Machine Learning for Econometrics

Introduction

Anthony Strittmatter

Lecturers

- ► Bruno Crépon (CREST)
- ► Anthony Strittmatter (CREST)

Course Outline

Anthony Strittmatter

February 8

- Introduction
- ► Regularized Regression

February 9

Trees and Forests

February 22

- Double Selection Procedure
- ► Double Machine Learning

February 23

Causal Forest

Course Outline

Bruno Crépon

- ► Policy Prediction Problems
- Optimal Policy Learning
- Generic Machine Learning
- Fairness
- Aversion to algorithms
- Bandits
- Optimal Transportation

Grading

- ► Final exam
- ► Open book

References

- Mullainathan and Spiess (2017): "Machine Learning: An Applied Econometric Approach", Journal of Economic Perspectives, 31 (2), pp. 87-106, download.
- ► Athey (2019): "Beyond Prediction: Using Big Data for Policy Problems", Science, 355 (6324), pp. 483-485, download.

Introductory textbooks:

- ▶ James, Witten, Hastie, and Tibshirani (2013): "An Introduction to Statistical Learning", Springer, download.
- ► Hastie, Tibshirani, and Friedman (2009): "Elements of Statistical Learning", 2nd ed., Springer, download.

What is Machine Learning (ML)?

- ▶ ML (or statistical learning) methods exist already since decades.
- Currently "Machine Learning" is a buzz word
- Probably most people think of ML as some computational intensive methods that make data-driven modelling decisions and/or can deal with large data amounts.
- However, relevant textbooks consider even OLS/Logit as a statistical learning tool.

Purpose of Machine Learning

Consider the structural model

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon = X\beta + \epsilon,$$

with $E[\epsilon] = 0$.

- Causal analysis has the purpose to estimate $\hat{\beta}$, with $plim(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$.
- Machine learning has the purpose to predict Y.
- There is a clear link between causal analysis and machine learning, because

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(X) = X\hat{\beta}$$

is a potential predictor for Y.

▶ Parameter consistency has not the highest priority when it comes to predictions.

Potential Advantages and Disadvantages of ML

- ▶ ML methods can be very powerful to predict Y, even when $\hat{\beta}$ is biased.
- ► ML methods can incorporate many (or even high-dimensional) covariates *X* in a convenient way.
- lacktriangle ML methods can model $\hat{f}(\cdot)$ in a very flexible and data-driven way.
- ▶ Main disadvantage: ML is a black-box approach and we loose the interpretability of $\hat{f}(\cdot)$ or $\hat{\beta}$.

Causal vs. Predictive Questions

Predictive Questions:

- ► How will the oil price change tomorrow (forecasting)?
- ► How high is the current unemployment rate (nowcasting)?
- Which adolescents have a high probability of becoming addicted to drugs (policy prediction)?

Causal Questions:

- What is the effect of a tweet by president Donald Trump on oil prices?
- How does inflation affect the unemployment rate?
- Can prevention programs reduce the probability of drug addiction among high risk youths?

Assessing the Model Accuracy

Causal Analysis:

- ightharpoonup True β is unobservable.
- ► Assess the model with asymptotic properties

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\beta}-\beta) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} N(0,\sigma^2).$$

Finite sample biases are mostly neglected.

Assessing the Model Accuracy

Prediction:

- ▶ We observe *Y* for each unit (e.g. individual).
- We can assess the model accuracy directly in the sample of our analysis, for example, using the mean-squared-error (MSE)

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(Y_i-\hat{Y}_i)^2.$$

MSE accounts for finite sample biases.

Example: Prediction of Used Car Prices

- ▶ We have access to web-scraped data from the online advertisement platform *myLemons*.
- We want to predict asking prices of used cars based on observable characteristics.
- ► We observe around 40 covariates about car brand, mileage, age, emissions, maintenance certificate, seller type, guarantee, etc. (including several non-linear and interaction terms)

In-Sample MSE

- Partition data into training and test sample
- ▶ In the training sample, we estimate the empirical model

$$Y_{tr} = \hat{f}_{tr}(X_{tr}) + \hat{\epsilon}_{tr} = X_{tr}\hat{\beta}_{tr} + \hat{\epsilon}_{tr}$$

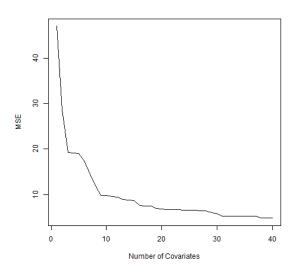
In the training sample, we predict the fitted values

$$\widehat{Y}_{tr} = \widehat{f}_{tr}(X_{tr}) = X_{tr}\widehat{\beta}_{tr}$$

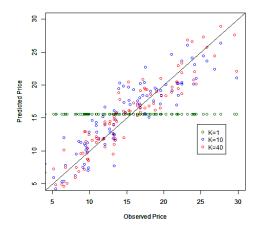
and calculate the MSE

$$\widehat{MSE}_{tr} = \frac{1}{N_{tr}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{tr}} (Y_{i,tr} - \widehat{Y}_{i,tr})^2.$$

