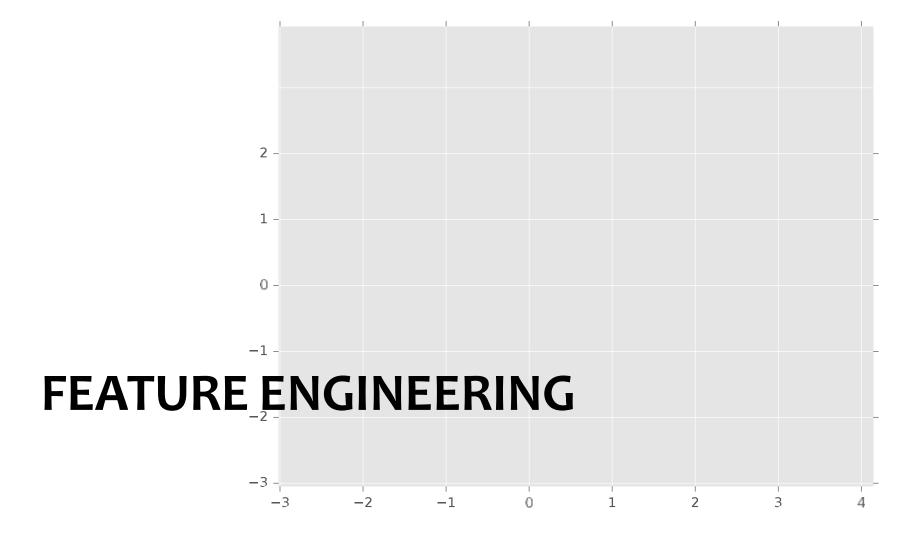
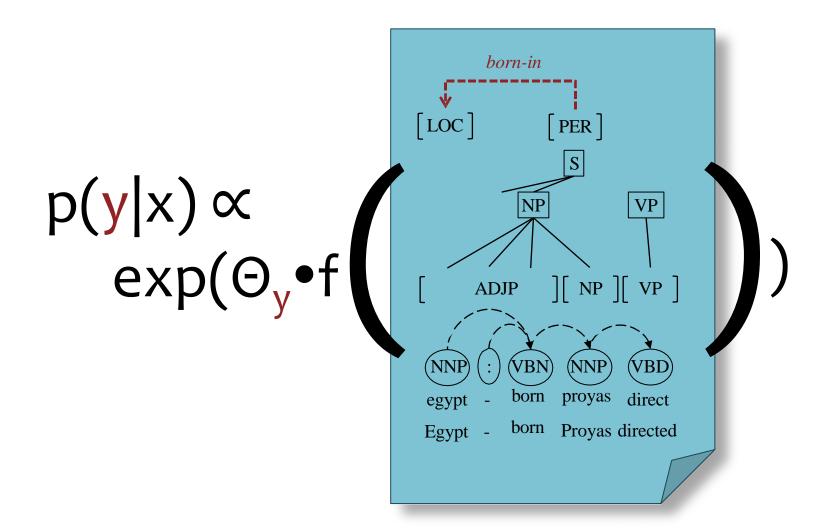


CS182: Introduction to Machine Learning – Feature Engineering Regularization

Yujiao Shi SIST, ShanghaiTech Spring, 2025



Handcrafted Features



Where do features come from科技大学 Shanghai Tech University

Feature Engineering

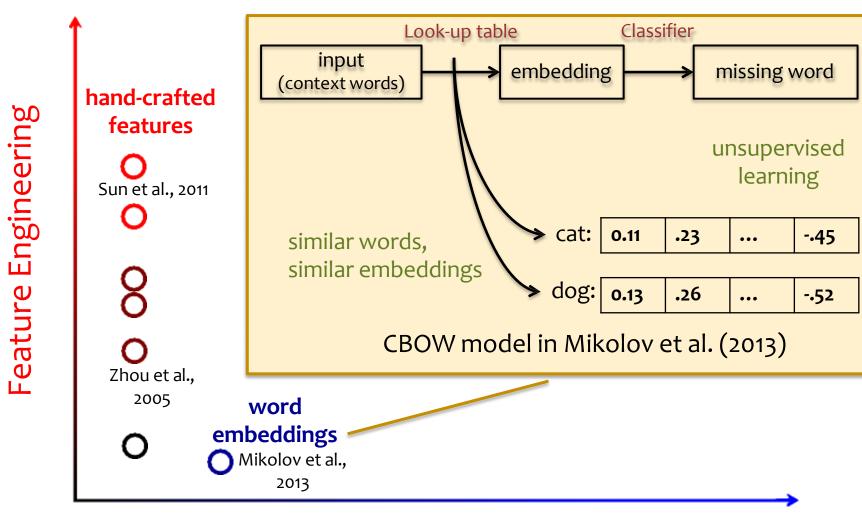
First word before M1 Second word before M1 hand-crafted Bag-of-words in M1 features Head word of M1 Other word in between First word after M2 Sun et al., 2011 Second word after M2 Bag-of-words in M2 *Head word of M2* Bigrams in between Words on dependency path Country name list Personal relative triggers Personal title list Zhou et al., WordNet Tags 2005 Heads of chunks in between Path of phrase labels Combination of entity types

Feature Learning

.

