

# Feature Engineering and Selection

CS 294: Practical Machine Learning  
October 1<sup>st</sup>, 2009

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# Abstract supervised setup

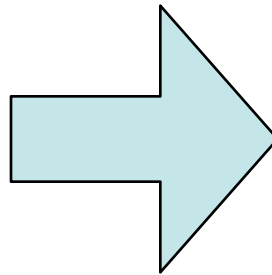
- Training :  $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$
- $\mathbf{x}_i$  : input vector

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \begin{bmatrix} x_{i,1} \\ x_{i,2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{i,n} \end{bmatrix}, \quad x_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}$$

- $y$  : response variable
  - $y \in \{-1, 1\}$ : binary classification
  - $y \in \mathbb{R}$  : regression
  - what we want to be able to predict, having observed some new  $\mathbf{x}$ .

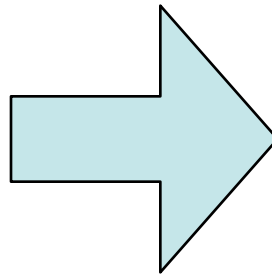
# Concrete setup

Input



Output

“Danger”



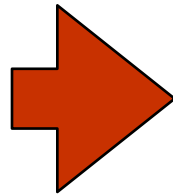
<b>HOT</b> OR <b>NOT</b>
Over 12 Billion votes counted & 25,987,000 photos submitted.
<b>Official Rating</b> <b>8.9</b> Based on 4984 votes

# Featurization

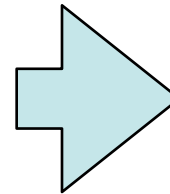
Input



Features

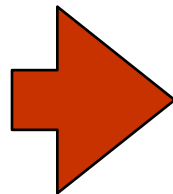


$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{i,1} \\ x_{i,2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{i,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

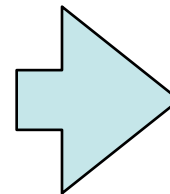


Output

“Danger”



$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{i,1} \\ x_{i,2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{i,n} \end{bmatrix}$$



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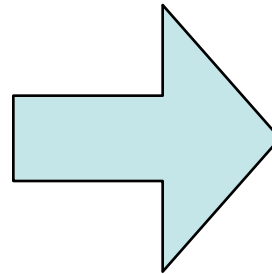
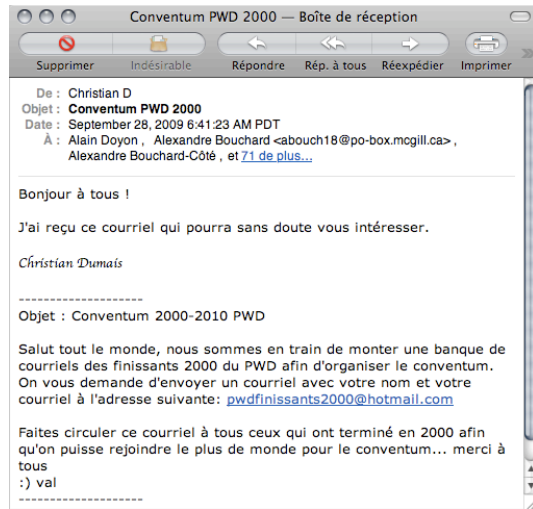
# Outline

- Today: how to featurize effectively
  - Many possible featurizations
  - Choice can drastically affect performance
- Program:
  - Part I : Handcrafting features: examples, bag of tricks (feature engineering)
  - Part II: Automatic feature selection

# Part I: Handcrafting Features

Machines still need us

# Example 1: email classification



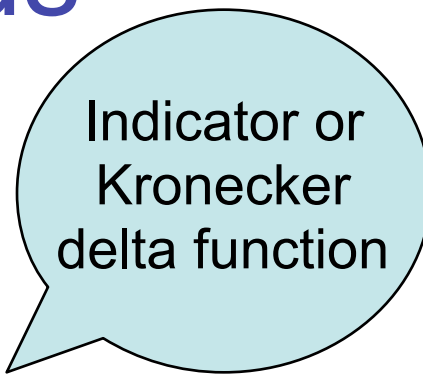
PERSONAL

- Input: a email message
- Output: is the email...
  - spam,
  - work-related,
  - personal, ...

# Basics: bag of words

- Input:  $\mathbf{x}$  (email-valued)
- Feature vector:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ f_2(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ f_n(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{e.g. } f_1(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the email contains "Viagra"} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Indicator or  
Kronecker  
delta function

- Learn one weight vector for each class:

$$\mathbf{w}_y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad y \in \{\text{SPAM}, \text{WORK}, \text{PERS}\}$$

- Decision rule:  $\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_y \langle \mathbf{w}_y, f(\mathbf{x}) \rangle$



# Implementation: exploit sparsity

## Feature vector hashtable

$f(x)$

```
extractFeature(Email e) {
```

```
    result <- hashtable
```

```
    for (String word : e.getWordsInBody())  
        result.put("UNIGRAM:" + word, 1.0)
```

```
    String previous = "#"  
    for (String word : e.getWordsInBody()) {  
        result.put("BIGRAM:" + previous + " " + word, 1.0)  
        previous = word  
    }
```

```
    return result  
}
```

Feature template 1:  
UNIGRAM:Viagra

Feature template 2:  
BIGRAM:Cheap Viagra

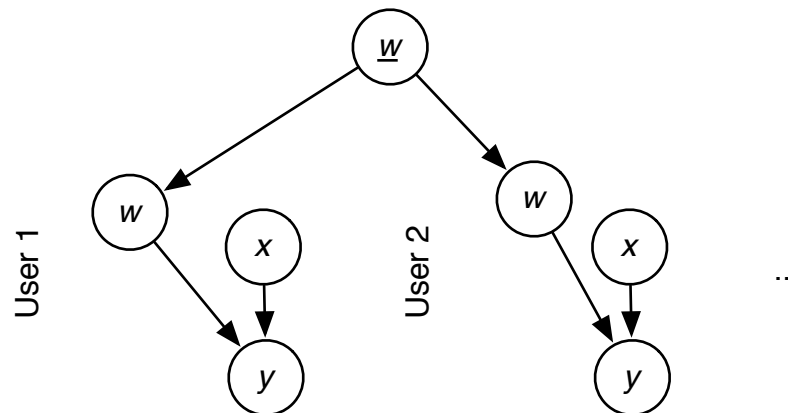
# Features for multitask learning

- Each user inbox is a separate learning problem
  - E.g.: Pfizer drug designer's inbox
- Most inbox has very few training instances, but all the learning problems are clearly related

# Features for multitask learning

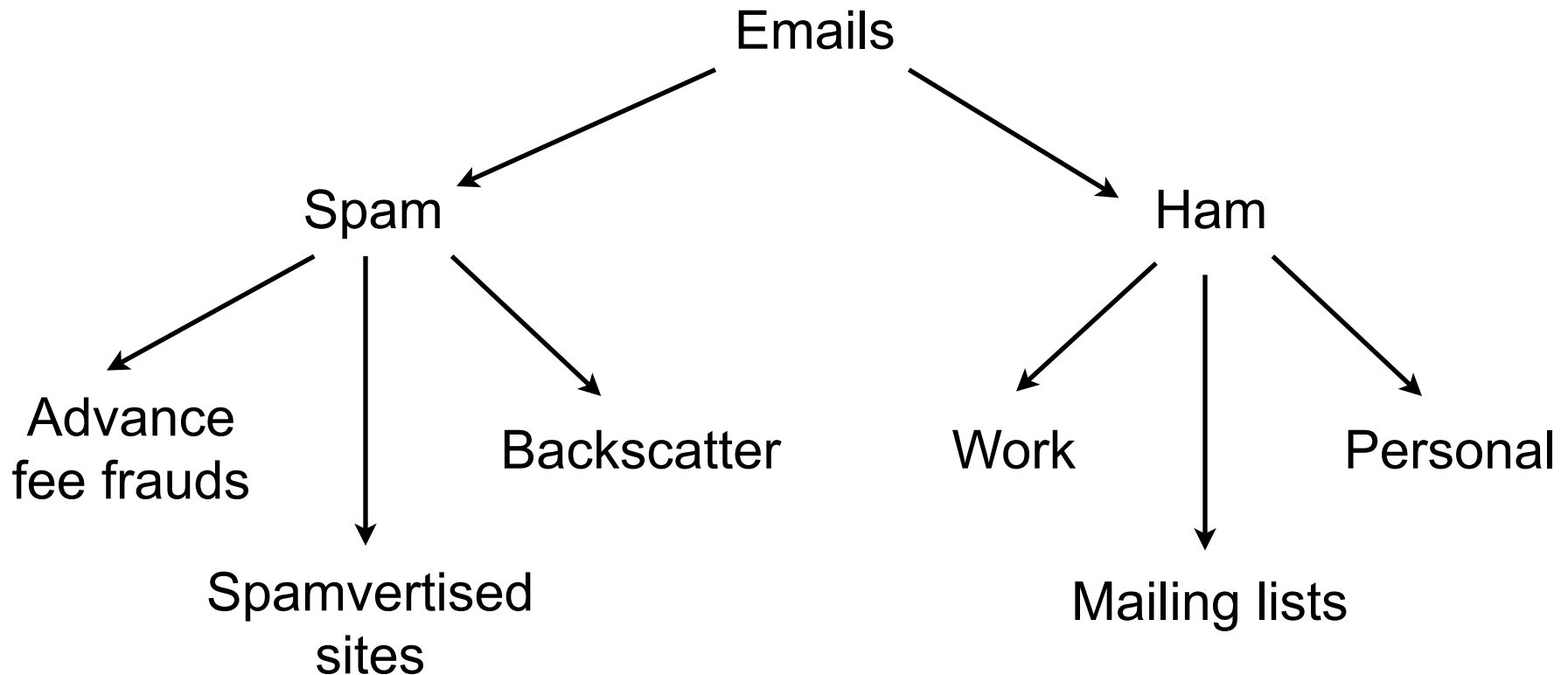
[e.g.:Daumé 06]

- Solution: include both user-specific and global versions of each feature. E.g.:
  - UNIGRAM:Viagra
  - USER\_id4928-UNIGRAM:Viagra
- Equivalent to a Bayesian hierarchy under some conditions (Finkel et al. 2009)



# Structure on the output space

- In multiclass classification, output space often has known structure as well
- Example: a hierarchy:



# Structure on the output space

- Slight generalization of the learning/prediction setup: allow features to depend both on the input  $x$  and on the class  $y$

Before:

- One weight/class:  $w_y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,
- Decision rule:  $\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_y \langle w_y, f(x) \rangle$

After:

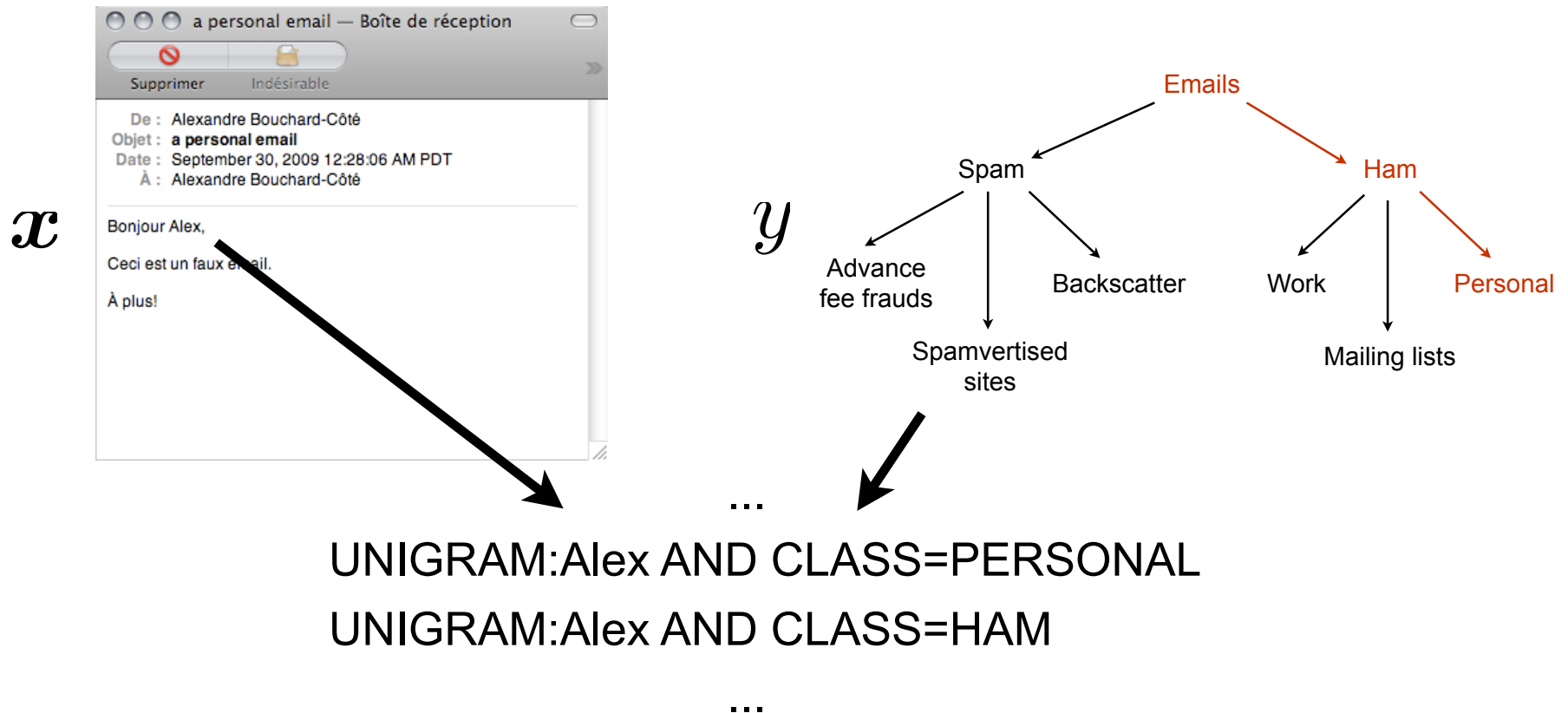
- Single weight:  $w \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,
- New rule:  $\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_y \langle w, f(x, y) \rangle$

# Structure on the output space

- At least as expressive: conjoin each feature with all output classes to get the same model
- E.g.: UNIGRAM:Viagra becomes
  - UNIGRAM:Viagra AND CLASS=FRAUD
  - UNIGRAM:Viagra AND CLASS=ADVERTISE
  - UNIGRAM:Viagra AND CLASS=WORK
  - UNIGRAM:Viagra AND CLASS=LIST
  - UNIGRAM:Viagra AND CLASS=PERSONAL

# Structure on the output space

Exploit the information in the hierarchy by activating both coarse and fine versions of the features on a given input:

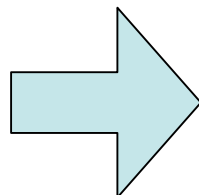


# Structure on the output space

- Not limited to hierarchies
  - multiple hierarchies
  - in general, arbitrary featurization of the output
- Another use:
  - want to model that if no words in the email were seen in training, it's probably spam
  - add a *bias* feature that is activated only in SPAM subclass (ignores the input):  
CLASS=SPAM

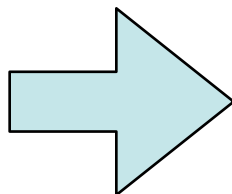


# Dealing with continuous data



“Danger”

- Full solution needs HMMs (a sequence of correlated classification problems): Alex Simma will talk about that on Oct. 15
- Simpler problem: identify a single sound unit (phoneme)



“r”

