

1. The first two models I explored in the coding exercise were multivariable linear regression models. Model 1 incorporated a few handpicked predictors that I initially thought would be important predictors of low birthweight. In particular, I felt that the mother's age, as well as substance use during pregnancy, would have strong relationships with low birthweight, so I chose to incorporate age, tobacco use, and alcohol use as predictors. In contrast, model 2 incorporates all variables of the data besides the mother's race. As models 1 and 2 are constructed by least-squares linear regression, they choose optimal coefficients that minimize in-sample mean squared error.

```
> summary(mod1)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = lbw ~ P_mom_age + P_mom_use_tobacco + P_mom_use_alcohol,
    data = training)
```

Residuals:

```
      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-0.16773 -0.08379 -0.08146 -0.07951  0.92710
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	0.0923450	0.0092863	9.944	< 2e-16 ***
P_mom_age	-0.0003889	0.0003247	-1.198	0.231
P_mom_use_tobacco	0.0532926	0.0071192	7.486	7.41e-14 ***
P_mom_use_alcohol	0.0294813	0.0357219	0.825	0.409

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Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.2803 on 19996 degrees of freedom  
Multiple R-squared: 0.003063, Adjusted R-squared: 0.002914  
F-statistic: 20.48 on 3 and 19996 DF, p-value: 3.025e-13

```
> summary(mod2)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = reformulate(exclude_race, "lbw"))
```

	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
1	-0.10263	-0.06500	-0.03416	1.26050

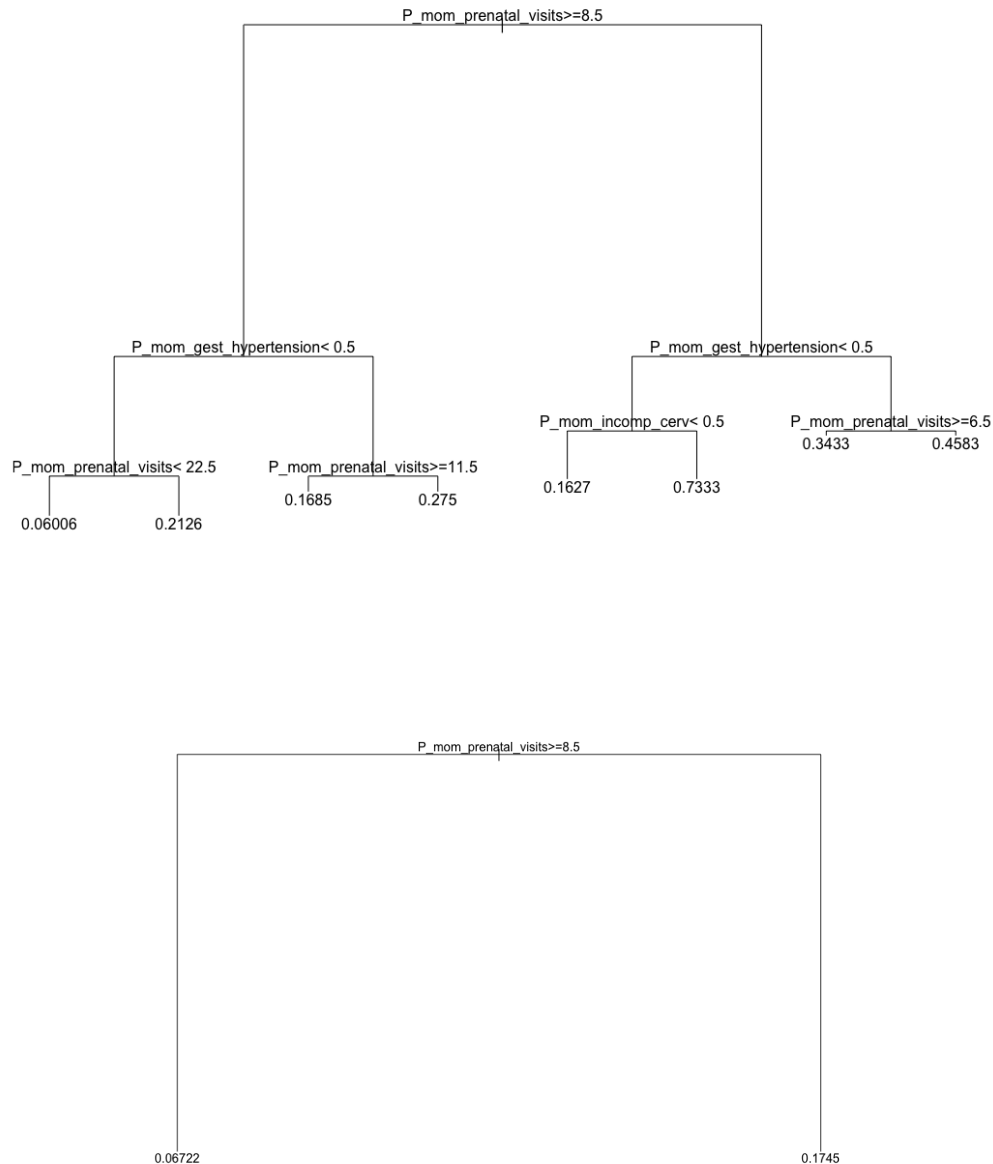
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	3.660e-02	1.069e-01	0.342	0.732034
per_capita	-4.429e-03	1.986e-03	-2.230	0.025736 *
female	1.080e-02	3.863e-03	2.796	0.005179 **
age	2.914e-04	3.568e-04	0.817	0.414034
race_white	-2.968e-02	4.970e-03	-5.973	2.37e-09 ***
prior_live	-5.714e-03	1.771e-03	-3.227	0.001253 ***
prior_still	4.550e-02	1.206e-02	3.772	0.000162 ***
prior_term	4.231e-03	2.392e-03	1.769	0.076931 .
wt_gain	-1.500e-03	1.435e-04	-10.455	< 2e-16 ***
