**ORIGINAL ARTICLE**



# **Fast feature selection for interval‑valued data through kernel density estimation entropy**

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Received: 29 November 2019 / Accepted: 10 April 2020 / Published online: 7 May 2020 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2020

### **Abstract**

Kernel density estimation, which is a non-parametric method about estimating probability density distribution of random variables, has been used in feature selection. However, existing feature selection methods based on kernel density estimation seldom consider interval-valued data. Actually, interval-valued data exist widely. In this paper, a feature selection method based on kernel density estimation for interval-valued data is proposed. Firstly, the kernel function in kernel density estimation is defned for interval-valued data. Secondly, the interval-valued kernel density estimation probability structure is constructed by the defned kernel function, including kernel density estimation conditional probability, kernel density estimation joint probability and kernel density estimation posterior probability. Thirdly, kernel density estimation entropies for interval-valued data are proposed by the constructed probability structure, including information entropy, conditional entropy and joint entropy of kernel density estimation. Fourthly, we propose a feature selection approach based on kernel density estimation entropy. Moreover, we improve the proposed feature selection algorithm and propose a fast feature selection algorithm based on kernel density estimation entropy. Finally, comparative experiments are conducted from three perspectives of computing time, intuitive identifability and classifcation performance to show the feasibility and the efectiveness of the proposed method.

**Keywords** Kernel density estimation · Entropy · Feature selection · Kernel function · Interval-valued decision table

# **1 Introduction**

Feature selection is of great practical signifcance in real life. The purpose of feature selection is to select feature subset that can most efectively represent the decision from feature set of original data. Therefore, we can eliminate some attributes that are not related to decision, reduce the dimension of data, reduce over ftting, and improve the generalization ability of the model. Thus, feature selection has attracted the attentions of many researchers [\[1](#page-16-0)[–9](#page-16-1)]. Especially in feature selection in numerical data, some researchers [\[10](#page-16-2), [11\]](#page-16-3) use discrete operation to preprocess numerical data. However, it is worth noting that discretization will lead to the loss of information in data. In order to avoid the discretization of numerical features, we can catch the distribution characteristics of numerical data and estimate the probability density of numerical data.

There are two types of probability density estimation: parametric estimation and non-parametric estimation. As for parametric estimation, it is necessary to assume the probability density model of the data. Then, the parameters in the model are solved by using the given data, and the probability density estimation can be obtained. It ought to note that the probability density function can not well refect the rules of the experimental data if the hypothetical model does not conform to experimental data. However, the above situation will not occur in non-parametric estimation. Non-parametric estimation does not need to assume the model of experimental data in advance, but directly fts the probability density function in line with the law of the distribution. There are several common methods of nonparametric density estimation, including Histogram estimation [[12\]](#page-17-0), Kernel density estimation [[13\]](#page-17-1) (shortly KDE), Rosenblatt estimation [\[14\]](#page-17-2) and so on. Kernel density estimation overcomes discontinuous disadvantage of probability density function in Histogram

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estimation and Rosenblatt estimation, so it has been widely used in many areas [\[15–](#page-17-3)[24](#page-17-4)].

Among the applications of kernel density estimation, feature selection is an interesting and successful application. The reason why it is so widely used in feature selection is that it can overcome information loss caused by discretization. Therefore, Kwak et al. [[24\]](#page-17-4) proposed a feature selection method on basis of mutual information defned by kernel density estimation. Recently, Xu et al. [[25\]](#page-17-5) proposed a semi-supervised feature selection method with kernel purity and kernel density estimation. Zhang et al. [[26\]](#page-17-6) proposed a feature selection method in line with kernel density estimation for mixed data. It ought to notice that the above methods don't consider intervalvalued data and they can't be used in feature selection in interval-valued data.

As a matter of fact, interval-valued data exist widely in real applications to describe uncertainty [[27](#page-17-7), [28\]](#page-17-8). Many scholars have studied interval-valued data from diferent perspectives. Especially in feature selection, many researchers have studied feature selection for inter-val-valued data. Dai et al. [\[27](#page-17-7), [28](#page-17-8)] constructed uncertainty measurement and feature selection in interval-valued data. Du et al. [[29](#page-17-9)] put forward an approximation distribution reduct in intervalvalued ordered decision tables. Yang et al. [[30\]](#page-17-10) proposed an attribute reduction based on *𝛼*−dominance relation in interval-valued information systems. Dai et al. [[31](#page-17-11)] constructed dominance-based fuzzy rough set model via probability approach in interval-valued decision systems and used the model to perform approximation distribution reduct. Guru et al. [[32](#page-17-12)] constructed a novel feature selection model for supervised interval-valued data on basis of K-means clustering. Li [[33\]](#page-17-13) put forward multi-level attribute reductions in an interval-valued fuzzy formal context. Dai et al. [[34\]](#page-17-14) proposed a heuristic feature selection for interval-valued data based on conditional entropy. Dai et al. [[35\]](#page-17-15) introduced a feature selection method in incomplete interval-valued decision systems. Guru et al. [\[36](#page-17-16)] presented a feature selection of interval-valued data based on Interval Chi-Square Score.

However, so far, there are very few feature selection methods on basis of kernel density estimation entropy for interval-valued data. Focusing on handling interval-valued data by kernel density estimation entropy, a feature selection method based on kernel density estimation for interval-valued data is proposed in this paper. We frst raise the kernel density estimation of interval-valued data, and then propose kernel density estimation probability structure. Based on the structure, kernel density estimation entropies are proposed and used in feature selection for interval-valued data. In addition, we improve the feature selection method and propose a fast feature selection method. Experiments indicate the effectiveness of the proposed feature selection methods for interval-valued data.

The rest of this paper is organized as below. In Sect. [2,](#page-1-0) the basic concepts of information theory and kernel density estimation are introduced. In Sect. [3,](#page-3-0) a kernel function for interval-valued data is proposed, and its theoretical properties are studied. In Sect. [4,](#page-4-0) the interval-valued kernel density estimation probability structure is raised with the proposed kernel function. In Sect. [5](#page-5-0), the kernel density estimation information entropy, kernel density estimation conditional entropy and kernel density estimation joint entropy for interval-valued data are constructed by using the raised structure. In Sect. [6,](#page-6-0) we propose a feature selection method based on kernel density estimation conditional entropy. For improving efficiency of the feature selection method, a fast feature selection algorithm is further presented via the incremental expressions of the kernel function and the inverse of the covariance matrix. In Sect. 7, the validity of the fast feature selection method is verifed from aspects of computing time, intuitional identifability and classifcation performance by experiments. Section [8](#page-13-0) summarizes the paper.

## <span id="page-1-0"></span>**2 Preliminary knowledge**

### **2.1 Basic concepts in information theory**

Let *X* be a discrete random variable with a range of  $\mathbb{X}$ .  $p(x) = p(X = x)$  denotes the probability of occurrence of  $X = x$ . Information entropy  $H(X)$  is defined as below [\[37](#page-17-17)]:

$$
H(X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathbb{X}} p(x) \log p(x) \tag{1}
$$

Information entropy can measure the amount of information needed to eliminate uncertainty. The greater the uncertainty of discrete random variable *X* is, the greater its information entropy is.

Let *X* and *Y* be discrete random variables with ranges of  $\mathbb{X}$ and  $\mathbb{Y}$ , respectively.  $p(x, y) = p(X = x, Y = y)$  denotes the joint probability of *x* and *y*, then the joint entropy is defned as follows:

$$
H(X,Y) = -\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x,y) \log p(x,y) \tag{2}
$$

Joint entropy can measure the amount of information needed to eliminate the uncertainty in the joint distribution of *X* and *Y*. The greater the uncertainty in *X* and *Y* is, the greater the joint entropy is.

Let *X* and *Y* be discrete random variables with ranges of  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$ .  $p(y|x) = p(Y = y|X = x)$  denotes the probability of  $Y = y$  under  $X = x$ . The definition of conditional entropy is shown as below:

$$
H(Y|X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathbb{X}} p(x) \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Y}} p(y|x) \log p(y|x)
$$
 (3)

Conditional entropy can measure the amount of information needed to eliminate uncertainty in *Y* under condition of *X*. The more information can *X* provide about *Y*, the less uncertainty *Y* has and the less the conditional entropy is.

The above forms of entropy are all for discrete features. Entropy of continuous features without discrete processing can be written in the form of integral:

$$
H(X) = -\int_{x \in \mathbb{X}} p(x) \log p(x) dx \tag{4}
$$

Here *X* is a continuous random variable.  $p(x)$  represents the probability density function of a random variable *X*, and  $\mathbb{X}$ denotes the range of *X*. From Eq. ([4\)](#page-2-0), we can see that the key to obtain the entropy of continuous features lies in the probability density function.

