Machine Learning for econometrics

Flexible models for tabular data

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A lot of today's content is taken from the excellent sklearn mooc (Estève et al., 2022)

Reminder from previous session

- Statistical learning 101: bias-variance trade-off
- Regularization for linear models: Lasso, Ridge, Elastic Net
- Transformation of variables: polynomial regression

Reminder from previous session

- Statistical learning 101: bias-variance trade-off
- Regularization for linear models: Lasso, Ridge, Elastic Net
- Transformation of variables: polynomial regression
- But... How to select the best model? the best hyper-parameters?

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- 2. Flexible models: Tree, random forests and boosting
- 3. A word on other families of models

Model evaluation and selection with cross-validation

A closer look at model evaluation: Wage example

Example with the Wage dataset

• Raw dataset: (N=534, p=11)

EDUCATION	SOUTH	SEX	EXPERIENCE	UNION	WAGE	AGE	RACE	OCCUPATION	SECTOR	MARR
8	no	female	21	not_member	5.10	35	Hispanic	Other	Manufacturing	Married
9	no	female	42	not_member	4.95	57	White	Other	Manufacturing	Married
12	no	male	1	not_member	6.67	19	White	Other	Manufacturing	Unmarried
12	no	male	4	not_member	4.00	22	White	Other	Other	Unmarried
12	no	male	17	not_member	7.50	35	White	Other	Other	Married

•

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A closer look at model evaluation: Wage example

Example with the Wage dataset

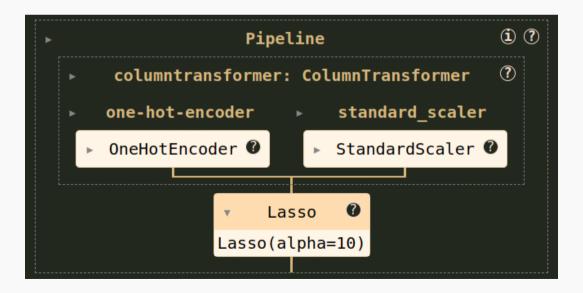
- Raw dataset: (N=534, p=11)
- Transformation: encoding categorical data, scaling numerical data: (N=534, p=23)

encoder_	one-hot- _SOUTH_no			one-hot- encoderSEX_male	one-hot- encoderUNION_member	encoderUNION_not
	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	
	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	
	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	
	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	
	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	

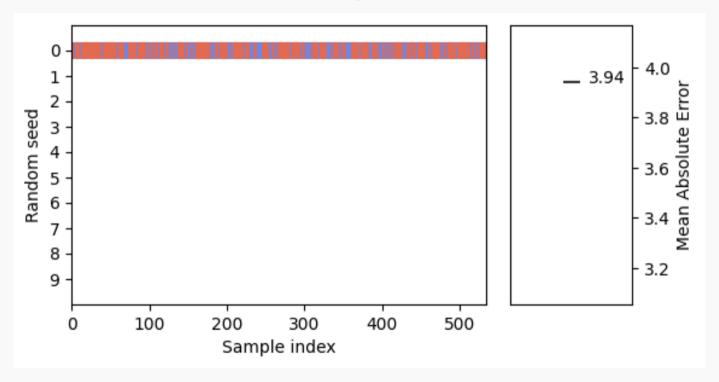
A closer look at model evaluation: Wage example

Example with the Wage dataset

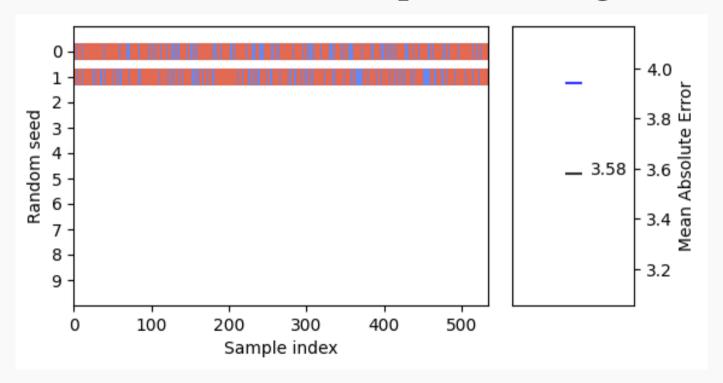
- Raw dataset: (N=534, p=11)
- Transformation: encoding categorical data, scaling numerical data: (N=534, p=23)
- Regressor: Lasso with regularization parameter ($\alpha = 10$)



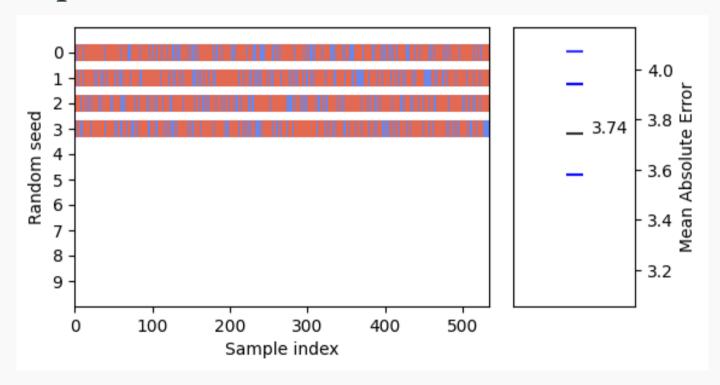
Splitting once: In red, the training set, in blue, the test set



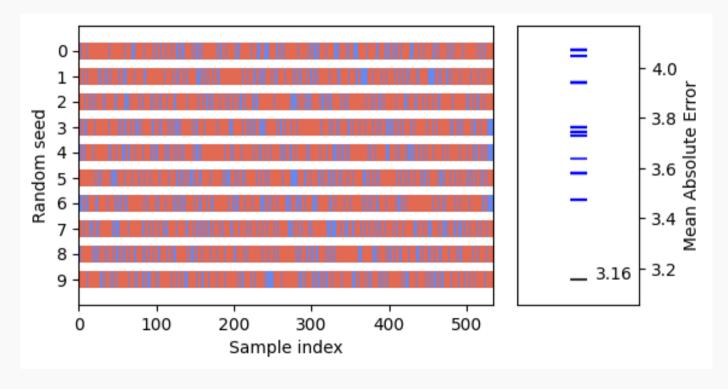
But we could have chosen another split! Yielding a different MAE



And another split...



