Machine Learning for econometrics

Flexible models for tabular data

Matthieu Doutreligne

February 18th, 2025

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?

Table of contents

- 1. Model evaluation and selection with cross-validation
- 2. Flexible models: Tree, random forests and boosting
- 3. A word on other families of models
- 4. Python hands-on

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

•

•

A closer look at model evaluation: Wage example

Example with the Wage dataset

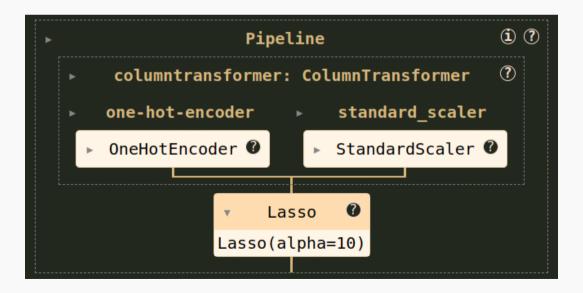
- Raw dataset: (N=534, p=11)
- Transformation: encoding categorical data, scaling numerical data: (N=534, p=23)

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	

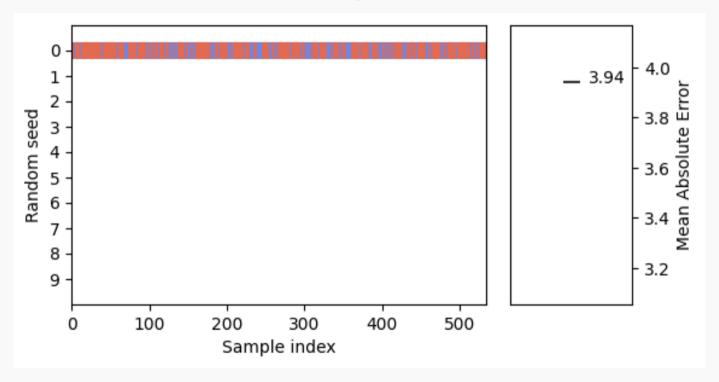
A closer look at model evaluation: Wage example

Example with the Wage dataset

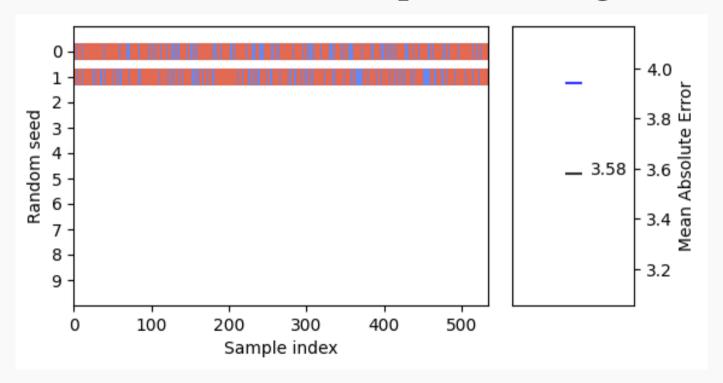
- Raw dataset: (N=534, p=11)
- Transformation: encoding categorical data, scaling numerical data: (N=534, p=23)
- Regressor: Lasso with regularization parameter ($\alpha = 10$)



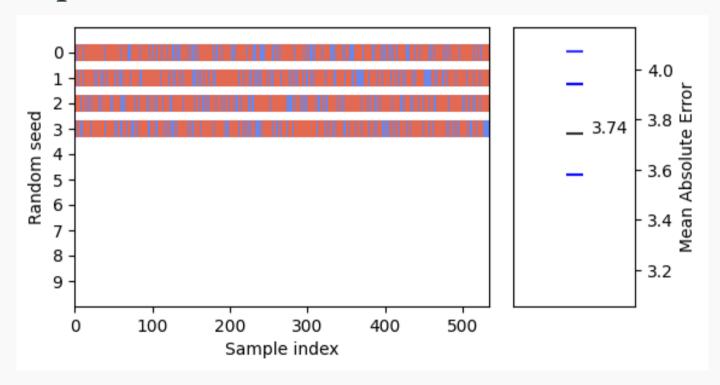
Splitting once: In red, the training set, in blue, the test set



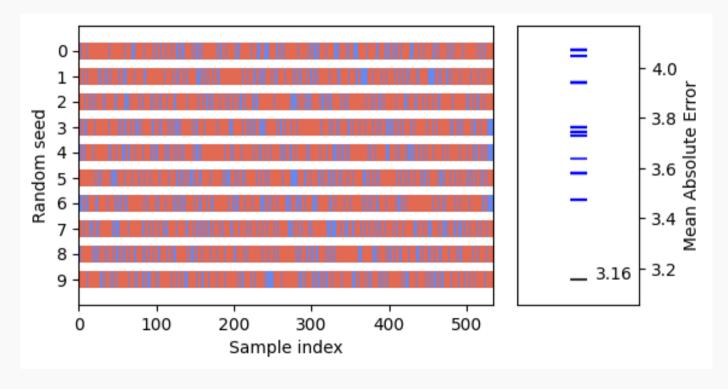
But we could have chosen another split! Yielding a different MAE



And another split...



Splitting ten times





Distribution of MAE: 3.71 ± 0.26

Repeated exclusive train/test splits = Cross-validation

Practical usage with sklearn: cross_validate.

```
1 from sklearn.model_selection import cross_validate
2 cv_results = cross_validate(
3    regressor, data, target, cv=5, scoring="neg_mean_absolute_error"
4 )
```

Repeated exclusive train/test splits = Cross-validation

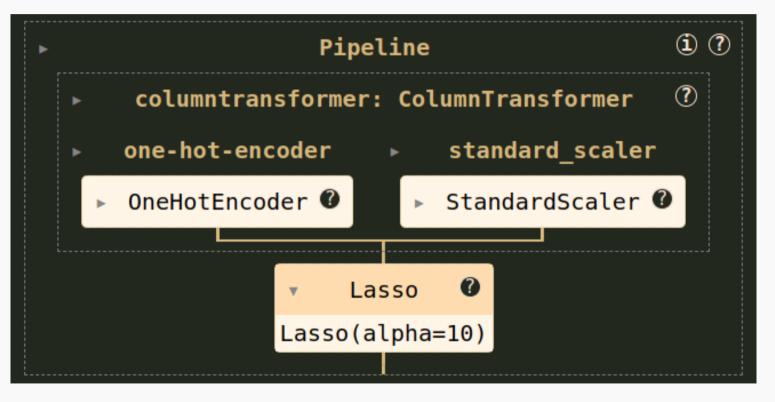
Practical usage with sklearn: cross_validate.

```
1 from sklearn.model_selection import cross_validate
2 cv_results = cross_validate(
3    regressor, data, target, cv=5, scoring="neg_mean_absolute_error"
4 )
```

- c Robustly estimate generalization performance.
- A Let's use it to select the best models among several candidates!

