

Feature Engineering and Selection

CS 294: Practical Machine Learning
October 1st, 2009

Alexandre Bouchard-Côté

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

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

- 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} .

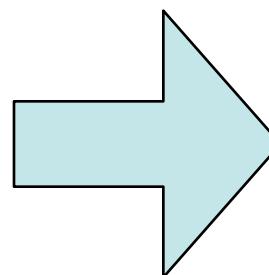
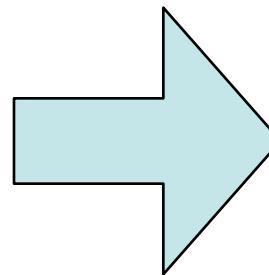
Concrete setup

Input



Output

“Danger”



HOT OR NOT

Over 12 Billion votes counted &
25,987,000 photos submitted.

Official Rating
8.9

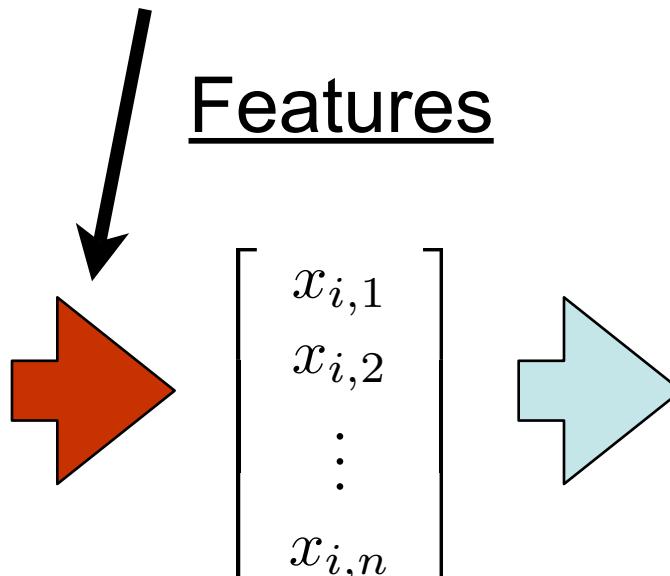
Based on 4984 votes

Featurization

Input

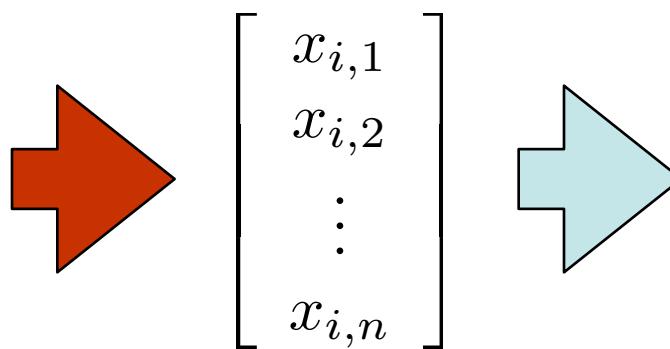


Features



Output

“Danger”



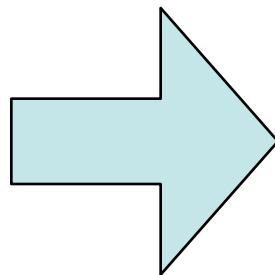
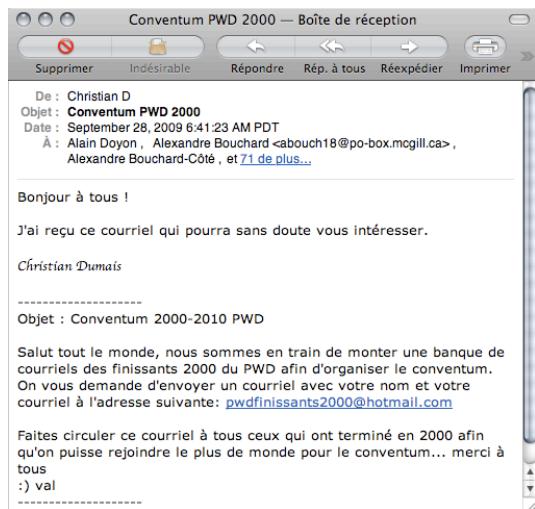
Outline

- 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: \boldsymbol{x} (email-valued)
- Feature vector:

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

Indicator or
Kronecker
delta function

- Learn one weight vector for each class:

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

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

Implementation: exploit sparsity

Feature ~~vector~~ hashtable

$f(x)$

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

```
    result <- hashtable
```

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

Feature template 1:
UNIGRAM:Viagra

```
    String previous = "#"
```

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

```
    return result
}
```

Feature template 2:
BIGRAM:Cheap Viagra

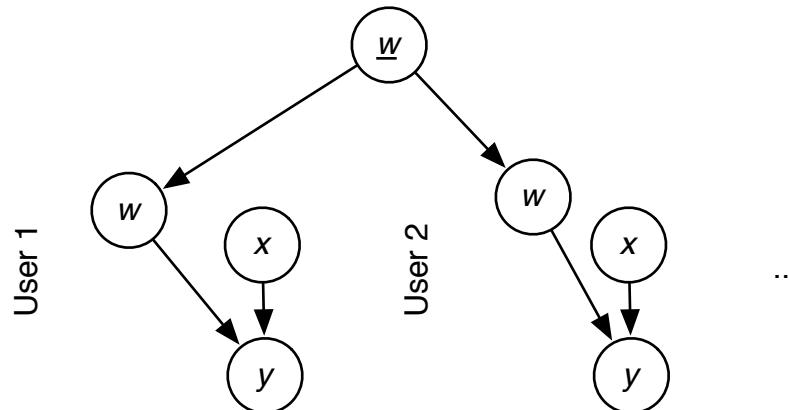
Features for multitask learning

- 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

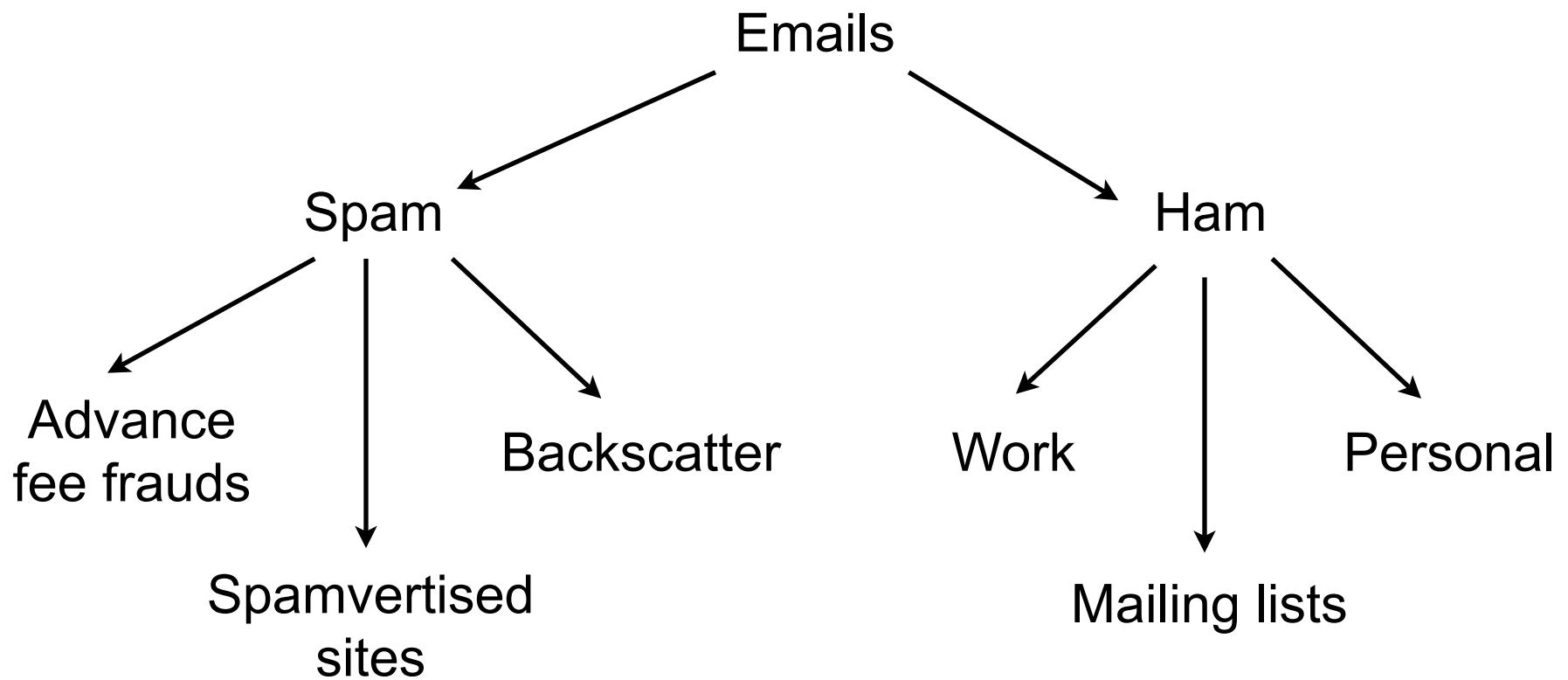
[e.g.:Daumé 06]

- 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: $w \in \mathbb{R}^m$,

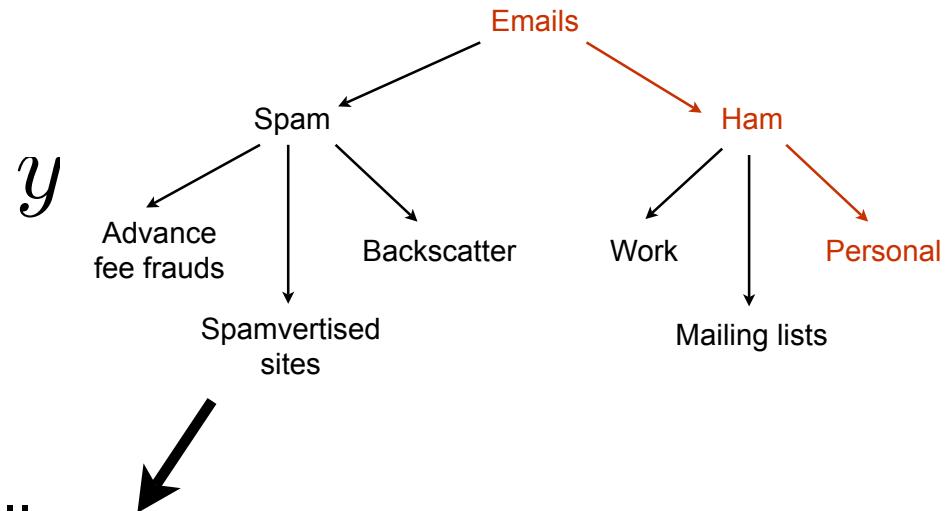
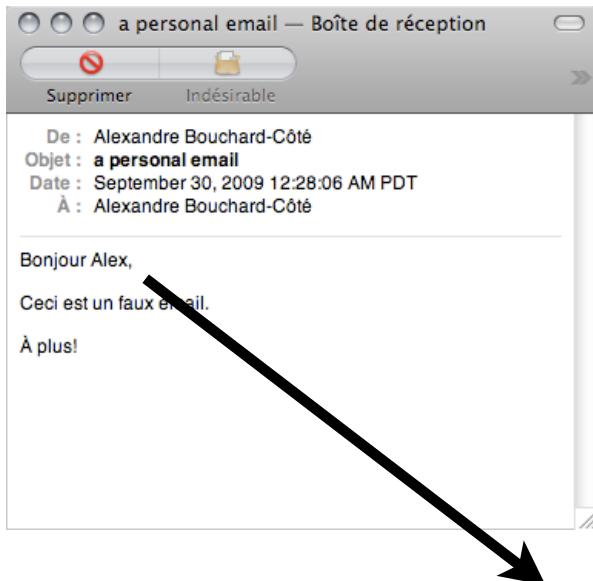
- New rule: $\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_y \langle w, f(x, y) \rangle$

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:

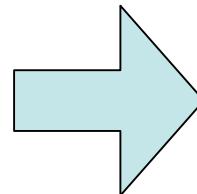


UNIGRAM:Alex AND CLASS=PERSONAL
UNIGRAM:Alex AND CLASS=HAM
...

