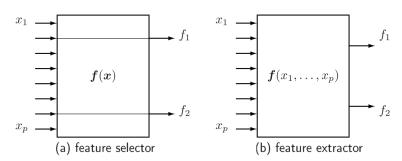
Feature selection - Victor Kitov

## Feature selection

Victor Kitov

#### Feature selection

Feature selection is a process of selecting a subset of original features with minimum loss of information related to final task (classification, regression, etc.)



## Applications of feature selection

- Why feature selection?
  - increase predictive accuracy of classifier
  - improve optimization stability by removing multicollinearity
  - increase computational efficiency
  - reduce cost of future data collection
  - make classifier more interpretable
- Not always necessary step:
  - some methods have implicit feature selection
    - decision trees and tree-based (RF, ERT, boosting)
  - regularization

## Types of features

Define f - the feature,  $F = \{f_1, f_2, ... f_D\}$  - full set of features,  $S = F \setminus \{f\}$ .

Strongly relevant feature:

$$p(y|f,S) \neq p(y|S)$$

• Weakly relevant feature:

$$p(y|f,S) = p(y|S)$$
, but  $\exists S' \subset S : p(y|f,S') \neq p(y|S')$ 

Irrelevant feature:

$$\forall S' \subset S : p(y|f,S') = p(y|S')$$

#### Aim of feature selection

Find minimal subset  $S \subset F$  such that  $P(y|S) \approx P(y|F)$ , i.e. leave only relevant and non-redundant features.

# Specification

- Need to specify:
  - quality criteria J(X)
  - subset generation method  $S_1, S_2, S_3, ...$

## Types of feature selection algorithms

- Completeness of search:
  - Complete
    - exhaustive search complexity is  $2^D 1$ .
  - Suboptimal
    - deterministic
    - random (deterministic with randomness / completely random)
- Integration with predictor
  - independent (filter methods)
  - uses predictor quality (wrapper methods)
  - is embedded inside predictor (embedded methods)

## Classifer dependency types

#### filter methods

- rely only on general measures of dependency between features and output
- more universal
- are computationally efficient

# Classifer dependency types

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- rely only on general measures of dependency between features and output
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- subsets of variables are evaluated with respect to the quality of final classification
- give better performance than filter methods
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## Classifer dependency types

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#### wrapper methods

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- give better performance than filter methods
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#### embedded methods

- feature selection is built into the classifier
- feature selection and model tuning are done jointly
- ullet example: classification trees, methods with  $L_1$  regularization.

### Table of Contents

- Filter methods
  - Kullback-Leibler divergence & entropy
  - Mutual information
  - Probability measures
  - Context relevant measures
  - Cluster measures
- Peature subsets generation

## Correlation

• two class:

$$\rho(f,y) = \frac{\sum_{i} (f_{i} - \bar{f})(y_{i} - \bar{y})}{\left[\sum_{i} (f_{i} - \bar{f})^{2} \sum_{i} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}\right]^{1/2}} = \frac{a}{b}$$

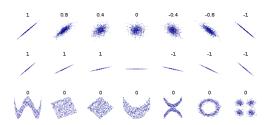
• multiclass  $\omega_1, \omega_2, ...\omega_C$  (micro averaged  $\rho(f, y_c) c = 1, 2, ...C.$ )

$$R^{2} = \frac{\sum_{c=1}^{C} \left[ \sum_{i} (f_{i} - \bar{f})(y_{ic} - \bar{y}_{c}) \right]^{2}}{\sum_{c=1}^{C} \sum_{i} (f_{i} - \bar{f})^{2} \sum_{i} (y_{ic} - \bar{y}_{c})^{2}} = \frac{\sum_{c} a_{c}^{2}}{\sum_{c} b_{c}^{2}}$$

- Benefits:
  - simple to compute
  - applicable both to continuous and discrete features/output.
  - does not require calculation of p.d.f.

