

# Quant II

## Lab 2: Regression

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# Today's plan

- Regression
- Effective samples
- Causal inference from a machine learning perspective

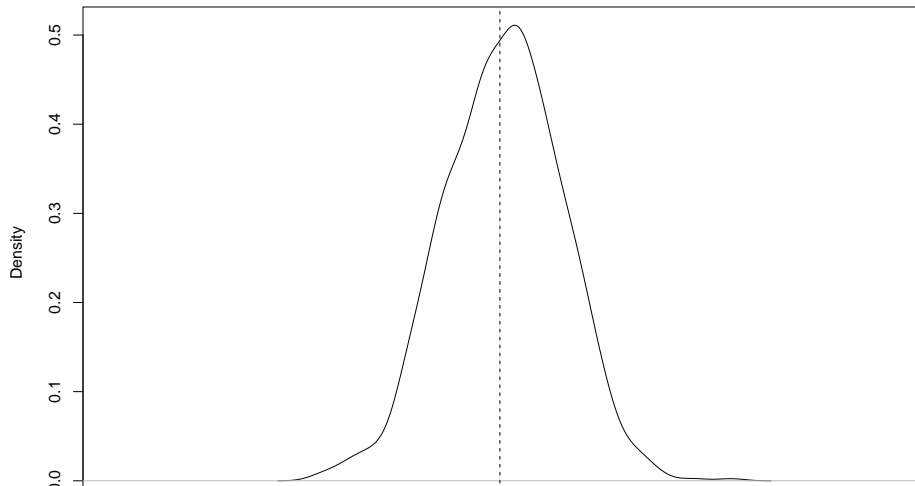
# Covariate Adjustment in sampling

- Imagine that we are biologists who are interested in leaf size.
- Finding the size of leaves is hard, but weighting leaves is easy.
- We can use auxilliary information to be smarter:
  - Sample from leaves on a tree.
  - Measure their size and weight.
  - Let  $\bar{y}_s$  be the average size in the sample.
  - Let  $\bar{x}_s$  be the average weight in the sample.
  - We know that  $\bar{y}_s$  unbiased and consistent for  $\bar{y}$
  - But we have extra information!
  - We also have  $\bar{x}$  (all the weights)
  - This motivates the regression estimator:
$$\hat{y} = \bar{y}_s + \beta(\bar{x} - \bar{x}_s)$$
  - We get  $\beta$  by a regression of leaf area on weight in the sample.

