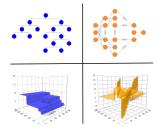
Important Learning Algorithms in ML





Learning goals

- General idea of important ML algorithms
- Overview of strengths and weaknesses

CONTENTS

- k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN)
- Generalized Linear Models (GLM)
- Generalized Additive Models (GAM)
- Classification & Regression Trees (CART)
- Random Forests
- Gradient Boosting
- Linear Support Vector Machines (SVM)
- Nonlinear Support Vector Machines
- Neural Networks (NN)



K-NN – METHOD SUMMARY

REGRESSION

CLASSIFICATION

NONPARAMETRIC

WHITE-BOX

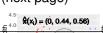
General idea

- similarity in feature space (w.r.t. certain distance metric d(x⁽ⁱ⁾, x)) → similarity in target space
- **Prediction** for **x**: construct k-neighborhood $N_k(\mathbf{x})$ from k points closest to **x** in \mathcal{X} , then predict
 - (weighted) mean target for **regression**: $\hat{y} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i:\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in N_k(\mathbf{x})} w_i} \sum_{i:\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in N_k(\mathbf{x})} w_i y^{(i)}$

with
$$w_i = \frac{1}{d(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x})}$$

- \rightarrow optional: higher weights w_i for close neighbors
- most frequent class for **classification**: $\hat{y} = \underset{\ell \in \{1, ..., g\}}{\operatorname{arg max}} \sum_{i: \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in N_k(\mathbf{x})} \mathbb{I}(y^{(i)} = \ell)$
 - \Rightarrow Estimating posterior probabilities as $\hat{\pi}_{\ell}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i:\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in N_k(\mathbf{x})} \mathbb{I}(\mathbf{y}^{(i)} = \ell)$
- Nonparametric behavior: no compression of information
- Not immediately interpretable

Hyperparameters Neighborhood **size** k (locality), **distance** metric (next page)















K-NN – IMPLEMENTATION & PRACTICAL HINTS

Preprocessing Features should be standardized or normalized Implementation

- R: mlr3 learners (calling kknn::kknn())
 - Classification:
 - -LearnerClassifKKNN
 - -fnn::knn()
 - Regression:
 - LearnerRegrKKNN
 - -fnn::knn.reg()
 - Nearest Neighbour Search in $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$: RANN::nn2()
- Python: From package sklearn.neighbors
 - Classification:
 - KNeighborsClassifier()
 - RadiusNeighborsClassifier() as alternative if data not uniformly sampled
 - Regression:
 - KNeighborsRegressor()
 - RadiusNeighborsRegressor() as alternative if data not Important Learning Algorithms in ML 3/28



K-NN - PROS & CONS

Advantages

- + Algorithm **easy** to explain and implement
- assumptions

 → able to model data of arbitrary complexity

No distributional or functional

- + No training or optimization required
- + local model → nonlinear decision boundaries
- + Easy to tune (few hyperparameters)
 → number of neighbors k, distance metric
- Custom distance metrics can often be easily designed to incorporate domain knowledge

Disadvantages

- Sensitivity w.r.t. noisy or irrelevant features and outliers due to dependency on distance measure
- Heavily affected by curse of dimensionality
- Bad performance when feature
 scales are not consistent with feature
 relevance
- Poor handling of data imbalances (worse for more global model, i.e., large k)



GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS – METHOD SUMMARY

CLASSIFICATION

General idea Represent target as function of linear predictor $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$ (weighted sum of features)

 \rightarrow **Interpretation:** if feature x_i increases by 1 unit, the linear predictor changes by θ_i units

Hypothesis space $\mathcal{H} = \{ f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \mid f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top}\mathbf{x}) \}$, with suitable transformation $\phi(\cdot)$, e.g.,

- Linear Regression: $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$, ϕ identity
- Logistic Regression: $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$, logistic sigmoid

$$\phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top}\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top}\mathbf{x})} =: \pi(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

⇒ Decision rule: Linear hyperplane









GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS – REGULARIZATION

General idea

- Unregularized LM: risk of overfitting in high-dimensional space with only few observations
- Goal: avoidance of overfitting by adding penalty term

Regularized empirical risk

- Empirical risk function plus complexity penalty $J(\theta)$,
 - controlled by shrinkage parameter $\lambda > 0$:

$$\mathcal{R}_{\mathsf{reg}}(oldsymbol{ heta}) := \mathcal{R}_{\mathsf{emp}}(oldsymbol{ heta}) + \lambda \cdot \emph{\emph{J}}(oldsymbol{ heta})$$

