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A Survey on Feature Selection

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Abstract

Feature selection, as a dimensionality reduction technique, aims to choosing a small subset of the relevant features from the original features by removing irrelevant, redundant or noisy features. Feature selection usually can lead to better learning performance, i.e., higher learning accuracy, lower computational cost, and better model interpretability. Recently, researchers from computer vision, text mining and so on have proposed a variety of feature selection algorithms and in terms of theory and experiment, show the effectiveness of their works. This paper is aimed at reviewing the state of the art on these techniques. Furthermore, a thorough experiment is conducted to check if the use of feature selection can improve the performance of learning, considering some of the approaches mentioned in the literature. The experimental results show that unsupervised feature selection algorithms benefits machine learning tasks improving the performance of clustering.

1. Introduction

Recently, available data has increased explosively in both number of samples and dimensionality in many machine learning applications such as text mining, computer vision and biomedical. In order to knowledge acquisition, it is important and necessary to study how to utilize these large scale data. Our interest focus mainly on the high dimensionality of data. The huge number of high dimensional data has imposed significantly big challenge on existing machine leaning methods. Due to presence of noisy, redundant and irrelevant dimensions, they can not only make learning algorithms very slow and even degenerate the performance of learning tasks, but also can lead to difficulty on interpretability of model. Feature selection are capable of choosing a small subset of relevant features from the original ones by removing noisy, irrelevant and redundant features.

In terms of availability of label information, feature selection technique can be roughly classified into three families: supervised methods [1, 2, 3, 4], semi-supervised methods [5, 6, 7], and unsupervised methods [8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. The availability of label information allows supervised feature selection algorithms to effectively select discriminative and relevant features to distinguish samples from different classes. Some supervised methods have been proposed and studied [3, 13]. When a small portion of data is labeled, we can utilize semi-supervised feature selection which can take advantage of both labeled data and unlabeled data. Most of the existing semi-supervised feature selection algorithms [5, 14] rely on the construction of the similarity matrix and select those features that best fit the similarity matrix. Due to the absence of labels that are used for guiding the search for discriminative features, unsupervised feature selection is considered as a much harder problem [9]. In order to attain the goal of feature selection, several criteria have been proposed to evaluate feature relevance [2, 15].

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Based on the different strategies of searching, feature selection can also be classified into three methods, i.e., filter methods, wrapper methods and embedded methods. Filter methods select the most discriminative features through the character of data. Generally, filter methods perform feature selection before classification and clustering tasks and usually fall into a two-step strategy. First, all features are ranked according to certain criteria. Then, the features with the highest rankings are selected. Many filter-type methods have been used, including reliefF [16, 17], F-statistic [18], mRMR [19] and information gain [17]. Wrapper methods use the intended learning algorithm itself to evaluate the features. The work [20] utilizes Support Vector Machine methods based on Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE) to select the most relevant gene to cancers. Embedded models perform feature selection in the process of model construction. Figure 1 shows the classification of feature selection methods.
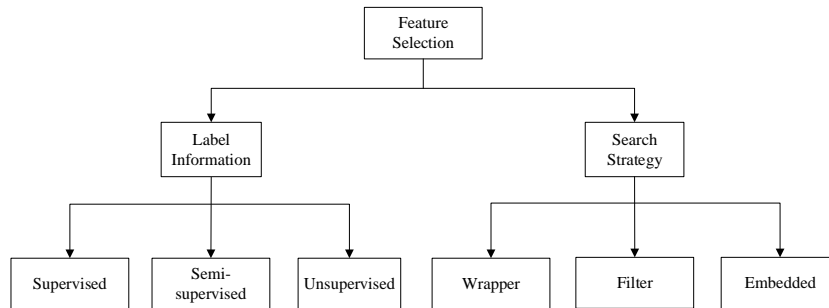

Fig. 1. Feature selection category

Sparsity regularization recently is very important to make the model learned robust in machine learning and recently has been applied to feature selection. ℓ_1-SVM method [21, 22] based on ℓ_1-norm regularization has been proposed to perform feature selection. The work [23] used logistic regression with ℓ_1 norm regularization for feature selection. By combining ℓ_1-norm and ℓ_2-norm, Hybrid Huberized SVM (HHSVM), a more structured regularization, has been proposed in [24]. The authors in [25, 26] developed a model with $\ell_{2,1}$-norm regularization to select features shared by multi tasks. The work [3] employed a joint $\ell_{2,1}$-norm minimization on both loss function and regularization.

