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# A comparative analysis of machine learning and classical statistical techniques for the imputation of corporate green house gas emissions

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## Abstract

The recognition that climate change has significant implications for the health of the financial system has elevated the necessity for improved access to reliable sustainability data among data producers and central banks. To capture the heterogeneity of firms within the financial system, micro-level data—specifically at the company level—are of particular importance. Despite extensive efforts to enhance corporate reporting, significant data gaps persist, particularly in the reporting of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. A high proportion of missing values poses a risk of sample bias in analyses. This paper addresses this issue by testing and evaluating various imputation approaches for corporate carbon emissions to mitigate these data gaps. In addition to individual balance sheet data, we utilize novel geospatial data, including characteristics of company real estate and its usage. We compare classical statistical methods with modern machine learning techniques. Approaches that account for the missing data generation process demonstrate superiority over simpler methods, yet they are outperformed by machine learning methods.

Keywords: data gaps, climate data, GHG emission, carbon footprint, EU ETS, missing data, imputation, machine learning, balance sheet data, Heckman correction, sample selection, LOD1, building data, digital twin

JEL classification: C38, C53, Q54



*Usage of AI: Ai assistants were used to correct grammar, for vocabulary check and code debugging.*

## Contents

# 1. Introduction

The awareness that the stability of the financial system is also affected by risks stemming from climate change was a fertile soil for several initiatives of central banks and other public institutions (NGFS 2019, European Commission 2024). Monitoring, evaluation and mitigation of these risks require sound reporting and reliable data (NGFS 2019, TCFD 2016). Since 2021 the IMF[1] and since 2023 the ECB[2] publish aggregated indicators on sustainable finance. Despite the intensive efforts to introduce harmonized and mandatory reporting frameworks, the data landscape on climate related information is still highly fragmented and inconsistent, especially in the field of corporate carbon emission data (NGFS 2024, European Commission 2024). While there exists a plethora of commercial data, reliable official data is rather scarce and characterized by low coverage (ECB 2024, NGFS 2024). Furthermore, a high proportion of commercial data is estimated based on black box of estimation methods (Kalesnik et al. 2022).

One solution to address these pressing data gaps is the imputation of missing data. Imputation of missing data is a standard technique in statistical production. Many approaches have been tested and evaluated in view of their suitability (Preising et al. 2021, Thurow et al. 2021, Schnetzer et al. 2015). Multivariate imputation with chained equations (MICE), predictive mean matching, nearest neighbor method and single regression-based techniques are among the most commonly employed and studied. More recent advances focus on the application of machine learning algorithms to fill missing data (Niederhametner at al. 2025, Jerez et al. 2010). Random forest-based methods have shown promising results (Stekhoven & Buehlmann 2012).

In the concrete case of corporate green house gas (GHG) emission data, imputation approaches can be conceptually differentiated regarding the starting point of the procedure: top down or bottom-up approaches. While top-down approaches break down sector emission aggregates to the individual company level using corporate employment shares (Hirvonen et al. 2021), bottom-up approaches predict emissions on the company level by using other company variables (for instance key financial performance figures) (see for instance Kalesnik et al. 2022, Olesiewicz et al. 2023). The ECB for instance uses the top-down approach to impute the GHG emission for constructing their carbon footprint indicators[3]. Whilst their simplicity of implementation clearly speaks in favor of top-down approaches, they base on strong assumptions about proportionality (e.g. between emissions and employment) and neglect production and business model related heterogeneity of firms. However, microlevel analyses with company data require incorporating firm heterogeneity, especially when emission data is linked and set into relation to other firm variables (such as financial obligations and credit volumes). Therefore, more detailed bottom-up approaches can be more suitable in these cases. Machine learning methods have also demonstrated high accuracy in this particular use case of forecasting GHG emissions at the country level (Begum and Mobin 2025).

Another approach is based on using the production and consumption-oriented interrelations between sectors as depicted in Input-Output-Tables from the National Accounts (Liu&Fan 2017, Matthews et al. 2008, v. Kalckreuth 2022).

