Big Data for Public Policy

8. Machine Learning for Econometrics

Elliott Ash & Malka Guillot

Where we are

- Past weeks:
 - w1: Overview and motivation
 - w2: Finding datastests using webcrawling and API
 - w3: Intro to supervised Machine Learning (ML) regressions
 - w4: Text analysis fundamentals
 - w5: Supervised learning classifications
 - w6: Unsupervised ML
 - w7: ensemble explanations [Ash]
- This week (w8):
 - econometrics and ML [Guillot]
- Next (last):
 - w9: Al policies [Ash]

Outline

Introduction

Double ML

Heterogeneous Treatment Effect

Synthetic Control Method

Wrap-up

Machine Learning and Public Policy Evaluation

2 competing Approaches:

- starting from models
- starting from data
 - Anwser question about the world using observational data "our goal as a field is to use data to solve problems" Breiman (2001)
 - The goal of social-science research with big data is the same as other social-science research:
 - provide credible tests of social-science hypotheses
 - estimate policy parameters to inform policymakers

How machine learning can be applied in research designs targeting public policy analysis?

Context: Machine Learning vs. Causal Inference

ML strength and weakeness:

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- Allow for nonlinearities
- Can deal well with large nb of variables
- Unstable estimation of parameters

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Causal inference approach:

- Causality: what identifies the causal parameters of interest?
- Statistics: how to estimate the identified target parameters the "best way"?

For policy analysis **both prediction and inference** are important.

- 1. pre-processing
- 2. prediction in policy
- 3. prediction in the service of estimation

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Folgerung

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 - Double MLHeterogenous treatment effectSynthetic control method

Model for Causal Inference

- Causal question: we want to know what would happen if a policy-maker changes a policy
 - E.g. increase minimum wage, raise a price, administer a drug
 - Fundamental pb of causal inference:
 - we do not see the same unit at the same time with alternative counterfactual policies
- \rightarrow Expressing some inference tasks as prediction problems

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- → Expressing some inference tasks as prediction problems
 - Potential Oucome Framework
 - Rubin causal model
 - Y(w) = the outcome the treatment w
 - For binary treatment, treatment effect is $\tau = Y(1) Y(0)$
 - We also observe X_i, individual characteristics not affected by the treatment w

General References

- Textbook treatment of causal inference methods: Imbens and Rubin (2015)
- Lecture notes for Machine Learning for Econometrics, by L'Hour and Gaillac
- Athey and Imbens (2019). Machine learning methods that economists should know about. Annual Review of Economics, 11.
- Mullainathan and Spiess (2017). Machine learning: An applied econometric approach. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 31(2):87-106.

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Double Machine Learning: Motivation

ML models perform well for prediction tasks, but it does not necessarly translate into good performance for estimation of causal parameters

→ Double ML aims to construct high-quality estimates for causal parameteres

<u>Idea</u>: **solving 2 prediction problems**, and using the results to construct the estimate of the low dimensional parameter

Chernozhukov, Chetverikov, Duflo, Hansen, Demirer, and Newey (2017)

$$Y = \theta T + g(X) + \epsilon$$

- Y outcome variable
- T: low-dimensional treatment
- ullet target parameter of interest
- g(.) unkown, complicated function
- X: high-dimensional set of (observed) confounders

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- X: high-dimensional set of (observed) confounders
- Confounders s.t. $T = m(X) + \eta$, $E(\eta | X) = 0$.
- Because of confounders $\hat{Y} = \hat{\theta} T + \hat{g}(X)$ will be biased.

How to use modern ML techniques to estimate g(.) and carry out inference about low-dimensional θ ?

1. using any ML method, predict:

1.1 Y given X: $\hat{Y}(X)$

1.2 T given X: $\hat{T}(X)$

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• Sample split:

- Run (1) on sample a, then run (2) and (3) on sample b, to estimate $\hat{\theta}_a$
- and vice versa (run (1) on sample b, and (2/3) on sample a), to learn a second estimate for $\hat{\theta}_b$.

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 - Cross-fitting
 - average them to get a more efficient estimator: $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{\theta}_a + \hat{\theta}_b)$.
- \rightarrow cf. cross-validation in ML

Empirical Application: Job Training Program

Bléhaut, D'Haultfœuille, L'Hour, and Tsybakov (2017).

- Revisit Lalonde (1986) evaluation of the impact of the National Supported Work (NSW) program:
 - transitional, subsidized work experience program targeted towards people with longstanding employment problems
- Treated group: people who were randomly assigned to this program from the population at risk $(n_1 = 185)$.
- Take advantage of the **2 possible control groups**:
 - 1. experimental data from a RCT ($n_0 = 269$)
 - 2. survey data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) (sample size $n_0 = 2490$).