Structure on the output space

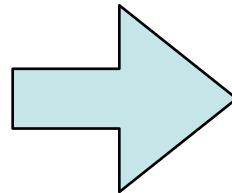
- Not limited to hierarchies
 - multiple hierarchies
 - in general, arbitrary featurization of the output
- Another use:
 - want to model that if no words in the email were seen in training, it's probably spam
 - add a *bias* feature that is activated only in SPAM subclass (ignores the input):
CLASS=SPAM

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)

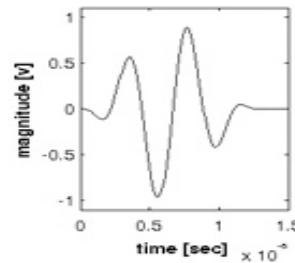


"r"

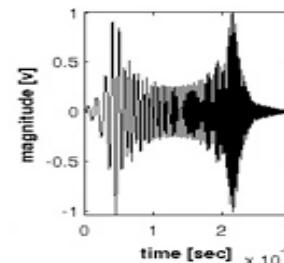
Dealing with continuous data

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

Sound 1

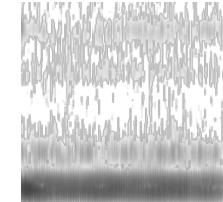
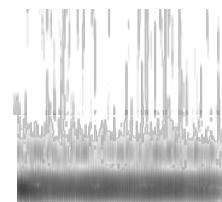


Sound 2



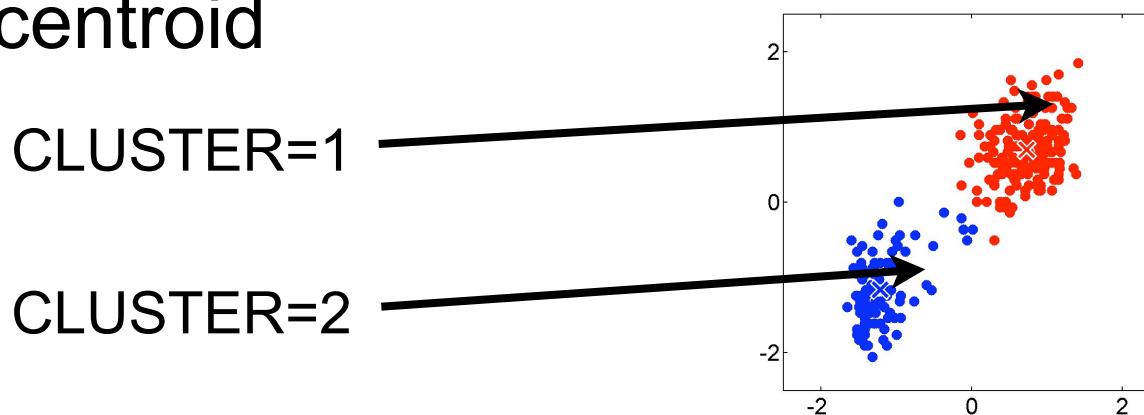
Time domain:

Frequency domain:



Dealing with continuous data

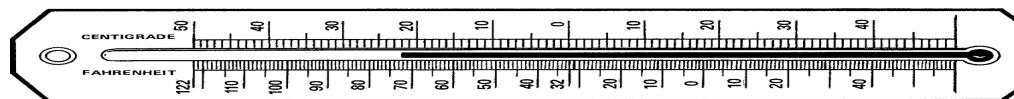
- Step 2 (optional): Transform the continuous data into discrete data
 - Bad idea: COORDINATE=(9.54,8.34)
 - Better: Vector quantization (VQ)
 - Run k-mean on the training data as a preprocessing step
 - Feature is the index of the nearest centroid



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

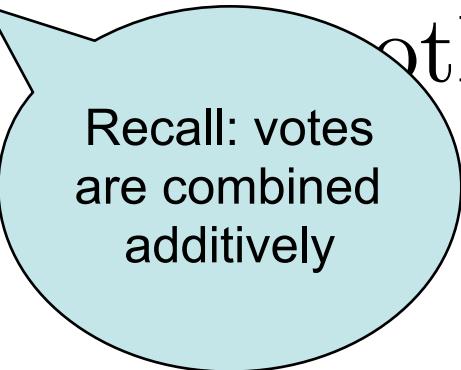


\dots $B(e) > 0.4 \text{ AND }$ $B(e) > 0.6 \text{ AND }$ $B(e) > 0.8 \text{ AND }$ \dots
 CLASS=SPAM CLASS=SPAM CLASS=SPAM

Dealing with continuous data

Another way of integrating a qualibrated 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

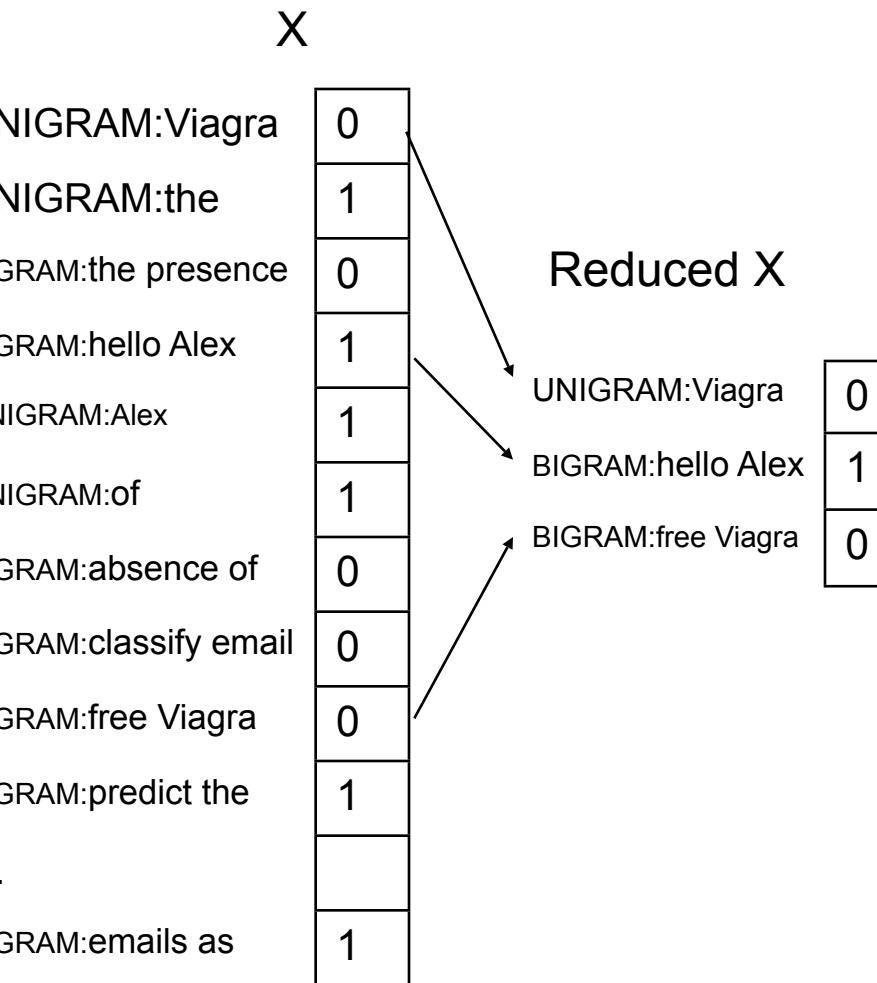
What is feature selection?

- 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?

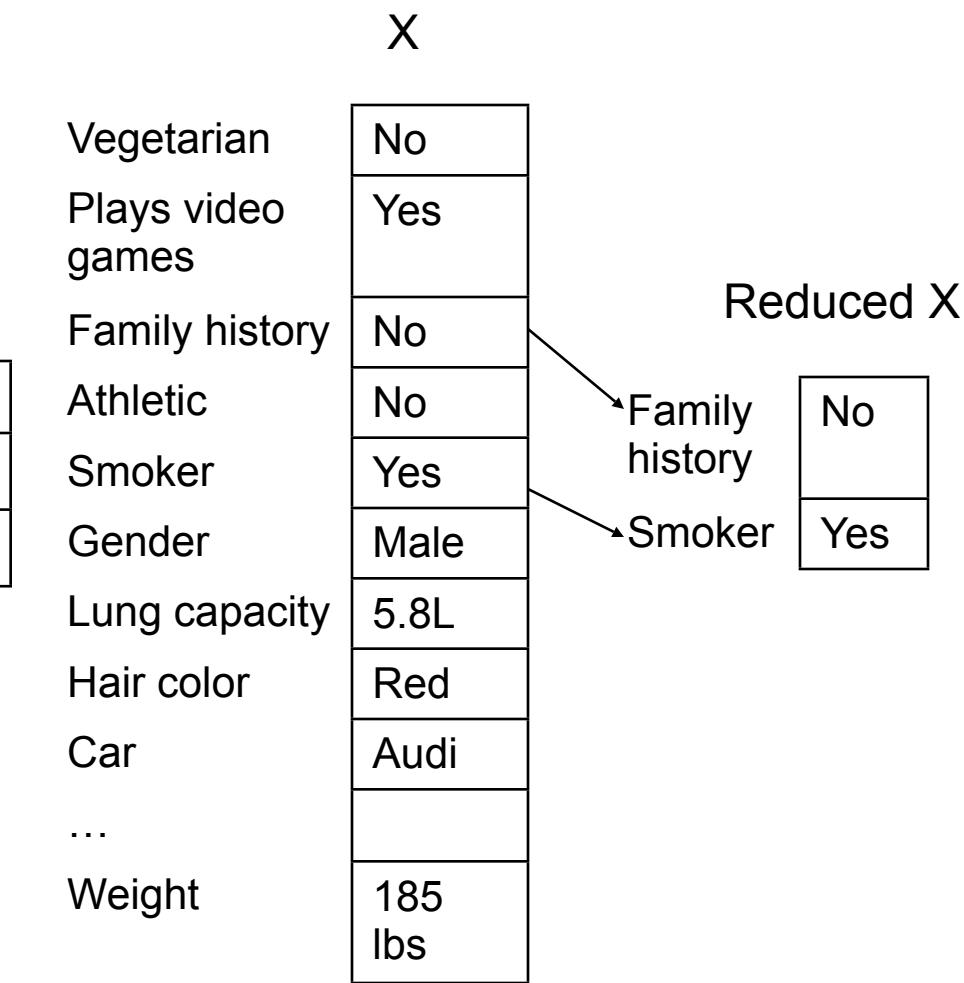
Task: classify emails as spam, work, ...

Data: presence/absence of words



Task: predict chances of lung disease

Data: medical history survey



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.

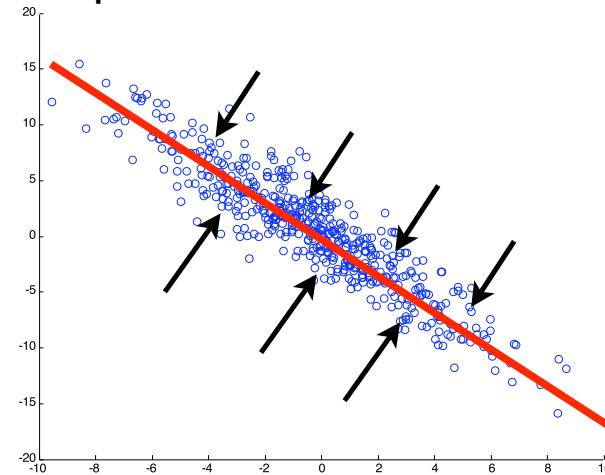
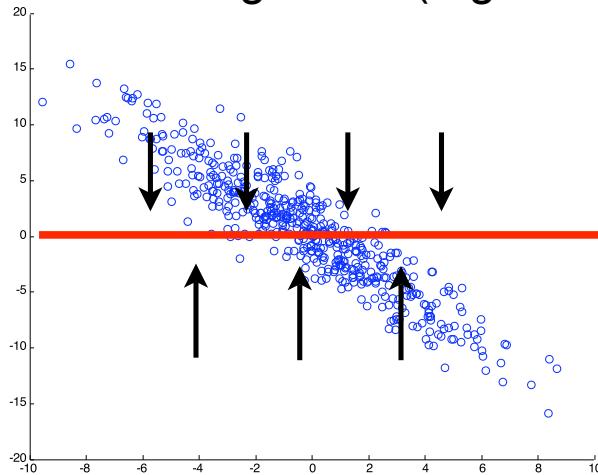
- Common practice: coming up with as many features as possible (e.g. $> 10^6$ not unusual)
 - Training might be too expensive with all features
 - The presence of irrelevant features hurts **generalization**.
- Classification of leukemia tumors from microarray gene expression data [Xing, Jordan, Karp '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



Outline

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

Filtering

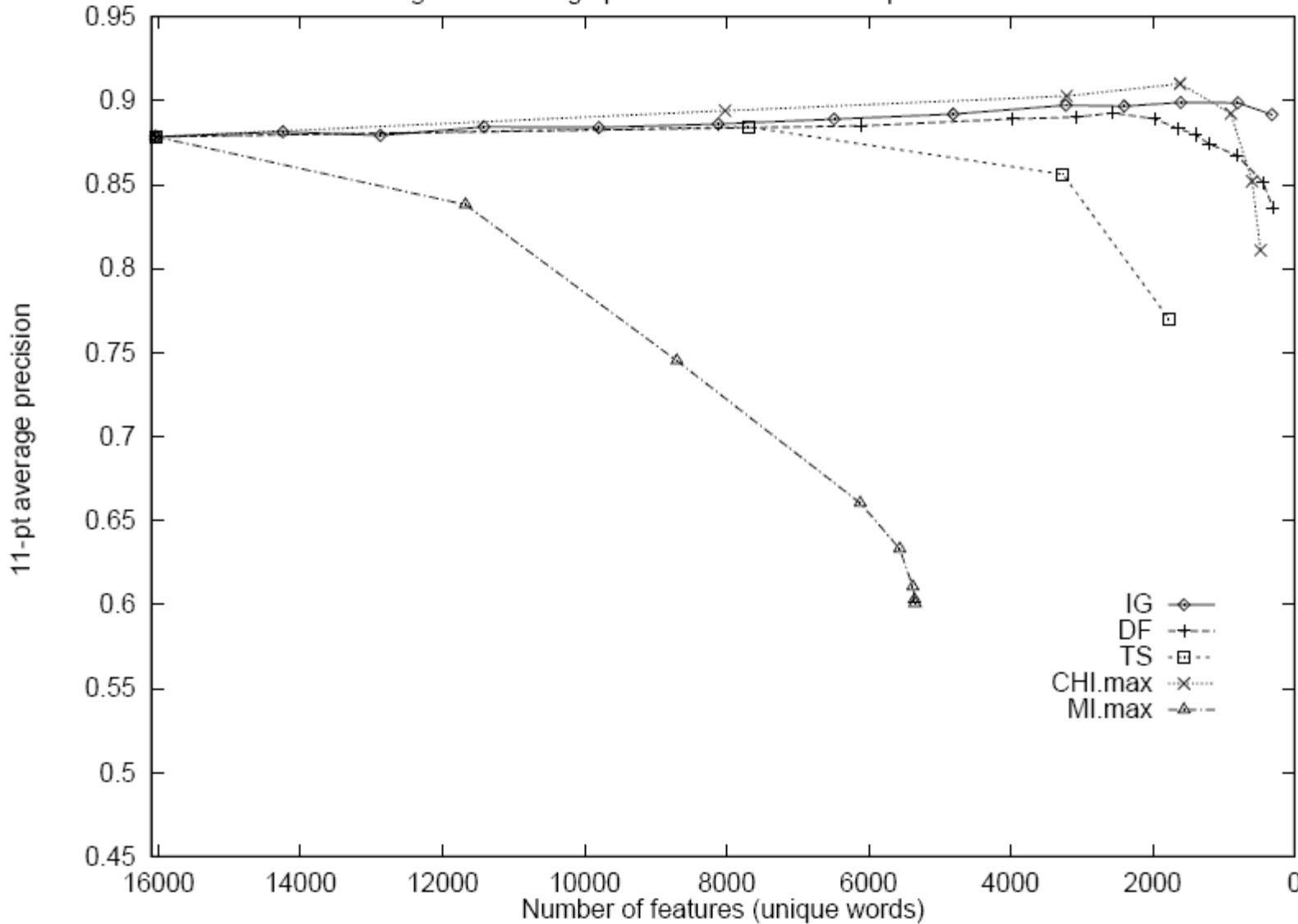
Simple techniques for weeding out
irrelevant features without fitting model