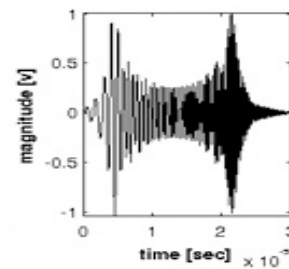
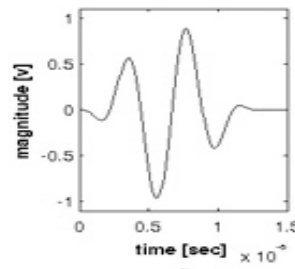
# Dealing with continuous data

- Step 1: Find a coordinate system where similar input have similar coordinates
  - Use Fourier transforms and knowledge about the human ear

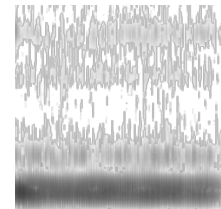
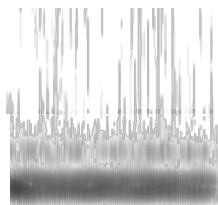
Sound 1

Sound 2

Time domain:

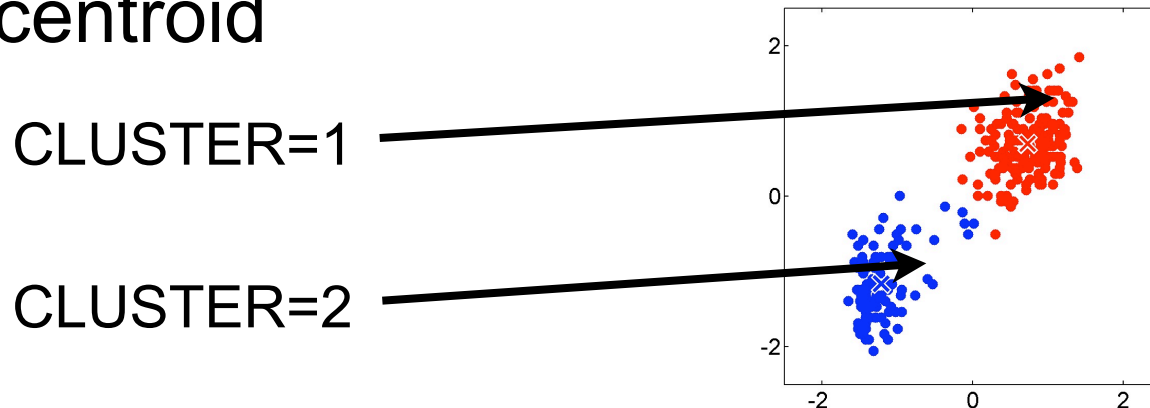


Frequency domain:



# Dealing with continuous data

- Step 2 (optional): Transform the continuous data into discrete data
  - Bad idea:  $\text{COORDINATE}=(9.54,8.34)$
  - Better: Vector quantization (VQ)
    - Run k-mean on the training data as a preprocessing step
    - Feature is the index of the nearest centroid



# Dealing with continuous data

Important special case: integration of the output of a black box

- Back to the email classifier: assume we have an executable that returns, given a email  $e$ , its belief  $B(e)$  that the email is spam
- We want to model monotonicity
- Solution: thermometer feature

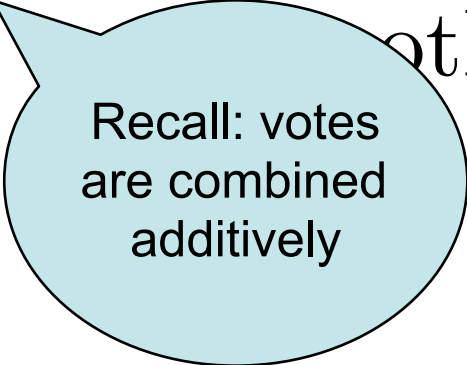


...       $B(e) > 0.4$  AND       $B(e) > 0.6$  AND       $B(e) > 0.8$  AND  
CLASS=SPAM      CLASS=SPAM      CLASS=SPAM      ...

# Dealing with continuous data

Another way of integrating a calibrated black box as a feature:

$$f_i(\mathbf{x}, y) = \begin{cases} \log B(e) & \text{if } y = \text{SPAM} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Recall: votes  
are combined  
additively

# **Part II: (Automatic) Feature Selection**

# What is feature selection?

- Reducing the feature space by throwing out some of the features
- Motivating idea: try to find a simple, “parsimonious” model
  - Occam’s razor: simplest explanation that accounts for the data is best

# What is feature selection?

Task: classify emails as spam, work, ...

Data: presence/absence of words

Task: predict chances of lung disease

Data: medical history survey

X

UNIGRAM:Viagra	0	Reduced X	UNIGRAM:Viagra	0
UNIGRAM:the	1			
BIGRAM:the presence	0			
BIGRAM:hello Alex	1			
UNIGRAM:Alex	1		BIGRAM:hello Alex	1
UNIGRAM:of	1		BIGRAM:free Viagra	0
BIGRAM:absence of	0			
BIGRAM:classify email	0			
BIGRAM:free Viagra	0			
BIGRAM:predict the	1			
...				
BIGRAM:emails as	1			

X

Vegetarian	No	Reduced X	Family history	No
Plays video games	Yes			
Family history	No			
Athletic	No			
Smoker	Yes		Smoker	Yes
Gender	Male			
Lung capacity	5.8L			
Hair color	Red			
Car	Audi			
...				
Weight	185 lbs			



# Outline

- Review/introduction
  - What is feature selection? Why do it?
- Filtering
- Model selection
  - Model evaluation
  - Model search
- Regularization
- Summary recommendations

# Why do it?

- Case 1: We're interested in *features*—we want to know which are relevant. If we fit a model, it should be *interpretable*.
- Case 2: We're interested in *prediction*; features are not interesting in themselves, we just want to build a good classifier (or other kind of predictor).

# Why do it? Case 1.

*We want to know which features are relevant; we don't necessarily want to do prediction.*

- What causes lung cancer?
  - Features are aspects of a patient's medical history
  - Binary response variable: did the patient develop lung cancer?
  - Which features best predict whether lung cancer will develop?  
Might want to legislate against these features.
- What causes a program to crash? [Alice Zheng '03, '04, '05]
  - Features are aspects of a single program execution
    - Which branches were taken?
    - What values did functions return?
  - Binary response variable: did the program crash?
  - Features that predict crashes well are probably bugs

# Why do it? Case 2.

*We want to build a good predictor.*

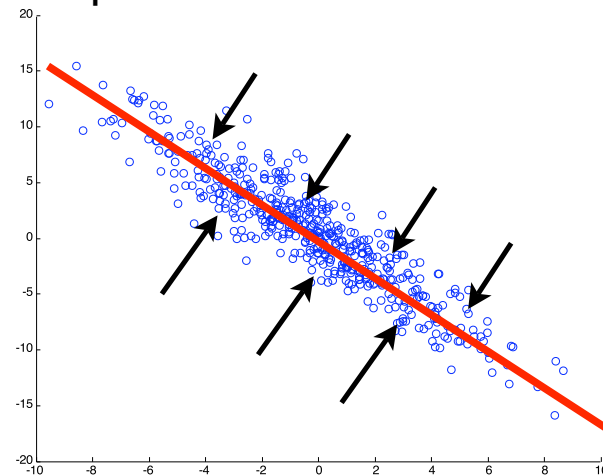
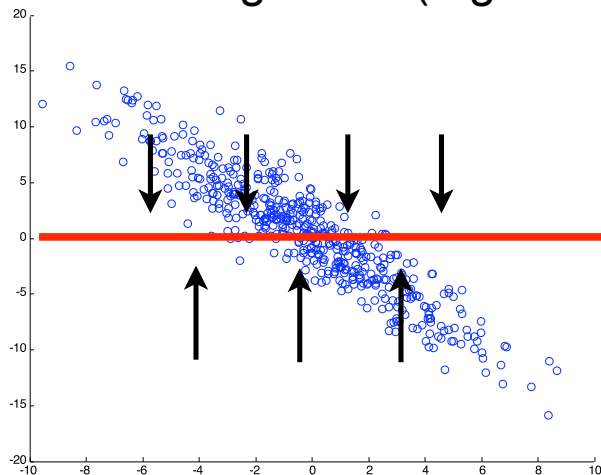
- Common practice: coming up with as many features as possible (e.g.  $> 10^6$  not unusual)
  - Training might be too expensive with all features
  - The presence of irrelevant features hurts **generalization**.
- Classification of leukemia tumors from microarray gene expression data [Xing, Jordan, Karp '01]
  - 72 patients (data points)
  - 7130 features (expression levels of different genes)
- Embedded systems with limited resources
  - Classifier must be compact
  - Voice recognition on a cell phone
  - Branch prediction in a CPU
- Web-scale systems with zillions of features
  - user-specific n-grams from gmail/yahoo spam filters

# Get at Case 1 through Case 2

- Even if we just want to identify features, it can be useful to *pretend* we want to do prediction.
- Relevant features are (typically) exactly those that most aid prediction.
- But not always. Highly correlated features may be redundant but both interesting as “causes”.
  - e.g. smoking in the morning, smoking at night

# Feature selection vs. Dimensionality reduction

- Removing features:
  - Equivalent to projecting data onto lower-dimensional linear subspace perpendicular to the feature removed
- Percy's lecture: dimensionality reduction
  - allow other kinds of projection.
- The machinery involved is very different
  - Feature selection can be faster at test time
  - Also, we will assume we have labeled data. Some dimensionality reduction algorithm (e.g. PCA) do not exploit this information



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# Filtering

Simple techniques for weeding out irrelevant features without fitting model

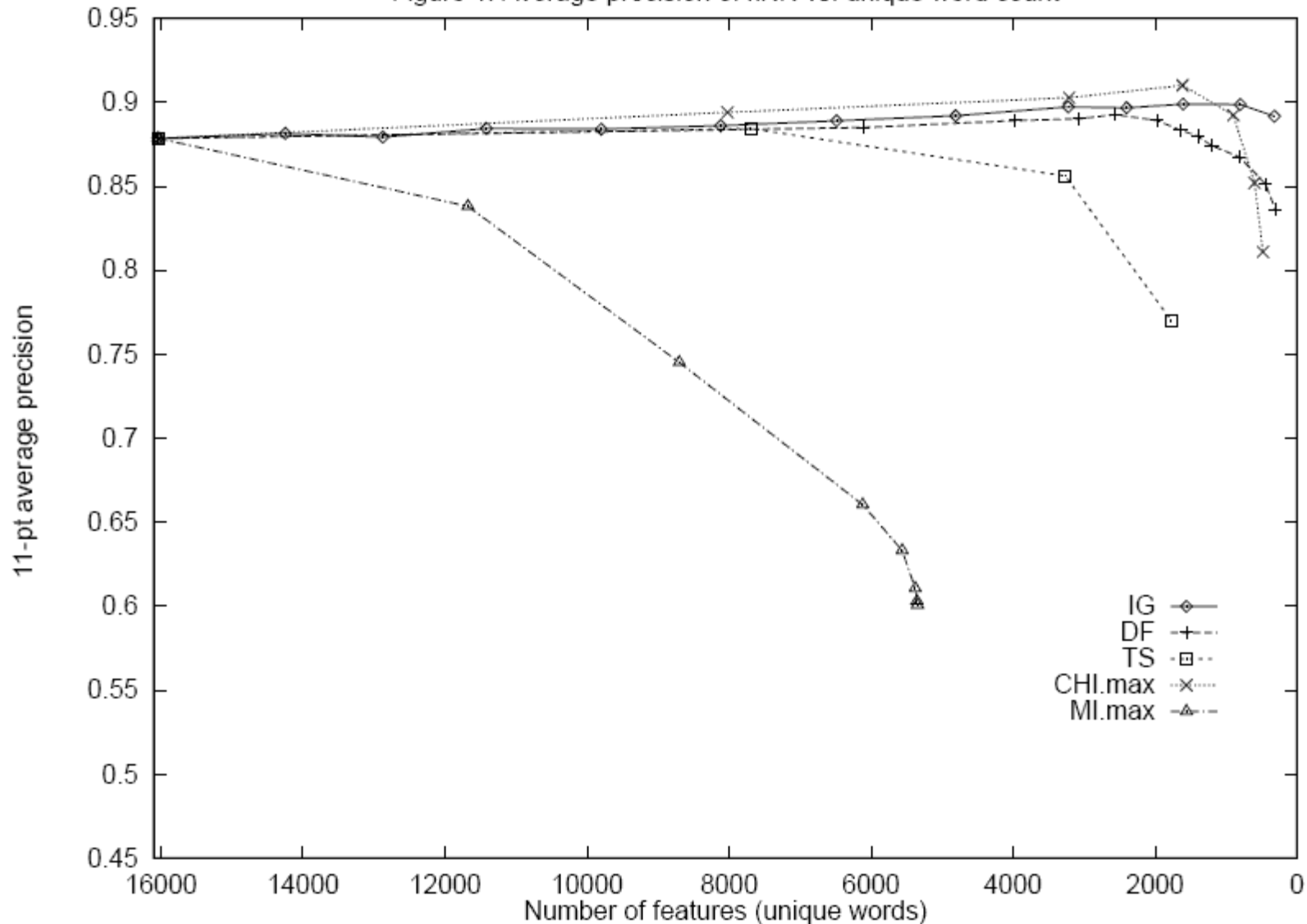


# Filtering

- Basic idea: assign heuristic score to each feature  $f$  to filter out the “obviously” useless ones.
  - Does the individual feature seems to help prediction?
  - Do we have enough data to use it reliably?
  - Many popular scores [see Yang and Pederson '97]
    - Classification with categorical data: Chi-squared, information gain, document frequency
    - Regression: correlation, mutual information
    - They all depend on one feature at the time (and the data)
- Then somehow pick how many of the highest scoring features to keep

# Comparison of filtering methods for text categorization [Yang and Pederson '97]

Figure 1. Average precision of kNN vs. unique word count



# Filtering

- **Advantages:**
  - Very fast
  - Simple to apply
- **Disadvantages:**
  - Doesn't take into account interactions between features:  
Apparently useless features can be useful when grouped with others
- **Suggestion:** use light filtering as an efficient initial step if running time of your fancy learning algorithm is an issue

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# Model Selection

- Choosing between possible models of varying complexity
  - In our case, a “model” means a set of features
- Running example: linear regression model

# Linear Regression Model

Input :  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Parameters:  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$