# Efficiency from using covariates

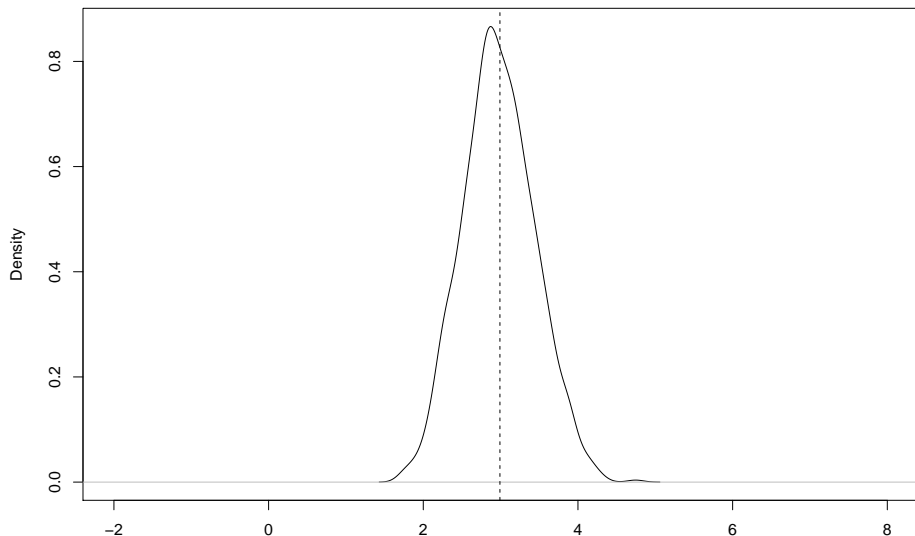
## Loading required package: sandwich

**Bias of the group-mean-difference estimator**



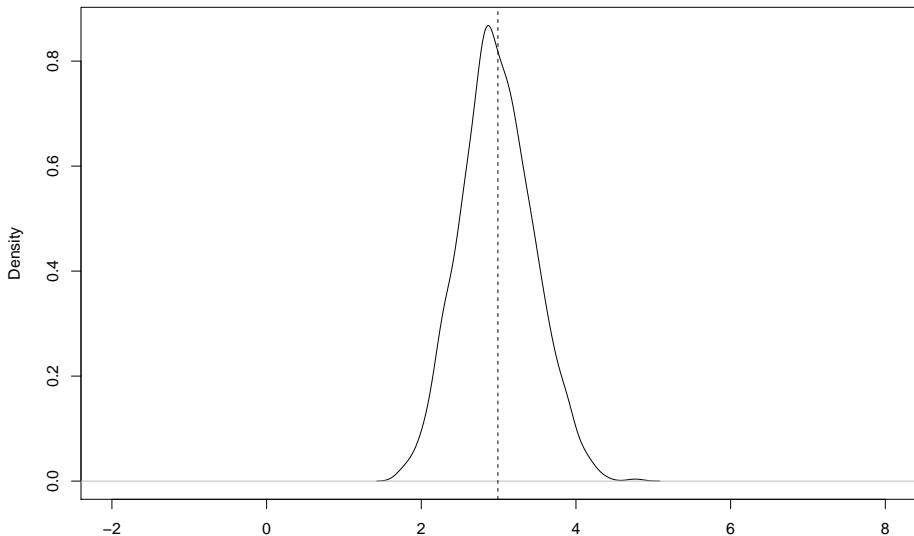
# Efficiency from using covariates

**Bias of the estimator with covariate adjustment**



# Efficiency from using covariates

**Bias of the Lin's regression**

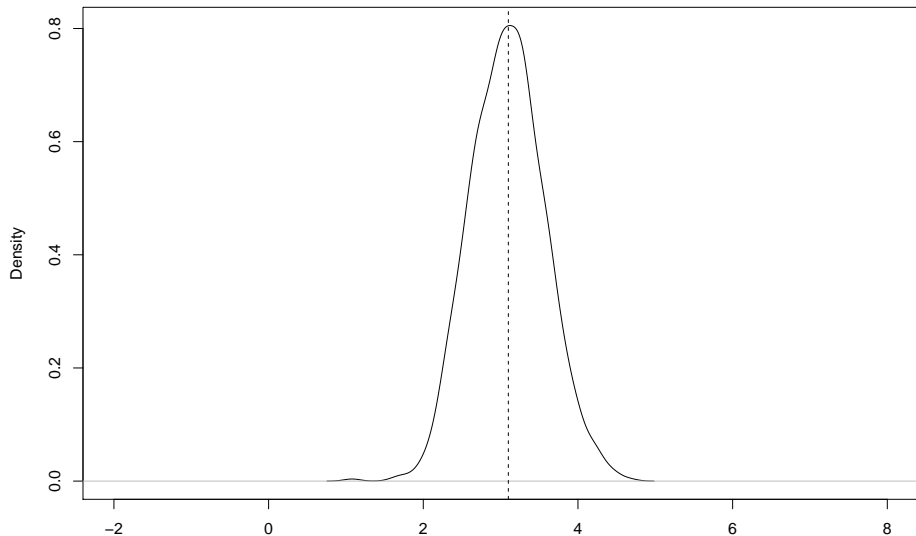


## Efficiency from using covariates

```
## The true ATE is 2.991149
## The average of estimates is 3.034602
## The average SE of ATE estimates is 0.7656708
## The average of reg estimates (no cov) is 3.034602
## The average SE of reg estimates (no cov) is 0.7656708
## The average of reg estimates (cov) is 2.976442
## The average SE of reg estimates (no cov) is 0.4656011
## The average of reg estimates (Lin) is 2.97897
## The average SE of reg estimates (Lin) is 0.4682532
```