The rest of paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the related work. The state of the art feature selection algorithms are introduced in Section 3. In section 4, we conduct extensive experiments and report experimental results. Finally, we provide the conclusions in section 5.

2. Related work

Supervised feature selection approaches are for those data which are labeled. Traditional supervised methods such as Fisher Score [27] rank features individually according to the criterion, which can not consider the correlation among different features. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA for short) [28] was proposed to elevate features by maximizing the ratio between the class scatter and within class scatter. Unfortunately, LDA suffers from the small sample size problem because it needs to calculate the inverse matrix of within class scatter, which is singular when the number of training samples is smaller than the dimensionality of the data [29]. To avoid this problem, maximum margin criterion(MMC for short) based algorithm is proposed in [30], which uses a linear combination of traces between class scatter and within class scatter in the objective function and introduces a constraint of orthogonal weight matrix. However, all supervised methods have the common limitation of the requirement of sufficient labeled data, which is very expensive to obtain in practice. The performances of such supervised methods, however, usually drop dramatically when the labeled training data are scarce [31].

Semi-supervised feature selections, by contrast, exploit not only labeled but also unlabeled training data. As a result, semi-supervised methods are able to select features by utilizing unlabeled data when there is limited number of labeled data. Among others, graph Laplacian based semi-supervised methods assumes that most data examples lie on a low-dimensional manifold, such as semi-supervised Discriminant Analysis (SDA) [32]. In graph Laplacian based methods, graph Laplacian matrix is introduced to harness the unlabeled samples. However, they are usually less efficient on handling large-scale data because of the time-consuming computation of the graph [33]. Therefore, it is necessary and important to study unsupervised feature selection.

Due to the absence of label information that is used for guiding the search for discriminative features, unsupervised feature selection is considered as a much harder problem [9]. Many researchers have proposed some criterions to define feature relevance. One commonly used criterion is choosing those features that can best preserve the manifold structure of the original data. Another frequently used method is to seek cluster indicators through clustering algorithms and then

transform the unsupervised feature selection into a supervised framework. There are two different ways to use this method. One way is to seek cluster indicators(considered as pseudo labels) and simultaneously perform the supervised feature selection within one unified framework. The works [10] and [34] integrated nonnegative spectral cluster and structural learning into a joint framework. Another first seeks cluster indicators, then perform feature selection to remove or select certain features, and finally to repeat these two steps iteratively until certain criteria is met. The authors in [8] first use spectral analysis to obtain indicator matrix of data points, then use indicator matrix to perform feature selection like supervised one.

3. Algorithms

Before going to introduce the state of the art feature selection algorithms, we would like to give some notations to be used in our paper. We assume that we have n data points $\mathcal{X} = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ and each x_i has d features $\{f_1, f_2, \cdots, f_d\}$. And we use X to denote as data matrix. Given a square matrix A, the trace of A is the sum of the diagonal elements of A. And the Frobenius norm of $A \in \mathfrak{R}^{m \times n}$ is given by

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}^2}$$

Following the previous work [35], we give $\ell_{2,1}$ norm of the matrix $A \in \mathfrak{R}^{m \times n}$

$$\|A\|_{2,1} = \sum_{i=1}^m \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}^2} = \sum_{i=1}^m \|a_i\|_2$$

where a_i is the i-th row of A and $\| \cdot \|_2$ is Euclidean norm. The affinity matrix is defined as follows

$$S_{ij} = \begin{cases} \exp(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{\sigma^2}) & x_i \in \mathcal{N}_k(x_j) \text{ or } x_j \in \mathcal{N}_k(x)_i) \\ 0 & \text{otherise} \end{cases}$$

which can be used to exploit the local data structure of data points, where $\mathcal{N}_k(x_j)$ denotes the set of k nearest neighbors of x_i. Following [36], the normalized Graph Laplacian matrix is defined as $L = D^{-1/2}(D - S)D^{-1/2}$, where D is a diagonal matrix, whose the i-th diagonal element is the sum of the i-th column of S, i.e., $D_{ii} = \sum_j S_{ij}$.