Response :  $y \in \mathbb{R}$

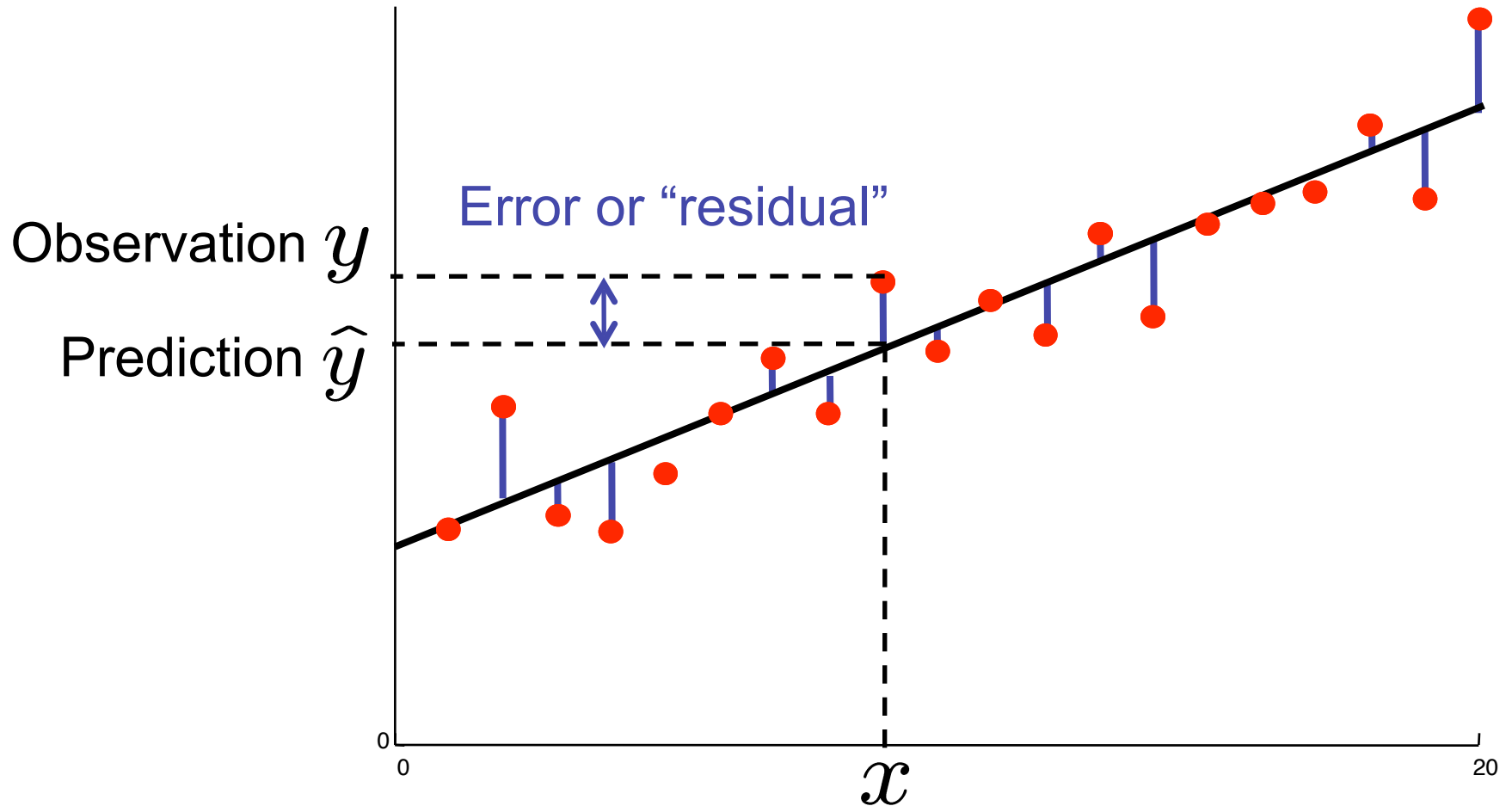
Prediction :  $y = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}$

- Recall that we can fit (learn) the model by minimizing the squared error:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

# Least Squares Fitting

(Fabian's slide from 3 weeks ago)



Sum squared error: 
$$L(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

# Naïve training error is misleading

Input :  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Parameters:  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$

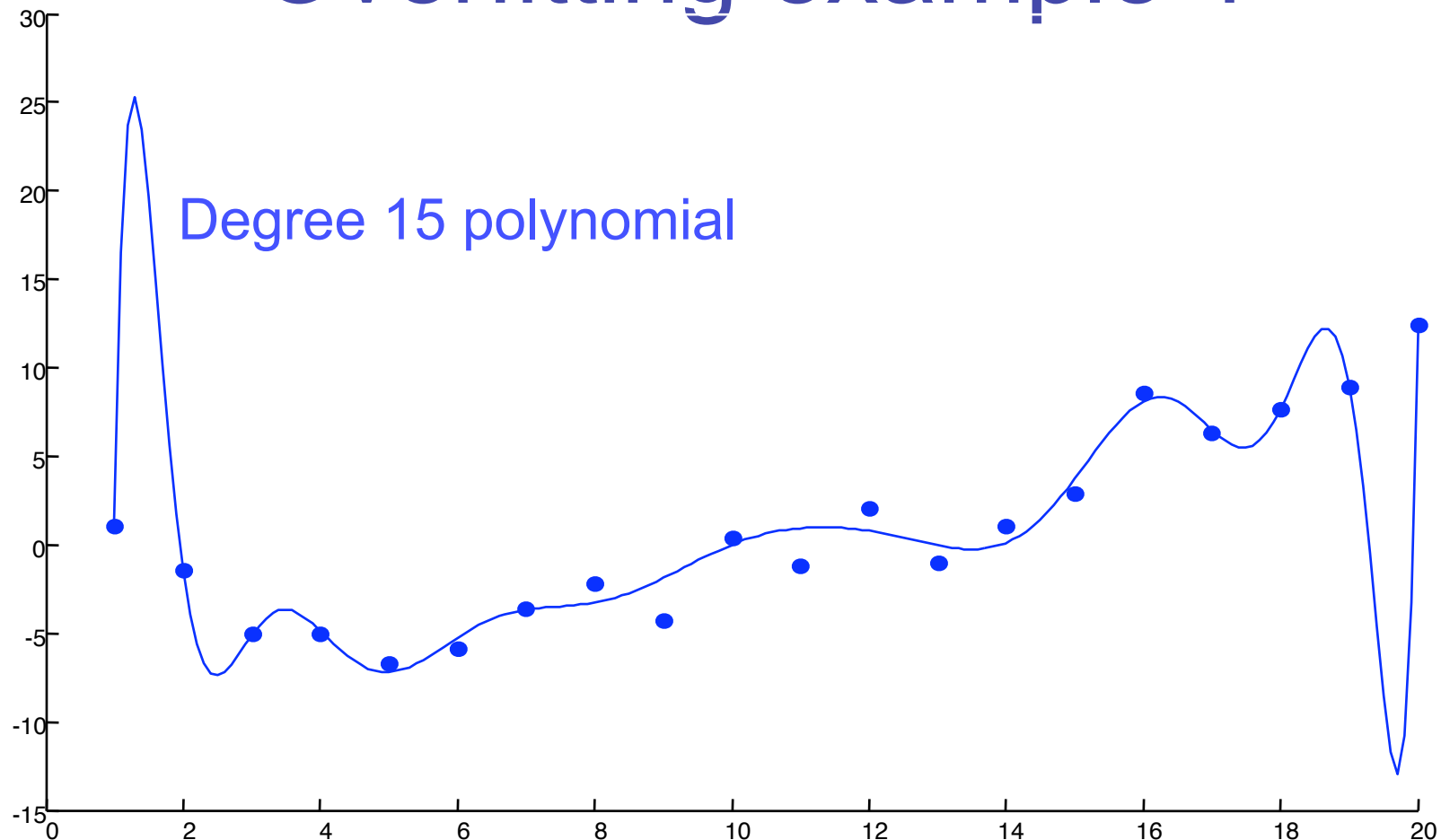
Response :  $y \in \mathbb{R}$

Prediction :  $y = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}$

- Consider a reduced model with only those features  $x_f$  for  $f \in s \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, d\}$ 
  - Squared error is now 
$$L_s(\mathbf{w}_s) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}_s^\top \mathbf{x}_{i,s})^2$$
- Is this new model better? Maybe we should compare the training errors to find out?
- Note  $\min_{\mathbf{w}_s} L_s(\mathbf{w}_s) \geq \min_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w})$ 
  - Just zero out terms in  $\mathbf{w}$  to match  $\mathbf{w}_s$ .
- Generally speaking, training error will only go up in a simpler model. So why should we use one?



# Overfitting example 1

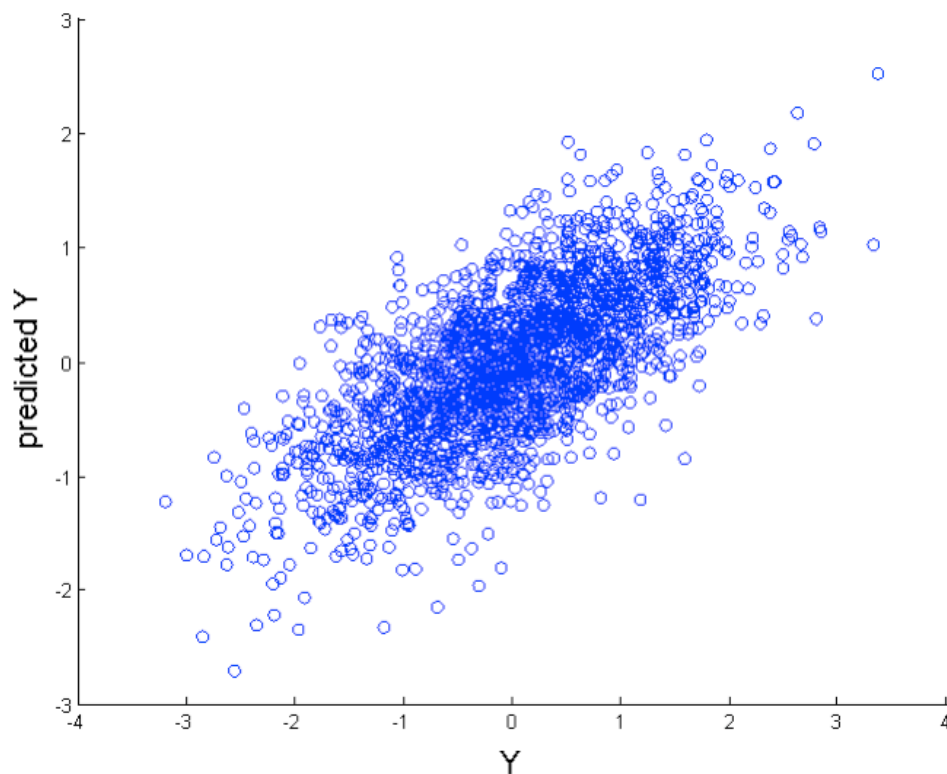


- This model is too rich for the data
- Fits training data well, but doesn't generalize.

(From Fabian's lecture)

# Overfitting example 2

- Generate 2000  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{1000}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$  i.i.d.
- Generate 2000  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  i.i.d. *completely independent of the  $\mathbf{x}_i$ 's*
  - We shouldn't be able to predict  $y$  at *all* from  $\mathbf{x}$
- Find  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w})$
- Use this to predict  $y_i$  for each  $\mathbf{x}_i$  by  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\mathbf{w}}^\top \mathbf{x}_i$



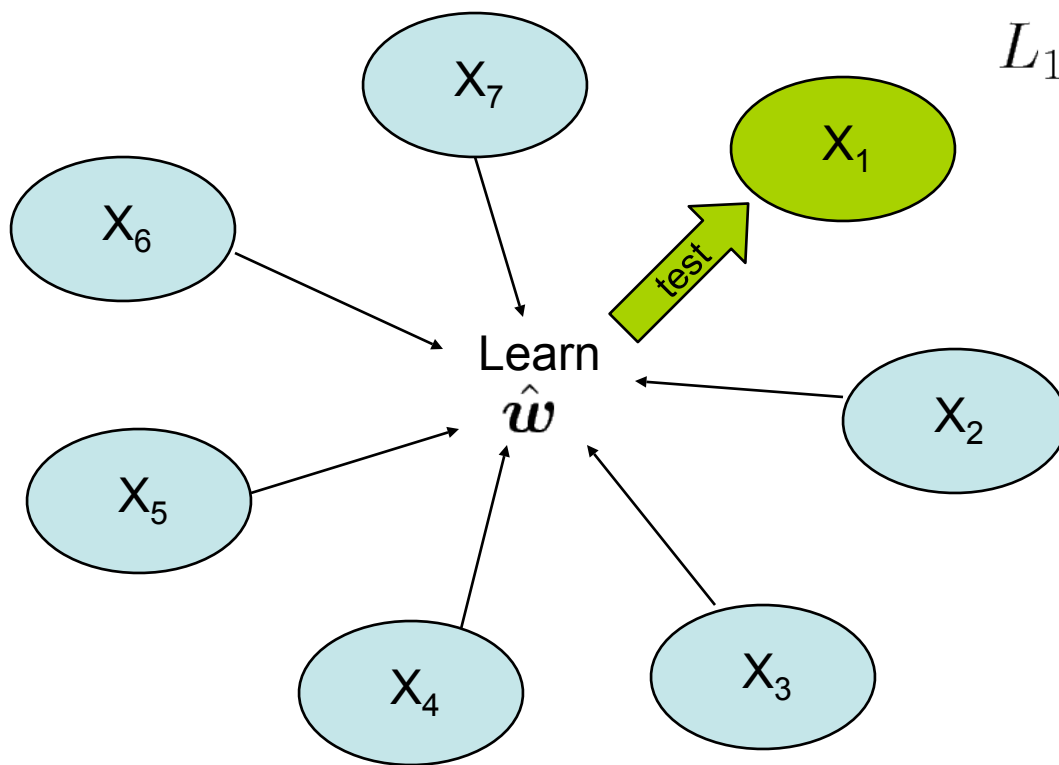
It really looks like we've found a relationship between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $y$  ! But no such relationship exists, so  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$  will do no better than random on new data.

# Model evaluation

- **Moral 1:** In the presence of many irrelevant features, we might just fit noise.
- **Moral 2:** Training error can lead us astray.
- To evaluate a feature set  $s$ , we need a better scoring function  $K(s)$
- We're not ultimately interested in *training* error; we're interested in *test* error (error on new data).
- We can estimate test error by pretending we haven't seen some of our data.
  - Keep some data aside as a *validation set*. If we don't use it in training, then it's a better test of our model.

# K-fold cross validation

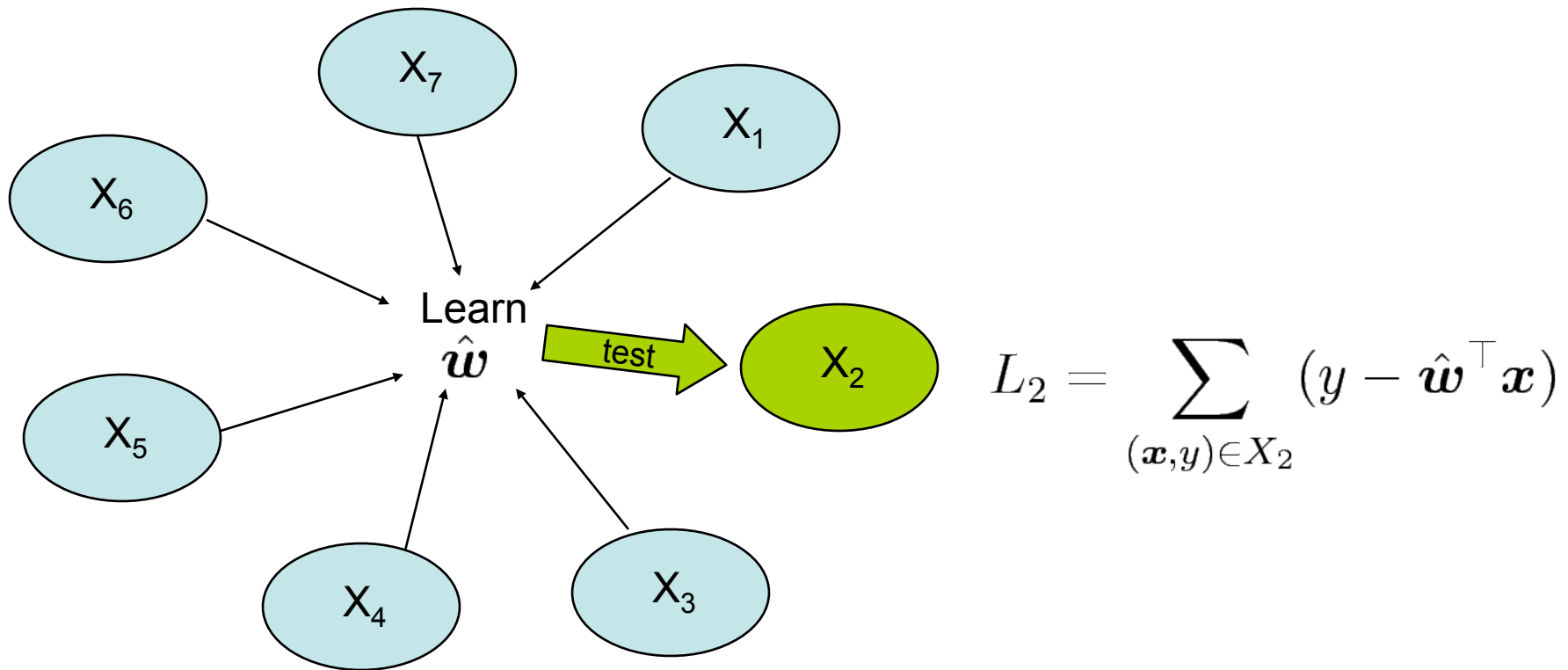
- A technique for estimating test error
- Uses *all* of the data to validate
- Divide data into K groups  $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_K\}$ .
- Use each group as a validation set, then average all validation errors