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

Outline

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

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

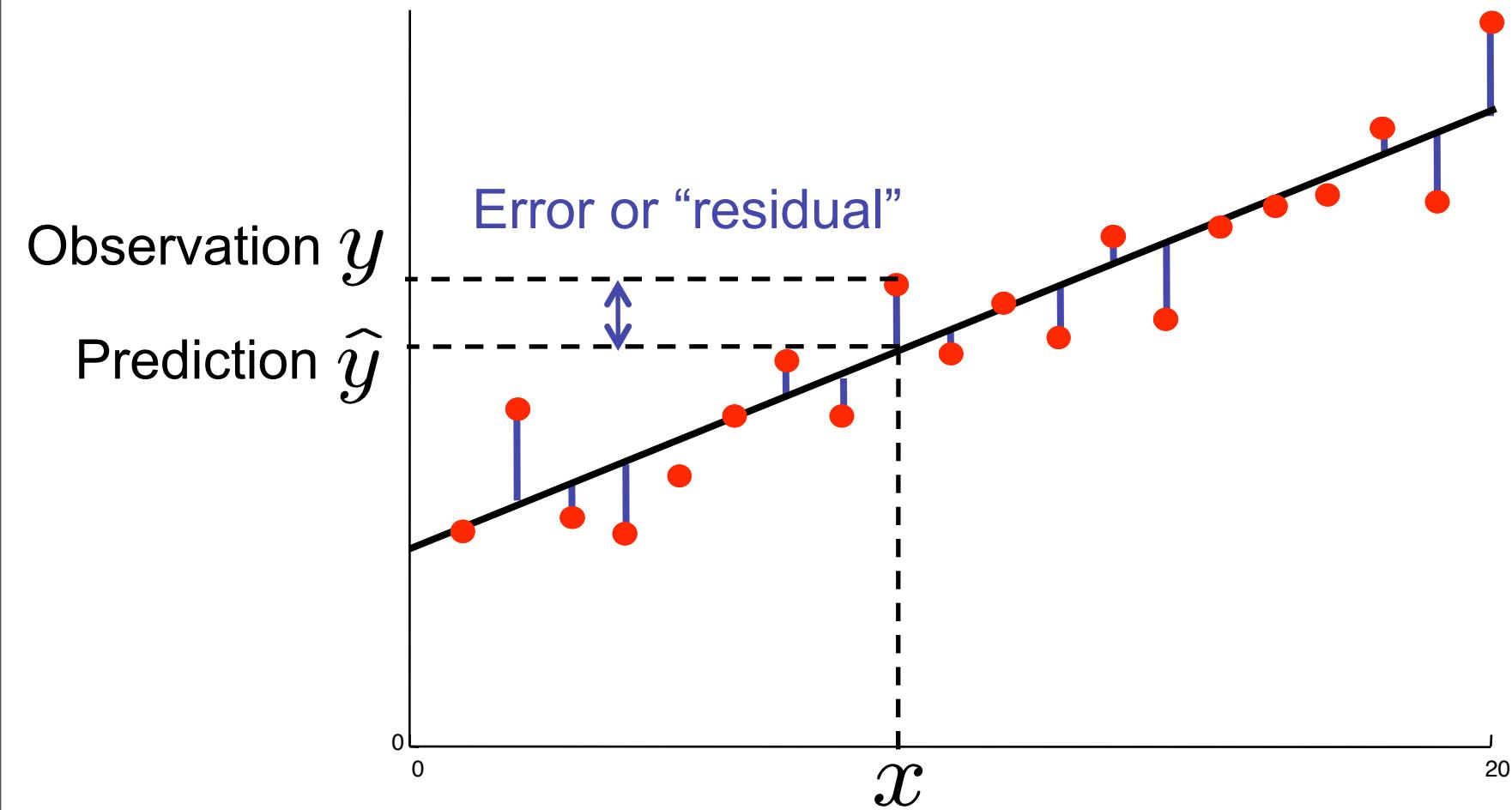
Response : $y \in \mathbb{R}$ Prediction : $y = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}$

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

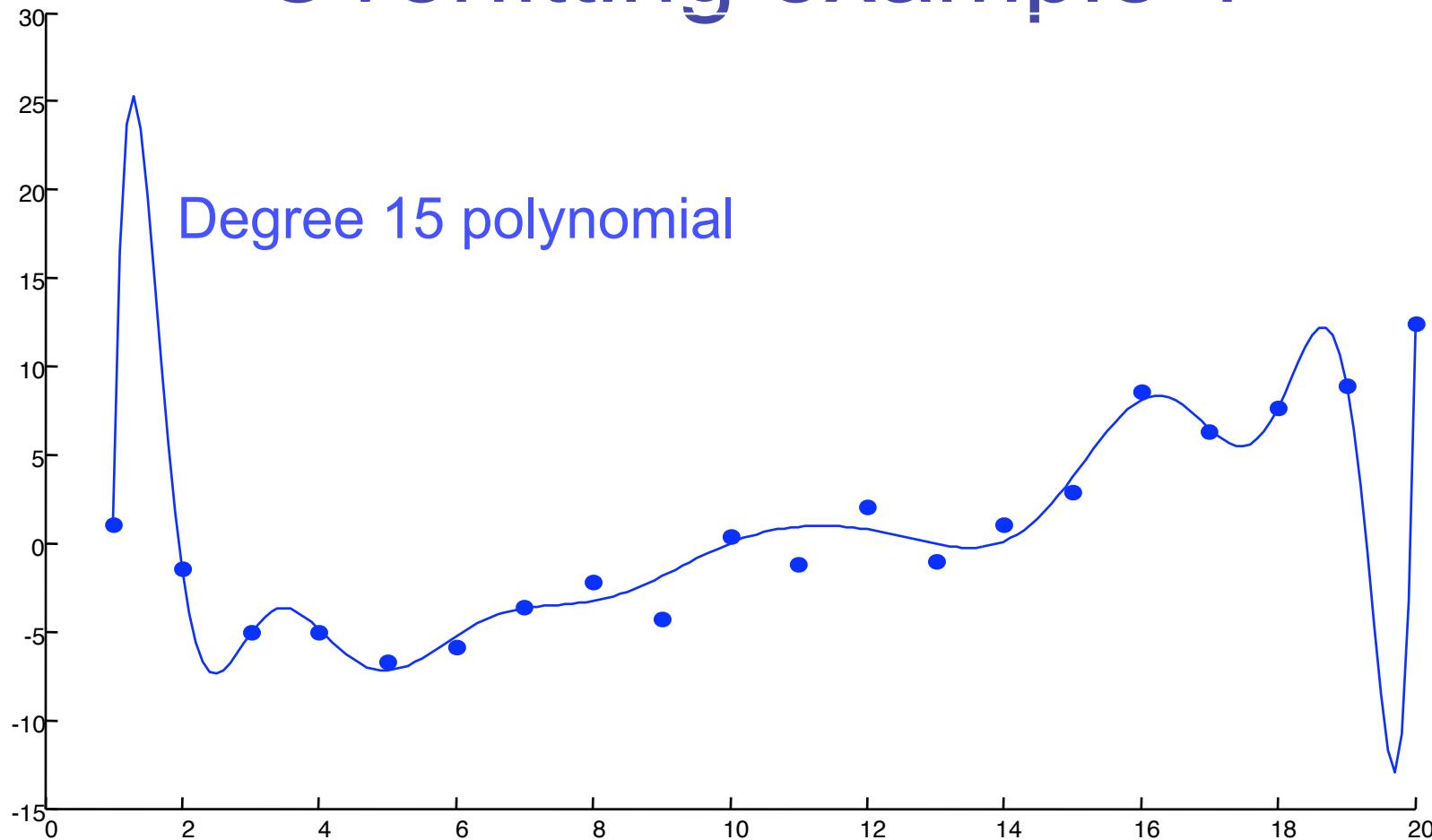
Parameters: $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$

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

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

- Consider a reduced model with only those features \mathbf{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

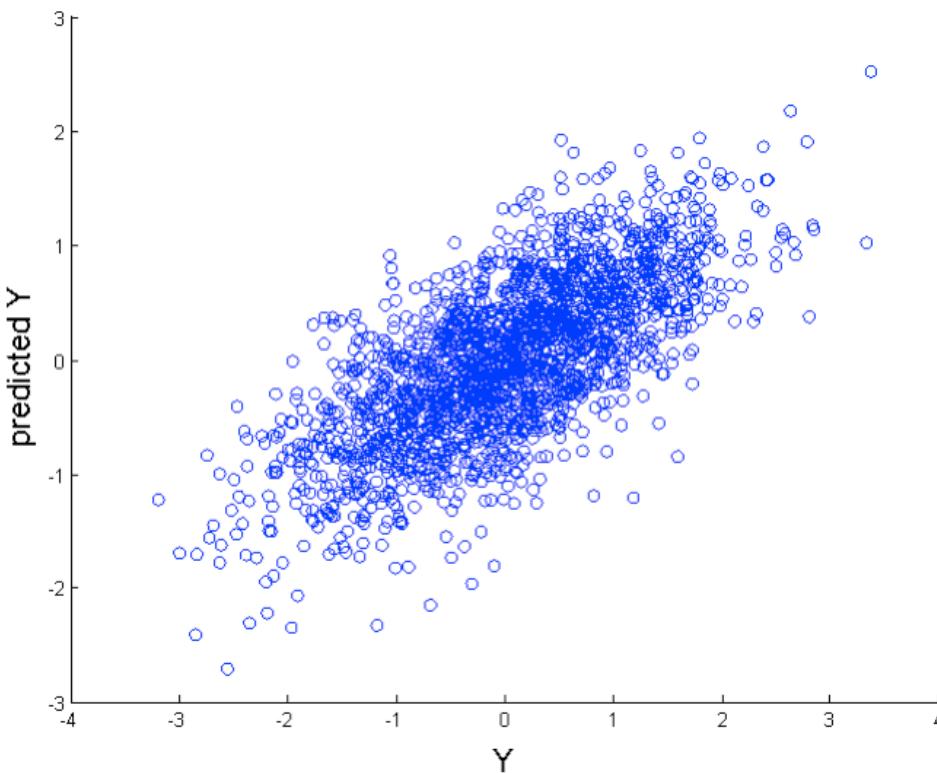


- This model is too rich for the data
- Fits training data well, but doesn't generalize.

(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 \hat{y}_i for each \mathbf{x}_i by $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\mathbf{w}}^\top \mathbf{x}_i$



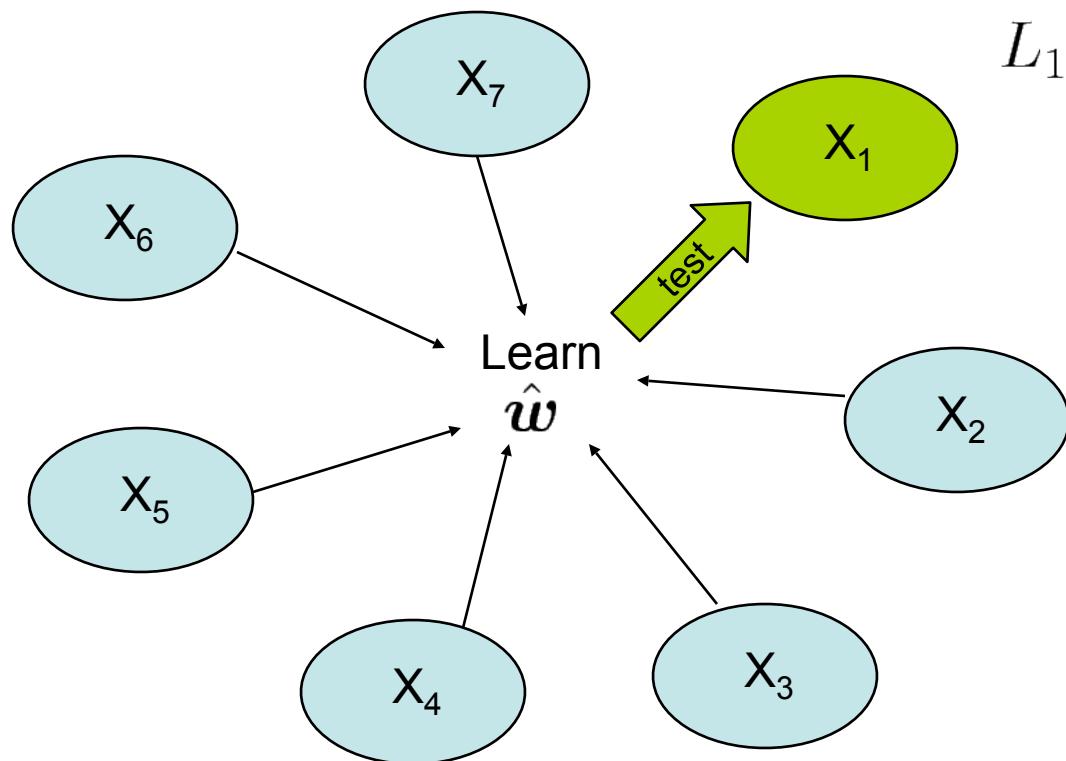
It really looks like we've found a relationship between \mathbf{x} and y ! But no such relationship exists, so $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ will do no better than random on new data.