One important determinant for selecting a suitable approach is understanding the nature of the underlying data. Especially for the problem of imputation, it is crucial to understand the data generation mechanisms that resulted in the inherent missing pattern (Rubin 1976). Most of the approaches required the data to be missing at random (MAR) (Buczak et al. 2023), i.e. missing in emission data can be

[1] https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/ar/2022/in-focus/climate-change/

[2] https://www.ecb.europa.eu/press/pr/date/2023/html/ecb.pr230124~c83dbef220.en.html

[3] Technical Annex to the Report on Climate change-related statistical indicators, November 2025, https://www.ecb.europa.eu/stats/all-key-statistics/horizontal-indicators/sustainability-indicators/data/shared/files/Technical_annex.en.pdf

completely explained by observable factors. However, in the case of GHG emission data, the missing data generation process is assumed to be missing not at random (MNAR) due to the legal frameworks. In addition to observable company characteristics, the level of emissions itself determines whether a company reports its emissions. If the non-random nature of the missing data process is not considered during imputation, the estimates may be distorted due to sample selection bias (Heckman 1976, Heckman 1979).

To our knowledge, there is no study that compares several imputation approaches with respect to their accuracy when imputing individual corporate GHG emissions and also addresses the missing mechanism explicitly when predicting emission data.

Thus, the aim of this study is to compare different bottom-up approaches for imputing GHG emissions on the individual company level. As training data, we use official emission data from the EU emission trading system (EU ETS), as it is deemed most reliable (exhibit the least measurement error) and has the same observational unit as the company data (single entity). Another reason for using EU ETS is that it only covers emissions originating directly from companies' operative activity (as the channel is clearer as compared to estimating scope 2 or 3 emissions)[4].

This study represents the methodological extension of the works of Walter (2025). Walter used a Heckman correction to explicitly model the sample selection of the missing data stemming from the MNAR process in official emission data. We found that when considering a rich set of data sources and covariates, the process can be assumed to be MAR which allows for other approaches to be tested. In this study we use the same rich set of variables (including novel geospatial data) and introduce novel machine learning approaches (based on random forests) to impute missing values and compare their performance to classical imputation techniques (MICE, KNN, Heckmann correction and single regression methods) and top-down approaches.

We find that bottom-up approaches outperform simpler top-down methods. Furthermore, consistently with prior studies (Stekhoven & Buehlmann 2012), random forests outperform all other approaches. The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: in **section 2** we provide a short overview of data sources used in this study. Subsequently, in the methodological **section 3**, the applied imputation techniques are briefly introduced. In **Section 4,** the main results are presented. **Section 5** concludes and presents some avenues for further research.

## 2. Data

For this study we combine several data from various sources. The panel of balance sheet data is taken from the Individual financial statements of non-financial firms (JANIS)[5] from the Deutsche Bundesbank. The corresponding panel on GHG emissions is taken from the publicly available dataset on traded emissions from the EU Emission Trading System (EU ETS[6]). Companies are required to report their emissions that fall under the EU certificate trading. The obligation to report as a foundation for carbon pricing makes them the most reliable in the range of corporate emission data. Furthermore, as compared to data from corporate sustainable reports and commercial data providers, the observational units equal the one in the balance sheet data (single installation/ enterprise). The emissions on the installation level were aggregated to the operator/ company-level.

[4] Scope 2 emissions cover all indirect emissions originating from energy consumption. Scope 3 cover all indirect emissions from upstream and downstream value chain activities (GHG 2024)

[5] Here we use the internal, non-anonymized version of the JANIS dataset, which only contains individual financial reports from commercial data providers. DOI: 10.12757/Bbk.JANIS.9723.14.14, https://www.bundesbank.de/resource/blob/862454/016baaec31b6eefc6e47fc899e9a4b99/mL/2024-18-janis-data.pdf (Becker et al. 2024)

[6] https://climate.ec.europa.eu/eu-action/carbon-markets/eu-emissions-trading-system-eu-ets_en

The data is enriched with information about the corporate building type and its usage from the 3D building model data from the Federal Agency for Cartography and Geodesy[7]. The combined dataset comprises 4,855 complete observations across all variables for 822 unique companies (forming an unbalanced company panel) over the period from 2012 to 2020.

