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MSAI-6124

Neuro Evolution & Fuzzy Intelligence

Week 5 – Part 1

Clustering

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Evaluating the Efficiency of Algorithms



- Algorithm complexity
 - Differentiates algorithms based on the **scale** of running time or memory space
 - Expresses it as a function to show **how fast it grows** along with the input(s), normally using the Big-O notation
- **Time complexity** estimates the running time of an algorithm
- **Space complexity** estimates the amount of memory space that an algorithm requires



Formal Definition of Big-O

- $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$, if there exists a real constant $c > 0$ and an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$, such that

$$f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n), \forall n \geq n_0$$

Note: $g(n)$ should be in the simplest form

In such a case, we say $f(n)$ is in the order of $g(n)$

- Example

- $f(n) = 3n + 5$
- If we select $g(n) = n$, it is easy to find $c = 4$ and $n_0 = 5$ that $f(n) = 3n + 5 \leq c \cdot g(n) = 4n$, for $n \geq 5$
- Thus, this function $f(n)$ has a time complexity of $O(n)$



Time Complexity of Algorithms

```
def find_min(data):  
    mindata=data[0]  
    for value in data:  
        if value < mindata:  
            mindata = value  
    return mindata
```

The time complexity of `find_min()` is $O(n)$

The time complexity of the most naïve sort function is $O(n^2)$

The time complexity of many advanced sort functions, e.g., `quick_sort()`, is $O(n\log(n))$

*Similar functions often do not differ much in space complexity, but may significantly differ in [time complexity](#)

See more details [here](#)



Common Functions' Complexity

Function	Expression	Complexity
Constant	$f(n) = C$	$O(1)$
Logarithm	$f(n) = \log(n)$	$O(\log(n))$
Linear	$f(n) = n$	$O(n)$
N-log-N	$f(n) = n \log(n)$	$O(n \log(n))$
Quadratic	$f(n) = n^2$	$O(n^2)$
Cubic	$f(n) = n^3$	$O(n^3)$
Polynomial	$f(n) = a_0 + a_1n + a_2n^2 + \dots + a_dn^d$	$O(n^d)$
Exponential	$f(n) = 2^n$	$O(2^n)$

Comparative Analysis of Complexity



- Because $g(n)$ should be in the simplest form, if at the same level (e.g., in one loop), there are multiple operations having different complexity, take the highest:

$$f(n) = n(n \log(n) + n^2)$$

Its complexity is $O(n^3)$

- Always select/develop the algorithm with a lower complexity



What Is Clustering?

- Natural clusters exist in our real world
 - E.g., superstar, star, all-round player, defensive player, etc. in NBA; Size XS, S, M, L, XL, etc. for clothes
 - May or may not have clearly defined rules/criteria to categorize them precisely
 - ❑ Especially for the borderline objects
- In computer science, clustering is the task to group a set of objects, such that
 - Objects within each cluster are more similar to each other (**homogeneous**) than to those in other clusters (**heterogeneous**)

Unsupervised vs Supervised Learning



- Clustering algorithms aim to **analyze** entities by discovering their underlying structure and **organize** them into different categories **without prior knowledge**
 - Most well-known type of **unsupervised learning** method
- If we know the ground-truth labels of the objects
 - Normally apply **supervised learning** methods for classification
 - Could still apply clustering methods to differentiate the objects
 - ❑ **Should not use the labels during learning**
 - ❑ Nonetheless, the labels could be used as **external information** to evaluate the clustering results (see later slides)



Financial Applications of Clustering

- Customer profiling
 - Model the common behaviors and status of similar customers
 - Thus, specific strategies may be applied with **group differences**
- Fraud identification
 - Obtain the outlying clusters for further investigations
 - Thus, potential fraud cases may be identified from these **outliers**



Source: Internet





Desirable Properties

- **Accurate**, able to deal with noise and outliers
- Able to discover clusters with **arbitrary shape and density**
- **Scalability** (low complexity)
- Requiring **minimal domain knowledge** to set parameters
- **Insensitive to the order** of data inputs
- **Robust** in high dimensionality
- Incorporation of user-specific constraints
- Interpretability and usability