Splitting ten times





Distribution of MAE: 3.71 ± 0.26

Repeated train/test splits = Cross-validation

Cross-validation

• In sklearn, it can be instantiated with cross_validate.

```
1 from sklearn.model_selection import cross_validate
2 from sklearn.model_selection import ShuffleSplit
3
4 cv = ShuffleSplit(n_splits=40, test_size=0.3, random_state=0)
5 cv_results = cross_validate(
6 regressor, data, target, cv=cv, scoring="neg_mean_absolute_error"
7 )
```

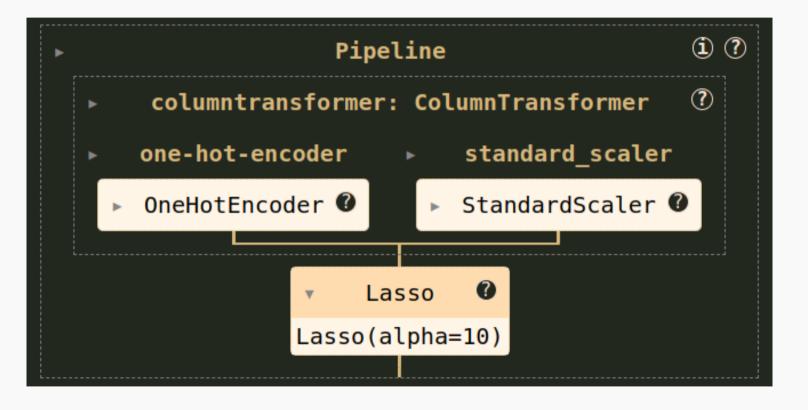
Repeated train/test splits = Cross-validation

Cross-validation

- In sklearn, it can be instantiated with cross_validate.
- c Robustly estimate generalization performance
- A Let's use it to select the best models among several canditates!

Cross-validation for model selection: choose best α for lasso

• Wage pipeline



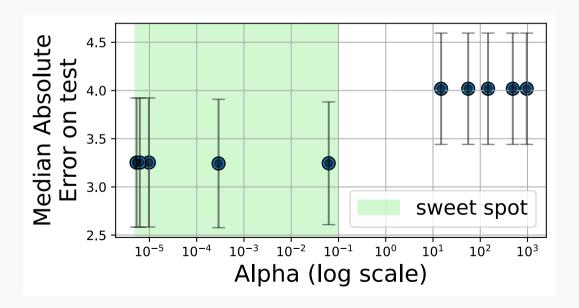
Cross-validation for model selection: choose best α for lasso

- Wage pipeline
- Random search over a distribution of α values

```
param distributions = {"lasso alpha": loguniform(1e-6, 1e3)}
                                                                          Python
  model_random_search = RandomizedSearchCV(
      pipeline,
      param_distributions=param_distributions,
5
      n iter=10, # number of hyper-parameters sampled
6
      cv=5, # number of folds for the cross-validation
      scoring="neg mean absolute error", # score to optimize
8
  model random search.fit(X, y)
```

Cross-validation for model selection: choose best α for lasso

- Wage pipeline
- Random search over a distribution of α values
- Identify the best α value(s)



What final model to use for new prediction?

- Either refit on full data the model with the best hyper-parameters on the full data: often used in pratice.
- Or use the aggregation of outputs from the cross-validation of the best model:

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{y}_k$$

where \hat{y}_k is the prediction of the model trained on the k-th fold.

• Proof that cross-validation selects the best model asymptotically among a family of models (averaging on the folds): (Lecué & Mitchell, 2012)

Naive cross-validation to select AND estimate the best performances

Hyper-parameters selection is a kind of model fitting

Using a single loop of cross-validation, the full dataset is used:

- to select the best hyper-parameters
- AND to estimate the generalization performance of the selected model



Naive cross-validation can lead to overfitting

Naive cross-validation to select AND estimate the best performances

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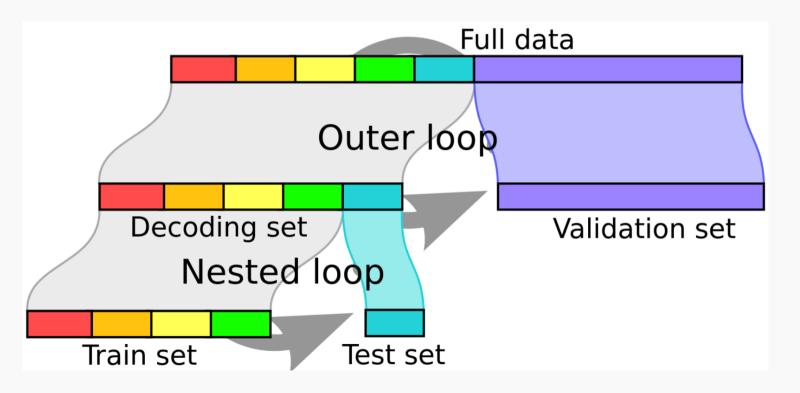
Naive cross-validation can lead to overfitting



Solution -> nested cross-validation (Varoquaux et al., 2017)

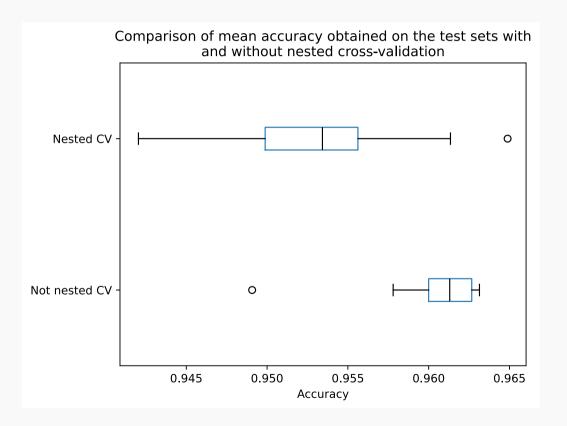
Nested cross-validation to select AND estimate the best performances

- Inner CV loop to select the best hyper-parameters
- Outer loop to estimate the generalization performance of the selected model



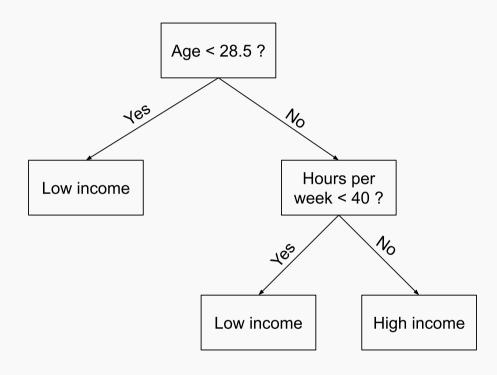
Over optimistic performance estimation: example

- Dataset: Breast cancer (N, p) = (569, 30)
- Classifier: RandomForestClassifier with multiple choices of hyper-parameter

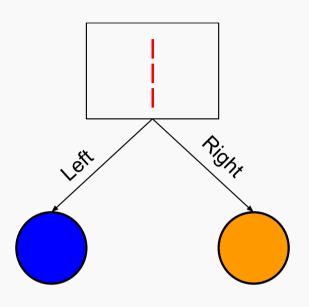


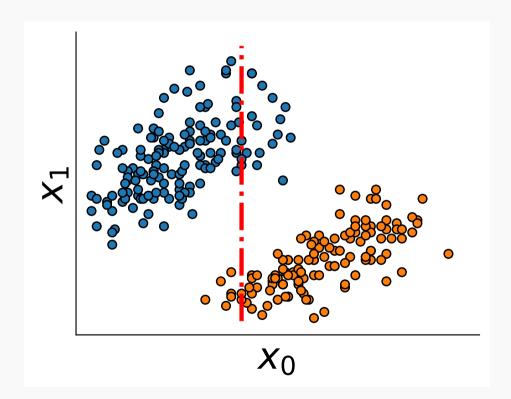
Flexible models: Tree, random forests and boosting

What is a decision tree? An example.