$$L_1 = \sum_{(x,y) \in X_1} (y - \hat{w}^\top x)$$

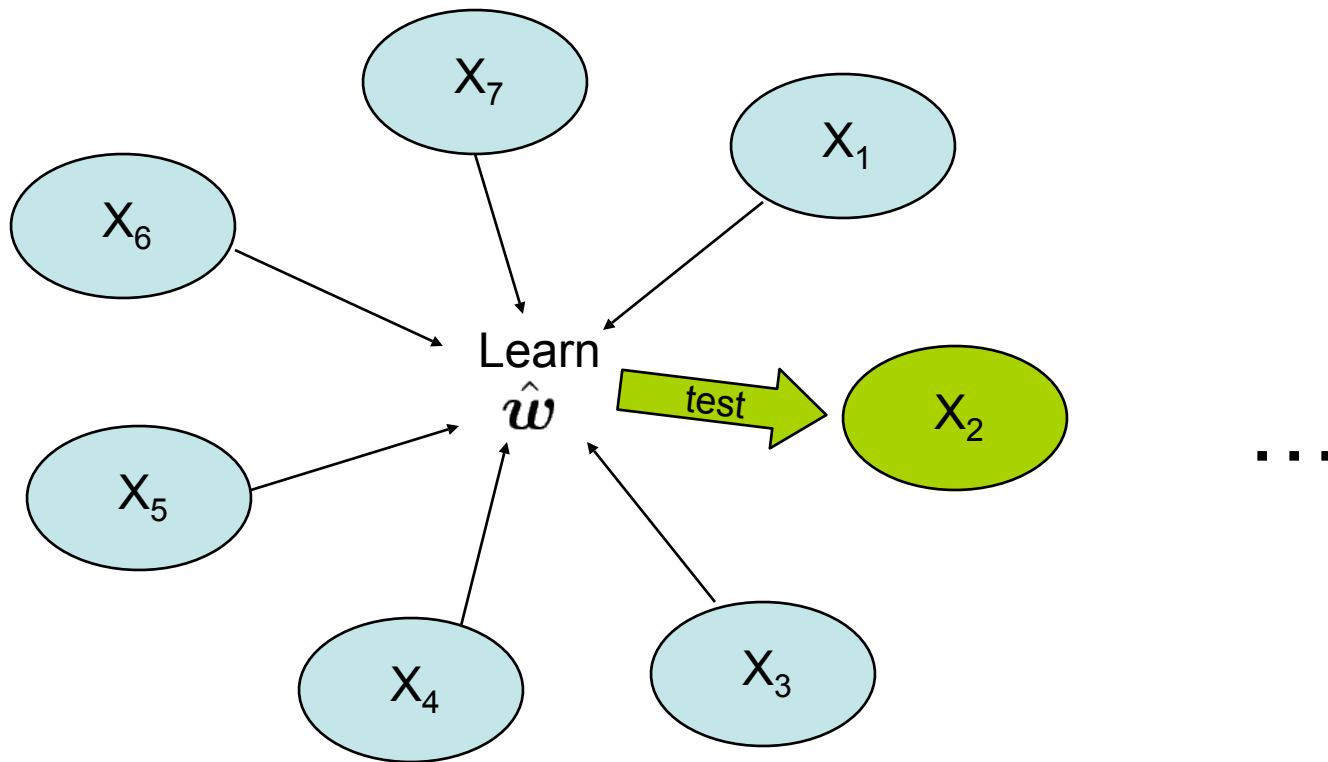
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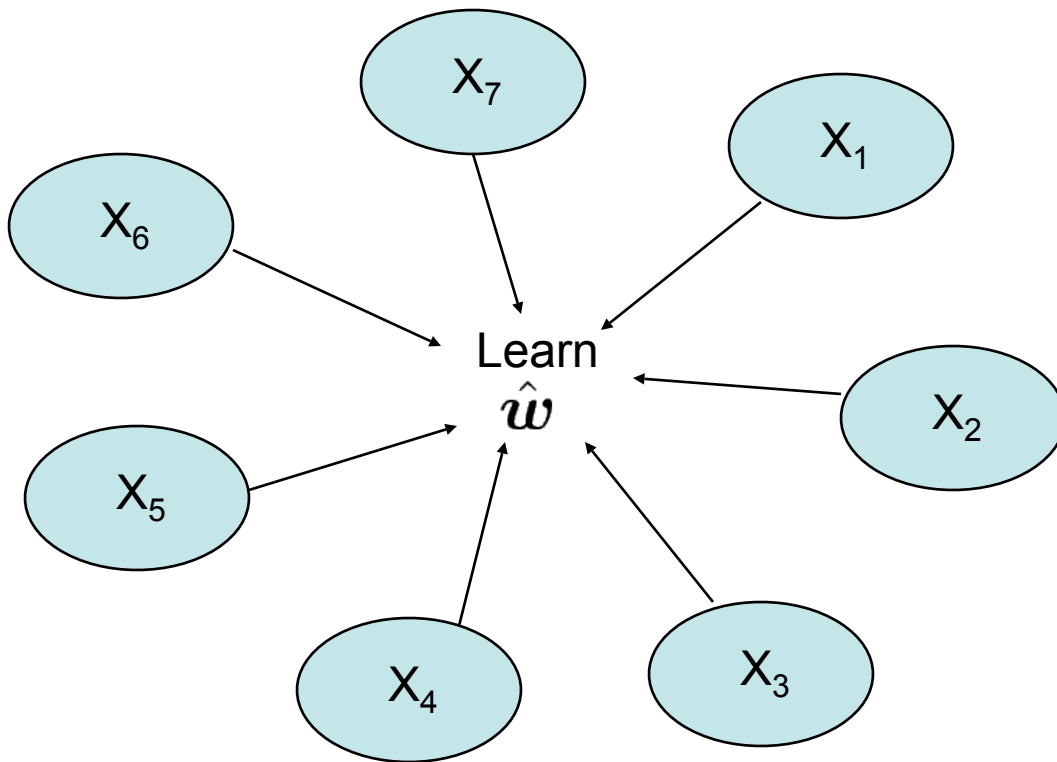
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# K-fold cross validation

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$$CV(s) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K L_i$$

# Model Search

- We have an objective function  $K(s) = CV(s)$ 
  - Time to search for a good model.
- This is known as a “wrapper” method
  - Learning algorithm is a black box
  - Just use it to compute objective function, then do search
- Exhaustive search expensive
  - for  $n$  features,  $2^n$  possible subsets  $s$
- Greedy search is common and effective



# Model search

## Forward selection

Initialize  $s = \{\}$

Do:

    Add feature to  $s$   
    which improves  $K(s)$  most

While  $K(s)$  can be improved

## Backward elimination

Initialize  $s = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

Do:

    remove feature from  $s$   
    which improves  $K(s)$  most

While  $K(s)$  can be improved

- Backward elimination tends to find better models
  - Better at finding models with interacting features
  - But it is frequently too expensive to fit the large models at the beginning of search
- Both can be too greedy.

# Model search

- More sophisticated search strategies exist
  - Best-first search
  - Stochastic search
  - See “Wrappers for Feature Subset Selection”, Kohavi and John 1997
- For many models, search moves can be evaluated quickly without refitting
  - E.g. linear regression model: add feature that has most covariance with current residuals
- YALE can do feature selection with cross-validation and either forward selection or backwards elimination.
- Other objective functions exist which add a model-complexity penalty to the training error
  - AIC: add penalty  $d$  to log-likelihood (number of features).
  - BIC: add penalty  $d \log n$  ( $n$  is the number of data points)

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# Regularization

- In certain cases, we can move model selection *into* the induction algorithm
- This is sometimes called an *embedded* feature selection algorithm

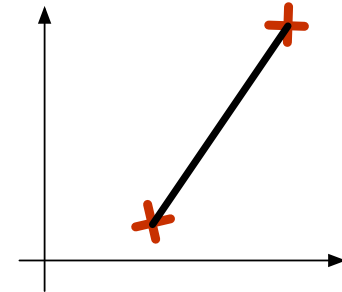
# Regularization

- Regularization: add model complexity penalty to training error.
- $J(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + C\|\mathbf{w}\|_p = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + C\|\mathbf{w}\|_p$   
for some constant C
- Find  $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} J(\mathbf{w})$
- Regularization forces weights to be small, but does it force weights to be exactly *zero*?
  - $w_f = 0$  is equivalent to removing feature f from the model
- Depends on the value of  $p$  ...