To break down sector aggregates as the benchmark analysis, we also include the aggregate GHG emissions for Germany from the Air Emission Accounts on the NACE Rev2 1-digit level[8].

## 3. Methodology

To compare several imputation approaches, from standard methods in medical research and official statistics to more modern machine learning techniques, we first split our sample randomly into 70% training and 30% test data. For the test data, the emission values were set to missing. This is necessary to calculate the accuracy metrics and to compare the prediction against the true values.

We chose the simplest approach as our benchmark approach which is the allocation of **sector specific emission aggregates** from the **Air emission accounts based on employment shares (I.)** as used by Hirvonen et al. 2021 and ECB 2024. A company's employment is divided by the total employment in the sector in which the company is active. Those employment shares are then multiplied with the total emissions of the sector to yield individual corporate emissions. Its simplicity and consistency at the aggregate level speak in favor for this approach. However, firm heterogeneity with respect to production technology and technical equipment is neglected. Furthermore, the assumption about proportionality between employees and emission output might not hold, particularly for service sectors.

As a second approach, we explicitly want to address the underlying selection mechanism that results in the missing pattern to correct for potential bias (we assume emission data to be MNAR). Furthermore, we use multivariate regression to model the relationship between a company's production process and their emission intensity. We use the widely accepted and used **Heckman correction (II.)** (Heckman 1976, Heckman 1979). The idea of this two-step approach is to explicitly model the selection (the missingness in the target variable, here emissions) and then run the imputation of emissions including a correction factor from the first step. The selection is modeled using a binary probit model, the outcome regression uses an OLS estimation. To analyse the value added of geospatial data for imputation accuracy, we first run the output model solely on the **balance sheet data and employment (IIa)** and then extend the model by also including the **building type from the geodata (IIb)** to predict emissions. Detailed descriptions and results can be found in Walter 2025.

Third, we also aim to compare a standard method used in statistics from various domains: **Multivariate Imputation by chained equations (MICE) (III.) (**van Buuren & Groothuis-Oudshoorn 2011**).** Usually, MICE is used to account for the uncertainty in the imputation process as it produces multiple imputed datasets (Azur et al. 2011). However, as our use case focuses on the prediction of individual emission values and not inferential analyses, we do not use this feature of multiple imputation here. We impute only one dataset (m=1) using **predictive mean matching** for 5 donors. Out of the 5 potential candidates, whose predicted values are closest to the prediction of the missing value, one is randomly chosen whose emission value replaces the missing value (Morris et al. 2014). One advantage of this method is that predicted values range within the plausible boundaries of the original values. [Morris et al. 2014] The analyses were implemented using the mice package in R.

[7] We use here Level-of-Detail 1 data because it contains the building function. https://gdz.bkg.bund.de/index.php/default/3d-gebaudemodelle-lod1-deutschland-lod1-de.html

[8] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/env_ac_aigg_q/default/table?lang=en&category=env.env_air.env_air_aa

As a fourth approach, we impute emissions by the **k-nearest neighbour algorithm (IV.).** In this very popular approach, the mean of the k-most similar neighbours of the target variable is used to impute the missing value. We set the number of neighbours that are used to calculate the mean to 5 (k=5).

Recent evidence (e.g. Stekhoven & Buehlmann 2012, Tan and Ishwaran 2017) has shown that modern machine learning methods might outperform these widely applied, classical imputation approaches. For this reason, we also include modern imputation techniques that are based on **random forests (V.)** These Machine Learning approaches have the advantages that they require less assumptions about distributions and parameters as compared to single regression-based methods (Stekhoven & Buehlmann 2012). Random forests are estimated to predict missing emission values. We test the most common implementations of the random forest-based approaches in R: the **MissForest (Va)** packages by Stekhoven & Buehlmann (2012). This package is very flexible with regards of data types and distributional assumptions (Stekhoven & Buehlmann 2012). We then compare it to the **Ranger Random Forest (Vb)** and the **XGBoost (Gradient Boosting) method (Vc)** from the VIM package (Kowarik & Templ 2016), developed by Statistics Austria. Like MissForest, these two imputation methods focus on random forests, while XGBoost is based on Gradient Boosting.