### **2.2 Feature selection**

The curse of dimensionality is a problem which occurs in the applications of data mining, pattern recognition and machine learning [[38–](#page-17-18)[40\]](#page-17-19). In most cases, data sets coming from real life have many features in which there may exist irrelevant or redundant features that can consume a lot of computing time and storage space. Feature selection can deal with the problem efectively. Feature selection is to get rid of features which are irrelevant to decision and to select the features which are relevant to decision. In this way, the performances of learning algorithms can be improved.

In this paper, we mainly study the feature selection approach based information theory. In most cases, feature selection method based on information theory use condition entropy  $H(D|F)$  to evaluate the degree of relevance between features and decision. In condition entropy  $H(D|F)$ ,  $F$  is a feature set and *D* denotes the decision. The smaller the value of  $H(D|F)$  is, the greater relevance between F and D is. Then, we intend to select feature set which have minimum  $H(D|F)$ in the process of feature selection.

**Definition 1** [[34\]](#page-17-14) In an information table  $\langle U, C \rangle$ , *U* is the nonempty sample set and  $C$  is the nonempty feature set. Let *F* be a selected feature set. For  $\forall a, b \in C - F$  and  $a \neq b$ , if  $H(D|F \cup a) < H(D|F \cup b)$ , then *a* is more significant than *b* relative to decision *D*.

The detailed process about feature selection based on condition entropy  $H(D|F)$  can be shown as follows.

### Algorithm 1 Feature selection based on conditional entropy

Input: Complete data set *U*, feature set *C*, decision *D*;maximum number of selected features *K*; threshold *T*. Output: The selected feature subset *F*

1: Set *F* to an empty set;

2:  $min_H = \infty$ ;

3: while  $(|F| < K)$  & &  $(|\Delta H| > T)$  do;<br>4:  $O^* = \arg\min_{Q \in G} F H D(F)$ 

4:  $Q^* = arg \min_{Q \in \mathbf{C} - \mathbf{F}} H \ D(\mathbf{F})$ ;<br>5:  $\Delta H = H(D|\mathbf{F}) - H(D|\mathbf{F} \cup Q^*)$ ;

5:  $\Delta H = H(D|F) - H(D|F \cup Q^*);$ <br>6:  $F = F \cup Q^*$ :  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F} \cup Q^*$ ;

7: end while

### <span id="page-2-0"></span>**2.3 Kernel density estimation**

In one-dimensional continuous real data, the defnition of kernel density estimation is as follows:

<span id="page-2-1"></span>
$$
\hat{f}_{h_n}(x) = \frac{1}{nh_n} \sum_{i=1}^n K_{h_n}(x - x_i) = \frac{1}{nh_n} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h_n}\right) \tag{5}
$$

where  $h_n$  denotes the window width;  $\lim_{n \to \infty} h_n = 0$ ; *n* represents the number of samples;  $K(.)$  denotes a kernel function;  $x_i$ denotes the *i*th sample. The common kernel functions are Uniform kernel, Gauss kernel, Epanechnikov kernel and Quadric kernel. Gauss kernel  $\phi(x - x_i, h) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h} \exp\left(-\frac{(x - x_i)^2}{2h^2}\right)$  $2h^2$  $\big)$  is most commonly used in kernel density estimation. According to the properties of probability density function, it is realized that the integration of probability density function in defnition domain is 1, that is to say, the integration of kernel function in its definition domain is equal to 1: $\int_{x \in \mathbb{X}} K(x) dx = 1$ . Bandwidth *h* plays a smooth role in probability density function. The larger *h* is, the smoother the curve estimated by kernel density is. On the contrary, the steeper the curve is. From the defnition of kernel function, we can see that the kernel density estimation actually calculates the average efect of all sample points on the point *x* probability density based on the distance. The closer the sample points are to the point  $x$ , the greater the contribution to the point *x* is. On the contrary, the farther the distance is, the smaller the contribution will be.

In *m*-dimensional continuous real data, the Gauss kernel function is defned as follows:

$$
\Phi(x - x_i, h) = \frac{1}{\left(\sqrt{2\pi}h\right)^m |\sum|^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
  
exp $\left(-\frac{\left(x - x_i\right)^T \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x - x_i)}{2h^2}\right)$  (6)

where  $x_i$  represents *i*th sample;  $\sum$  denotes the *m*-dimensional sample covariance;  $\sum^{-1}$  represents the inverse of the covariance matrix;  $\sum$  denotes the determinant of the covariance.

<span id="page-3-4"></span>**Definition 2** [[41\]](#page-17-20) In a  $t \times t$  dimension covariance matrix

$$
\sum_{t} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{t-1} r_t \\ r_t^T & 1 \end{pmatrix}
$$

 $\sum_{t-1}$  is the first *t* − 1 dimensional matrix of  $\sum_{t}$ ,  $r_t$  is the first *t* − 1 row of the *t* column element. If  $\sum_{t}$  is reversible, the inverse matrix  $\sum_{t}$ <sup>-1</sup> of  $\sum_{t}$  can be expressed as the following incremental formula:

$$
\sum_{t} \frac{1}{t} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{t-1}^{-1} \mathbf{0}_t \\ \mathbf{0}_t^T & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{\beta_t} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b}_t \mathbf{b}_t^T & \mathbf{b}_t \\ \mathbf{b}_t^T & 1 \end{pmatrix}
$$
(7)

where

$$
\begin{cases} \n\bm{b}_t = -\sum_{t-1}^{-1} \bm{r}_t\\ \n\beta_t = 1 - \bm{r}_t^T \sum_{t-1}^{-1} \bm{r}_t = 1 + \bm{r}_t \bm{b}_t\n\end{cases}
$$

<span id="page-3-5"></span>**Lemma 1** *The determinant of the covariance matrix satisfes the following property:*

$$
|\sum_{t} = \beta_t |\sum_{t=1}| \tag{8}
$$

<span id="page-3-6"></span>**Definition 3** [[26](#page-17-6)] In data set *U*, the feature set *X* contains *t* − 1 features, where  $t \ge 2$  and its inverse matrix is expressed as:  $\sum_{t=1}^{-1}$ . The *X*-feature part of sample *x* is represented as column vector *x*. When the feature set  $Z = X \cup Y$  is obtained by adding feature  $Y$  to the feature set  $X$ , its inverse matrix is expressed as  $\sum_{t}^{-1}$ . The *Z*-feature part of sample *z* is expressed as column vector  $z = (x,y) = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_{t-1}, y)^T$ , and the incremental expression of each element in the kernel matrix is expressed as:

$$
\phi(z_i - z_j, h) = \frac{\phi(x_i - x_j, h)}{\sqrt{2\pi\beta_i}h \exp\left(\frac{\left((x_i - x_j)^T b_i + (y_i - y_j)\right)^2}{2h^2 \beta_i}\right)}
$$
(9)

# <span id="page-3-0"></span>**3 Kernel density estimation for interval‑valued data**

Real-valued data can be regarded as a special form of interval-valued data, where the left and right boundaries of the interval form of real-valued data are equal. Inspired by the large contribution of close samples and the small contribution of far samples, the interval-valued Gauss kernel can be constructed.

**Definition 4** In an interval-valued decision table *IVDT* =<  $U, C \cup D$  >,  $U$  denotes the sample set,  $|U| = n$ denotes the base of  $U$  is  $n$ ;  $C$  represents the conditional feature set; *D* denotes the decision feature. Feature values on conditional features are interval values and feature values on decision features are real values. Let  $A \subseteq C$  and  $|A| = m$ , the interval Gaussian kernel function of random interval variable *x* is defned as follows:

<span id="page-3-2"></span>
$$
\Phi(x - x_i, h_n, A) = \frac{1}{2(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{L,A}|^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
  
\n
$$
\exp\left(-\frac{(x - x_{i,A}^{-})^T \sum_{L,A}^{-1} (x - x_{i,A}^{-})}{2h_n^2}\right)
$$
  
\n
$$
+ \frac{1}{2(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{R,A}|^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
  
\n
$$
\exp\left(-\frac{(x - x_{i,A}^{+})^T \sum_{R,A}^{-1} (x - x_{i,A}^{+})}{2h_n^2}\right).
$$
\n(10)

<span id="page-3-7"></span><span id="page-3-3"></span>where  $h_n$  denotes the window width,  $h_n > 0$  and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} h_n = 0$ ; *x*− *<sup>i</sup>*,*A* represents the *m*-dimensional vector formed by the left bound of interval values of the *i*th sample on the feature set  $A; x_{i, A}^+$  represents the *m*-dimensional vector formed by the right bound of interval values of the *i*th sample in the feature set *A*;  $\sum_{L} A$  is the left-bound covariance of *m*-dimensional on feature set  $A$ ;  $\sum_{R,A}$  is the right-bound covariance of *m*-dimensional on feature set *A*;  $\sum_{L,A}^{-1}$  and  $\sum_{L,A}$  denote the inverse and the determinant of the left-bounded covariance matrix on feature set *A*;  $\sum_{R,A}^{-1}$  and  $|\sum_{R,A}|$  denote the inverse and the determinant of the right-bounded covariance matrix on feature set *A*.

