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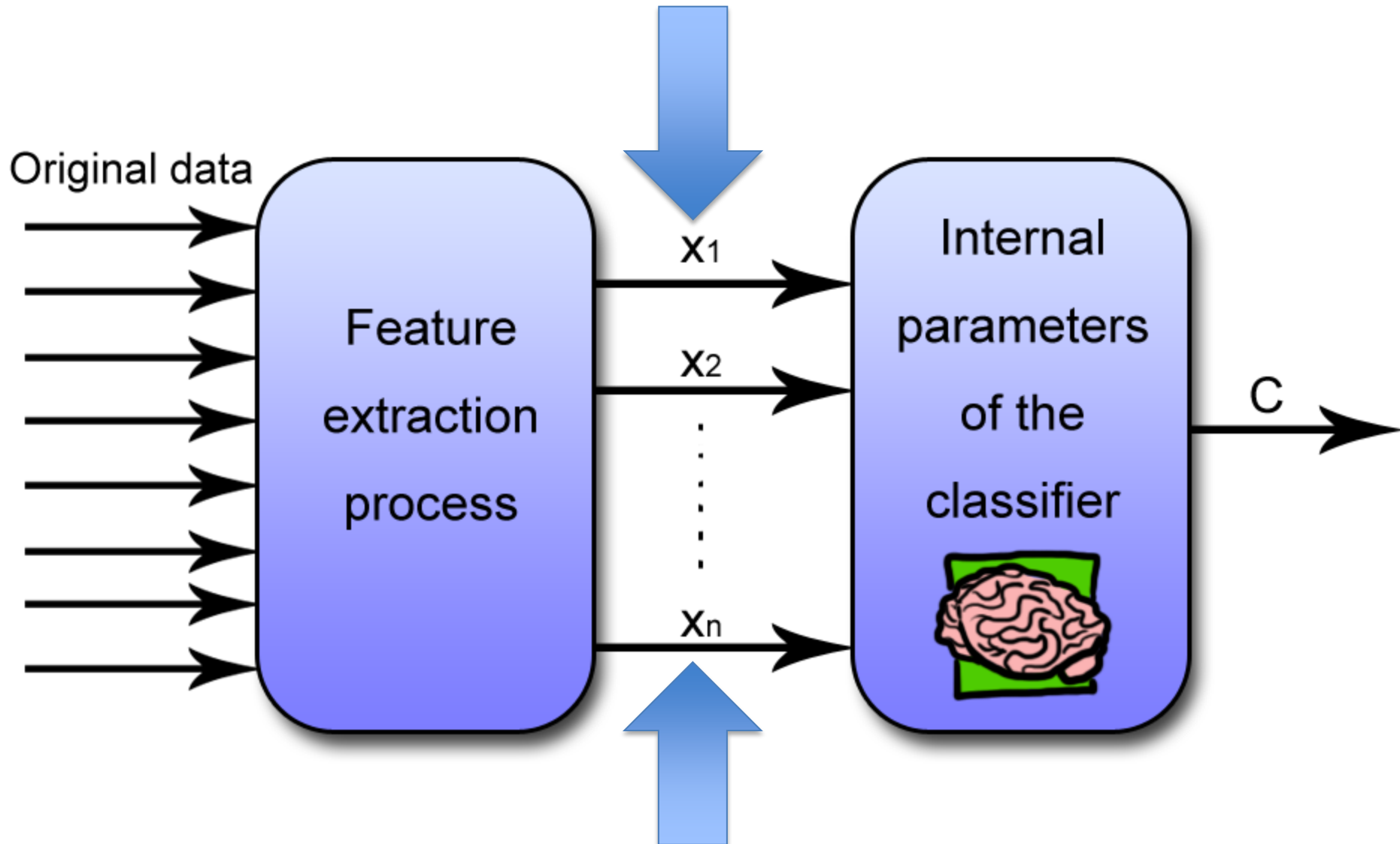
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# Chap.7 Ranking and selecting features

I don't mind my eyebrows. They add. . . something to me. I wouldn't say they were my best feature, though. People tell me they like my eyes. They distract from the eyebrows.  
(Nicholas Hoult)



# Feature selection



# Feature selection (2)

- Before starting to learn a model from the examples, one must be sure that the input data have **sufficient information** to predict the outputs, **without excessive redundancy**, which may causes “big” models and poor generalization
- **Feature selection** is the process of selecting a subset of relevant features to be used in model construction.