## Correlation for non-linear relationship

- Correlation captures only linear relationship.
- Example:  $X \sim Uniform[-1,1], Y = X^2$ . X, Y are uncorrelated but dependent.
- Other examples of data and its correlation:



- Filter methods
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## Kullback-Leibler divergence

#### Kullback-Leibler divergence

For two p.d.f. P(x) and Q(x) Kullback-Leibler divergence KL(P||Q) equals  $\sum_{x} P(x) \ln \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ 

### Properties:

- defined only for P(x) and Q(x) such that  $Q(x) = 0 \Rightarrow P(x) = 0$
- $KL(P||Q) \geq 0$
- $P(x) = Q(x) \forall x \le KL(P||Q) = 0$  (for discrete r.v.)
- $KL(P||Q) \neq KL(Q||P)$

## Kullback-Leibler divergence

- Symmetrical distance:  $KL_{sym}(P||Q) = KL(P||Q) + KL(Q||P)$
- Information theoretic meaning:
  - true data distribution P(x)
  - estimated data distribution Q(x)

$$KL(P||Q) = -\sum_{x} P(x) \ln Q(x) + \sum_{x} P(x) \ln P(x)$$

• KL(P||Q) shows how much longer will be the average length of the code word.

## Entropy

• Entropy of random variable Y:

$$H(Y) = -\sum_{y} p(y) \ln p(y)$$

- level of uncertainty of Y
- proportional to the average number of bits needed to code the outcome of Y using optimal coding scheme  $(-\ln p(y))$  for outcome y.
- Entropy of Y after observing X:

$$H(Y|X) = -\sum_{x} p(x) \sum_{y} p(y|x) \ln p(y|x)$$

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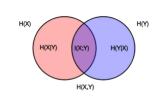
## Mutual information

Mutual information measures how much X gives information about Y:

$$MI(X,Y) = \sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \ln \left[ \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)} \right] = KL(p(x,y)||p(x)p(y))$$

#### Properties:

- MI(X, Y) = MI(Y, X)
- $MI(X, Y) = KL(p(x, y)||p(x)p(y)) \ge 0$
- $\bullet \ MI(X,Y) = H(Y) H(Y|X)$
- $MI(X, Y) \leq \min\{H(X), H(Y)\}$
- X, Y- independent <=> MI(X, Y) = 0 (for discrete r.v.)
- X completely identifies Y, then  $MI(X,Y) = H(Y) \le H(X)$

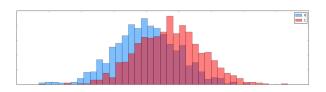


## Mutual information for feature selection

- Normalized variant  $NMI(X, Y) = \frac{MI(X, Y)}{H(Y)}$  equals
  - zero, when P(Y|X) = P(Y)
  - one, when X completely identifies Y.
- Properties of MI and NMI:
  - identifies arbitrary non-linear dependencies
  - requires calculation of probability distributions
  - continuous variables need to be discretized

- Filter methods
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## Relevance based on probabilistic distance



Measure of feature f relevance - distance between  $p(f|\omega_1)$  and  $p(f|\omega_2)$ 

# Distances between probability density functions

Let 
$$f(x) = p(f|\omega_i)$$
 and  $g(x) = p(f|\omega_j)$ .

- Total variation:  $\frac{1}{2} \int |f(x) g(x)| dx$ ,
- Euclidean:  $\frac{1}{2} \left( \int (f(x) g(x))^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$
- Hellinger:  $\left(\frac{1}{2}\int \left(\sqrt{f(x)}-\sqrt{g(x)}\right)^2 dx\right)^{1/2}$
- Symmetrical KL:  $\int (f(x) g(x)) \ln \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$

# Distances between cumulative probability functions

Let 
$$F(x) = P(f \le x | \omega_i)$$
 and  $G(x) = P(f \le x | \omega_j)$ :

- Kolmogorov:  $\sup_{x} |F(x) G(x)|$
- Kantorovich:  $\int |F(x) G(x)| dx$
- $L_p$ :  $(\int |F(x) G(x)|^p dx)^{1/p}$

#### Other

#### Multiclass extensions:

Suppose, we have a two-class distance score  $J(\omega_i, \omega_j)$ . We can extend it to multiclass case using:

$$J = \max_{\omega_i, \omega_j} J(\omega_i, \omega_j)$$

$$J = \sum_{i < j} p(\omega_i) p(\omega_j) J(\omega_i, \omega_j)$$

Presented criteria compare probabilities given 2 different classes. We may also compare class-unconditional feature distribution with class-conditional feature distribution.