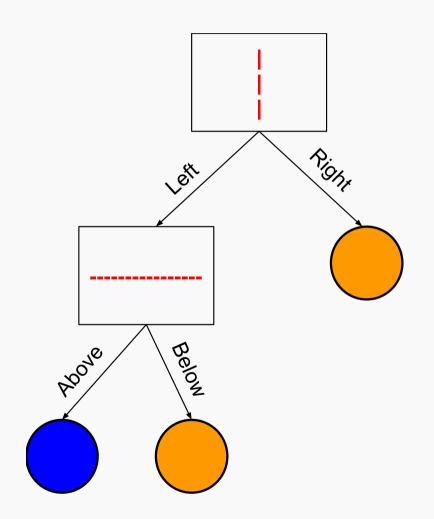


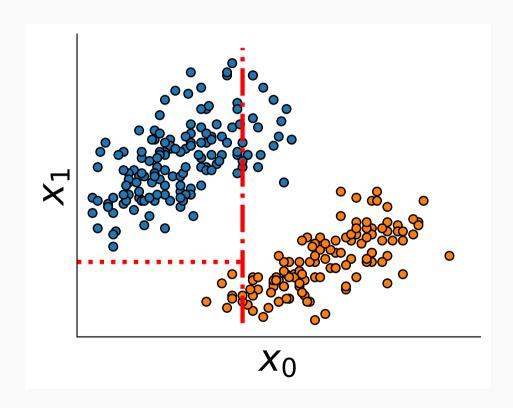
Growing a classification tree



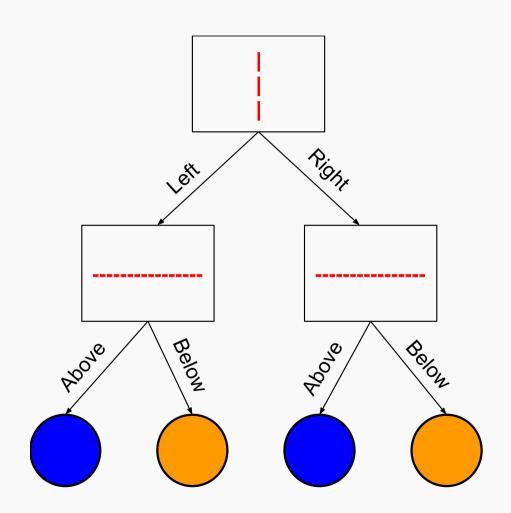


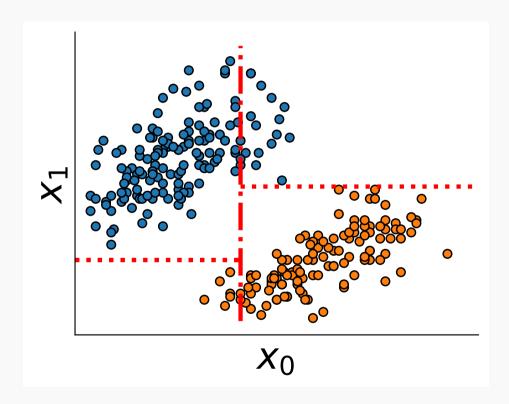
Growing a classification tree



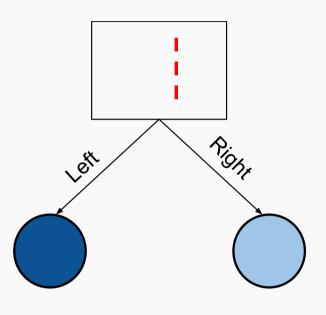


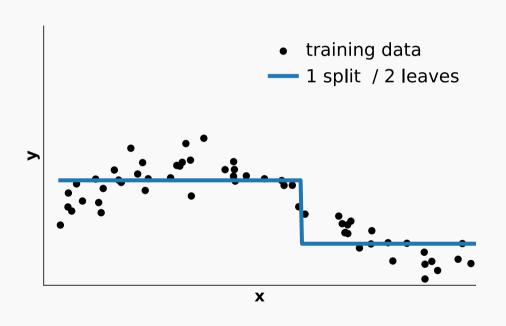
Growing a classification tree



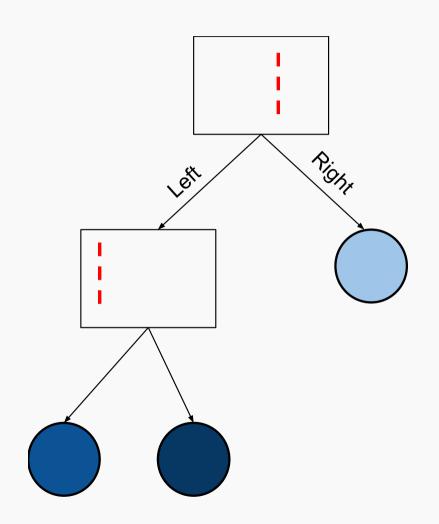


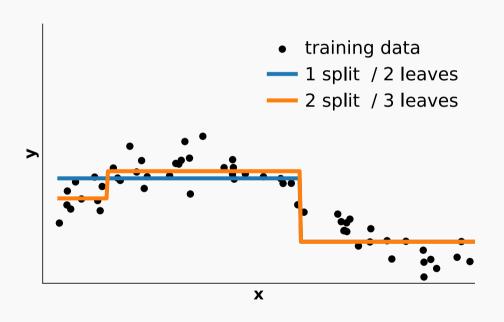
Growing a regression tree



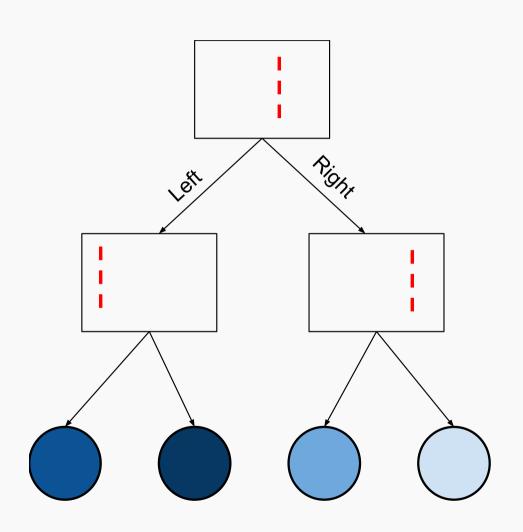


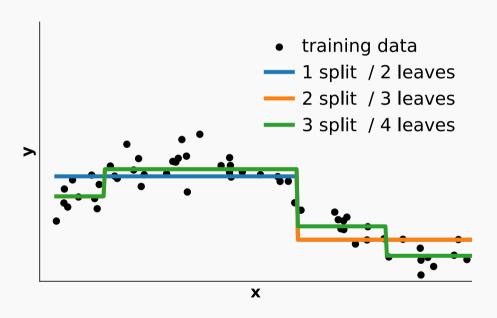
Growing a regression tree





Growing a regression tree





How the best split is chosen?