- **Ridge** regression: L2 penalty $J(\theta) = \|\theta\|_2^2$
- LASSO regression: L1 penalty

$$J(heta) = \| heta\|_1$$

Optimization under regularization

• Ridge: analytically with $\hat{\theta}_{\text{Ridge}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{y}$



GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS – IMPLEMENTATION

Implementation

- R:
 - Unregularized: mlr3 learner LearnerRegrLM, calling stats::lm()/mlr3 learner LearnerClassifLogReg, calling stats::glm()
 - Regularized / ElasticNet: mlr3 learners
 LearnerClassifGlmnet / LearnerRegrGlmnet, calling
 glmnet::glmnet()
 - For large classification data: mlr3 learner LearnerClassifLiblineaR, calling
- LiblineaR::LiblineaR() uses fast coordinate descent
 Python: From package sklearn.linear_model
 - Unregularized:
 - LinearRegression()
 - LogisticRegression(penalty = None)
 - Regularized:
 - Linear regression: Lasso(), Ridge(), ElasticNet()



GENERALIZED LINEAR MODELS – PROS & CONS

Advantages

- + Simple and fast implementation
- + **Analytical** solution for L2 loss
- + Applicable for any dataset size, as long as number of observations ≫ number of features
- Flexibility beyond linearity with polynomials, trigonometric transformations, interaction terms etc.
- Intuitive interpretability via feature effects
- $+\,\,$ Statistical hypothesis **tests** for effects available

Disadvantages

- Nonlinearity of many real-world problems
- Further restrictive
 assumptions: linearly
 independent features,
 homoskedastic residuals,
 normality of conditional
 response
 - Sensitivity w.r.t. outliers and noisy data (especially with L2 loss)
- Also a LM can overfit (e.g., many features and few observations)
 - Feature **interactions** must be handcrafted

Important Learning Algorithms in ML - 8/28



GENERALIZED ADDITIVE MODELS – METHOD SUMMARY

REGRESSION

CLASSIFICATION

NON)PARAMETRIC

WHITE-BOX

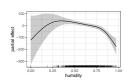
FEATURE SELECTION

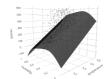
General idea

- Same as GLM, but introduce flexibility through nonlinear (smooth) effects f_i(x_i)
- Typically, combination of linear & smooth effects
- Smooth effects also conceivable for feature interactions

Hypothesis space
$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \mid f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi\left(\theta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} f_j(x_j)\right) \right\},$$
 with suitable transformation $\phi(x)$ intercept term θ , and smooth

with suitable transformation $\phi(\cdot)$, intercept term θ_0 , and smooth functions $f_i(\cdot)$







GENERALIZED ADDITIVE MODELS – IMPLEMENTATION

Implementation

- R: mlr3 learner LearnerRegrGam, calling mgcv::gam()
 - Smooth terms: s(..., bs="<basis>") or te(...) for multivariate (tensorproduct) effects
 - Link functions: family={Gamma, Binomial, ...}
- **Python**: GLMGam from package statsmodels; package pygam

Advantages

- + Simple and fast
 - + Applicable for any dataset size, as long as number of observations ≫ number of features
- + High **flexibility** via smooth effects
- $+\,$ Easy to **combine** linear &

nonlinear effects

Disadvantages

- Sensitivity w.r.t. outliers and noisy data
- Feature interactions must be handcrafted
 → practically infeasible for higher orders
- Harder to optimize than GLM
- Additional hyperparameters

(type of smooth functions, Important Learning Algorithms in ML - 10/28



CART – METHOD SUMMARY

REGRESSION

CLASSIFICATION

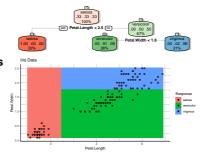
NONPARAMETRIC

WHITE-BOX

FEATURE SELECTION

General idea (CART - Classification and Regression Trees)

- Start at root node containing all data
- Perform repeated axis-parallel binary splits in feature space to obtain rectangular **partitions** at terminal nodes Q_1, \ldots, Q_M
- Splits based on reduction of node impurity → empirical risk minimization (ERM)



- In each step:
 - Find **optimal split** (feature-threshold combination)
 - \rightarrow greedy search
 - Assign constant prediction c_m to all obs. in Q_m
 - \rightarrow Regression: c_m is average of y
 - \rightarrow Classif.: c_m is majority class (or class proportions)
 - Stop when a pre-defined criterion is reached
 - → See Complexity control