# Partial regression

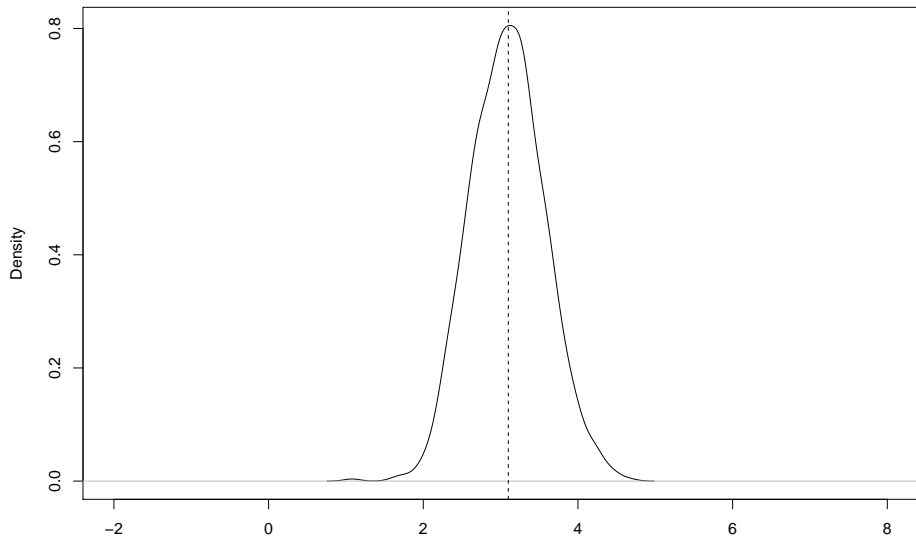
## Bias of the regression estimator





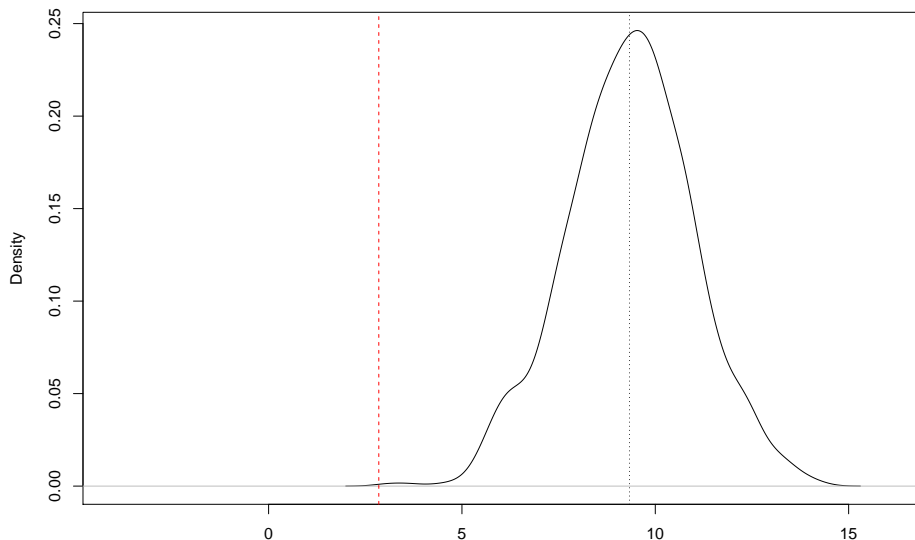
# Partial regression

**Bias of the partial regression**

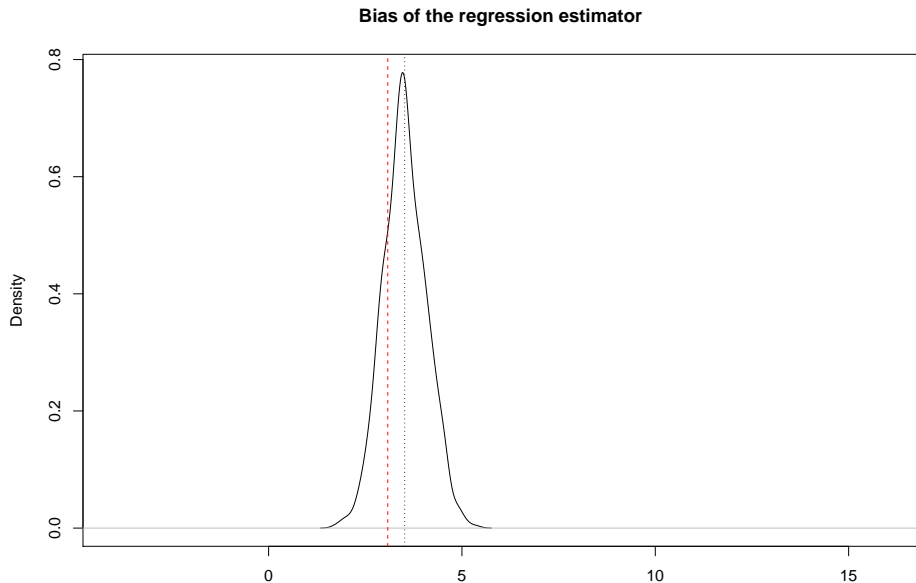


# Bias due to confounders

**Bias of the group-mean-difference estimator**

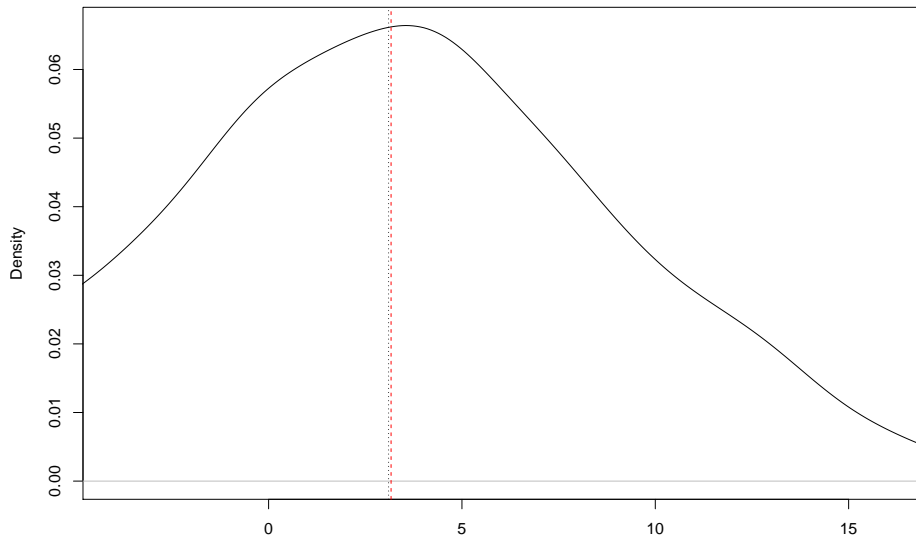


# Regression adjustment



# Weighting adjustment

**Bias of the Horvitz–Thompson estimator**



# Effective samples

- The key result that we are going to use:

$$\hat{\beta} \xrightarrow{p} \frac{E[w_i \tau_i]}{E[w_i]}, \text{ where } w_i = (D_i - E[D_i|X_i])^2 = \text{var}(D_i|X_i)$$

- How did we get here?
- Remember that multiple regression estimates are equivalent to weighted averages of unit-specific contributions.
- These weights are driven by the conditional variance of the treatment of interest.
- The bias does not disappear even in the limit.

# Effective samples

- We estimate these weights with:  
 $\hat{w}_i = \hat{e}_{D,i}^2$  where  $e_{D,i}^2$  is the  $i$ th squared residual.
- What does this imply? Which units will have a higher  $w_i$ ? Why is this important?
- Basically the units whose treatment values are not well explained by the covariates.
- If the covariates perfectly predict your assignment to treatment, then you contribute no information to the estimate of  $\beta$ .

