#### DSC 40A: Theoretical Foundations of Data Science

# Lecture 13 Part II Feature engineering and data transformations

October 27, 2025

#### Announcements

- Gal is out today so Sawyer is lecturing in her place (hence slightly different slides)
- o Your midterm exam will take place Monday, Nov. 3rd!
- o 50 minutes on paper, no calculators or electronics permitted
- o You are allowed to bring a single double-sided page of notes
- Seats are assigned; will provide details during Discussion today and Campuswire afterwards
- o Content: Lectures 1-13, Homeworks 1-4, Groupworks 1-5
- Prepare by practicing old exam problems on practice.dsc40a.com

#### Announcements

Varun and Owen will be hosting a midterm review session this Thursday 10/30 from 5pm-7pm in **Ledden Auditorium** (near HSS/APM)

Stay tuned for further details via Campuswire

## Recap from last week

On **Friday** you covered a few topics that build on our work with simple linear models and multiple regression:

• Standardizing features  $x_{i \text{ (su)}} = \frac{x_i - \overline{x}}{\sigma_x}$ ,

$$H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x_1_{(su)} + ... + w_d x_{d(su)}$$

o Adding polynomial terms to the hypothesis function, e.g.,

$$H(x) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2,$$

o Adding terms from combinations of features:

$$H(sqft, comp) = ... + w_4(sqft \cdot comp) + ...$$

Question: What does each of these have in common?

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Question: What do each of these have in common?

These are **all linear** in the weights  $w_i$ .

What if we want to use a hypothesis function that is nonlinear in the weights and/or features?



**Example** A nonlinear hypothesis function

Consider the following hypothesis function, which depends on a single scalar-valued feature and two weights  $w_0, w_1$ :

$$H(x) = w_0 e^{w_1 x}.$$

This function is **nonlinear** in both the weights and the feature x. We can create a new hypothesis function  $T(x) = b_0 + b_1 x$ , which is linear in the weights  $b_0$ ,  $b_1$ , by applying the transformation

$$T(x) = \ln(H(x)) = \ln(w_0) + w_1 x.$$

The weights are related by the equations  $b_0 = \ln(w_0)$  and  $b_1 = w_1$ .



### **Example** A nonlinear hypothesis function

$$T(x) = \ln(H(x)) = \ln(\mathbf{w}_0) + \mathbf{w}_1 x$$

Then, we can fit the linear hypothesis function  $T(x) = b_0 + b_1 x$  to data using the normal equations to obtain optimal weights  $b_0^*, b_1^*$ . Finally, we can recover the optimal weights for the original hypothesis via

> $w_0^* = e^{b_0^*}.$  $w_1^* = b_1^*$ .

We will explore example.	re this in an interactive no	otebook, continuing	from last week's

Let's do a more detailed example.



#### Example Drink up!

You operate a beverage bottling plant in the Southwestern US. Recently you collected data over the course of twelve weeks  $i = 1, \dots, 12$ , capturing the following statistics:

- $\circ x_i^{(1)}$ , the labor-hours of the plant during week i,
- $\circ x_i^{(2)}$ , the electricity consumed in the plant during week i,
- $\circ x_{i}^{(3)}$ , the materials input (kg of syrup/concentrate), again during week i

You would like to model  $y_i$ , the liters of finished bottled product during week i, in terms of measurable quantities.

After discussing things with your in-house econometrics guru, you arrive at the following hypothesis function:

$$H(\vec{x}) = w_0(x^{(1)})^{w_1}(x^{(2)})^{w_2}(x^{(3)})^{w_3}.$$

This is an example of a **Cobb-Douglas** production function, commonly used in economics to model output as a function of multiple inputs.

Note that this hypothesis function is **nonlinear** in both the weights  $w_i$  and the features  $x^{(j)}$ .

To fit this model to data, we will need to perform a transformation. By using a logarithm, we can obtain a new hypothesis function  $T(\vec{x})$  that is linear in the weights:

$$T(\vec{x}) = \ln(H(\vec{x}))$$
  
=  $\ln(w_0) + w_1 \ln(x^{(1)}) + w_2 \ln(x^{(2)}) + w_3 \ln(x^{(3)}).$ 

$$T(\vec{x}) = \ln(H(\vec{x}))$$
  
=  $\ln(\mathbf{w}_0) + \mathbf{w}_1 \ln(x^{(1)}) + \mathbf{w}_2 \ln(x^{(2)}) + \mathbf{w}_3 \ln(x^{(3)}).$ 

We can now fit the linear hypothesis function

$$T(\vec{x}) = b_0 + b_1 z^{(1)} + b_2 z^{(2)} + b_3 z^{(3)},$$

where we have defined the transformed features  $% \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right) =\frac{1}{2}\left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right) =\frac{$ 

$$z^{(j)}=\ln(x^{(j)}),\quad j=1,2,3,$$
 using the normal equations to obtain optimal weights  $h^*$   $h^*$   $h^*$   $h^*$ 

using the normal equations to obtain optimal weights  $b_0^*, b_1^*, b_2^*, b_3^*$ .



weights!

Finally, we can recover the optimal weights for the original hypothesis via

via 
$$w_0^* = e^{b_0^*}, \ w_1^* = b_1^*,$$

 $w_2^* = b_2^*,$  $w_3^* = b_3^*.$ 

Note: unlike before, we need to transform our features as well as our

#### Question

#### Answer at q.dsc40a.com.

Which of the following hypothesis functions is **not** linear in the parameters?