Where do features come from 没有科技大学

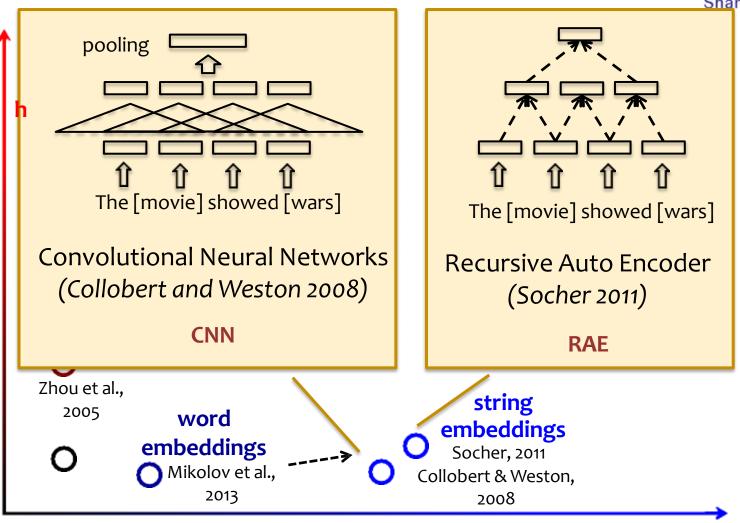
ShanghaiTech University



Feature Learning

Where do features come from科技大学



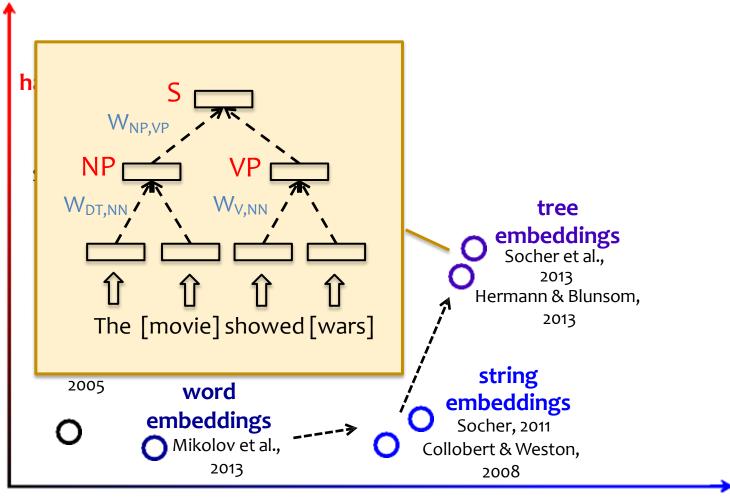


Feature Learning

Where do features come from P海科技大学

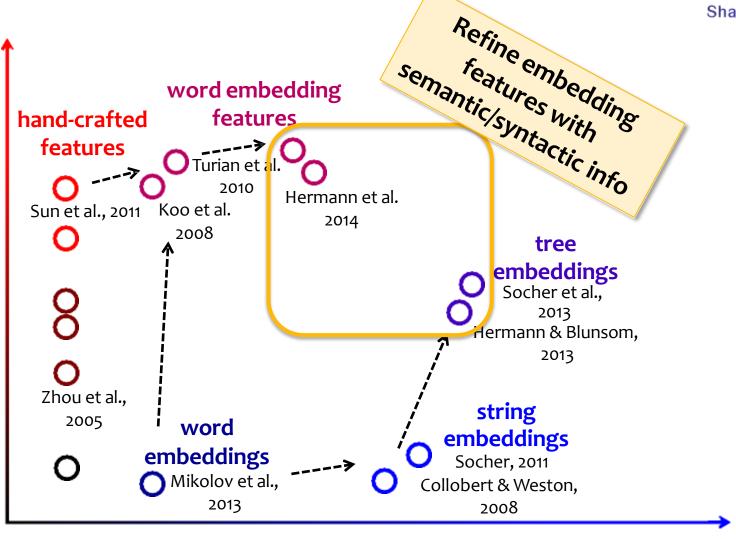






Feature Learning





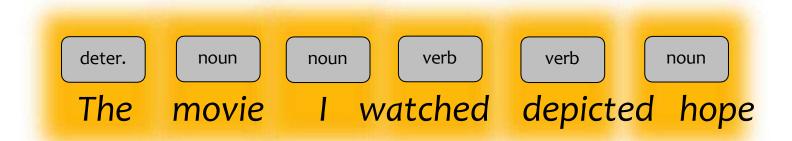
Feature Learning

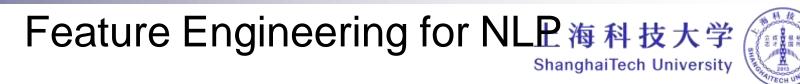


Feature Engineering for NLP海科技大学 ShanghaiTech University

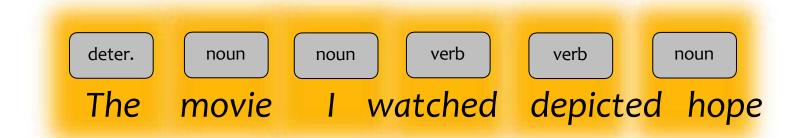
Suppose you build a logistic regression model to predict a partof-speech (POS) tag for each word in a sentence.

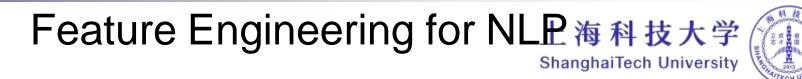
What features should you use?



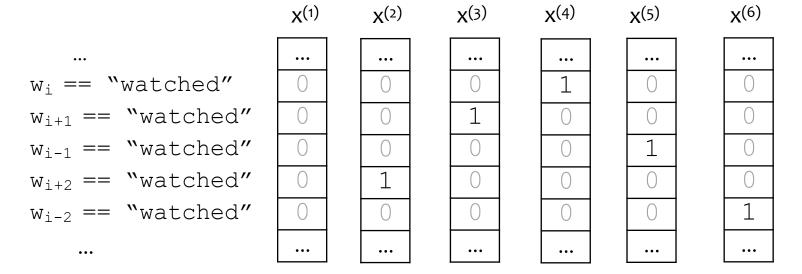


Per-word Features:





Context Features:



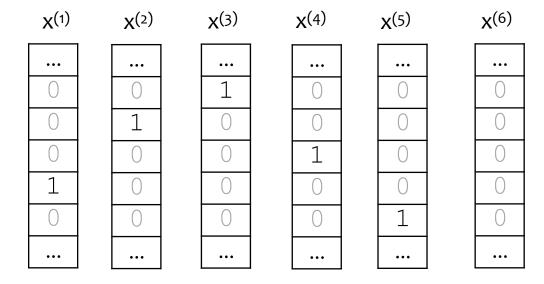


Feature Engineering for NLP海科技大学



Context Features:

$$w_{i} == "I"$$
 $w_{i+1} == "I"$
 $w_{i-1} == "I"$
 $w_{i+2} == "I"$
 $w_{i-2} == "I"$





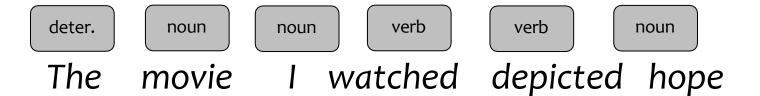
Feature Engineering for NLP

Table from Manning (2011)



Table 3. Tagging accuracies with different feature templates and other changes on the WSJ 19-21 development set.

| Model | Feature Templates | # | Sent. | Token | Unk. |
|--------------|--|-------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | Feats | Acc. | Acc. | Acc. |
| 3GRAMMEMM | See text | 248,798 | 52.07% | 96.92% | 88.99% |
| NAACL 2003 | See text and [1] | $460,\!552$ | 55.31% | 97.15% | 88.61% |
| Replication | See text and [1] | $460,\!551$ | 55.62% | 97.18% | 88.92% |
| Replication' | +rareFeatureThresh = 5 | 482,364 | 55.67% | 97.19% | 88.96% |
| 5w | $+\langle t_0, w_{-2}\rangle, \langle t_0, w_2\rangle$ | 730,178 | 56.23% | 97.20% | 89.03% |
| 5wShapes | $+\langle t_0, s_{-1}\rangle, \langle t_0, s_0\rangle, \langle t_0, s_{+1}\rangle$ | $731,\!661$ | 56.52% | 97.25% | 89.81% |
| 5wShapesDS | + distributional similarity | 737,955 | 56.79% | 97.28% | 90.46% |





Background: Word Embeddings海科技大学

ShanghaiTech University

One-hot vectors

- Standard representation of a word in NLP: 1-hot vector (aka. a string)
- Vectors representing related words share nothing in common

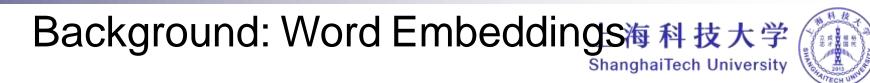
| | ٥ | and | be | ιά ^ζ | 40% | | YOU | zelori |
|------|---|-----|----|-----------------|-----|-----|-----|--------|
| cat: | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | ••• | 0 | 0 |

| _ | | | | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|-----|---|---|
| dog: | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | ••• | 0 | 0 |

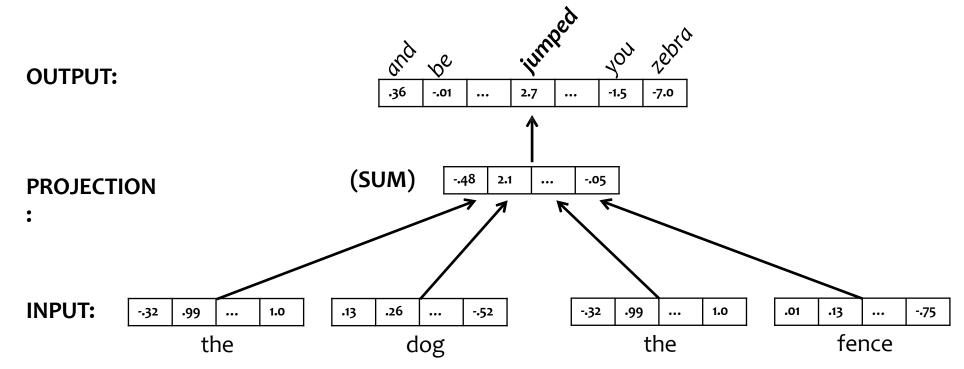
- Word embedding:
- real-valued vector representation of a word in M dimensions
- Related words have similar vectors
- Long history in NLP: Term-doc frequency matrices, Reduce dimensionality with {LSA, NNMF, CCA, PCA}, Brown clusters, Vector space models, Random projections, Neural networks / deep learning

| cat: | 0.13 | .26 | ••• | 52 |
|------|------|-----|-----|----|

| dog: | 0.11 | .23 | ••• | - ∙45 |
|------|------|-----|-----|--------------|
|------|------|-----|-----|--------------|



- It's common to use neural-network trained embeddings
 - Key idea: learn embeddings which are good at reconstructing the context of a word
 - Popular across HLT (speech, NLP)
- The Continuous Bag-of-words Model (CBOW) (Mikolov et al., 2013) maximizes the likelihood of a word given its context:

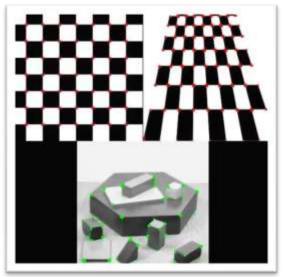


Feature Engineering for Cya科技大学 ShanghaiTech University

Edge detection (Canny)



Corner Detection (Harris)



Figures from http://opencv.org

Feature Engineering for CV



Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT)

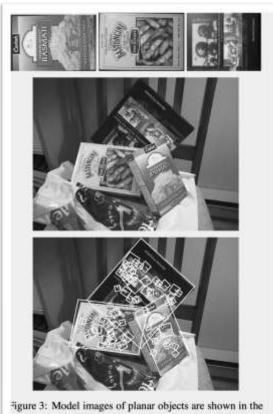


Figure 3: Model images of planar objects are shown in the oprow. Recognition results below show model outlines and mage keys used for matching.