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

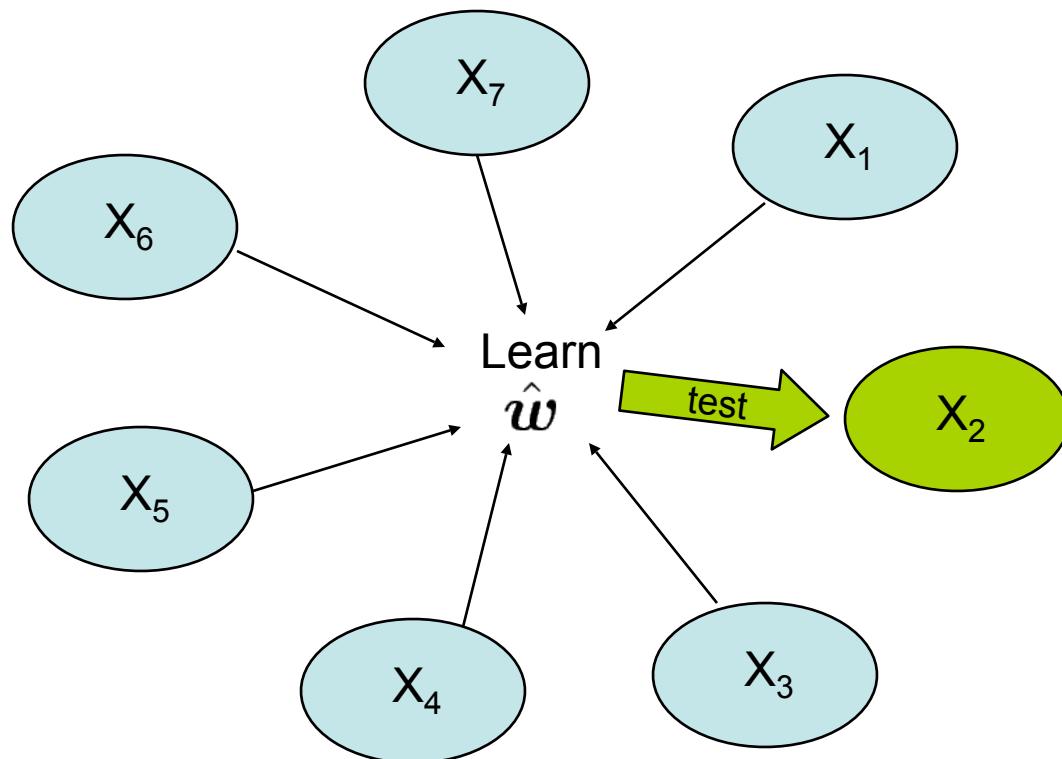
- A technique for estimating test error
- Uses *all* of the data to validate
- Divide data into K groups $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_K\}$.
- Use each group as a validation set, then average all validation errors



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

K-fold cross validation

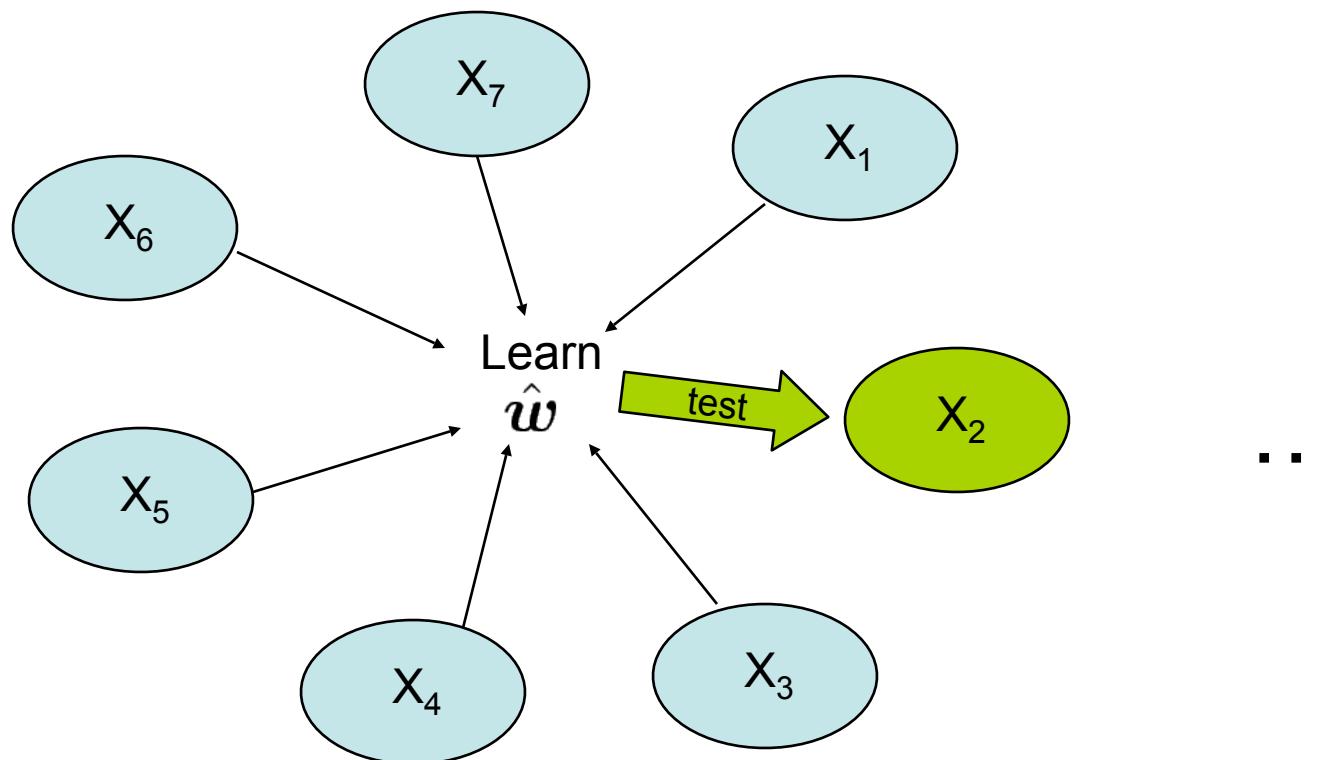
- A technique for estimating test error
- Uses *all* of the data to validate
- Divide data into K groups $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_K\}$.
- Use each group as a validation set, then average all validation errors



$$L_2 = \sum_{(\mathbf{x}, y) \in X_2} (y - \hat{\mathbf{w}}^\top \mathbf{x})$$

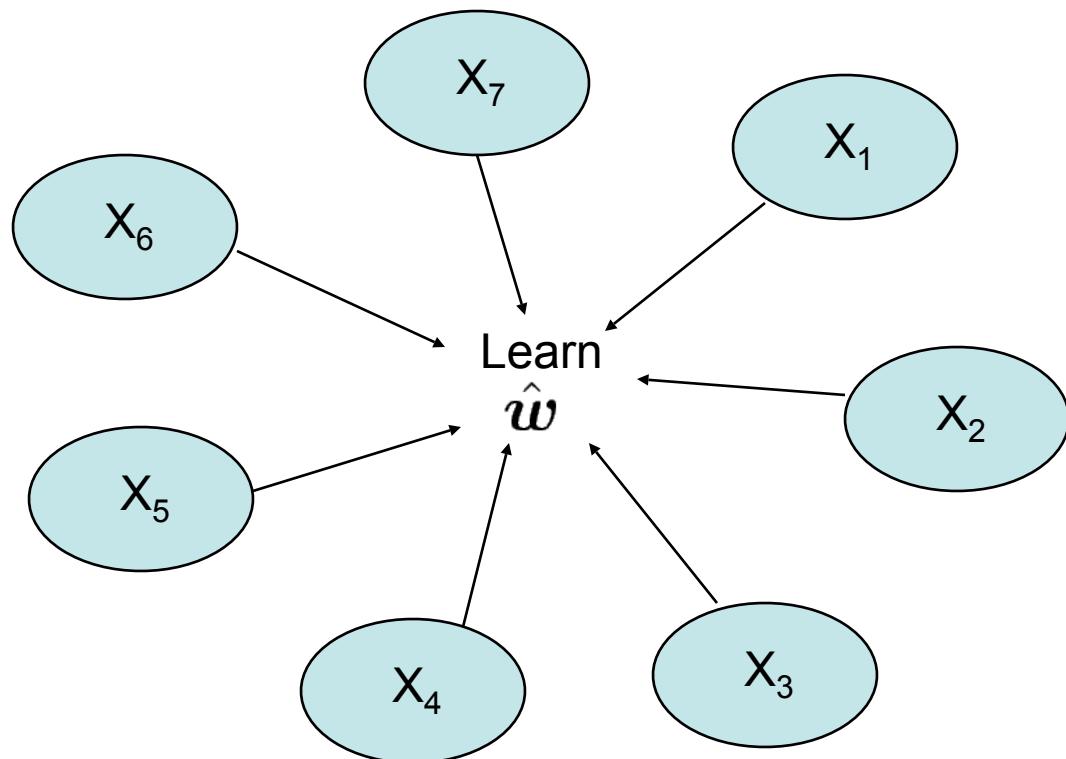
K-fold cross validation

- 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



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



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

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,...,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)

