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Now You See Me

High School Dropout and Machine Learning

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Introduction

- U.S. High School graduation rate of **82%**, below OECD average. Extensive literature (Murnane, 2013)
- Goal: use ML in Education
- Create an algorithm to predict which students are going to drop out using only information available in 9th grade
- Current practices based on few indicators lead to poor predictions
- Improvements using **Big Data** and **ML**
- Microeconomic foundations of performance evaluations
- Unsupervised ML to capture heterogeneity among weak students



Machine Learning

- Econometrics: causal inference
- ML: prediction
- Takes into account the trade-off between bias and variance in the MSE in order to maximize out-of-sample prediction.
- Algorithms can identify patterns too subtle to be detected by human observations (Luca et al, 2016)
- ML applications limited in economics, but several policyrelevant issues that require accurate predictions (<u>Kleinberg et</u> <u>al., 2015</u>)
- MI is gaining momentum Belloni et al (2014), Mullainathan and Spiess (2017)
- Reduce dropout rates in college
 <u>Aulck et al (2016)</u>, <u>Ekowo and Palmer (2016)</u>



Machine Learning - References

Comprehensive review:

 J. Friedman, T. Hastie, and R. Tibshirani, <u>The Elements of</u> <u>Statistical Learning</u>, Springer.

MOOCs (w/o Stata):

- A. Ng, *Machine learning*, Coursera and Stanford University.
- J. Leek, R.D. Peng, B. Caffo, <u>Practical Machine Learning</u>, Coursera and Johns Hopkins University
- T. Hastie and R. Tibshirani, <u>An Introduction to Statistical</u> <u>Learning</u>
- S. Athey and G. Imbens, <u>NBER 2015 Summer Institute</u>

Podcast for economist/policy:

- <u>APPAM The Wonk</u>
- EconTalk



Machine Learning - References

Intro for Economists:

- H.R. Varian, <u>Big data: New tricks for econometrics</u>, Journal of Economic Perspectives, 28(2):3–27, 2014
- S. Mullainathan and J. Spiess. <u>Machine learning: An applied</u> <u>econometric approach</u>. Journal of Economic Perspectives, 31(2):87–106, 2017

ML and Causal Inference:

- A. Belloni, V. Chernozhukov, and C. Hansen, <u>High-dimensional methods and inference on structural and treatment effects</u>, Journal of Economic Perspectives, 28(2):29–50, 2014
- S. Athey and G. Imbens, <u>The State of Applied Econometrics</u>: <u>Causality and Policy Evaluation</u>, Journal of Econometric Perspective, 31(2):3-32, 2017



Goodness-of-fit

- No single indicator for binary choice model
- Option 1: comparison with a model which contains only a constant (McFadden-R²)
- Option 2: compare correct and incorrect predictions
 Advantage: clear distinction between type I (wrong exclusion) and type II (wrong inclusion) errors
 - Accuracy: proportion correct predictions
 - Recall (Sensitivity): proportion correct predicted dropouts over all actual dropouts
 - Specificity: proportion corrected predicted graduates over all actual graduates



ROC curve

- Most algorithms produce by default predicted probabilities
- Usually, predict 1 when probability > 0.5 (in line with Bayes classifier)
- **ROC curve** computes how Specificity and 1-Sensitivity change as the classification threshold changes
- Area under the curve used as evaluation criteria
- Stata code:

roctab depvar predicted_probabilities, graph



ROC curve - Example





Cross-Validation

- Maximizing in-sample R² or Accuracy lead to over-fitting (high variance).
- Solution: Cross-Validation (CV). Divide sample in
 - 60% Training sample: to estimate model
 - 20% CV sample: to calibrate algorithm (e.g. penalization term)
 - > **20% Test** sample: to report out-of-sample performances
- Advantage: easy to compare in-sample and out-of-sample performances (high bias vs. high variance)
- Alternatives: k-fold CV



CV - Stata

set seed 1234 *generate random numbers gen random = uniform() sort random

*split sample in train (60%), CV (20%) and test (20%) gen byte train = (_n <= (_N*0.6)) gen byte cv = (((_N*0.6) < _n) & (_n <= (_N*0.8))) gen byte test = (_n > (_N*0.8))



CV – foreach loop

- 1. For given parameters, estimate algorithm using training sample
- 2. Measure performances using CV sample
- 3. Repeat for different values of the parameters
- 4. Select values of the parameters which max performances in the CV sample
- 5. Estimate algorithm with selected parameters using training sample
- 6. Report performances in test sample



Data

- High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09)
- Panel database 24,000 students in 9th grade from 944 schools
- 1st round: students, parents, math and science teachers, school administrator, school counselor
- 2nd round: 11th grade (no teachers)
- 3rd round: freshman year in college
- Data on math test scores, HS transcripts, SAT, demographics, family background, school characteristics, expectations
- New perspective on Millennials and their educational choices