The best split minimizes an impurity criteria

- for the next left and right nodes
- over all features
- and all possible splits

Formally

Let the data at node m be Q_m with n_m samples. For a candidate split on feature j and threshold t_m $\theta = (j, t_m)$, the split yields:

$$Q_m^{\mathrm{left}}(\theta) = \left\{ (x,y) | x_j \leq t_m \right\} \text{ and } Q_m^{\mathrm{right}}(\theta) = Q_m \setminus Q_m^{\mathrm{left}}(\theta)$$

Then θ is chosen to minimize the impurity criteria averaged over the two children nodes:

$$\theta^* = \mathrm{argmin}_{j,t_m} \left[\frac{n_m^{\mathrm{left}}}{n_m} H \big(Q_m^{\mathrm{left}}(\theta) \big) + \frac{n_m^{\mathrm{right}}}{n_m} H \big(Q_m^{\mathrm{right}}(\theta) \big) \right] \text{ with } H \text{ the impurity criteria.}$$

Impurity criteria

For classification

Gini impurity

$$H(Q_m) = \sum_k p_{mk} (1-p_{mk})$$
 with $p_{mk} = \frac{1}{n_m} \sum_{y \in Q_m} I(y=k)$

Cross-entropy

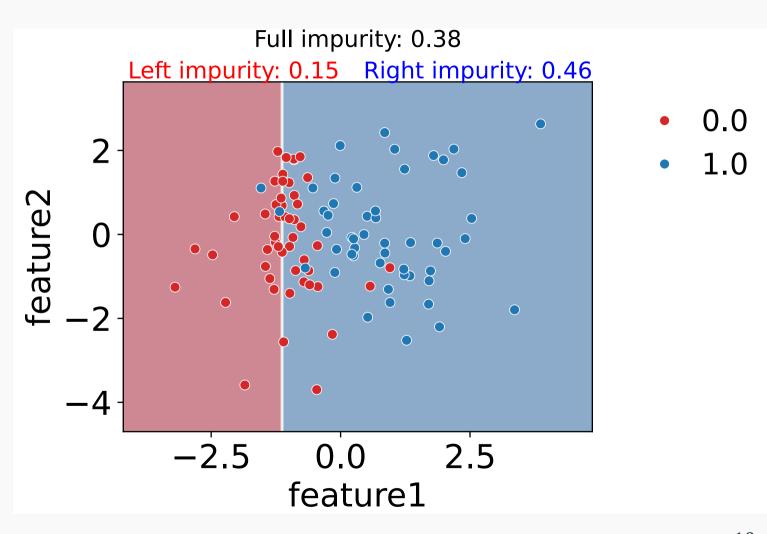
$$H(Q_m) = -\sum_{k \in K} p_{mk} \log(p_{mk})$$

For regression

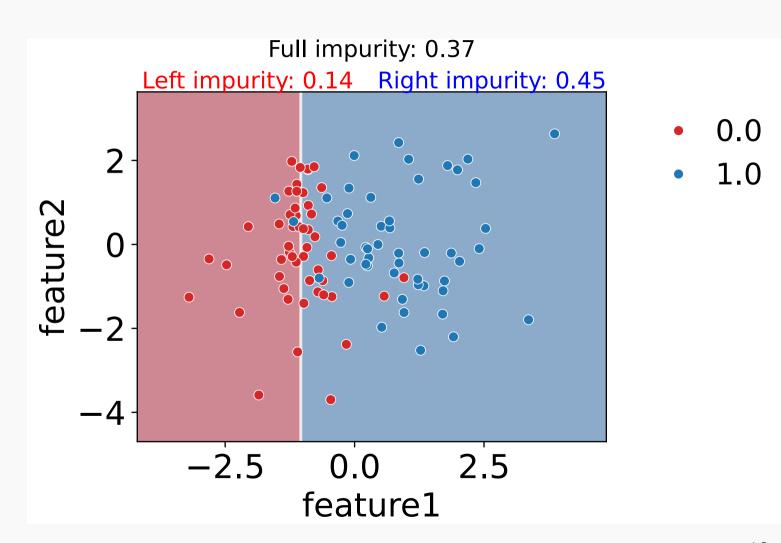
Mean squared error

$$H(Q_m) = \frac{1}{n_m} \sum_{y \in Q_m} \left(y - \overline{y_m}\right)^2$$
 where $\overline{y_m} = \frac{1}{n_m} \sum_{y \in Q_m} y$

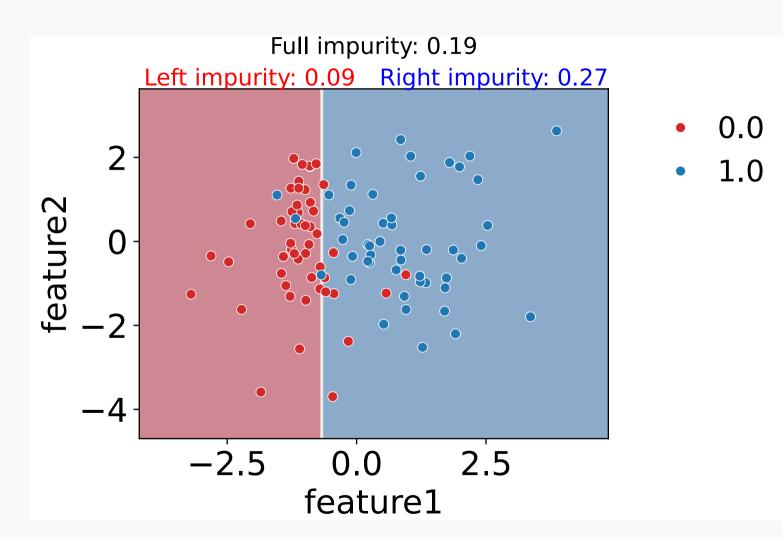
Random split



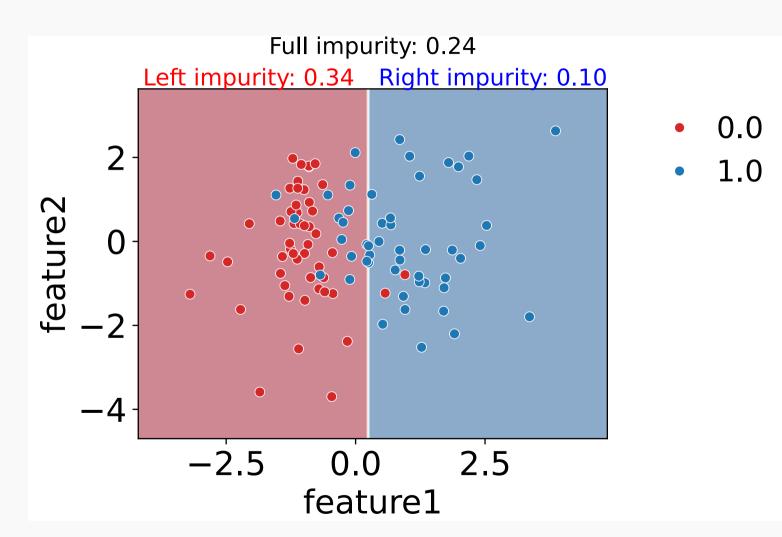
Moving the split to the right from one point