# Effective samples

- We will use these weights to get a sense for what the effective sample is by examining the weight allocated to particular strata.
- We will be looking at Egan and Mullin (2012).
- The paper looks at how people translate their personal experiences into political attitudes.
- To solve the identification problem, the authors exploit the effect of local weather variations on beliefs in global warming.
- But what is the effective sample?
- In other words, where is weather (conditional on covariates) most variable?
- That's what we'll explore.

# Egan and Mullin

```
require(foreign)
```

```
## Loading required package: foreign
```

```
d <- read.dta("gwdataset.dta")
zips <- read.dta("zipcodetostate.dta")
zips <- unique(zips[, c("statenum", "statefromzipfile")])
pops <- read.csv("population_estimates_2013.csv")
pops$state <- tolower(pops$NAME)
d$getwarmord <- as.double(d$getwarmord)
```



# Base Model

```
summary(reg_out)$coefficients[1:10,]
```

##	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
## (Intercept)	1.945740062	0.771478843	2.5220913	0.01169077
## ddt_week	0.004857915	0.002475887	1.9620908	0.04979656
## wbnid_num3103	0.843451519	0.922666490	0.9141456	0.36067588
## wbnid_num3154	1.575071541	0.973391215	1.6181280	0.10568587
## wbnid_num3159	1.903629413	1.021302199	1.8639237	0.06237963
## wbnid_num3804	1.406498119	0.794035963	1.7713280	0.07655528
## wbnid_num3810	1.330878449	0.806312016	1.6505750	0.09887602
## wbnid_num3811	1.082204367	0.798796489	1.3547936	0.17553267
## wbnid_num3812	1.219327925	0.803974284	1.5166255	0.12941222
## wbnid_num3813	0.986084952	0.829563706	1.1886790	0.23461152

# Estimate the weights

- We can simply square the residuals of a partial regression to get  $\hat{e}_{D,i}^2$ :

```
D_formula <- paste0(D, "~", paste0(X, collapse = "+"))
```

```
outD <- lm(as.formula(D_formula),d)
```

```
eD2 <- residuals(outD)^2
```

# Effective sample statistics

- We can use these estimated weights for examining the sample.

```
compare_samples<- d[, c("wave", "ddt_week", "ddt_twoweeks",  
  "ddt_threeweeks", "party_rep", "attend_1", "ideo_conservative",  
  "age_1824", "educ_hsless")]  
compare_samples <- apply(compare_samples,2,function(x)  
  c(mean(x),sd(x),weighted.mean(x,eD2),  
    sqrt(weighted.mean((x-weighted.mean(x,eD2))^2,eD2))))  
compare_samples <- t(compare_samples)  
colnames(compare_samples) <- c("Nominal Mean", "Nominal SD",  
  "Effective Mean", "Effective SD")
```

# Effective Sample Statistics

```
compare_samples
```

##	Nominal Mean	Nominal SD	Effective Mean	Effective SD
## wave	3.09693726	1.4252527	3.20788200	1.5609143
## ddt_week	3.83548593	5.9047249	5.11579140	10.8980228
## ddt_twoweeks	3.85505617	5.4572382	5.00137435	9.2262827
## ddt_threeweeks	3.96719696	4.7689594	5.10859485	8.4348180
## party_rep	0.29527208	0.4561989	0.28978321	0.4536617
## attend_1	0.11433244	0.3182383	0.12343459	0.3289354
## ideo_conservative	0.31132917	0.4630715	0.29325249	0.4552532
## age_1824	0.07195956	0.2584402	0.06881146	0.2531333
## educ_hsless	0.34151056	0.4742516	0.31219962	0.4633908

# Effective sample maps

- But one of the most interesting things is to see this visually.
- Where in the US does the effective sample emphasize?
- To get at this, we'll use some tools in R that make this incredibly easy.
- In particular, we'll do this in ggplot2.