Treatment Effect on LaLonde (1986)

- 172 variables:
 - age, education, black, hispanic, married, no degree, income in 1974 and in 1975, no earnings in 1974 and in 1975
 - 2x2 interactions between dummies &
 - continous variables; up to a 5 order polynomial in the continuous variables
- Continuous variables are linearly rescaled to [0,1].

	Estimator:		
	Experimental	Cross-fitting	Cross-fitting w. 20 partitions
	(1)	(2)	(3)
OLS	1,794 (633)		
Lasso	,	2,305 (676)	2,403 (685)
Random Forest		7,509 (6,711)	1,732 (1,953)

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- In Bléhault et al.:
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 - Random forests performs poorly and standard-erros are very high
- \rightarrow Test several ML algorithms when possible
- $\rightarrow\,$ Consider many data splits so the results do not depend so much on the partitions.

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- How can the government design a policy under budget constraint?
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- Government wants to
 - Determine a fixed allocation of treatment resources to a target population,
 - While maximizing the population mean outcome
- ightarrow Identify the populations that benefit the most/the least from the treatment, in order to maximize the social welfare
 - Objective: estimating optimal policy assignments

Heterogeneous Treatment Effects

- ML can be useful for uncovering treatment effect heterogeneity
 - Where we focus on heterogeneity with respect to observable covariates.
- Which individuals benefit most from a treatment? For which individuals is the treatment effect positive?

Adaptation of the Rubin Causal Model

- Y_i(w) = the outcome the treatment w would have had if assigned to unit i
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- In this framework, τ_i can be different for each unit i
- $\rightarrow \ \ \text{Heterogeneous treatment effects}$

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- In this framework, τ_i can be different for each unit i
- ightarrow Heterogeneous treatment effects
 - Fundamental problem of causal inference: we never observe both $Y_i(0)$ and $Y_i(1)$ for the same individual.
- \rightarrow cannot directly use ML methods to estimate τ_i .

Conditional Average Treatment Effect (CATE)

Under the assumption of selection on the observables [i.e. all variation in treatment is random once the covariates X are fixed]

$$\tau(\mathbf{x}) = E[Y(1)|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] - E[Y(0)|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$$

= $\mu_1(\mathbf{x}) - \mu_0(\mathbf{x})$ (1)

If $\tau(.)$ is estimated by using separate ML estimations of $\mu_1(.)$ and $\mu_0(.)$, the estimation bias can accumulate

 \rightarrow ML solution to jointly estimate $\mu_1(.)$ and $\mu_0(.)$

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- It does not solve the statistical problem
- ightarrow data-driven approach avoiding strong modelling assumption

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- Causal trees make sure each leaf has at least k observations from both treated and non-treated groups
- → **Causal forests** are random forests for treatment effect estimation

Application: Davis and Heller (2017) [Context]

- Estimate the benefits from two youth employment program in Chicago
- 2 Randomized Control Trials (RCTs): same summer job program in 2012 and 2013
 - Sample sizes: 1,634 and 5,216 observations
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- The program
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- The program
 - provides disadvantaged youth aged 14-22 with 25 hrs/week of employment and an adult mentor.
 - Participants are paid at Chicago's minimum wage.
- 2 outcomes:
 - · violent-crime arrests within two years of random assignment
 - an indicator for ever being employed during the six quarters after the program.

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- 6. repeat previous steps 25,000 times
- 7. Compute the average prediction for each obseration across trees = CATE

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 - bigger leaves make results more consistent across different samples but predict less heterogeneity
- the subsample size
 - smaller subsamples reduce dependence across trees but increase the variance of each estimate

<u>Question</u>: if we divide the sample into a group predicted to respond positively to the program and one that is not, would we successfully **identify youth with larger treatment effects**?

i.e. standard subgroup analysis, but with **subgroups determined by the high-dimensional combination** of covariates captured

Test this by:

- Split the sample in 2 halves: S_{in} and S_{out}
- Run step 1 on S_{in} , use the model on S_{out}
- Group youth by whether they are predicted to have a positive or negative treatment effect
- regressing each outcome on the group indicator and covariates

Application: Davis and Heller (2017) [Results]

	No. of	
	violent	
	crime	Any formal
Subgroup	arrests	employment
Panel A. In sample		
$\hat{\tau}_i^{CF}(x) > 0$	0.22	0.19
	(0.05)	(0.03)
$\hat{\tau}_i^{CF}(x) < 0$	-0.05	-0.14
	(0.02)	(0.03)
H_0 : subgroups equal, $p =$	0.00	0.00
Panel B. Out of sample		
$\hat{\tau}_i^{CF}(x) > 0$	-0.01	0.08
	(0.05)	(0.03)
$\hat{\tau}_i^{CF}(x) < 0$	-0.02	-0.01
	(0.02)	(0.03)
H_0 : subgroups equal, $p =$	0.77	0.02
0 6 1 -1		

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Seminal papers:

- Abadie and Gardeazabal (2003), American Economic Review
- Abadie, Diamond, Hainmueller (2010), *Journal of American* Statistical Association

Matching / Synthetic Control

- Matching: use covariates to find matching individuals
- **Synthetic control**: construct a synthetic "match" from a weighted average of other individuals (based on covariates).
- Note:
 - Equivalent to controlling for many observed confounders.
- Can imagine the text documents associated with individual or groups as a set of covariates for matching
 - e.g., text features from the criminal history of each defendant.