# $p$ metrics and norms

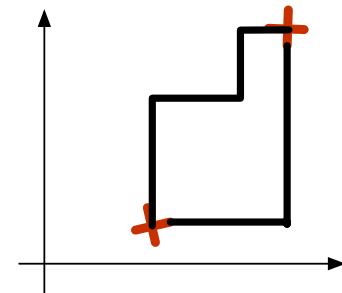
- $p = 2$ : Euclidean

$$||\vec{w}||_2 = \sqrt{w_1^2 + \cdots + w_n^2}$$



- $p = 1$ : Taxicab or Manhattan

$$||\vec{w}||_1 = |w_1| + \cdots + |w_n|$$

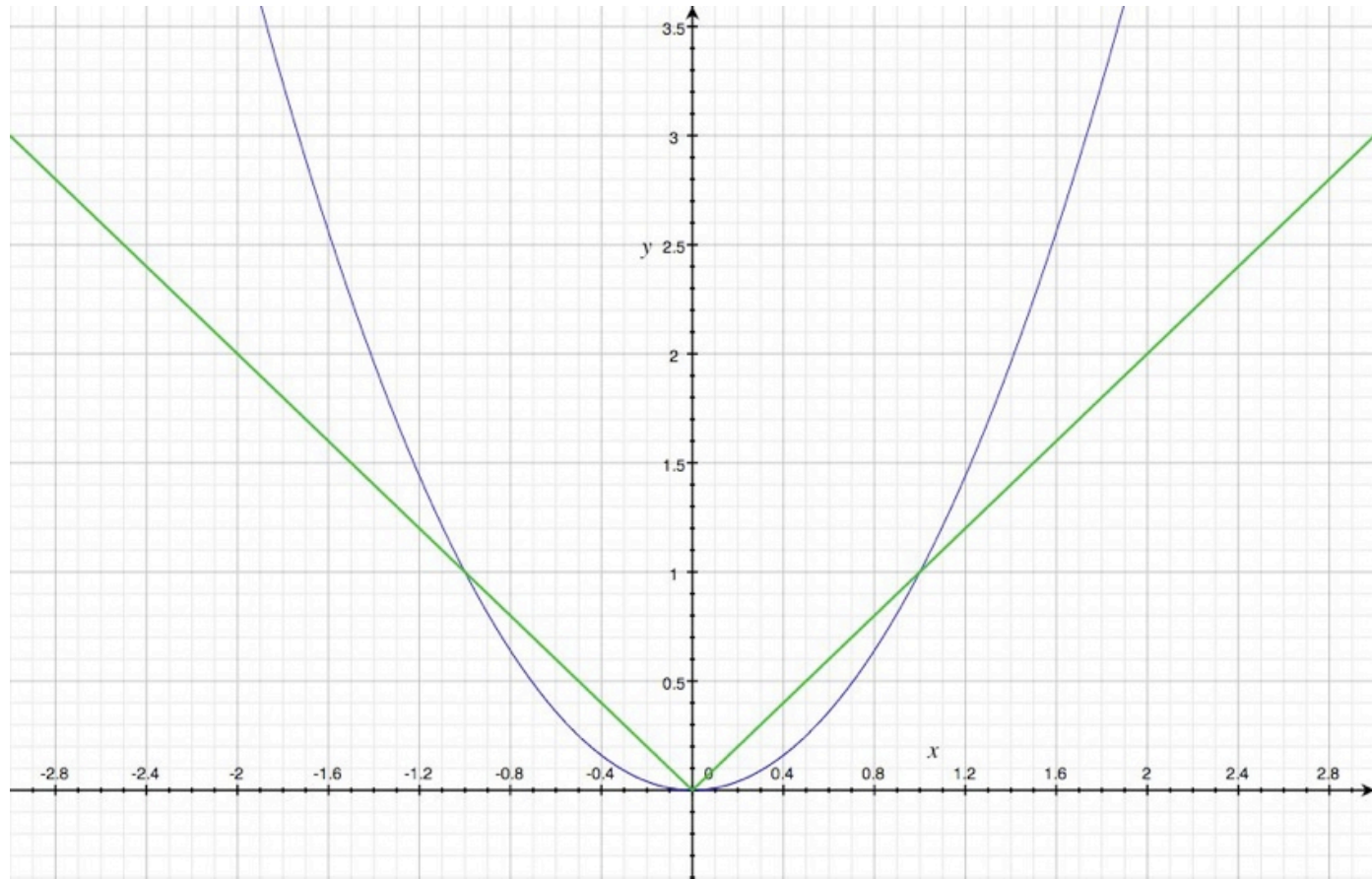


- General case:  $0 < p \leq \infty$

$$||\vec{w}||_p = \sqrt[p]{|w_1|^p + \cdots + |w_n|^p}$$

# Univariate case: intuition

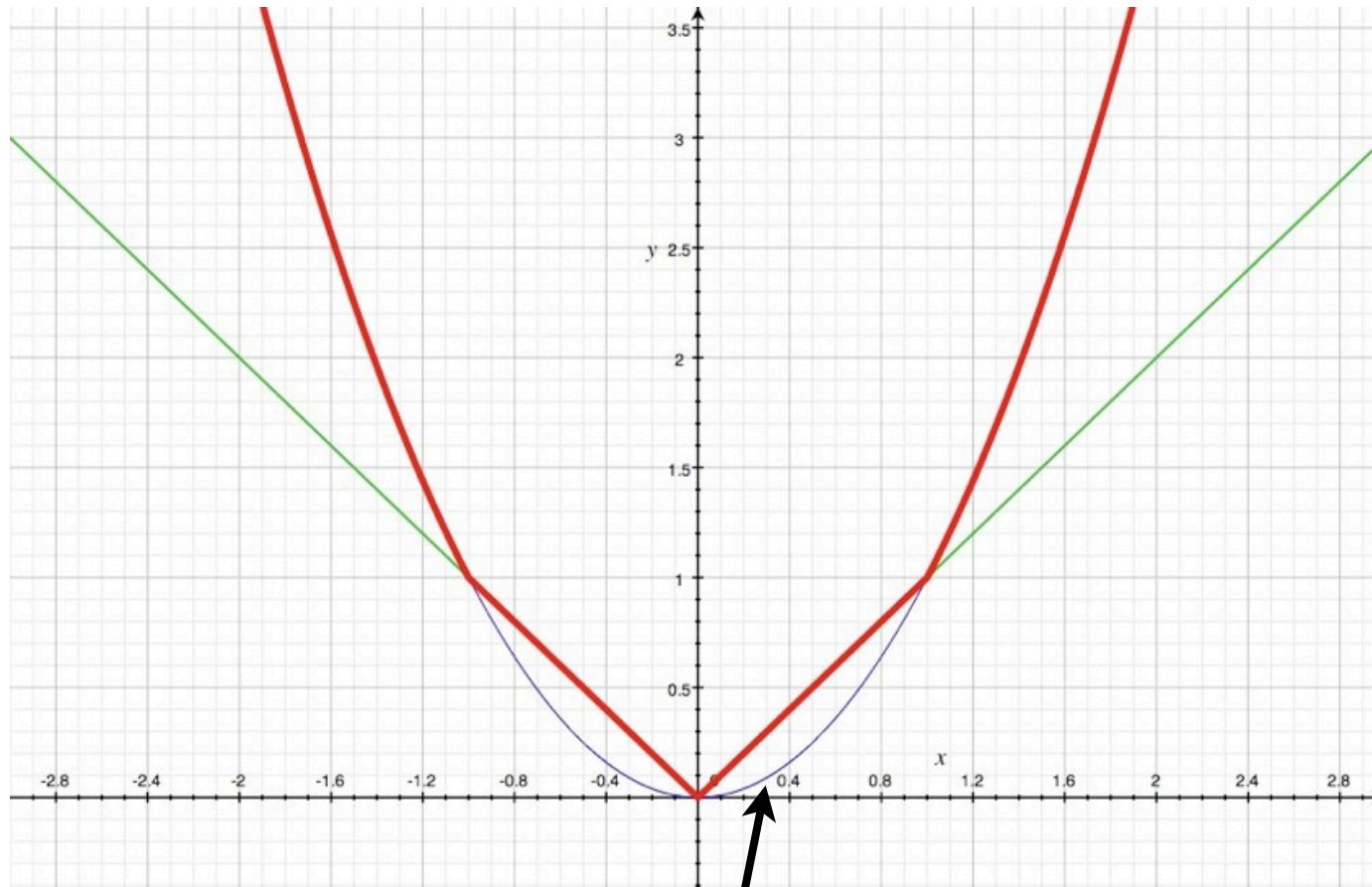
Penalty



Feature  
weight  
value

# Univariate case: intuition

Penalty



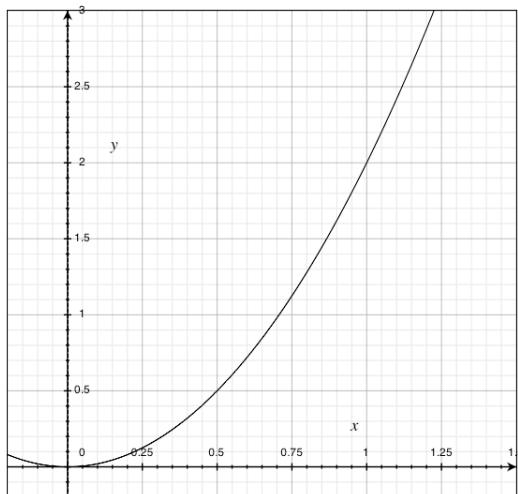
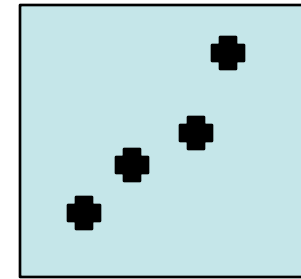
Feature  
weight  
value

L1 penalizes more than L2  
when the weight is small



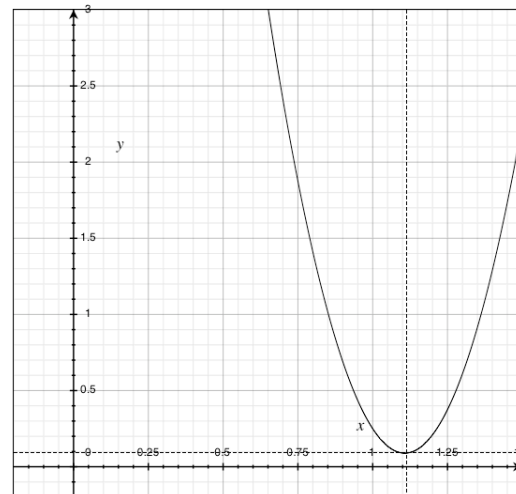
# Univariate example: $L_2$

- Case 1: there is a lot of data supporting our hypothesis



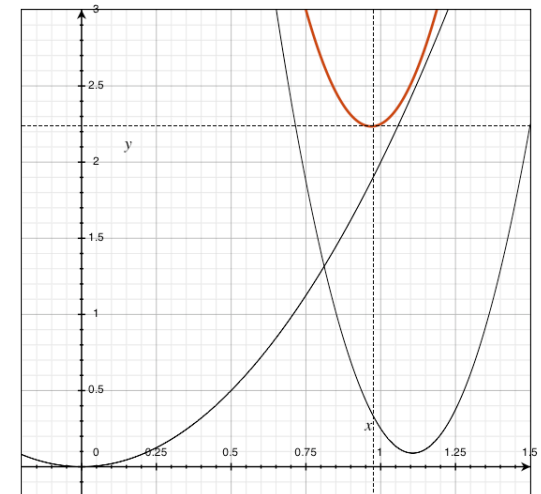
Regularization term

+



Data likelihood  
By itself, minimized  
by  $w=1.1$

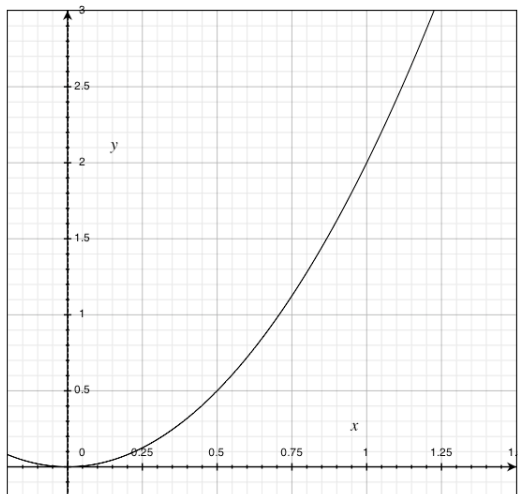
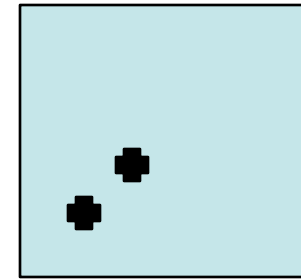
=



Objective function  
Minimized by  
 $w=0.95$

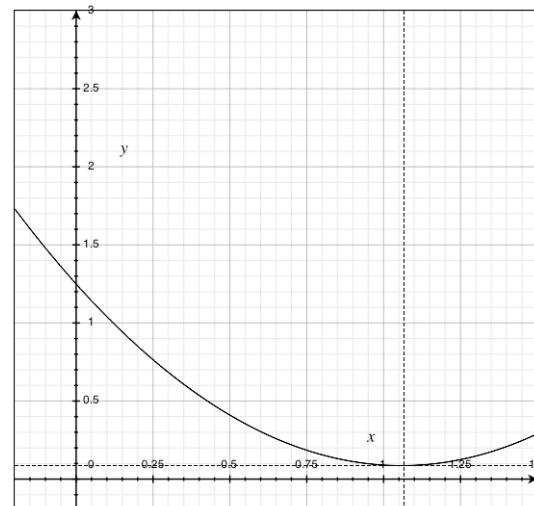
# Univariate example: $L_2$

- Case 2: there is NOT a lot of data supporting our hypothesis



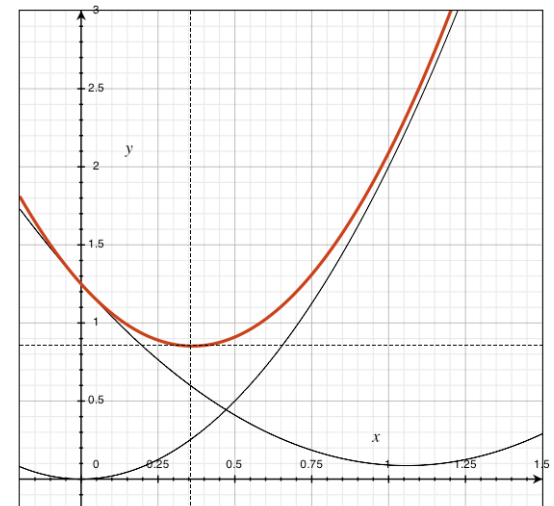
Regularization term

+



Data likelihood  
By itself, minimized  
by  $w=1.1$

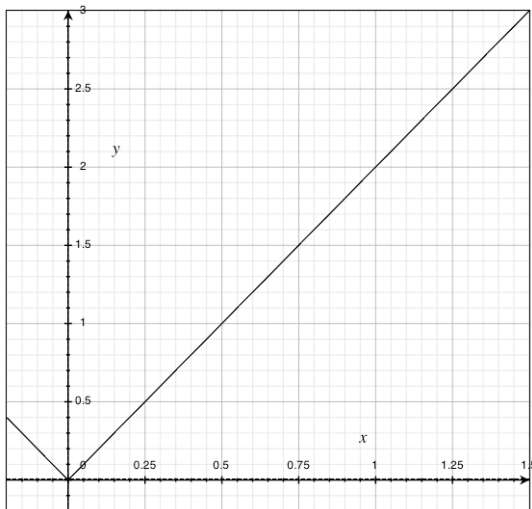
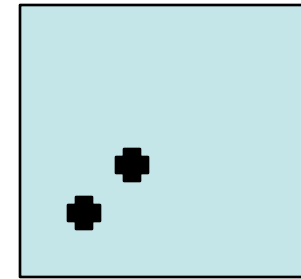
=



Objective function  
Minimized by  
 $w=0.36$

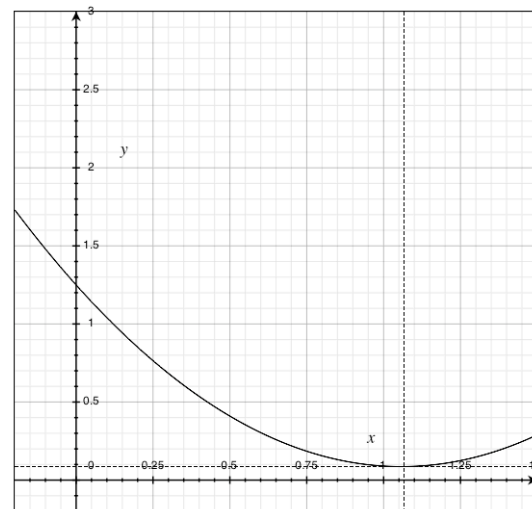
# Univariate example: $L_1$

- Case 1, when there is a lot of data supporting our hypothesis:
  - Almost the same resulting  $w$  as L2
- Case 2, when there is NOT a lot of data supporting our hypothesis
- Get  $w = \text{exactly zero}$



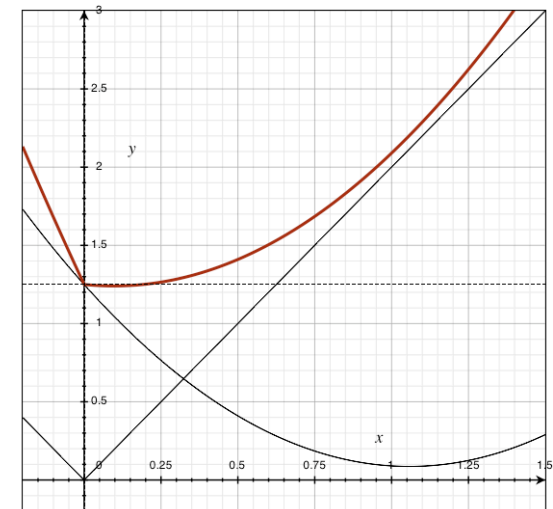
Regularization term

+



Data likelihood  
By itself, minimized  
by  $w=1.1$

=

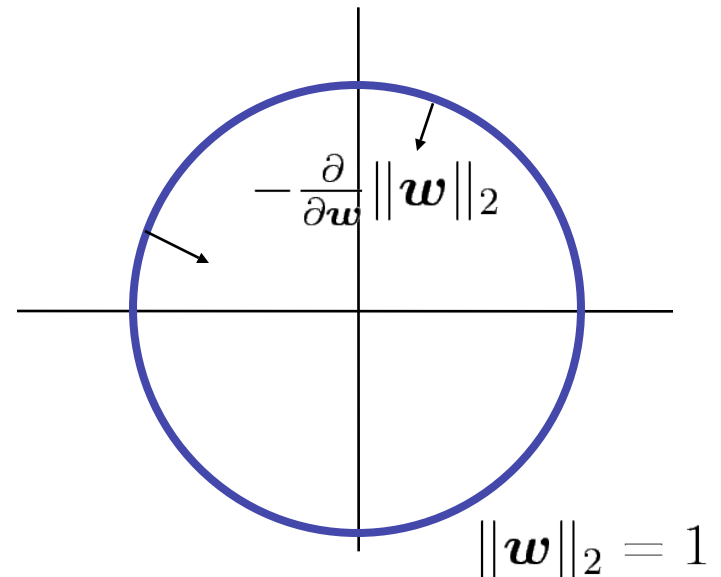
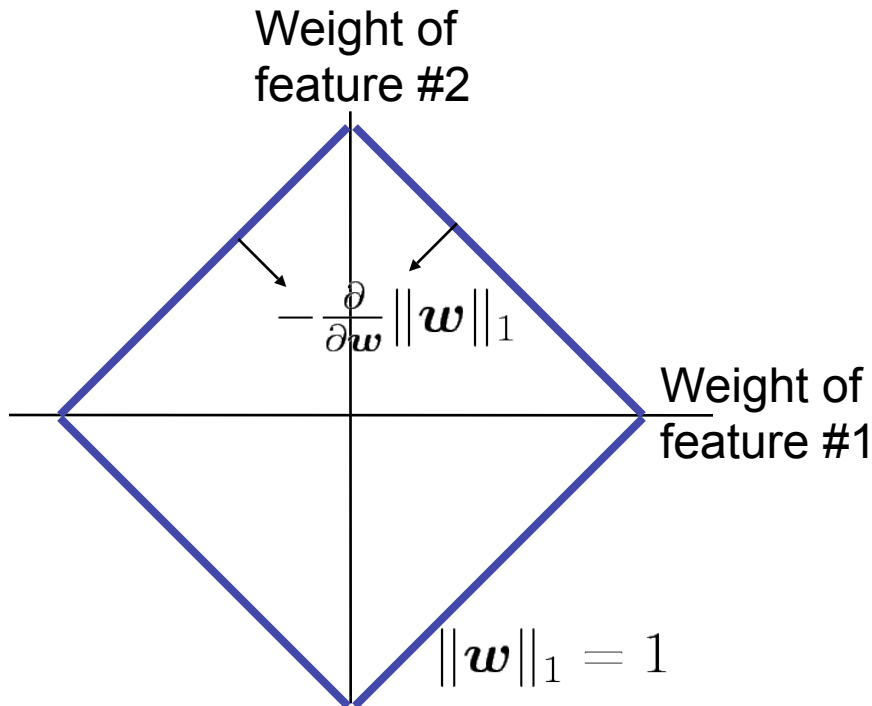