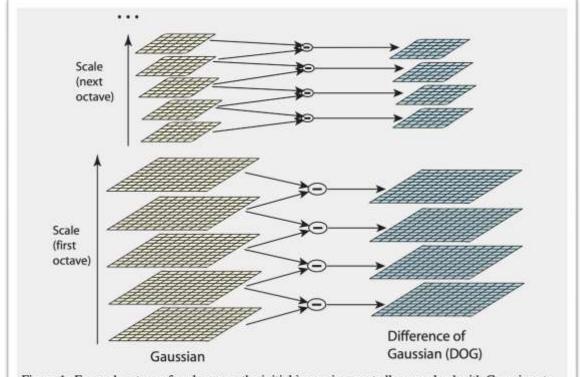
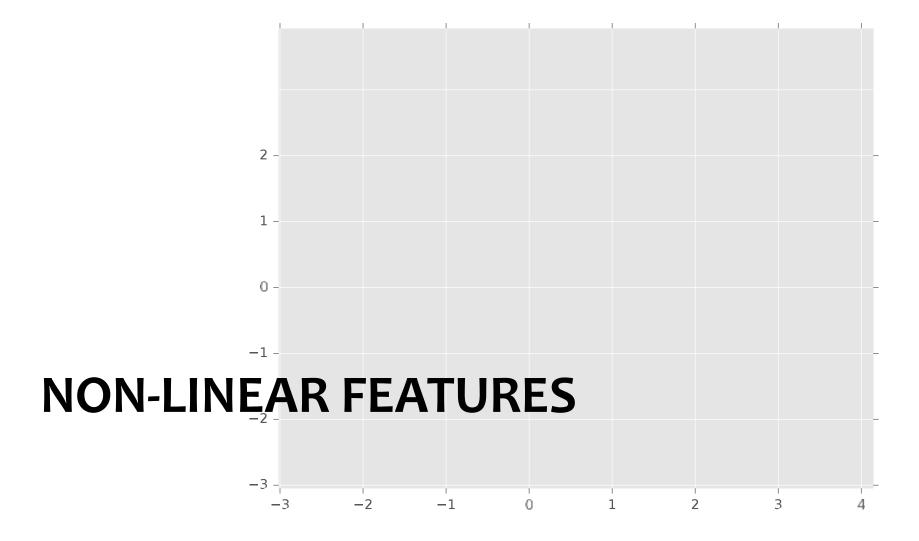


Figure 1: For each octave of scale space, the initial image is repeatedly convolved with Gaussians to produce the set of scale space images shown on the left. Adjacent Gaussian images are subtracted to produce the difference-of-Gaussian images on the right. After each octave, the Gaussian image is down-sampled by a factor of 2, and the process repeated.





Nonlinear Features 上海科技大学

ShanghaiTech University



So far, input was always

$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_M]$$

Key Idea: let input be some function of **x**

original input:

 $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^M$ where M' > M (usually) $\mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}^{M'}$

– new input:

define

 $\mathbf{x}' = b(\mathbf{x}) = [b_1(\mathbf{x}), b_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, b_{M'}(\mathbf{x})]$

where $b_i: \mathbb{R}^M \to \mathbb{R}$ is any function

Examples: (M = 1)

polynomial

$$b_j(x) = x^j \quad \forall j \in \{1, \dots, J\}$$

radial basis function

$$b_j(x) = \exp\left(\frac{-(x-\mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right)$$

sigmoid

$$b_j(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\omega_j x)}$$

log

$$b_j(x) = \log(x)$$

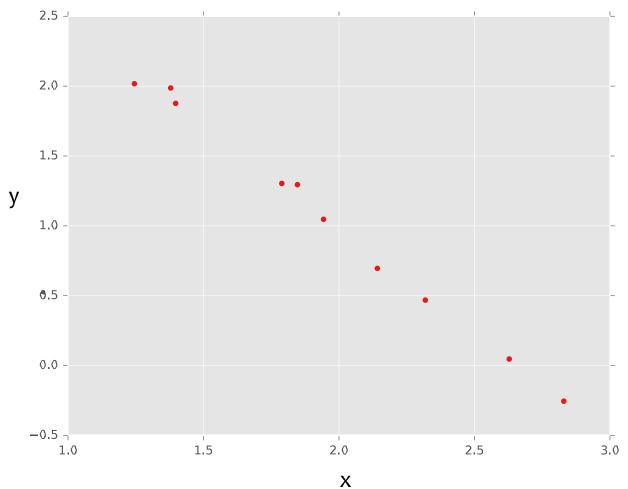
For a linear model: still a linear function of b(x) even though a nonlinear function of

Examples:

- Perceptron
- Linear regression
- Logistic regression

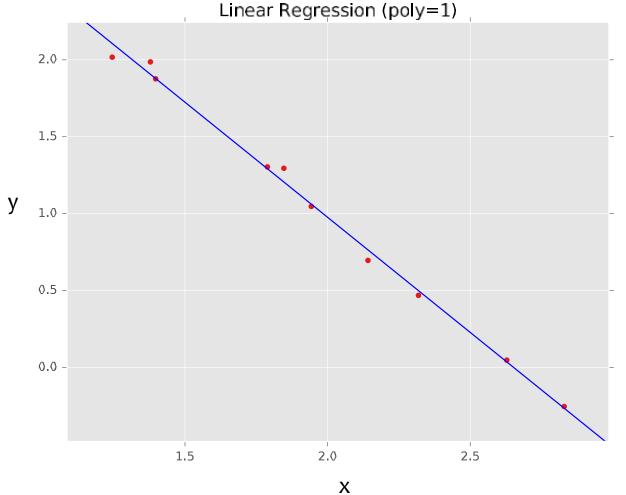
Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

| i | у | х |
|----|-----|-----|
| 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 |
| 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 |
| | ••• | ••• |
| 10 | 1.1 | 1.9 |



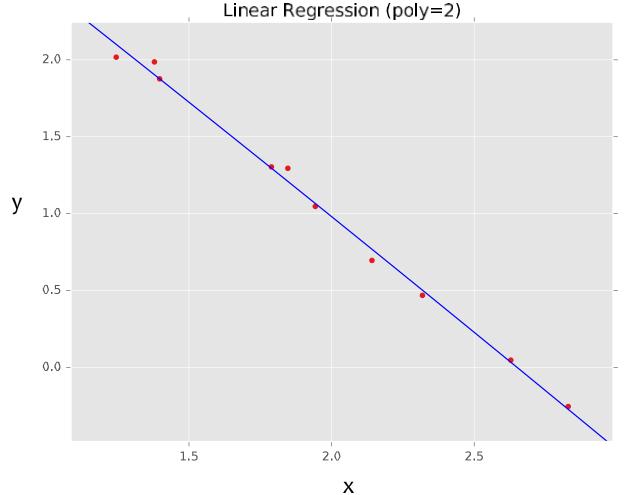
Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

| i | у | х |
|----|-----|-----|
| 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 |
| 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 |
| | ••• | ••• |
| 10 | 1.1 | 1.9 |



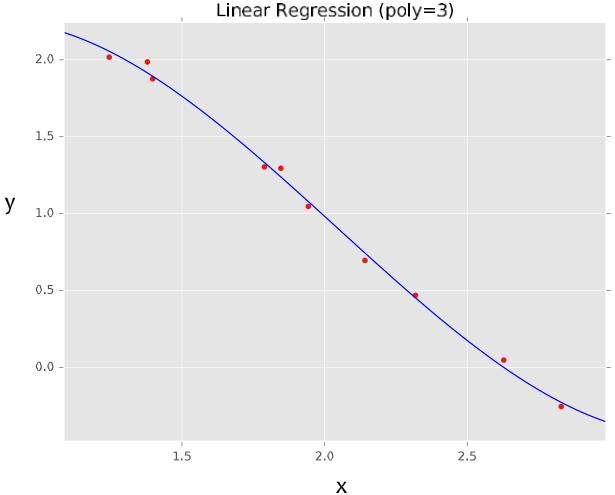
Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + b$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

| i | у | х | X ² |
|-----|-----|-----|----------------|
| 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | (1.2)2 |
| 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | (1.7)2 |
| ••• | ••• | ••• | ••• |
| 10 | 1.1 | 1.9 | (1.9)2 |