Carbon Tax in Sweden

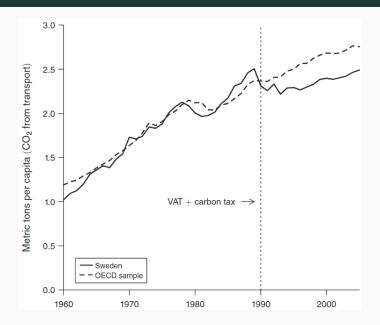
J. J. Andersson, 2019, "Carbon Taxes and CO2 Emissions: Sweden as a Case Study", *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy* 2019, 11(4): 1-3

Research question: What is the impact of carbon taxation on CO2 emission?

Method: construct a "synthetic Sweden" using SCM

Natural experiment: introduction of a carbon tax and a value-added tax on transport fuel in Sweden (1990)

Carbon Tax in Sweden



Carbon Tax in Sweden - Results

In 2005, carbon emissions are 12.5% smaller thanks to carbon taxation

Total reduction of emission for 1990-2005: 2.5Mt CO2/year in avg.(ATE), 40Mt CO2 in total.

Why not a Difference-in-Differences strategy?

DiD is good for eliminating the influence of inobservables using the difference between pre and post treatment

Assumption:

- Effects of inobservable do not vary with time
- Every macroeconomic shock is common to treatment and counterfactual
- \rightarrow Parallel trend assumption
- \rightarrow Not easy to check

SCM Intuition

SCM solves 2 pbs: the difficulties to

- check the parallel trend assumption
- find a suitable control unit whose characteristics are close to the treated unit
- ightarrow the method combines control unit to build a counterfactual

J+1 units (or regions) and T periods:

- ullet Only region 1 is treated from period \mathcal{T}_0 onward
- Unit i = 2, ..., J + 1 = donor pool

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Potential outcome framework:

- $Y_{i,t}(0)$: the potential outcome for unit i at time t if it is not treated
- $Y_{i,t}(1)$: the potential outcome for i if it is exposed to the intervention

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Potential outcome framework:

- $Y_{i,t}(0)$: the potential outcome for unit i at time t if it is not treated
- $Y_{i,t}(1)$: the potential outcome for i if it is exposed to the intervention
- We observe exposure to the treatment $D_{i,t}$ and the realized outcome $Y_{i,t}^{obs}$ defined by:

$$Y_{i,t}^{obs} = Y_{i,t}(D_{i,t}) = \begin{cases} Y_{i,t}(0) & \text{if } D_{i,t} = 0 \\ Y_{i,t}(1) & \text{if } D_{i,t} = 1 \end{cases}$$

Quantity of interest:

$$\tau_t = Y_{1,t}(1) - Y_{1,t}(0) \text{ for } t \in \{T_0, ..., T\}$$

Objective: estimate the effect of the intervention on unit 1 for $t \in \{T_0, ..., T\}$

 $\overline{\text{Asumption}}$: the outcome variable in non treated regions is not impacted byt the treatment in the treated region \to no interference

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Solution:

$$\hat{\tau}_t = Y_{1,t}(1) - \sum_{j=2}^{J+1} w_j^* Y_{j,t} \text{ for } t \in \{T_0, ..., T\}$$

A Practical Note

In most papers:

- Time dimension:
 - T is relatively large
 - ullet Different than in panel data where many treated units but small T (usually < 12)
- Unit of interest: a city, a region or even a country

Why does it work?

Suppose the outcome under no-treatment is given by the model:

$$Y_{1,t}(0) = \delta_t + Z_i'\theta_t + \lambda_t'\mu_i + \epsilon_{i,t}$$

- δ_t is a time fixed-effect,
- θ_t is a vector of time-varying parameters,
- Z_i are observed covariates,
- ullet λ_t are unobserved common factors of dimension F ,
- μ_i are unobserved factors loadings (dimension F) and
- $\epsilon_{i,t}$ are unobserved transitory shocks.

This is a factor model:

ullet think of λ_t as the underlying macroeconomic dynamics that affect differently each unit through μ_i .

Why does it work?