Relief [16] and its multi-class extension ReliefF [37] are supervised feature weighting algorithms of the filter model. Assuming that p instances are randomly sampled from data, for the case where there are two classes, the evaluation criterion of Relief is defined as

$$SC(f_i) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^p d(f_{t,i} - f_{NM(x_t),i}) - d(f_{t,i} - f_{NH(x_t),i}) \tag{1}$$

where $f_{t,i}$ denotes the value of sample x_t on feature f_i, $f_{NM(x_t),i}$ and $f_{NH(x_t),i}$ denote the values on the i-th feature of the nearest points to x_t with the same and different class label, respectively. $d(\cdot)$ is a distance measurement. To handle multi-class problems, the above criterion Eq.(1) can be extended to the following formulation:

$$SC(f_i) = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{t=1}^p \left(-\frac{1}{m_{x_t}} \sum_{x_j \in NH(x_t)} d(f_{t,i} - f_{j,i}) + \sum_{y \neq y_{x_t}} \frac{1}{m_{x_t,y}} \frac{P(y)}{1 - P(y_{x_t})} \sum_{x_j \in NM(x_t,y)} d(f_{t,i} - f_{j,i}) \right) \tag{2}$$

where y_{x_t} is the class label of the instance x_t and $P(y)$ is the probability of an instance being from the class y. $NH(x)$ and $NM(x, y)$ denote a set of nearest points to x with the same class of x and a different class (the class y), respectively. m_{x_t} and $m_{x_t};y$ are the sizes of the sets $NH(x)$ and $NM(x, y)$, respectively. Usually, the size of both $NH(x)$ and $NM(x, y)$, $\forall y \neq y_{x_t}$, is set to a prespecified constant k. The evaluation criteria of Relief and ReliefF suggest that the two algorithms select features contributing to the separation of samples from different classes.

Laplacian Score was proposed in [15] to select features that can retain sample locality specified by an affinity matrix K. Given K, its corresponding degree matrix D and Laplacian matrix L are obtained. Then the Laplacian Score of a feature f is calculated in the following way:

$$LS = \frac{\hat{f}^T L \hat{f}}{\hat{f} D \hat{f}}, \quad \text{where } \hat{f} = f - \frac{f^T D 1}{1^T D 1} \tag{3}$$

where 1 is a vector of the same size with vector f. Since features are evaluated independently in Laplacian Score, selecting k features with Laplacian Score can be achieved by greedily picking the top k features which have the minimal LS values.

Proposed in [2], SPEC is an extension of Laplacian Score. In SPEC, given the affinity matrix K, the degree matrix D, and the normalized Laplacian matrix L, three evaluation criteria are proposed for weighting feature relevance in the following ways:

$$SC_1(f_i) = \tilde{f}_i^{\mathrm{T}} \gamma(L)\tilde{f}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j^2 \gamma(\lambda_j) \tag{4a}$$

$$SC_2(f_i) = \frac{\tilde{f}_i^{\mathrm{T}} \gamma(L)\tilde{f}_i}{1 - (\tilde{f}_i^{\mathrm{T}} \xi_1)^2} = \frac{\sum_{j=2}^{n} \alpha_j^2 \gamma(\lambda_j)}{\sum_{j=2}^{n} \alpha_j^2} \tag{4b}$$

$$SC_3(f_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} (\gamma(2) - \gamma(\lambda_j))\alpha_j^2 \tag{4c}$$

where $\hat{f}_i = (D^{\frac{1}{2}} f_i) \cdot \|D^{\frac{1}{2}} f_i)\|^{-1}$, $(\lambda(j), \xi(j))$ is the j-th eigenvalue and the eigenvector pair of L. $\alpha_j = \cos \theta_j$, where θ_j is the angle between $\hat{f}_i$ and ξ_j; and $\gamma(\cdot)$ is an increasing function which is used to re-scale the eigenvalues of L for denoising. The top eigenvectors of L are the optimal soft cluster indicators of the data [36]. By comparing with these eigenvectors, SPEC selects features that assign similar values to instances that are similar according to K. In [2], it is shown that Laplacian Score is a special case of the second criterion, SC_2 defined in SPEC. Note that SPEC also evaluates features independently.