Outline

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

Regularization

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

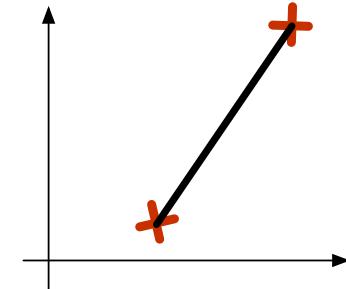
Regularization

- 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

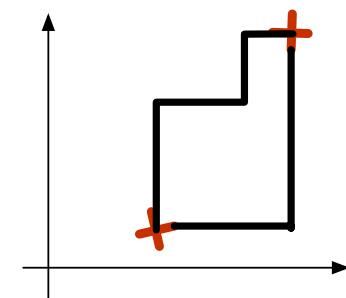
- $p = 2$: Euclidean

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



- $p = 1$: Taxicab or Manhattan

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

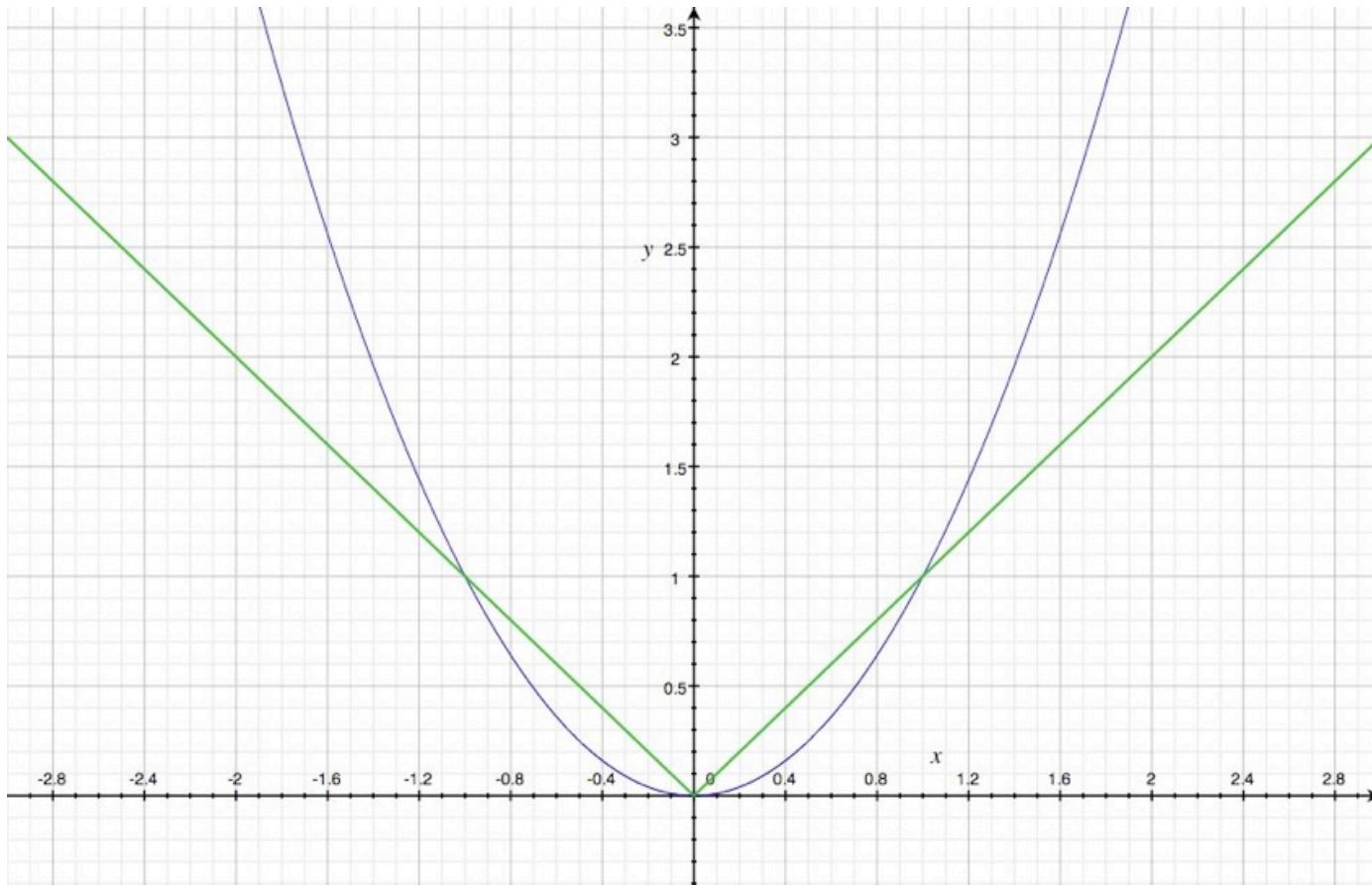


- General case: $0 < p \leq \infty$

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

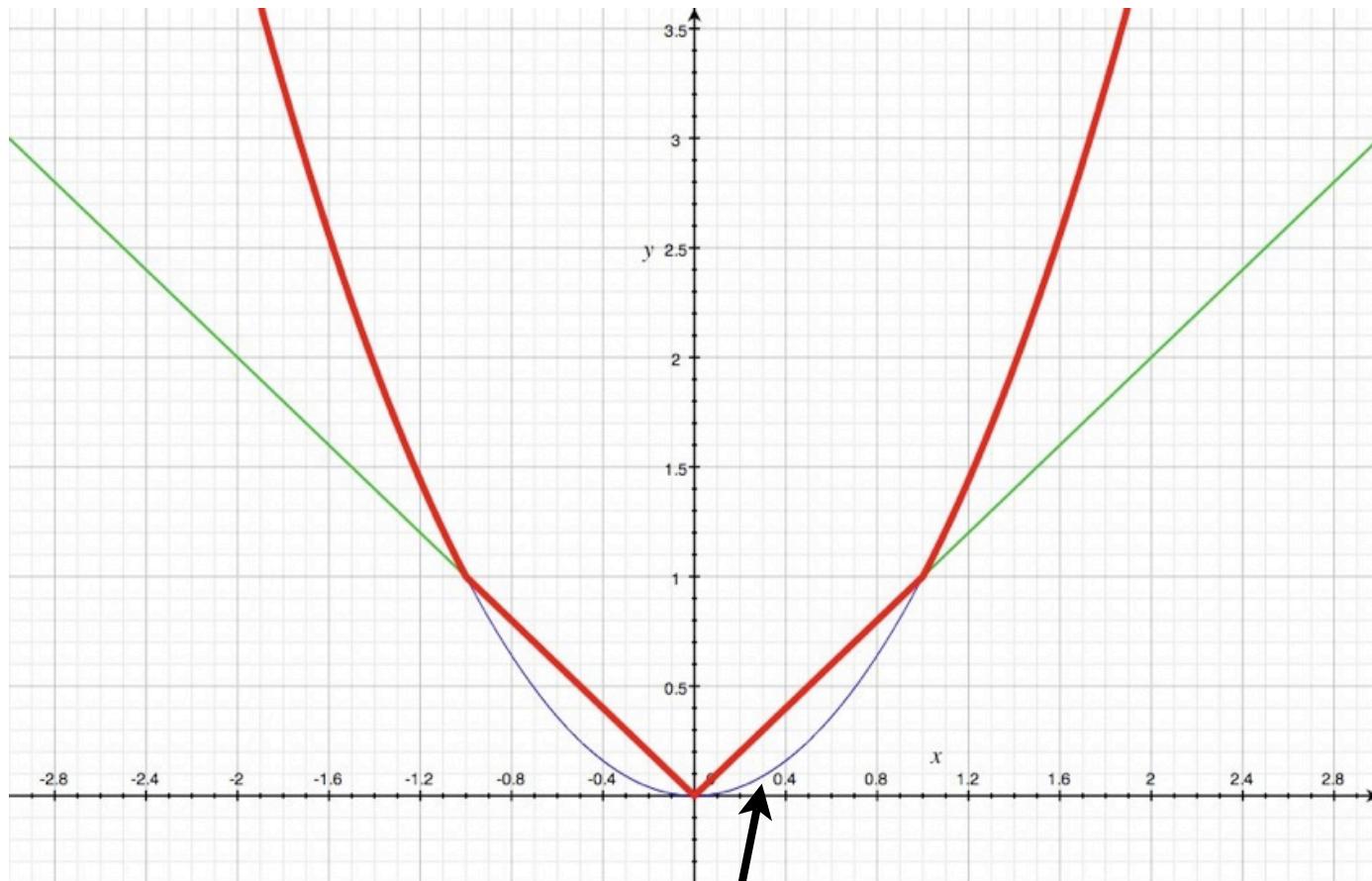
Univariate case: intuition

Penalty



Univariate case: intuition

Penalty

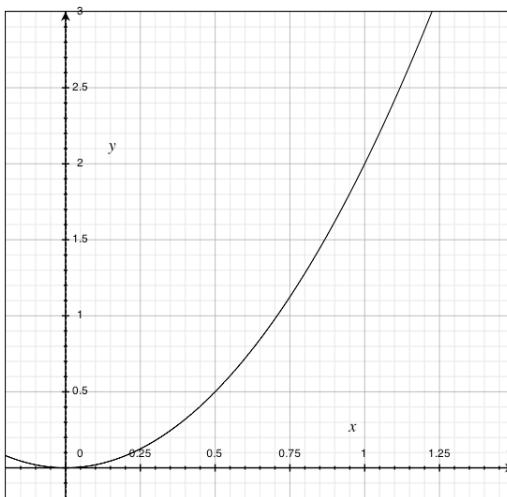
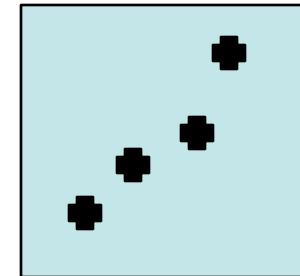


Feature
weight
value

L1 penalizes more than L2
when the weight is small

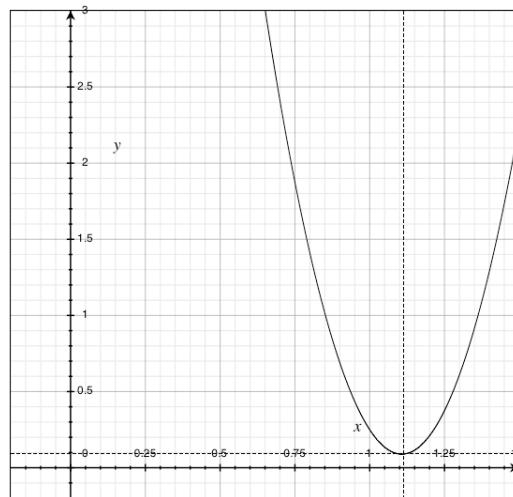
Univariate example: L_2

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



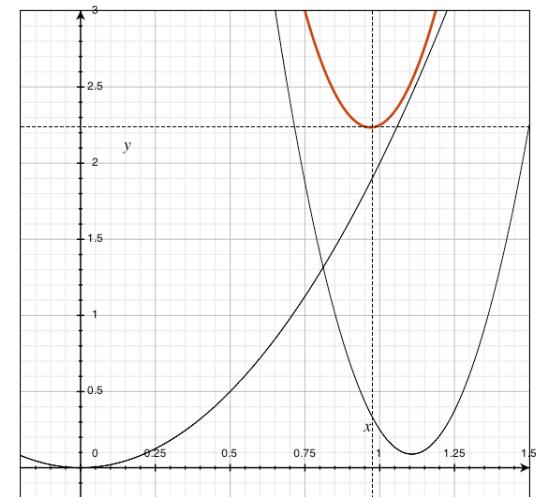
Regularization term

+



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

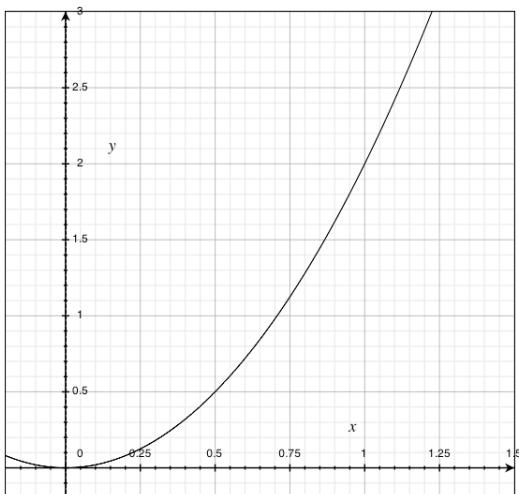
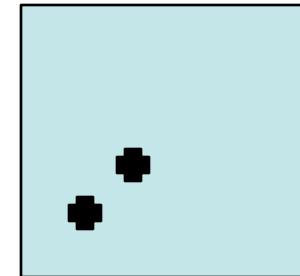
=



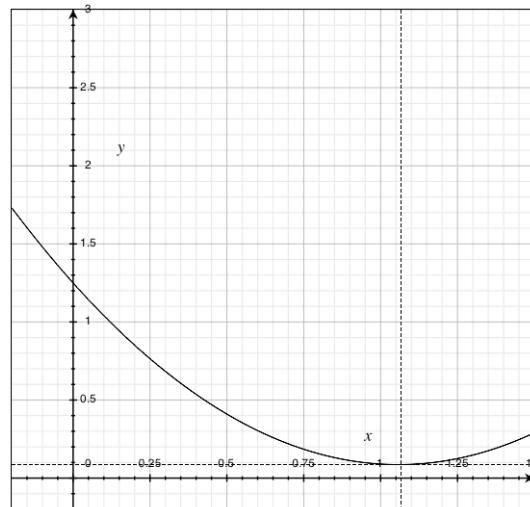
Objective function
Minimized by
 $w=0.95$

Univariate example: L_2

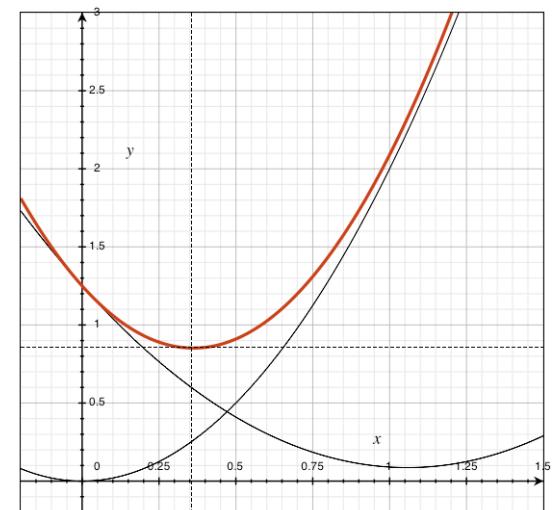
- Case 2: there is NOT a lot of data supporting our hypothesis



+



=



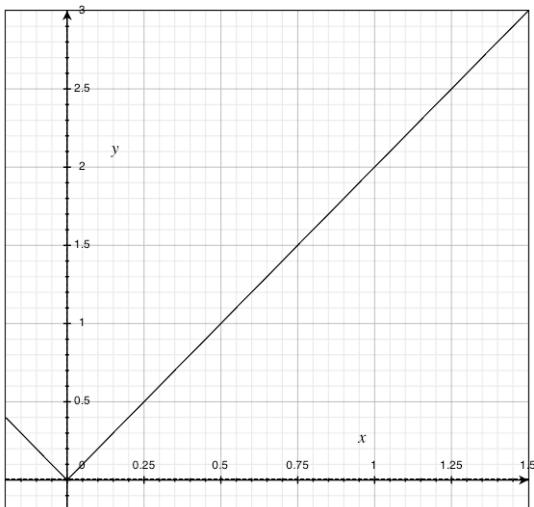
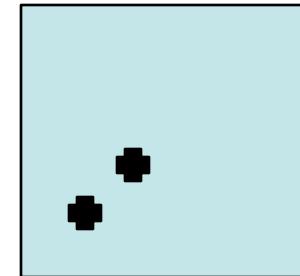
Regularization term

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

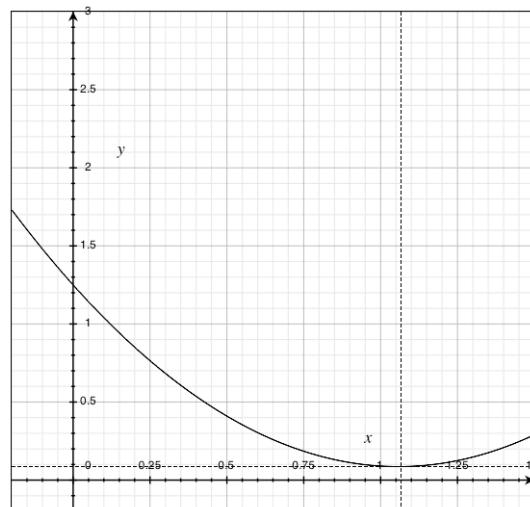
Objective function
Minimized by
 $w=0.36$