CART – IMPLEMENTATION & PRACTICAL HINTS

Hyperparameters and complexity control

- Unless interrupted, splitting continues until we have pure leaf nodes (costly + overfitting)
- Hyperparameters: Complexity (i.e., number of terminal nodes) controlled via tree depth, minimum number of observations per node, maximum number of leaves, minimum risk reduction per split, ...
- Limit tree growth / complexity via
 - Early stopping: stop growth prematurely
 - \rightarrow hard to determine good stopping point before actually trying all combinations
 - Pruning: grow deep trees and cut back in risk-optimal manner afterwards

Implementations

- R:
 - CART: mlr3 learners LearnerClassifRpart /
 LearnerRegrRpart, calling rpart::rpart()
 - Conditional inference trees: partykit::ctree()
 mitigates overfitting by controlling tree size via p-value-based



CART - PROS & CONS

Dual purpose of CART

- Exploration purpose to obtain interpretable decision rules (here: performance/tuning is secondary)
- Prediction model: CART as base learner in ensembles (bagging, random forest, boosting) can improve stability and performance (if tuned properly), but becomes less interpretable



- + Easy to understand & visualize (interpretable)
- + Built-in feature selection
 → e.g., when features are not used for splitting
- Applicable to categorical features

 → e.g., 2^m possible binary splits for m categories
 → trick for regr. with L2-loss and binary classif.: categories can be sorted ⇒ m − 1 binary splits

Disadvantages

- Rather poor generalization
- High variance/instability: model can change a lot when training data is minimally changed
- Can overfit if tree is grown too deep
- Not well-suited to model linear relationships
- Bias toward features with many unique values or categories



currogata calita

RANDOM FORESTS – METHOD SUMMARY

CLASSIFICATION NONPARAMETRIC

FEATURE SELECTION

General idea

- Bagging ensemble of M tree base learners fitted on bootstrap data samples
 - ⇒ Reduce **variance** by ensembling while slightly increasing bias by bootstrapping
 - Use unstable, **high-variance** base learners by letting trees grow to full size
 - Promoting decorrelation by random subset of candidate features for each split
- **Predict** via averaging (regression) or majority vote (classification) of base learners

Hypothesis space
$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ f(\mathbf{x}) : f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \sum_{t=1}^{T^{[m]}} c_t^{[m]} \mathbb{I}(\mathbf{x} \in Q_t^{[m]}) \right\}$$



RANDOM FORESTS – IMPLEMENTATION & PRACTICAL HINTS

Extremely Randomized Trees

- Variance of trees can be further increased by randomizing split **points** instead of using the optimal one
- Alternatively consider k random splits and pick the best one according to impurity

Tuning

- Ensemble size should not be tuned as it only decreases variance ---- choose sufficiently large ensemble
- While default values for **number of split points** is often good, tuning it can still improve performance
- Tuning the minimum samples in leafs and minimum samples for splitting can be benificial but no huge performance increases are to be expected

Implementation

• R: mlr3 learners LearnerClassifRanger / LearnerRegrRanger, calling ranger::ranger() as a highly



RANDOM FORESTS – PROS & CONS

Advantages

- Retains most of trees' advantages (e.g., feature selection, feature interactions)
- Fairly good predictor: mitigating base learners' variance through bagging
- + Quite **robust** w.r.t. small changes in data
- Good with high-dimensional data, even in presence of noisy features
- Easy to parallelize
- Robust to its hyperparameter configuration
- Intuitive measures of feature importance

Disadvantages

- Loss of individual trees' interpretability
- Can be suboptimal for regression when extrapolation is needed
- Bias toward selecting features with many categories (same as CART)
- Rather large model size and slow inference time for large ensembles
- Typically inferior in **performance** to tuned gradient tree boosting.