We can rewrite Eq. [5](#page-2-1) to  $\Phi(x - x_i, h_n, A) = L(x - x_i, h_n, A) +$  $R(x - x_i, h_n, A)$  where  $L(x - x_i, h_n, A) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{L|} |A|^{\frac{1}{2}}}$  $\exp(-\frac{(x-x_{iA}^{-})^T \sum_{l,A}^{-1} (x-x_{iA}^{-})}{2L^2})$  $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x - x_{i,A}^{-})}{2h_n^2}$ ) and  $R(x - x_i, h_n, A) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{(x - x_{i,A}^{+})^T \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x - x_{i,A}^{+})}{2h_n^2})}{\sqrt{(2\pi h_n)^{m} |\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2}}}}$  $(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m|\sum_{R,A}|\frac{1}{2}$ 

<span id="page-3-9"></span><span id="page-3-8"></span>**Example 1** An interval-valued decision table *IVDT* =<  $U, C \cup D$  > is presented in Table [1](#page-3-1) where  $U = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4\}, C = \{a, b, c\}.$  In this example, we set *h* =  $1/log2(4) = 0.5$  and *A* = {*a*}. Then we can get the following results:  $L(x_1 - x_2, \frac{1}{2}, A) = 0.1080$  $R\left(x_1 - x_2, \frac{1}{2}, A\right) = 0.0003.$ 

<span id="page-3-1"></span>**Table 1** An interval-valued  $decision table$ 



Similarly, we can get the following matrices:  
\n
$$
L\left(\frac{1}{2}, A\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7981 & 0.1080 & 0.1080 & 0.7981 \\ 0.1080 & 0.7981 & 0.7981 & 0.1080 \\ 0.1080 & 0.7981 & 0.7981 & 0.1080 \\ 0.7981 & 0.1080 & 0.1080 & 0.7981 \end{pmatrix}
$$
and  
\n
$$
R\left(\frac{1}{2}, A\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7981 & 0.0003 & 0.1080 & 0.7981 \\ 0.0003 & 0.7981 & 0.1080 & 0.0003 \\ 0.1080 & 0.1080 & 0.7981 & 0.1080 \\ 0.7981 & 0.0003 & 0.1080 & 0.7981 \end{pmatrix}
$$

<span id="page-4-1"></span>**Proposition 1** *Interval Gaussian kernel function Eq.* [10](#page-3-2) *has the following properties:*

- (1) *Continuity;*
- (2)  $\Phi(x x_i, h_n, A) > 0, \forall A \subseteq C$ ;
- (3) *Symmetry:* $\phi(x y, h_n, A) = \phi(y x, h_n, A)$ , ∀*x*, *y* ∈ *U*,∀*A ⊆ C*;
- (4)  $\int \phi(x x_i, h_n, A) dx = 1, \forall A \subseteq C;$
- (5) *Semi-positive defniteness.*

We can notice that the interval-valued Gaussian kernel raised in this paper will be reduced to real-valued Gaussian kernel when the interval values are reduced to real values and  $\sum_{L}$  *L<sub>RA</sub>* and  $\sum_{R}$  *R<sub>A</sub>* are reversible. From this aspect, we can see that interval kernel function is an extension of classical Gaussian kernel.

<span id="page-4-3"></span>**Theorem 1** ∀*A*  $\subseteq$  *B*  $\subseteq$  *C*,  $\exists \delta > 0$ , *if h<sub>n</sub>*  $\geq \delta$  *and*  $\sum_{L,B}$  *and*  $\sum_{R,B}$  are reversible, then  $\phi(x - x_i, h_n, A) \ge \phi(x - x_i, h_n, B)$ .

*Proof* Let  $A \subseteq B \subseteq C$ ,  $E = A + b$ ,  $b \in B$ . We can get  $\Phi(x - x_i, h_n, A) = L(x - x_i, h_n, A) + R(x - x_i, h_n, A)$ . We can frst prove the properties on *L*(.).

Suppose  $\sum_{i}$  *L<sub>E</sub>* is reversible, we can get  $\sum_{i}$  *LA* is reversible and  $\beta_{LE} > 0$  by Eq. [8](#page-3-3) and the semi-positive definiteness of covariance matrix. Similarly, when  $\sum_{L,B}$  is reversible, we can get  $\sum_{L,F}$  is reversible and  $\beta_{L,F} > 0$  for  $\forall F \subseteq B$ .

$$
L(x - x_i, h_n, A) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{(x - x_{iA}^{\top})^T \sum_{LA}^{-1} (x - x_{iA}^{\top})}{2h_n^2})}{(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{LA}|^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
  

$$
L(x - x_i, h_n, E) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{(x - x_{iE}^{\top})^T \sum_{LB}^{-1} (x - x_{iE}^{\top})}{2h_n^2})}{(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{L,E}|^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
  
Based on Definitions 2, 1 and 3, we can get:

$$
L(x - x_i, h_n, E) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{(x - x_{i,E}^T)^T \sum_{L} \sum_{L} (x - x_{i,E}^T)}{2h_n^2}\right)}{(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{L} \sum_{L} E|^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{(x - x_{i,A}^T)^T \sum_{L} \sum_{L} (x - x_{i,A}^T))^2}{2h_n^2}\right)}{(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{L} \sum_{L} A|^{\frac{1}{2}} \beta_{L,E}^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
\n
$$
* \exp\left(-\frac{\frac{1}{\beta_{L,E}} ((x - x_{i,A}^T)^T b_{L,E} + (x - x_{i,B}^T))^2}{2h_n^2}\right)
$$
\n
$$
L(x - x_i, h_n, A) - L(x - x_i, h_n, E) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{L} A|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp(-\frac{(x - x_{i,A}^T)^T \sum_{L} \sum_{L} (x - x_{i,A}^T)}{2h_n^2})
$$
\n
$$
X(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h_n \beta_{L,E}^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp(-\frac{((x - x_{i,A}^T)^T b_{L,E} + (x - x_{i,B}^T))^2}{2h_n^2 h_{L,E}}))
$$
\nWe can see that  $\frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}h_n)^m |\sum_{L} A|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp(-\frac{(x - x_{i,A}^T)^T \sum_{L} (x - x_{i,A}^T)}{2h_n^2}) > 0$ .  
\n
$$
\max\{\exp(-\frac{((x - x_{i,A}^T)^T b_{L,E} + (x - x_{i,B}^T))^2}{2h_n^2 h_{L,E}})\}) = 1 \text{ for } \beta_{L,E} > 0 \text{ and } h_n > 0.
$$
\nSo when  $h_n \ge \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h_{L,E}^{\frac{1}{2}}} \cdot L(x - x_i, h_n, A) \ge L(x - x_i, h_n, E)$ . Let  $\delta_L = \max\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h_{L,E}^{\frac{1}{2}}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h_{$ 

**Definition 5** Given an interval-valued decision table *IVDT* =  $\langle U, C \cup D \rangle$ ,  $A \subseteq C$  and  $|A| = m$ , the probability density function estimation of interval values on *A* is defned as below:

<span id="page-4-2"></span>
$$
\hat{p}_A(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \phi(x - x_i, h_n, A)
$$
\n(11)

**Proposition 2** (1) $\int \hat{p}_A(x)dx = 1$ .

*Proof* It can be proved by Proposition [1.](#page-4-1) □

# <span id="page-4-0"></span>**4 Kernel density estimation probability structure for interval values**

Enlightened by Kwak et al. [[24\]](#page-17-4), the conditional probability and joint probability of kernel density estimation for interval values can be defned based on the interval kernel function. **Definition 6** Given an interval-valued decision table *IVDT* =<  $U, C \cup D$  >,  $A \subseteq C$  and  $|A| = m$ . In feature set *A*, the conditional probability of kernel density estimation under  $D = d$  is defined as below

$$
\hat{p}_A(x|d) = \frac{1}{n_d} \sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)
$$
\n(12)

where  $I_d = \{x_i | \forall x_i \in U, D(i) = d\}$  in which  $D(i)$  denotes decision value of *i*th sample;  $n_d = |I_d|$  represents the number of elements in set  $I_d$ .

