AI public security contracts: variation in the data collection capacity of the public security agency's local surveillance network

1. Identify non-AI contracts: police department purchases of street cameras
2. Measure quantity of advanced cameras in a prefecture at a given time
3. Categorize public security contracts as coming from "high" or "low" camera capacity prefectures

Baseline empirical strategy

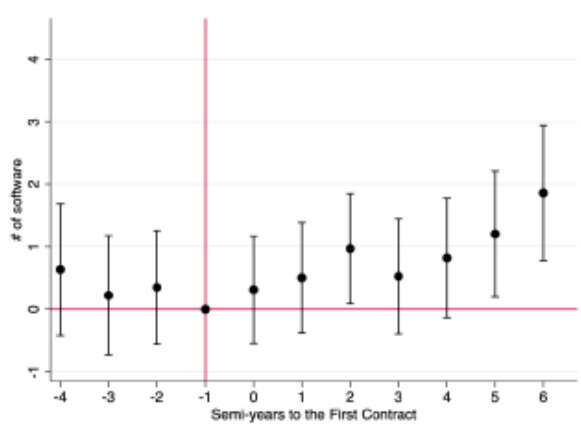
- **Triple diffs:** compare cumulative software releases before and after firms received 1st data-rich contracts, relative to the data-scarce ones

$$y_{it} = \sum_T \beta_{1T} T_{it} Data_i + \sum_T \beta_{2T} T_{it} + \alpha_t + \gamma_i + \sum_T \beta_{3T} T_{it} X_i + \epsilon_{it}$$

  - T_{it}: 1 if, at time t, T semi-years have passed before/since firm i received 1st contract
  - $Data_i$: 1 if firm i receives "data rich" contract (i.e., from "high" camera capacity prefecture at time of contract receipt)
  - X_i controls for pre-contract firm characteristics: age, size (cap), and software production

Public security contract "richer in data" & firm innovation

Commercial use cumulative software releases



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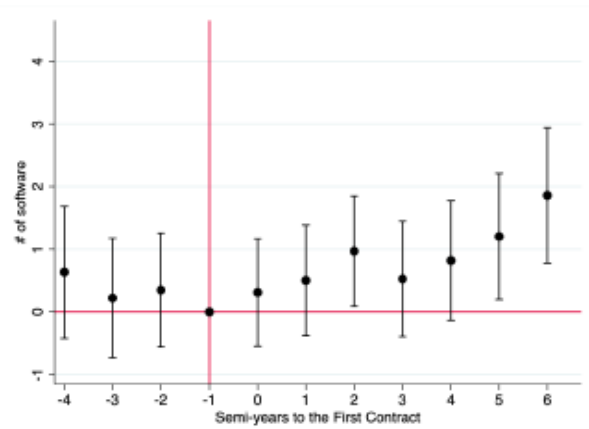

Magnitude: 2 new software products over 3 years
(20% of pre-contract software)

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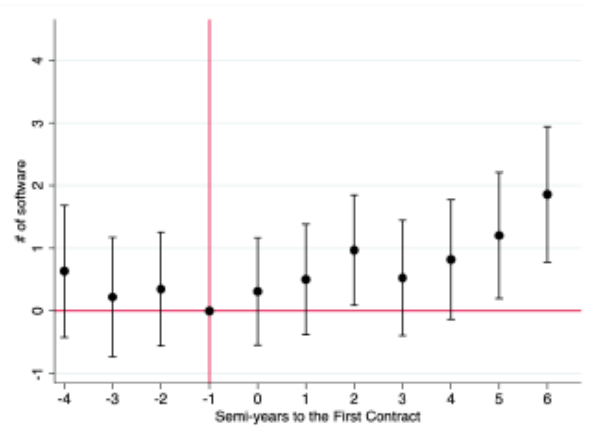
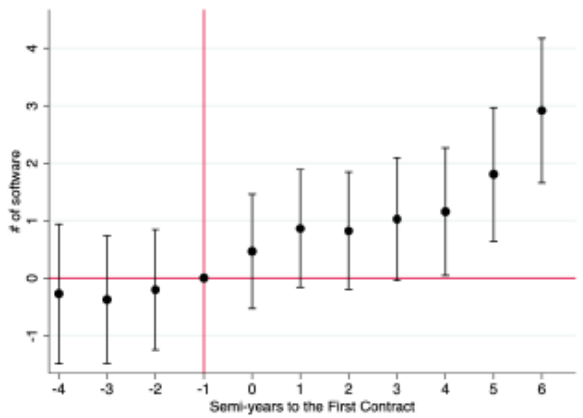