GRADIENT BOOSTING – METHOD SUMMARY

REGRESSION

CLASSIFICATION

(NON)PARAMETRIC

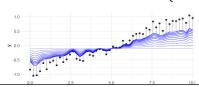
BLACK-BOX

FEATURE SELECTION

General idea

- Sequential ensemble of M base learners by greedy forward stagewise additive modeling
 - In each iteration a base learner is fitted to current pseudo residuals ⇒ one boosting iteration is one approximate gradient step in function space
 - Base learners are typically trees, linear regressions or splines
- Predict via (weighted) sum of base learners

Hypothesis space
$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ f(\mathbf{x}) : f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \beta m b(\mathbf{x}, \theta m) \right\}$$







GRADIENT BOOSTING – PRACTICAL HINTS

Scalable Gradient Boosting

- Feature and data subsampling for each base learner fit
- Parallelization and approximate split finding for tree base learners
- GPU accelaration

Explainable / Componentwise Gradient Boosting

- Base learners of simple linear regression models or splines, selecting a single feature in each iteration
- Allows feature selection and creates an interpretable model since uni- and bivariate effects can be visualized directly.
- Feature interactions can be learned via ranking techniques (e.g., GA²M FAST)

Tuning

- Use early-stopping to determine ensemble size
- Various regularization parameters, e.g., L1/L2, number of leaves, ... that need to be carefully tuned
- Tune learning rate and base learner complexity hyperparameters on log-scale



GRADIENT BOOSTING – IMPLEMENTATION

Gradient Tree Boosting

- R:mlr3 learners LearnerClassifXgboost / LearnerRegrXgboost, LearnerClassifLightGBM / LearnerRegrLightGBM
- Python: GradientBoostingClassifier / GradientBoostingRegressor from package scikit-learn, XGBClassifier / XGBRegressor from package xgboost, lgb.train from package lightgbm
- $\Rightarrow {\tt LightGBM}$ current state-of-the-art but slightly more complicated to use than ${\tt xgboost}$

Componentwise Gradient Boosting

- R: mboost from package mboost, boostLinear / boostSplines from package compboost
- Python: /
- \Rightarrow mboost very flexible but slow while compboost is much faster with limited features



GRADIENT BOOSTING – PROS & CONS

Advantages

- Retains of most of base learners' advantages
- Very good predictor due to aggressive loss minimization, typically only outperformed by heterogenous stacking ensembles
- High flexibility via custom loss functions and choice of base learner
- Highly efficient implementations exist (lightgbm / xgboost) that work well on large (distributed) data sets
- Componentwise boosting: Good combination of (a) high performance (b) interpretable model and (c) feature selection

Disadvantages

- Loss of base learners' potential interpretability
- Many hyperparameters to be carefully tuned
- Hard to parallelize (→ solved by efficient implementation)



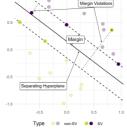
LINEAR SVM – METHOD SUMMARY

CLASSIFICATION

WHITE-BOX

General idea (Soft-margin SVM)

- Find linear decision boundary (separating) hyperplane) that
 - maximizes distance (**margin** γ) to closest points (support vectors, SVs) on each side of decision boundary
 - while minimizing margin violations (points either on wrong side of hyperplane or between dashed margin line and hyperplane)



Soft-margin SVM with margin violations

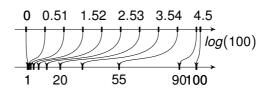
- 3 types of training points
 - non-SVs with no impact on decision boundary
 - SVs that are margin violators and affect decision boundary
 - SVs located exactly on dashed margin lines and affect decision boundary

Hypothesis space (primal)

Preprocessing Features should be scaled before applying SVMs (applies generally to regularized models)

Tuning

- Tuning of cost parameter C
 advisable
 ⇒ strong influence on resulting
 hyperplane
- C it is often tuned on a log-scale grid for optimal and space-filling search space





Implementation

nackage libSVM

- R: mlr3 learners LearnerClassifSVM / LearnerRegrSVM, calling e1071::svm() with linear kernel (libSVM interface). Further implementations in mlr3extralearners based on
 - kernlab::ksvm() allowing custom kernels
 - LiblineaR::LiblineaR() for a fast implementation with linear kernel
- Python: sklearn.svm.SVC from package scikit-learn /

NONLINEAR SVM – METHOD SUMMARY

CLASSIFICATION

REGRESSION

NONPARAMETRIC

BLACK-BOX

General idea

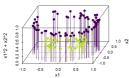
- Move beyond linearity by mapping data to transformed space where they are linearly separable
- Kernel trick
 - No need for explicit construction of feature maps
 - Replace inner product of feature map $\phi: \mathcal{X} \to \Phi$ by **kernel**: $\langle \phi \mathbf{x}, \phi \mathbf{x} \mathbf{t} \rangle = \mathbf{k} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{t}$

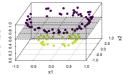
Hypothesis space

$$\mathcal{H} = \{ f(\mathbf{x}) : f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \phi x + \theta_0) \} \text{ (primal)}$$