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

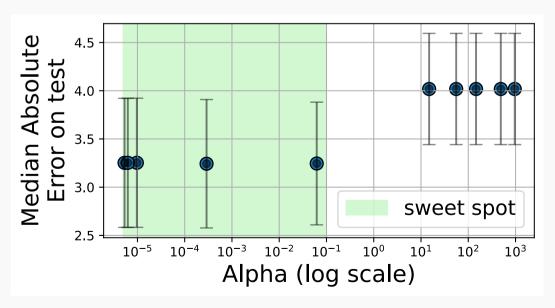
```
param distributions = {"lasso alpha": loguniform(1e-6, 1e3)}
                                                                          Python
  model_random_search = RandomizedSearchCV(
3
      pipeline,
      param distributions=param distributions,
5
      n iter=10, # number of hyper-parameters sampled
      cv=5, # number of folds for the cross-validation
6
      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

Goal: Identify the best α value(s)



What final model to use for new prediction?

• Often used in practice: refit on the full data the model with the best hyper-parameters.

What final model to use for new prediction?

- Often used in practice: refit on the full data the model with the best hyper-parameters.
- Theorically motivated: Aggregate the outputs from the cross-validate estimators 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.

What final model to use for new prediction?

- Often used in practice: refit on the full data the model with the best hyper-parameters.
- Theorically motivated: Aggregate the outputs from the cross-validate estimators 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.

• Averaging cross-validate estimators selects the best model asymptotically among a family of models (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
- Estimate the generalization performance of the selected model

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
- Estimate the generalization performance of the selected model

Naive cross-validation can lead to overfitting and over-optimistic performance estimation

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:

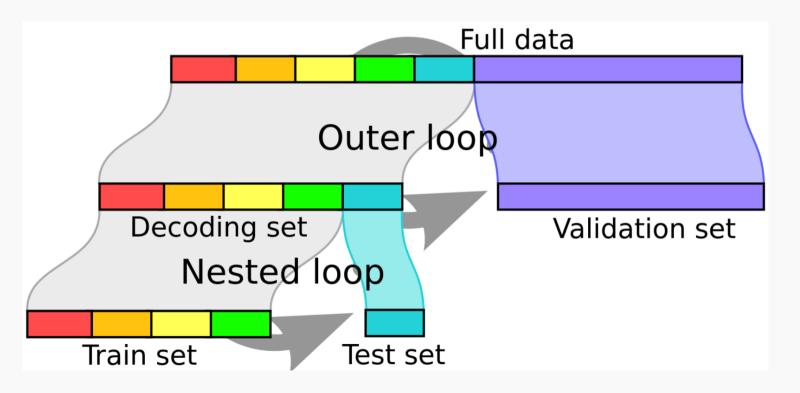
- Select the best hyper-parameters
- Estimate the generalization performance of the selected model

Naive cross-validation can lead to overfitting and over-optimistic performance estimation



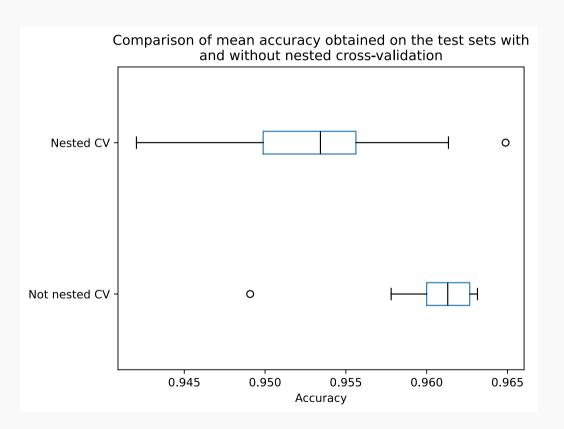
Nested cross-validation to select and estimate the best performances

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



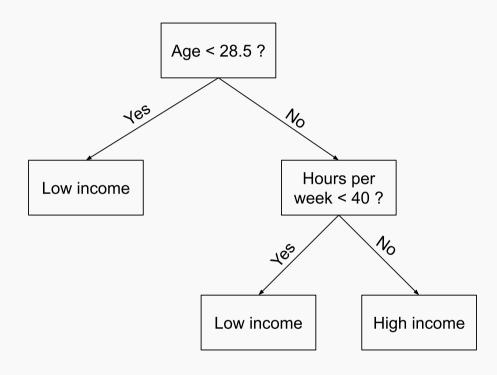
Over-optimistic performance estimation: example

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

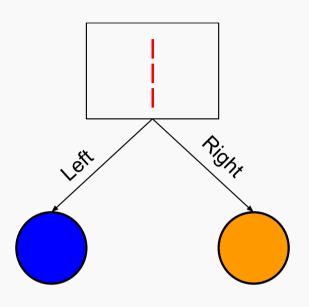


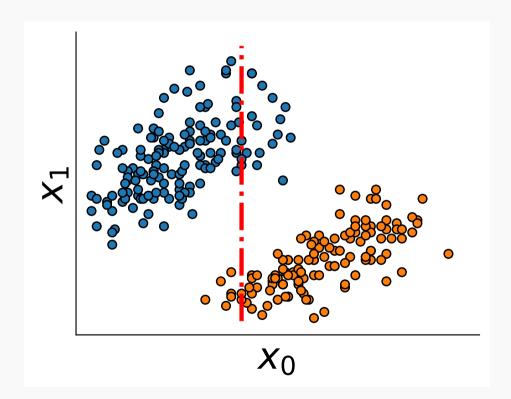
Flexible models: Tree, random forests and boosting

What is a decision tree? An example.

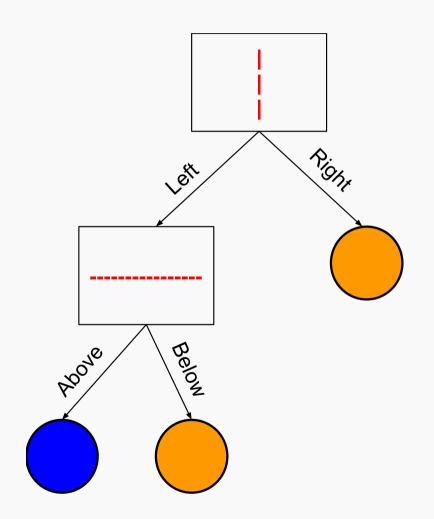


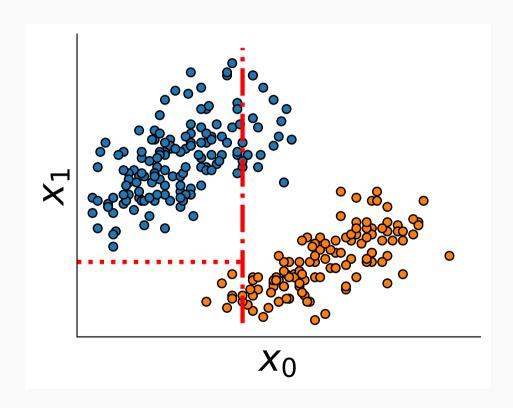
Growing a classification tree



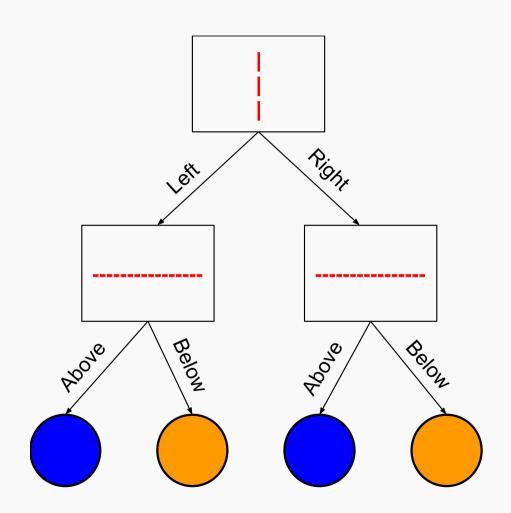


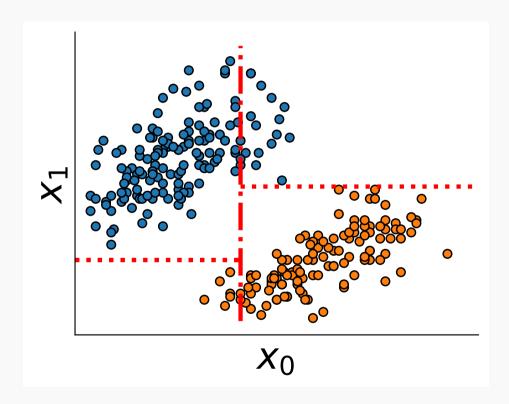
Growing a classification tree



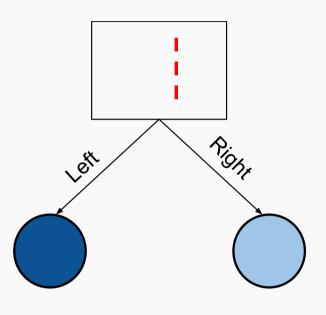


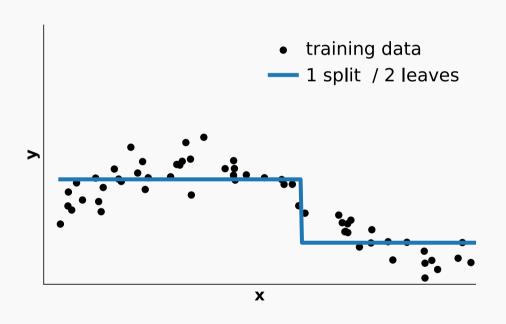