Government use cumulative software releases



Commercial innovation overcomes crowd-out of inputs by gov't

Evaluating alternative hypotheses

1. **Selection** at a given time differs by contract
   - No differential pre-contract levels/trends of software
   - Control for time-varying effects of proxies for firms' underlying productivity: index constructed from establishment year, pre-contract capitalization, pre-contract rounds of external financing, pre-contract software production

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2. **Productive benefits other than data** differ by contract
   - Value of contract; tasks of contract; market access: we control for time-varying effects of an index of non-data contract characteristics (dollar value; prefecture income; tasks coded using NLP)
   - Signaling value: examine second contracts within parent firms
   - Political value: drop Beijing/Shanghai contracts; drop firms receiving contracts in home province

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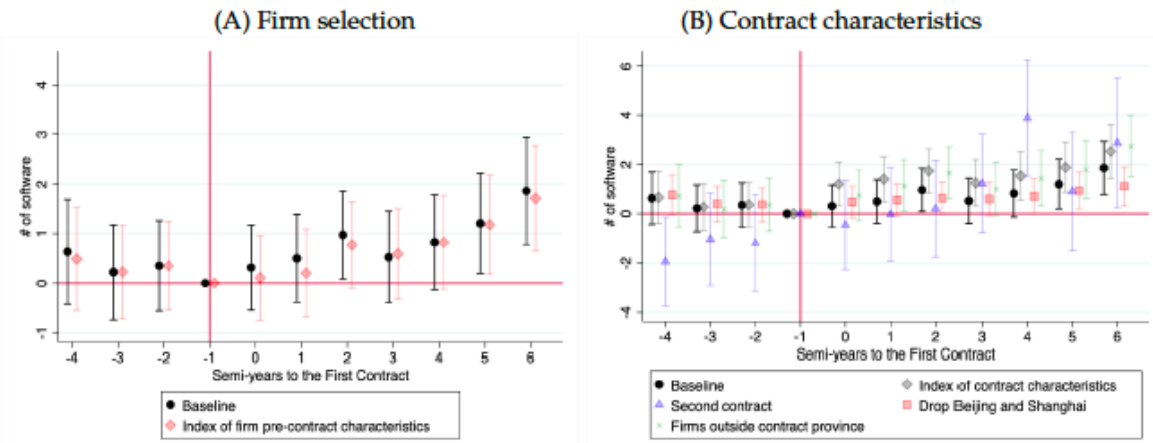
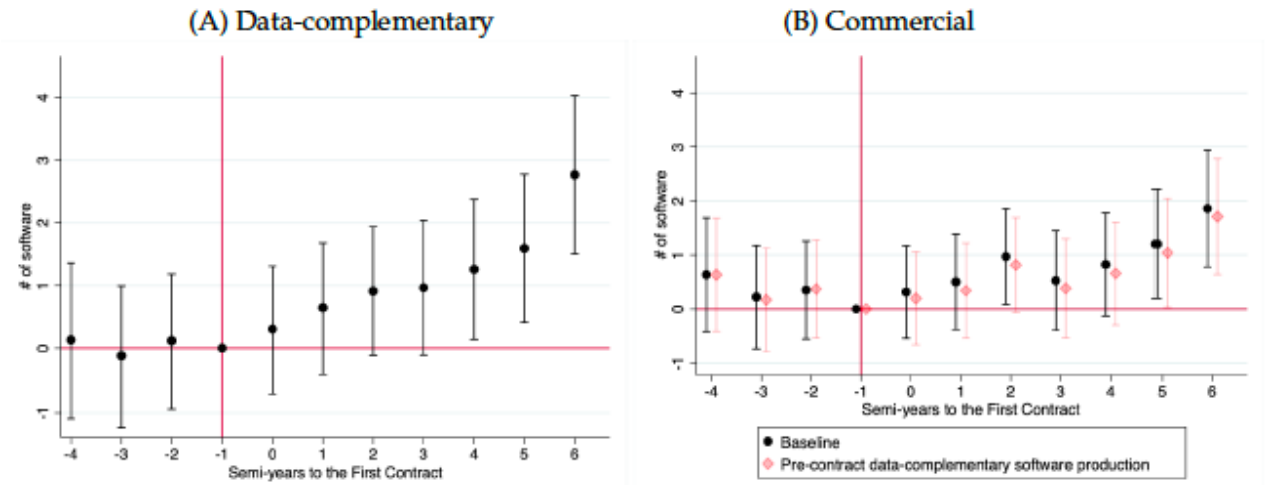