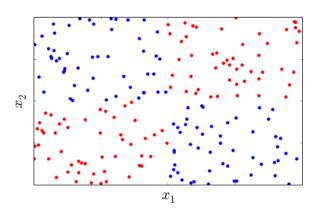
## Filter methods

- Kullback-Leibler divergence & entropy
- Mutual information
- Probability measures
- Context relevant measures
- Cluster measures

#### Relevance in context

Individually features may not predict the class, but may be relevant together:

$$p(y|x_1) = p(y), p(y|x_2) = p(y), \text{ but } p(y|x_1, x_2) \neq p(y)$$



## Relief criterion

#### INPUT:

Training set  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ...(x_N, y_N)$ Number of neighbours KDistance metric d(x, x') # usually Euclidean

for each pattern  $x_n$  in  $x_1, x_2, ...x_N$ :

calculate K nearest neighbours of the same class  $y_n$ :

 $X_{s(n,1)}, X_{s(n,2)}, ... X_{s(n,K)}$ 

calculate K nearest neighbours of class different from  $y_n$ :

$$X_{d(n,1)}, X_{d(n,2)}, ... X_{d(n,K)}$$

for each feature  $f_i$  in  $f_1, f_2, ... f_D$ :

calculate relevance 
$$R(f_i) = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{|x_n^i - x_{d(n,k)}^i|}{|x_n^i - x_{s(n,k)}^i|}$$

#### OUTPUT:

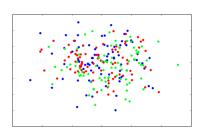
feature relevances R

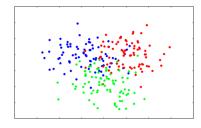
- Filter methods
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#### Cluster measures

#### General idea of cluster measures

Feature subset is good if observations belonging to different classes group into different clusters.





## Cluster measures

#### Define:

- $z_{ic} = \mathbb{I}[y_i = \omega_c]$ , N-number of samples,  $N_i$ -number of samples belonging to class  $\omega_i$ .
- $m = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_{i}$ ,  $m_{c} = \frac{1}{N_{c}} \sum_{i} z_{ic} x_{i}$ , j = 1, 2, ... C.
- Global covariance:  $\Sigma = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (x m)(x m)^{T}$ ,
- Intraclass covariances:  $\Sigma_c = \frac{1}{N_c} \sum_i z_{ic} (x_i m_c) (x_i m_c)^T$
- Within class covariance:  $S_W = \sum_{c=1}^C rac{N_c}{N} \Sigma_c$
- Between class covariance:  $S_B = \sum_{c=1}^{C} rac{N_c}{N} (m_c m) (m_c m)^T$

#### Interpretation

Within class covariance shows how samples are scattered within classes.

Between class covariance shows how classes are scattered between each other.

## Scatter magnitude

#### Theorem 1

Every real symmetric matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  can be factorized as

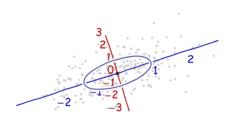
$$A = U\Sigma U^T$$

where  $\Sigma$  is diagonal and U is orthogonal.  $\Sigma = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ... \lambda_n\}$  and  $U = [u_1, u_2, ... u_n]$  where  $\lambda_i, i = 1, 2, ... n$  are eigenvalues and  $u_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$  are corresponding eigenvectors.

•  $U^T$  is basis transform corresponding to rotation, so only  $\Sigma$  reflects scatter.

# Measuring scatter of symmetric matrix

## Scaling in basis U



- ullet Aggregate measures of scatter  ${
  m tr}\, \Sigma = \sum_i \lambda_i$  and  ${
  m det}\, \Sigma = \prod_i \lambda_i$
- Since  $\operatorname{tr}\left[P^{-1}BP\right]=\operatorname{tr}B$  and  $\det\left[P^{-1}BP\right]=\det B$ , we can estimate scatter with  $\operatorname{tr}A=\operatorname{tr}\Sigma$  and  $\det A=\det\Sigma$

## Clusterization quality

- Good clustering:  $S_W$  is small and  $S_B, \Sigma$  are big.
- Cluster discriminability metrics:

$$Tr\{S_W^{-1}S_B\}, \frac{Tr\{S_B\}}{Tr\{S_W\}}, \frac{\det \Sigma}{\det S_W}$$

# Resume

- Pairwise feature measures
  - fail to estimate relevance in context of other features
  - are robust to curse of dimensionality
- Context aware measures:
  - estimate relevance in context of other features
  - prone to curse of dimensionality if distances are calculated (such as Relief criterion)