**Cannot
have it all!**

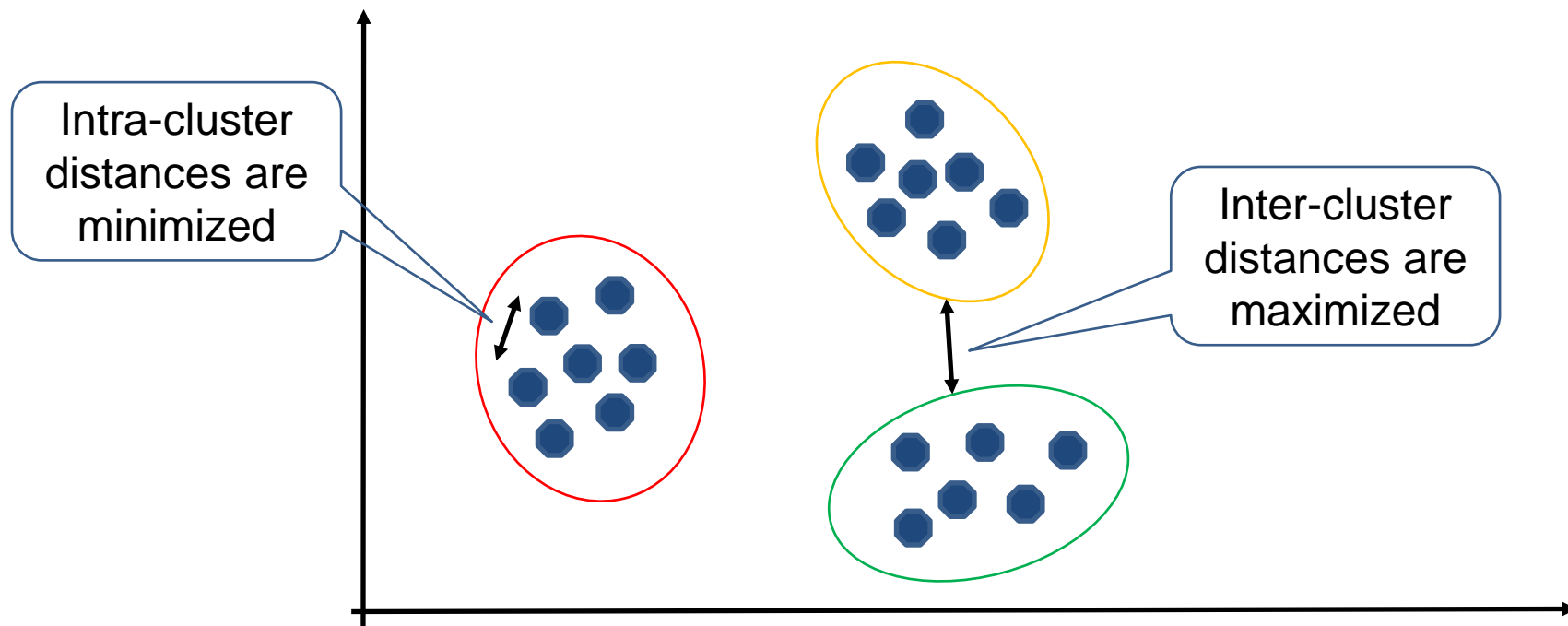


How Clustering Is Carried Out?

- A **proximity measure** is required to quantify the similarity/dissimilarity among objects
 - Proximity should not be affected by the direction
 - One of the widely adopted metrics is **distance**
 - Minkowski distance: $d(x_i, x_j) = \left(\sum_{n=1}^N (x_i^n - x_j^n)^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$
 - When $p=1$: Manhattan distance (city block)
 - When $p=2$: Euclidean distance: $\sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^N (x_i^n - x_j^n)^2}$
- N denotes the dimensionality*