**Definition 7** Given an interval-valued decision table  $IVDT = < U, C \cup D >$ ,  $A \subseteq C$  and  $|A| = m$ . In feature set *A*, the joint probability is defned as follows by Eq. [12:](#page-5-1)

$$
\hat{p}_A(x,d) = \hat{p}_A(d)\hat{p}_A(x|d)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{n_d}{n} \frac{1}{n_d} \sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)
$$
\n(13)

where *n* denotes the number of samples in sample set *U*.

**Definition 8** Given an interval-valued decision table *IVDT* =<  $U, C \cup D > A \subseteq C$  and  $|A| = m$ . In feature set *A*, the posterior probability is defned as follows by Eqs. [12](#page-5-1) and [13](#page-5-2):

$$
\hat{p}_A(d|x) = \frac{\hat{p}_A(x,d)}{\hat{p}_A(x)} = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)} \n= \frac{\sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}{\sum_{i \in U} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}
$$
\n(14)

**Proposition 3**

(1) 
$$
\hat{p}_A(x) = \frac{n_d}{n} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(x|d);
$$
  
\n(2) 
$$
\sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x) = 1;
$$
  
\n(3) 
$$
\hat{p}_A(d) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{p}_A(d|x_i);
$$
  
\n(4) 
$$
\hat{p}_A(x) \ge \hat{p}_A(x,d);
$$
  
\n(5) 
$$
\hat{p}_A(x,d) \le \hat{p}_A(x|d).
$$

*Proof* (1)

$$
\frac{n_d}{n} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(x|d) = \frac{n_d}{n} \frac{1}{n_d} \sum_{d \in D} \sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \phi(x - x_i, h, A).
$$

(2)

$$
\sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x) = \sum_{d \in D} \frac{\sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}{\sum_{i \in U} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}
$$

$$
= \frac{\sum_{d \in D} \sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}{\sum_{i \in U} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}
$$

$$
= \frac{\sum_{i \in U} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}{\sum_{i \in U} \phi(x - x_i, h, A)}.
$$

<span id="page-5-1"></span>(3)

$$
\hat{p}_A(d) = \int \hat{p}_A(d, x) dx
$$

$$
= \int \hat{p}_A(x) \hat{p}_A(d|x) dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{p}_A(d|x_i)
$$

<span id="page-5-2"></span>(3)It can be proven by Eqs. [13](#page-5-2) and [11.](#page-4-2) (4)It can be proven by Eqs. [13](#page-5-2) and [12](#page-5-1).  $\Box$ 

<span id="page-5-3"></span>**Theorem 2** ∃ $\delta > 0$ , ∀*A* ⊆ *B* ⊆ *C* , *if h<sub>n</sub>*  $\geq \delta$  *and*  $\sum_{L,B}$  *and*  $\sum_{R,B}$ *are reversible, then:* 

(1) 
$$
\hat{p}_A(x) \ge \hat{p}_B(x);
$$
  
\n(2)  $\hat{p}_A(x,d) \ge \hat{p}_B(x,d);$   
\n(3)  $\hat{p}_A(x|d) \ge \hat{p}_B(x|d).$ 

*Proof* It can be proved according to Theorem [1.](#page-4-3) □

# <span id="page-5-0"></span>**5 Kernel density estimation entropy of interval values**

According to the law of large numbers, the information entropy, joint entropy and conditional entropy of kernel density estimation for interval values can be defned.

Given an interval-valued decision table *IVDT* =  $\langle U, C \cup D \rangle$ , *U* denotes the sample set. Suppose the samples are independent and subject to the same distribution.  $A \subseteq C$  denotes feature subset. A denotes the value domain of *A*.

**Defnition 9** The information entropy of interval values is defned as below:

$$
\hat{H}(A) = -\int_{x \in A} \hat{p}_A(x) \log \hat{p}_A(x) dx
$$

$$
= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \log \hat{p}_A(x_i)
$$
(15)

**Theorem 3** ∃ $\delta > 0$ , ∀*A* ⊆ *B* ⊆ *C* , *if h<sub>n</sub>*  $\geq \delta$  *and*  $\sum_{L,B}$  *and*  $\sum_{R,B}$ *are reversible, then*  $\hat{H}(A) \ge \hat{H}(B)$ .

*Proof* It can be proved according to Theorem [2.](#page-5-3) □

**Defnition 10** The joint entropy of interval values is defned as:

$$
\hat{H}(A,D) = -\int_{x \in A} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(x,d) \log \hat{p}_A(x,d) dx
$$

$$
= -\int_{x \in A} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(x) \hat{p}_A(d|x) \log \hat{p}_A(x,d) dx \qquad (16)
$$

$$
= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(x_i,d)
$$

<span id="page-6-1"></span>**Defnition 11** The entropy of *D* under the condition *A* is defned as follows:

$$
\hat{H}(D|A) = \int_{x \in A} \hat{p}_A(x) \hat{H}(D|A = x) dx
$$

$$
= -\int_{x \in A} \hat{p}_A(x) \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x) \log \hat{p}_A(d|x) dx \qquad (17)
$$

$$
= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(d|x_i)
$$

Conditional entropy  $\hat{H}(D|A)$  can reflect the correlation between conditional feature set *A* and decision feature *D*. The larger the condition entropy is, the smaller the correlation between *A* and *D* is. Otherwise, the greater the correlation between *A* and *D* is.

**Defnition 12** The entropy of *A* under the condition *D* is defned as follows:

$$
\hat{H}(A|D) = \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d)\hat{H}(A|D = d)
$$
\n
$$
= -\sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d) \int_{x \in A} \hat{p}_A(x|d) \log \hat{p}_A(x|d) dx
$$
\n
$$
= -\sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d) \int_{x \in A} \frac{\hat{p}_A(x)\hat{p}_A(d|x)}{\hat{p}_A(d)} \log \hat{p}_A(x|d) dx \qquad (18)
$$
\n
$$
= -\sum_{d \in D} \int_{x \in A} \hat{p}_A(x)\hat{p}_A(d|x) \log \hat{p}_A(x|d) dx
$$
\n
$$
= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{d \in D} \sum_{i \in U} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(x_i|d)
$$

 $= \hat{H}(D|A) + \hat{H}(A).$ <br>Theorem 4  $\hat{H}(A,D) = \hat{H}(A|D) + H(D)$ 

*Proof* Since  $\sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x) = 1$  and  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) = \hat{p}_A(d)$ , we have:

$$
\hat{H}(A|D) + H(D) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d) \log \hat{p}_A(d)
$$
  
\n
$$
- \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(x_i|d)
$$
  
\n
$$
= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{d \in D} \sum_{i \in U} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(d)
$$
  
\n
$$
- \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(x_i|d)
$$
  
\n
$$
= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(x_i, d)
$$
  
\n
$$
= \hat{H}(A,D)
$$
  
\n
$$
\hat{H}(D|A) + \hat{H}(A) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \log \hat{p}_A(x_i)
$$
  
\n
$$
- \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(d|x_i)
$$
  
\n
$$
= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(x_i)
$$
  
\n
$$
- \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(d|x_i)
$$
  
\n
$$
= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in U} \sum_{d \in D} \hat{p}_A(d|x_i) \log \hat{p}_A(d,x_i)
$$
  
\n
$$
= \hat{H}(A,D)
$$

In summary,  $\hat{H}(A,D) = \hat{H}(A|D) + H(D) = \hat{H}(D|A) + \hat{H}(A)$ . □

# <span id="page-6-0"></span>**6 Feature selection on basis of kernel density estimation entropy**

# **6.1 Feature selection on basis of kernel density estimation entropy**

Based on the defnition (see Defnition [11](#page-6-1)) of conditional entropy via interval kernel density estimation, we construct the original algorithm (see Algorithm 2) to calculate conditional entropy. In Step 3, we calculate the inverse of covariance matrix by gaussian elimination [[42,](#page-17-21) [43\]](#page-17-22) whose time complexity is  $O(|A|^3)$ ; the time complexity of the kernel matrix from Step 1 to Step 5 is  $O(n^2 * |A|^3)$ ; from Step 6 to Step 11, the time complexity of conditional entropy is  $O(n^2 + n \cdot N_d)$ . To sum up, the time complexity of Algorithm 2 is  $O(n^2 * |A|^3 + n^2 + n * N_d)$ .