Growing a classification tree



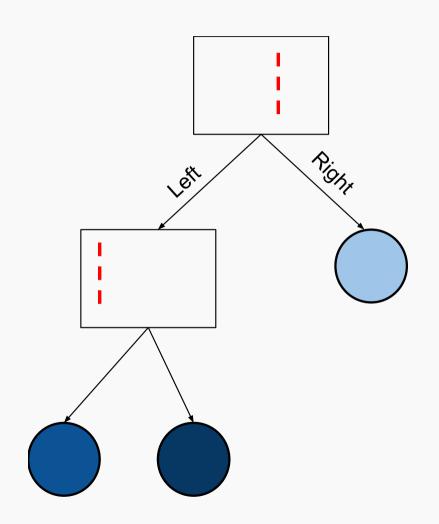


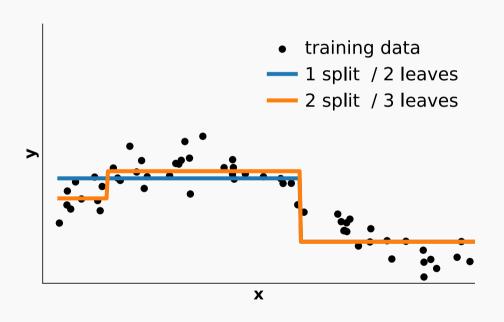
Growing a regression tree



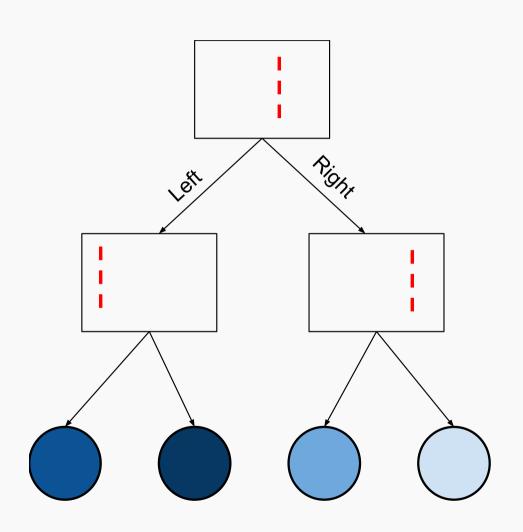


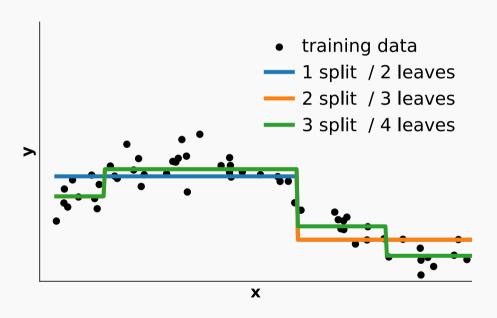
Growing a regression tree





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

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:

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

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:

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

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

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

Impurity criteria

Classification

Gini impurity

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

Impurity criteria

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

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

Impurity criteria

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

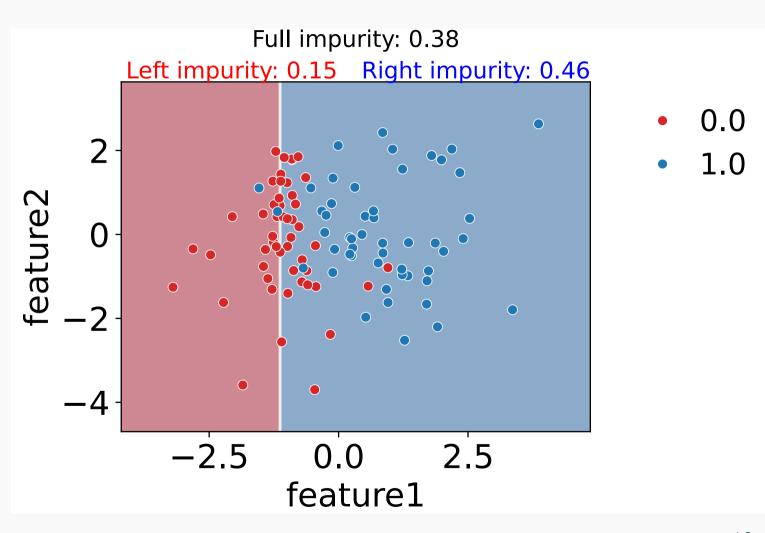
$$H(Q_m) = -\sum_{k \in K} p_{mk} \log(p_{mk})$$

Regression

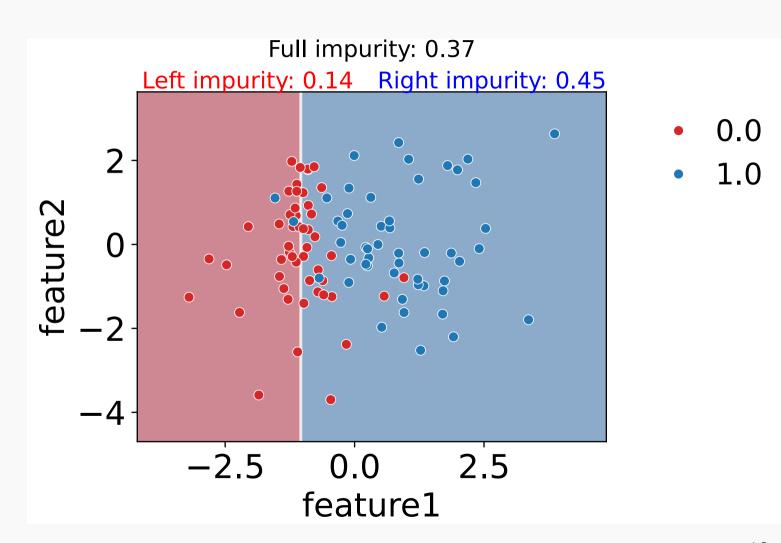
Mean squared error

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

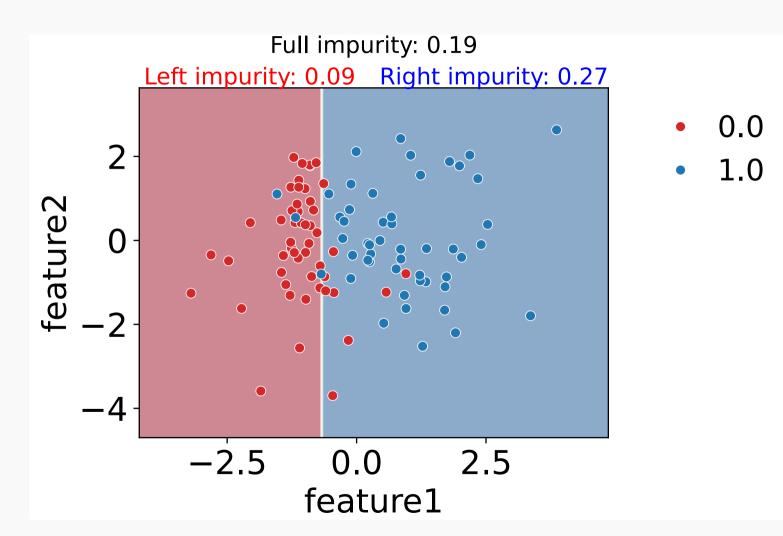
Random split



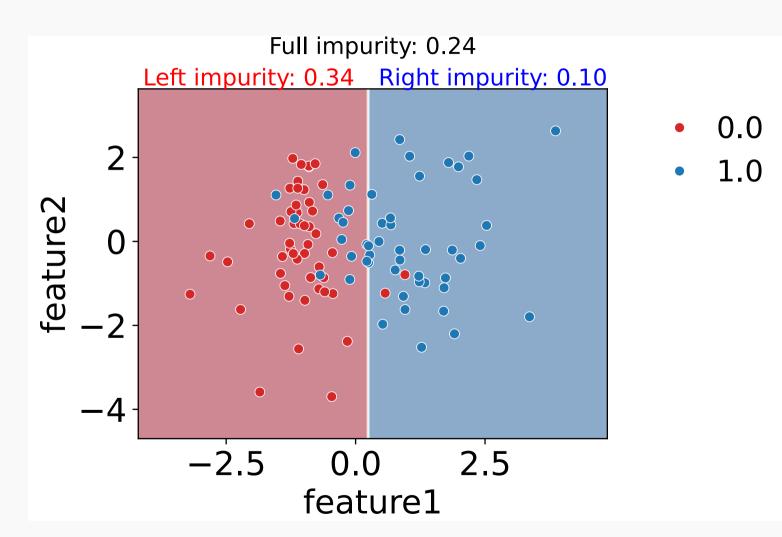
Moving the split to the right from one point



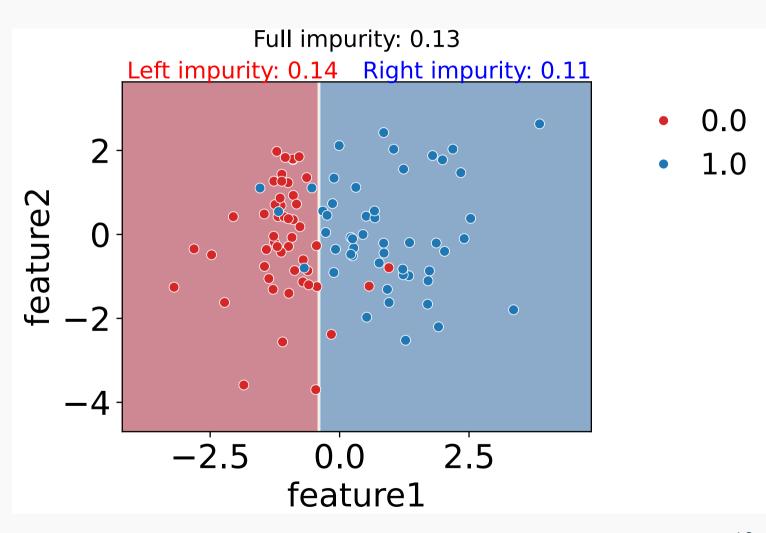
Moving the split to the right from 10 points



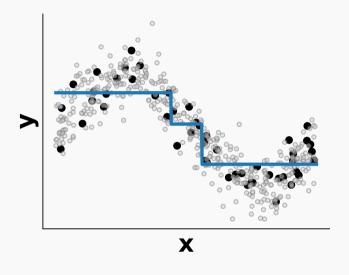
Moving the split to the right from 20 points



Best split

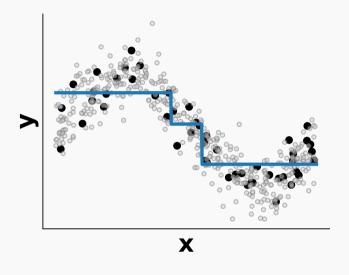


Tree depth and overfitting

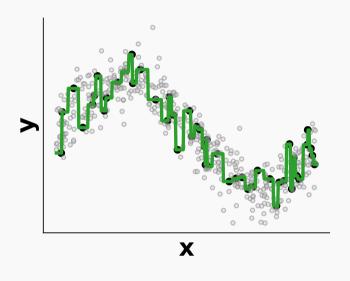


Underfitting
max_depth or
max_leaf_nodes
too small

Tree depth and overfitting

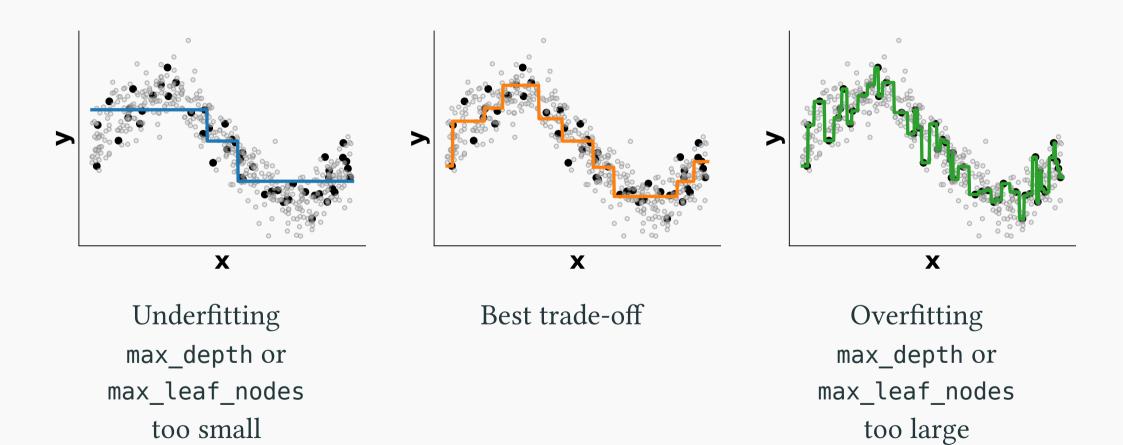


Underfitting
max_depth or
max_leaf_nodes
too small



Overfitting
max_depth or
max_leaf_nodes
too large

Tree depth and overfitting



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

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 ie. 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.

Ensemble models: Bagging ie. Bootstrap AGGregatING

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

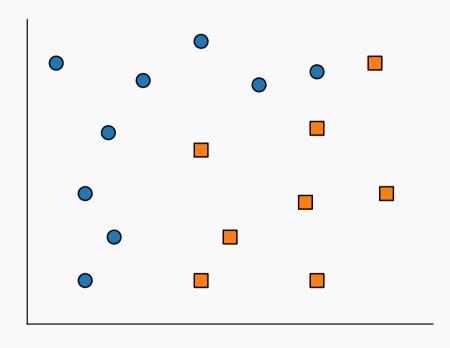
Built upon Bootstrap, introduced by (Efron, 1992) to estimate the variance of an estimator.

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

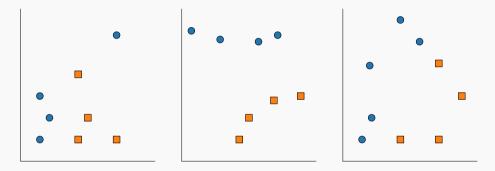
Can be used with any model!

Random forests: Bagging with classification trees

Full dataset

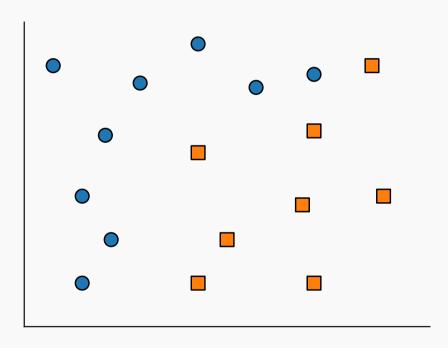


Three bootstrap samples

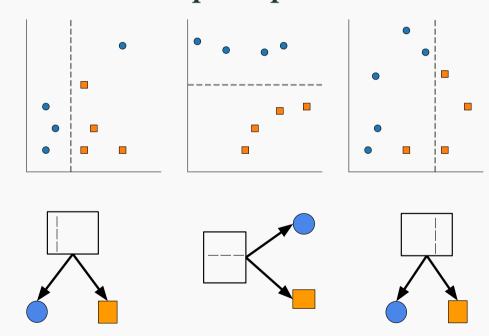


Random forests: Bagging with classification trees

Full dataset

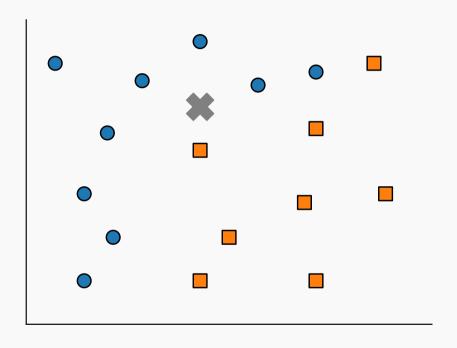


Three bootstrap samples

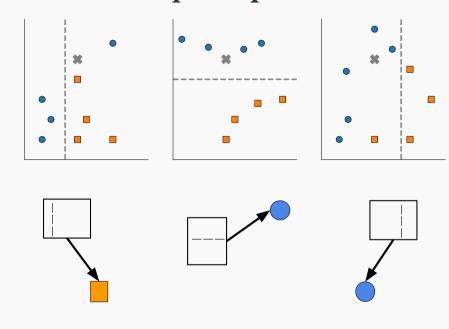


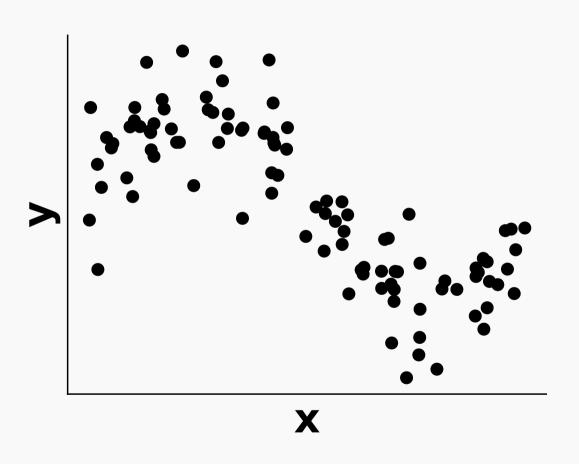