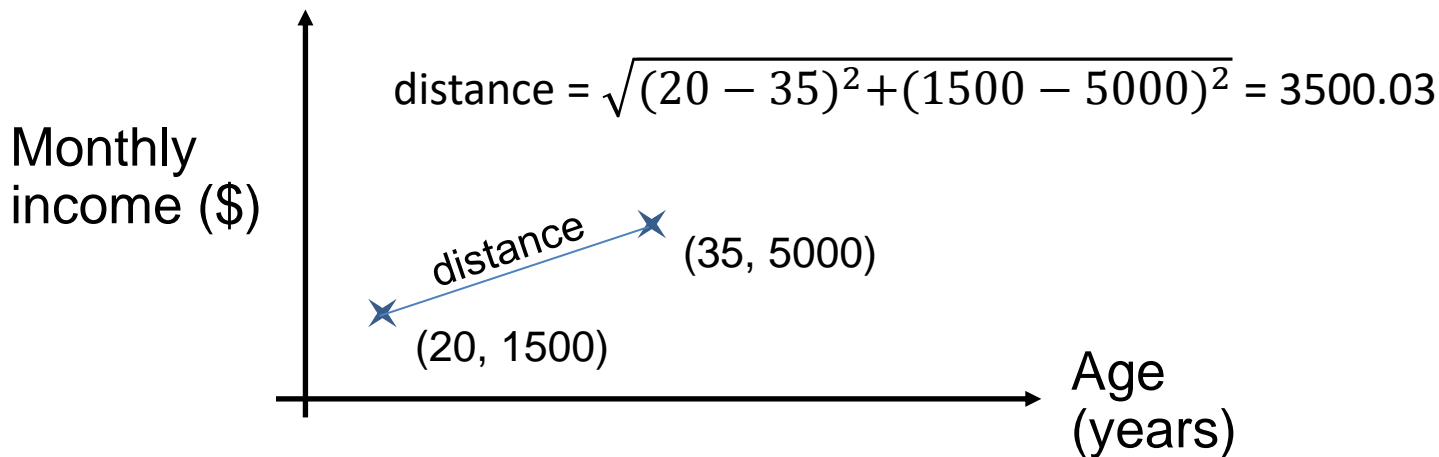
Forming Clusters





Cautious in Distance Measure

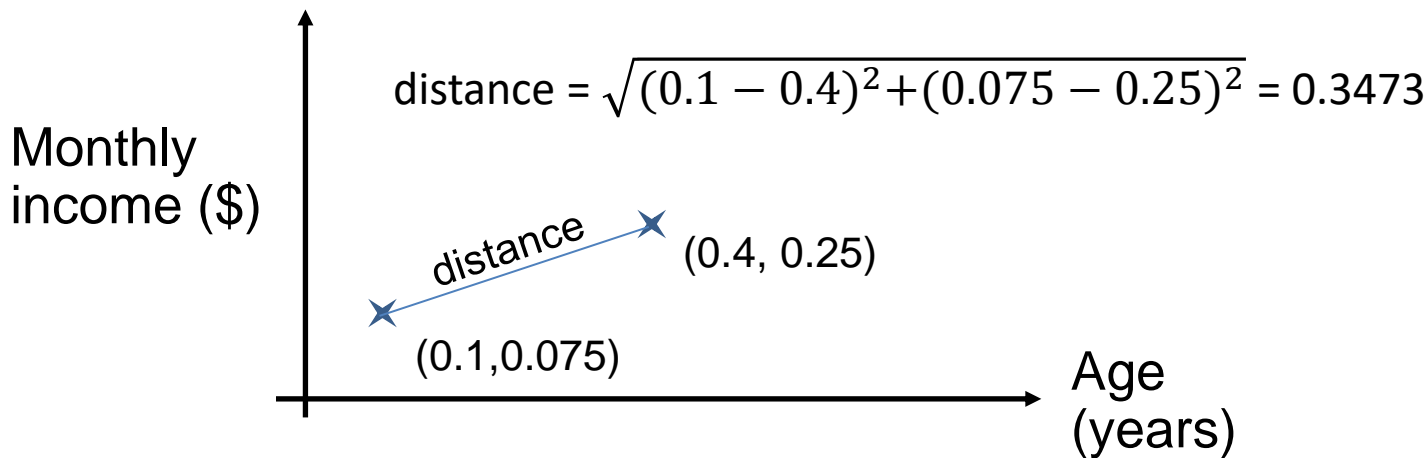
- Distance in the original data space may be dominated by large values





Cautious in Distance Measure

- Solution: **Normalization** in each dimension
 - E.g., Age range: [15,65]→[0,1]; Income range: [0,20000]→[0,1]





What About Non-Numerical Values?

- Binary values: M vs F, absent vs present, etc.
- Derive a **contingency table** for binary vectors
 - Also known as a cross tabulation or crosstab

		object j	
		1	0
object i	1	a	b
	0	c	d

$i = 110111$

$j = 101100$

	1	0
1	a=2	b=3
0	c=1	d=0

$a+b+c+d=$
length of the
binary vector



Symmetric Binary Attributes

- A binary attribute is **symmetric** if both states (0, 1) have *equal importance*
 - E.g., male vs female
- Distance function: **Simple matching coefficient**
 - Proportion of mismatches of their values

$$d(i, j) = \frac{b + c}{a + b + c + d}$$



Asymmetric Binary Attributes

- A binary attribute is **asymmetric** if one state is *more important* or *more valuable* than the other
 - By convention, state 1 is normally more important:
Generally rare or infrequent as positive for some tests
- Distance function: **Jaccard coefficient**

$$d(i, j) = \frac{b + c}{a + b + c}$$

May also apply
weights to represent
relative importance



Distance vs Similarity

- Simple matching coefficient

$$d(i, j) = \frac{\text{number of non - common bit positions}}{\text{total number of bits}}$$

$$s(i, j) = 1 - d(i, j) = \frac{a + d}{a + b + c + d}$$

- Jaccard coefficient

$$d(i, j) = 1 - \frac{\text{number of 1's in } i \wedge j}{\text{number of 1's in } i \vee j}$$

$$s(i, j) = 1 - d(i, j) = \frac{a}{a + b + c}$$



Example of Jaccard Coefficient

Name	Fever	Cough	Test-1	Test-2	Test-3	Test-4
Jack	1	0	1	0	0	0
Ken	1	0	1	0	1	0
Bob	1	1	0	0	0	0