Algorithm 2 Original Conditional Entropy calculation for Interval-Valued Data (*OCE IV D*)

**Input:** An interval-valued decision table  $IVDT \leq U$ ,  $C \cup$  $D >$ ,  $|U| = n$ ; [1,*N<sub>d</sub>*], the value domain of decision feature *D*; the conditional feature set*A*.

Output:  $\hat{H}(D|A)$ .

- 1: for  $i = 1$  to *n* do
- 2: for  $j = 1$  to *n* do 3: Based on Eq. 10, we can get  $\Phi_{\mathbf{A},i,j}$ ;//Computing kernel matrix *Φ<sup>A</sup>* on conditional feature set *A*.
- 4: end for 5: end for 6: for  $k = 1$  to *n* do 7: **for**  $l = 1$  to *n* do  $p(k)=0;$  $p(k)=p(k)+\Phi_{A,kl}$ ; 8: end for 9: **for**  $d = 1$  to  $N_d$  do  $p'(k, d) = p'(k, d) + \sum_{b \in I_d} \Phi_{A, kb}$ ; 10: end for  $H(k) = \frac{p'(k)}{p(k)} log_2 \frac{p'(k)}{p(k)}$ 11: end for  $\hat{H}(D|A) = -\sum H(?)/n$ 12: return  $\hat{H}(D|A)$ .

Then, we construct a feature selection algorithm (see Algorithm 3) based on conditional entropy of kernel density estimation. The time complexity of Algorithm 3 is  $O(K * |C| * (|A|^3 * n^2 + n^2 + n * N_d)).$ 

Algorithm 3 Original Feature Selection based on Interval-Valued Kernel Density Estimation entropy (*OFS IV KDE*)

**Input:** An interval-valued decision table  $IVDT \leq U, C \cup$  $D >$ ,  $|U| = n$ ; the value domain of decision feature *D* is [1,*Nd*]; number of features *K* and stop threshold *T*. Output: The selected feature *S* 1: Set  $S_X$ ,  $S$  to an empty set; 2:  $min_H = \infty$ ; 3: while  $(|S| < K)$  &&  $(|\Delta H| > T)$  do;<br>4:  $pre.H = min.H;$  $pre\_H = min\_H;$ 5: for  $Q = C - S$  do  $S$ <sub>*x*</sub> $X = S \cup Q$ ;  $new$  *H* =  $CE$  *IVD*(*IVDT,*  $S$ <sub>*-X*</sub>); 6: if  $new_H < min_H$  then 7:  $min_H = new_H;$ 8:  $min_{Q} Q = Q;$  $9 \cdot$  end if 10: end for 11:  $\Delta H = min\_H - pre\_H;$ <br>12:  $S(end + 1) = min O$  $S(end + 1) = min_Q;$ 13: end while

# **6.2 Fast feature selection on basis of kernel density estimation entropy**

The computation of kernel matrix has high time complexity and low efficiency. Therefore, in this section, we first propose an incremental algorithm for interval-valued data (see Algorithm 4) to calculate kernel matrix and the inverse of covariance matrix. Secondly, we propose a concept of kernel

partition matrix and an algorithm (see Algorithm 5) of calculating conditional entropy based on kernel partition matrix for interval-valued data. Finally, based on the above two algorithms, a fast feature selection algorithm (see Algorithm 6) is proposed by interval-valued kernel density estimation entropy.

Algorithm 4 Incremental algorithm for Interval-Valued Data (*I IV D*)

- **Input:** An interval-valued decision table  $IVDT \leq U$ ,  $C \cup$  $D >$ ,  $|U| = n$ ; the selected conditional feature set *S*; a candidate conditional feature *Q*; left-bound covariance matrix  $\sigma_{SQ}^L$  on *S* and *Q*; right-bound covariance matrix  $\sigma_{\mathbf{S} Q}^{R}$  on *S* and *Q*; the left-bound kernel matrix  $\Phi_{\mathbf{S}}^{L}$  on *S*; the right-bound kernel matrix  $\Phi_{\mathcal{S}}^R$  on  $\mathcal{S}$ ; inverse of leftbound covariance matrix  $\sum_{L,S}^{-1}$  on *S*; inverse of rightbound covariance matrix  $\sum_{R,S}^{-1}$  on *S*; width parameter *h*
- $\begin{array}{l} \text{Output:} \ \ \Phi^{L}_{\bm{S-X}}; \ \Phi^{R}_{\bm{S-X}}; \sum^{-1}_{L,\bm{S-X}}; \sum^{-1}_{R,\bm{S-X}}\ \mathbb{1}: \ \bm{S-X} = \bm{S} + Q; \end{array}$
- 2: if  $|S_X| == 1$  then  $//Q$  is the first candidate feature.<br>3:  $\sum_{L}^{1} S_{X} = 1;$
- $\sum_{L,\mathbf{S}=\mathbf{X}}^{-1} = 1;$
- 4:  $\sum_{R}^{L} \frac{L}{s} X = 1;$
- 5: Calculate  $\Phi_{S,X}^L$ ,  $\Phi_{\bm{S} - \bm{X},ij}^{L} = L(x_i - x_j, h, \bm{S} - \bm{X}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h} \exp(-\frac{(x_i^--x_j^-)^2}{2h^2}),$

6: Calculate 
$$
\Phi_{S-X}^R
$$
,  
\n
$$
\Phi_{S-X,i,j}^R = [1,n];
$$
\n6: Calculate  $\Phi_{S-X}^R$ ,  
\n
$$
\Phi_{S-X,i,j}^R = R(x_i - x_j, h, S.X) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}h} \exp(-\frac{(x_i^+ - x_j^+)^2}{2h^2}),
$$
\n
$$
\forall i, j \in [1,n];
$$
\n7: else  $/|Q$  is not the first candidate feature.

- $8:$   $\boldsymbol{rl} = \left(\sigma_{\boldsymbol{S} Q}^{L}\right);$ 9:  $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} SQ \\ \sigma_{SQ}^R \end{pmatrix}$ ,<br>); 10: *bl* =  $-\sum_{L,S}^{-1}rl;$ 11:  $$ 12:  $\beta l = 1 + r l^T b l;$ <br>13:  $\beta r = 1 + r r^T b r$  $\beta r = 1 + r r^T b r;$ 14: if  $\beta l \neq 0$  then 15:  $\sum_{L}^{1} \sum_{S}^{n} \mathbf{x} = \left( \sum_{L}^{1} \frac{1}{S} + \frac{b l b l^T}{\beta l}, \frac{b l}{\beta l}, \frac{b l^T}{\beta l}, \frac{1}{\beta l} \right);$ 16:  $\Phi_{S,X}^L$  can be obtained through  $\Phi_S^L$ ,  $\forall i, j \in [1,n]$ ,  $L(x_i-x_j, h, S.X) =$ *L*(*xi*−*x<sup>j</sup> ,h,S*)  $\sqrt{2\pi}h\cdot\beta l^{\frac{1}{2}}\cdot \exp(\frac{((\bm{x}_{i, \mathcal{S}}^{-}\bm{x}_{j, \mathcal{S}}^{-})^{\mathcal{T}}\bm{b}l+(\bm{x}_{i, \mathcal{Q}}^{-}\bm{x}_{j, \mathcal{Q}}^{-})^2}{2h^2\beta l})$ ; 17: else 18:  $\sum_{L, S \subset X}^{-1} = 1;$ 19: All the elements in the kernel matrix  $\Phi_{S,X}^L$  are 1. 20: end if 21: if  $\beta r \neq 0$  then<br>22:  $\sum_{P}^{P}$  **v** = 22:  $\sum_{R,s}^{-1} \sum_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{X} = \left( \sum_{R,s}^{-1} + \frac{brbr^T}{\beta r}, \frac{br}{\beta r}, \frac{br^T}{\beta r}, \frac{1}{\beta r} \right);$ 23:  $\Phi_{\mathbf{S} - \mathbf{X}}^R$  can be obtained through  $\Phi_{\mathbf{S}}^R$ ,  $\forall i, j \in [1, n],$  $R(x_i - x_j, h, S_X) = R(x_i - x_j, h, S)$  $\sqrt{2\pi}h\cdot\beta r^{\frac{1}{2}}\cdot\exp(\frac{((x_{i,S}^{+}-x_{j,S}^{+})^{T}\mathbf{b}r+(x_{i,Q}^{+}-x_{j,Q}^{+}))^{2}}{2h^{2}\beta r}$ ; 24: else 25:  $\sum_{R,S,X}^{-1} = 1$ ; 26: All the elements in the kernel matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{\boldsymbol{S}=\boldsymbol{X}}^R$  are 1; 27: end if 28: end if 29: return  $\Phi_{S,X}^L$ ; $\Phi_{S,X}^R$ ; $\sum_{L,S,X}^{-1}$ ; $\sum_{R,S,X}^{-1}$ .
- 

In Algorithm 4, if conditional feature *Q* is the frst candidate feature, then the inverse of left bound covariance matrix and right bound covariance matrix are both 1 and the kernel matrix  $\Phi_S^L$  and  $\Phi_S^R$  are calculated based on Eq. [10](#page-3-2) where *S* denotes the selected conditional features. If conditional feature *Q* is not the frst candidate feature, then we need to calculate the inverse of covariance matrix based on Eq. [7](#page-3-7) and two kernel matrices  $\Phi_S^L$ ,  $\Phi_S^R$  based on Eqs. [9](#page-3-8) and [10,](#page-3-2) respectively. The main cost of Algorithm 4 is the calculation of the kernel matrix, so the time complexity of the algorithm is  $O(n^2)$ .