prenatal_visits	-5.537e-03	5.035e-04	-10.997	< 2e-16 ***
use_tobacco	4.375e-02	7.118e-03	6.147	8.03e-10 ***
use_alcohol	3.997e-02	3.479e-02	1.149	0.250536
rs_educ	-1.499e-05	2.282e-04	-0.066	0.947618
test_hypertension	1.562e-01	1.001e-02	15.604	< 2e-16 ***
previous_preterm	1.503e-01	2.009e-02	7.484	7.52e-14 ***
other_risk	5.037e-02	4.624e-03	10.894	< 2e-16 ***
incomp_cerv	3.199e-01	3.452e-02	9.268	< 2e-16 ***
rev_4000g	-5.087e-02	1.967e-02	-2.586	0.009722 **
hydramnios	1.229e-01	1.533e-02	8.020	1.12e-15 ***
clampsia	2.493e-01	3.284e-02	7.590	3.34e-14 ***
chronic_hypertension	1.068e-01	1.934e-02	5.524	3.35e-08 ***
y_share_white	1.507e-01	8.488e-02	1.775	0.075850 .
y_share_black	1.698e-01	7.675e-02	2.212	0.026986 *
y_share_hisp	1.333e-01	8.073e-02	1.651	0.098734 .
y_share_asian	7.401e-02	1.403e-01	0.527	0.597901
y_math_testscores	-1.093e-02	4.607e-03	-2.373	0.017633 *
y_rent_2br	-1.233e-06	1.209e-05	-0.102	0.918794
y_singleparent	1.183e-02	4.784e-02	0.247	0.804735
y_mail_returnrate	5.672e-04	8.350e-04	0.679	0.496952
y_wagegrowth_hs_grad	-8.854e-03	3.505e-02	-0.253	0.800595
y_jobgrowth	5.251e-02	2.332e-01	0.225	0.821826
y_job_density	-4.280e-07	4.925e-07	-0.869	0.384843

codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Figures 1 & 2: Summaries of linear regression models.

The next two models I explored were both decision trees. From the significance levels of all predictors (Figure 2), I chose hypertension, frequency of prenatal visits, and cervix incompetency as significant predictors to incorporate in model 3. I felt these variables could plausibly have causal relationships with low birthweights, so I chose to explore these in a decision tree. In contrast, model 4 is a decision tree that incorporated all predictors other than

race. As opposed to linear regression, decision trees work by considering a series of splits. At each tree split, the model selects the best predictor, or the predictor with the greatest predictive power of the outcome variable, and splits the data based on its values of the predictor. Then, at each successive split, this process is repeated until maximum tree depth is reached.

