

Learning Feature Selection Dependencies in Multi-Task Learning

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2013

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 A Probabilistic Model for Learning Feature Selection Dependencies
- 3 Approximate Inference
- 4 Experiments
- 5 Conclusions

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Induction Under the Sparsity Assumption

We focus on linear regression problems with a **small number of training instances** n and a **large number of explaining attributes** or features d .

That is, $n \ll d$.

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}\sigma^2).$$

In this scenario an infinite number of values for them **perfectly explain** the training data [Johnstone and Titterington, 2009].

To avoid over-fitting problems and to obtain estimates with good generalization properties, a typical regularization used is to assume that the model coefficients are **sparse**, i.e., most coefficients are equal to zero.

Induction under the sparsity assumption can be carried out by introducing **sparse enforcing priors** over \mathbf{w} , e.g. Spike-and-slab, Laplace, Student-t or Horseshoe.

Induction Under the Sparsity Assumption

Some works indicate that induction under the sparsity assumption can be improved by considering **dependencies** in the feature selection process [Kim et al., 2006][Van Gerven et al., 2009][Hernández-Lobato et al., 2011].

For example, the fact that one attribute is actually relevant/irrelevant for prediction **could be an indicator** that another related attribute should also be relevant/irrelevant.

Unfortunately, these dependences are often **problem specific** and have to be introduced by hand by some expert in the field.

We propose a probabilistic model that is able to **induce these dependencies** from the **training data alone**.

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 A Probabilistic Model for Learning Feature Selection Dependencies**
- 3 Approximate Inference
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- 5 Conclusions

Model Description

First, we consider only a **single learning task**. We assume independent additive **Gaussian noise** with fixed variance around the targets \mathbf{y} . This produces the following **likelihood function** for \mathbf{w} given \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{w} :

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{I}\sigma^2),$$

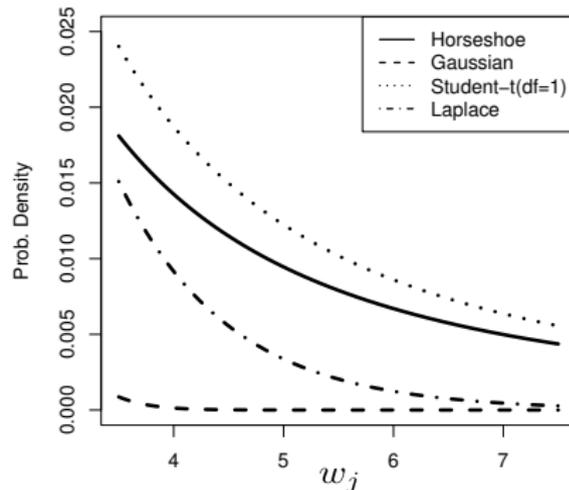
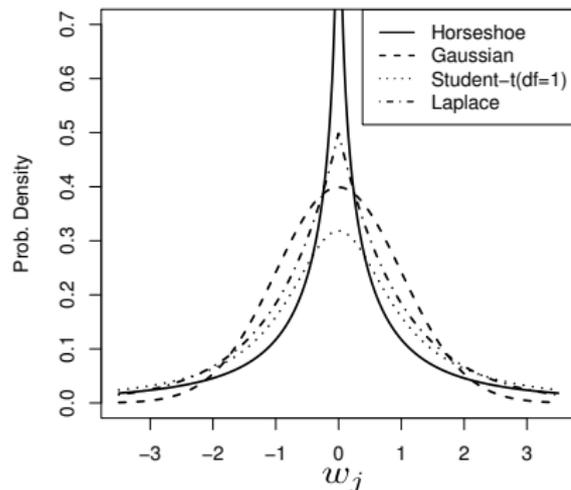
where σ^2 is the variance of the noise.