Algorithm 5 Conditional Entropy calculation for Interval-Valued Data (*CE IV D*)

**Input:** An interval-valued decision table  $IVDT \leq U, C \cup$  $D >$ ,  $|U| = n$ ; [1,*N<sub>d</sub>*], the value domain of decision feature *D*; the conditional feature subset *A*; kernel matrix  $\Phi_A^L$ consisting of left bounds of interval values; kernel matrix Φ*<sup>R</sup> <sup>A</sup>* consisting of right bounds of interval values

Output:  $-\hat{H}(D|A)/n$ 

- 1: Create a kernel partition matrix  $\Upsilon(A,D)$  and set the element value of the matrix to 0;  $\Upsilon(A,D)$  = *Υ*<sub>*i*,*D*(*j*)</sub> (*A,D*))  $\gamma_{n \times N_d}$ , where  $\gamma_{i,D(j)}(A,D) = \gamma_{i,D(j)}$  $\Phi_{{\bm{A}},ij}^L + \Phi_{{\bm{A}},ij}^R, \forall i,j \in [1,n]$
- 2:  $\hat{H}(D|A) = 0$ ;
- 3: for  $K = 1$  to *n* do<br>
4:  $\hat{p}_A(d|x_k) = \frac{\Upsilon_{k,d}(A,D)}{|\Upsilon(A,D)|_k};$
- 
- 5:  $\hat{H}(D|A) = \hat{H}(D|A) + \hat{P}_A(d|x_k) \log \hat{P}_A(d|x_k);$ 6: end for 7: return  $-\hat{H}(D|\mathbf{A})/n$ .

In Algorithm 5, the time complexity of Step 1 is  $O(n^2)$ ; the time complexity of Step 3 to Step 6 is  $O(n)$ . So the total time complexity of the algorithm is  $O(n^2 + n)$ .

**Definition 13** In an interval-valued decision table *IVDT* =  $\langle U, C \cup D \rangle$ , *U* denotes the sample set and  $|U| = n$ ,  $A \subseteq C$ .  $\Phi(A) = (\phi(x_i - x_j, h, A))_{n \times n} = (L(x_i - x_j, h, A) + R(x_i - x_j, h, A))_{n \times n}$  is a kernel matrix. The range of decision *D* is the integer of  $[1, N_d]$ . Then the definition of the kernel partition matrix  $\boldsymbol{Y}(A,D)$  is as follows:

$$
\mathbf{Y}(A,D) = (Y_{i,d}(A,D))_{n \times N_d} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \phi_{ij} m_{jd}\right)_{n \times N_d}
$$
  
\n
$$
= \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \phi(x_i - x_j, h, A) m_{jd}\right)_{n \times N_d}
$$
  
\n
$$
= \left(\sum_{j=1}^n L(x_i - x_j, h, A) m_{jd}\right)_{n \times N_d}
$$
  
\n
$$
+ \left(\sum_{j=1}^n R(x_i - x_j, h, A) m_{jd}\right)_{n \times N_d}
$$
  
\n
$$
\left(1 D(i) = d\right)
$$
 (10)

where  $m_{jd} = \begin{cases} 1 & D(j) = d \\ 0 & D(j) \neq d \end{cases}$  $0 D(j) \neq d'$ 

*Example 2 (Continued from Example* [1](#page-3-9)*)* Based on Table [1,](#page-3-1)  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

we can get 
$$
M(D) = (m_{jd})_{4\times 2}
$$
:  $M(D) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

 $(Y_{1,1}(A,D)) = 1.5962 + 1.5962 = 3.1924$ . Similarly, we can

get: 
$$
\mathbf{Y}(A,D) = \begin{pmatrix} 3.1924 & 0.3243 \\ 0.2166 & 2.5023 \\ 0.432 & 2.5023 \\ 3.1924 & 0.3243 \end{pmatrix}
$$

**Re mark** 1  $Y_{i,d}(A,D) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \phi(x_i - x_j, h, A) m_{jd} = \sum_{i \in I_d} \phi(x_i - x_i, h, A) = n * \hat{p}_A(x_i, d).$ 

**Theorem 5**  $|Y(A, D)|$ *i* represents the addition of the *i*th row *elements of the kernel partition matrix. It satisfes the following property:*

$$
|\mathbf{Y}(A,D)|_i = \sum_{j \in U} \phi(x_i - x_j, h, A) = n * \hat{p}_A(x_i)
$$

**Proof**  $|Y(A,D)|_i = \sum_{d \in [1,N_d]} Y_{id}(A,D) = \sum_{d \in [1,N_d]} \sum_{j=1}^n \phi(x_i - x_j, h, A) m_{ja}$  $=\sum_{j=1}^n \phi(x_i-x_j, h, A) = n * \frac{1}{n} * \sum_{j=1}^n \phi(x_i-x_j, h, A) = n *$ *p̂A* ( *xi* ) ◻ *Remark 2*  $\hat{p}_A(d|x_i) = \frac{Y_{i,d}(A,D)}{|Y(A,D)|_i}$ 

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Algorithm 6 Fast Feature Selection based on Interval-Valued Kernel Density Estimation entropy (*FFS IV KDE*)

**Input:** An interval-valued decision table  $IVDT \leq U, C \cup$  $D > |U| = n$ ; [1,*N<sub>d</sub>*], the value field of decision feature *D*; the maximum upper limit of the number of selected features *K*; threshold T; width parameter *h*

Output: Selected feature set *S*. 1: Set *S X* to an empty set

2:  $\Delta H = inf$ 3: while  $|S| < K\&\&|\Delta H| > T$  do<br>4: min  $H = \infty$ : 4:  $\min H = \infty;$ <br>5:  $\text{pre}_{H} = \min$  $pre.H = min.H;$ 6: for  $Q \in \mathbf{C} - \mathbf{S}$  do<br>7:  $\mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{S} + Q$  $S.X = S + Q;$ 8:  $\left( \sum_{L, S \subset X}^{-1}, \sum_{R, S \subset X}^{-1}, \Phi_{S \subset X}^{L}, \Phi_{S \subset X}^{R} \right)$  $\overline{ }$  $= I$ <sub>*LIVD*</sub> $(Q, S, \sum_{L,S}^{-1}, \sum_{R,S}^{-1}, \Phi_S^L, \Phi_S^R, h);$ 9:  $new.H = CE.IVD (IVDT, \Phi^L, \Phi^R, h, N_d)$ 10: if  $new_H < min_H$  then 11:  $\min H = new H;$ 12:  $\min Q = Q;$ 13:  $\min_{x} x = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$ <br>  $\min_{x} x = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$ 14:  $\min_{\mathbf{A}} \mathbf{\Phi}^{L} = \mathbf{\Phi}_{\mathbf{S}_{-}\mathbf{X}}^{L};$ <br>  $15: \quad \min_{\mathbf{A}} \text{user} = \sum_{R,\mathbf{S}_{-}\mathbf{X}}^{-1};$ 16:  $\min \mathbf{\Psi}^R = \mathbf{\Phi}_{S,X}^R;$ 17: end if 18: end for 19:  $\Delta H = \min \, H - pre \, H;$ <br>20:  $\sum_{I} \frac{1}{s} = \min \, x \, is \, s \, d;$ 20:  $\sum_{L,S}^{-1} = \min_{i} - i \nu s$ 21:  $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{\boldsymbol{S}}^L = \min \boldsymbol{\Phi}^L;$ 22:  $\sum_{R,S}^{-1} = \min_{s} x$ ; 23:  $\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{\boldsymbol{S}}^R = \min \boldsymbol{\Phi}^R;$ 24:  $S = S \cdot X$ ; 25: end while 26: return *S*.