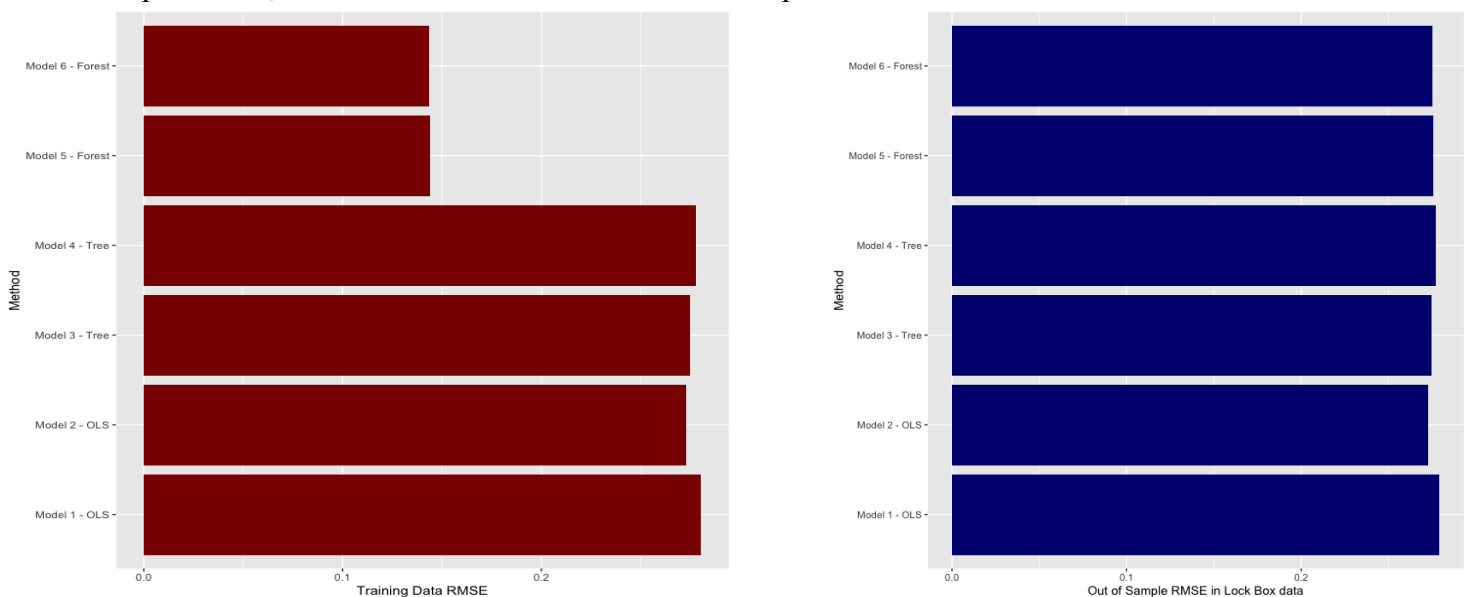


*Figures 3 & 4: Plots of decision tree models 3 (top) and 4 (bottom).*

For example, the decision tree displayed in figure 4 splits the data based on whether or not the number of prenatal visits is at least 8.5. The model then predicts the probability of low birth weight to be about 0.067 for observations with at least 8.5 prenatal visits and about 0.175 for observations with less than 8.5 prenatal visits.

My last two models were random forests, which are essentially large groups of decision trees that each consider a random set of predictors. Model 5 excludes race as a potential predictor, while model 6 incorporates every potential predictor of the dataset. I obtained the optimal tuning parameters by minimizing lockbox RMSE through trial-and-error.

2. The criterion I used to select my ideal model was out-of-sample RMSE. I chose to look at out-of-sample, rather than in-sample, RMSE because I would want to know how a model would perform on data it hasn't seen before. Model 2, a linear regression including all non-race predictors, resulted in the lowest test/lockbox sample RMSE.