Random forests: Bagging with classification trees

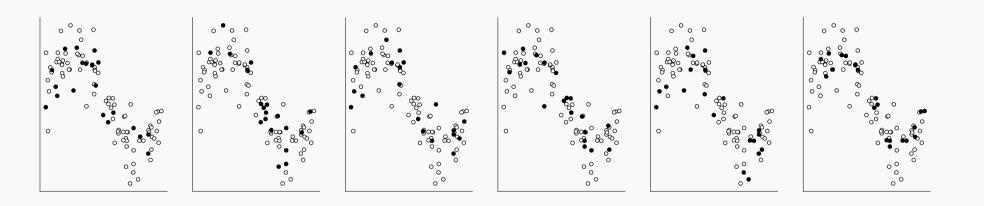
Full dataset



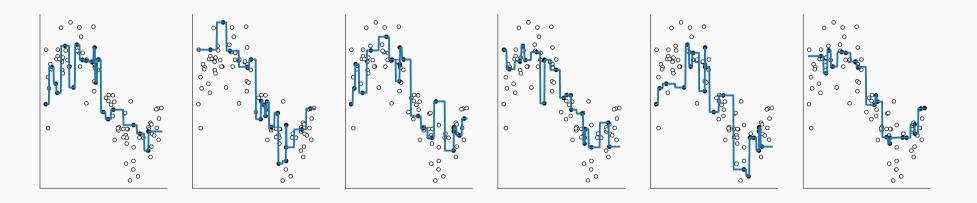
Three bootstrap samples





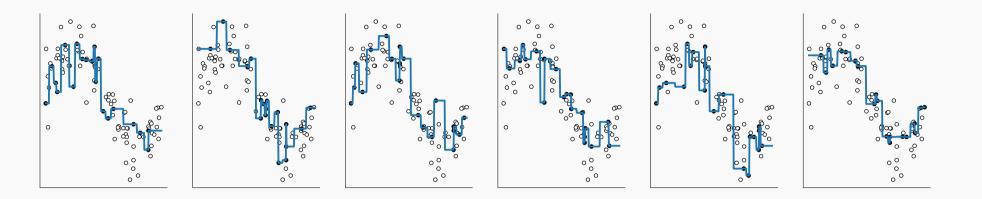


Bootstrap multiple subsets



Bootstrap multiple subsets

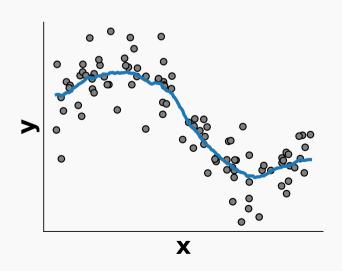
Fit one model to each subset



Bootstrap multiple subsets

Fit one model to each subset

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

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

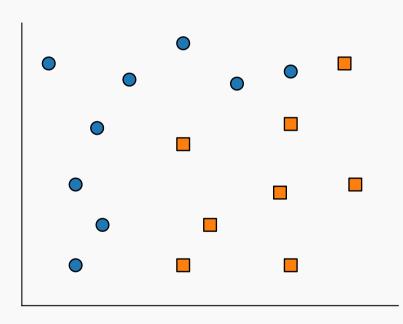
Boosting: Adaptive boosting

Boosting use multiple iterative models

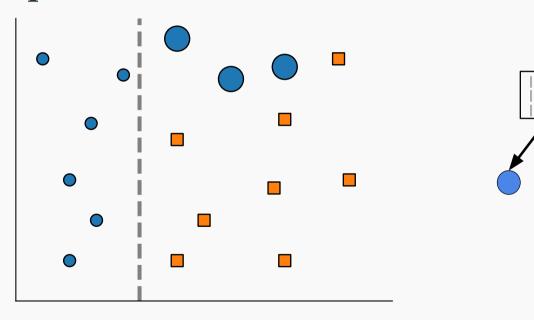
- Use of simple underfitting models: eg. shallow trees
- Each model corrects the errors of the previous one

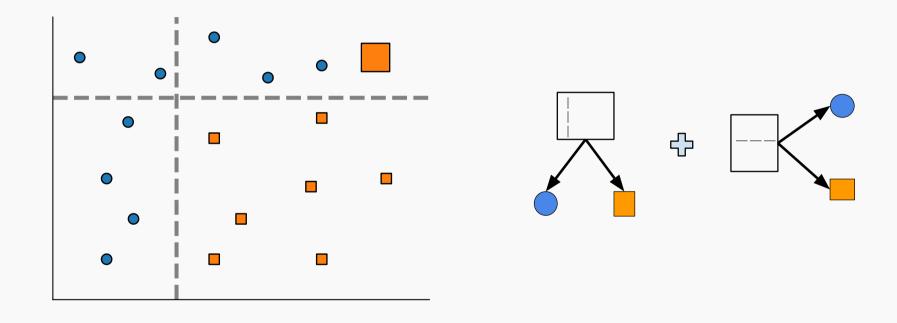
Two examples of boosting

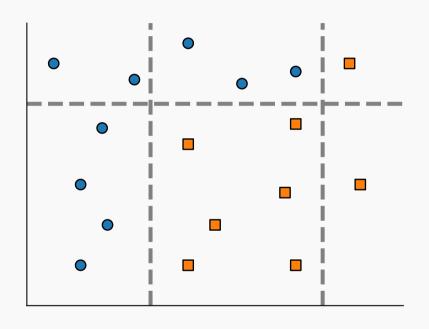
- Adaptive boosting (AdaBoost): reweight mispredicted samples at each step (Friedman et al., 2000)
- Gradient boosting: predict the negative errors of previous models at each step (Friedman, 2001)

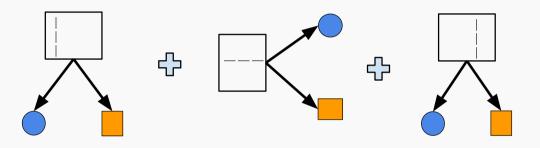


First prediction:









At each step, AdaBoost weights mispredicted samples

- 1. Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- 2

- 1. Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- 2. For m = 1 to M (iterate):

- 1. Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- 2. For m = 1 to M (iterate):
- Fit a classifier $F_m(x)$ to the training data using weights w_i

- 1. Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- 2. For m = 1 to M (iterate):
- Fit a classifier ${\cal F}_m(x)$ to the training data using weights w_i
- Compute $\operatorname{err}_m = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i \mathbb{1}[y_i \neq F_m(x_i)]}{\sum_{i=1} w_i}$

- 1. Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- 2. For m = 1 to M (iterate):
- ${\color{blue} \bullet}$ 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 $\alpha_m = \log\left(\frac{1 \operatorname{err}_m}{\operatorname{err}_m}\right)$

- 1. Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- 2. For m = 1 to M (iterate):
- Fit a classifier ${\cal F}_m(x)$ 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 $\alpha_m = \log\left(\frac{1 \operatorname{err}_m}{\operatorname{err}_m}\right)$
- $\bullet \quad \text{Set } w_i \to w_i \exp[\alpha_m \mathbb{1}[y_i \neq F_m(x_i)], i = 1..N$

- 1. Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- 2. For m = 1 to M (iterate):
- Fit a classifier ${\cal F}_m(x)$ 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 $\alpha_m = \log\left(\frac{1 \operatorname{err}_m}{\operatorname{err}_m}\right)$
- Set $w_i \to w_i \exp[\alpha_m \mathbb{1}[y_i \neq F_m(x_i)], i = 1..N$