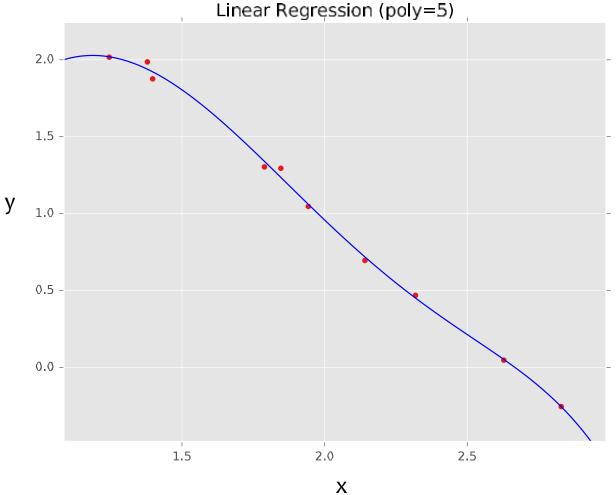
Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

| i | у | х | X ² | X ³ |
|-----|-----|-----|----------------|----------------|
| 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | (1.2)2 | (1.2)3 |
| 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | (1.7)2 | (1.7)3 |
| ••• | ••• | ••• | ••• | ••• |
| 10 | 1.1 | 1.9 | (1.9)2 | (1.9)3 |



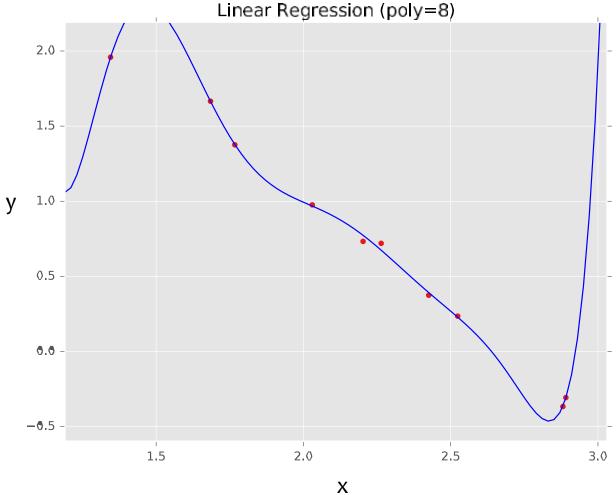
Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

| i | у | х | ••• | x ⁵ |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----------------------|
| 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | ••• | (1.2)5 |
| 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | ••• | (1.7)5 |
| ••• | ••• | ••• | | ••• |
| 10 | 1.1 | 1.9 | ••• | (1.9)5 |



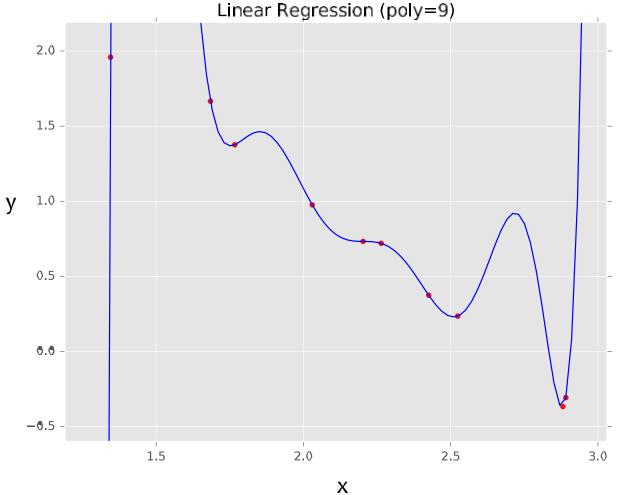
Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

| i | у | х | ••• | x ⁸ |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|----------------|
| 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | ••• | (1.2)8 |
| 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | ••• | (1.7)8 |
| ••• | ••• | ••• | ••• | |
| 10 | 1.1 | 1.9 | ••• | (1.9)8 |



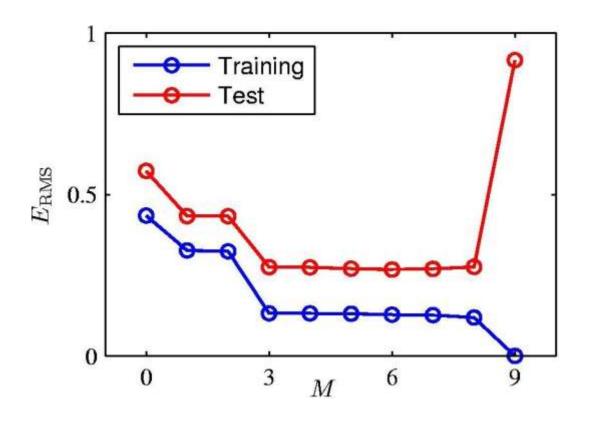
Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

| i | у | х | ••• | x ⁹ |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----------------------|
| 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | ••• | (1.2)9 |
| 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | ••• | (1.7)9 |
| ••• | ••• | ••• | | ••• |
| 10 | 1.1 | 1.9 | ••• | (1.9)9 |



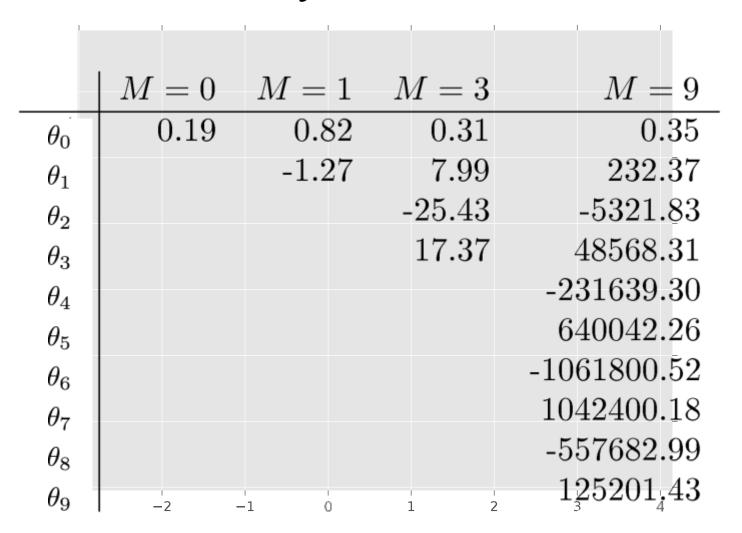
Over-fitting





Root-Mean-Square (RMS) Error: $E_{\rm RMS} = \sqrt{2E(\mathbf{w}^{\star})/N}$

Polynomial Coefficients



Example: Linear Regression 海科技大学

2.5

Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + b$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

2.0

1.5 -

1.0

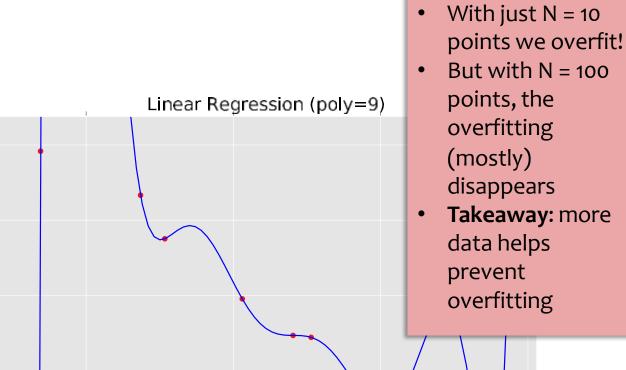
0.5 -

0.0 -

-0.5 -

1.5

| i | у | х | ••• | x 9 | |
|----|-----|-----|-----|------------|---|
| 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | | (1.2)9 | |
| 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | ••• | (1.7)9 | |
| | | ••• | | | , |
| 10 | 1.1 | 1.9 | | (1.9)9 | |



