

Feature Selection

Data Mining 11 (データマイニング)

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Today's Outline

- Today's topic is feature selection
 - Find relevant variables from datasets
- Feature selection detects variables, or features, that are associated with the target variable from the set of all variables in a given dataset
 - The target variable can be binary (0 and 1 for cases and controls) in a case-control study or continuous

Variable Ranking (Filter Method)

- 1. Measure the degree of association between the target variable and each variable by some scoring method
 - Pearson's correlation coefficient
 - Mutual information
- 2. Rank variables using the score
 - The above two-step procedure is called the filter method

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

- (Pearson's) correlation coefficient ρ measures the linear association between two variables
 - The larger the absolute value $|\rho|$ is, the stronger the association is
 - $\rho > 0$ means the positive correlation, $\rho < 0$ the negative correlation
- ρ between two random variables X and Y is defined as

$$\rho = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{\mathbf{E} \Big[(X - \mathbf{E}[X])(Y - \mathbf{E}[Y]) \Big]}{\sqrt{\mathbf{E} \Big[(X - E[X])^2 \Big] \mathbf{E} \Big[(Y - E[Y])^2 \Big]}}$$

- σ_{XY} is the covariance, σ_{X} is the standard deviation
- $\mathbf{E}[X]$ is the expectation

Sample Correlation Coefficient

• Given a dataset (sample) $D = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ..., (x_N, y_N)\}$, the sample correlation coefficient r is computed as

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \overline{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \overline{y})^2}},$$

$$\overline{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i, \quad \overline{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i$$

Properties of Correlation Coefficient

- $-1 \le \rho \le 1$ and 1, -1 are the strongest correlation
- X and Y are independent $\Rightarrow \rho(x) = 0$
 - X and Y are (statistically) independent if $P(X \cup Y) = P(X)P(Y)$ and denoted by $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$
- However, $[\rho(x) = 0 \Rightarrow X \text{ and } Y \text{ are independent}]$ does not hold
 - $\rho(x)$ can be 0 for nonlinear association

Mutual Information

 For a pair of discrete random variables X and Y, the mutual information is defined as

$$I(X,Y) = \sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x,y) \log \left(\frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)} \right)$$

- p(x, y): joint probability, p(x) and p(y): marginal probability
- Properties:
 - $I(X, Y) \ge 0$
 - $I(X,Y) = H(X) + H(Y) H(X,Y) = H(X) H(Y \mid X)$
 - H(X) is the entropy: $-\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \log p(x)$
 - H(X,Y) is the joint entropy: $-\sum_{x\in X}\sum_{v\in Y}p(x,y)\log p(x,y)$

Properties of Mutual Information

Pros:

- The mutual information can measure both linear and nonlinear associations
 - $\circ X$ and Y are independent $\iff I(X,Y) = 0$

Cons:

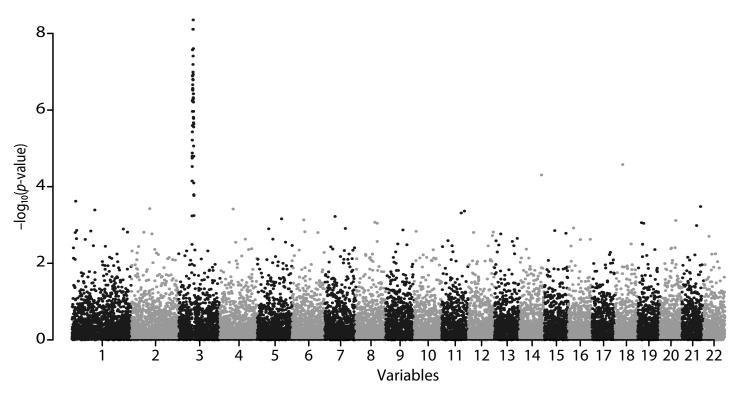
- Additional discretization is needed to estimate the mutual information for continuous variables
- Not normalized in the original form, but can be normalized by

$$I^*(X,Y) = \frac{I(X,Y)}{\sqrt{H(X)H(Y)}}$$

Computing the *p*-value

- p-value shows the probability of getting the dataset with assuming that there is no association between variables
 - Often used in science, e.g. biology
- Permutation test can be used to compute the p-value
 - (i) Compute the association score s of the given dataset
 - (ii) Repeat the following h times and get h scores $s_1, s_2, ..., s_h$:
 - a. Fix *x* and permute indices of *y*
 - b. Compute the score using the permuted indices
 - (iii) The *p*-value = $|\{i \in [h] | s_i > s\}| / h$

Manhattan Plot for Visualization



Properties of Filter Method

Pros:

- Easy to use
- Easy to understand

Cons:

- Redundant features might be selected as interactions between variables are not considered
 - If a dataset contains exactly the same variables that have the strong association with the target variable, both variables are selected

Wrapper Method

- A wrapper method repeats to construct a classifier for each subset of variables
 - (i) Given a dataset with n variables $X^1, X^2, ..., X^n$ and a target variable Y
 - (ii) Repeat the following for every subset $I \subseteq [n]$
 - a. Construct a subset of the dataset using only variables in *I*
 - b. Apply classification and measure the goodness (e.g. MSE)
 - (i) Choose the best subset
- It is computationally too expensive if n is large