- Output $F(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{M} \alpha_m G_{m(x)}\right)$

- 1. Initialize the observation weights $w_i = \frac{1}{N}, i = 1..N$
- 2. For m = 1 to M (iterate):
- Fit a classifier ${\cal F}_m(x)$ 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 $\alpha_m = \log\left(\frac{1 \operatorname{err}_m}{\operatorname{err}_m}\right)$
- Set $w_i \to w_i \exp[\alpha_m \mathbb{1}[y_i \neq F_m(x_i)], i = 1..N$
- Output $F(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{M} \alpha_m G_{m(x)}\right)$

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

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

Expand the loss inside the sum using a Taylor expansion.

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

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

Expand the loss inside the sum using a Taylor expansion.



Taylor expansion

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

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

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

Expand the loss inside the sum using a Taylor expansion.

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



Taylor expansion

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

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

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

Expand the loss inside the sum using a Taylor expansion.

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

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

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

Expand the loss inside the sum using a Taylor expansion.

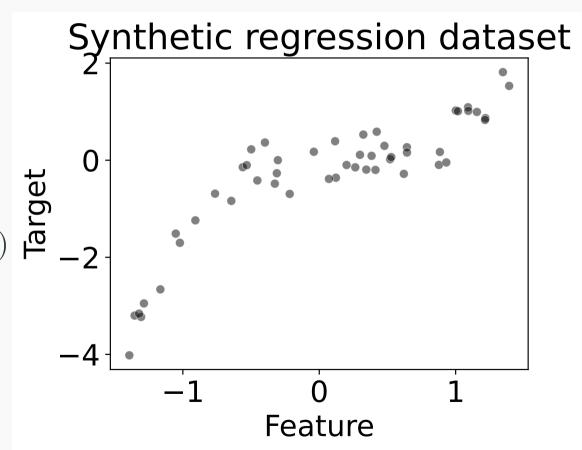
$$l(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i) + h(x_i)) = \underbrace{l(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i))}_{\text{constant in } h(x_i)} + h(x_i) \underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial l(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)}\right]_{F = F_{m-1}}}_{\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} g_i, \text{ the gradient}}$$

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

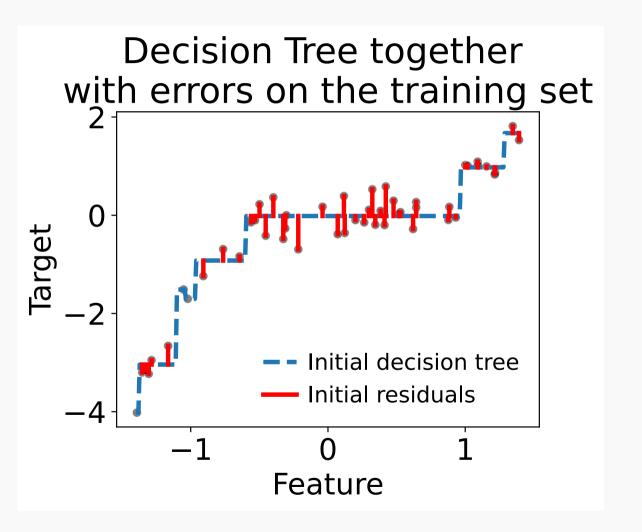
So $h_{m(x_i)}$ should be proportional to $-g_i$, so fit h_m to the negative gradient.

Regression

- - The new tree should fit the residuals

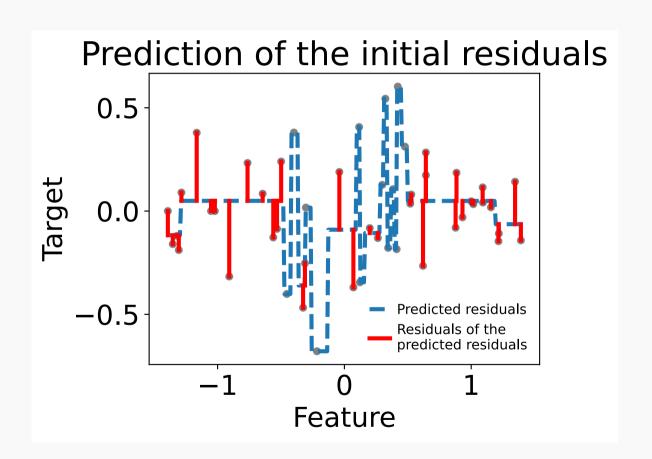


Fit a shallow tree (depth=3)



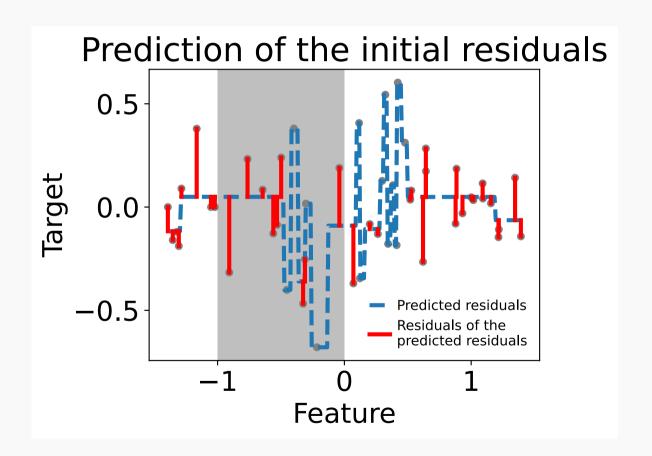
Fit a second tree to the residuals

• 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

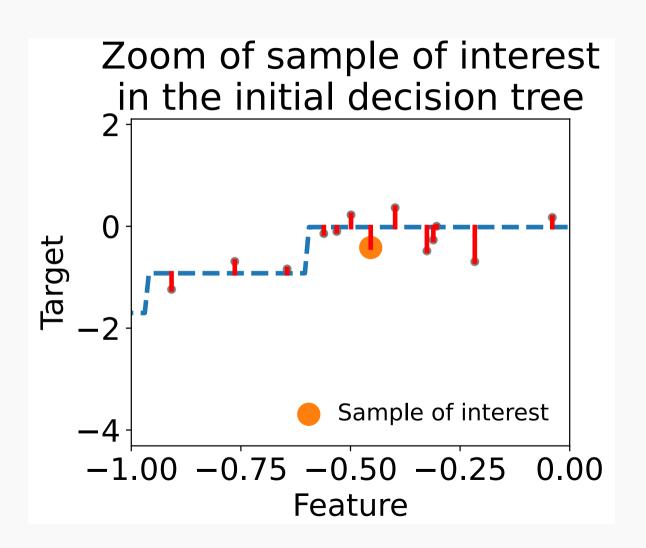
$$(x_i, y_i) = (-0.454, -0.417)$$

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:

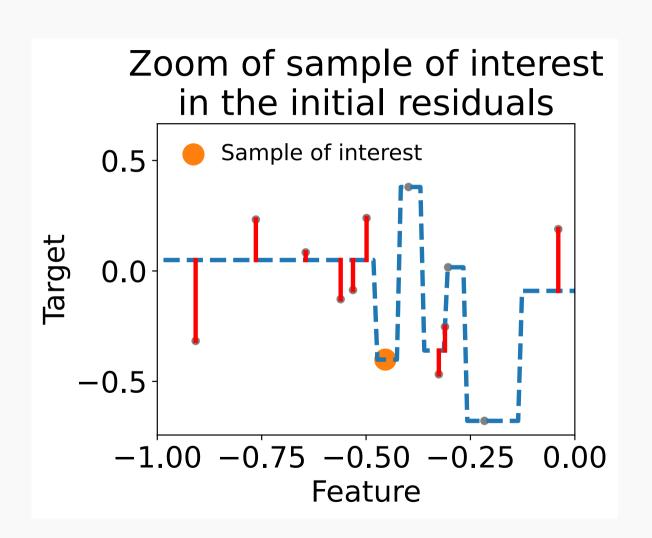
$$y_i - f_1(x_i) = -0.401$$

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