To compare the accuracy of the predictions the deviation between the predicted values from the true values was calculated. Here we use the standard metric from the machine learning literature as a diagnostic tool (Hodson 2022): the root mean squared error (RMSE). It calculates the average deviation of the actual values from the predicted ones. As we want to come closest to the real values, when imputing them, RMSE is deemed an appropriate measure.

To compare all the approaches, only one column was set to missing (emissions as the target variable to impute) while all other variables did not contain any missings.

Table 1 provides an overview of the covariates used in each approach to impute the missing emissions. The continuous variables were transformed to correct for outliers and skewed distributions (censoring to 99% percentile, normalized, logarithmic values).

**Variables used in the models** **Table 1**

| Variables | Approaches | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Dependent: GHG-Emissions** | **I. Employment shares** | **IIa. Heckman balance sheet data** | **IIb. Heckman balance sheet data and building data** | **III. MICE** | **IV. KNN** | **V. Random Forest** |
| **Employment** | X | X | | | | |
| **Intangibles** | | X | X | X | X | X |
| **Land and buildings** | | X | X | X | X | X |
| **Technical equipment and machinery** | | X | X | X | X | X |
| **Raw materials and consumables** | | X | X | X | X | X |
| **Building type** | | | X | X | X | X |
| **NACE (2-digit)** | X (1-digit) | X | X | X | X | X |

# 4. Results

Table 2 provides an overview over the imputation accuracy of the implemented approaches. The simple top-down approach allocating sector aggregates by employment shares (I.) is outperformed by all bottom-up approaches, as firm heterogeneity seems to drive companies' emission intensities. The explicit consideration of the selection process with the Heckman correction yields more accurate estimates (IIa&IIb.). Including building function into the model besides sector dummies and balance sheet items improve accuracy even more (IIb). Walter 2025 has additionally shown that the missingness in emissions can be treated as MAR process when a rich set of firm variables is included and the selection and outcome can sufficiently be explained the relevant covariates. This is the foundation for the usage of further imputation methods as most approaches require the process to be MAR to yield unbiased estimates (Tan & Ishwaran 2017, Buczak et al. 2023). The single value imputation with the Heckman correction even outperforms the predictive mean matching in mice and the KNN-method. However, all approaches were outperformed by random forest-based methods (especially MissForest Va). This is in line with other findings from other domains (see for instance Jerez et al. 2010 and Tan & Ishwaran 2017 for the medical domain, Stekhoven & Buehlmann 2012 for bioinformatics and Niederhametner at al. 2025).

Predictive mean matching in MICE, when accounting for firm heterogeneity, yields values that are almost as accurate as those produced by the very simple approach based on employment shares.

**Accuracy of imputation approaches** **Table 2**

| Approach | Top down | Bottom-Up approaches | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **(I)** | **(IIa)** | **(IIb)** | **III** | **(IV)** | **(Va)** | **(Vb)** | **(Vc)** |
| | Traditional: Using employment shares per industry | Heckman correction Including balance sheets | Heckman correction Including balance sheets Including building information | MICE (m=1, pmm) | KNN (k=5) | MissForest | Ranger Random Forest (VIM) | XGBoost (VIM) |
| **Root Mean Squared Error (Deviation imputed from actual values)** | 2.525187 | 1.8865 | 1.7070 | 2.399804 | 2.1356 | **1.0009** | 1.1167 | 1.13713 |

## 5. Conclusion

Our analyses for the German case have shown, that modern machine learning technique (especially random forest imputations) can benefit and improve the accuracy of imputing corporate GHG emissions. Even simpler bottom-up approaches, that account for firm heterogeneity at the microlevel, outperform top-down approaches based on employment weights. The higher accuracy at the microlevel emphasizes the superiority of bottom-up approaches when conducting analyses with microdata. Moreover, we have seen that novel data sources such as building data can help to overcome potential selection bias, add more explanatory power and increase the accuracy of the imputations.

Given that machine learning methods require bigger training data sets, our analyses could be further improved by multiple dimensions. First with respect to coverage, as individual emission data from the federal statistical offices might be integrated. In doing so, the proportions of missing in the data could be reduced and the robustness of our results could be evaluated. One approach could be to run the analysis for all countries covered by EU ETS and proof the generalizability of our results.