SPFS [38] performs feature selection by preserving sample similarity, which can handle feature redundancy. The problem can be formulated by:

$$\min_{\|\mathbf{W}\|_{2,1} \le \eta} \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} (x_i^{\mathrm{T}} WW^{\mathrm{T}} x_j - S_{ij})^2 \tag{5}$$

Here $\eta > 0$ is a hyper-parameter.

MCFS [8] adopt a two-step strategy to select those features such that the multi-cluster structure of data can be best preserved. To be specific, firstly, cluster indicator can be obtained through spectral clustering(problem (6a)), then use the indicator matrix to perform feature selection(problem (6b)). Consider the two following optimization problem:

$$\min_{F^{\mathrm{T}}F=I} \mathrm{Tr}(F^{\mathrm{T}}LF) \tag{6a}$$

$$\min_{w_i} \|f_i - X^{\mathrm{T}} w_i\| + \beta \|w_i\|_1 \tag{6b}$$

where $\|w_i\|_1$ is the ℓ_1 norm of w_i. Since the formulation only involves a sparse eigen-problem and a L_1 regularized least squares problem, problem (6) can be efficiently.

Under the assumption that the class label of input data can be predicted by a linear classifier, UDFS [10] incorporated discriminative analysis and $\ell_{2,1}$-norm minimization into a joint framework for unsupervised feature selection. Feature selection can be performed by optimizing the following problem

$$\min_{W^{\mathrm{T}}W=I} \mathrm{Tr}(W^{\mathrm{T}}XLX^{\mathrm{T}}W) + \beta \|W\|_{2,1} \tag{7}$$

where $\beta \ge 0$ is a regularization parameter.

NDFS [39] performs spectral clustering to learn the cluster labels of the input samples, during which the feature selection is performed simultaneously. The joint learning of the cluster labels and feature selection matrix enables NDFS to select the most discriminative features. To learn more accurate cluster labels, a nonnegative constraint is explicitly imposed to the class indicators. Its formulation is presented as follows

$$\min_{W,F} \mathrm{Tr}(T^{\mathrm{T}}LF) + \alpha \|F - X^{\mathrm{T}}W\|_F^2 + \beta \|W\|_{2,1}$$
$$\text{s.t. } F^{\mathrm{T}}F = I, F \ge 0 \tag{8}$$

where $\alpha \ge 0$ and $\beta \ge 0$ are balance parameters. Due to the presence of orthogonal constraint, optimization of problem (8) is difficult. NDFS use the idea of penalty function to solve the formulation.

Matrix factorization has been proven to be effective to perform feature selection. EUFS [40] embeds feature selection into a clustering algorithm via sparse learning without transformation. The problem can be formulated as

$$\min_{U,V} \|X - UV^{\mathrm{T}}\|_{2,1} + \alpha \|V\|_{2,1} + \beta \mathrm{Tr}(U^{\mathrm{T}}LU)$$
$$\text{s.t. } U^{\mathrm{T}}U = I, U \ge 0 \tag{9}$$

where $\alpha \ge 0$ and $\beta \ge 0$ are balance parameters. $\ell_{2,1}$ norm is applied to cost function to reduce the effect of noise and outliers. In order to obtain more sparse solution, $\ell_{2,1}$ regularization has been used. The authors in [40] has developed a novel iterative method called Alternating Direction Method of Multiplier (ADMM for short) to optimize problem (9).

4. Experiments

Due to the space limitation of paper, in this section, we conduct extensive experiments only for unsupervised feature selection. In our experiments, we used 12 publicly available data sets.