Moving the split to the right from 10 points

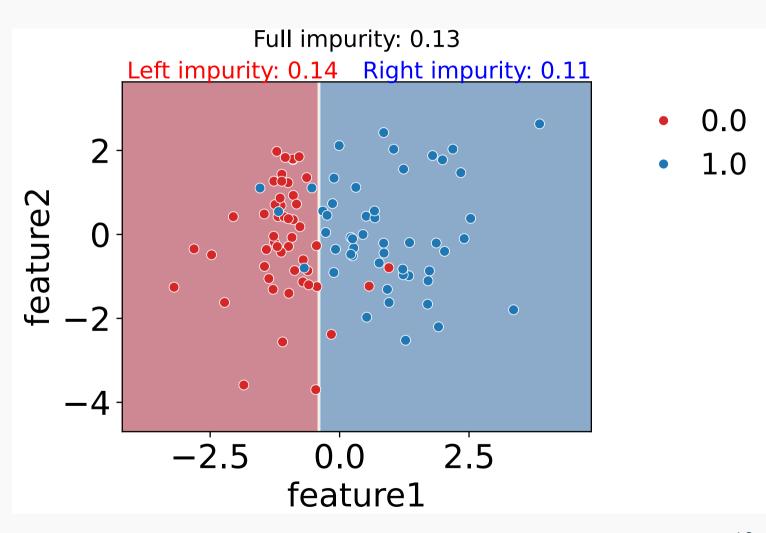


Moving the split to the right from 20 points



Chose the best split: example

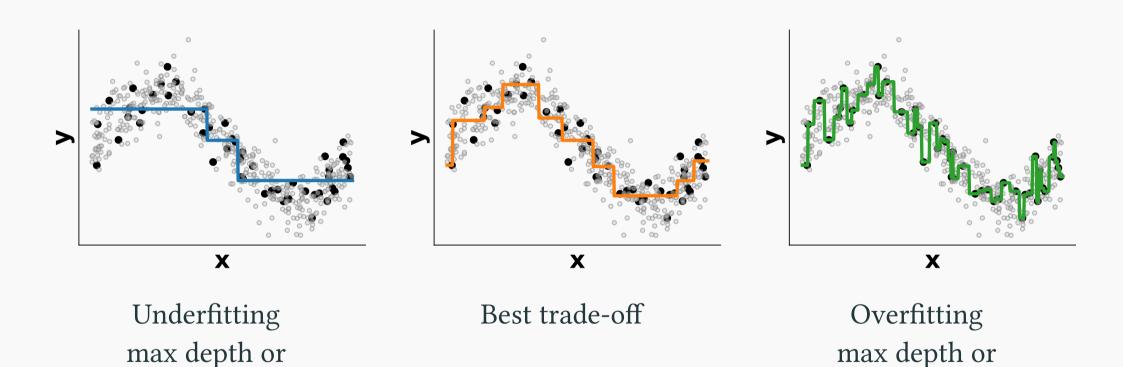
Best split



Tree depth and overfitting

max_leaf_nodes

too small



20

max_leaf_nodes

too large

Main hyper-parameters of tree models

Pros and cons of trees

Pros

- Easy to interpret
- Handle mixed types of data: numerical, categorical and missing data
- Handle interactions
- Fast to fit

Cons

- Prone to overfitting
- Unstable: small changes in the data can lead to very different trees
- Mostly useful as a building block for ensemble models: random forests and boosting trees

Ensemble models

Bagging: Bootstrap AGGregatING

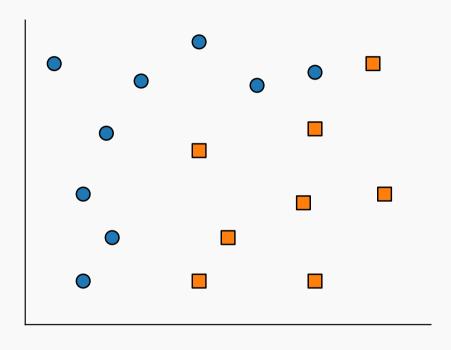
Bootstrap resampling (random sampling with replacement) proposed by (Breiman, 1996)

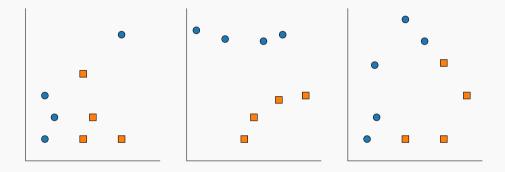
Built upon Bootstrap, introduced by (Efron, 1992) to estimate the variance of an estimator.

Bagging is used in machine learning to reduce the variance of a model prone to overfitting