The sparsity assumption is introduced by using for \mathbf{w} the **horseshoe** prior:

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\tau) = \int \prod_{j=1}^d \mathcal{N}(w_j|0, \tau^2 \lambda_j^2) \mathcal{C}^+(\lambda_j) d\lambda_j,$$

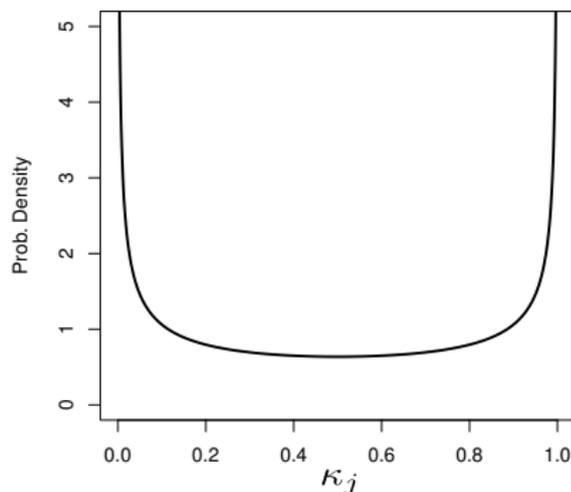
where \mathcal{C}^+ is a **truncated Cauchy distribution** and τ is a parameter that controls the **level of sparsity** [Carvalho, 2009].

The Horseshoe Prior



The Horseshoe Prior

Assume that $\tau = \sigma^2 = 1$, $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}$ and define $\kappa_j = 1/(1 + \lambda_j^2)$. Then the posterior mean for w_j is $(1 - \kappa_j)y_j$, where κ_j is a shrinkage coefficient.



If $\kappa_j = 0$ no shrinkage occurs of w_j . By contrast, if $\kappa_j = 1$ w_j is set equal to zero. Thus, under the horseshoe prior we **only expect to see** relevant coefficients or irrelevant coefficients.

The Horseshoe Prior: Introducing Dependencies

We consider the **alternative representation** of the prior:

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\rho^2, \gamma^2) = \int \prod_{j=1}^d \mathcal{N}\left(w_j|0, \frac{u_j^2}{v_j^2}\right) \mathcal{N}(u_j|0, \rho^2) \mathcal{N}(v_j|0, \gamma^2) dv_j du_j,$$

where $\tau^2 = \rho^2/\gamma^2$ and we have represented the Cauchy distribution as the **ratio** of two standard Gaussian distributions.

Both u_j^2 and v_j^2 **determine feature relevancy and irrelevancy**.

The prior with dependencies in the feature selection process is:

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C}) = \int \left[\prod_{j=1}^d \mathcal{N}\left(w_j|0, \frac{u_j^2}{v_j^2}\right) \right] \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \rho^2 \mathbf{C}) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{0}, \gamma^2 \mathbf{C}) d\mathbf{u} d\mathbf{v},$$

where \mathbf{C} is a correlation matrix that **determines the dependencies**.

The correlation matrix \mathbf{C}

When $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{I}$ the **original prior** is recovered. Otherwise, dependencies are introduced in the feature selection process.

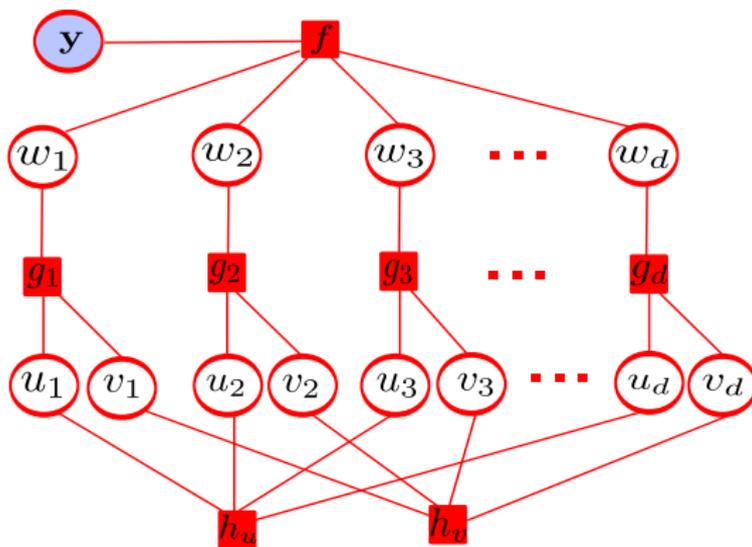
We aim at learning \mathbf{C} from the training data. This can be **problematic** since it has $\mathcal{O}(d^2)$ parameters and we assume $n \ll d$ data instances only.