4.1. Datasets

The experiments are conducted on 12 publicly available datasets, including five image datasets (PIX10P, PIE10P, COIL20, ORL and JAFFE), two handwritten digit datasets (MNISIT and BA), two text datasets (tr11 and oh15), three microarray datasets (TOX-171, Tumors9 and Leukemia1). Table 1 summarizes the statistics of these data sets.

Table 1. Datasets Description

Domain	Dataset	# of Features	Size	# of Classes	Domain	Dataset	# of Features	Size	# of Classes
	PIE10P	2420	210	10					
	PIX10P	10000	100	10		Leukemia1	5327	72	3
Image,Face	COIL20	1024	1440	20	Bio	Tumors9	5726	60	9
	JAFFE	676	213	10		TOX-171	5748	171	4
	ORL	1024	400	40					
Handwritten,Digits	BA	1404	320	36	Text	tr11	6429	414	9
	MNIST	5000	784	10		oh15	3100	913	10

4.2. Compared Algorithms

In our experiment, the state of the art unsupervised feature selection methods mentioned above have been considered. we list them as follows:

All Features: Using all features perform clustering

MaxVar: Features corresponding to the maximum variance are selected to cluster

Laplacian Score [15]: Features consistent with Gaussian Laplacian matrix are selected to best preserve the local manifold structure

SPEC [2]: Features are selected using spectral regression

SPFS-SFS [38]: The traditional forward search strategy is utilized for similarity preserving feature selection in the SPFS framework

MCFS [8]: Features are selected based on spectral analysis and sparse regression problem

UDFS [10]: Features are selected by a joint framework of discriminative analysis and $\ell_{2,1}$ norm minimization

NDFS [39]: Discriminative features are selected by a joint framework of nonnegative spectral analysis and linear regression with $\ell_{2,1}$ norm regularization

EUFS [40]: Unsupervised feature selection which embeds feature selection into a clustering algorithm via sparse learning without transformation.

4.3. Experiment setting

Since most of feature selection algorithms selected in experiment have one or more parameters, we have to set them before conducting experiments. In order to fairly compare with each other, we choose the best result from several different parameters setting for each algorithm. In this subsection, we give parameters setting used in these algorithms. Based on [34], for Laplacian Score, SPEC, SPFS-SFS, MCFS, UDFS, NDFS and EUFS, we would like to fix the neighborhood size K to be 5 for all data sets. To find the best clustering results for these algorithms, a well-known technique called grid-search strategy can be used, where the parameters range from $\{10^{-8}, 10^{-6}, \ldots, 10^6, 10^8\}$. In experiments, we also need to specify the number of selected features. It is not realistic to know the optimal number of features . we empirically choose the number of selected features from $\{50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300\}$. Based on the selected features, We use K-means algorithm to cluster the data points into c groups. Because the initial center points have great impact on performance of K-means algorithm, we conduct K-means algorithm 20 times repeatedly with random initialization. Then, we report the average results with standard deviation.

4.4. Evaluation Metrics

There are two commonly used metrics which can be used to evaluate performance of clustering. They are clustering accuracy(ACC for short) and normalized mutual information(NMI for short). Generally speaking, the larger ACC and NMI are, the better performance of clustering is. We present the concrete mathematical formulations as below.

Clustering Accuracy(Acc): Like classification accuracy, we can compare the label obtained from clustering with true label to get clustering accuracy.

$$Acc = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta(map(l_i), y_i)}{n}$$

where l_i and y_i are the cluster label and true class label of $\mathbf{x}_i$, respectively, n is the total number of data points, $\delta(x, y)$ is the delta function that equals 1 if $x = y$ and equals 0 otherwise, and map(l_i) is the permutation mapping function that maps each cluster label r_i to equivalent label from data set.