## Table of Contents

- Filter methods
- Peature subsets generation
  - Deterministic feature selection
  - Randomised feature selection

Feature selection - Victor Kitov
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# Incomplete search with suboptimal solution

- Consider not all but only the most promising feature subsets.
- Order features with respect to J(f):

$$J(f_1) \geq J(f_2) \geq ... \geq J(f_D)$$

select top m

$$\hat{F} = \{f_1, f_2, ... f_m\}$$

• select best set from nested subsets:

$$S = \{\{f_1\}, \{f_1, f_2\}, ...\{f_1, f_2, ...f_D\}\}\$$

$$\hat{F} = \arg\max_{F \in S} J(F)$$

- Comments:
  - simple to implement
  - if J(f) is context unaware, so will be the features
  - example: when features are correlated, it will take many redundant features

# Sequential search

- Sequential forward selection algorithm:
  - init:  $k = 0, F_0 = \emptyset$
  - while k < max\_features:</p>
    - $f_{k+1} = \operatorname{arg\,max}_{f \in F} J(F_k \cup \{f\})$
    - $F_{k+1} = F_k \cup \{f_{k+1}\}$
    - if  $J(F_{k+1}) < J(F_k)$ : break
    - k=k+1
  - return  $F_k$
- Variants:
  - sequential backward selection
  - up-k forward search
  - down-p backward search
  - up-k down-p composite search
  - up-k down-(variable step size) composite search

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# Genetic algorithms

- Analogy to genetic inheritance in biology.
- Each feature set  $F = \{f_{i(1)}, f_{i(2)}, ... f_{i(K)}\}$  is represented using binary vector  $[b_1, b_2, ... b_D]$  where  $b_i = \mathbb{I}[f_i \in F]$
- Genetic operations:

  - $crossover(b^1, b^2) = b$ , where  $b_i = \begin{cases} b_i^1 & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{2} \\ b_i^2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$   $mutation(b^1) = b$ , where  $b_i = \begin{cases} b_i^1 & \text{with probability } 1 \alpha \\ \neg b_i^1 & \text{with probability } \alpha \end{cases}$ for some small  $\alpha$ .

## Genetic algorithms

```
INPUT:
   size of population B
   size of expanded population B'
   parameters of mutation \theta (and possibly crossover)
   maximum number of iterations T, minimum quality change \Delta J
ALGORITHM:
generate B feature sets S_1, S_2, ... S_B randomly.
set t = 1, P^0 = \{S_1, S_2, ... S_B\}, J^0 = J(P^0)
while t \le T and |J^t - J^{t-1}| > \Delta J:
   modify P^{t-1} using crossover and mutation:
       S_1', S_2', ... S_{R'}' = modify(P^{t-1}|\theta)
   order transformed sets by decreasing quality:
       J(S_{i(1)}^{t}) > J(S_{i(1)}^{t}) > ...J(S_{i(R')}^{t})
   set next population to consist of best representatives:
       P^t = \{S'_{i(1)}, S'_{i(2)}, ... S'_{i(R)}\}
   J^t = J^t(P^t)
   t = t + 1
OUTPUT: suboptimal set of feature sets P^t
```

39/41

# Modifications of genetic algorithm

- Preserve best features and best feature subsets:
  - Augment  $P'^t$  with K best representatives from  $P^{t-1}$ .
  - Make mutation probability lower for good features (that frequently appear in inside representatives).
- Increase breadth of search:
  - Crossover between more than two parents
- To prevent convergence to local optimum:
  - simultaneously modify several populations and allow rare random transitions between them.

#### Extra

- Tree feature importances (clf.feature\_importances\_ in sklearn).
  - Consider feature f
  - Let T(f) be the set of all nodes, relying on feature f when making split.
  - efficiency of split at nodet:  $\Delta I(t) = I(t) \sum_{c \in childen(t)} \frac{n_c}{n_t} I(c)$
  - feature importance of  $f: \sum_{t \in T(f)} n_t \Delta I(t)$
- Feature importances from linear classification:
  - fit linear classifier with regularization to data
  - 2 retrieve w (clf.coef\_ in scikit-learn)
  - **1** importance of feature  $f_i$  is equal to  $|w_i|$ .
- We can reweight features for methods, relying on scaling by feature importances (such as K-NN).