# Effective sample maps

```
# Effective sample by state
wt.by.state <- tapply(eD2,d$statenum,sum)
wt.by.state <- wt.by.state/sum(wt.by.state)*100
wt.by.state <- cbind(eD2=wt.by.state,statenum=names(wt.by.state))
data_for_map <- merge(wt.by.state,zip,by="statenum")

# Nominal Sample by state
wt.by.state <- tapply(rep(1,6726),d$statenum,sum)
wt.by.state <- wt.by.state/sum(wt.by.state)*100
wt.by.state <- cbind(Nom=wt.by.state,statenum=names(wt.by.state))
data_for_map <- merge(data_for_map,wt.by.state,by="statenum")
```

# Effective sample maps

```
# Get correct state names
require(maps,quietly=TRUE)
data(state.fips)
data_for_map <- merge(state.fips,data_for_map,by.x="abb",
                      by.y="statefromzipfile")
data_for_map$eD2 <- as.double(as.character(data_for_map$eD2))
data_for_map$Nom <- as.double(as.character(data_for_map$Nom))
data_for_map$state <- sapply(as.character(data_for_map$polynome),
                             function(x)strsplit(x,":")[[1]][1])
data_for_map$Diff <- data_for_map$eD2 - data_for_map$Nom
data_for_map <- merge(data_for_map,pops,by="state")
data_for_map$PopPct <- data_for_map$POPESTIMATE2013/sum(
  data_for_map$POPESTIMATE2013)*100
data_for_map$PopDiffEff <- data_for_map$eD2 -
  data_for_map$PopPct
data_for_map$PopDiffNom <- data_for_map$Nom - data_for_map$PopPct
data_for_map$PopDiff <- data_for_map$PopDiffEff - data_for_map$PopDiffNom
require(ggplot2,quietly=TRUE)
state_map <- map_data("state")
```

# More setup

```
plotEff <- ggplot(data_for_map,aes(map_id=state))
plotEff <- plotEff + geom_map(aes(fill=eD2), map = state_map)
plotEff <- plotEff + expand_limits(x = state_map$long, y =
                                state_map$lat)
plotEff <- plotEff + scale_fill_continuous("% Weight",
                                           limits=c(0,16),low="white", high
plotEff <- plotEff + labs(title = "Effective Sample")
plotEff <- plotEff + theme(
  legend.position=c(.2,.1),legend.direction = "horizontal",
  axis.line = element_blank(), axis.text =
    element_blank(),
  axis.ticks = element_blank(), axis.title = element_blank(),
  panel.background = element_blank(), plot.background = element_blank(),
  panel.border = element_blank(), panel.grid = element_blank()
)

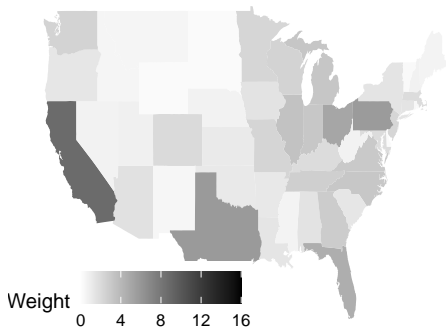
plotNom <- ggplot(data_for_map,aes(map_id=state))
plotNom <- plotNom + geom_map(aes(fill=Nom), map = state_map)
plotNom <- plotNom + expand_limits(x = state_map$long, y = state_map$lat)
plotNom <- plotNom + scale_fill_continuous("% Weight",
```



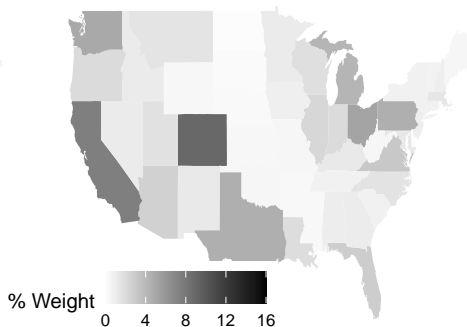
# And the maps

```
require(gridExtra,quietly=TRUE)  
grid.arrange(plotNom,plotEff,ncol=2)
```