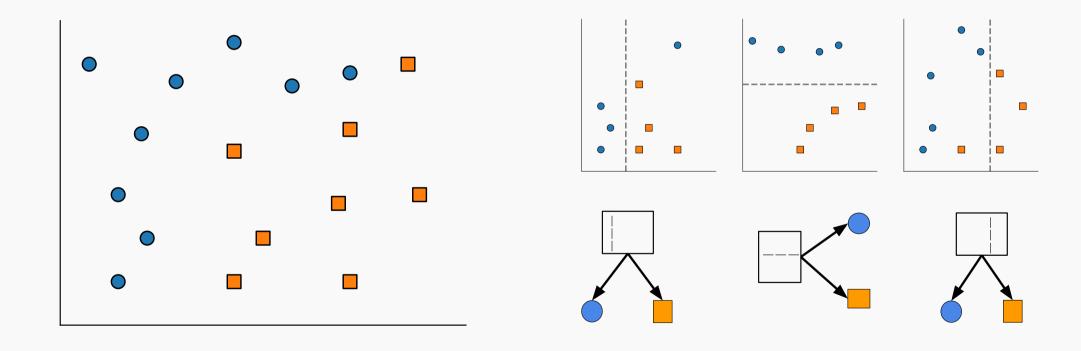
Can be used with any model

Random forests: Bagging with classification trees

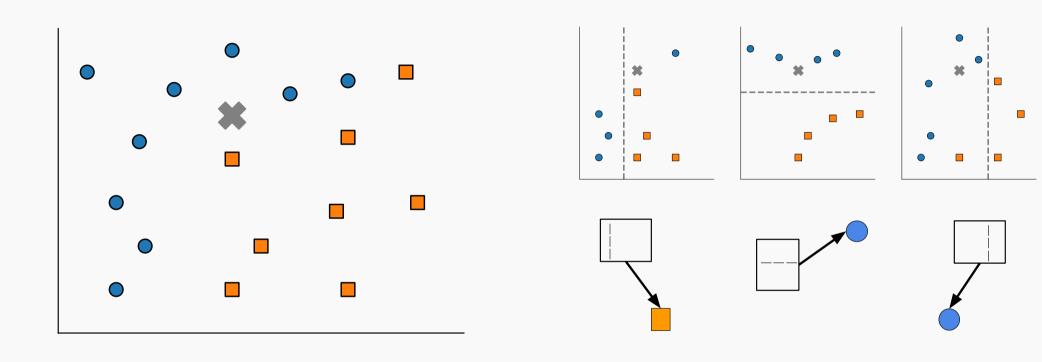


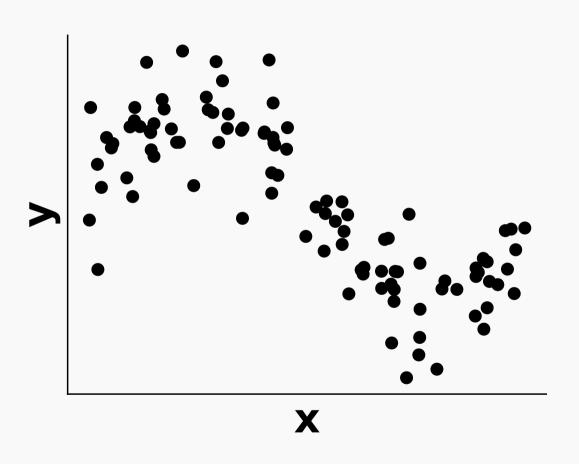


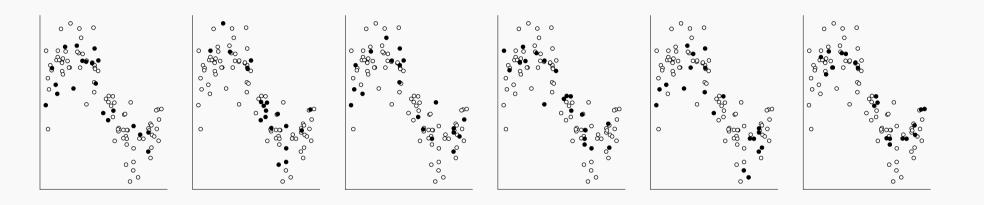
Random forests: Bagging with classification trees



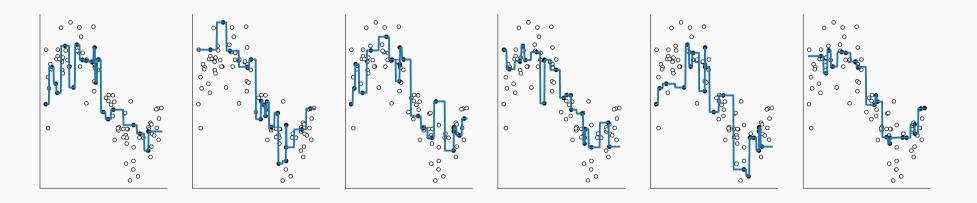
Random forests: Bagging with classification trees



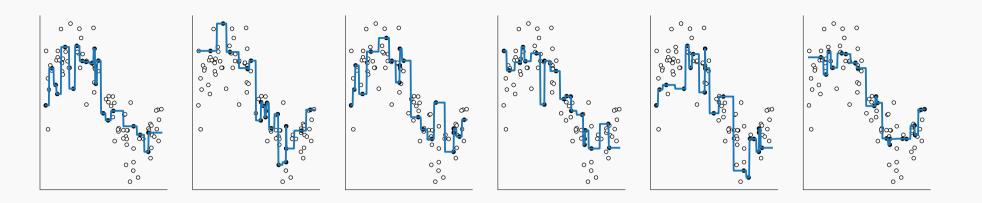




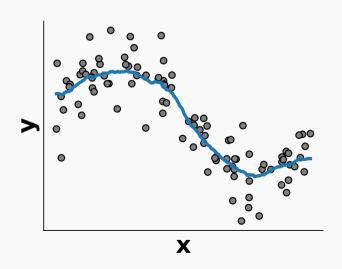
- Select multiple subsets of the data



- Select multiple subsets of the data
- Fit one model on each



- Select multiple subsets of the data
- Fit one model on each
- Average the predictions



Main hyper-parameters of random forests

```
sklearn.ensemble.RandomForestRegressor(
                                                                                   Python
     n estimators=100, # Number of trees to fit (sample randomization): not useful to
     tune in practice
     criterion='squared error',
     max depth=None, # tree regularization
4
5
     min samples split=2, # tree regularization
6
     min samples leaf=1, # tree regularization
     min impurity decrease=0.0, # tree regularization
     n jobs=None, # Number of jobs to run in parallel
9
     random state=None, # Seed for randomization
10
     max features=1.0, # Number/ratio of features at each split (feature randomization)
     max samples = None # Number of sample to draw (with replacement) for each tree
11
12
```

Random Forests are bagged randomized decision trees

Random forests

- For each tree a random subset of samples are selected
- At each split a random subset of features are selected (more randomization)
- The best split is taken among the restricted subset
- Feature randomization decorrelates the prediction errors
- Uncorrelated errors make bagging work better

Take away

- Bagging and random forests fit trees independently
- Each deep tree overfits individually
- Averaging the tree predictions reduces overfitting

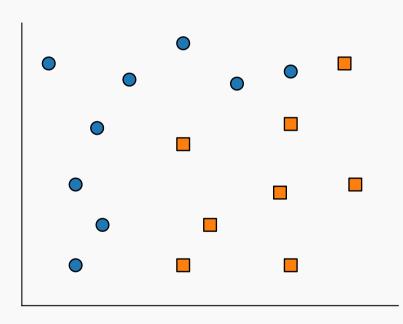
Boosting: Adaptive boosting

Boosting use multiple iterative models

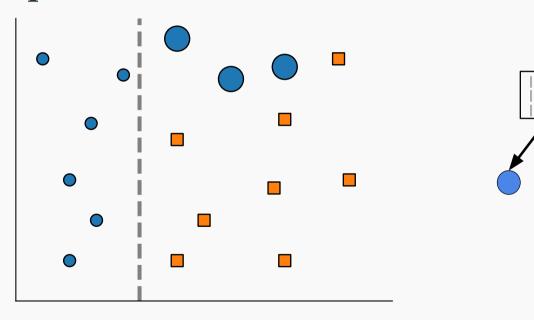
- Use of simple underfitting models: eg. shallow trees
- Each model corrects the errors of the previous one

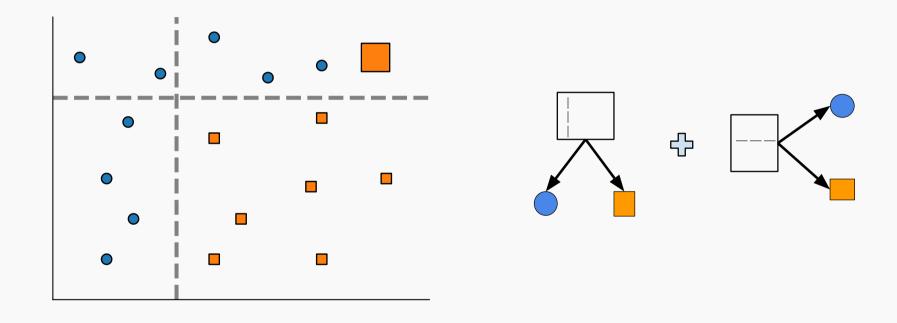
Two examples of boosting

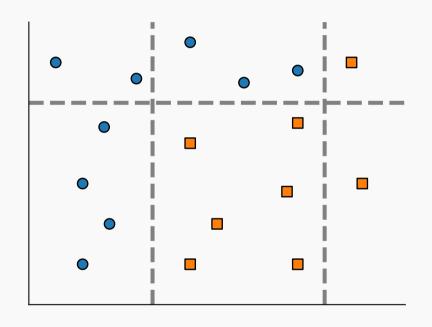
- Adaptive boosting (AdaBoost): reweight mispredicted samples at each step (Friedman et al., 2000)
- Gradient boosting: predict the negative errors of previous models at each step (Friedman, 2001)

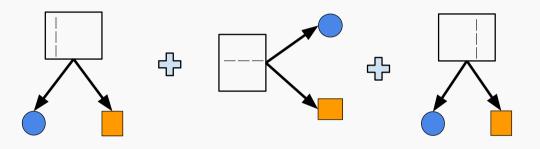


First prediction:









At each step, AdaBoost weights mispredicted samples

Adaboost for classification: choice of the weight

Algorithm for Adaboost

- Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- For m = 1 to M:
 - Fit a classifier $F_m(x)$ to the training data using weights w_i
 - Compute $\operatorname{err}_m = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i \mathbb{1}[y_i \neq F_m(x_i)]}{\sum_{i=1} w_i}$
 - Compute $\alpha_m = \log\left(\frac{1 \operatorname{err}_m}{\operatorname{err}_m}\right)$
 - $\blacktriangleright \text{ Set } w_i \to w_i \exp[\alpha_m \mathbb{1}[y_i \neq F_m(x_i)], i = 1..N$
- Output $F(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{M} \alpha_m G_{m(x)}\right)$
- See (Murphy, 2022) for the motivation.