Dropout programs

- **45% of the students** in schools which have a formal dropout prevention program
- This may include tutoring, vocational courses, attendance incentives, childcare, graduation/job counseling
- How are students selected for these programs?
 - > Poor grades (93%)
 - Behind on credits (89%)
 - Counselor's referral (86%)
 - Absenteeism (83%)
 - Parental request (77%)



Basic Model

- Include past student achievements, demographics, family background and school characteristics
- Very low performances

Model	Obs	Accuracy	Recall
1- Logit	2,060	91.8%	7%
2- OLS	2,060	91.7%	0.6%
3- Probit	2,060	91.8%	5.3%
4- Logit + Interactions	2,060	91.5%	7%

Out-of-Sample





- SVM better than Logit
- SVM + LASSO to **select variables** improves performance

Model	Out-of-Sample			
	Obs	Accuracy	Recall	
1- SVM	2,540	80%	47%	
2- SVM + LASSO	2,970	86%	50%	



Stata Code - Preparation

Important: all predictors have to have the same magnitude!

Option 1: **normalization** (consider not to normalize dummy var) foreach var of global PREDICTOR {

```
qui inspect `var'
   if r(N_unique)!=2 {
       qui sum `var'
       qui replace `var' = (`var'-r(mean))/r(sd)
    }
Option 2: rescaling (this does not alter dummy variables)
foreach var of global PREDICTOR {
   qui sum `var'
   qui replace `var' = (`var'-r(min))/(r(max)-r(min))
}
```



Stata Code – Preparation /2

How to deal with missing data:

- Option 1: drop observations with missing items
 - Cons: lose variables
 - Pros: easier to interpret when selecting variables
- Option 2: impute missing values to zero and create a dummy variable for each predictor to indicate which items were missing
- Try both!



Stata Code - LASSO

LASSO code provided by <u>C. Hansen</u>

- NO help file!
- Very fast
- Key assumption: sparsity (Most coefficients equal to 0)

Estimator:

$$\hat{\beta}(\lambda) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^k} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x'_i \beta)^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$$
$$\|\beta\|_1 = \sum_{j=1}^k |\beta_j|$$



Stata Code – LASSO /2

lassoShooting depvar indepvars [*if*] [, *options*]

Options:

- lambda: select the penalization term. Use CV with grid-search
 0 is equal to the default (see <u>Belloni et al., RES 2014</u>)
- controls(varlist): specify variables which must be always selected (e.g. time fixed effects)
- lasiter: number of iterations of the algorithm (suggested 100)
- Display options: verbose(0) fdisplay(0)

Post-LASSO: global lassoSel `r(selected)' regress depvar \$lassoSel if train==1



Stata Code - SVM

- Stata Journal article: <u>svmachines</u>
- Note: SVM cannot handle missing data
- Objective function similar to Penalized Logit
- **Combination with kernel functions** allow high flexibility (but low interpretability)
- Use grid-search with CV to calibrate algorithm:
 - Kernel: rbf (normal) is the most common. Try also sigmoid
 - C is the penalization term (similar to Lambda in LASSO)
 - Gamma controls the smoothness of the kernel
 - Select C and Gamma to balance trade-off between bias and variance



Stata Code - Boosting

- Stata Journal article: <u>boosting</u>
- Hastie's explanation on <u>YouTube</u>
- Note: cannot handle missing data
- Similar to random forest
- Combination of a sequence of classifiers where at each iterations observations which were misclassified by the previous classifier are given larger weights
- Key idea: combining simple algorithms such as regression trees can lead to higher performances than a single more complex algorithm such as Logit
- Works very well with highly nonlinear underlying models
- Works better with large datasets
- Can create graph with the influence of each predictor



Additional ML codes

- Least Angle Regression (<u>lars</u>)
- Penalized Logistic Regression (plogit)
- Kernel-Based Regularized Least Squares (krls)
- Subset Variable Selection (<u>gvselect</u>)
- Key Missing: Neural Network
- Some of them are quite slow
- Double-check which criteria are used to calibrate parameters



Pivotal Variables

- LASSO can also identify top predictors
 - If school wants to use few indicators, select best ones
 - Identify variables worth collecting at national level
- GPA 9th grade
- Credits in 9th grade
- Credits in 9th grade * SES
- Gender * vocational school
- Hours with friends * principal teaches
- Hours playing video games * private school
- Hours extra-curricular activities * hours counselors spends assisting students for college
- 9th grader talks with father about college * principal teaches
- Private school * % teachers absent
- Principal: students dropping out problem * lead counselor: counselors expect very little from students
 GEORGETOWX