Algorithm 6 describes a Fast Feature Selection based on Interval-Valued Kernel Density Estimation entropy (shortly *FFS*\_*IVKDE*). Step 8 calculates the inverse of the left bound covariance matrix  $\sum_{L,S=X}^{-1}$  and the right bound covariance  $\sum_{R,S\_{X}$  on conditional feature *S\_X* where *S*\_*X* is the conditional feature set after adding a candidate conditional feature *Q*. In addition, the kernel matrix  $\Phi_{S,X}^L$  about the left bound of interval values and the kernel  $\lim_{s \to \infty} \Phi_{S,X}^R$  about the right bound of interval values on the feature set *S*\_*X* are calculated. Step 9 calculates the conditional entropy *new*\_*H* on the conditional feature set *S*\_*X*. Steps 10-17 determine whether the conditional entropy *new* $H$  on the conditional feature set  $S$ <sub> $X$ </sub> is smaller than the conditional entropy min \_*H* on the original feature set *S*. If *new*\_*H* is less than min \_*H*, then candidate feature *Q* in *S*\_*X* can provide feature information about decision feature *D* and put *Q* in the selected feature set *S*. And, based on the time complexity analysis of the above Algorithms 5 and 4, we can get that the time complexity of Algorithm 6 is  $O(K * |C| * (n^2 + n)).$ 

## **7 Experiments**

In order to test the efectiveness of the proposed method, experiments are carried out on 14 data sets. The details of these 14 data sets are shown in Table [2.](#page-10-0) The frst four of them are real-life interval-valued data sets [[28](#page-17-8), [44,](#page-17-23) [45](#page-17-24)]. SRBCT is real-valued data from [[46](#page-17-25)]. Glioma is realvalued data from [\[47\]](#page-17-26). The other data sets are real-valued data from UCI [[48](#page-17-27)].

Since the last ten data sets are real-valued data, we need to convert the real-valued data into interval-valued data. The specifc operation about above converting is designed as follows:  $a_i^- = a_i - \sigma_d$ ,  $a_i^+ = a_i + \sigma_d$  where  $a_i$  denotes the *i*th sample's value on feature  $a \in C$ ,  $\sigma_d$  denotes the standard variance of feature values about samples whose labels are the same as *i*th sample [\[49\]](#page-17-28).

In the experiment, we evaluate the efectiveness of the fast feature selection method proposed in this paper from three perspectives: (1). Feature selection via intervalvalued kernel density estimation entropy mainly includes three aspects: computing of kernel matrix and the inverse of covariance matrix, computing of conditional entropy, feature selection. In order to test wheth-er the fast feature selection algorithm is faster than the original feature selection algorithm, we compare the running time of two methods from three aspects: the computing time of kernel matrix and the inverse of covariance matrix, the computing time of conditional entropy, and the computing time of feature selection. (2). Sample distribution by frst two features selected by our method are compared with that of two features selected randomly. (3). Compare the classifcation performance of our method with other six comparative methods. Due to the limited number of samples in Fish, Face, Car and Glioma, leave-one-out cross validation is used. Other data sets use 10 fold cross validation.

### **7.1 Comparison of running time**

In order to test wether the fast feature selection algorithm is faster than the original feature selection method, we conduct experiments on three representative data, including Face data of 9 label classes, Hill data of 1212 samples and Colon data of 2000 features. Here we set window width parameter *h* as 1/*log*2(*n*) where *n* denotes the number of samples. In addition, the hardware platform for our experiments is a PC equipped with 12 G main memory and 3.41 GHZ CPU. The software is Matlab (Version R2019a).

The calculation of the kernel matrix and the inverse of covariance matrix in Steps 1-5 of Algorithm 2 is denoted as the Non Incremental strategy of Interval-Valued Data (shortly *NI*\_*IVD*). We compare *NI*\_*IVD* with Algorithm 4, in which the calculation of the kernel matrix and the inverse of covariance matrix is denoted Incremental algorithm of Interval-Valued Data (shortly *I*\_*IVD*). In Fig. [1](#page-11-0), we show the time comparison results of *NI*\_*IVD* method and *I*\_*IVD* method on Face, Hill and Colon, where the red line represents *I*\_*IVD* and the black line represents *NI*\_*IVD*. In each node (*x*, *y*), *x* represents the number of features, and *y* represents time of the method calculating the kernel matrix and inverse of covariance matrix under feature subset  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r\}$ . From Fig. [1,](#page-11-0) we can fnd *I*\_*IVD* is much faster than *IN*\_*IVD* on the three data sets. Therefore, our incremental algorithm *I*\_*IVD* can greatly speed up the speed of calculating kernel matrix and the inverse of covariance matrix.

Fig. [2](#page-11-1) shows the time comparison results of conditional entropy on Face, Hill and Colon. In Fig. [2](#page-11-1), the black line represents the original conditional entropy calculation method (see Algorithm 2), and the red line represents the improved conditional entropy calculation (see Algorithm 5). What's more, in each node  $(x, y)$ , *x* represents the number of features, and *y* represents the running time of the method calculating condition entropy under feature subset  ${a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r}$ . From the figure, we can see that the calculation time of *CE*\_*IVD* is signifcantly less than that of *OCE*\_*IVD*. It indicates that algorithm *CE*\_*IVD* is faster than algorithm *OCE*\_*IVD*.

Figure [3](#page-11-2) shows the time comparison results of feature selection on Face, Hill and Colon data. Furthermore, in each node (*x*, *y*), *x* represents the number of features and *y* represents running time of the method selecting feature *x*. In Fig. [3,](#page-11-2) the black line represents the original feature selection method (see Algorithm 3), and the red line represents the fast feature selection method (see Algorithm 6). We can see that the red line is much lower than the black line. Therefore, the speed of *FFS*\_*IVKDE* is faster than that of *OFS*\_*IVKDE* in feature selection.

### **7.2 Intuitive efect**

In order to intuitively display the effectiveness of the proposed fast feature selection, we select Face, Iris and Colon to show the intuitive effect of the method. We compare scatter plot constructed by the first two features selected through Algorithm 6 with scatter plot constructed by two random features from original data. Here we set window width parameter *h* as 3/*log*2(*n*) where *n* denotes the number of samples. Figs [4](#page-12-0), [5,](#page-12-1) [6](#page-12-2) show the comparison of scatter plots, where each rectangle represents a sample and different colors represent different classes.

Sub-fgures (a) in Figs. [4](#page-12-0)–[6](#page-12-2) show sample distribution under the frst two features selected by our method, while sub-fgures (b) in Figs. [4](#page-12-0)[-6](#page-12-2) show sample distribution under two random features. The x-axis denotes the frst selected feature and the y-axis denotes the second selected feature. We can fnd that the sample distribution of the frst two features selected by our method is clear, while the sample distribution of two random features has many intersections. It suggests that the top two features selected by our method have higher identifability than the two random features, visually. Hence, the proposed feature selection does be effective.

## **7.3 Classifcation performance**

Most of the traditional classifers are for real-valued data. To classify interval-valued data, Dai et al. [[28\]](#page-17-8) proposed the extensions of K-Nearest Neighbor(KNN) method and Probabilistic Neural Network(PNN).



<span id="page-10-0"></span>**Table 2** Interval-valued data sets

**Definition 14** [\[28](#page-17-8)]  $u_i$  and  $u_j$  are two objects of interval-valued information table.  $u_i = [u_i^{k,-}, u_i^{k,+}]$  $[u_j^k]$  and  $u_j = \left[ u_j^{k,-}, u_j^{k,+} \right]$ *j* ] represent the interval values of object  $u_i$  and  $u_j$  in *k*th feature. The distance between  $u_i$  and  $u_j$ 

$$
Dis(u_i, u_j) = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^m \left( P_{\left(u_i^k \geq u_j^k\right)} - P_{\left(u_i^k \leq u_j^k\right)} \right)^2}
$$

Where *m* denotes the number of conditional features and  $P_{(u_i^k \geq u_j^k)}$ denotes the possible degree of the interval value  $u_i$ 



<span id="page-11-0"></span>**Fig. 1** Comparison of computing time of kernel matrix and inverse on covariance matrix on Face, Hill, Colon



<span id="page-11-1"></span>**Fig. 2** Comparison of computing time of conditional entropy on Face, Hill, Colon



<span id="page-11-2"></span>**Fig. 3** Comparison of computing time of feature selection on Face, Hill, Colon

relative to the interval value  $u_j$ , which is designed as follows:  $P_{(u_i^k \geq u_j^k)} = \min\{1, \max\{\frac{u_i^{k,+} - u_j^{k,-}}{(u_i^{k,+} - u_j^{k,-}) + (u_i^{k,-})}\}$  $\frac{u_i}{(u_i^{k,+}-u_i^{k,-})+(u_j^{k,+}-u_j^{k,-})},0$ }.