(A) 
$$H(\vec{x}) = w_1(x^{(1)}x^{(2)}) + \frac{w_2}{x^{(1)}}\sin(x^{(2)})$$

(B) 
$$H(\vec{x}) = 2^{w_1} x^{(1)}$$

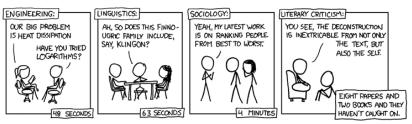
(C) 
$$H(\vec{x}) = \vec{w} \cdot \text{Aug}(\vec{x})$$

(D) 
$$H(\vec{x}) = w_1 \cos(x^{(1)}) + w_2 2^{x^{(2)} \log x^{(3)}}$$

(E) More than one of the above.

## Have you tried using logarithms?

MY HOBBY:
SITTING DOWN WITH GRAD STUDENTS AND TIMING
HOW LONG IT TAKES THEM TO FIGURE OUT THAT
I'M NOT ACTUALLY AN EXPERT IN THEIR FIELD.



xkcd #451

Sometimes, it's just not possible to transform a hypothesis function to be linear in terms of some parameters.

In those cases, you'd have to resort to other methods of finding the optimal parameters.

- For example,  $H(x) = w_0 \sin(w_1 x)$  can't be transformed to be linear.
- But there are other methods of minimizing mean squared error:

$$R_{sq}(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - w_0 \sin(w_1 x))^2.$$

o One method: gradient descent, the topic of the next lecture!

Hypothesis functions that are linear in the parameters are much easier to work with.

#### Roadmap

- This is the end of the content that's in scope for the Midterm Exam.
- Now, we'll introduce gradient descent, a technique for minimizing functions that can't be minimized directly using calculus or linear algebra.
- o After the Midterm Exam, we'll switch gears to probability theory.

# DSC 40A: Theoretical Foundations of Data Science

Lecture 14 Part I Gradient Descent

October 27, 2025

# Minimizing empirical risk

- Repeatedly, we've been tasked with minimizing the value of empirical risk functions.
  - Why? To help us find the **best** model parameters,  $h^*$  or  $\vec{w}^*$ , which help us make the **best** predictions!
- o We've minimized empirical risk functions in various ways.

$$\circ R_{sq}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - h)^2$$
 critical points where  $R' = 0$ 

$$\circ \ R_{abs}(w_0, w_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - (w_0 + w_1 x)|$$
 Brute force (Hw3, P7)

$$\circ R_{sq}(\vec{w}) = \frac{1}{n} ||\vec{y} - X\vec{w}||^2$$
 projections or  $\nabla R = \vec{0}$ 

# Minimizing arbitrary functions

- $\circ$  Assume f(t) is some differentiable single-variable function.
- $\circ$  When tasked with minimizing f(t), our general strategy has been to:
  - 1. Find  $\frac{dt}{dt}(t)$ , the derivative of f.
  - 2. Find the input  $t^*$  such that  $\frac{df}{dt}(t^*) = 0$ .
  - 3. Check that  $\frac{d^2f}{dt^2}(t^*) > 0$  so that  $t^*$  is a true minimizer.
- o However, there are cases where we can find  $\frac{df}{dt}(t)$ , but it is **either difficult** or impossible to solve  $\frac{df}{dt}(t^*)=0$ .

$$\frac{df}{dt}(t) = 5t^4 - t^3 - 5t^2 + 2t - 9$$

Then what?

When we can't directly solve for the minimizer of a function, we can approximate the minimizer using an iterative method called **gradient descent**.

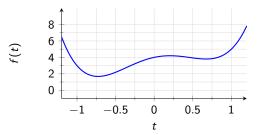
The idea is to start at some initial guess  $t_0$  and then **iteratively improve** our guess by taking steps in the direction of steepest descent (i.e., the negative gradient).

Over time, these steps will (hopefully) lead us to a point close to the true minimizer  $t^*$ .

#### What does the derivative of a function tell us?

**Goal**: Given a **differentiable** function f(t), find the input  $t^*$  that minimizes f(t). First we need to consider the question:

What does  $\frac{d}{dt}f(t)$  mean?

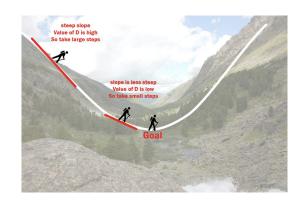


# Let's go hiking!

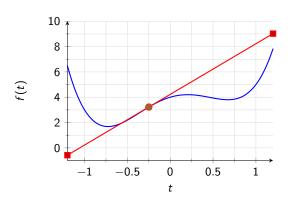
Suppose you're at the top of a mountain and need to get to the hottom

Further, suppose it's really cloudy, meaning you can only see a few feet around you.

**How** would you get to the bottom?



# Searching for the minimum



**Suppose** we're given an initial *guess* for a value of t that minimizes f(t).

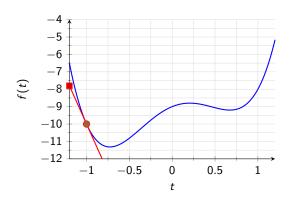
If the slope of the tangent line at f(t) is positive:

Increasing t increases f.

The minimum must be to the left of the point (t, f(t)).

**Solution:** Decrease t.

# Searching for the minimum



Suppose we're given an initial guess for a value of t that minimizes f(t).

If the slope of the tangent line at f(t) is negative:

Increasing t decreases f.

The minimum must be to the **right** of the point (t, f(t)).

Solution: Increase t.

#### Intuition

To minimize f(t), start with an initial guess  $t_0$ .

Where do we go next?

If 
$$\frac{df}{dt}(t_0) > 0$$
, decrease  $t_0$ .

If 
$$\frac{df}{dt}(t_0) < 0$$
, increase  $t_0$ .

One way to accomplish this:

$$t_1 = t_0 - \frac{df}{dt}(t_0)$$

This is the key ingredient to gradient descent! More on Wednesday!