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



XGBoost: eXtreme Gradient Boosting (Chen & Guestrin, 2016)

- Missing values support
- Parallelization
- Second order Taylor expansion

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

XGBoost: eXtreme Gradient Boosting (Chen & Guestrin, 2016)

- Missing values support
- Parallelization
- Second order Taylor expansion

10

HistGradientBoosting: sklearn implementation of lightGBM (Ke et al., 2017)

- Missing values support
- Parallelization
- Discretize numerical features into 256 bins: less costly for tree splitting

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

Link an OLS $(X\beta)$ to the parameters of various probability distributions.

Examples: Poisson regression (for count data), logistic regression.

Other well known families of models

Generalized linear models

Link an OLS $(X\beta)$ to the parameters of various probability distributions.

Examples: Poisson regression (for count data), logistic regression.

Kernels: support vector machines, gaussian processes

Local methods with appropriate basis functions (kernels).

Kernels are often chosen with expert knowledge.

Other well known families of models

Generalized linear models

Link an OLS $(X\beta)$ to the parameters of various probability distributions.

Examples: Poisson regression (for count data), logistic regression.

Kernels: support vector machines, gaussian processes

Local methods with appropriate basis functions (kernels).

Kernels are often chosen with expert knowledge.

Deep neural networks (deep learning)

Iterative layers of parametrized basis functions: eg. $\mathbb{1}[wX + b \ge 0]$

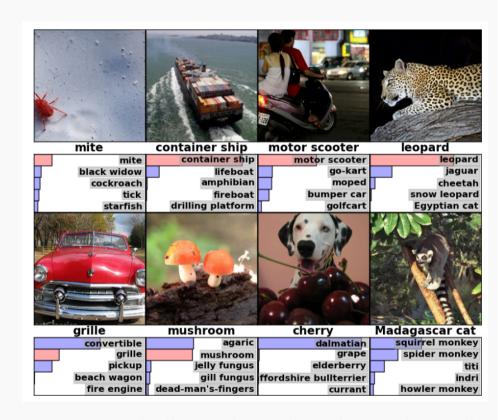
Trainable by gradient descent: each layer should be differentiable.

Training thanks to backpropagation ie. automatic differentiation and gradient methods.

A word on deep learning

Success of deep learning

- For images: Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architecture (Russakovsky et al., 2015),
- For text: transformer architecture (Vaswani, 2017),
- For protein folding: transformer architecture (Jumper et al., 2021)

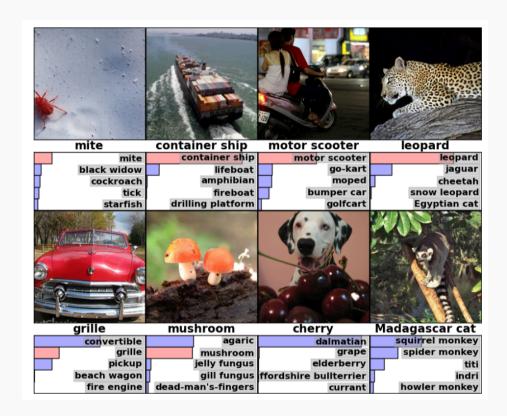


Imagenet challenge (Russakovsky et al., 2015)

A word on deep learning

Success of deep learning

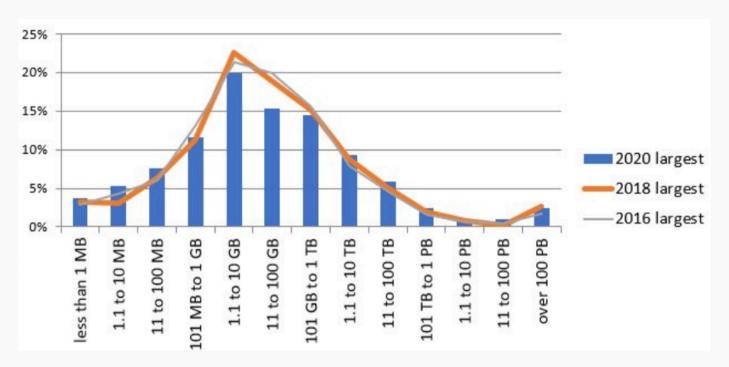
- For images: Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architecture (Russakovsky et al., 2015),
- For text: transformer architecture (Vaswani, 2017),
- For protein folding: transformer architecture (Jumper et al., 2021)
- Why not so used in econometrics?



Imagenet challenge (Russakovsky et al., 2015)

Answer 1: Limited data settings (typically $N \approx 1$ million)

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