To alleviate these problems we assume the following simplified form for \mathbf{C} :

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{\Delta} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{\Delta}, \quad \mathbf{M} = \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{P} \mathbf{P}^T, \quad \mathbf{\Delta} = \text{diag}(1/\sqrt{M_{11}}, \dots, 1/\sqrt{M_{dd}}).$$

That is, \mathbf{C} is completely specified \mathbf{P} a $d \times m$ matrix and has only $\mathcal{O}(md)$ parameters. Later on we will set $m = n$ for computation purposes.

Factor Graph of the Probabilistic Model



The factor $f(\cdot)$ corresponds to the likelihood term $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I})$. The factor $g_j(\cdot)$ corresponds to the prior for w_j given u_j and v_j , $\mathcal{N}(w_j|0, u_j^2/v_j^2)$. Finally, the factors $h_u(\cdot)$ and $h_v(\cdot)$ correspond to $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \rho^2\mathbf{C})$ and $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{0}, \gamma^2\mathbf{C})$, respectively. Only the targets \mathbf{y} are observed, the other variables are latent. All factors except the g_j 's are Gaussian.

Inference about the Latent Variables of the Model

The joint probability of \mathbf{y} , and $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w})$ is:

$$p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} | \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{I}\sigma^2) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u} | \mathbf{0}, \rho^2 \mathbf{C}) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v} | \mathbf{0}, \gamma^2 \mathbf{C}) \\ \prod_{j=1}^d \mathcal{N}\left(w_j | 0, \frac{u_j^2}{v_j^2}\right)$$

The **posterior** for \mathbf{z} is:

$$p(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}, \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} | \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C})}{p(\mathbf{y} | \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C})}$$

The **predictive distribution** for the target of a new instance \mathbf{x}_{new} is:

$$p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}, \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C}) = \int p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}, \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C}) d\mathbf{z}$$

Learning Feature Selection Dependencies

In an ideal situation we should also specify a prior for \mathbf{C} and compute a posterior distribution for \mathbf{C} . However, this can be **too complicated** even for approximate inference methods.

A simpler alternative is to use gradient ascent to maximize the denominator in Bayes theorem with respect to \mathbf{C} , σ^2 , ρ^2 and γ^2 . This corresponds to **type-II maximum likelihood** estimation and allows to estimate \mathbf{C} from the training data alone.

$$\log Z = \log p(\mathbf{y} | \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C})$$

Unfortunately, even if the required computations were possible, the estimation of \mathbf{C} would be difficult as a consequence of the reduced amount of observed data. To compensate for this, we consider a **multi-task learning setting** where more data are available.

Extension to Address Multi-task Learning Problems

We assume that there are K learning tasks $\{\mathbf{y}\}_{k=1}^K$ and $\{\mathbf{X}\}_{k=1}^K$ available for induction that **only share the dependencies** specified by \mathbf{C} .

The posterior distribution of the latent variables $\{\mathbf{z}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ is:

$$p(\{\mathbf{z}\}_{k=1}^K | \{\mathbf{X}_k, \mathbf{y}_k, \sigma_k^2, \rho_k^2, \gamma_k^2\}_{k=1}^K, \mathbf{C}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{z}_k | \sigma_k^2, \rho_k^2, \gamma_k^2, \mathbf{C})}{p(\mathbf{y}_k | \sigma_k^2, \rho_k^2, \gamma_k^2, \mathbf{C})}$$

That is, the posterior distribution **factorizes**.