*Figures 5 & 6: Plots of training RMSE (left) and testing RMSE (right) across all models.*

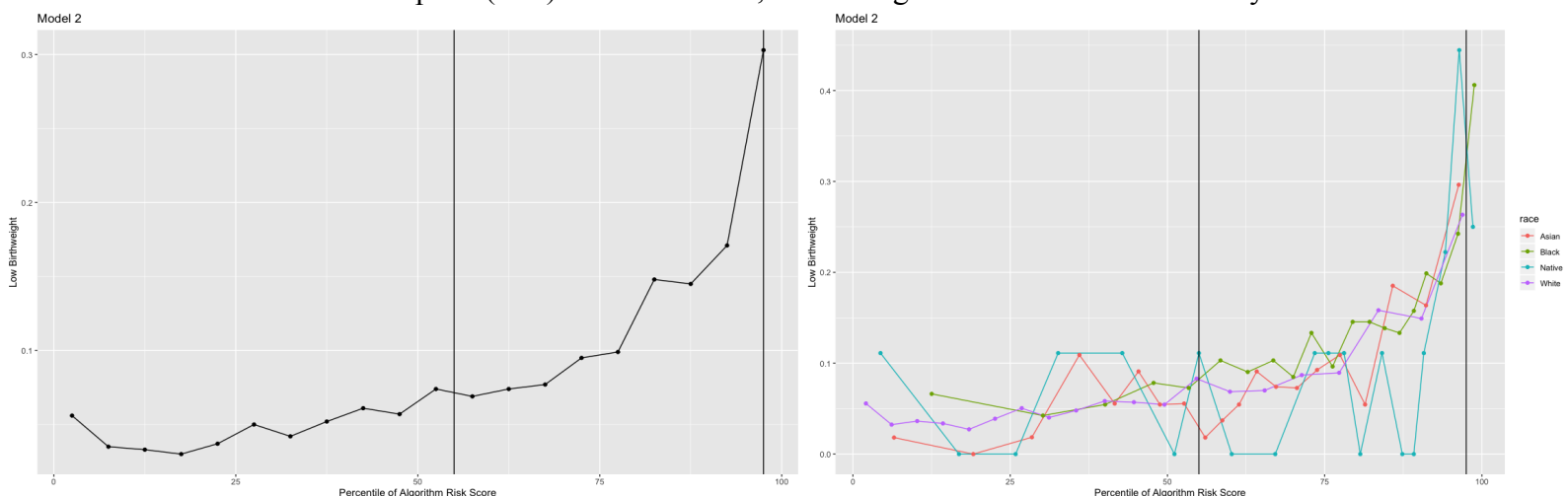
3. Across both random forest models, the three most important predictors were the number of prenatal visits, the proportion of white residents in the county, and whether or not the mother had gestational hypertension.



will benefit the most from the program”, and this key assumption makes the allocation problem a prediction policy problem (Ibid).

6. A model’s “label” is what the model predicts based on observed data. Following the greatest care needs assumption for resource allocation, an ideal label for this scenario would be need for medical care. However, this is not a quantifiable variable, so need is an infeasible label. Instead of directly using need as a label, health plans could feasibly use low birthweight as a proxy for need. Because birth weight is observable and correlates strongly with future development and life expectancy, it serves as a useful label. In addition, health plans must consider whether or not their selected labels add bias to the algorithm, and I would not expect birthweight to be biased by race.

7. At the same predicted risk score, a black mother is more likely than a white mother is to have a baby with low birth weight on average. This result confirms the trends shown in graphs 1a and 3a: despite algorithms predicting the same risk across races, black patients are much more likely to have a higher number of chronic illnesses (1a) as well as higher medical costs (3a) than their white counterparts (Ibid). In other words, current algorithms tend to be biased by race.



*Figures 9 & 10: Binned plots of predicted risk against low birth weight prevalence for all groups (left) and stratified by race (right).*

**8.** The model's eligible population is composed of about 60% white patients, 33% black patients, 6% Asian patients, and 2% Native American patients. Out of the eligible white patients, 506 had low-weight births, compared to 304 for black patients, 45 for Asian patients, and 11 for Native American patients.

**9.** Involving humans in the decision making process can be helpful to a certain extent. As machines cannot recognize the biases of their own models, it is essential that the humans designing these models can recognize and appropriately adjust for algorithmic bias. However, humans themselves frequently have preconceived notions especially when it comes to race. Studies like the Implicit Association Test suggest that improper human involvement could actually worsen the racial bias dilemma. In order for an algorithm to maintain a high level of predictive power without significantly favoring one group over another, there must be a happy medium between blind machine computation and complete human involvement.

**10.** I would suggest a regression discontinuity research design to assess whether or not there is a significant difference in outcomes between patients who are eligible and patients who are not eligible for the program. Regression discontinuity design is useful for testing differences in subjects on either side of a certain treatment threshold - in this case, the top 25% risk score cutoff.