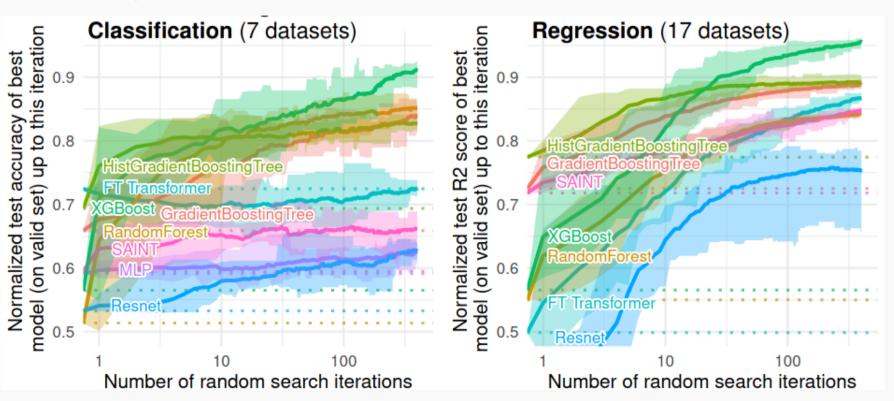


Typical dataset are mid-sized. This does not change with time.¹

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

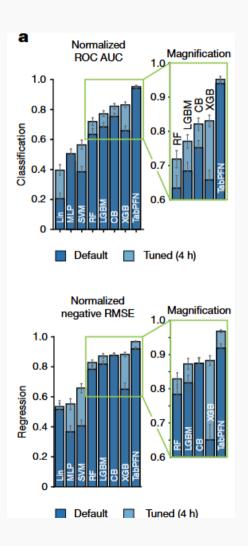
Answer 2: Deep learning underperforms on data tables

Tailored deep learning architectures lack appropriate prior of tabular data (Grinsztajn et al., 2022)



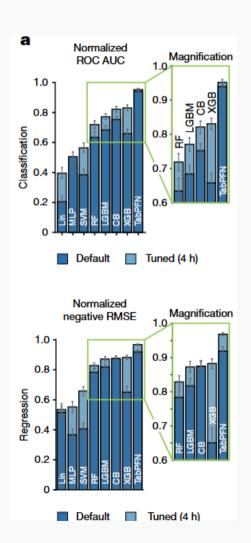
Learning appropriate representations (prior) of tabular data

- TabPFN: large scale pretraining a transformer based model on synthetic tabular data (Hollmann et al., 2025)
- Allows In-Context Learning (ICL): learn with few examples.



Learning appropriate representations (prior) of tabular data

- TabPFN: large scale pretraining a transformer based model on synthetic tabular data (Hollmann et al., 2025)
- Allows In-Context Learning (ICL): learn with few examples.
- (Hollmann et al., 2025) Figure 4a: Comparison on test benchmarks, 29 classification and 28 regression datasets, containing with up to 10,000 samples and 500 features.

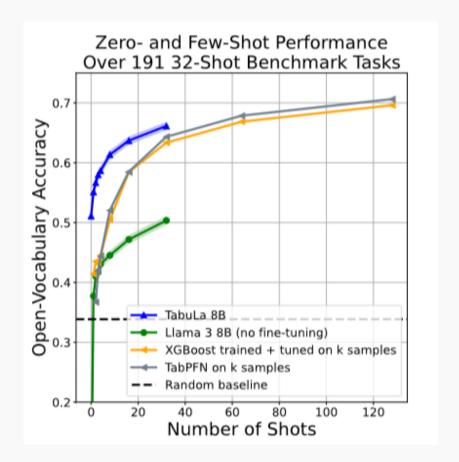


Using Large Language Models (LLM)

• Tabula 8B Fine-tuning existing LLM (Llama 3-8B) on tabular data (Gardner et al., 2024)

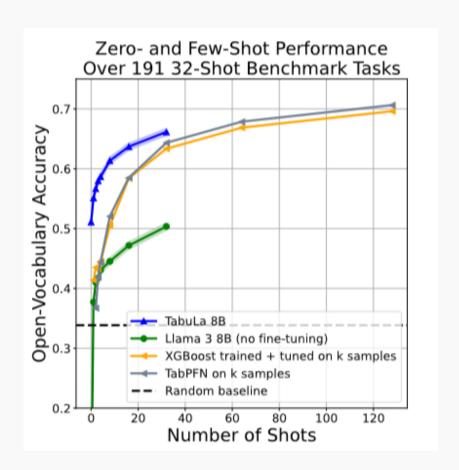
•

•



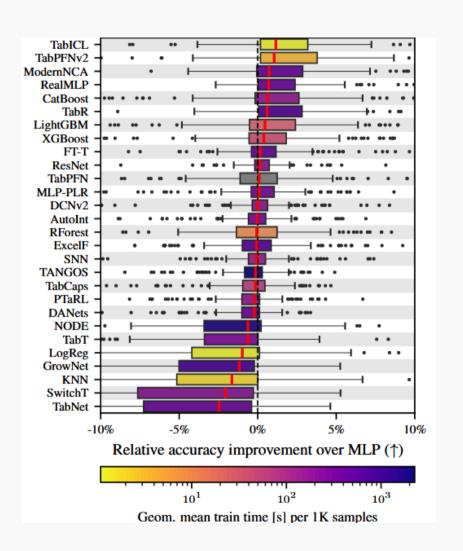
Using Large Language Models (LLM)

- Tabula 8B Fine-tuning existing LLM (Llama 3-8B) on tabular data (Gardner et al., 2024)
- Allow ICL with few examples.
- But requires large computational resources and is outperform rapidly when number of samples grows.



Transferable components tailored to tabular data

- CARTE: tailored learning components such as {key:value} representations (Kim et al., 2024)
- TABICL: Combine tailored components and pretraining on synthetic data (Qu et al., 2025)
- (Qu et al., 2025) Figure 5: Benchmark accuracy results and train times on 200 classification datasets.



Python hands-on

To your notebooks 🎑!

• url: https://github.com/strayMat/causal-ml-course/tree/main/notebooks

Bibliography

- Bouthillier, X., Delaunay, P., Bronzi, M., Trofimov, A., Nichyporuk, B., Szeto, J., Mohammadi Sepahvand, N., Raff, E., Madan, K., Voleti, V., & others. (2021). Accounting for variance in machine learning benchmarks. Proceedings of Machine Learning and Systems, 3, 747–769.
- Breiman, L. (1996). Bagging predictors. Machine Learning, 24, 123-140.
- Chen, T., & Guestrin, C. (2016). Xgboost: A scalable tree boosting system. Proceedings of the 22nd Acm Sigkdd International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, 785–794.
- Efron, B. (1992). Bootstrap methods: another look at the jackknife. In Breakthroughs in statistics: Methodology and distribution: Breakthroughs in statistics: Methodology and distribution (pp. 569–593). Springer.