Nominal Sample



Effective Sample



# Setup comparison plot

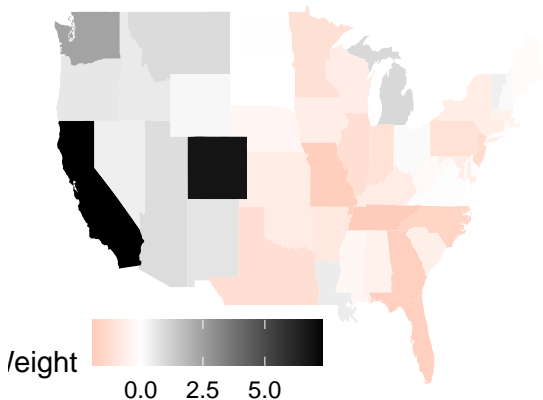
```
plotDiff <- ggplot(data_for_map,aes(map_id=state))
plotDiff <- plotDiff + geom_map(aes(fill=Diff),
                                map = state_map)
plotDiff <- plotDiff + expand_limits(x = state_map$long,
                                    y =
                                    state_map$lat)
plotDiff <- plotDiff + scale_fill_gradient2("% Weight",
                                             low = "red",
                                             mid = "white",
                                             high = "black")
plotDiff <- plotDiff + labs(title = "Effective
                             Weight Minus Nominal Weight")
plotDiff <- plotDiff + theme(
  legend.position=c(.2,.1),legend.direction = "horizontal",
  axis.line = element_blank(), axis.text = element_blank(),
  axis.ticks = element_blank(), axis.title = element_blank(),
  panel.background = element_blank(), plot.background = element_blank(),
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)
```

# Difference in weights

```
plotDiff
```

Effective

Weight Minus Nominal



# Causal inference from a machine learning perspective

- Now we have been familiar with the Rubin model:

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} Y_i(1) & \text{if } D_i = 1 \\ Y_i(0) & \text{if } D_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

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- Suppose we are interested in ATT, then we just need to know  $Y_i(0)$  for each treated unit.
- It is a prediction problem:  $\hat{Y}_i(0) = f(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}_{(-i)})$ .
- If we want to estimate ATE rather than ATT, just do another prediction for  $\hat{Y}_i(1)$ .

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- That's where machine learning enters!



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- The target of machine learning algorithms is to find a prediction function  $\hat{f}$  that minimizes the expected squared prediction error (ESPE),  $E[(f - \hat{f})^2]$  (in practice we use MSPE)
- It is easy to see that

$$\begin{aligned} E[(f - \hat{f})^2] &= E[f^2 - 2 * f * \hat{f} + \hat{f}^2] \\ &= f^2 - 2 * f * E[\hat{f}] + E[\hat{f}^2] \\ &= f^2 - 2 * f * E[\hat{f}] + E[\hat{f}]^2 - E[\hat{f}]^2 + E[\hat{f}^2] \\ &= (E[\hat{f}] - f)^2 + E[\hat{f}^2] - E[\hat{f}]^2 \\ &= (Bias(\hat{f}))^2 + Var(\hat{f}) \end{aligned}$$

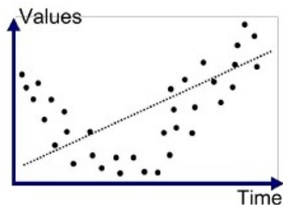
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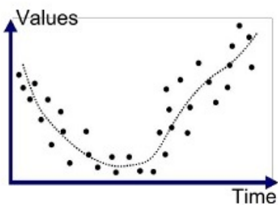
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- This is called bias-variance trade-off.
- A method with smaller bias usually has larger variance.

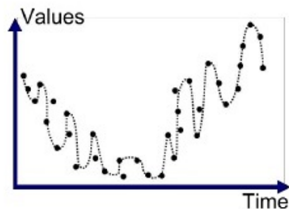
# Bias and variance



Underfitted



Good Fit/Robust



Overfitted

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Random experiment.