2.0

3.0

Example: Linear Regression海科技大学

ShanghaiTech University

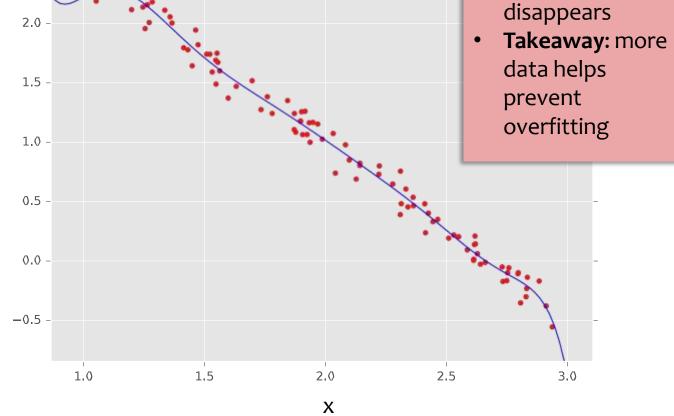
Goal: Learn $y = \mathbf{w}^T f(\mathbf{x}) + b$ where f(.) is a polynomial basis function

2.5 -

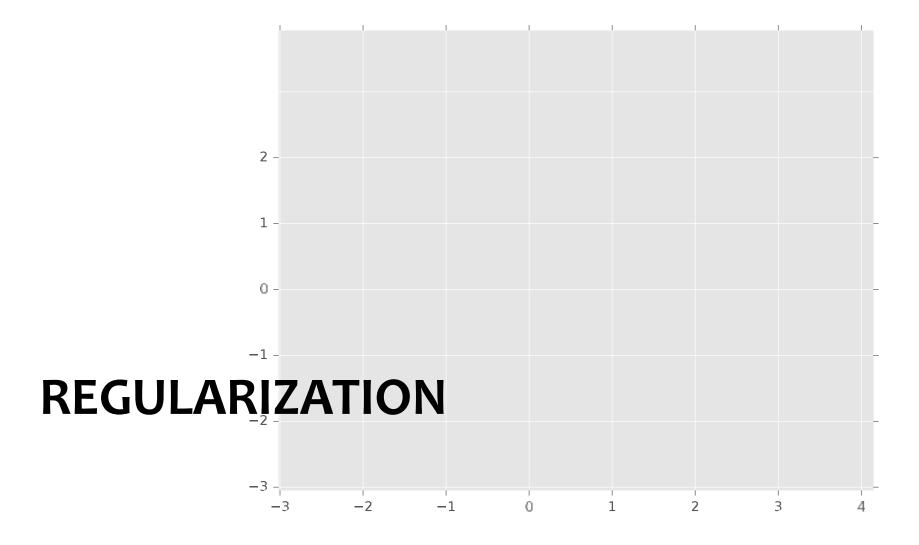
| I | i | у | х | | x 9 | |
|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|------------|---|
| I | 1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | ••• | (1.2)9 | |
| I | 2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | ••• | (1.7)9 | |
| I | 3 | 0.1 | 2.7 | ••• | (2.7)9 | у |
| I | 4 | 1.1 | 1.9 | ••• | (1.9)9 | |
| I | | | | | | |
| I | | | | | | |
| | ••• | ••• | | ••• | | |
| I | 98 | ••• | | ••• | | |
| | 99 | | | | | |
| | 100 | 0.9 | 1.5 | | (1.5)9 | |



But with N = 100
 points, the
 overfitting
 (mostly)
 disappears



Linear Regression (poly=9)





Overfitting



Definition: The problem of **overfitting** is when the model captures the noise in the training data instead of the underlying structure

Overfitting can occur in all the models we've seen so far:

- Decision Trees (e.g. when tree is too deep)
- KNN (e.g. when k is small)
- Perceptron (e.g. when sample isn't representative)
- Linear Regression (e.g. with nonlinear features)
- Logistic Regression (e.g. with many rare features)



Motivation: Regularization



Occam's Razor: prefer the simplest hypothesis

- What does it mean for a hypothesis (or model) to be simple?
 - 1. small number of features (model selection)
 - 2. small number of "important" features (shrinkage)



- **Given** objective function: $J(\theta)$
- Goal is to find: $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname{argmin} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda r(\boldsymbol{\theta})$
- **Key idea:** Define regularizer $r(\theta)$ s.t. we tradeoff between fitting the data and keeping the model simple
- Choose form of $r(\theta)$:
 - Example: q-norm (usually p-norm): $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_q = \left(\sum_{m=1}^{M} |\theta_m|^q\right)^{\overline{q}}$

| q | $r(oldsymbol{	heta})$ | yields parame- ters that are | name | optimization notes |
|---|---|---------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 0 | $ \boldsymbol{\theta} _0 = \sum \mathbb{1}(\theta_m \neq 0)$ | zero values | Lo reg. | no good computa- tional solutions |
| | $ \boldsymbol{\theta} _1 = \sum \theta_m \ (\boldsymbol{\theta} _2)^2 = \sum \theta_m^2$ | zero values small values | L1 reg. L2 reg. | subdifferentiable differentiable |

Regularization Examples上海科技大学



Add an L2 regularizer to Linear Regression (aka. Ridge Regression)

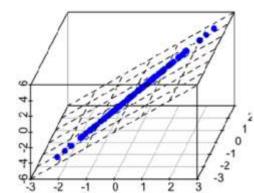
$$J_{\mathsf{RR}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\theta}||_2^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{m=1}^{M} \theta_m^2$$

Add an L1 regularizer to Linear Regression (aka. LASSO)

$$J_{\text{LASSO}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\theta}||_{1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^{2} + \lambda \sum_{m=1}^{M} |\theta_{m}|$$



Regularization 上海科技大学



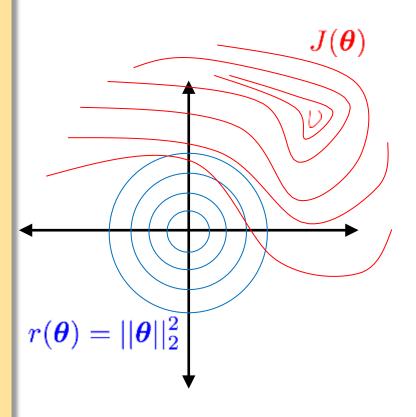
Question:

Suppose we are minimizing $J'(\theta)$ where

$$J'(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda r(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

As λ increases, the minimum of J'(θ) will...

- A. ... move towards the midpoint between $J(\theta)$ and $r(\theta)$
- B. ... move towards the minimum of $J(\theta)$
- C. ... move towards the minimum of $r(\theta)$
- D. ... move towards a theta vector of positive infinities
- E. ... move towards a theta vector of negative infinities
- F. ... stay the same



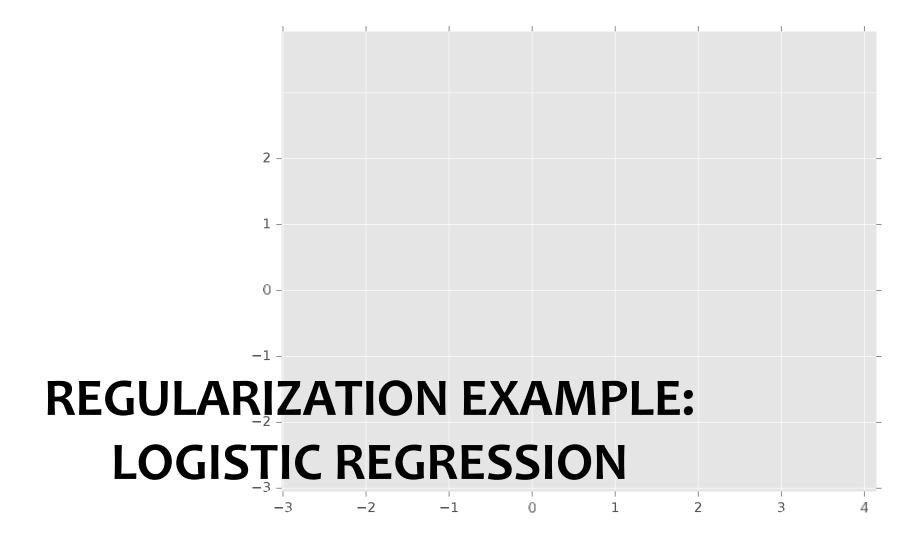
Regularization 上海科技大学

Don't Regularize the Bias (Intercept) Parameter!