Additional evidence for our mechanism(s)

Data-complementary software (e.g., storage/transmission) differentially increases after data-rich contract (learning); but, accounting for pre-contract data-complementary software does not greatly affect our findings (sharable data and algorithms)



Contributions to literature

1. To the literature on the economics of AI and data (e.g., Aghion et al., 2017; Agrawal et al., 2018; Farboodi et al., 2019; Jones and Tonetti, 2019)
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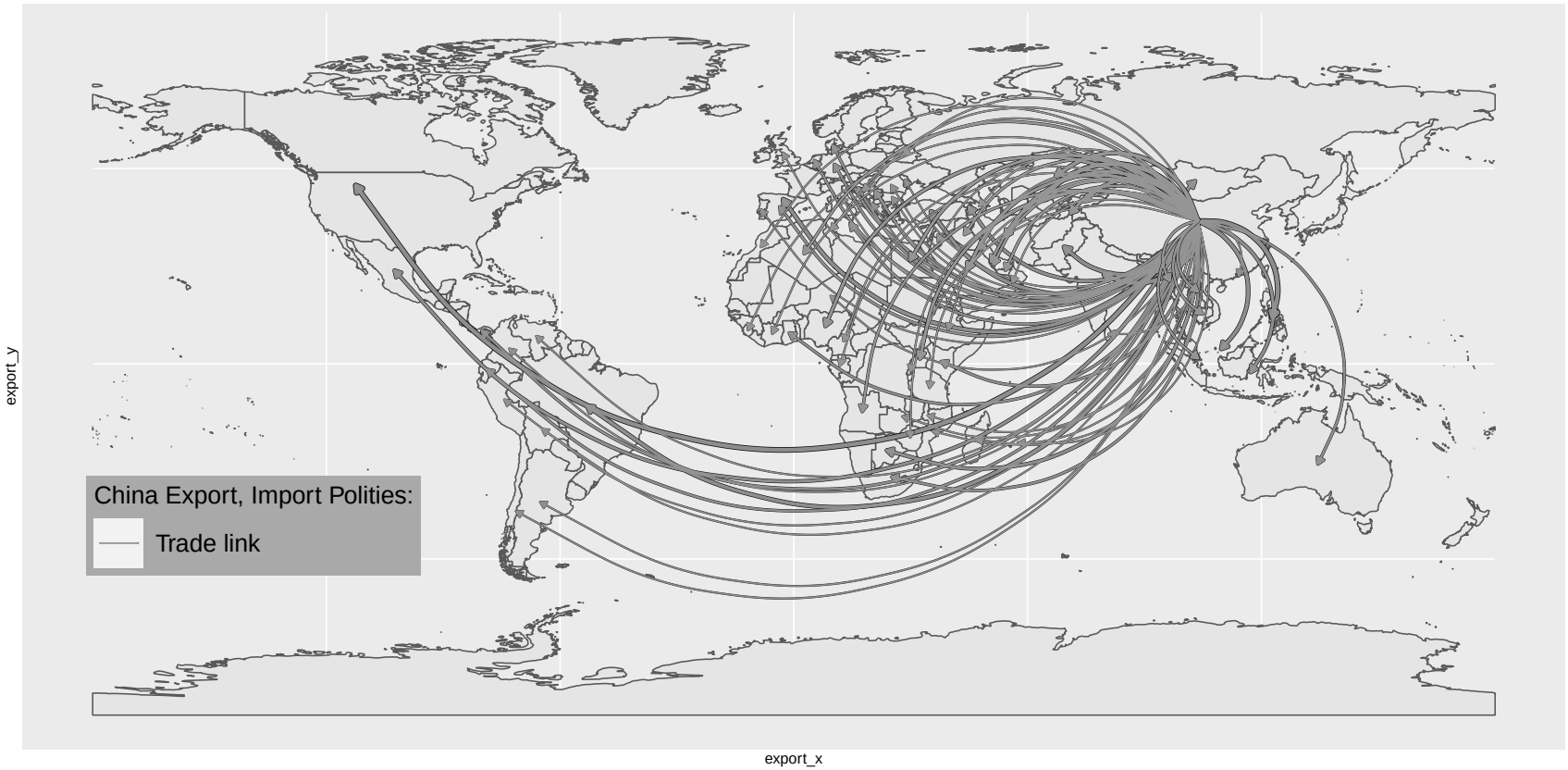
3. To the literature on the rise of China emphasizing the role of the state (e.g., Lau et al., 2000; Brandt and Rawski, 2008; Song et al., 2011)
   - Highlight the role of the **surveillance apparatus** in commercial innovation
   - *Next project:* **AI-tocracy**. Alignment between innovation and autocracy? Contrasts with e.g., North (1991); Acemoglu and Robinson (2006, 2012)