The log of the **marginal likelihood** for the observed data of the tasks is:

$$\log Z_{\text{MT}} = \sum_{k=1}^K \log p(\mathbf{y}_k | \sigma_k^2, \rho_k^2, \gamma_k^2, \mathbf{C}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \log Z_k$$

Thus, if there is a way to evaluate the required quantities for a single task, **applying the multi-task extension is straight-forward**.

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 A Probabilistic Model for Learning Feature Selection Dependencies
- 3 Approximate Inference**
- 4 Experiments
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Expectation Propagation

For simplicity we consider the model for a single task. Up to a normalization constant, the posterior is :

$$p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}, \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C}) \propto f(\mathbf{w})h_u(\mathbf{u})h_v(\mathbf{v}) \prod_{j=1}^d g_j(\mathbf{z})$$

where all factors except the g_j 's are Gaussian.

EP [Minka, 2001] approximates the posterior by:

$$q(\mathbf{z}) \propto f(\mathbf{w})h_u(\mathbf{u})h_v(\mathbf{v}) \prod_{j=1}^d \tilde{g}_j(\mathbf{z})$$

where each \tilde{g}_j is an un-normalized Gaussian which approximates the corresponding g_j .

The Gaussian distribution belongs to the exponential family which is closed under the product. Thus, q is Gaussian.

Expectation Propagation II

EP finds **good approximate factors** \tilde{g}_j as follows:

- ① **Remove** g_j from the approximation q by computing $q^{\setminus j} \propto q/\tilde{g}_j$.
- ② Find q^{new} by minimizing the **Kullback-Leibler divergence**, $\text{KL}(g_j q^{\setminus j} || q^{\text{new}})$, with respect to q^{new} . This is a **convex problem**.
- ③ Update \tilde{g}_j by setting $\tilde{g}_j^{\text{new}} = s_j q^{\text{new}} / q^{\setminus j}$ where s_j is the **normalization constant** of $g_j q^{\setminus j}$. \tilde{g}_j is Gaussian because q^{new} and $q^{\setminus j}$ are Gaussians.

These steps are iterated by EP **until convergence** of all the \tilde{g}_j .

The minimization of the KL divergence is done by **matching moments** between $g_j q^{\setminus j}$ and q^{new} . The moments are obtained from the **derivatives** of $\log s_j$ with respect to the natural parameters of $q^{\setminus j}$ [Seeger, 2006].

Unfortunately, the computation of s_j is **intractable** under the horseshoe prior. As a practical alternative we use **quadrature methods** to evaluate s_j and its derivatives. This works well and EP converges successfully.

EP Quadratures

In practice we have that g_j and q^j **only depend** on w_j , u_j and v_j :

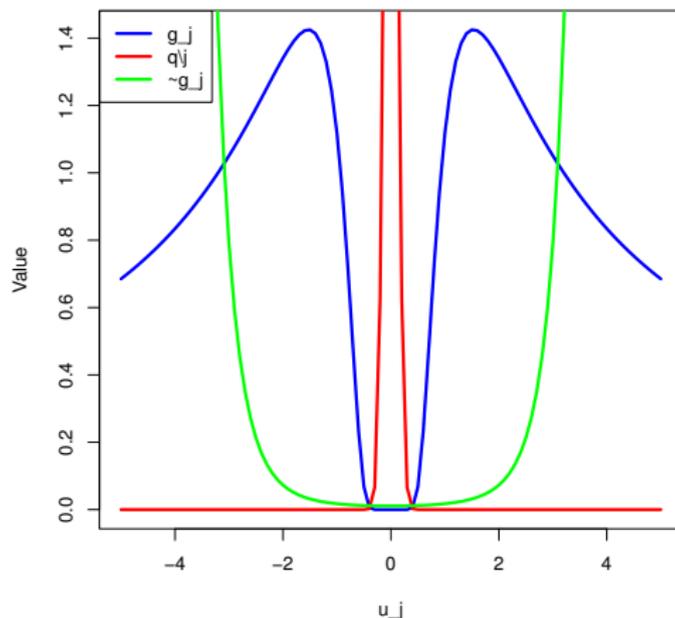
$$q^j(w_j, u_j, v_j) = \mathcal{N}(w_j | m_j, \eta_j^2) \mathcal{N}(u_j | 0, \nu_j^2) \mathcal{N}(v_j | 0, \xi_j^2),$$
$$g_j(w_j, u_j, v_j) = \mathcal{N}(w_j | 0, u_j^2 / v_j^2),$$