Second, as we only assume the data to be MAR, a combination of explicitly addressing an MNAR process and machine learning techniques could shed more light on the latent selection bias. Furthermore, other novel data sources (such as satellite or overflight images from the company property) can be combined to add more relevant information for the variation in corporate emission intensities.

Furthermore, our analyses could be complemented by the equally popular approach using input-output-tables (Liu&Fan 2017, Matthews et al. 2008, v. Kalckreuth 2022).

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DEUTSCHE BUNDESBANK EUROSYSTEM

# Estimating companies' GHG emissions using information from individual financial accounts and building data

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Data Service Centre

# Outline

1. Motivation
2. Challenges
3. Data Overview
4. Results
5. Conclusion and extensions

# Motivation
# Data gaps in the sustainable finance landscape

- Measuring potential **risk exposure** imposed by **climate change** for financial systems
- **Publication** of climate related **indicators** to substantiate policy making:
  - Central banks (ECB and national banks) started to publish climate related indicators to depict physical and transitory risks (such as emerging from CO2 emissions)
  - An international working has developed indicators for carbon footprint
- **Data gaps** in GHG emission data
  - Low **coverage**: Plethora of commercial data on GHG but reliable official data is rather scarce and low coverage (due to existing framework)
  - Lack of **transparency**: black box of estimation methods
  - Reported data by companies voluntary, not properly audited and not harmonised

# Motivation
# Goal



Can we use other official data to close the data gaps

- Propose **bottom-up approach** to close data gaps (beyond employment and sector information)
- Combine financial data and novel geospatial data with emission data
- Model the **data generation process** explicitely for missing emission data
- Evaluate **official data** on company GHG emissions
- Compare **performance** of different approaches

# Challenges
# Data characteristics



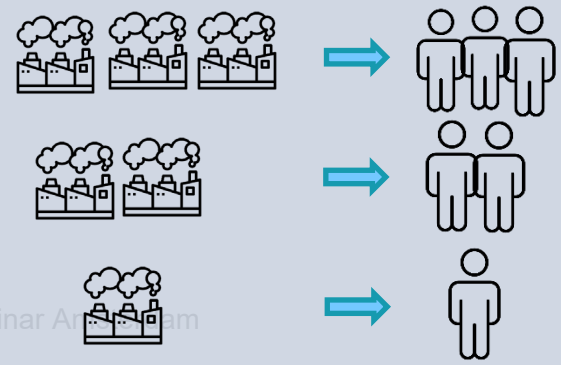
- **Missing data generation** (Rubin classification 1976)
  - Missing completely at random (MCAR)
  - Missing at random (MAR)
  - Missing not at random (MNAR)
- Emission data are **MNAR** because the amount of emissions would determine whether a company reports emissions or not
- **Only 1,470 German companies** report emission data in the official registry
- Commercial emission data **mostly estimated** (models are blackbox)
- Reported emissions in financial reports comprise the GHG emissions of the **whole enterprise group**

# Challenges
# Solution approaches



## Top down

- **Breakdown** of country/ sector aggregates to company level proportional to employment
- Easy to implement
- Proportionality assumption