# Reasons for feature selection

- Selecting **a small number of informative features** has advantages:
  1. Dimensionality reduction
  2. Memory usage reduction
  3. Improved generalization
  4. **Better human understanding**

# Methods for feature selection

- Feature selection is a problem with many possible solutions: no simple recipe.
  1. Use the designer **intuition and existing knowledge**
  2. **Estimate the relevance or discrimination power** of the individual features

# Wrapper, Filter and Embedded methods

- The **value of a feature is related to a model-construction method**. Three classes of methods:
  1. **Wrapper methods** are built “around” a specific predictive model (measure error rate)
  2. **Filter methods** use a **proxy measure** instead of the error rate to score a feature subset
  3. **Embedded methods** perform feature selection as an integral part of the model construction process.

# Top-down and Bottom-up methods

- In a **bottom-up** method one gradually **adds** the ranked features in the order of their individual discrimination power and stops when the error rate stops decreasing
- In a **top-down truncation** method one starts with the complete set of features and progressively **eliminates** features while searching for the optimal performance point



# Linear models

Can we associate the importance of a feature to its weight?

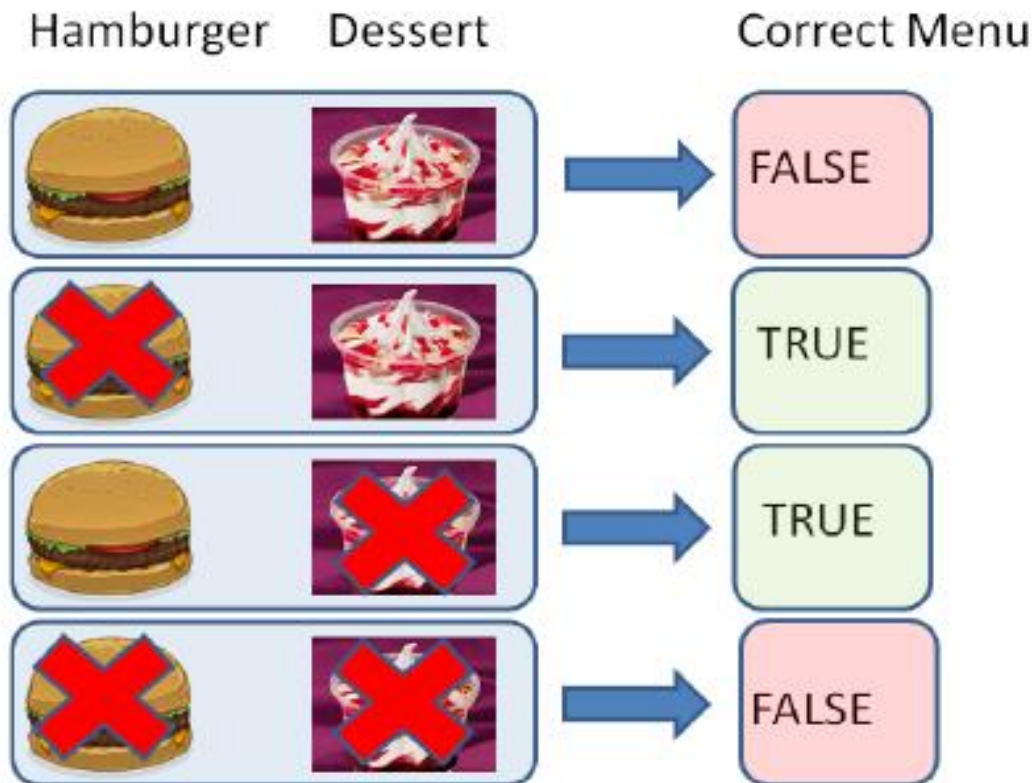
$$y = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_dx_d.$$

Careful with ranges and scaling.

**Normalization** helps.

# Nonlinearities and mutual relationships between features

Measuring individual features in **isolation** will discard **mutual relationships** → selection can be suboptimal



## XOR function of two inputs

E.g., to get a proper meal one needs to eat either a hamburger or a dessert but not both.

The individual presence or absence of a hamburger (or of a dessert) in a menu will not be related to classifying a menu as correct or not.