so it may seem that computing s_j requires a **three-dimensional quadrature**.
A more **efficient alternative** exists since:

$$s_j = \int q^j(w_j, u_j, v_j) g_j(w_j, u_j, v_j) dw_j du_j dv_j$$
$$= \int \mathcal{N}(m_j | 0, \frac{\nu_j^2}{\xi_j^2} \lambda_j^2 + \eta_j^2) \mathcal{C}^+(\lambda_j | 0, 1) d\lambda_j.$$

Five one-dimensional quadratures will suffice . One to compute $\log s_j$ and four to evaluate its derivatives (the posterior means of \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{u} are **zero**).

EP: Exact Factor g_j and Approximate factor \tilde{g}_j



The factor \tilde{g}_j looks similar to the exact factor g_j in regions of high posterior probability as described by q^j . We let u_j vary and we fix $v_j^2 = \xi^2$ and $w_j = m_j$.

EP Approximation of the Model Evidence

Once EP has converged q can be used to **make predictions**:

$$p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}, \sigma^2, \rho^2, \gamma^2, \mathbf{C}) \approx \int p(y_{\text{new}} | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \mathbf{w}) q(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

The **model evidence** is **approximated** by the normalization constant of q :

$$\tilde{Z} = \int f(\mathbf{w}) h_u(\mathbf{u}) h_v(\mathbf{v}) \prod_{j=1}^d \tilde{g}_j(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

These expressions involve **Gaussians** and can be readily **computed**.

After convergence the gradient of the natural parameters of the \tilde{g}_j with respect to the hyper-parameters σ^2 , ρ^2 , γ^2 and \mathbf{C} is **zero** [Seeger, 2006].

The gradient of \tilde{Z} with respect to the hyper-parameters can be computed in terms of the **gradient of the exact factors** $f(\mathbf{w})$, $h_u(\mathbf{u})$ and $h_v(\mathbf{v})$.

The total **cost of EP** and computing the gradients is $\mathcal{O}(n^2d)$ if $m = n$.

Complete EP algorithm for Multi-Task Learning

The complete EP algorithm consists in iteratively repeating the following steps until **convergence of the hyper-parameters** $\sigma_k^2, \rho_k^2, \gamma_k^2$ and \mathbf{C} :

- ① For each task $k = 1$ to K :
 - ① Compute **EP approximation** for the posterior distribution of task k .
 - ② Compute **gradient** of the log of the model evidence with respect to the hyper-parameters.
- ② **Sum the gradients** of the matrix \mathbf{P} , *i.e.* the matrix that fully determines \mathbf{C} .
- ③ Update the different hyper-parameters by taking a small step in the direction of the resulting gradients.

The **last EP approximation** obtained for each task can be used as the **starting point** of EP in the next iteration reducing significantly the iterations needed to reach convergence in EP.

Outline

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- 2 A Probabilistic Model for Learning Feature Selection Dependencies
- 3 Approximate Inference
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- 5 Conclusions

Related Methods to Compare With and Hyper-Parameters

We compare the proposed model, HS_{Dep} , with other methods from the literature for multi-task learning under the sparsity assumption .