Normalized Mutual Information(NMI): NMI can be used to evaluate the quality of clusters. Now given a clustering result, the NMI can be calculated with the following formulation

$$NMI = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{c} \sum_{j=1}^{c} n_{ij} \log \frac{n_{ij}}{n_i \hat{n}_j}}{\sqrt{(\sum_{i=1}^{c} n_i \log \frac{n_i}{n})(\sum_{j=1}^{c} \hat{n}_j \log \frac{\hat{n}_j}{n})}}$$

where n_i and $\hat{n}_j$ denote the number of contained in the cluster C_i and class L_j for $i = 1, 2 \ldots, c, j = 1, 2 \ldots, c$, respectively, and n_{ij} is the number of data that are in the intersection between cluster C_i and class L_j.

4.5. Experiment Results

We give the clustering results of different methods on the 12 real life datasets in Table 2(ACC) and Table 3(NMI). The results include the average and the standard deviation of clustering accuracy and normalized mutual information, respectively. From the two tables, we can make the following several observations. First, feature selection is necessary and effective. It can not only significantly reduce the numbers of feature and make machine learning algorithms more efficient, but also can improve the performance. Secondly, in general, almost no one feature selection method can obtain the best result on all data sets.

Table 2. Clustering results of different methods on 12 data sets. The best result for each data set is highlighted in bold face.

Dataset	ACC ± std(%)								
	All Features	MaxVar	Laplacian Score	SPFS-SFS	SPEC	MCFS	UDFS	NDFS	EUFS
PIE10P	26.7 ± 1.5	27.1 ±1.1	30.1 ± 0.4	28.9 ± 2.1	27.5 ± 0.8	29.3 ± 2.1	29.5 ± 3.3	29.4 ± 1.6	**47.5 ± 2.3**
PIX10P	85.2 ± 3.3	82.9 ± 3.6	86.9 ± 4.7	86.2 ± 3.2	86.1 ± 5.2	**88.1 ± 6.7**	83.6 ± 2.9	83.3 ± 7.5	86.5 ± 4.0
COIL20	62.7 ± 3.1	61.4 ± 1.6	62.2 ± 1.9	64.3 ± 2.1	65.5 ± 3.8	65.9 ± 2.2	65.5 ± 2.9	63.9 ± 2.4	**66.2 ± 2.7**
ORL	49.7 ± 3.2	50.8 ± 1.4	49.9 ± 2.4	50.4 ± 1.2	51.4 ± 2.2	57.0 ± 3.2	53.8± 3.0	**57.6 ± 1.7**	50.2 ± 2.3
JAFFE	85.3 ± 6.1	85.5 ± 4.2	86.2 ± 3.7	87.1 ± 3.3	85.9 ± 5.1	90.7 ± 6.1	90.5 ± 1.4	**91.0 ± 3.4**	80.1 ± 6.2
MNIST	51.8 ± 2.0	52.0 ± 1.7	52.6 ± 1.8	54.1 ± 1.1	52.4 ± 0.5	52.2 ± 0.3	**57.1 ± 1.2**	49.6 ± 1.1	53.2 ± 2.1
BA	40.9 ± 1.6	41.7 ± 1.3	43.3 ± 1.9	43.9 ± 1.4	42.7 ± 1.1	42.9 ± 1.8	43.8 ± 1.6	42.9 ± 1.8	**45.6 ± 1.4**
tr11	31.8 ± 2.2	31.4 ± 2.4	**39.5 ± 3.2**	37.6 ± 1.2	38.0 ± 3.1	32.1 ± 1.8	35.5 ± 2.1	34.6 ± 1.4	35.5 ± 1.9
oh15	31.6 ± 2.7	32.2 ± 2.1	34.7 ± 2.4	**35.2 ± 1.9**	34.2 ± 2.0	32.5 ± 1.3	32.6 ± 2.4	34.5 ± 1.7	34.2 ± 1.9
TOX-171	42.8 ± 2.1	42.9 ± 1.6	43.1 ± 1.4	44.5 ± 0.3	40.4 ± 0.0	42.9 ± 1.6	45.6 ± 1.2	**46.9 ± 1.5**	42.0 ± 1.8
Tumors9	40.8 ± 3.7	41.2 ± 2.6	42.3 ± 2.6	42.9 ± 2.7	35.8 ± 2.4	42.4 ± 3.6	43.3 ± 3.5	**45.6 ± 4.6**	42.2 ± 3.9
Leukemia1	61.0 ± 5.9	61.3 ± 4.2	62.5 ± 0.0	79.2 ± 2.1	81.6 ± 1.6	69.7 ± 3.2	81.0 ± 3.8	**90.5 ± 2.5**	72.5 ± 4.2

Table 3. Clustering results of different methods on 12 data sets. The best result for each data set is highlighted in bold face.