Univariate example: L₁

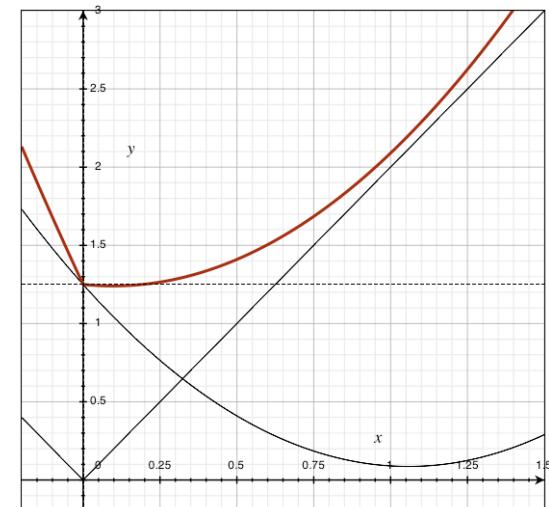
- Case 1, when there is a lot of data supporting our hypothesis:
 - Almost the same resulting w as L2
- Case 2, when there is NOT a lot of data supporting our hypothesis
- Get w = **exactly** zero



Regularization term



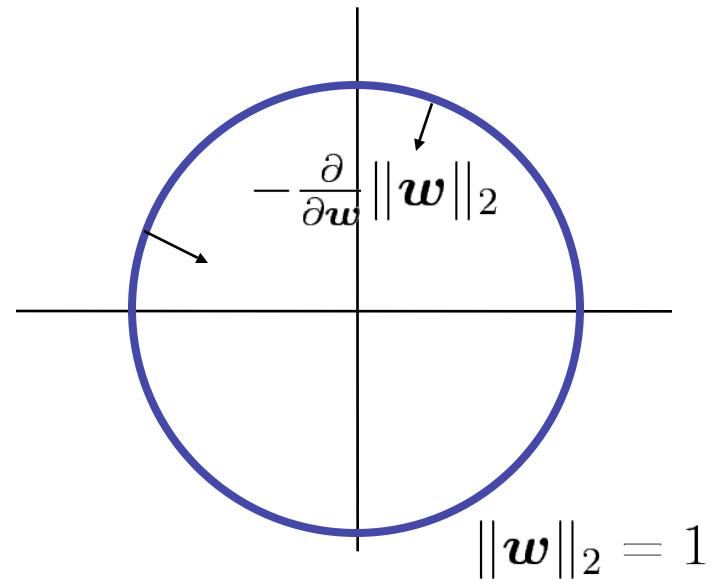
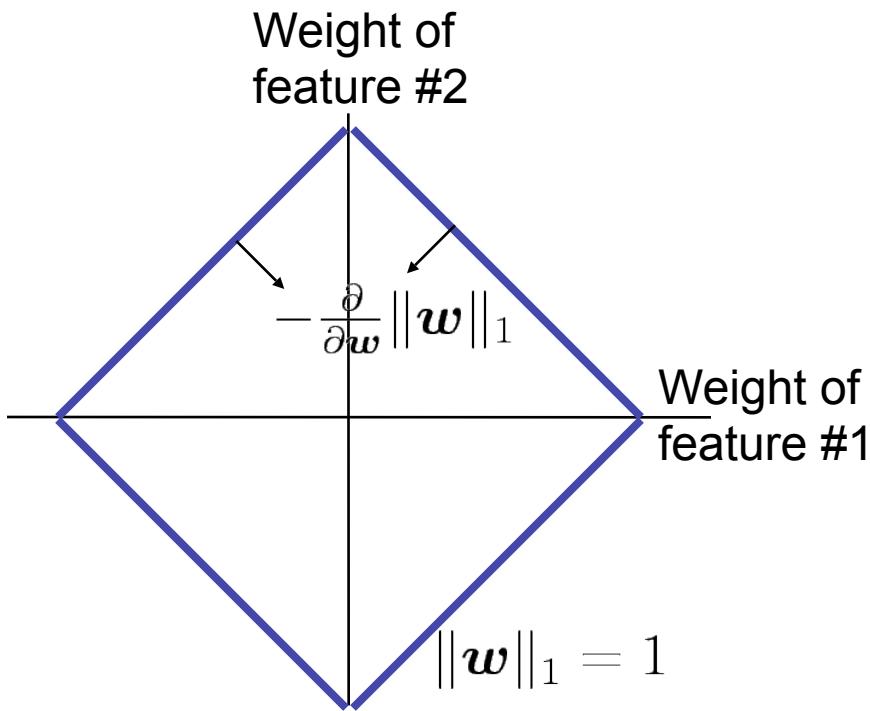
Data likelihood
By itself, minimized
by $w=1.1$



Level sets of L_1 vs L_2 (in 2D)

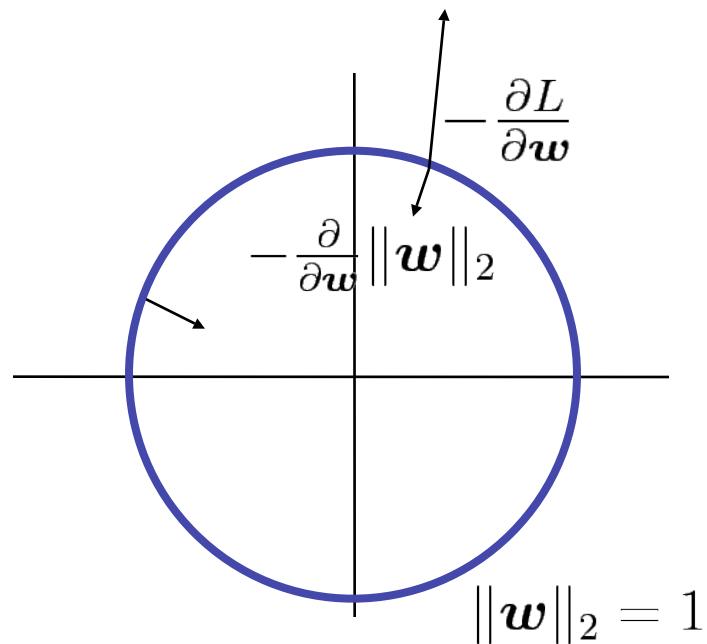
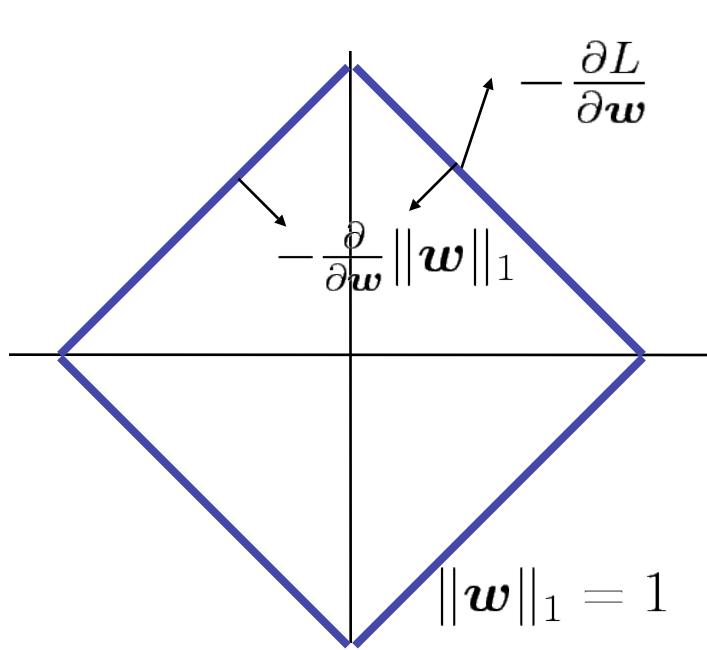
$$\|\mathbf{w}\|_1 = \sum_{f=0}^d |w_f|$$

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



Multivariate case: w gets cornered

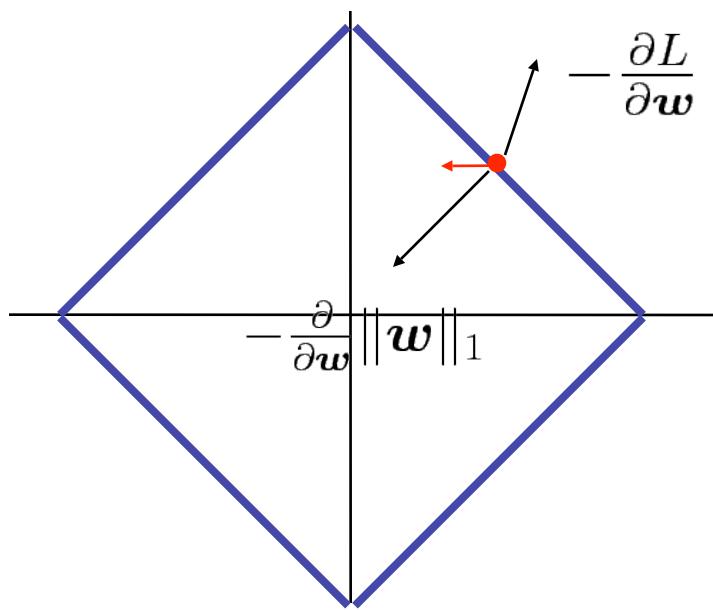
- To minimize $J(w) = L(w) + \|w\|_p$, we can solve $\frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = 0$ by (e.g.) gradient descent.



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

Multivariate case: w gets cornered

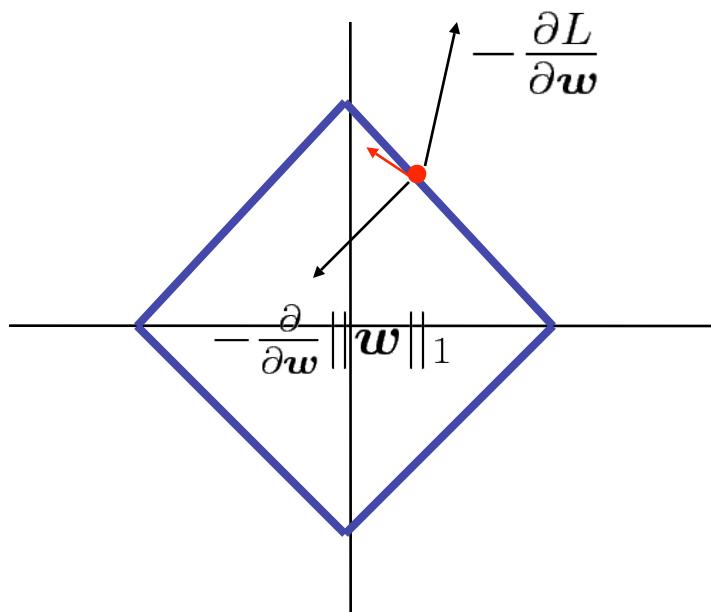
- To minimize $J(w) = L(w) + \|w\|_p$, we can solve $\frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = 0$ by (e.g.) gradient descent.



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

Multivariate case: w gets cornered

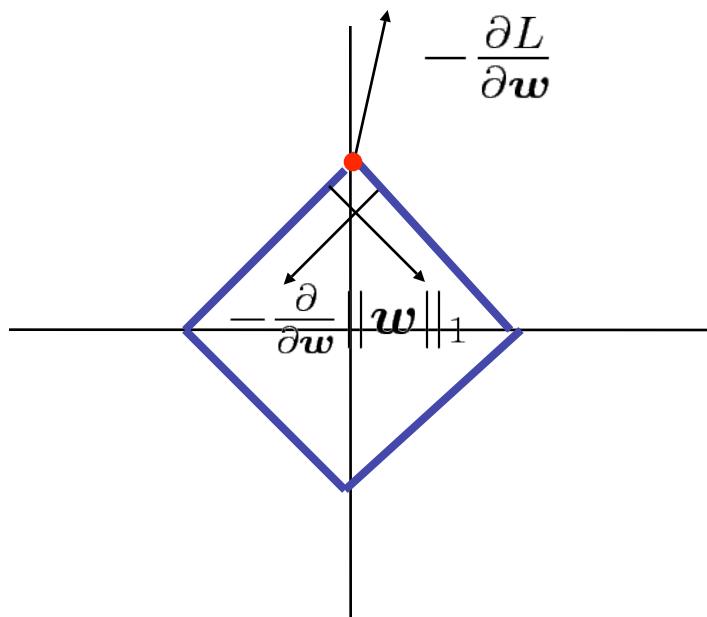
- To minimize $J(w) = L(w) + \|w\|_p$, we can solve $\frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = 0$ by (e.g.) gradient descent.