In this paper, we compare our method with six representive methods. In [[27](#page-17-7)], a similarity relation between two interval values based on the possible degree of interval value A relative to interval value B was proposed. In  $[30]$  $[30]$  $[30]$ , the  $\alpha$ dominance relation was presented. In [[34\]](#page-17-14), the relative bound diference similarity degree between two interval values was proposed. In  $[50]$  $[50]$ , the  $\alpha$ -weak similarity relation between two interval values was proposed. Then we use these four kinds of relations to defne conditional entropy similar to [[27\]](#page-17-7) for feature selection, and obtain four feature selection methods, namely Feature Selection of the Similarity Relation (FSSR), Feature Selection of *𝛼* Dominance Relation (FSDR), Feature Selection of the Relative Bound Diference similarity degree (FSRBD) and Feature Selection

of the  $\alpha$ -Weak Similarity relation (FSWS). Attribute reduction using conditional entropy based on dominance fuzzy rough sets was proposed by [[35](#page-17-15)] , called Attribute Reduction of Dominance Relation (ARDR). Recently, feature selection based on Interval Chi-Square Score was presented by [\[36](#page-17-16)], called Feature Selection of Interval Chi-Square Score (FSICSS). We proposed Fast Feature Selection method of the Kernel Density Estimation entropy (FFSKDE) in this paper. The range of parameter  $\theta$  involved in FSSR, FSDR, FSRBD, FSWS is set to {0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8}. According to literatures [\[24](#page-17-4), [51\]](#page-17-30), the range of parameter *h* involved in the proposed FFSKDE is set to  $\{\frac{1}{\log(2(n)}, \frac{2}{\log(2(n)}, \frac{3}{\log(2(n)})\})$  where *n* denotes the number of samples. In this experiment, FSSR, FSDR, FSRBD, FSWS, FFSKDE feature selection methods select the optimal classifcation results within its corresponding parameter range.

<span id="page-12-2"></span><span id="page-12-1"></span><span id="page-12-0"></span>

In the following, we will compare FFSKDE with FSSR,FSDR, FSRBD, FSWS, FSCISS, ARDR and All features on the indexes of accuracy, precision, recall which can comprehensively and well refect the classifcation performance of these methods.

First, the accuracy results are shown in Table [3](#page-13-1) and Table [4](#page-14-0) where the optimal classifcation accuracies of the data among the seven feature selection methods are represented in bold. From Table [3](#page-13-1) and Table [4](#page-14-0), the times of being the optimal of FFSKDE method is higher than other six methods on both KNN classifer and PNN classifer. Moreover, in terms of the average classifcation accuracy on the data sets, FFSKDE method is not only higher than the other six comparative methods, but also higher than the average classifcation accuracy of ALL features. Especially, in KNN classifer and PNN classifer, only our method has an average classifcation accuracy of more than 80%. By KNN classifer, our method's average classifcation accuracy is about 6% higher than the sub-optimal method's average classifcation accuracy. By PNN classifer, our method's average classifcation accuracy is about 4% higher than the sub-optimal method's average classifcation accuracy.

Second, the precision results are displayed in Table [5](#page-14-1) and Table [6](#page-15-0) where the optimal classifcation precision results among the seven feature selection methods are denoted in bold. By KNN classifer, we can observe the times when FFSKDE achieves the optimal results is higher than other comparative methods. By PNN classifer, although the times that FFSKDE achieves the best equal to FFSR, the average classifcation precision of FFSKDE is obviously higher than FFSS. What's more, the average value of classifcation precision on FFSKDE is not only higher that of other comparative methods, but also higher ALL features.

Finally, the classification recall results are shown in Table [7](#page-15-1) and Table [8](#page-16-4) where the optimal classifcation recall results are represented in bold.We can get the same conclusion as classifcation precision. Then, we can get result that the FFSKDE proposed in this paper performs better than other methods and All features in accuracy, precision and recall. Therefore, the fast feature selection method proposed in this paper is efective.

# <span id="page-13-0"></span>**8 Conclusion**

<span id="page-13-1"></span>Kernel density estimation technology has been applied in feature selection to avoid discretization for real-valued data. However, there are few studies on feature selection based on kernel density estimation for interval-valued data. Therefore, a feature selection method based on kernel density estimation entropy for interval-valued data is proposed in this paper. Firstly, we raise kernel density estimation of interval-valued data and study its' properties.





Tumors **1.0000**

<span id="page-14-1"></span><span id="page-14-0"></span>Tumors

Lung 0.9886

Lung Avg.

Avg. **0.7859**

 $0.7859 \pm 0.0099$ 

**0.0099** 0.7399

 $0.7399 \pm 0.0070$ 

0.0070 0.6170

 $0.6170 \pm 0.0213$ 

0.0213 0.6974

 $0.6974 \pm 0.0296$ 

0.0296 0.6591

 $0.6591 \pm 0.0229$ 

0.0229 0.6346

 $0.6346 \pm 0.0091$ 

0.0091 0.6583

 $0.6583 \pm 0.0116$ 

0.0116 0.7051

± 0.0278

 $0.9886 \pm 0.0017$ 

0.0017 **1.0000**

 $1.0000 \pm 0.0000$ 

**0.0000** 0.4479

 $0.4479 \pm 0.0000$ 

0.0000 0.9545

 $0.9545 \pm 0.0192$ 

0.0192 0.4468

 $0.4468 \pm 0.0000$ 

0.0000 0.4479

 $0.4479 \pm 0.0000$ 

0.0000 0.9624

 $0.9624 \pm 0.0040$ 

0.0040 0.4479

± 0.0000

 $1.0000 \pm 0.0000$ 

**0.0000** 0.9875

 $0.9875 \pm 0.0000$ 

 $+0.0000$  0.3738

 $0.3738 \pm 0.0921$ 

0.0921 0.5416

 $0.5416 \pm 0.2129$ 

0.2129 0.4831

 $0.4831 \pm 0.1675$ 

0.1675 0.9194

 $0.9194 \pm 0.0048$ 

0.0048 0.3178

 $0.3178 \pm 0.0061$ 

0.0061 0.4121

± 0.0588



Tumors **1.0000**

Lung  $0.9000$ 

<span id="page-15-1"></span>Lung Avg.

Avg. **0.7645**

 $0.7645 \pm 0.0084$ 

**0.0084** 0.7254

 $0.7254 \pm 0.0066$ 

0.0066 0.5878

 $0.5878 \pm 0.0086$ 

0.0086 0.6750

 $0.6750 \pm 0.0092$ 

0.0092 0.6481

 $0.6481 \pm 0.0087$ 

0.0087 0.5836

 $0.5836 \pm 0.0062$ 

 $+0.0062$  0.6512

 $0.6512 \pm 0.0098$ 

0.0098 0.6730

± 0.0073

 $0.9000 \pm 0.0158$ 

0.0158 **1.0000**

 $1.0000 \pm 0.0000$ 

**0.0000** 0.5000

 $0.5000\pm0.0000$ 

0.0000 0.9942

 $0.9942 \pm 0.0025$ 

0.0025 0.4884

 $0.4884 \pm 0.0000$ 

0.0000 0.0125

 $0.0125 \pm 0.0000$ 

0.0000 0.6500

 $0.6500\pm0.0394$ 

0.0394 0.5000

± 0.0000

**0.0000** 0.9762

0.0000 0.0489

0.0109 0.5000

0.0198 0.4989

0.0152 0.8214

0.0125 0.4705

0.0242 0.4714

± 0.0204

<span id="page-15-0"></span>2 Springer

H



**Table 8** The recall results of PNN

<span id="page-16-4"></span>Table 8 The recall results of PNN

The kernel density estimation probability structure is constructed. By the constructed structure, a series of kernel density estimation entropies are defned. Further we present a fast feature selection method by kernel partition matrix, incremental expressions of kernel matrix and inverse of covariance matrix. Experiments are conducted to verify the proposed approach. The results show that the proposed fast feature selection method is efficient.

It is worth noting that the proposed fast feature selection algorithm doesn't consider the correlation among the selected features. Therefore, in the future work, we will construct an improved feature selection method via introducing the concept of mutual information which can not only evaluate the correlation between the selected features and decision feature, but also evaluate the correlation among the selected features. However, how to construct the mutual information by kernel density estimation is challenging. In the future, we intend to study this issue.

**Acknowledgements** This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 61976089, No. 61473259, No. 61070074, No. 60703038), and the Hunan Provincial Science & Technology Project Foundation (2018TP1018, 2018RS3065).

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