Objective function  
Minimized by  
 $w=0.0$

# Level sets of $L_1$ vs $L_2$ (in 2D)

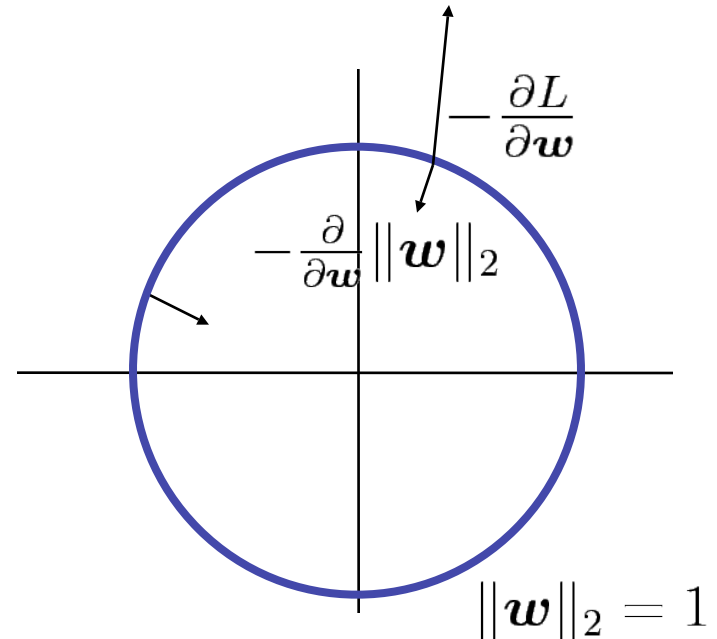
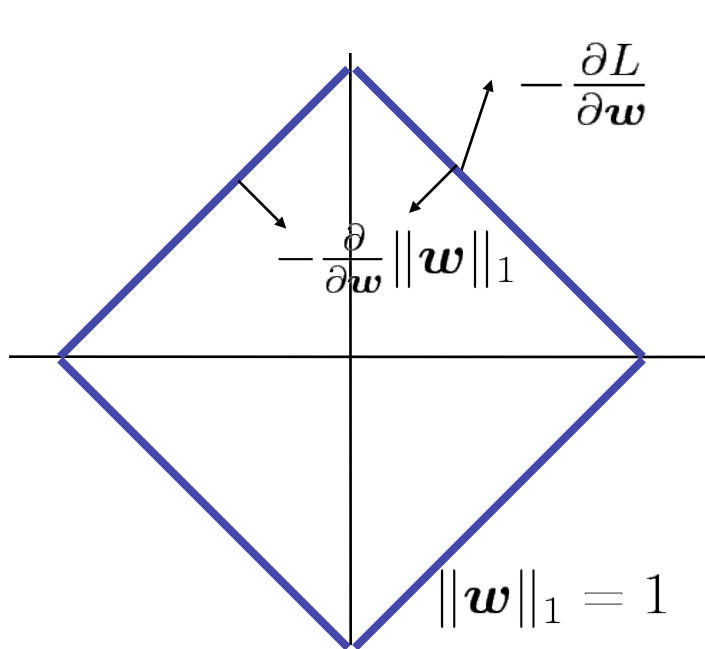
$$\|\mathbf{w}\|_1 = \sum_{f=0}^d |w_f|$$

$$\|\mathbf{w}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{f=0}^d w_f^2}$$



# Multivariate case: $\mathbf{w}$ gets cornered

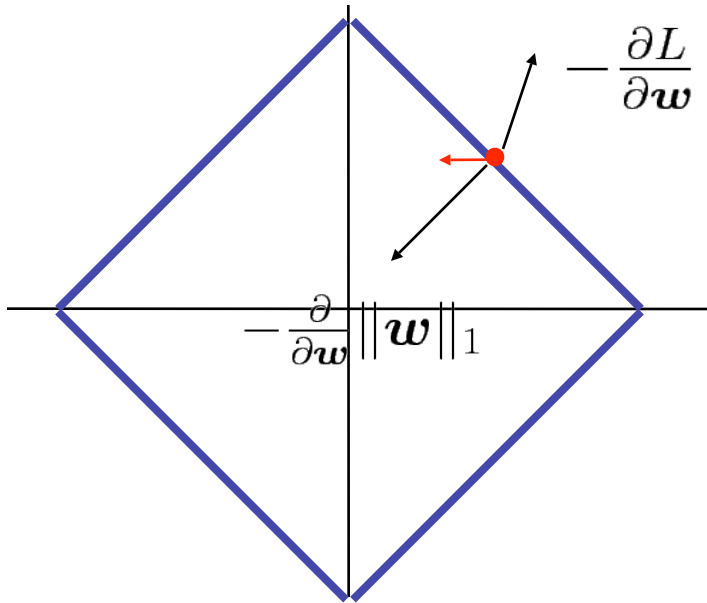
- To minimize  $J(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \|\mathbf{w}\|_p$ , we can solve  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0$  by (e.g.) gradient descent.



- Minimization is a tug-of-war between the two terms

# Multivariate case: $w$ gets cornered

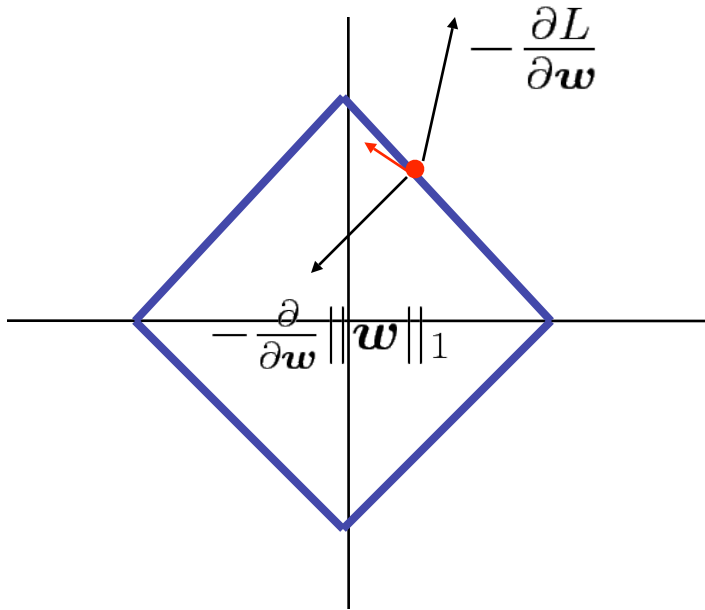
- To minimize  $J(w) = L(w) + \|w\|_p$ , we can solve  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = 0$  by (e.g.) gradient descent.



- Minimization is a tug-of-war between the two terms

# Multivariate case: $\mathbf{w}$ gets cornered

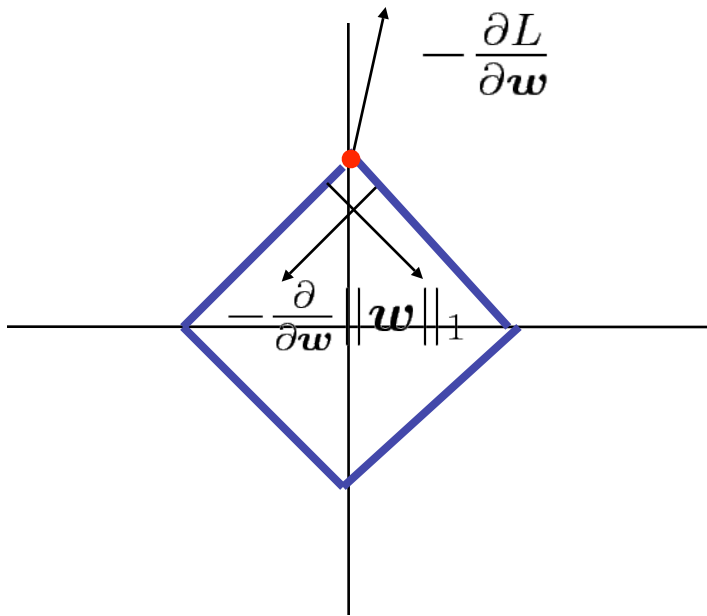
- To minimize  $J(\mathbf{w}) = L(\mathbf{w}) + \|\mathbf{w}\|_p$ , we can solve  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0$  by (e.g.) gradient descent.



- Minimization is a tug-of-war between the two terms

# Multivariate case: $w$ gets cornered

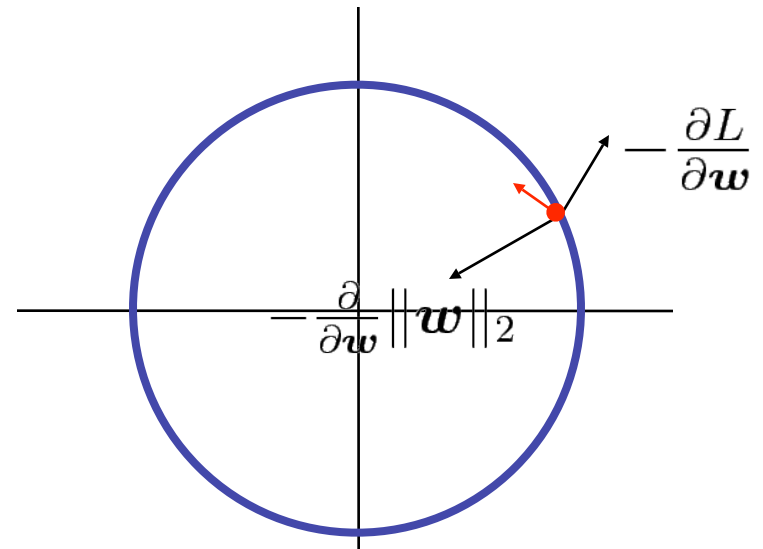
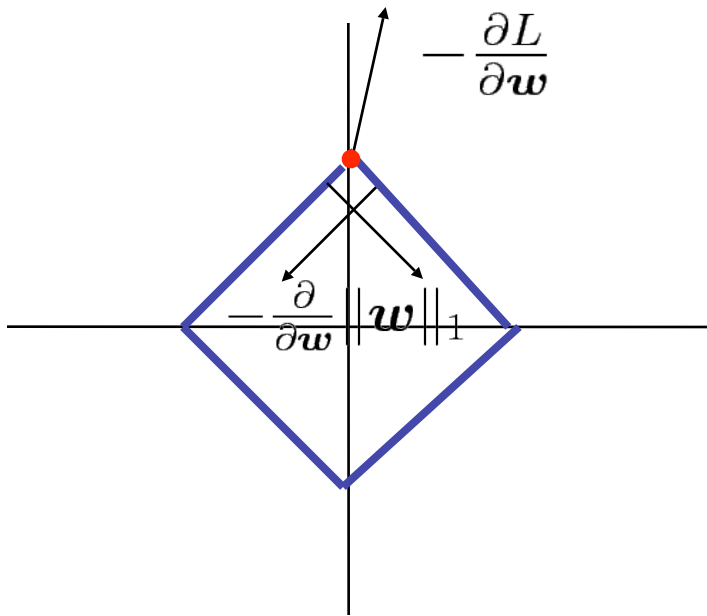
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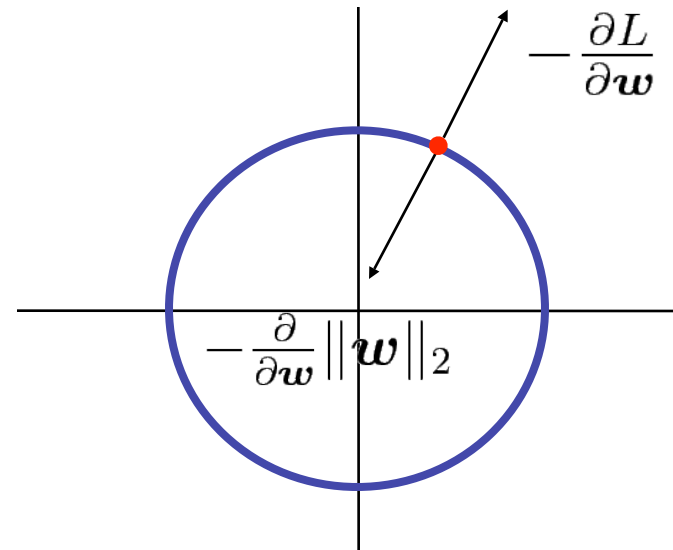
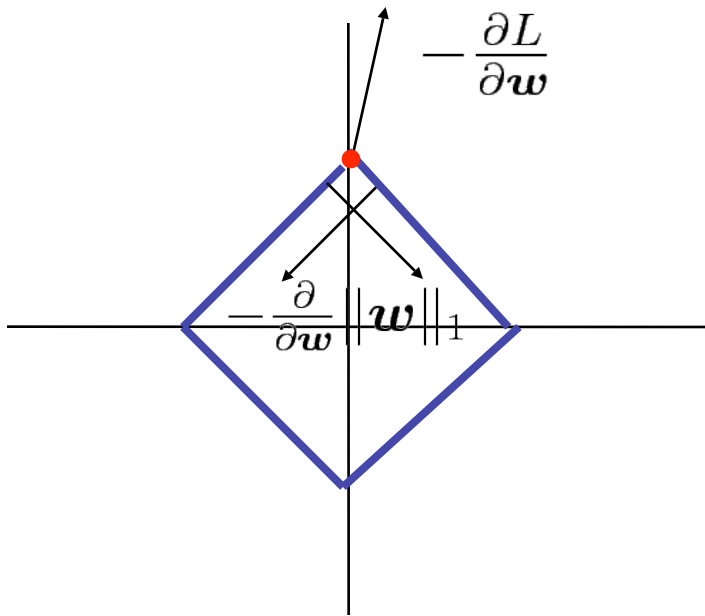
- Minimization is a tug-of-war between the two terms
- $w$  is forced into the corners—components are zeroed
  - Solution is often *sparse*



# $L_2$ does not zero components



# $L_2$ does not zero components



- $L_2$  regularization does not promote sparsity
- **Even without sparsity**, regularization promotes generalization—limits expressiveness of model

# Lasso Regression [Tibshirani '94]

- Simply linear regression with an  $L_1$  penalty for sparsity.

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + C ||\mathbf{w}||_1$$

- Compare with ridge regression (introduced by Fabian 3 weeks ago):

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + C ||\mathbf{w}||_2^2$$

# Lasso Regression [Tibshirani '94]

- Simply linear regression with an  $L_1$  penalty for sparsity.