## Input Output Tables

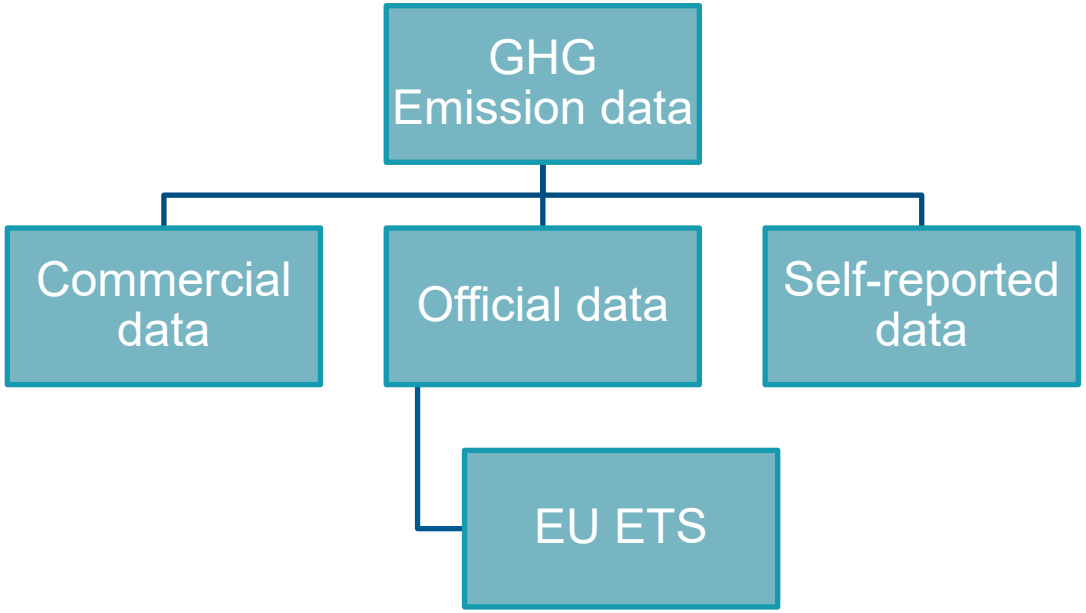
- Company emissions are estimated based on **Input-Output-Tables**
- e.g. Liu & Fan (2017) or Matthews et al. (2008)

## Bottom up

- Impute/ Predict emissions by means of **other company variables**
- Kalesnik et al. (2020): evluate voluntary reporting and commercial data for listed companies in UK
- Olesiewicz et al. (2023) advanced imputation approach, but restricted set of variables

# Data Overview
# Official Emission data

- Emission data from the EU Emisson Trading Systems (EU ETS) starting from 2008
  - ✓ **Reliable**
  - ✓ **Standardised:** multiple countries engaged in emission trading
  - ✓ **Granular:** Information on plant level (not like commercial data or data from financial reports)
  - ✓ **Linkable:** to financial data or other company data (identifiers, entity concepts)
- Cover **Scope 1** emissions (directly produced during production process)



# Data Overview
# Bundesbank data



- Individual **financial statements** of German non-financial firms from public sources (provided by commercial providers) (JANIKA)
- Financial figures from financial reporting (balance sheets and income statements) of German companies from 1997-2023
- Anonymous version is **accessible** for researchers (Annual financial statements of non-financial firms (JANIS and Ustan) | Deutsche Bundesbank)
- Balance sheet items as **depictions of production factors** and value added → approximation of production process
- Gather information on **nexus** between emissions and production factors
- More **exact distribution** of emissions

# Data Overview
# Geospatial Data



- Digital Twin Data from the Federal Agency for Cartography and Geodesy
- LoD1 Data: Level of Detail (3D-Gebäudemodelle LoD2 Deutschland (bund.de)
- Detailed information on buildings in the German jurisdiction, including the building type and function as well as 3D model with geocoordinates (CityGML) and other characteristics (# floors, volume, height, rooftypes)
- Can the function of a company building predict emissions?

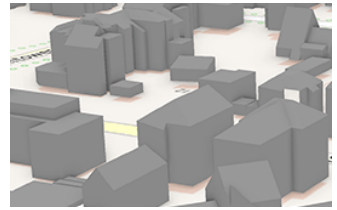


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**Fig. 1.** The five LODs of CityGML 2.0. The geometric detail and the semantic complexity increase, ending with the LOD4 containing indoor features

# Data Overview
# Model to account for sample selection

**Heckman‘s two step procedure** (Heckman 1976) :

I. Model the **Selection** (the „missingness“)

$$M_{it} = Size_{it} + NACE_{it} \rightarrow IMR_{it}$$

II. Model the **Outcome** (GHG emissions values)

Inverse Mills Ratio as correction factor for selection

$$E_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 build_{it} + \beta_2 NACE_{it} + \beta_3 Intang_{it} + \beta_4 Land_{it} + \beta_5 Tech_{it} + \beta_6 Raw_{it} + \beta_7 IMR_{it} + \sum_{j=8}^{n} \beta_j X_{itj}$$