# Correlation coefficient

**Pearson correlation coefficient:** widely used measure of linear relationship between numeric variables.

Y random variable associated with the output

$X_i$  random variable associated with an input

$$\rho_{X_i, Y} = \frac{\text{cov}[X_i, Y]}{\sigma_{X_i} \sigma_Y} = \frac{E[(X_i - \mu_{X_i})(Y - \mu_Y)]}{\sigma_{X_i} \sigma_Y};$$



Examples of data distributions and corresponding correlation values

# Correlation coefficient (2)



**1.0**

**0.5**

**0.0**

**-0.5**

**-1.0**



**1.0**

**1.0**

**-1.0**

**-1.0**

Examples of data distributions and corresponding correlation values

# Correlation Ratio

- **Correlation ratio** is used to measure a relationship between a numeric input and a **categorical** output.
- significant  $\rightarrow$  at least one outcome class where the feature's average value is *significantly different* from the average on all classes
- Let  $L_y$  be the number of times that **outcome y** appears, so that one can **partition the sample input vectors** by their output:

$$\forall y \in Y \quad S_y = ((x_{jy}^{(1)}, \dots, x_{jy}^{(n)}); j = 1, \dots, \ell_y).$$

Inputs leading to output y

# Correlation ratio (2)

- Average of the  $i$ -th feature *within* each output class:

$$\forall y \in Y \quad \bar{x}_y^{(i)} = \frac{1}{\ell_y} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell_y} x_{jy}^{(i)},$$

- Overall average:

$$\bar{x}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell_y} x_{jy}^{(i)} = \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{y \in Y} \ell_y \bar{x}_y^{(i)}.$$

- **Correlation ratio** between the  $i$ -th feature and outcome:

$$\eta_{X_i, Y}^2 = \frac{\sum_{y \in Y} \ell_y (\bar{x}_y^{(i)} - \bar{x}^{(i)})^2}{\sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell_y} (x_{jy}^{(i)} - \bar{x}^{(i)})^2}.$$

# Statistical hypothesis testing

- A **statistical hypothesis** test is a method of making statistical decisions by using experimental data.
- Hypothesis testing answers the question: Assuming that the **null hypothesis** is true, *what is the probability of observing a value for the test statistic that is at least as large as the value that was actually observed?* Reject if prob. is too low.
- **Statistically significant**  $\leftrightarrow$  **unlikely to have occurred by chance.**

# Relationship

between two categorical features

- **Null hypothesis** that the two events “occurrence of term  $t$ ” and “document of class  $c$ ” are **independent**, the expected value of the above counts for joint events are obtained by **multiplying probabilities** of individual events
- If the count deviates from the one expected for two independent events, one can conclude that the two events are **dependent**, and that therefore the feature is significant to predict the output. Check if the **deviation is sufficiently large that it cannot happen by chance.**



# Chi-squared test

- Chi-squared statistic:

If independent

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{c,t} \frac{[\text{count}_{c,t} - n \cdot \Pr(\text{class} = c) \cdot \Pr(\text{term} = t)]^2}{n \cdot \Pr(\text{class} = c) \cdot \Pr(\text{term} = t)}.$$

- where  $\text{count}_{c,t}$  is the number of occurrences of the value  $t$  given the class  $c$
- the best features are the ones with **larger**  $\chi^2$  values

# Mutual information (1): Entropy

- The **uncertainty** in an output distribution can be measured from its entropy:

$$H(Y) = - \sum_{y \in Y} \Pr(y) \log \Pr(y).$$

- After knowing a specific input value  $x$ , the uncertainty in the output can **decrease**

# Mutual information (2): Conditional Entropy

- The entropy of Y **after knowing the i-th input feature value** is

$$H(Y|x_i) = - \sum_{y \in Y} \Pr(y|x_i) \log \Pr(y|x_i),$$

- The **conditional entropy** of variable Y is the expected value of  $H(Y|x_i)$

$$H(Y|X_i) = E_{x_i \in X_i} [H(Y|x_i)] = \sum_{x_i \in X_i} \Pr(x_i) H(Y|x_i).$$

# Mutual Information (3)

- **Mutual information between  $X_i$  and  $Y$  :**

The amount by which the uncertainty **decreases**

$$I(X_i; Y) = I(Y; X_i) = H(Y) - H(Y|X_i).$$

- An equivalent expression which clarifies the **symmetry** between  $X_i$  and  $Y$ :

$$I(X_i; Y) = \sum_{y, x_i} \Pr(y, x_i) \log \frac{\Pr(y, x_i)}{\Pr(y) \Pr(x_i)}.$$

- Mutual Information captures **arbitrary non-linear dependencies** between variables

# GIST

- **Reducing** the number of input attributes used by a model, while keeping roughly equivalent performance, has many advantages.
- It is difficult to **rank individual features** without considering the specific modeling method and their mutual relationships.

# GIST 2

- Trust the **correlation coefficient** only if you have reasons to suspect linear relationships
- **Correlation ratio** can be computed even if the outcome is not quantitative
- Use **chi-square** to identify possible dependencies between inputs and output
- Use **mutual information** to estimate **arbitrary dependencies** between qualitative or quantitative features