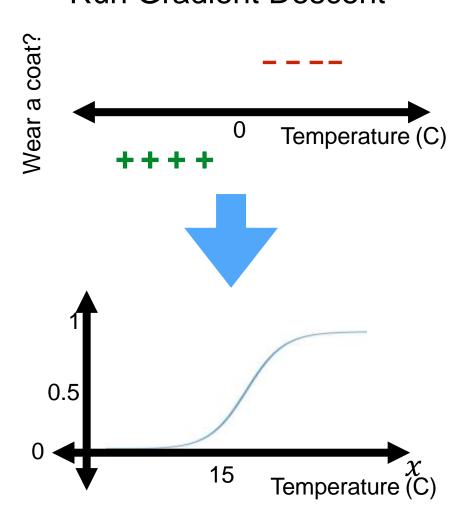
- In our models so far, the bias / intercept parameter is usually denoted by θ_0 that is, the parameter for which we fixed $x_0=1$
- Regularizers always avoid penalizing this bias / intercept parameter
- Why? Because otherwise the learning algorithms wouldn't be invariant to a shift in the y-values

Standardizing Data

- It's common to standardize each feature by subtracting its mean and dividing by its standard deviation
- For regularization, this helps all the features be penalized in the same units (e.g. convert both centimeters and kilometers to z-scores)

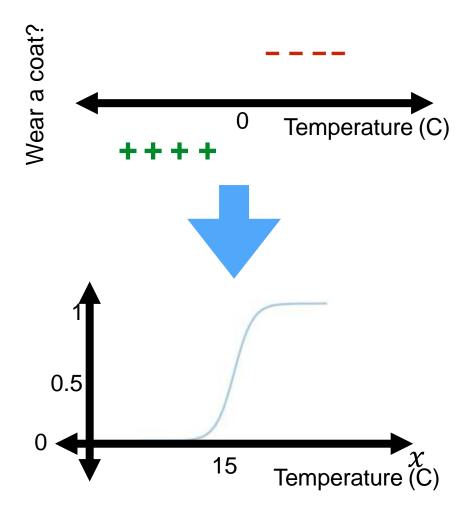


- ShanghaiTech University
- Loss J(w, b) is differentiable and convex
 Run Gradient Descent



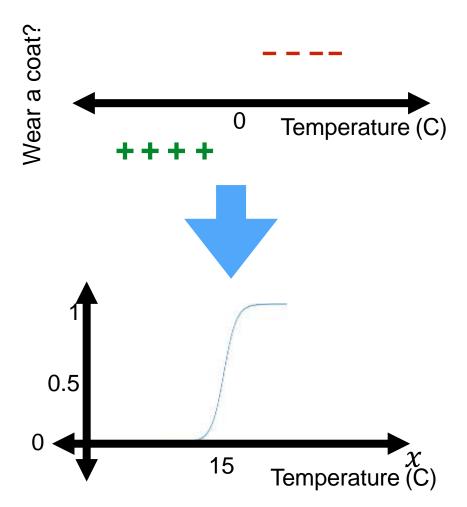
ShanghaiTech University

- Loss J(w, b) is differentiable and convex
- Run Gradient Descent



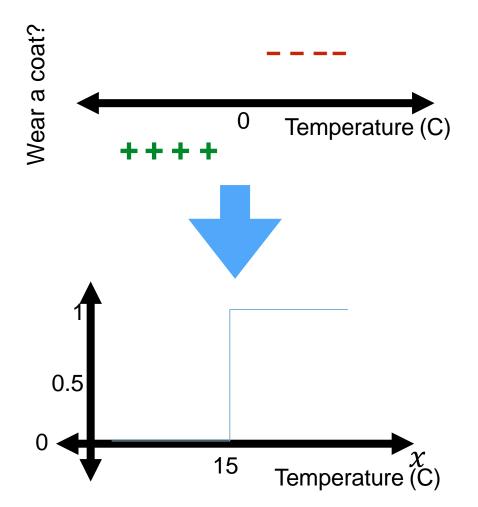
ShanghaiTech University

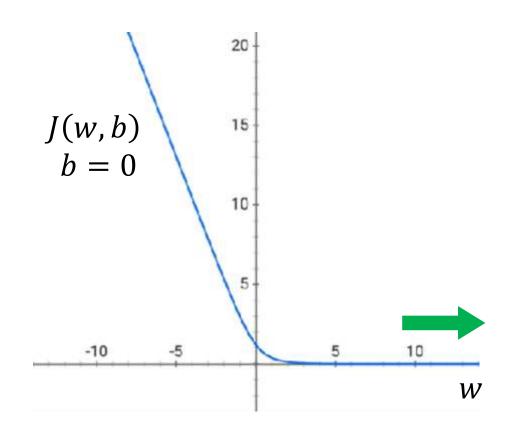
- Loss J(w, b) is differentiable and convex
- Run Gradient Descent



ShanghaiTech University

- Loss J(w, b) is differentiable and convex
- Run Gradient Descent



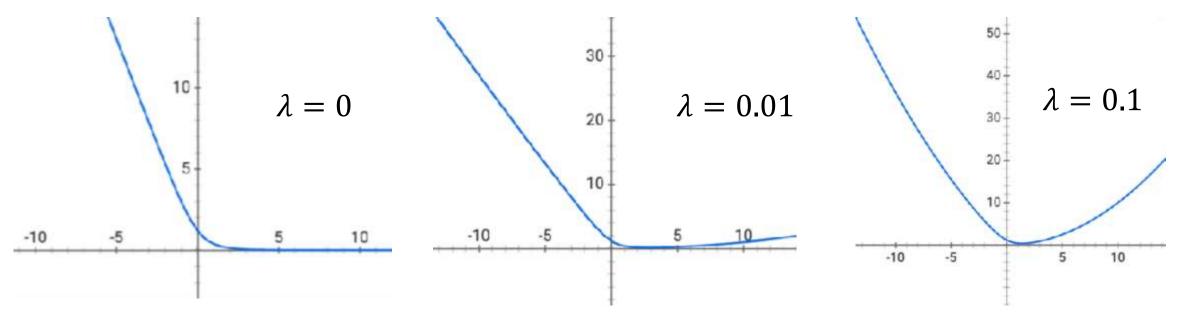


Logistic Regression Loss Revisited 上海科技大学



$$J(w,b) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{nll} (\sigma(w^{T} x^{(i)} + b), y^{(i)}) + \lambda ||w||^{2}$$

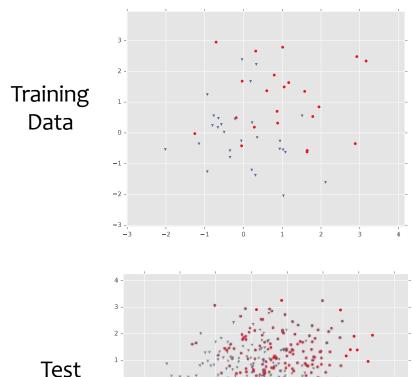
- A "regularizer" or "penalty" λ||w||²
- Penalizes being overly certain
- Objective is still differentiable & convex (gradient descent)



 How to choose hyperparameters? One option: consider a handful of possible values and compare via cross validation.