Dataset	NMI ± std(%)								
	All Features	MaxVar	Laplacian Score	SPFS-SFS	SPEC	MCFS	UDFS	NDFS	EUFS
PIE10P	25.5 ± 3.4	28.6 ± 2.7	30.5 ± 2.5	30.8 ± 0.5	25.3 ± 1.5	31.9 ± 3.1	**49.9 ± 2.7**	30.1 ± 3.1	49.3 ± 1.8
PIX10P	88.0 ± 2.1	89.1 ± 1.6	89.8 ± 0.7	90.0 ± 3.2	91.0 ± 1.9	**91.7 ± 3.1**	85.6 ± 1.9	86.8 ± 4.5	91.5 ± 1.3
COIL20	77.1 ± 1.3	71.9 ± 0.7	72.5 ± 1.1	73.7 ± 0.5	75.3 ± 1.6	74.5 ± 1.2	76.0 ± 1.3	74.3 ± 1.8	**76.6 ± 1.7**
ORL	70.0 ± 1.7	70.7 ± 2.1	71.1 ± 1.3	70.9 ± 1.2	71.4 ± 1.3	75.2 ± 1.7	73.4±1.5	**75.6 ± 1.6**	70.5 ± 1.3
JAFFE	87.5 ± 3.8	83.1 ± 3.4	87.2 ± 2.4	90.8 ± 3.7	87.4 ± 2.2	**91.4 ± 3.8**	90.3 ± 5.2	89.4 ± 2.1	82.3 ± 3.4
MNIST	48.9 ± 1.0	47.6 ± 0.4	48.1 ± 1.0	48.9 ± 0.4	48.3 ± 0.4	**52.0 ± 0.2**	50.0 ± 0.9	44.8 ± 0.5	47.5 ± 0.7
BA	57.2 ± 1.1	57.7 ± 0.9	58.7 ± 0.7	58.9 ± 1.2	58.3 ± 0.8	58.6 ± 0.8	**59.1 ± 0.9**	58.1 ± 0.9	58.4 ± 0.9
tr11	5.7 ± 1.6	8.9 ± 2.2	15.2 ± 3.5	**15.3 ± 3.4**	14.5 ± 3.0	7.1 ± 1.7	11.1 ± 1.6	9.9 ± 3.5	12.7 ± 3.9
oh15	20.5 ± 2.1	23.2 ± 1.6	25.7 ± 1.9	**26.2 ± 1.3**	24.9 ± 1.6	23.4 ± 1.1	23.2 ± 2.1	22.3 ± 1.8	24.5 ± 2.7
TOX-171	13.6 ± 2.3	11.4 ± 3.2	12.5 ± 1.7	20.2 ± 3.2	9.7 ± 0.0	12.7 ± 0.4	16.7 ± 4.8	**22.3 ± 1.8**	13.0 ± 1.7
Tumors9	39.5 ± 3.1	40.2 ± 2.5	41.0 ± 2.3	41.3 ± 2.1	34.5 ± 2.4	41.1 ± 2.7	41.5 ± 3.5	**44.1 ± 3.4**	41.1 ± 3.2
Leukemia1	37.6 ± 10.7	36.1 ± 5.5	36.7 ± 0.0	49.3 ± 2.6	58.5 ± 1.7	53.5 ± 1.3	59.6 ± 4.5	**66.2 ± 7.4**	61.8 ± 0.9

5. Conclusions

This paper gives a survey on feature selection methods proposed in literature. Several state of the art feature selection methods are introduced. As we can see in our experiments, there are one or more parameters to be set. However, in practice, we do not and can not know the best parameters corresponding to the given data set. So How to select the adaptive hyper-parameters and the number of selected features are open problems and also are our future work.

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