- HS_{ST} : Particular case of HS_{Dep} that is obtained by learning each task separately with no dependencies (base line).
- HS_{MT} : Uses the horseshoe prior but assumes jointly relevant and irrelevant features across learning tasks. λ_j is shared among learning tasks. Approximate inference is also carried out by EP [Hernandez-Lobato et al., 2010].
- DM: Dirty model for multi-task learning. Based on a combined ℓ_1 and ℓ_∞ norm. Allows some of the tasks to have specific relevant features [Jalali et al., 2010].

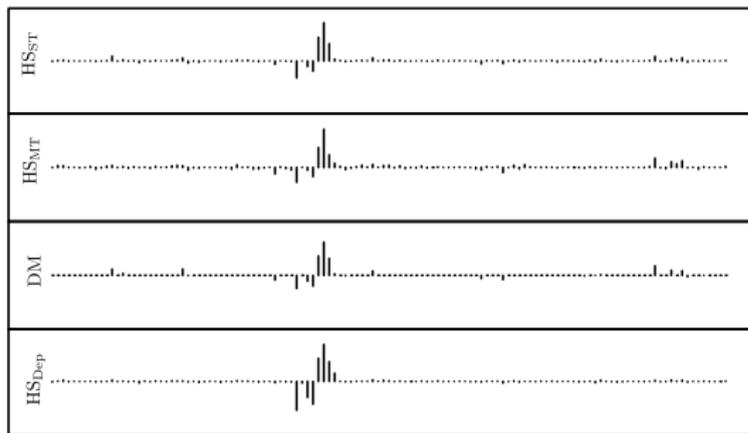
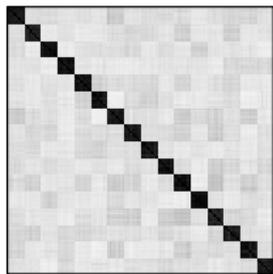
In HS_{ST} we learn ρ_k^2 and $\gamma_k^2 \forall k$ by type-II maximum likelihood . In HS_{MT} γ^2 and ρ^2 take the average value found by HS_{ST} . In HS_{Dep} we use the hyper-parameters found by HS_{ST} and find \mathbf{P} by type-II maximum likelihood . In DM we try different hyper-parameters and report results for the best performing ones.

Experiments with Synthetic Data

We generate $K = 64$ learning tasks of $n = 64$ samples and $d = 128$ features each. In each task \mathbf{X}_k is generated from a **Gaussian** and \mathbf{w}_k is set equal to zero except for **consecutive groups of 8 coefficients**. $\sigma_k = 0.5$.

The task of interest is to reconstruct $\mathbf{w}_k \forall k$ from the training data. The **reconstruction error** for each task is measured in terms of $\|\hat{\mathbf{w}}_k - \mathbf{w}_k\|_2 / \|\mathbf{w}_k\|_2$ where \mathbf{w}_k are the exact model coefficients for task k .

Method	Error
HS _{ST}	0.29±0.01
HS _{MT}	0.38±0.03
DM	0.37±0.01
HS _{Dep}	0.21±0.01



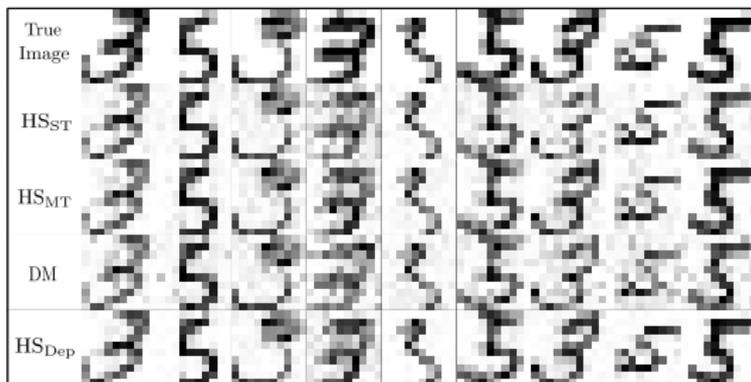
Averages over 50 realizations

Reconstruction of Images of Hand-written Digits

We consider the reconstruction of images of **hand-written digits** extracted from the **MNIST data set** [LeCun et al., 1998].