Consider
$$W=(w_2,...,w_{J+1})$$
 such that $w_j>0 \ \forall j$ and $w_2+...+w_{J+1}=1$

Then

$$\sum_{j=2}^{J+1} w_j Y_{j,t} = \delta_t + \theta_j \sum_{j=2}^{J+1} w_j Z_j' + \lambda_t \sum_{j=2}^{J+1} w_j \mu_j + \sum_{j=2}^{J+1} w_j \epsilon_{j,t}$$

If we can find $(w_2^*,...,w_{J+1}^*)$ such that

(a)
$$\forall t \{1,...,T_0\}, \sum_{j=2}^{J+1} w_j^* Y_{j,t} = Y_{1,t}$$

(b)
$$\sum_{j=2}^{J+1} w_j^* Z_j = Z_1$$

(c) and some other conditions are satisfied

Then
$$\forall t \{1,...,T_0\}, \; \sum_{j=2}^{J+1} w_j^* Y_{j,t} \approx Y_{1,t}(0)$$

Return to Andersson (2019) - Synthetic Sweden

A unit comparable to Sweden made of a combination of countries, with the following **pre-treatment** features:

- with no carbon tax [not treated]
- that look like Sweeden on a number of variables explaining the outcome (Z_i)
- With trends and levels in CO2 emissions close to that of Sweden

Andersson (2019) - Donor pool

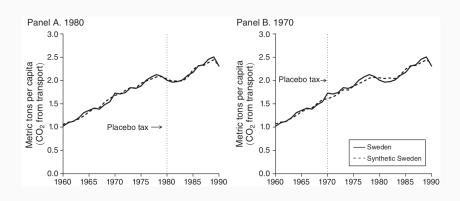
25 OECD countries, less:

- Countries with a carbon tax: Finalande, Norway, the Netherlands
- Countries with reforms of fuel tax: Germany, Italy, UK
- Countries subject to "fuel tourism": Luxembourg, , Austria, Turkey
- Countries too different to Sweden: Irland and Turkey

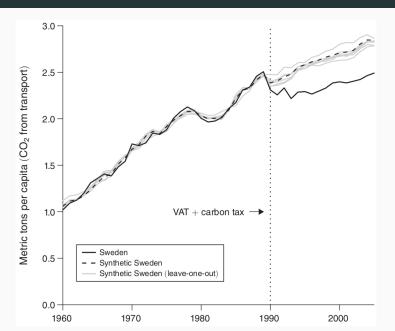
Andersson (2019) - Variables Mean before Treatment

Variables	Sweden	Synth. Sweden	OECD sample
GDP per capita	20,121.5	20,121.2	21,277.8
Motor vehicles (per 1,000 people)	405.6	406.2	517.5
Gasoline consumption per capita	456.2	406.8	678.9
Urban population	83.1	83.1	74.1
CO ₂ from transport per capita 1989	2.5	2.5	3.5
CO ₂ from transport per capita 1980	2.0	2.0	3.2
CO ₂ from transport per capita 1970	1.7	1.7	2.8

Inference: in-time Placebo test



Robustness check: Leave-on-out test



Conclusion on SCM

- The construction of the counterfactual is transparent
- Very useful when it is hard to find a counterfactual
- More general than DiD:
 - several weighted controls
 - relax the parallel trend assumption
 - · allows effects of inobservables to vary across time
- Easy implementation using Stata and R package [cf. synth package]



More References on SCM

- Original papers that developed the method:
 - Abadie and Gardeazabal (2003); Abadie et al. (2010, 2015).
- Clear and concise presentation:
 - Abadie and Cattaneo (2018)
- Research frontier reviewed by:
 - Athey and Imbens (2017). Angrist and Pischke (2010)
- Some applications:
 - taxation and migration of football players (Kleven et al., 2013),
 - immigration (Bohn et al., 2014),
 - health policy (Hackmann et al., 2015);
 - minimum wage (Allegretto et al., 2013),
 - regional policies (Gobillon and Magnac, 2016);
 - prostitution laws (Cunningham and Shah, 2017),
 - financial value of connections to policy-makers (Acemoglu et al., 2016),

Outline

Introduction

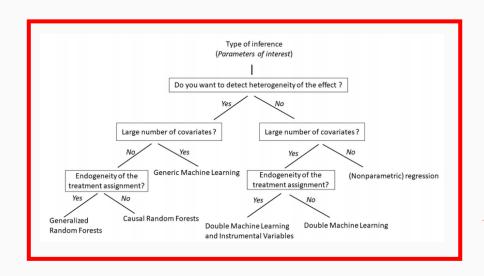
Double ML

Heterogeneous Treatment Effect

Synthetic Control Method

Wrap-up

Road-map



Wrap-up

1. Double Machine Learning and sample-splitting:

- deals with high-dimensional features
- Any ML algorithm, cross-fitting
- 2. Heterogenous treatment effects
 - inference about features of the conditional average treatment effect
 - Causal random forest
- 3. Synthetic control method:
 - an inherently high-dimensional tool particularly useful for policy evaluation with aggregate data

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