## Data cleaning

- Censoring (outlier correction)
- Normalisation (in relation to total assets, emissions relative and log transformation)
- Clustered standard errors (company level)
- Industry fixed effects (unobserved heterogeneity)

## Variables

- *M* – Missing in emissions (yes=0, no=1)
- *E* - Emissions
- *Build* – Building function
- *Intang* –Intangible Assets
- *Size* – Company size class (XS-L), employment
- *Land* – Land and buildings
- *IMR* – Inverse Mills Ratio
- *Tech* – Technical equipment and machinery
- *Raw* – Raw materials and consumables
- *NACE* – Industry Fixed Effects

# Results
# Selection model

- Size mainly drives Reporting of Emissions
- Due to nature of data opposite to Olesiewicz et al. (2023)
- Larger companies are more likely to report emissions (largest companies as reference category here)

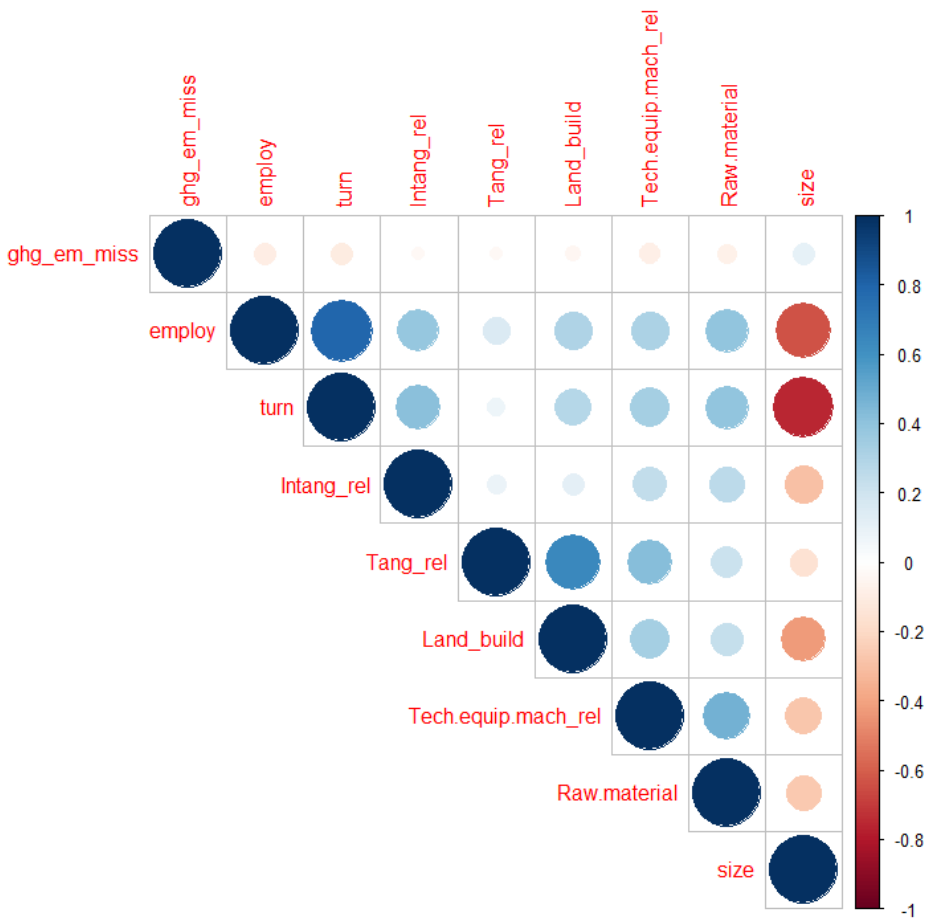
| | Probit | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(>\|z\|) | |
| (Intercept) | -5.53 | 130.20 | -0.042 | 0.966 | |
| sizeM | -0.75 | 0.02 | -43.788 | <2e-16 | *** |
| sizeS | -1.25 | 0.03 | -42.486 | <2e-16 | *** |
| sizeXS | -1.89 | 0.08 | -24.614 | <2e-16 | *** |
| Industry FE | | | Yes | | |