Microeconomic Foundation

Justify using recall rate (φ)

min *E*[*dropout*] *s.t. BC*

 Define p(s,t) as the probability of dropping out for student type s ε {0,1} subject to treatment t ε {0,1}. φ = Recall Rate

$$\min n_1[(1 - \varphi)p(1, 0) + \varphi p(1, t)]$$

s.t. $\tau[wr_1 + c_1] \le B$

Imposing functional forms

$$\min (1 - \varphi)$$

s.t. $\tau[wr_1 + c_1] \le B$



Application

• Calibrate parameters in the algorithms to maximize Recall Rate (Sensitivity) while respecting the B.C. (1 – Specificity).





Unsupervised ML

- Divide weak students into clusters
- HS dropout is a **multi-dimensional** issue
- Possible applications:
 - Identify subpopulations and design targeted treatments
 - Measure heterogeneity treatment among subpopulations
- Hierarchical clustering identifies four groups:
 - > All have low math achievements, low expectations
 - > 1: HH without mother
 - > 2: difficult environment
 - > 3: poor Hispanic male students
 - > 4: Blacks, repeated 9th grade, difficult HH background



Hierarchical clustering

- 1. n distinct groups, one for each observations
- 2. Two closest observations merged together (n-1 groups)
- 3. Closest two groups merged together (n-2 groups)
- 4. Repeat until all the observations are merged into one large group.
- The output: hierarchy of groupings from one group to n groups.
- Four decisions involved in this procedure
 - Measuring distance between observations
 - Measuring distance between groups
 - Selecting the number of observable variables
 - Selecting the optimal number of groups



Hierarchical clustering - Stata

cluster linkage [varlist] [if] [in] [, cluster_options]

- **Distance between observation**: Euclidean (default in option *measure*)
- **Distance between groups**. Most common are:
 - Single Linkage: measure distance between two closest observations between groups
 - Complete Linkage: measure distance between two farthest observations between groups
 - Centroid Linkage: measure distance between two group means
 - Average Linkage: average distance between each point in one cluster to every point in the other cluster. <u>More</u> <u>robust</u>



Number of groups

cluster stop [clname] [, options]

- General idea: ask whether splitting one cluster would reduce a certain measure of fit.
- Two criteria:
 - Caliński and Harabasz pseudo-F index rule(calinski)
 - Duda-Hart Je(2)/Je(1) index with pseudo-T² rule(duda)
- Distinct clustering is signaled by
 - > High Caliński and Harabasz pseudo-F index
 - Large Je(2)/Je(1) index associated with a low pseudo-T² surrounded by much larger pseudo-T² values



Caliński and Harabasz

It compares the sum of squared distances within the partitions - the distances between clusters - to that in the unpartitioned data, taking account of the number of clusters and number of cases. With q groups (C1,..., Cq) and n observations:

$$pseudoF_{CH} = \frac{trace(B_q)/(q-1)}{trace(W_q)/(n-q)}$$
$$B_q = \sum_{k=1}^{q} |C_k| \|\bar{c}_k - \bar{x}\|^2$$
$$|C_k| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}[x_i \in C_k]$$
$$W_q = \sum_{k=1}^{q} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \|[x_i \in C_k]\| \|x_i - \bar{c}_k\|^2$$

Where \bar{x} is the centroid of the data, \bar{c}_k is the centroid of the generic cluster C_k , and x_i is the vector of characteristics for individual *i*. B_q is the between-group dispersion matrix for the data clustered into *q* clusters, $|C_k|$ is the number of elements in cluster C_k , and W_q is the within-group dispersion matrix for the data clustered into *q* clusters. *GEORGETOWX*

Duda-Hart

The Duda-Hart Je(2)/Je(1) index is literally the sum of squared errors within clusters in the two derived clusters (C_h and C_l) J(2), divided by the sum of squared errors in the combined original cluster (C_m) J(1).

$$Duda - Hart = \frac{J(2)}{J(1)} = \frac{W_h + W_l}{W_m}$$

Where *W* is defined as in the Caliński and Harabasz pseudo-F index. The Duda-Hart T² statistic takes account of the number of observations in both clusters (n_h and n_l):

$$\frac{1}{J(2)/J(1)} = 1 + \frac{T^2}{n_h + n_l - 2}$$



Policy Implications

- Early prediction → **Early intervention**
- Efficient use of data available to schools
- Suggest vocational tracks (Goux et al, 2016)
- ML can identify **top predictors** worth collecting when resources are scarce (developing countries)
- Include inexpensive alternative to the tests used to sort students
- Unsupervised ML to personalize treatment



Thank you!



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