Embedded Method

- Variables are automatically selected during the process of learning a prediction model from a dataset
- The representative method: the Lasso
 - It learns a linear prediction model, where a set of variables, which receive nonzero coefficients, is automatically selected in the learning process by regularizing the number of variables
 - The joint additive effect of selected variables maximizes the prediction accuracy of the model

The Lasso

The Lasso is the following optimization problem

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{w}_0} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}_i \rangle - w_0)^2 \quad \text{s.t. } ||\boldsymbol{w}||_1 \le t$$

- $||w||_1 = \sum_{j=1}^n |w^j| (\ell_1 \text{-norm})$
- Minimizing squared error loss with the constraint
- The solution typically has many of the w^j equal to zero
 - $\{j \in [n] \mid w^j \neq 0\}$, called the active set, is considered to be the set of selected variables

The Lasso

More convenient Lagrange form of the Lasso;

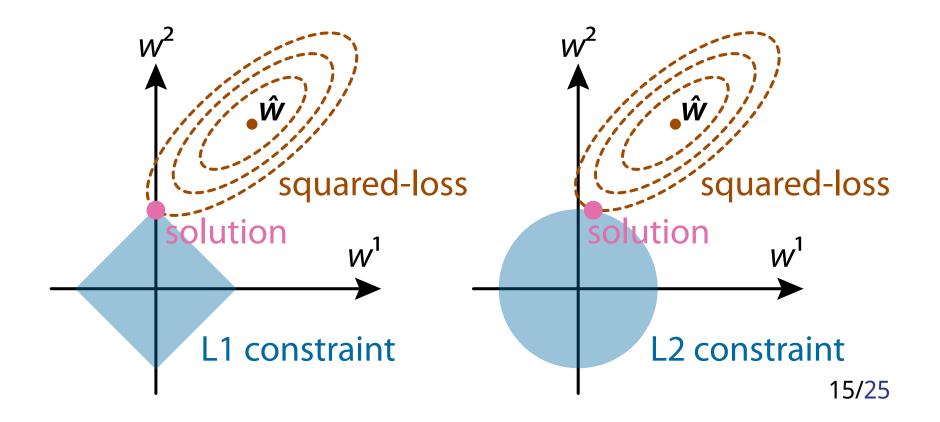
$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w}, w_0} \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}_i \rangle - w_0)^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||_1$$

If we center the dataset beforehand, it can be written as

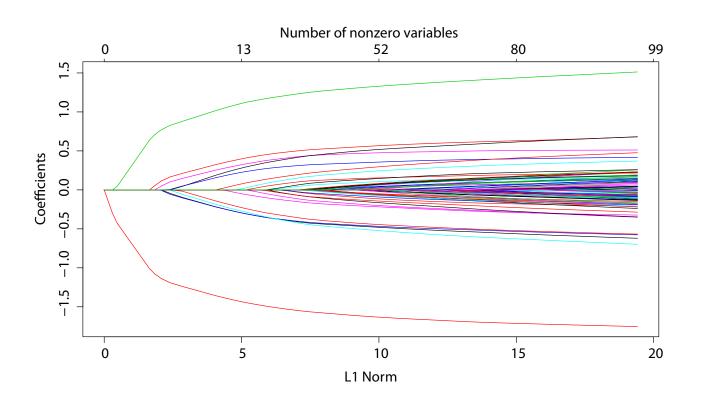
$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \langle \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{x}_i \rangle)^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||_1,$$

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{w}} \frac{1}{2N} ||\boldsymbol{y} - X\boldsymbol{w}||_2^2 + \lambda ||\boldsymbol{w}||_1,$$

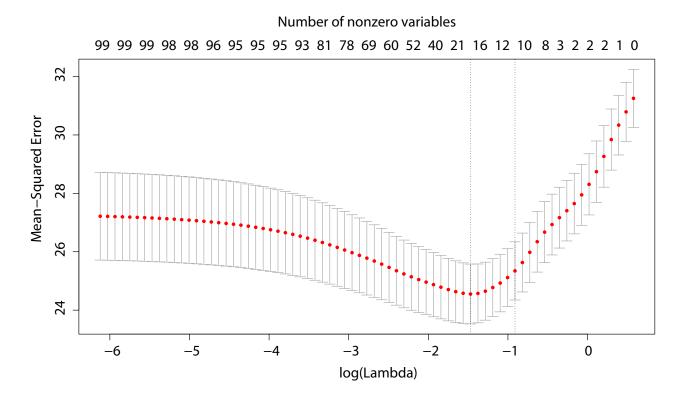
Lasso Constraint



Regularization Path (N = 1000, n = 100)



MSE (N = 1000, n = 100)