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

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)

Null deviance: 57,619 on 573,663 degrees of freedom

Residual deviance: 35,583 on 573,575 degrees of freedom



# Results
# Outcome model



**Bottom up approach:** Step Two Estimation of Outcome Model (Estimating GHG based on balance sheet items)

| | Dependent Variable: GHG emissions (rel_log) | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Independent Variables | (1) | (2) | (3) |
| Constant | 4.79*** (0.425) | | |
| log(employ) | -0.121* (0.052) | -0.075 (0.254) | -0.243 (0.241) |
| IMR | -0.743*** (0.135) | 0.244 (0.269) | 0.101 (0.279) |
| log(empl)^2 | | 0.012 (0.024) | 0.029 (0.023) |
| Intangibles_rel | | | -0.420*** (0.092) |
| Land_rel | | | 0.155* (0.069) |
| Tech_and_mach_rel | | | 0.025 (0.069) |
| Raw_materials_and_consum_rel | | | 0.439*** (0.094) |
| Fixed-Effects: | | | |
| Industry | No | Yes | Yes |
| S.E.: Clustered | by: Company ID | by: Company ID | by: Company ID |
| Observations | 5,025 | 5,025 | 5,025 |
| $R^2$ | 0.040 | 0.156 | 0.198 |
| Within $R^2$ | -- | 0.002 | 0.051 |

# Results
# Outcome model



**Bottom up approach:** Outcome model incorporating building data

| Dependent Variable: GHG emissions (rel_log) | | |
|---|---|---|
| Independent Variables | (4) | (5) |
| Constant | 4.79*** (0.425) | |
| log(employ) | -0.340 (0.243) | |
| IMR | 0.160 (0.242) | 0.156 (0.209) |
| log(empl)^2 | 0.033 (0.023) | |
| Intangibles_rel | -0.386*** (0.088) | -0.387*** (0.088) |
| Land_rel | 0.178* (0.072) | 0.169* (0.071) |
| Tech_and_mach_rel | 0.002 (0.065) | -0.007 (0.065) |
| Raw_materials_and_consum_rel | 0.333*** (0.080) | 0.321*** (0.079) |
| Controls: Building type | Yes | Yes |
| Fixed-Effects: | | |
| Industry | Yes | Yes |
| S.E.: Clustered | by: Company ID | by: Company ID |
| Observations | 4,855 | 4,855 |
| $R^2$ | 0.378 | 0.376 |
| Within $R^2$ | 0.260 | 0.258 |

# Results Evaluation

## Performance of different approaches (Top down, bottom up)

| **Approach** | **Top down** | **Bottom up** | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | (I) | (II) | (III) | (IV) | (V) | (VI) |
| | Using employment shares per industry | Heckman correction Including balance sheets | Heckman correction Including balance sheets Including building information | KNN (k=5) | MissForest | Ranger Random Forest (VIM) |
| **Root Mean Squared Error (Deviation imputed from actual values)** | 2.4624 | 1.8865 | **1.7070** | 2.1356 | **1.0009** | **1.1167** |

# Conclusion
# Potential extensions and further research avenues



## Summary

- **Bottom up** approaches that incorporate further data **outperform** top down approach based on employment weights alone
- Machine Learning approaches (especially **random forests imputations**) **outperform** classical statistical approaches
- **Building** data adds significant **explanatory power**
- Emissions are more closely related to production processes and input intensities—such as **tangible fixed assets, land** and **buildings, and raw materials**—than to firm size, even after controlling for industry-specific effects.
- Top- down methods based only on industry and employment data may overlook **firm-level variation**
- Firms with a higher share of **intangible assets**—often associated with innovation and R&D—appear to have a lower **emissions footprint**, hinting at a potential link between innovative capacity and carbon efficiency.

## Possible extensions

- **Linkage:** Integrate **Energy consumption** from structural business statistics X **emission factors** (from UBA)
- **Generalisability:** Include other countries (ETS covers EU-countries and linktables are available)
- **Novel approaches:** Test further ML approaches such as **XGBoost** or **Transfomer Models** (VIM will be extended)

# Thank you for your attention

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