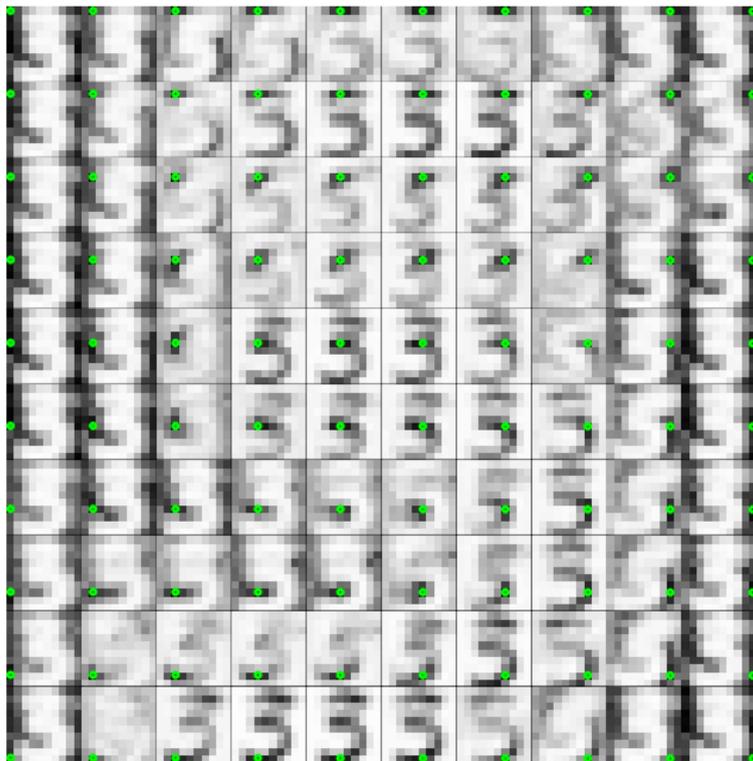
These images are **sparse**. The images are scaled to 10×10 pixels and $K = 100$ tasks of $n = 75$ samples are generated by choosing randomly 50 images of the **digit 3** and 50 images of the **digit 5**. \mathbf{X}_k is also standard Gaussian and $\sigma_k = 0.1$. The **average reconstruction** error is also measured.

	HS _{ST}	HS _{MT}	DM	HS _{Dep}
Error	0.36±0.02	0.25±0.02	0.37±0.01	0.2±0.01



Averages over 50 realizations

Dependencies Learnt from the Training Data



Average correlations in absolute value of each pixel (green) with the other ones as indicated by the correlation matrix \mathbf{C} learnt from the training data.

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 A Probabilistic Model for Learning Feature Selection Dependencies
- 3 Approximate Inference
- 4 Experiments
- 5 Conclusions**

Conclusions

- We have described a model for **learning dependencies** in the feature selection process from the training data alone.
- The model can be used in a **multi-task learning setting** where several learning tasks share dependencies in the feature selection process.
- This is a more **flexible assumption** and the different tasks can have different model coefficients and different relevant features.
- Exact Bayesian inference is infeasible for the proposed model. However, **EP offers an approximate alternative**.
- The total **cost** of the model is $\mathcal{O}(Kn^2d)$, linear in the number of features and tasks.
- Our experiments show that the proposed model **performs better** than other multi-task learning alternatives from the literature.
- The proposed model is able to **induce** relevant feature selection dependencies from the training data.

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Thank you for your attention!