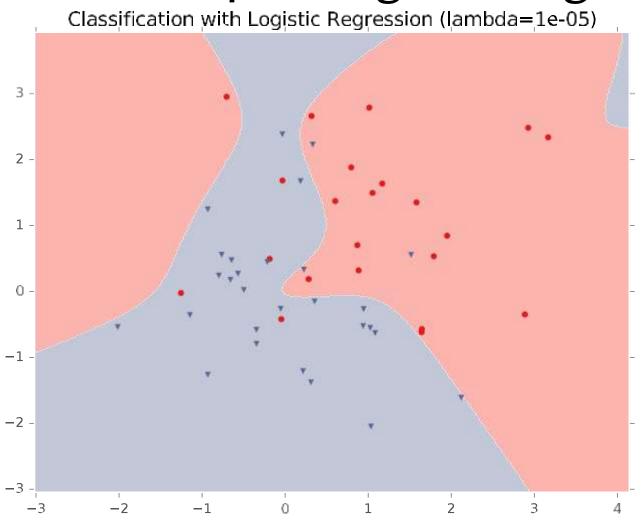


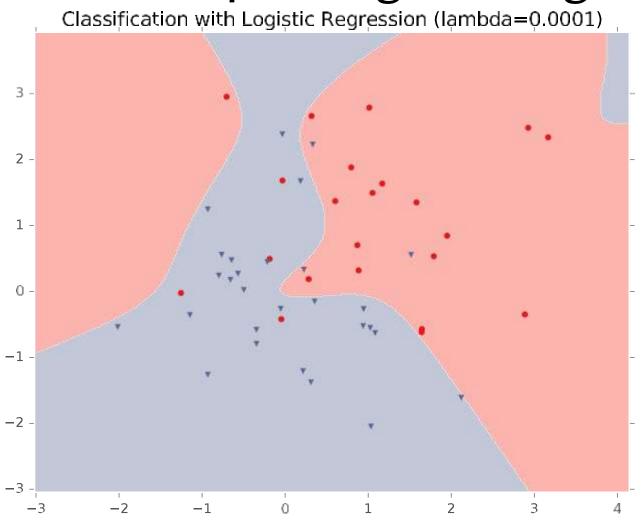


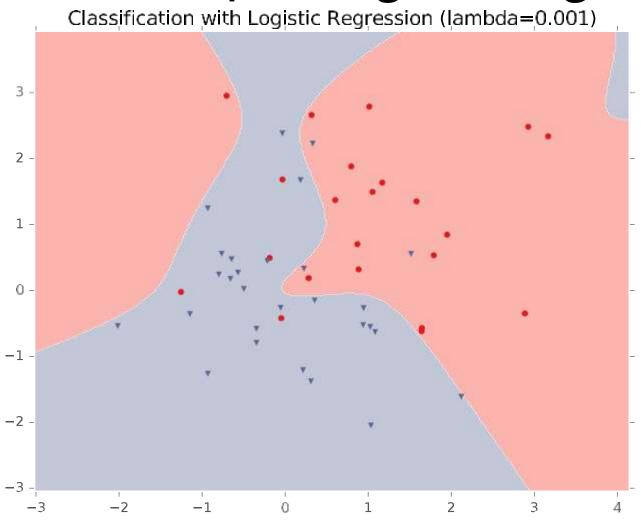


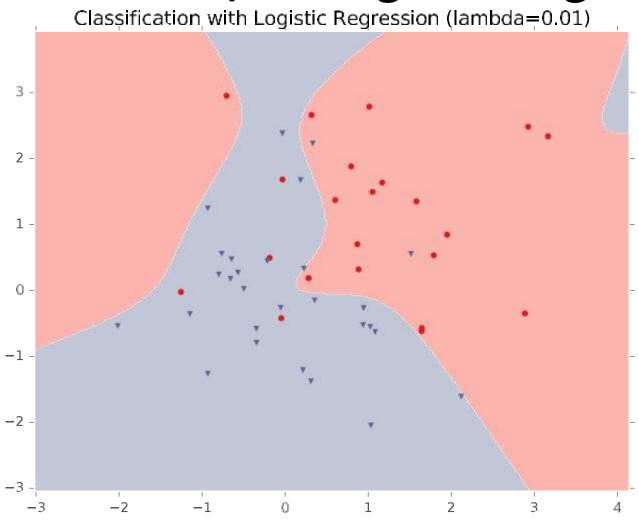
Data

- For this example, we construct nonlinear features (i.e. feature engineering)
- Specifically, we add
 polynomials up to order 9 of
 the two original features x₁
 and x₂
- Thus our classifier is linear in the high-dimensional feature space, but the decision boundary is nonlinear when visualized in low-dimensions (i.e. the original two dimensions)