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Blocking experiment or matching.

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 $\hat{f} = \mathbf{X}_{D_i=0}\beta$  (Linearity)  
 $\gamma_i = \gamma$  for any  $i$  (Constant treatment effect)

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Blocking experiment or matching.
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 $\hat{f} = \mathbf{X}_{D_i=0}\beta$  (Linearity)  
 $\gamma_i = \gamma$  for any  $i$  (Constant treatment effect)
- Matching: low bias and high variance; regression: high bias and low variance

# Causal inference from a machine learning perspective

- It is straightforward to drop the constant treatment effect assumption  $\hat{\gamma}_i = Y_i - \mathbf{X}_{D_i=0}\hat{\beta}$  (Regression with interaction)
- Replacing  $\mathbf{X}_{D_i=0}\beta$  with  $(\mathbf{X}_{D_i=0} - \bar{\mathbf{X}}_{D_i=0})\beta$ , we get the more efficient option: Lin's regression

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- Question: How to get rid of the linearity assumption?

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- It is biased and inconsistent under treatment effect heterogeneity.

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Abadie et al. (2020): a weighted sum of the true individualistic effects under linearity, and a weighted sum of something without linearity.



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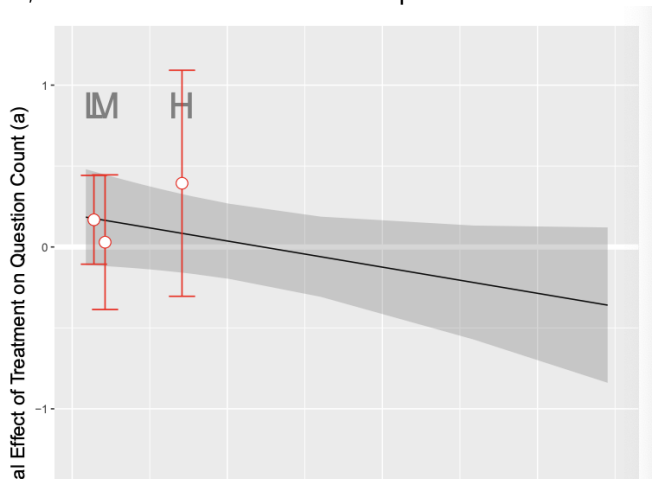
- It is biased and inconsistent under treatment effect heterogeneity.
- What is its expectation then?  
Abadie et al. (2020): a weighted sum of the true individualistic effects under linearity, and a weighted sum of something without linearity.
- Should we add as many covariates as possible?  
No. Covariates may sometimes amplify the existing bias (Middleton et al., 2016)
- ①  $X$  may absorb the variation of  $D$  and reduces its explanatory power of  $Y$ .
- ② If  $X$  is negatively correlated with  $Y$  and the unobservables are positively correlated with  $Y$ , leaving  $X$  outside the regression may offset the impact of the unobservables.

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- Hainmueller, Mummolo, and Xu (2018): When overlapping does not hold, the estimation relies on extrapolation



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Group-mean difference, Matching
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Group-mean difference, Matching
- When a complete model is specified: Parametric estimation  
Regression, Probit, Logit, All Bayesian approaches, etc.

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- With no extra assumptions on model specification: agnostic, or non-parametric estimation  
Group-mean difference, Matching
- When a complete model is specified: Parametric estimation  
Regression, Probit, Logit, All Bayesian approaches, etc.
- With some “structure” assumed for  $\hat{f}$ : Semi-parametric estimation

# More complicated models in causal inference

- Regression is often underfitted.
- We can use more complicated models to further reduce the MSPE.
- With no extra assumptions on model specification: agnostic, or non-parametric estimation  
Group-mean difference, Matching
- When a complete model is specified: Parametric estimation  
Regression, Probit, Logit, All Bayesian approaches, etc.
- With some “structure” assumed for  $\hat{f}$ : Semi-parametric estimation  
Kernelized or serial estimation, factor models