Fitting of the Lasso

Solution of the Lasso problem satisfies the subgradient condition:

$$\begin{aligned} & -\frac{1}{n} \langle \boldsymbol{x}^{j}, \boldsymbol{y} - X \hat{\boldsymbol{w}} \rangle + \lambda s^{j} = 0, \quad j = 1, 2, ..., n \\ & - \boldsymbol{x}^{j} = (x_{1}^{j}, x_{2}^{j}, ..., x_{N}^{j}) \in \mathbb{R}^{N} \\ & - s_{j} = \text{sign}(\hat{w}^{j}) \text{ if } \hat{w}^{j} \neq 0 \text{ and } s_{j} \in [-1, 1] \text{ if } \hat{w}^{j} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{cases} -\frac{1}{n} \left| \langle \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{y} - X \hat{\mathbf{w}} \rangle \right| = \lambda, & \text{if } w^j \neq 0, \\ -\frac{1}{n} \left| \langle \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{y} - X \hat{\mathbf{w}} \rangle \right| \leq \lambda, & \text{if } w^j = 0, \end{cases}$$

• $\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$ is a piecewise-linear function w.r.t. $\lambda \to \text{LAR}$ algorithm

Algorithm 1: Least Angle Regression

```
1 LAR(X, y)

2 Standardize X (mean zero, unit \ell 2 norm)

3 r_0 = y - \overline{y}, w_0 \leftarrow (0, 0, ..., 0)

4 Find x^j which has the largest correlation |\langle x^j, r_0 \rangle|

5 \lambda_0 \leftarrow (1/N)|\langle x^j, r_0 \rangle|; A \leftarrow \{j\}; X_A \leftarrow X with only A = \{j\}

6 foreach k \in \{1, 2, ..., K = \min\{N - 1, n\}\} do

7 LAREACH(X, Y, A, \lambda_{k-1}, r_{k-1}, w_{k-1})
```

Algorithm 2: Least Angle Regression

```
1 LAREACH(X, y, A, \lambda_{k-1}, r_{k-1}, w_{k-1})
\mathbf{2} \quad \mid \quad \delta \leftarrow (1/n\lambda_{k-1})(X_{\Delta}^T X)^{-1} X_{\Delta}^T \boldsymbol{r}_{k-1}
\Delta \leftarrow (0,0,...,0); \Delta_{\Delta} \leftarrow \delta
4 \mathbf{w}(\lambda) \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_{(k-1)} + (\lambda_{k-1} - \lambda)\Delta for 0 < \lambda \le \lambda_{k-1}
5 r(\lambda) \leftarrow y - Xw(\lambda) = r_{k-1} - (\lambda_{k-1} - \lambda)X_A\delta
6 Decrease \lambda and find \ell \notin A that first achieves
           (1/N)|\langle \mathbf{x}^j, \mathbf{r}(\lambda)\rangle| = \lambda
           A \leftarrow A \cup \{\ell\}; \ \boldsymbol{w}_k \leftarrow \beta(\lambda_k); \ \boldsymbol{r}_k \leftarrow \boldsymbol{y} - X\boldsymbol{w}_{(k)}
```

Dimension Reduction

- Dimension reduction also reduces the number of variables
- Variables are not directly selected but transformed into principal variables
- t-SNE (t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding) is recently becoming a popular method and often used to visualize a multi-dimensional dataset (van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008)
 - This can be used for visualization

t-SNE

• Given a dataset $D = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_N\}$, define $p_{j|i}$ for each $i, j \in [N]$ as

$$p_{j|i} = \frac{\exp(-||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j||^2 / 2\sigma_i^2)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp(-||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_k||^2 / 2\sigma_i^2)}$$

- σ_i is the variance of the Gaussian
- $-p_{i|i}=0$
- We also use $p_{ij} = (p_{j|i} + p_{i|j})/2N$
- **Goal:** Find low-dimensional $y_1, y_2, ..., y_N$ of the original $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$ with keeping the proxy between points

How to Set Variance

- Given the perplexity as a parameter, which is defined as $\operatorname{Perp}(P_i) = 2^{H(P_i)}$ for a distribution P_i and its entropy $H(P_i)$ such that $H(P_i) = -\sum_j p_{j|i} \log p_{j|i}$
- For each $i \in [N]$, find σ_i^2 that satisfies the given perplexity
- In practice, the perplexity from 5 to 50 is recommended

t-SNE Formulation

• For low-dimensional y_i , y_j of x_i , x_j ,

$$q_{ij} = \frac{\left(1 + ||\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_j||^2\right)^{-1}}{\sum_k \sum_{l \neq k} \left(1 + ||\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{y}_l||^2\right)^{-1}}$$

- The cost C is the KL divergence: $C = D_{KL}(P,Q) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} p_{ij} \log \frac{p_{ij}}{q_{ij}}$
- t-SNE finds low-dimensional $y_1, y_2, ..., y_N$ that minimizes the cost C
 - The gradient descent can be used for optimization

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial \mathbf{y}_i} = 4\sum_j (p_{ij} - q_{ij})(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_j) \left(1 + ||\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_j||^2\right)^{-1}$$

Summary

- Feature selection can find relevant variables (features)
 - Filter method, wrapper method, embedded method
- The Lasso is the representative embedded method
- t-SNE is the representative dimension reduction method