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + C \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$$

- Two questions:
  - 1. How do we perform this minimization?
    - Difficulty: not differentiable everywhere
  - 2. How do we choose  $C$ ?
    - Determines how much sparsity will be obtained
    - $C$  is called an hyperparameter

# Question 1: Optimization/learning

- Set of discontinuity has Lebesgue measure zero, but optimizer WILL hit them
- Several approaches, including:
  - Projected gradient, stochastic projected subgradient, coordinate descent, interior point, orthonan-wise L-BFGS [Friedman 07, Andrew et. al. 07, Koh et al. 07, Kim et al. 07, Duchi 08]
  - More on that on the John's lecture on optimization
  - Open source implementation:edu.berkeley.nlp.math.OW\_LBFGSMinimizer in  
<http://code.google.com/p/berkeleyparser/>

# Question 2: Choosing C

- Up until a few years ago this was not trivial
  - Fitting model: optimization problem, harder than least-squares
  - Cross validation to choose C: must fit model for every candidate C value
- Not with LARS! (Least Angle Regression, Hastie et al, 2004)
  - Find trajectory of  $w$  for all possible C values simultaneously, as efficiently as least-squares
  - Can choose exactly how many features are wanted

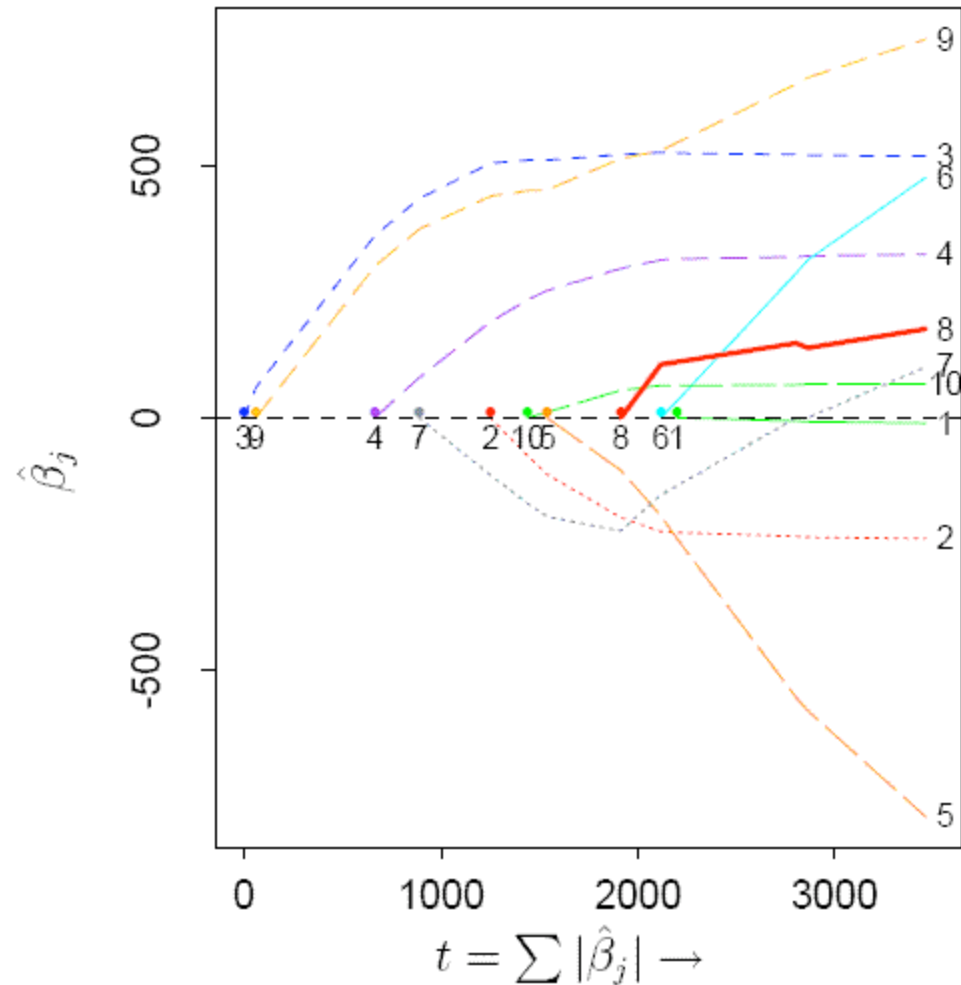


Figure taken from Hastie et al (2004)

# Remarks

- Not to be confused: two orthogonal uses of L1 for regression:

- lasso for **sparsity**: what we just described

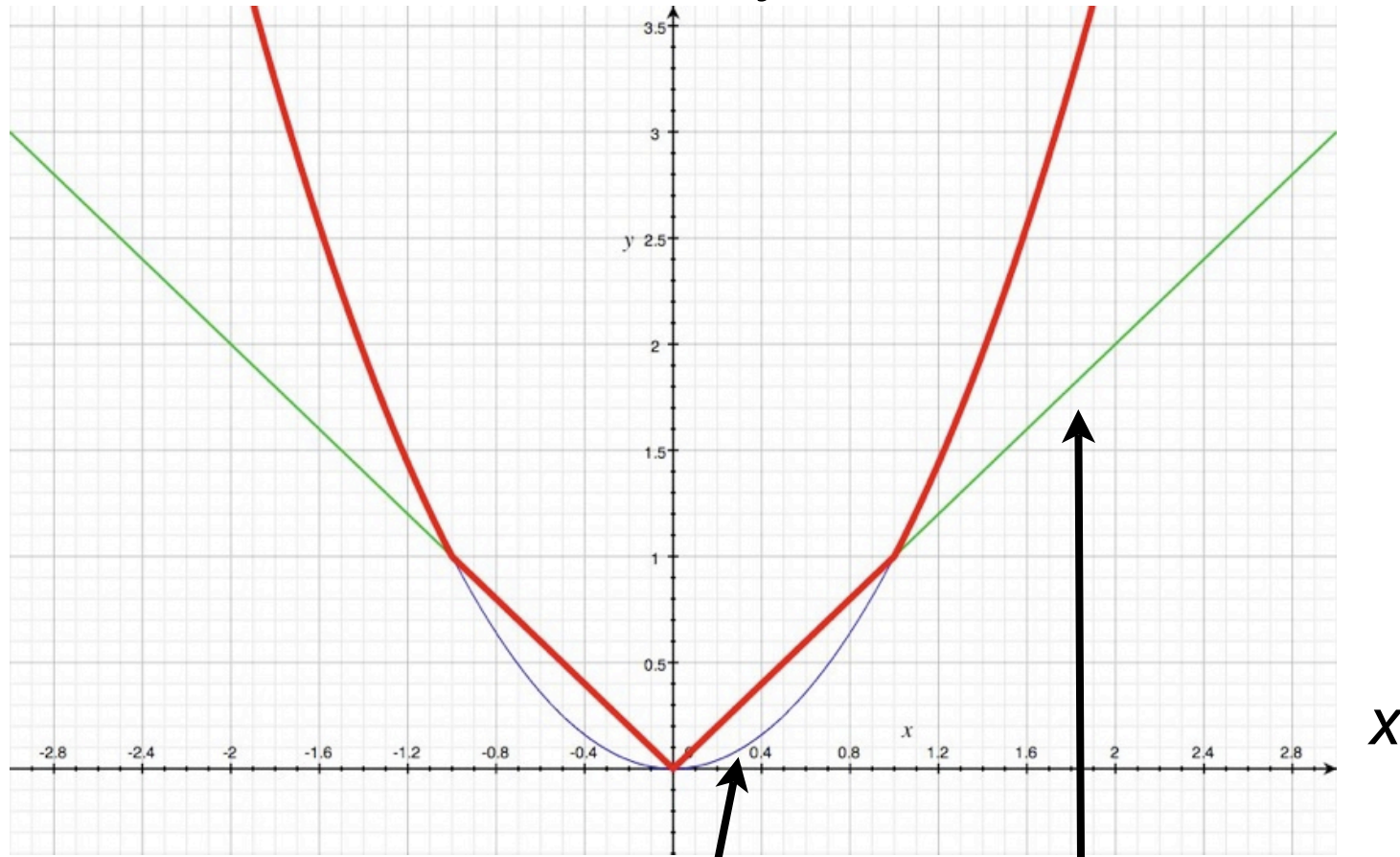
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + \boxed{C \sum_{f=1}^d |\mathbf{w}_f|}$$

- L1 loss: for **robustness** (Fabian's lecture).

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \boxed{\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i|} + C \|\mathbf{w}\|_p$$

# Intuition

## Penalty



L1 penalizes **more** than L2  
when  $x$  is small (use this for  
sparsity)

L1 penalizes **less** than L2  
when  $x$  is big (use this for  
robustness)



# Remarks

- L1 penalty can be viewed as a laplace prior on the weights, just as L2 penalty can viewed as a normal prior
  - Side note: also possible to learn  $C$  efficiently when the penalty is L2 (Foo, Do, Ng, ICML 09, NIPS 07)
- Not limited to regression: can be applied to classification, for example

# $L_1$ Vs $L_2$ [Gao et al '07]

- For large scale problems, performance of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  is very similar (at least in NLP)
  - A slight advantage of  $L_2$  over  $L_1$  in accuracy
  - But solution is 2 orders of magnitudes sparser!
  - Parsing reranking task:

(Higher F1  
is better)

	F-Score	# features	time (min)	# train iter
Baseline	0.8986			
ME/ $L_2$	0.9176	1,211,026	62	129
ME/ $L_1$	0.9165	19,121	37	174
AP	0.9164	939,248	2	8
Boosting	0.9131	6,714	495	92,600
BLasso	0.9133	8,085	239	56,500

# When can feature selection hurt?

- NLP example: back to the email classification task
- Zipf law: frequency of a word is inversely proportional to its frequency rank.
  - Fat tail: many n-grams are seen only once in the training
  - Yet they can be very useful predictors
  - E.g. 8-gram “today I give a lecture on feature selection” occurs only once in my mailbox, but it’s a good predictor that the email is WORK

# Outline

- Review/introduction
  - What is feature selection? Why do it?
- Filtering
- Model selection
  - Model evaluation
  - Model search
- Regularization
- Summary

# Summary: feature engineering

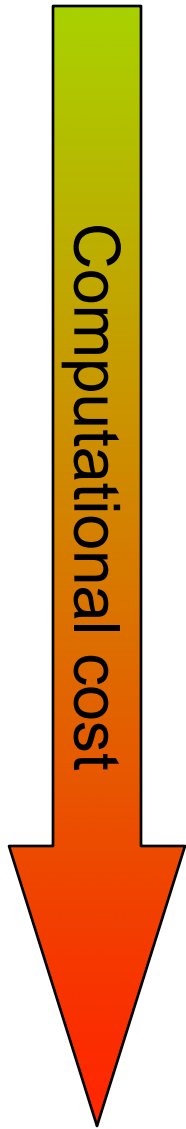
- Feature engineering is often crucial to get good results
- Strategy: overshoot and regularize
  - Come up with lots of features: better to include irrelevant features than to miss important features
  - Use regularization or feature selection to prevent overfitting
  - Evaluate your feature engineering on DEV set. Then, when the feature set is frozen, evaluate on TEST to get a final evaluation (Daniel will say more on evaluation next week)

# Summary: feature selection

## When should you do it?

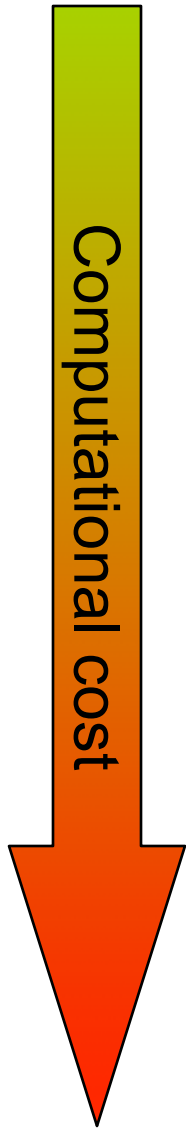
- If the only concern is accuracy, and the whole dataset can be processed, feature selection not needed (as long as there is regularization)
- If computational complexity is critical (embedded device, web-scale data, fancy learning algorithm), consider using feature selection
  - But there are alternatives: e.g. the Hash trick, a fast, non-linear dimensionality reduction technique [Weinberger et al. 2009]
- When you care about the feature themselves
  - Keep in mind the correlation/causation issues
  - See [Guyon et al., Causal feature selection, 07]

# Summary: how to do feature selection



- Filtering
- $L_1$  regularization  
(embedded methods)
- Wrappers
  - Forward selection
  - Backward selection
  - Other search
  - Exhaustive

# Summary: how to do feature selection



- Filtering

- $L_1$  regularization (embedded methods)

- Wrappers

- Forward selection

- Backward selection

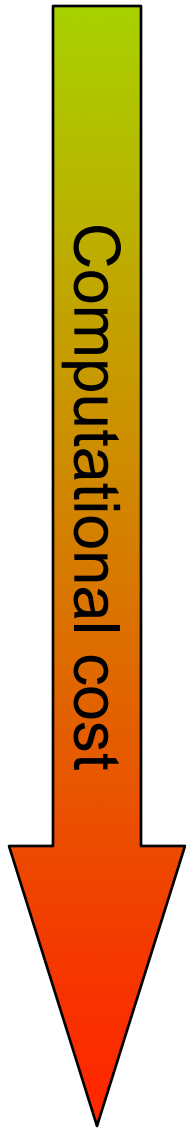
- Other search

- Exhaustive

- Good preprocessing step
- Fails to capture relationship between features

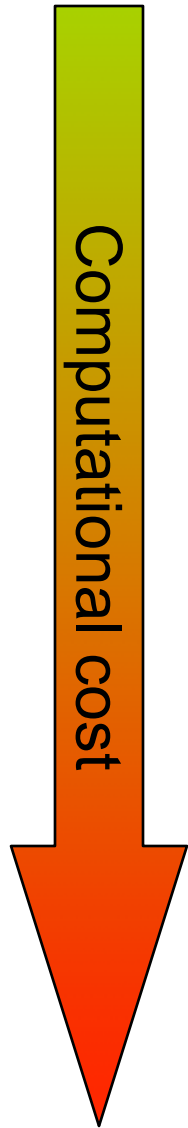


# Summary: how to do feature selection



- Filtering
  - $L_1$  regularization (embedded methods)
- Wrappers
  - Forward selection
  - Backward selection
  - Other search
  - Exhaustive
- Fairly efficient
  - LARS-type algorithms now exist for many linear models.

# Summary: how to do feature selection



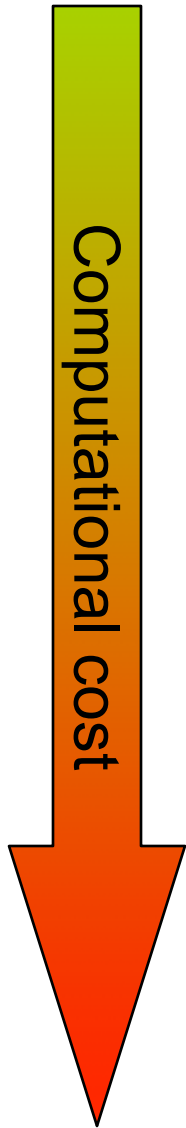
- Filtering
- $L_1$  regularization (embedded methods)

- Wrappers

- Forward selection
- Backward selection
- Other search
- Exhaustive

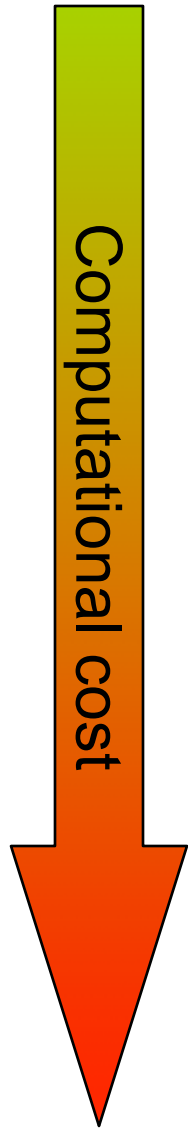
- Most directly optimize prediction performance
- Can be very expensive, even with greedy search methods
- Cross-validation is a good objective function to start with

# Summary: how to do feature selection



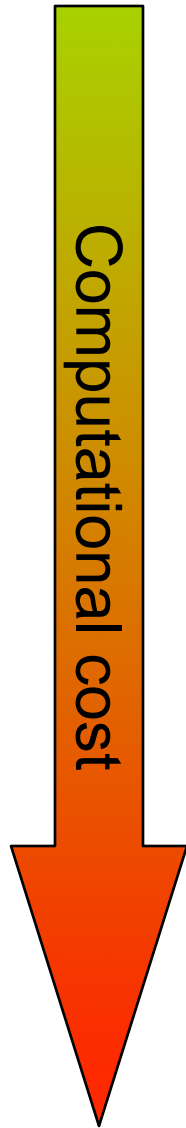
- Filtering
  - $L_1$  regularization (embedded methods)
  - Wrappers
    - Forward selection
    - Backward selection
  - Other search
  - Exhaustive
- Too greedy—ignore relationships between features
  - Easy baseline
  - Can be generalized in many interesting ways
    - Stagewise forward selection
    - Forward-backward search
    - Boosting

# Summary: how to do feature selection



- Filtering
  - $L_1$  regularization (embedded methods)
  - Wrappers
    - Forward selection
    - Backward selection
    - *Other search*
  - Exhaustive
- Generally more effective than greedy