- Estève, L., Lemaitre, G., Grisel, O., Varoquaux, G., Amor, A., Lilian, Rospars, B., Schmitt, T., Liu, L., Kinoshita, B. P., hackmd-deploy, ph4ge, Steinbach, P., Boucaud, A., Muite, B., Boisberranger, J.

- du, Notter, M., Pierre, P, S., ... parmentelat. (2022). INRIA/scikit-learn-mooc: Third MOOC session. Zenodo. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7220307
- Friedman, J. H. (2001). Greedy function approximation: a gradient boosting machine. Annals of Statistics, 1189–1232.
- Friedman, J., Hastie, T., & Tibshirani, R. (2000). Additive logistic regression: a statistical view of boosting (with discussion and a rejoinder by the authors). The Annals of Statistics, 28(2), 337–407.
- Gardner, J., Perdomo, J. C., & Schmidt, L. (2024). Large Scale Transfer Learning for Tabular Data via Language Modeling. Arxiv Preprint Arxiv:2406.12031.
- Grinsztajn, L., Oyallon, E., & Varoquaux, G. (2022). Why do tree-based models still outperform deep learning on typical tabular data? Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 35, 507–520.

- Hollmann, N., Müller, S., Purucker, L., Krishnakumar, A., Körfer, M., Hoo, S. B., Schirrmeister, R. T., & Hutter, F. (2025). Accurate predictions on small data with a tabular foundation model. Nature, 637(8045), 319–326.
- Jumper, J., Evans, R., Pritzel, A., Green, T., Figurnov, M., Ronneberger, O., Tunyasuvunakool, K., Bates, R., $\check{Z}\setminus idek$, A., Potapenko, A., & others. (2021). Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold. Nature, 596(7873), 583–589.
- Ke, G., Meng, Q., Finley, T., Wang, T., Chen, W., Ma, W., Ye, Q., & Liu, T.-Y. (2017). Lightgbm: A highly efficient gradient boosting decision tree. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 30.
- Kim, M. J., Grinsztajn, L., & Varoquaux, G. (2024). CARTE: pretraining and transfer for tabular learning. Arxiv Preprint Arxiv:2402.16785.
- Lecué, G., & Mitchell, C. (2012). Oracle inequalities for cross-validation type procedures.
- Murphy, K. P. (2022). Probabilistic machine learning: an introduction. MIT press.

- Qu, J., Holzmüller, D., Varoquaux, G., & Morvan, M. L. (2025). TabICL: A Tabular Foundation Model for In-Context Learning on Large Data. Arxiv Preprint Arxiv:2502.05564.
- Russakovsky, O., Deng, J., Su, H., Krause, J., Satheesh, S., Ma, S., Huang, Z., Karpathy, A., Khosla, A., Bernstein, M., & others. (2015). Imagenet large scale visual recognition challenge. International Journal of Computer Vision, 115, 211–252.
- Varoquaux, G., Raamana, P. R., Engemann, D. A., Hoyos-Idrobo, A., Schwartz, Y., & Thirion, B. (2017). Assessing and tuning brain decoders: cross-validation, caveats, and guidelines. Neuroimage, 145, 166–179.
- Vaswani, A. (2017). Attention is all you need. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems.