# Feature Engineering

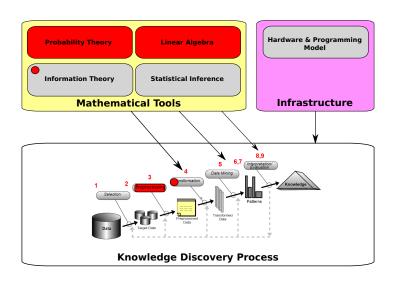
# Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining 1

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# Big picture: KDDM



# Outline

- Information Theory
- 2 Introduction
- Feature Value Processing
- Feature Engineering for Text Mining
- Feature Selection

 $\underset{\text{Review of the preprocessing phase}}{\text{Recap}}$ 

- Example of features:
- Images → colours, textures, contours, ...
- ullet Signals o frequency, phase, samples, spectrum, ...
- ullet Time series o ticks, trends, self-similarities, ...
- Biomed  $\rightarrow$  dna sequence, genes, ...
- ullet Text o words, POS tags, grammatical dependencies, ...

Features encode these properties in a way suitable for a chosen algorithm

## What is Part-of-Speech?

- The process to apply word classes to words within a sentence
- For example
  - Car → noun
  - Writing  $\rightarrow$  *noun* or *verb*
  - Grow  $\rightarrow verb$
  - From → preposition

## Open vs closed word classes

- Prepositions (closed, e.g. "of", "to", "in")
- Verbs (open, e.g. to "google")

## Main approaches for POS tagging

- Rule based
  - ENGTWOL tagger
- Transformation based
  - Brill tagger
- Stochastic
  - HMM tagger

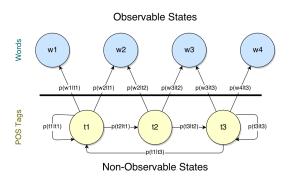
## **Sequence Tagging - Simplifications**

- ullet argmax $_{t_{1,n}} P(t_{1,n}|w_{1,n}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{t_{1,n}} P(w_{1,n}|t_{1,n}) P(t_{1,n})$ 
  - ullet  $\to$  Not feasible in practice
- Limited horizon & independence assumption:

$$P(t_{1,n}) \approx P(t_n|t_{n-1})P(t_{n-1}|t_{n-2})...P(t_2|t_1) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(t_i|t_{i-1})$$

- Words only depend on tags:  $P(w_{1,n}|t_{1,n}) \approx \prod_{i=1}^n P(w_i|t_i)$
- The final equation is:
- $\operatorname{argmax}_{\hat{t}_{1,n}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(w_i|t_i) P(t_i|t_{i-1})$

#### **Hidden Markov Models**



Needs three matrices as input: A (transmission, POS  $\mapsto$  POS), B (emission, POS  $\mapsto$  Word),  $\pi$  (initial probabilities, POS)

## Probability estimation for tagging

- How do we get such probabilities?
- → With supervised tagging we can simply use Maximum Likelihood **Estimation (MLE)** and use counts (C) from a reference corpus
  - $P(t_i|t_{i-1}) = \frac{C(t_{i-1},t_i)}{C(t_{i-1})}$
  - $P(w_i|t_i) = \frac{C(w_i,t_i)}{C(t_i)}$

## Smoothing

- To account for unseen words
- Lidstone smoothing:  $\frac{C(t_{i-1},t_i)+\lambda}{C(t_{i-1})+\lambda V(t_i-t)}$
- Need to estimate  $\lambda$ , e.g. by held-out data (development data set)

# Information Theory

Review of information theory

## What is Entropy?

- Let X be a discrete random variable with alphabet  $\mathcal{X}$  and probability mass function p(x)
- $p(x) = Pr\{X = x\}, x \in \mathcal{X}$
- The entropy of a variable X is defined as
- $H(X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) log_2 p(x)$
- ... entropy is a measure for information content of a variable (in bits)

Note 1: By convention  $0log_20 = 0$ 

Note 2: Entropy is the lower bound on the average number of yes/no questions to guess the state of a variable.



## Entropy Example 1/2

- For example, let  $\mathcal{X} = \{A, B, C, D\}$
- $\bullet$  ... each with the same probability of  $\frac{1}{4}$
- One can encode each of the values with 2 bits
- e.g. A = 00, B = 01, C = 10, D = 11

## **Entropy Example 2/2**

- What if the probabilities are not evenly distributed?
- e.g.  $A = \frac{1}{2}, B = \frac{1}{4}, C = \frac{1}{8}, D = \frac{1}{8}$
- One does only need 1.75 bits to encode
- e.g. A = 0, B = 10, C = 110, D = 111
- As one expects to see A in 50% of all cases

## What is Entropy?

- Entropy is a measure for uncertainty
- High entropy → uniform distribution
  - Histogram of the frequencies would be even
  - Values are hard to predict
- ullet Low entropy o peaks and valleys in the distribution
  - Histogram of the frequencies would have spikes
  - Values are easier to predict
- Entropy is always non-negative
- The entropy is always less (or equal) than the logarithm of the alphabet size

# Joint Entropy

## What is Joint Entropy?

- The joint entropy of a pair of discrete random variables (X; Y) with joint probability mass function p(x; y) is defined by
- $H(X,Y) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x,y) log_2 p(x,y)$
- ... can be generalised to cover more than 2 variables
- H(X, Y) = H(X) + H(Y), if X and Y are interdependent from each other

# Conditional Entropy

## What is Conditional Entropy?

- The conditional entropy of Y given X is defined as:
- $H(Y|X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x, y) log_2 p(y|x)$
- ... how much uncertainty is left, once X is known
- Connection between joint entropy and conditional entropy:
- H(Y|X) = H(X, Y) H(X)

# Conditional Entropy

## What is Specific Conditional Entropy?

- H(Y|X=x) the specific conditional entropy of Y given a specific value x of X
- e.g. if H(Y|X=x)=0, then x accounts for all the uncertainty of Y
- $H(Y|X) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x)H(Y|X=x)$

## Information Gain

### What is Information Gain?

- IG(Y|X) = H(Y) H(Y|X)
- ... how much is the uncertainty of Y reduced, once X is known
- or: One has to transmit *Y*; How many bits on average would it save if both ends of the line would know *X*?

## Information Gain

## What is Relative Information Gain?

- $RIG(Y|X) = \frac{H(Y) H(Y|X)}{H(Y)}$
- One has to transmit Y; How many fraction of bits on average would it save if both ends of the line would know X?

## Mutual Information

#### What is Mutual Information?

- The mutual information between random variables X and Y with joint probability mass function p(x, y) and marginal probability mass functions p(x) and p(y) is defined as
- $I(X;Y) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x,y) \log_2 \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$
- The mutual information is a measure of the amount of information that one random variable contains about another random variable
- I(X; Y) = 0, if X and Y are independent from each other
- Conditional mutual information:
- I(X; Y|Z) = H(X|Z) H(X|Y,Z)



## Pointwise Mutual Information

## What is Pointwise Mutual Information?

- The pointwise mutual information is defined as
- $pmi(X = x; Y = y) = i(x; y) = log_2 \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$
- Can then be normalised to:
- $pmi_{norm}(X = x; Y = y) = \frac{pmi(X = x; Y = y)}{-log_2 p(x,y)}$

## Example: For two binary variables:

	y = false	y = true
x = false	$p(\neg x, \neg y)$	$p(\neg x, y)$
x = true	$p(x, \neg y)$	p(x,y)



# Relative Entropy

## What is Relative Entropy?

- The relative entropy or between two probability mass functions p(x) and q(x) is defied by:
- $D(p||q) = \sum_{x \in X} p(x) log_2 \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$
- ... also called Kullback-Leibler distance
- The relative entropy is always non-negative and zero if and only if p=q
- Connection between mutual information and relative entropy:
- I(X; Y) = D(p(x, y)||p(x)p(y))

Note: By convention  $0\log_2\frac{0}{0}=0$ ,  $0\log_2\frac{0}{q}=0$  and  $p\log_2\frac{p}{0}=\infty$ 



# **Entropy Overview**

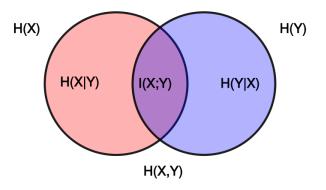


Figure: Overview of entropy, joint entropy, conditional entropy and mutual information (source: Wikipedia)

## Markov Chains

#### Markov chains

Random variables X, Y, Z are said to form a Markov chain in that order (denoted  $X \to Y \to Z$ ) if the conditional distribution of Z depends only on Y and is conditionally independent of X, ie if the joint probability mass function can be written as:

$$p(x, y, z) = p(x)p(y|x)p(z|y)$$

 $X \to Y \to Z$  if and only if X and Z are conditionally independent given Y.

## Markov chains and information theory

If 
$$X \to Y \to Z$$
 then  $I(X; Y) \ge I(X; Z)$ 



What are features & feature engineering

## What is feature engineering?

The act to inject knowledge into a Machine Learning model.

#### What are features?

The items, that represent this knowledge suitable for Machine Learning algorithms.

## What is a Machine Learning model?

The model represents the output of the learning process (knowledge representation)

Note: there is no formal definition of feature engineering



## Tasks of feature engineering

- Understand the properties of the task how they might interact with the strength and limitations of the model
- Experimental work test expectations and find out what actually works

## Process of feature engineering

- Remove unnecessary features
- Remove redundant features
- Create new features
  - Combine existing features
  - Transform features
  - Use features from the context
  - Integrate external sources
- Modify feature types
  - e.g. from binary to numeric
- Modify feature values

Note: depending on the task and the algorithms the results might differ



# Feature Engineering Goals

### Goals

The task also depends on the goal of feature engineering:

- If the goal is to get the best prediction accuracy
- 2 ... or an explainable model

Note: Second use case is often only done by researchers, or as a first step, to get a better understanding of the problem/features

# Feature Engineering Terminology

## Important Terms

Feature Set Set of features used for a task

**Feature Space** High dimensional space spawned by the features (range of the feature values)

**Instance** Single assignment of features and values (an example)

# Introduction - Example

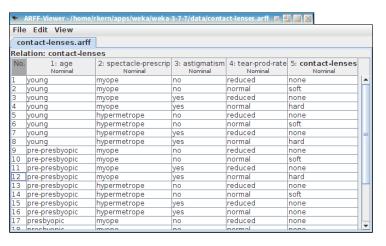


Figure: Features to predict which type of contact lens is most appropriate (none, soft, hard)

# Introduction - Example

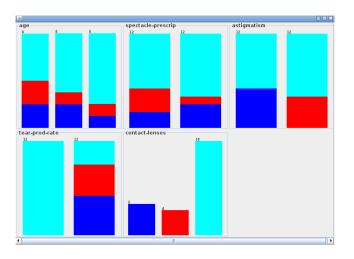


Figure: Relation between the features with the contact lens type



# Introduction - Example

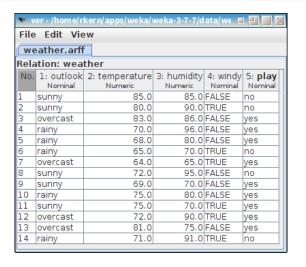


Figure: Features to decide whether to play or not based on the weather

- Features are assigned to instances:
- No dependencies/relationships between instances (in practical applications)
- Thus relationships need to be flatted out (denormalisation)
- ... by modelling features
- Complex features need to be "simplified"
- ... by creating aggregate, compound features, e.g. by using averages
- Typically features have no fixed sequence (hence the term set)
- ... by creating features that express sequence information

# Feature Value Processing Operations upon feature values...

# Feature Processing

#### Feature binarisation

- Threshold numerical values to get boolean values
- Needed as some algorithms just take boolean features as input

#### Feature discretization

- Convert continuous features to discrete features
- Equal sized partitions? Equal interval partitions?

#### Feature value transformation

- Scaling of values
- Move the centre

#### Feature Normalisation

- Normalise the value of features
- For example, most of the features are in the range [0..1],
- ... but one ranges [-1000 .. +1000]
- Classifiers like SVM struggle with this (other algorithms do not need this step, e.g. decision trees)

# Feature Weighting

- Given numeric or binary features
- ... encode their impact into the feature value
- Can be seen as prior of a feature
- e.g. "term weighting" to separate potentially words with grammatical function from word with a semantic function

# Feature Engineering for Text Mining

Tactics when dealing with text

#### **Bigram Features**

- When working with single words as features, often the sequence information is lost
- ... but, this could potentially a source of information
- ullet o introduce new feature as a combination of two adjacent words

#### **Example Bigram Features**

- Example: The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog
- Unigram features: brown, dog, fox, lazy, ...
- Bigram features: brown\_fox, fox\_jumps, lazy\_dog, over\_the, ...

#### n-grams

- Bigrams can be extended for more than two words
- ullet ightarrow n-grams
- Can be extended to allow gap in between words (skip n-grams)

#### Character n-grams

- n-gram can be created on words, but on characters as well
- e.g. The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog
- Character tri-grams: the, qui, uic, ick, bro, row, own, ...

#### External Sources

#### Integrate external sources

- Integrate evidence from external sources
- e.g. WordNet for semantic relations
- Example: The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog
- Features: the, quick, brown, fox, canine, canid, jumps, ...
- Added canine and canid from the hypernyms found in WordNet

#### External Sources

#### Noun • S: (n) fox (alert carnivorous mammal with pointed muzzle and ears and a bushy tail; most are predators that do not hunt in packs) direct hyponym / full hyponym direct hypernym/ inherited hypernym/ sister term . S: (n) canine, canid (any of various fissiped mammals with nonretractile claws and typically long muzzles) S: (n) dodger, fox, slyboots (a shifty deceptive person) . S: (n) fox (the grey or reddish-brown fur of a fox) . S: (n) Fox, Charles James Fox (English statesman who supported American independence and the French Revolution (1749-1806)) . S; (n) Fox, George Fox (English religious leader who founded the Society of Friends (1624-1691)) S: (n) Fox (a member of an Algonquian people formerly living west of Lake Michigan along the Fox River) . S: (n) Fox (the Algonquian language of the Fox) Verb . S: (v) flim-flam, play a joke on, play tricks, trick, fob, fox, pull a fast one on, play a trick on (deceive somebody) "We tricked the teacher into thinking that class would be cancelled next week\* S: (v) confuse, throw, fox, befuddle, fuddle, bedevil, confound, discombobulate (be confusing or perplexing to; cause to be unable to think clearly) "These questions confuse even the experts"; "This question completely threw me"; "This question hefuddled even the teacher" S: (v) fox (become discolored with, or as if with, mildew spots)

Figure: Wordnet entry for the word fox, the first sense contains the hypernyms canine and canid.

Less is more - sometimes...

#### Feature engineering can be classified into two use cases

- Modelling for prediction accuracy
  - Default, if the goal is to have a productive system
  - ... with optimal performance
- Modelling for explanations
  - When the model should be easy to interpret
  - ... one can acquire better knowledge of the problem
  - ... and then to improve the feature engineering task

If a model uses fewer features

- ... it is easier to interpret
- ... it will generalise better (less risk of overfitting)
- ... it will be faster (more efficient)

#### **Curse of Dimensionality**

- The problem of having too many features
- More features make the model more expressive
- but not all of the features are relevant
- The higher the dimensionality, the higher the chances of spurious features

## Approaches towards reducing the complexity

- Feature selection
- Regularisation
- Kernels



#### Feature selection

- Approach: select the sub-set of all features without redundant or irrelevant features
- ullet Set-of-all-subset problem o NP hard
- Need to find more practical approaches
  - Unsupervised, e.g. heuristics
  - Supervised, e.g. using a training data set
- Simple approach: each subset only consists of a single feature

- ullet Simple approach o use heuristics
- Black & white lists
- ... list contains features, which either should not be used
- ... or an exclusive list of features

#### **Example for black list**

- Stop-word list for textual features
- ... list of frequent word, that carry little semantics
- e.g. the, you, again, can, ...
- Advantage: simple, yet effective
- Disadvantage: some may carry semantic, used in phrases or named entities ("The The"), homonyms (can.v vs. can.n)

#### Unsupervised approach

- Unsupervised ranked feature selection
- Scoring function to rank the feature according to their importance
- ... then just use the top 5% (10%, 25%, ...)
- e.g. for textual data use the frequency of words within a reference corpus

Feature	Count	Freq.
the	3,032,573	0.879
in	2,919,623	0.846
a	2,903,352	0.841
of	2,888,379	0.837
is	2,639,282	0.765
and	2,634,096	0.763
:	:	:
•		
with	1,703,251	0.494

Table: Top 50 word within the Wikipedia, the top ranked word (the) occurs in 88% of all instances.