# Summary: how to do feature selection



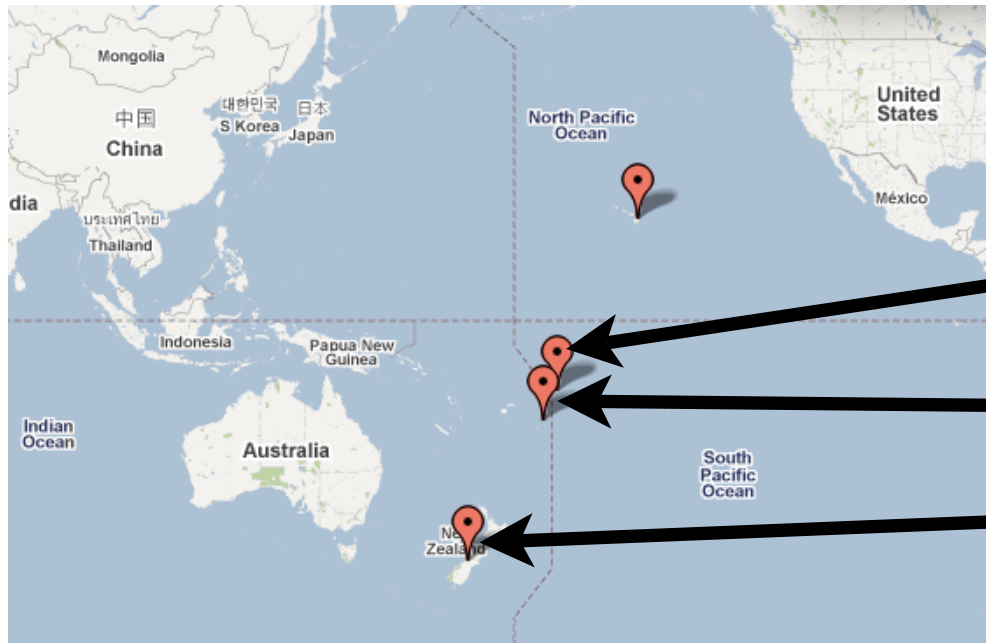
- Filtering
- $L_1$  regularization (embedded methods)
- Wrappers
  - Forward selection
  - Backward selection
  - Other search
  - Exhaustive

- The “ideal”
- Very seldom done in practice
- With cross-validation objective, there’s a chance of over-fitting
  - *Some* subset might randomly perform quite well in cross-validation

# Extra slides

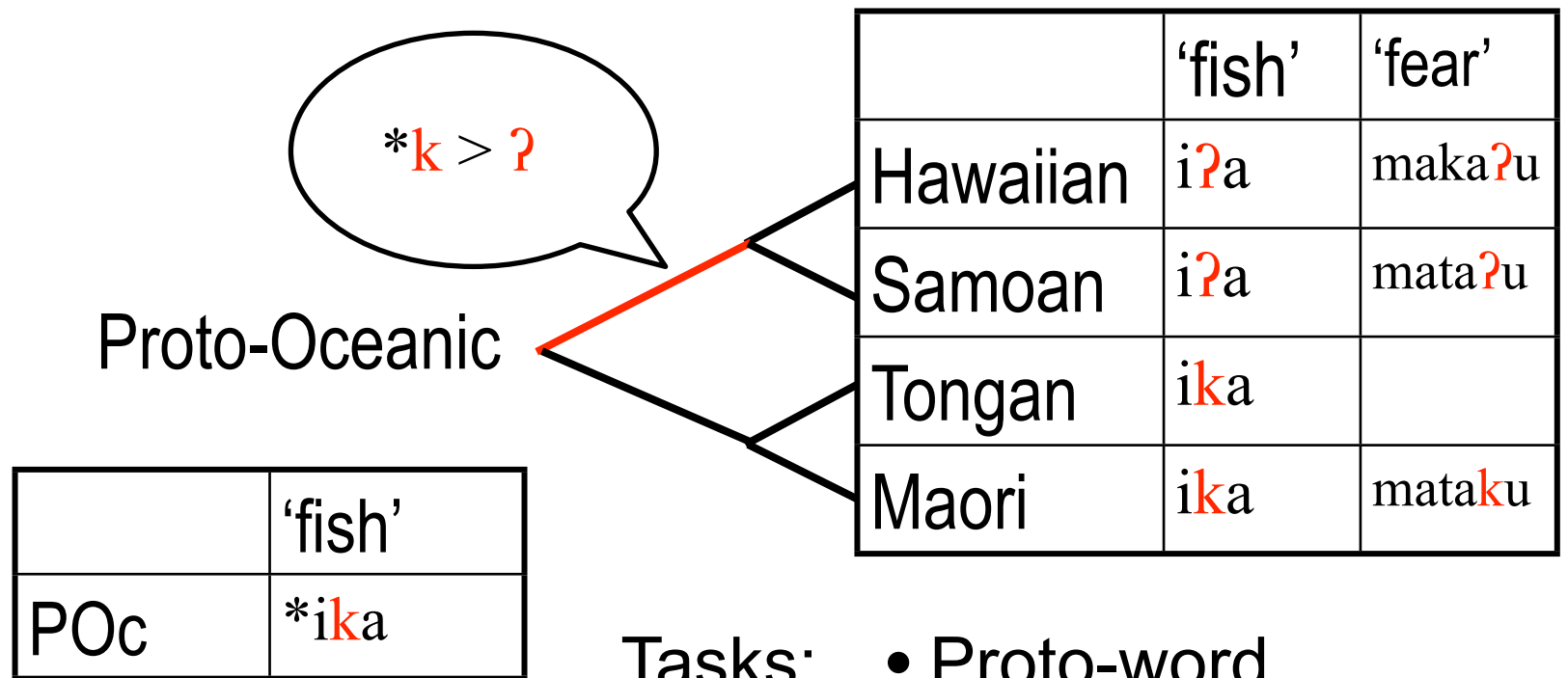
# Feature engineering case study: Modeling language change

[Bouchard et al. 07,09]



	'fish'	'fear'
Hawaiian	iʔa	makaʔu
Samoan	iʔa	mataʔu
Tongan	ika	
Maori	ika	mataku

# Feature engineering case study: Modeling language change [Bouchard et al. 07,09]

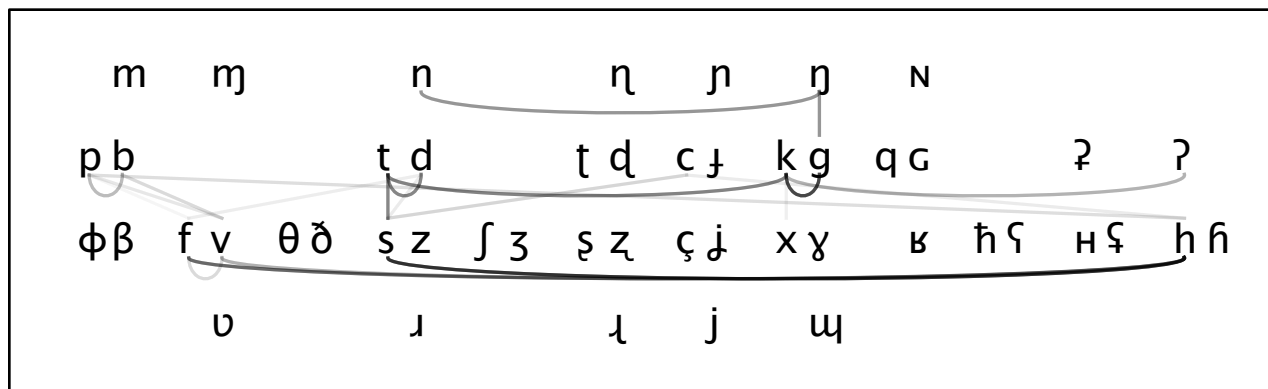


- Tasks:
- Proto-word reconstruction
  - Infer sound changes



# Feature engineering case study: Modeling language change [Bouchard et al. 07,09]

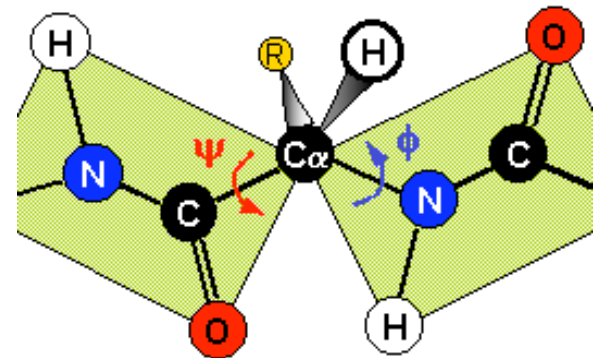
- Featurize sound changes
  - E.g.: substitution are generally more frequent than insertions, deletions, changes are branch specific, but there are cross-linguistic universal, etc.
- Particularity: **unsupervised** learning setup
  - We covered feature engineering for supervised setups for pedagogical reasons; most of what we have seen applies to the unsupervised setup



# Feature selection case study:

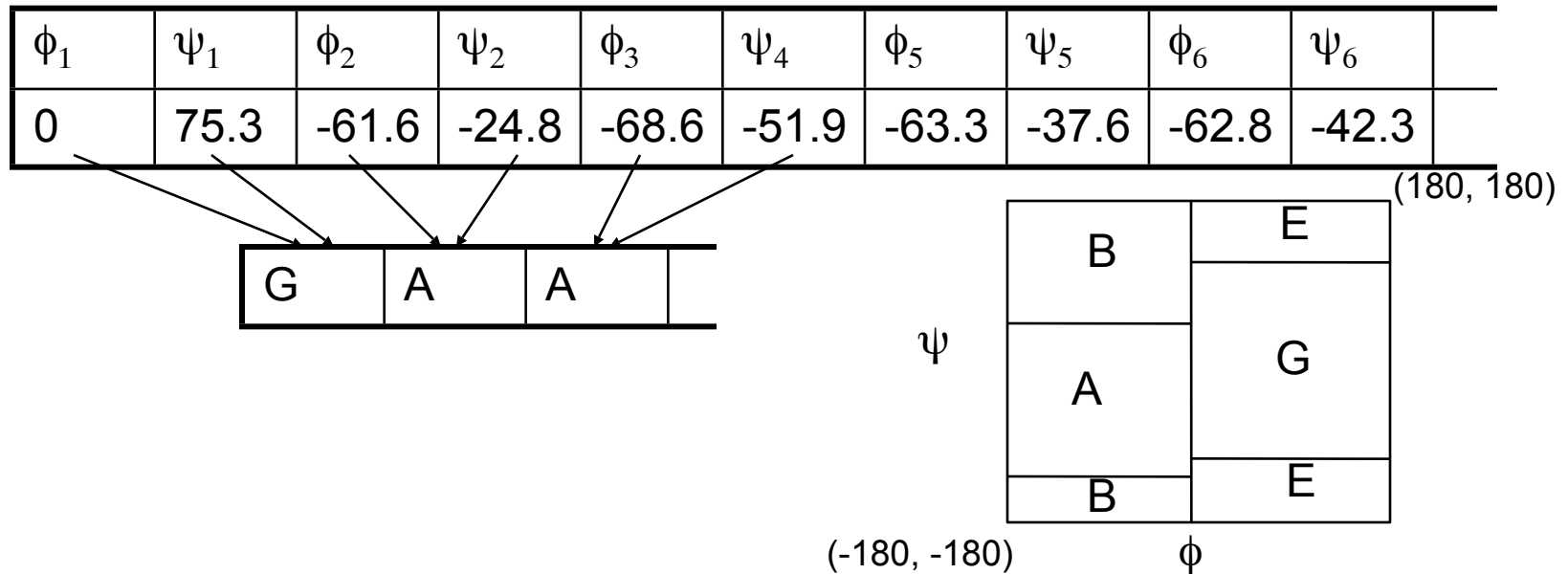
## Protein Energy Prediction [Blum et al '07]

- What is a protein?
  - A protein is a chain of amino acids.
- Proteins fold into a 3D conformation by minimizing energy
  - “Native” conformation (the one found in nature) is the lowest energy state
  - We would like to find it using only computer search.
  - Very hard, need to try several initialization in parallel
- Regression problem:
  - Input: many different conformation of the same sequence
  - Output: energy
- Features derived from:  
 $\phi$  and  $\psi$  *torsion angles*.
- Restrict next wave of  
search to agree with  
features that predicted  
high energy



# Featurization

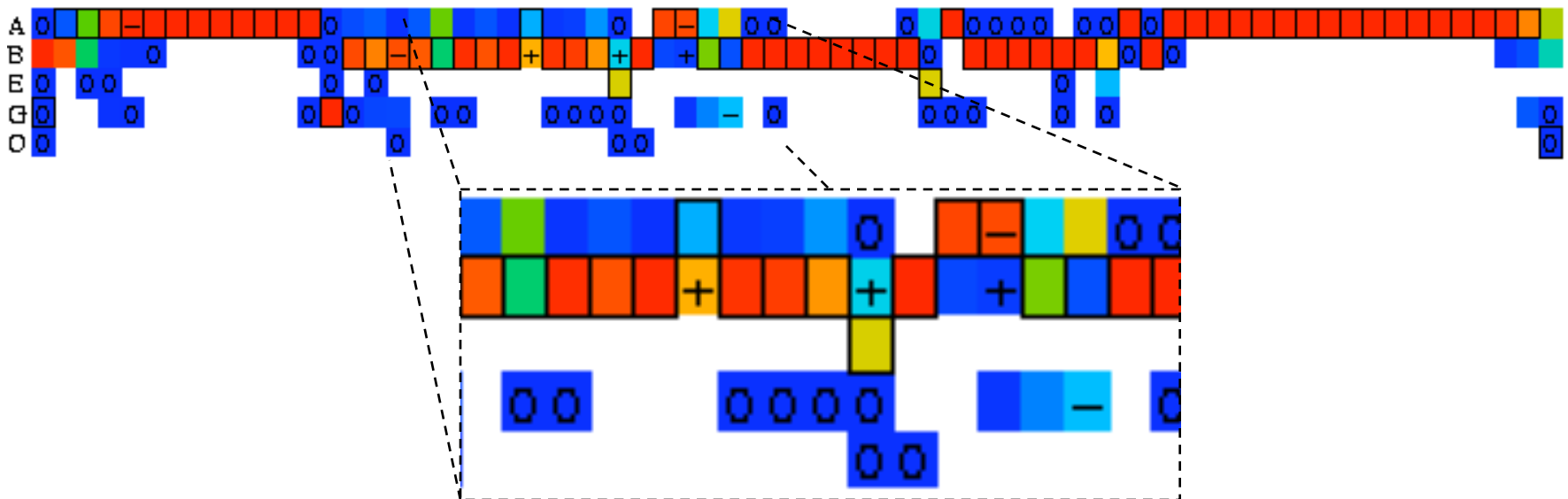
- Torsion angle features can be binned



- Bins in the *Ramachandran* plot correspond to common structural elements
  - Secondary structure: alpha helices and beta sheets

# Results of LARS for predicting protein energy

- One column for each torsion angle feature
- Colors indicate frequencies in data set
  - Red is high, blue is low, 0 is very low, white is never
  - Framed boxes are the correct native features
  - “-” indicates negative LARS weight (stabilizing), “+” indicates positive LARS weight (destabilizing)



# Other things to check out

- Bayesian methods
  - David MacKay: Automatic Relevance Determination
    - originally for neural networks
  - Mike Tipping: Relevance Vector Machines
    - <http://research.microsoft.com/mlp/rvm/>
- Miscellaneous feature selection algorithms
  - Winnow
    - Linear classification, provably converges in the presence of exponentially many irrelevant features
  - Optimal Brain Damage
    - Simplifying neural network structure
- Case studies
  - See papers linked on course webpage.

# Acknowledgments

- Useful comments by Mike Jordan, Percy Liang
- A first version of these slides was created by Ben Blum