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

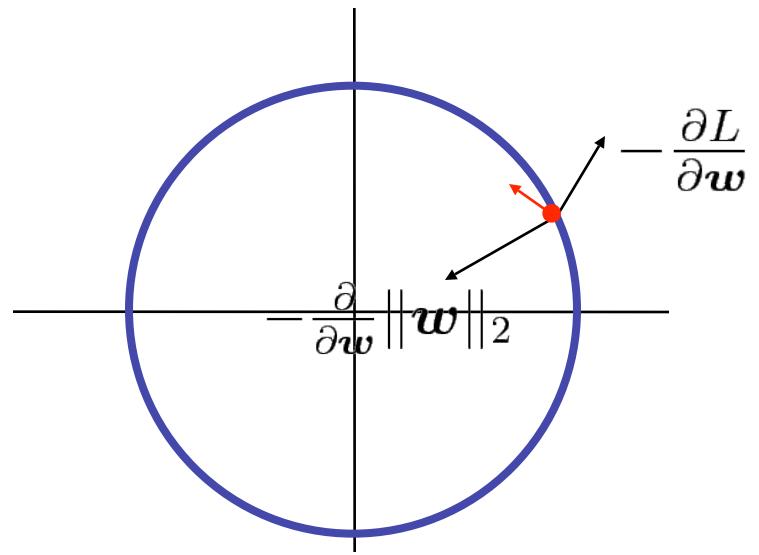
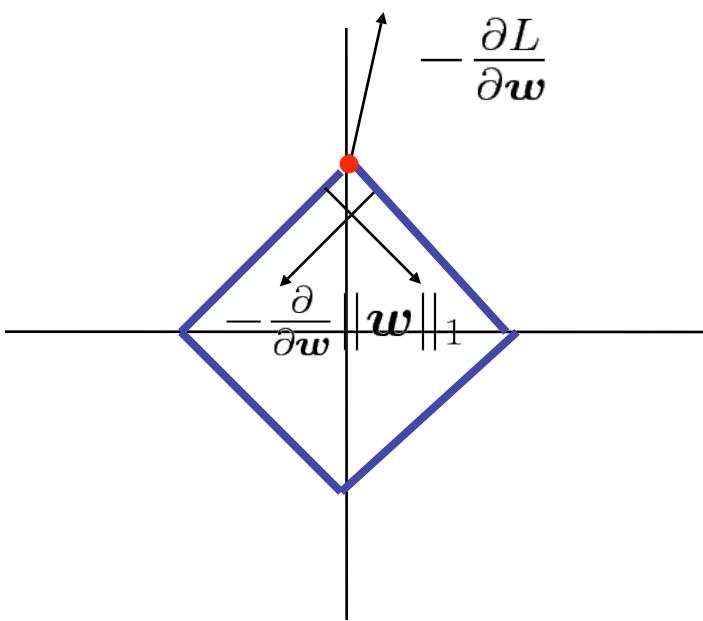
Multivariate case: w gets cornered

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

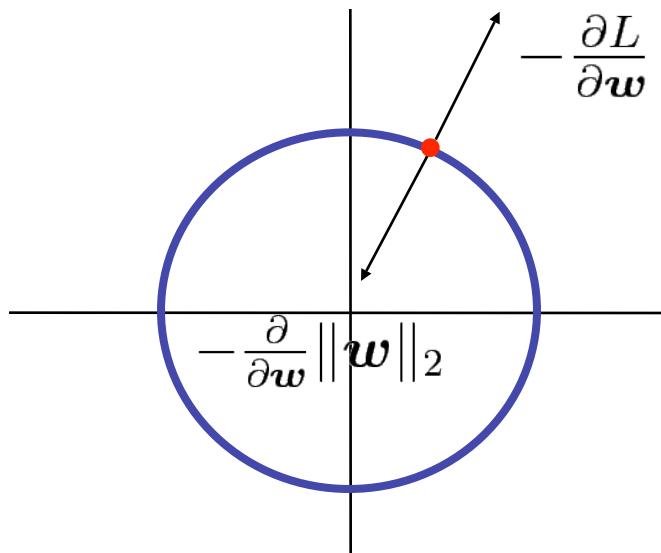
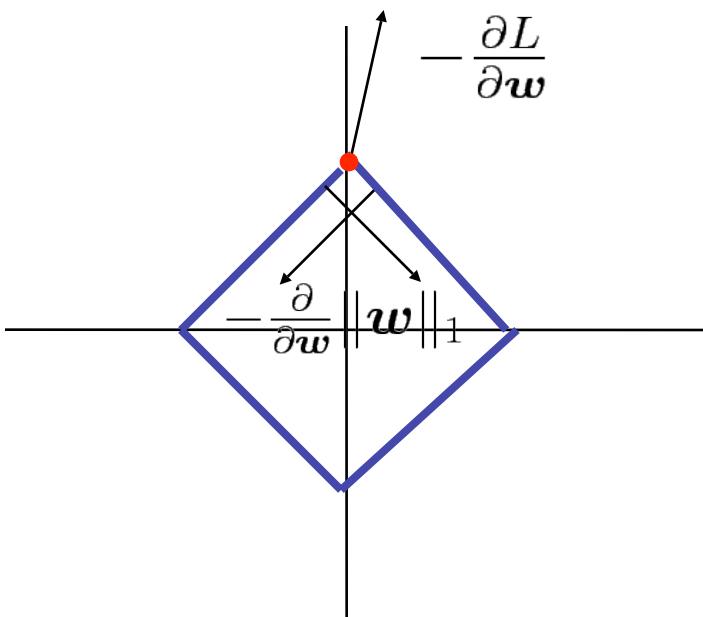


- Minimization is a tug-of-war between the two terms
- w is forced into the corners—components are zeroed
 - Solution is often sparse

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, orthan-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: <http://code.google.com/p/berkeleyparser/> edu.berkeley.nlp.math.OW_LBFGSMinimizer in

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

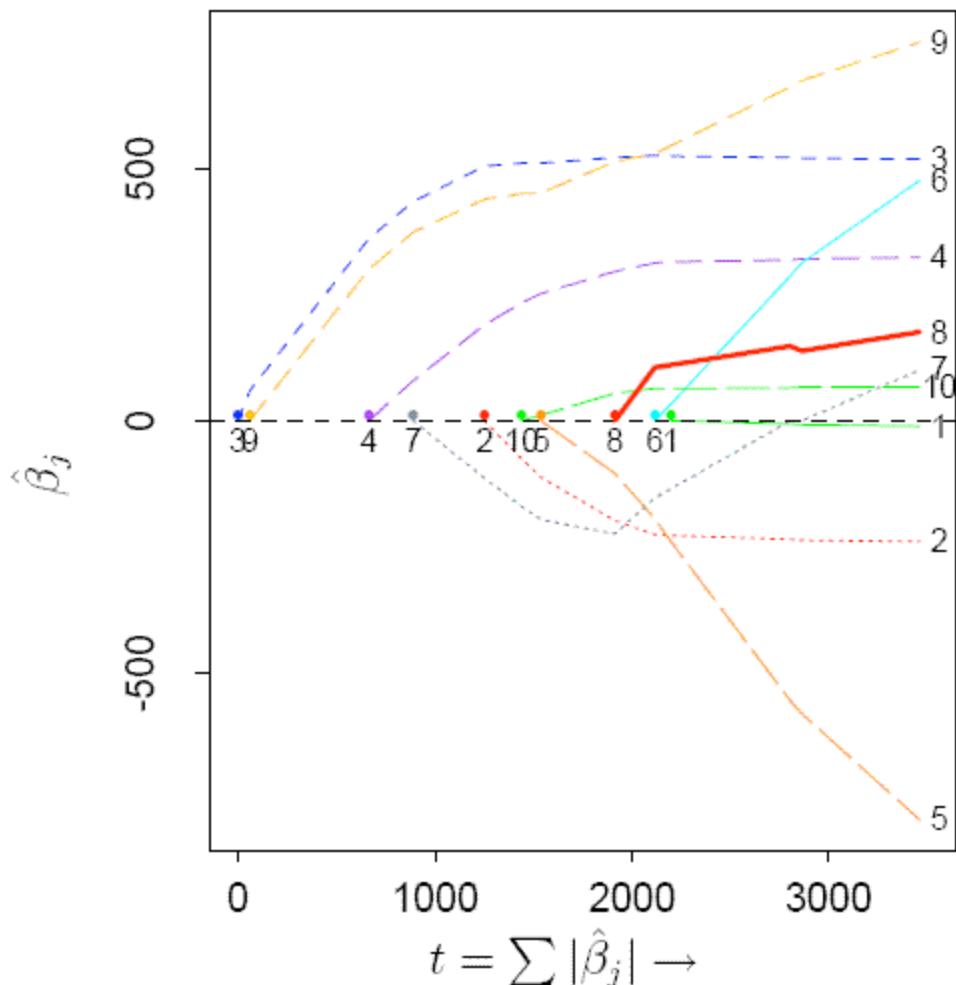


Figure taken from Hastie et al (2004)

Remarks

- Not to be confused: two orthogonal uses of L1 for regression:
 - lasso for **sparsity**: what we just described

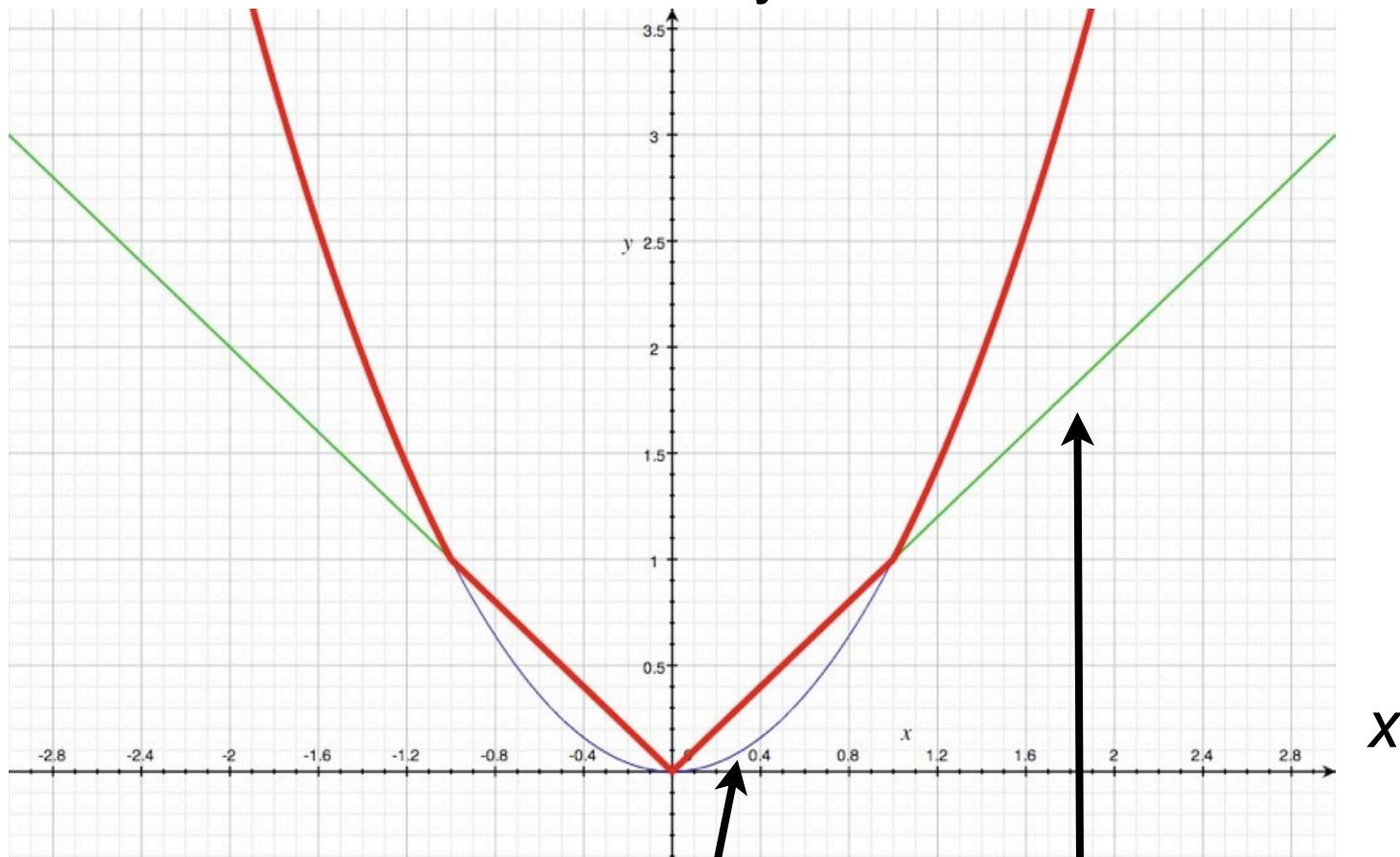
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + C \sum_{f=1}^d |\mathbf{w}_f|$$

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

$$\hat{w} = \operatorname{argmin}_w \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - w^T x_i| + C ||w||_p$$

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/L2	0.9176	1,211,026	62	129
ME/L1	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

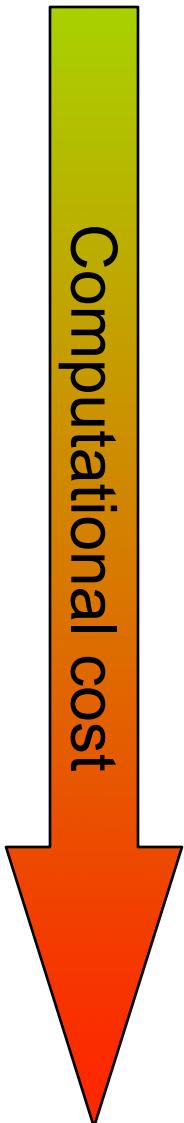
When should you do it?