MSE in Training Sample



Predicted Car Prices in Training Sample



Number of Covariates	1	10	40
MSE	46.948	9.819	4.866

Out-of-Sample MSE

In the training sample, we estimate the empirical model

$$Y_{tr} = \hat{f}_{tr}(X_{tr}) + \hat{\epsilon}_{tr} = X_{tr}\hat{\beta}_{tr} + \hat{\epsilon}_{tr}$$

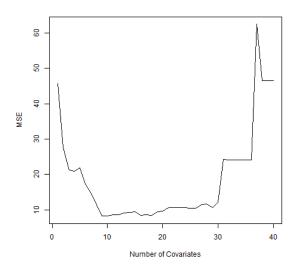
▶ In the test sample, we predict the fitted values

$$\hat{Y}_{te} = \hat{f}_{tr}(X_{te}) = X_{te}\hat{\beta}_{tr}$$

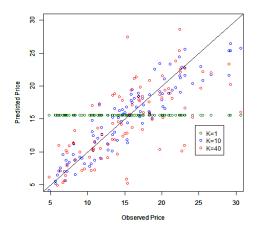
and calculate the MSE

$$\widehat{\mathit{MSE}}_{te} = \frac{1}{\mathit{N}_{te}} \sum_{i=1}^{\mathit{N}_{te}} (Y_{i,te} - \widehat{Y}_{i,te})^2.$$

MSE in Test Sample



Predicted Car Prices in Test Sample



Number of Covariates	1	10	40
MSE	45.742	8.222	46.499

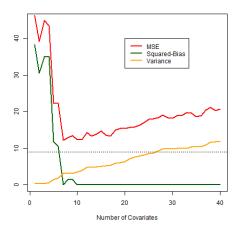
Bias-Variance Trade-Off

When we assess the model for one randomly drawn individual from the test sample with fixed characteristics x_{te}, then we can decompose the MSE to

$$\begin{split} MSE_{te} = & E[(Y_{te} - \hat{Y}_{te})^2] \\ = & E[(f(x_{te}) + \epsilon_{te} - \hat{f}_{tr}(x_{te}))^2] \\ = & \underbrace{E[(f(x_{te}) - \hat{f}_{tr}(x_{te}))^2]}_{\text{Reducible}} + \underbrace{Var(\epsilon_{te})}_{\text{Irreducible}} \\ = & \underbrace{E[f(x_{te}) - \hat{f}_{tr}(x_{te})]^2}_{\text{Squared-Bias}} + \underbrace{Var(\hat{f}_{tr}(x_{te}))}_{\text{Variance}} + Var(\epsilon_{te}) \end{split}$$

▶ For i.i.d. data, $\hat{f}_{tr}(\cdot)$ and ϵ_{te} are independent of each other.

Simulation of Bias-Variance Trade-Off



- Only the first ten covariate have an impact on car prices in the simulation.
- ▶ Horizontal dashed line is the simulated noise $Var(\epsilon_{te})$.

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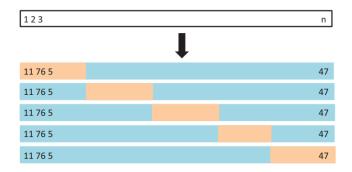
Lasso Example

$$\arg\min_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(Y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} X_{ij} \beta_j \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| \right\}$$

	OLS	Lasso
Intercept	21.246	22.776
diesel	2.075	
other_car_owner	0.730	-
pm_green	1.635	-
private_seller	6.100	0.076
guarantee	-2.440	-0.437
inspection	-0.813	-
maintenance_cert	1.481	-
mileage	-0.049	-0.031
age_car_years	-1.291	-1.012
R^2 training	0.655	0.543
R ² test	0.606	0.611

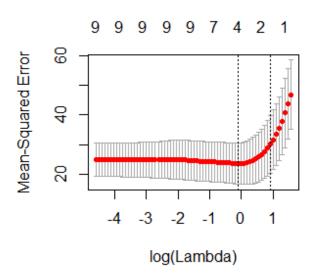
Selection of Optimal Penalty Parameter

k-fold Cross-Validation (CV) Algorithm



Source: James et al. (2013), p. 181

Cross-Validated MSE



Stability of the Lasso Model

	Lasso 1	Lasso 2	Lasso 3	Lasso 4	Lasso 5
Intercept	22.776	25.947	24.937	27.309	25.116
diesel			2.387		0.886
other_car_owner		-1.257	0.393		
pm_green	•	2.871	•	•	
private_seller	0.076	5.094	•	-1.037	
guarantee	-0.437	1.677	15.939	•	•
inspection	•	-0.666	-0.374	•	
maintenance_cert	•	-2.579	-0.868	•	
mileage	-0.031	-0.037	-0.041	-0.069	-0.062
age_car_years	-1.012	-1.347	-1.416	-0.874	-1.115

→ ML is a black-box approach

[→] We do not learn the "true" structural model from ML

Stability of the Lasso Predictions

Correlation of Predicted Car Prices in Test Sample:

0.81		
0.91	0.85	
	0.87	0.99
	0.94	0.94 0.87

Examples of Business and Economic Studies

Prediction Tasks:

- ► Chandler, Levitt, and List (2011) predict shootings among high-risk youth to target mentoring interventions.
- ► <u>Kleinberg, et al. (2018)</u> predict the crime probability of defendants released from investigative custody to improve judge decisions.