Adaboost: Take-away

- Sequentially fit weak learners (eg. shallow trees)
- Each new learner corrects the errors of the previous one thanks to sample weights
- The final model is a weighted sum of the weak learners
- The weights are learned by the algorithm to given more importance to errors
- Any weak learner can be used

Adaboost: Take-away

- Sequentially fit weak learners (eg. shallow trees)
- Each new learner corrects the errors of the previous one thanks to sample weights
- The final model is a weighted sum of the weak learners
- The weights are learned by the algorithm to given more importance to errors
- Any weak learner can be used

Adaboost is tailored to a specific loss function (exponential loss)

Can we exploit the boosting idea for any loss function?

Boosting formulation

 $F_{m(x)} = F_{m-1}(x) + h_{m(x)}$ with F_{m-1} the previous estimator, h_m , new week learner.

Minimization problem

$$h_m = \operatorname{argmin}_h(L_m) = \operatorname{argmin}_h \sum_{i=1}^n l(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i) + h(x_i))$$

Rewrite inside the sum:

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Rewrite inside the sum:



Taylor expansion

For
$$l(\cdot)$$
 differentiable: $l(y+h) \approx l(y) + h \frac{\partial l}{\partial y}(y)$

Boosting formulation

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Rewrite inside the sum:

$$l(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i) + h(x_i)) = l(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i)) + h(x_i) \left[\frac{\partial l(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)} \right]_{F = F_{m-1}}$$



Taylor expansion

For
$$l(\cdot)$$
 differentiable: $l(y+h) \approx l(y) + h \frac{\partial l}{\partial y}(y)$

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Boosting formulation

 $F_{m(x)} = F_{m-1}(x) + h_{m(x)}$ with F_{m-1} the previous estimator, h_m , new week learner.

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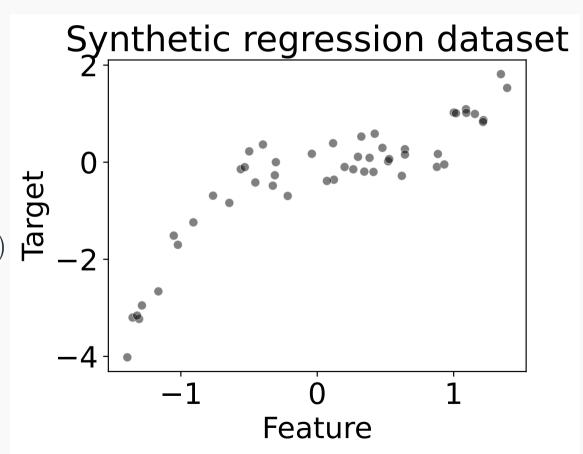
$$l(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i) + h(x_i)) = \underbrace{l(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i))}_{\text{constant in } h(x_i)} + h(x_i) \underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial l(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)}\right]_{F = F_{m-1}}}_{\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} g_i, \text{ the gradient}}$$

Finally: $h_m = \operatorname{argmin}_h \sum_{i=1}^n h(x_i) g_i \rightarrow \text{kind of an inner product} \langle g, h \rangle$

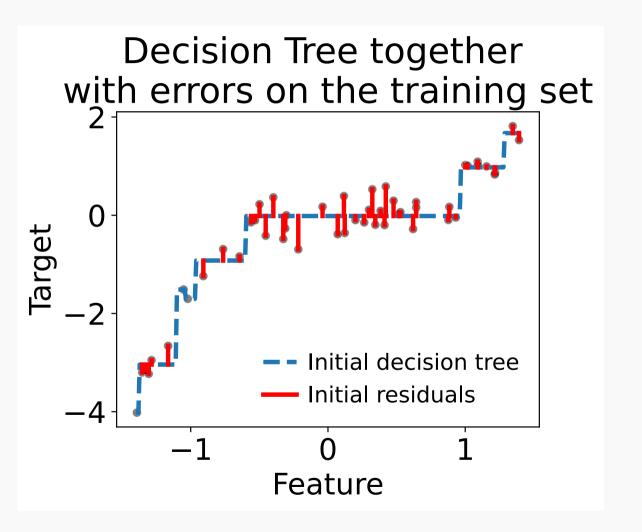
So $h_{m(x_i)}$ should be proportional to $-g_i$, so fit h_m to the negative gradient.

Regression

- The loss is: $l(y, F(x)) = (y F(x))^2$
- The gradient is: $g_i = -2(y_i F_{m-1}(x_i))$
- The new trees should fit the residuals

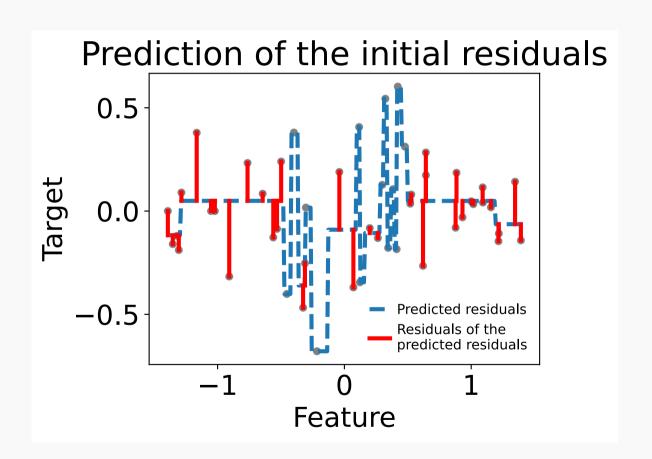


Fit a shallow tree (depth=3)



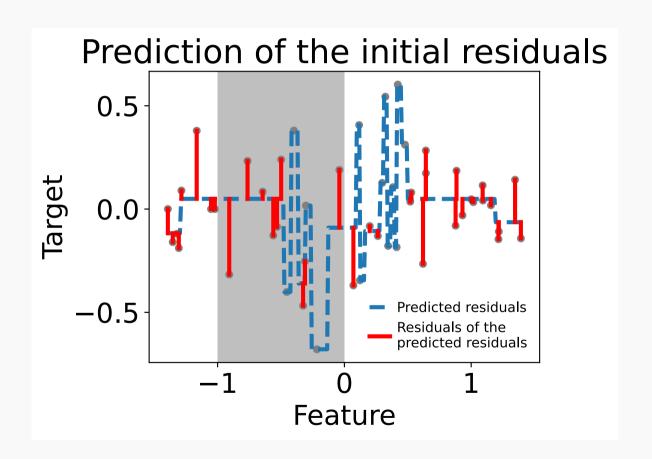
Fit a second tree to the residuals

• This tree performs poorly on some samples.