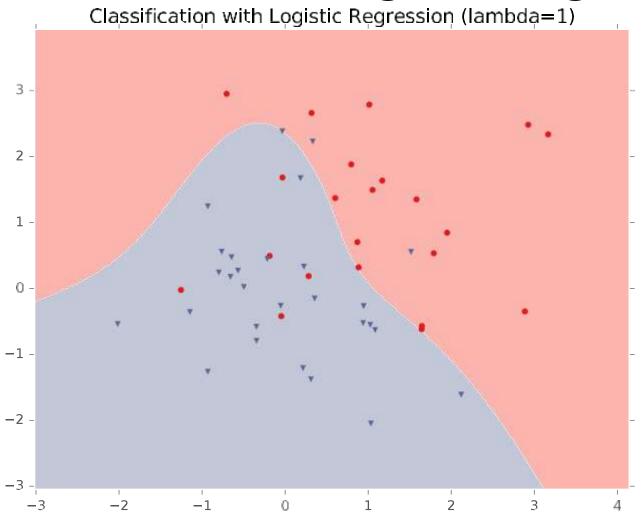




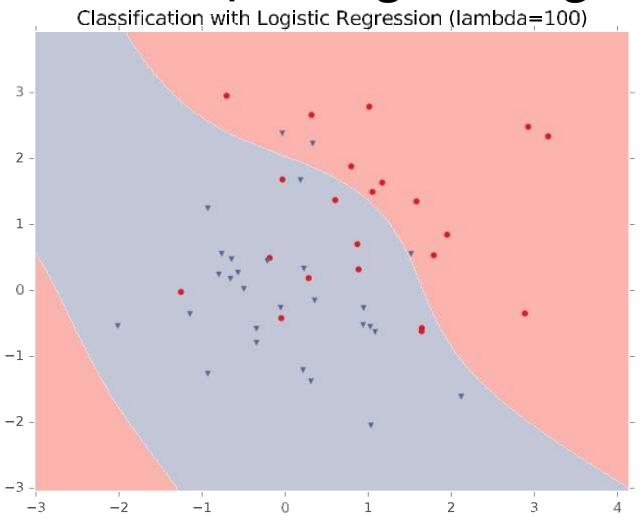


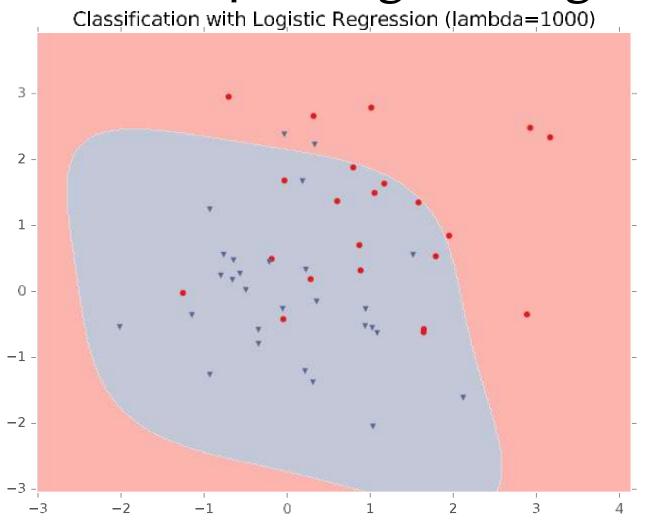


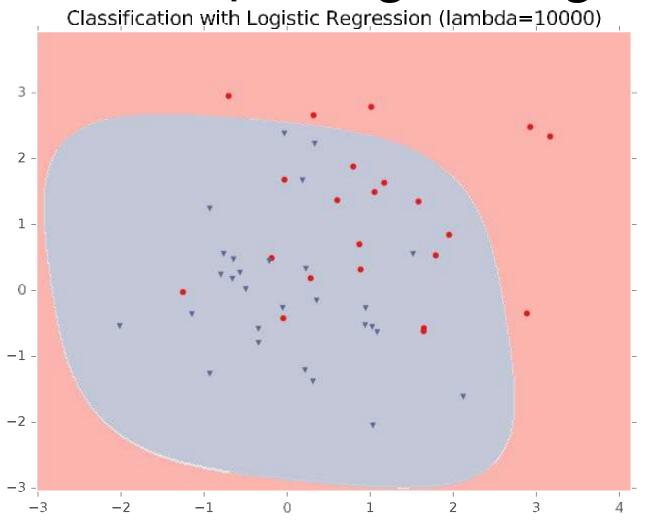


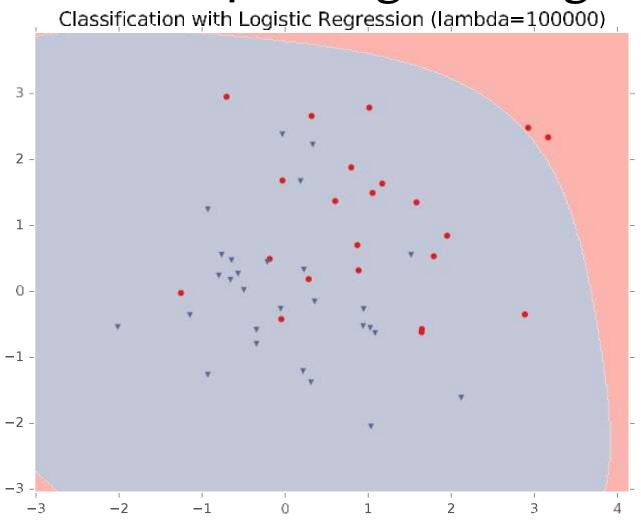


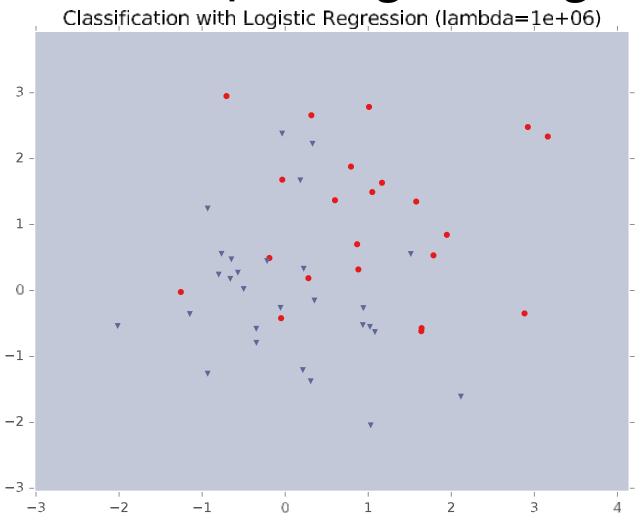


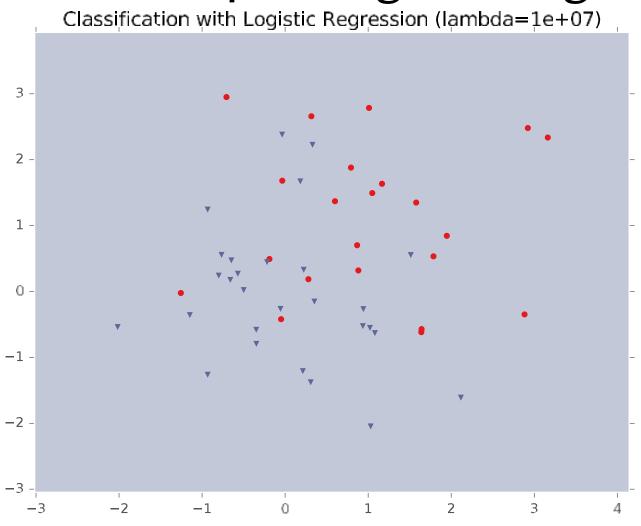




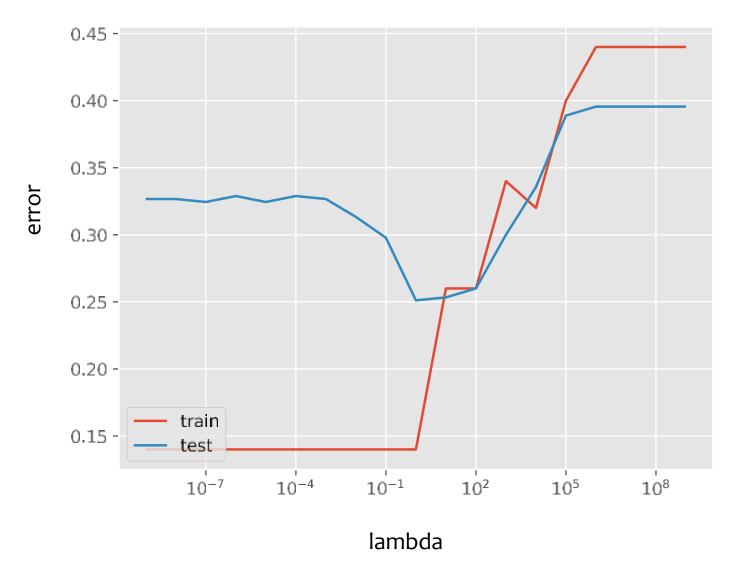


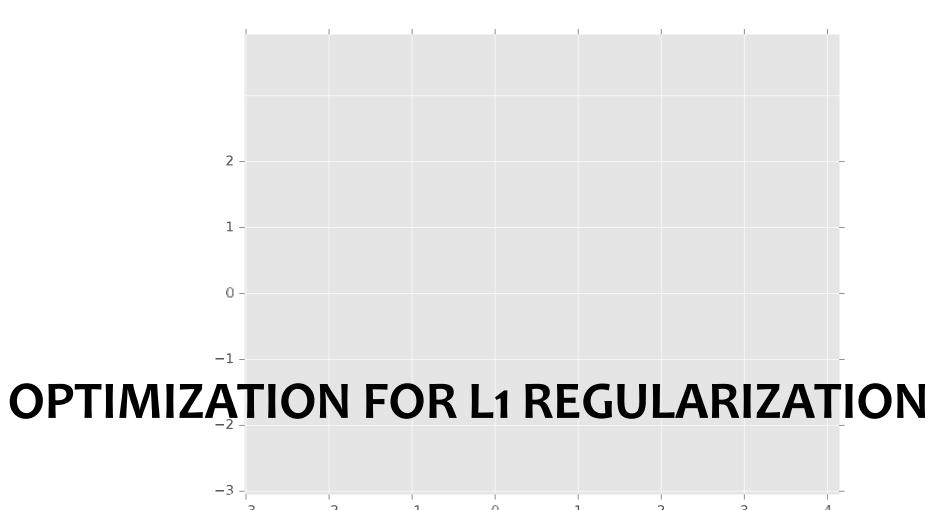






Example: Logistic Regression海科技大学 ShanghaiTech University





Optimization for L1 Regularization



Can we apply SGD to the LASSO learning problem?

argmin
$$J_{\rm LASSO}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$J_{\text{LASSO}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{\theta}||_{1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^{2} + \lambda \sum_{k=1}^{K} |\theta_{k}|$$



Consider the absolute value function:

$$r(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \lambda \sum_{k=1}^{K} |\theta_k|$$

 The L1 penalty is subdifferentiable (i.e. not differentiable at o)

Def: A vector $g \in \mathbb{R}^M$ is called a **subgradient** of a function $f(\mathbf{x})$: $\mathbb{R}^M \to \mathbb{R}$ at the point \mathbf{x} if, for all $\mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}^M$, we have:

$$f(\mathbf{x}') \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{g}^T(\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x})$$



Optimization for L1 Regularization



- The L1 penalty is subdifferentiable (i.e. not differentiable at 0)
- An array of optimization algorithms exist to handle this issue:
 - Subgradient descent
 - Stochastic subgradient descent
 - Coordinate Descent
 - Othant-Wise Limited memory Quasi-Newton (OWL-QN)
 (Andrew & Gao, 2007) and provably convergent variants
 - Block coordinate Descent (Tseng & Yun, 2009)
 - Sparse Reconstruction by Separable Approximation (SpaRSA) (Wright et al., 2009)
 - Fast Iterative Shrinkage Thresholding Algorithm (FISTA) (Beck & Teboulle, 2009)

Basically the same as GD and SGD, but you use one of the subgradients when necessary



Takeaways 上海科技大学 ShanghaiTech University

- 1. Nonlinear basis functions allow linear models (e.g. Linear Regression, Logistic Regression) to capture nonlinear aspects of the original input
- Nonlinear features are require no changes to the model (i.e. just preprocessing)
- 3. Regularization helps to avoid overfitting
- **4. Regularization** and **MAP estimation** are equivalent for appropriately chosen priors



Feature Engineering / Regularization Objectives 上海科技大学 Shanghai Tech University



You should be able to...

- Engineer appropriate features for a new task
- Use feature selection techniques to identify and remove irrelevant features
- Identify when a model is overfitting
- Add a regularizer to an existing objective in order to combat overfitting
- Explain why we should not regularize the bias term
- Convert linearly inseparable dataset to a linearly separable dataset in higher dimensions
- Describe feature engineering in common application areas