Pre-Processing Unstructured Data:

- ► Glaeser et al. (2016) use images from Google Street View to measure block-level income in New York City and Boston.
- ► Kang et al. (2013) use restaurant reviews on Yelp.com to predict the outcome of hygiene inspections.
- ► Kogan et al. (2009) predict volatility of firms from market-risk disclosure texts (annual 10-K forms).

Predictions vs. Causal Inference

- ► Outcome (e.g., earnings): Y
- ▶ Binary Treatment (e.g., participation in training program): $D \in \{0,1\}$
- Potential Outcome:
 - \triangleright Y(1) potential earnings under participation
 - \triangleright Y(0) potential earnings under non-participation
 - ightarrow Only one potential earnings can be observed
- ▶ Causal effect: $\delta = Y(1) Y(0)$
- ightarrow Predictions have the observable estimation target \widehat{Y}
- ightarrow Causal inference has the (partly) unobservable estimation target $\widehat{\delta}$

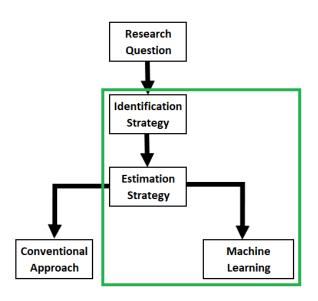
Training of ML Algorithms

Out-of-Sample Mean-Squared-Error (MSE):

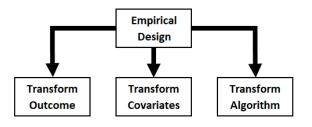
$$MSE_{\hat{\delta}} = E\left[(\hat{\delta} - \delta)^2\right] = \underbrace{E\left[(\hat{\delta} - E[\hat{\delta}])^2\right]}_{\text{Variance}} + \underbrace{E[\hat{\delta} - \delta]^2}_{\text{Squared Bias}}$$

 $ightarrow \delta$ is unobservable

Research Design



Causal Machine Learning (CML) Designs



 \Rightarrow Knaus, Lechner, Strittmatter (2018) provide a comparison of all designs.

Four potential applications of CML:

- Account for (very) many instruments in IV or Heckit approach (prediction problem, issues with inference).
 References:
 - ▶ Belloni, Chen, Chernozhukov, and Hansen (2012)
 - ► Hansen and Kozbur (2014)
- Account for confounders, e.g., in matching, IV, or difference-in-difference approaches:
 - ► ML enables the incorporation of (very) many covariates which can make the exclusion restriction more credible.
 - ► Some ML approaches make little functional form assumptions.

Reference:

► Chernozhukov et al. (2017)

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- 3. Heterogeneous effects:
 - Principled approach makes it less likely to overlook important heterogeneity.
 - Problems: Issues with interpretability and works only for the low-dimensional case.

References:

- ► Wager and Athey (2018)
- ► Chernozhukov, Demirer, Duflo, and Fernéndez-Val (2018)
- 4. Optimal policy rules (e.g. Bandits):
 - ► Focus on the (discrete) treatment decision instead on the effect size.

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Limitations of Causal Machine Learning (CML)

- ML algorithms cannot distinguish between causation and correlation.
 - ightarrow CML will not select the relevant causal parameters automatically.
 - \rightarrow We have to provide some structure to the CML algorithm.
- ► CML can estimate causal effects only for a few (usually only one) endogenous variables.
 - \rightarrow We will not obtain the (complete) structural model.
- Identifying assumptions do not change, no matter if we use ML or conventional methods.
- We should resist the temptation to interpret prediction models in a causal way.

Applications of CML Methods

- ▶ Davis and Heller (2017) investigate the effects of summer jobs on the probability to commit a violent crime.
- ► Taddy et al. (2016) investigate the heterogeneous effects of A/B-experiments in online-auctions (EBay) on customer responses (experimental study).
- Bertrand et al. (2017) and Knaus, Lechner, and Strittmatter (2020) estimate heterogeneous employment effects of training programmes for unemployed persons.

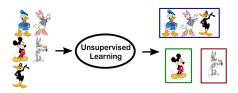
Supervised vs. Unsupervised Machine Learning

Supervised Machine Learning:

- We observe data on Y and X and want to learn the mapping $\widehat{Y} = \widehat{f}(X)$
- lacktriangle Classification when \widehat{Y} is discrete, regression when \widehat{Y} is continuous

Unsupervised Machine Learning:

- We observe only data on X and want to learn something about its structure
- Clustering: Partition data into homogeneous groups based on X



Principal component analysis