#### Supervised approaches

#### Filter approaches

- Compute some measure for estimating the ability to discriminate between classes
- ullet Typically measure feature weight and select the best n features ightarrow supervised ranked feature selection
- Problems:
  - Redundant features (correlated features will all have similar weights)
  - Dependant features (some features may only be important in combination)

#### Wrapper approaches

- Search through the space of all possible feature subsets
- Each search subset is tried with the learning algorithm

## Feature Selection - Information Gain

#### Information gain as ranking function

- Recall: IG(Y|X) = H(Y) H(Y|X)
- Select features by IG
  - Compute the IG for each feature
  - 2 Rank the features based on IG
  - Select the top-k features

#### Example

#### Features on contact lenses

#### Ranked attributes:

```
0.5488 4 tear-prod-rate
```

0.0394 1 age

# Feature Selection - Wrapper Approach

#### Wrapper approach

- General algorithm:
  - Initial subset selection
  - Try a subset with a learner
  - Modify the feature subset
  - Measure the difference
  - GOTO 2
- Advantages: combination of features, ignore redundant/irrelevant features
- Disadvantage: computationally intensive
- 2 basic ways for i) initial subset selection, ii) modification of subset: forward selection and backward elimination

# Feature Selection - Wrapper Approach

#### Forward Selection

- Start with empty set
- Add each feature not in set
- Pick the one with the highest increase
- Stop if there is no increase

#### **Backward Elimination**

- Start with full feature set
- Try to remove features

#### Feature Interactions

- From the field of statistics
- e.g. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Non-trivial relationship between variables (features)
- Link to Information Theory Interaction Information

# Regularisation

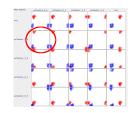
- Basic idea: Integrate penalty for complexity of a model
- The more features, the higher the complexity
- If the number of feature exceeds the number of observations
- Typically the regularizer is integrated into the cost function (or loss function)
- Example (negative log-likelihood): cost(f) = -I(f) + regularizer(f)
- e.g.  $L_0$  ... taking the number of non-zero features,  $L_1$  ... sum of the feature values, ...

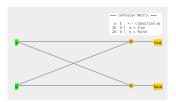
- Some algorithms can only solve certain problems
- e.g. Perceptrons apply only to linearly separable data
- XOR problem for single layer perceptrons
- ullet two main approaches: i) non-linear transformation of the features, ii) more sophisticated algorithms

#### Feature transformation

- Map features into high-dimensional space
- Create more features
- The more features, the higher the dimensionality
- The higher the dimensionality, the higher the chances that the problem is linearly separable









Left: original features, which cannot be separated by a single layer perceptron;

Right: features transformed into a higher dimensional space, is linear separable

#### Kernel trick

- Some algorithms employ a scalar product of the features (e.g. SVMs)
- Transform into higher dimensionality "on-the-fly"
- ... by introducing a function
- Original:  $\langle x, y \rangle$ , with kernel function:  $\langle \varphi(x), \varphi(y) \rangle$
- Number of different well-known kernel functions (e.g. Gaussian kernel)
- ... which often require parameters (to tune)

# Thank You!

Next up: Data Matrices

#### **Further information**

```
http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~awm/tutorials
http://www.icg.isy.liu.se/courses/infotheory/lect1.pdf
http://www.cs.princeton.edu/courses/archive/spring10/cos424/slides/18-feat.pdf
http://ufal.mff.cuni.cz/~zabokrtsky/courses/npf1104/html/feature_engineering.pdf
http://www.ke.tu-darmstadt.de/lehre/archiv/ss06/web-mining/wm-features.pdf
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