Fit a second tree to the residuals

- This tree performs well on some residuals.
- Let's zoom on one of those.



Focus on a sample

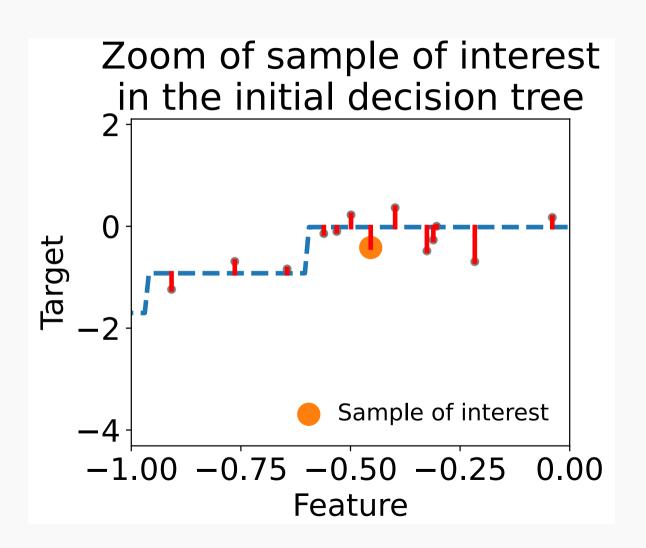
$$(x_i, y_i) = (-0.454, -0.417)$$

First tree prediction

Prediction: $f_1(x_i) = -0.016$

Residuals:

$$y_i - f_1(x_i) = -0.401$$



Focus on a sample

$$(x_i, y_i) = (-0.454, -0.417)$$

First tree prediction

Prediction: $f_1(x_i) = -0.016$

Residuals:

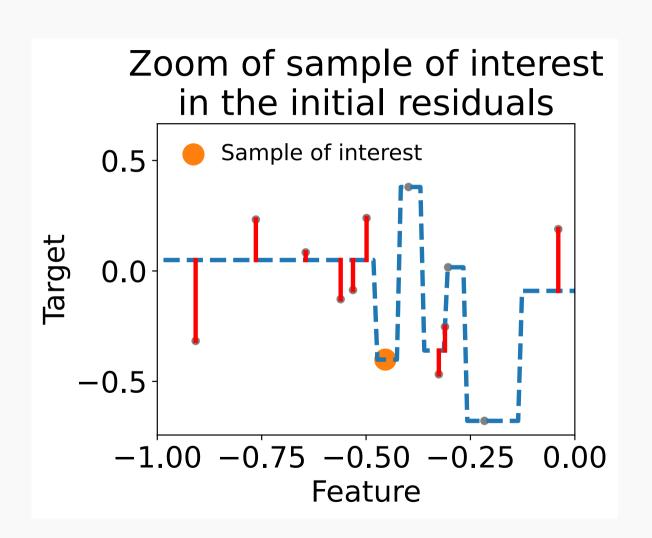
$$y_i - f_1(x_i) = -0.401$$

Second tree prediction

Prediction: $f_2(x_i) = -0.401$

Residuals:

$$y_i - f_1(x_i) - f_2(x_i) = 0$$



Faster gradient boosting with binned features



Gradient boosting is slow when N>10,000

Fitting each tree is quite slow: $O(pN \log(N))$ operations



HistGradientBoosting

- Discretize numerical features into 256 bins: less costly for tree splitting
- Multi core implementation
- Much much faster

Take away for ensemble models

Bagging (eg. Random forests)	Boosting
Fit trees independently	Fit trees sequentially
Each deep tree overfits	Each shallow tree underfits
Averaging the tree predictions reduces	Sequentially adding trees reduces underfit-
overfitting	ting

A word on other families of models

Other well known families of models

Generalized linear models

Kernel methods: Support vector machines, Gaussian processes

Deep neural networks

Why not use deep learning everywhere?

- Success of deep learning (aka deep neural networks) in image, speech recognition and text

Why not use deep learning everywhere?

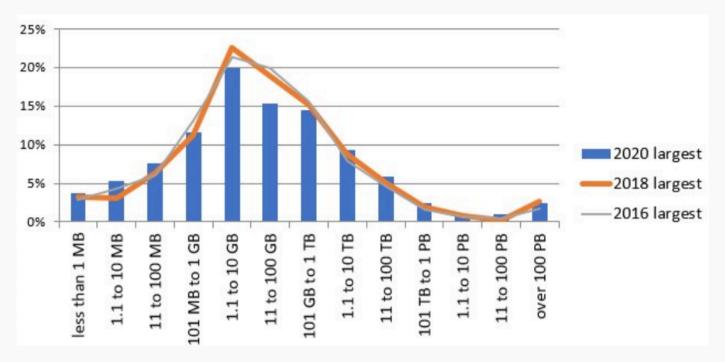
- Success of deep learning (aka deep neural networks) in image, speech recognition and text

Deep learning needs a lot of data (typically $N \approx 1$ million)

Do we have this much data in econometrics?

Answer 1: Limited data settings

• Typically in economics (but also everywhere), we have a limited number of observations

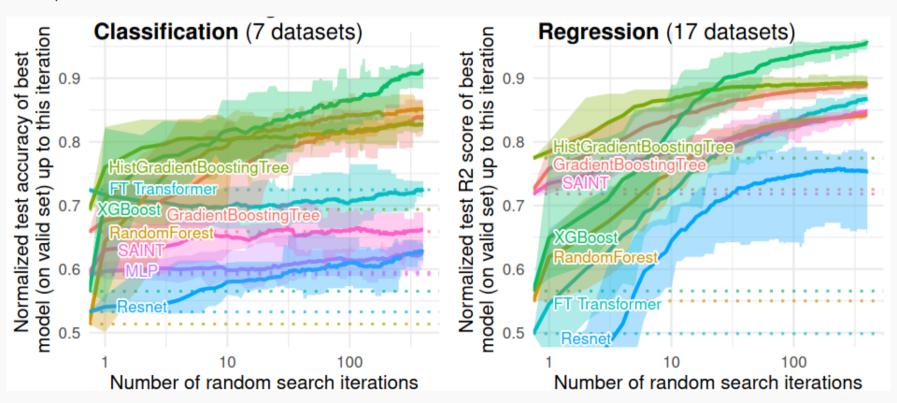


Typical dataset are mid-sized. This does not change with time.¹

¹https://www.kdnuggets.com/2020/07/poll-largest-dataset-analyzed-results.html

Answer 2: Deep learning underperforms on data tables

Tree-based methods outperform tailored deep learning architectures (Grinsztajn et al., 2022)



Nuance: LLM and pre-training for tabular learning

Recent work showing that tree-based models can be outperformed

- Skrub python library: data-wrangling and encoding (same people than sklearn)
- (Kim et al., 2024): CARTE: pretraining and transfer for tabular learning
- (Grinsztajn et al., 2023): Vectorizing string entries for data processing on tables: when are larger language models better?

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