China's export of AI

Dominate global trade ($> 50\%$), different from other frontier tech



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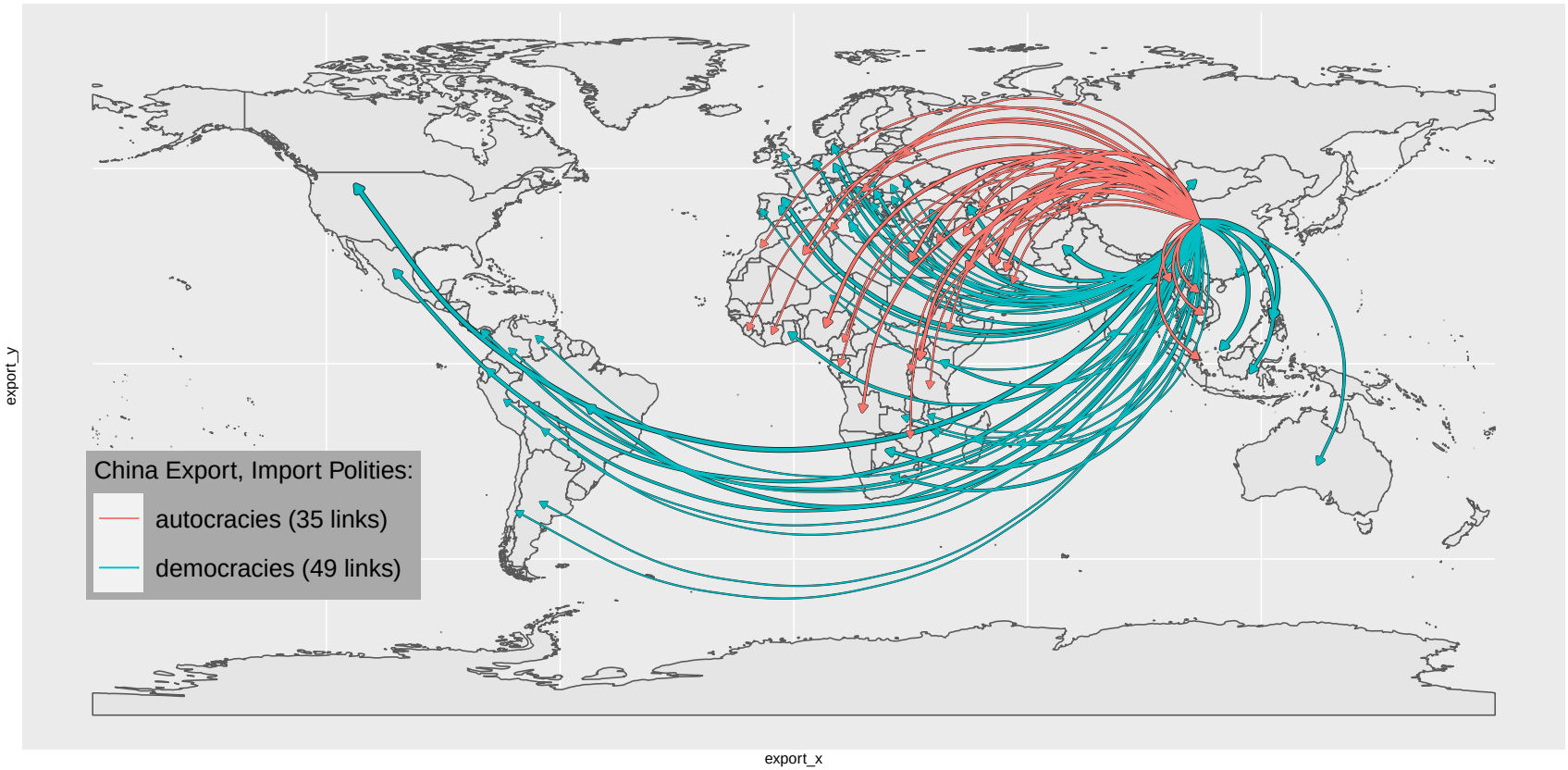
High number of autocratic destinations



US's export of AI

Much fewer links, higher share of democratic destinations