$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ f(\mathbf{x}) : f(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y^{(i)} k(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}) + \theta_0\right) \mid \alpha_i \ge 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y^{(i)} = 0 \right\} \text{ (dual)}$$







Nonlinear problem in original

Mapping to 3D space and subsequent linear separation - implicitly handled by kernel in nonlinear

Kernelize dual (soft-margin) SVM problem, replacing all inner

NONLINEAR SVM – IMPLEMENTATION & PRACTICAL HINTS

Common kernels

- Linear kernel: dot product of given observations $\Rightarrow kxxt = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \Rightarrow \text{linear SVM}$
- Polynomial kernel of degree $d \in \mathbb{N}$: monomials (i.e., feature interactions) up to d-th order $\Rightarrow kxxt = (\mathbf{x}^{\top}\tilde{\mathbf{x}} + b)^d$, $b \ge 0$
- Radial basis function (RBF) kernel: infinite-dimensional feature space, allowing for perfect separation of all finite datasets $\Rightarrow kxxt = \exp\left(-\gamma \|\mathbf{x} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}\|_2^2\right)$ with bandwidth parameter $\gamma > 0$

Tuning

- ◆ High sensitivity w.r.t. hyperparameters, especially those of kernel ⇒ tuning very important
- For RBF kernels, use RBF sigma heuristic to determine bandwidth

Implementation

- R: mlr3 learners LearnerClassifSVM / LearnerRegrSVM, calling e1071::svm() with nonlinear kernel (libSVM interface), kernlab::ksvm() allowing custom kernels
- Python: sklearn.svm.SVC from package scikit-learn / package libSVM



SVM - PRO'S & CON'S

Advantages

- Often **sparse** solution (w.r.t. observations)
- Robust against overfitting (regularized); especially in high-dimensional space
- Stable solutions (w.r.t. changes in train data) → Non-SV do not affect decision boundary
- Convex optimization problem
- → local minimum $\hat{=}$ global minimum Advantages (nonlinear SVM)

Can learn nonlinear decision Disadvantages (nonlinear SVM) boundaries

- Very flexible due to custom kernels
 - → RBF kernel yields local

model

Disadvantages

- **Long** training times $\rightarrow O(n^2p + n^3)$
- Confined to linear model
- Restricted to continuous features
- Optimization can also fail or get stuck



- Poor **interpretability** due to complex kernel
- Not easy tunable as it is highly important to choose the right kernel (which also

NEURAL NETWORKS – METHOD SUMMARY

REGRESSION

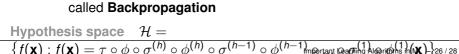
CLASSIFICATION

(NON)PARAMETRIC

BLACK-BOX

General idea

- Learn composite function through series of nonlinear feature transformations, represented as neurons, organized hierarchically in layers
 - Basic neuron operation: 1) affine transformation ϕ (weighted sum of inputs), 2) nonlinear activation σ
 - Combinations of simple building blocks to create a complex model
- Optimize via mini-batch stochastic gradient descent (SGD) variants:
 - Gradient of each weight can be infered from the computational graph of the network
 - → Automatic Differentiation (AutoDiff)
 - Algorithm to compute weight updates based on the loss is called **Backpropagation**





NEURAL NETWORKS – IMPLEMENTATION & PRACTICAL HINTS

General hints

- Instead of NAS, use a standard architecture and tune training hyperparameters
- Training pipeline (data-augmentation, training schedules, ...) is more crucial than the specific architecture
- While NNets are state-of-the-art for computer vision (CV) and natural language processing (NLP), we recommend not to use them for tabular data because alternatives perform better
- Computational efforts for training (and inference) can be very high, requiring specific hardware.
 - \rightarrow Using a service (esp. for foundation models) can be more cost efficient

Implementation

- R: Use python libraries (below) via reticulate, but not really recommended except for toy applications.
- Python libraries:
 - keras for simple high level API



NEURAL NETWORKS - PROS & CONS

Advantages

- Applicable to complex, nonlinear problems
- Very versatile w.r.t. architectures
- State-of-the-art for CV and NLP
- + Strong **performance** if done right
- Built-in feature extraction, obtained by intermediate representations
- + Easy handling of **high-dimensional** data
- + Parallelizable training

Disadvantages

- Typically, high computational cost
- High demand for training data
- Strong tendency to overfit
- Requiring lots of tuning expertise
- Black-box model hard to interpret or explain