- 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]

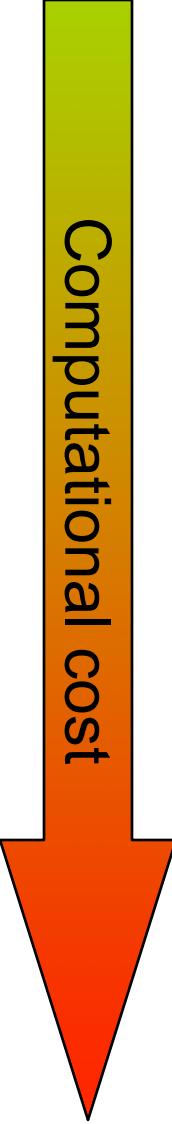
Summary: how to do feature selection

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

Computational cost



Summary: how to do feature selection

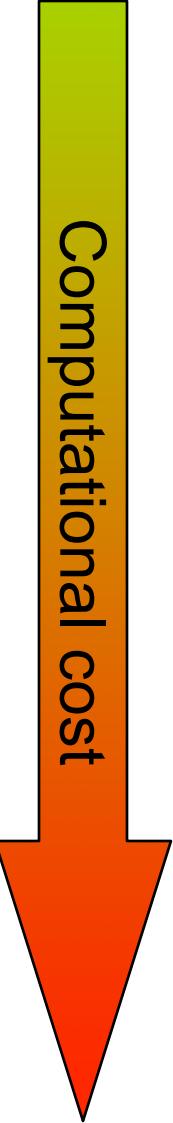
- 
- Filtering
 - L_1 regularization
(embedded methods)
 - Wrappers
 - Forward selection
 - Backward selection
 - Other search
 - Exhaustive
- Good preprocessing step
 - Fails to capture relationship between features

Summary: how to do feature selection

Computational cost ↓

- 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

Computational cost ↓

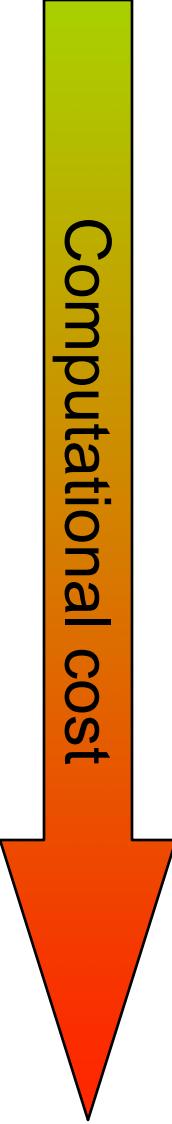
- Filtering
- L_1 regularization
(embedded methods)
- Wrappers
 - [Forward selection](#)
 - [Backward selection](#)
 - Other search
 - Exhaustive
- Too greedy—ignore relationships between features
- Easy baseline
- Can be generalized in many interesting ways
 - Stagewise forward selection
 - Forward-backward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

Summary: how to do feature selection

Computational cost ↓

- 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

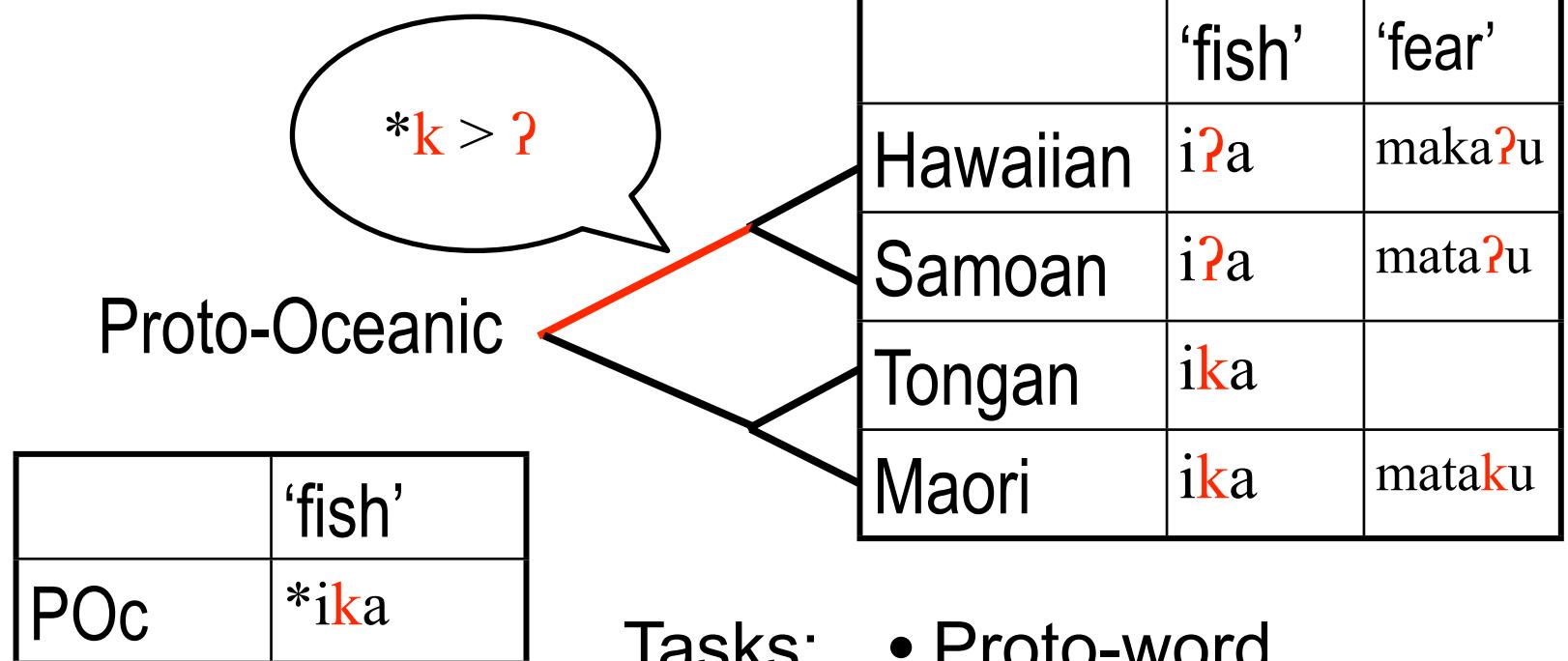
Extra slides

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



	'fish'	'fear'
Hawaiian	i [?] a	maka [?] u
Samoan	i [?] a	mata [?] u
Tongan	ika	
Maori	ika	mataku

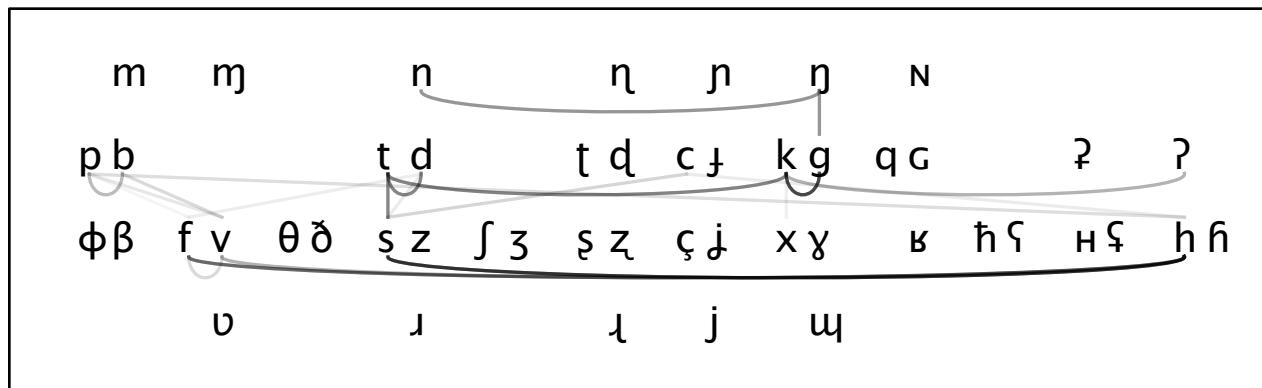
Feature engineering case study: Modeling language change [Bouchard et al. 07,09]



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

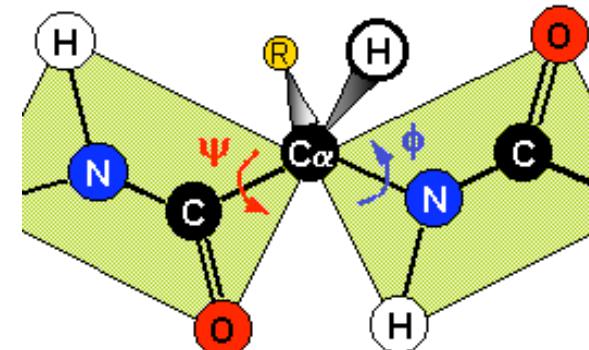
Feature engineering case study: Modeling language change [Bouchard et al. 07,09]

- 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



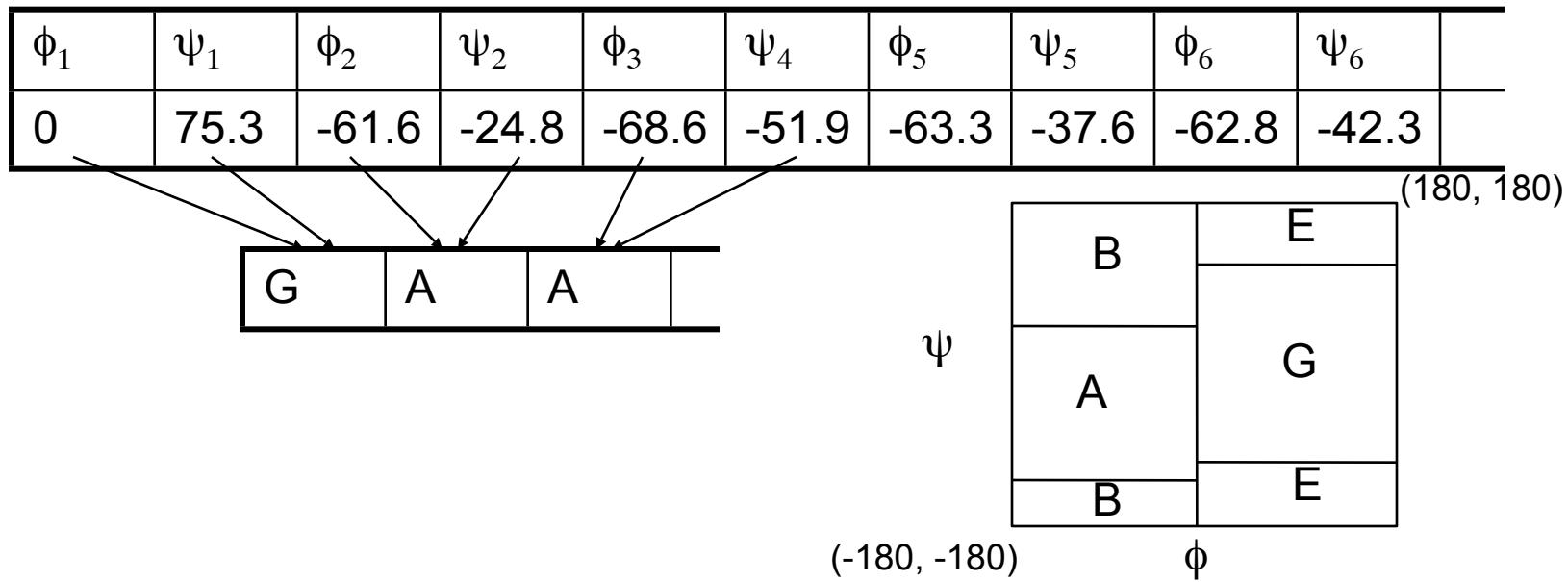
Feature selection case study: Protein Energy Prediction [Blum et al '07]

- 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:
 ϕ and ψ *torsion angles*.
- Restrict next wave of
 - search to agree with features that predicted high energy



Featurization

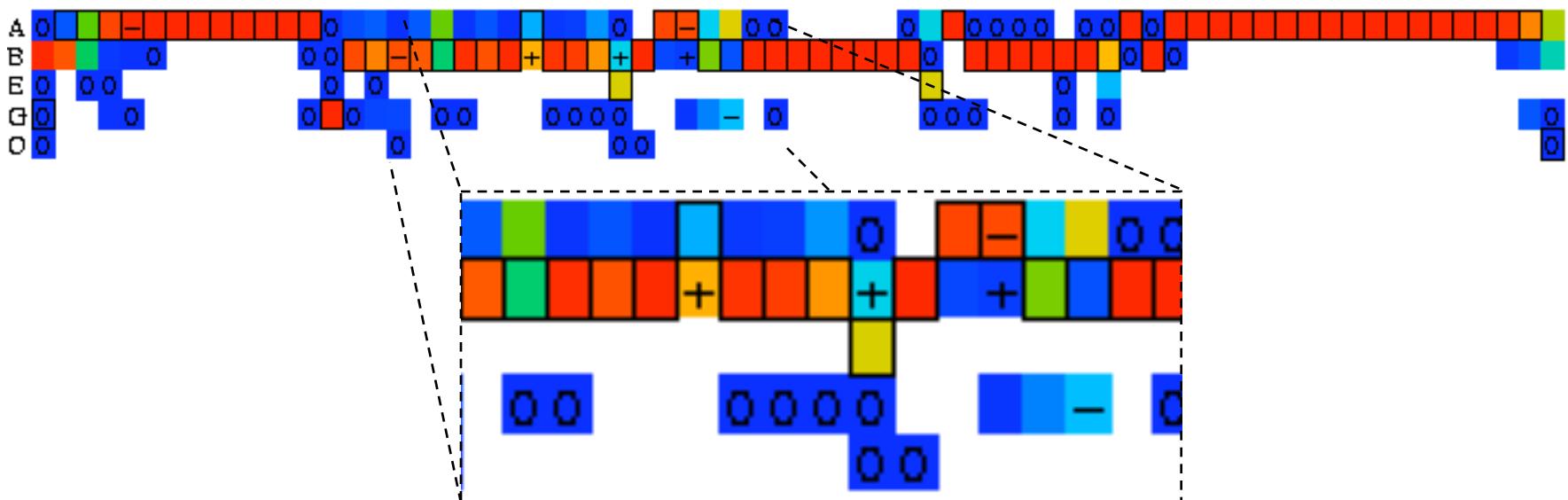
- Torsion angle features can be binned



- 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