- All attributes are asymmetric binary
- 1 denotes presence or positive of test
- 0 denotes absence or negative of test

$$d(i, j) = \frac{b + c}{a + b + c}$$

$$d(Jack, Ken) = \frac{0+1}{2+0+1} = 0.33$$

$$d(Jack, Bob) = \frac{1+1}{1+1+1} = 0.67$$

$$d(Ken, Bob) = \frac{2+1}{1+2+1} = 0.75$$



Nominal Attributes

- Unlike binary attributes, a nominal attribute has *more than two states or values*
 - E.g., ethnic group, nationality, etc.
- May still apply the **simple matching method**
 - Let r denote the total number of attributes
 - Let q denote the number of values that match between the two given objects

$$d(i, j) = \frac{r - q}{r}$$



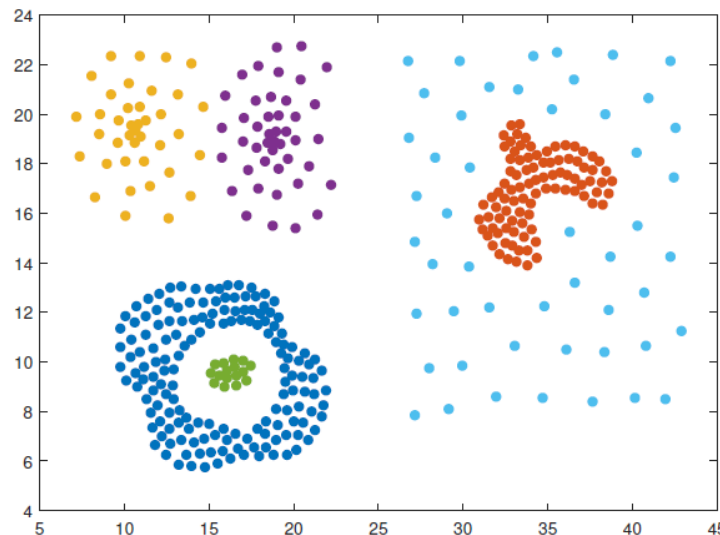
Combining Different Types of Attributes

- Option 1:
 - Decide the dominate type
 - Convert the others to the dominate type
 - Calculate the distance
 - Although this is one commonly adopted approach, sometimes **may not make much sense to perform the conversion**
- Option 2:
 - Obtain the distance for each type individually
 - Combine the distance by applying a weighted sum
 - **May not be straightforward to set the weights**



Types of Clustering Algorithms

- Hierarchical **vs** Partitioning
- Online **vs** Offline
- Hard **vs** Soft (Fuzzy)
 - K-means vs Fuzzy C-means
- Density-based algorithms
- Model-based algorithms
 - E.g., SOM, GMM
-

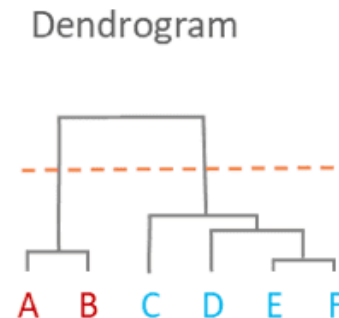
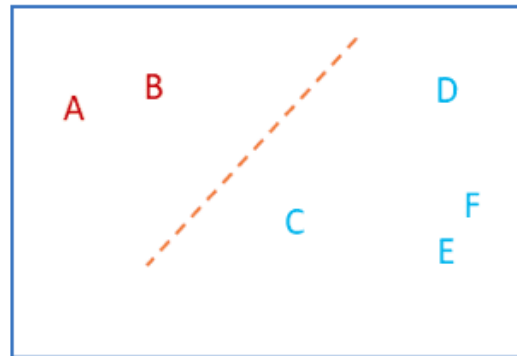




Hierarchical Clustering

- Build a tree-based hierarchical taxonomy, known as **dendrogram**:

- Clusters are obtained by cutting the dendrogram at a selected level:
Each connected component forms a cluster



Source: [What is dendrogram](#)



Two Approaches to Get Dendrograms

- Bottom-up approach: Agglomerative clustering
 - Each data element is treated as an initial cluster
 - Merge the most similar (or nearest) pair of clusters each time
 - Until all elements are merged into a single cluster
- Top-down approach: Divisive clustering
 - All data elements are grouped as one cluster called root
 - Recursively divide the cluster to obtain sub-clusters
 - Until only singleton clusters of individual elements remain or reach certain stopping criteria

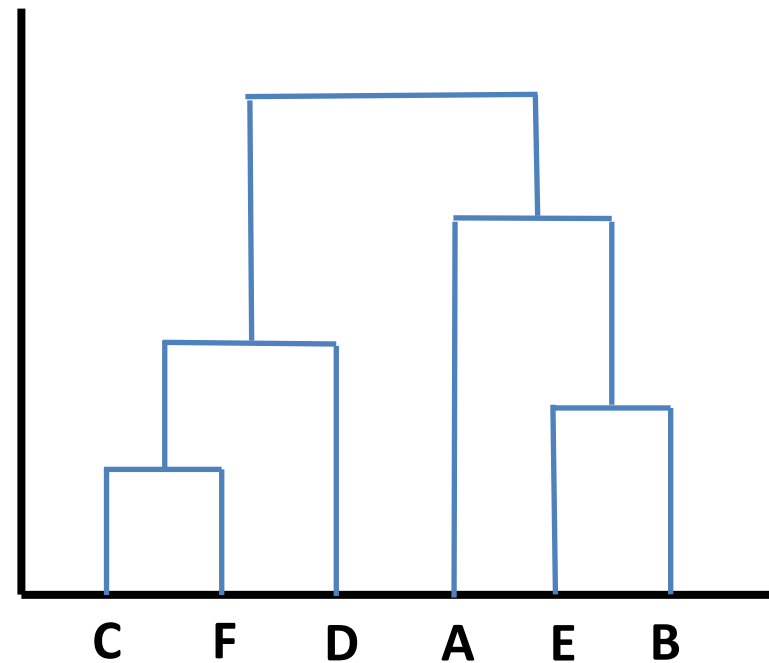
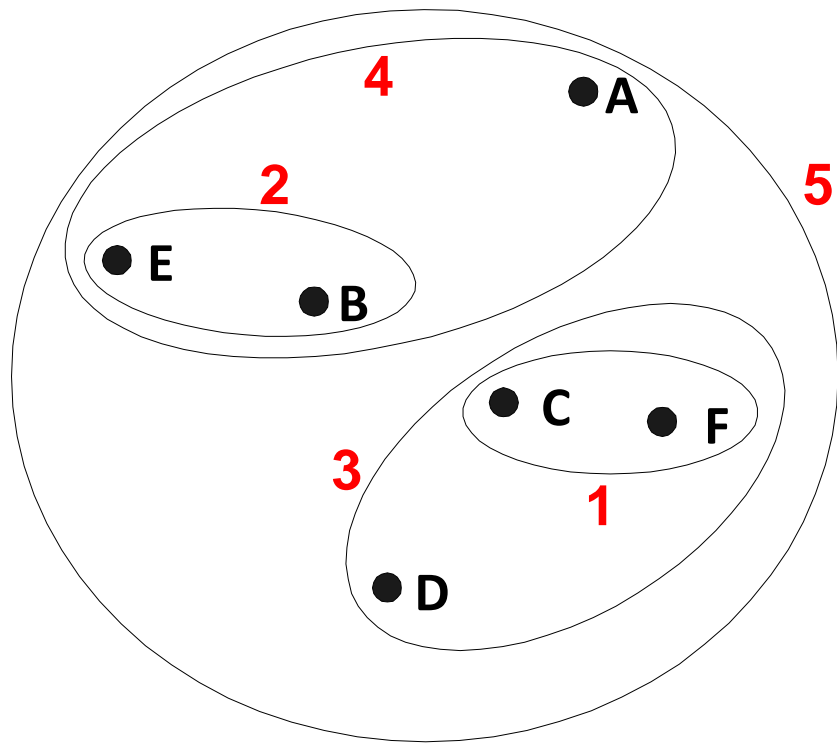


Agglomerative Clustering Algorithm

- Basic algorithm is straightforward:
 - 1 Compute the proximity matrix
 - 2 Let each data element be a cluster
 - 3 **Repeat**
 - 4 Merge two closest clusters
 - 5 Update the proximity matrix
 - 6 **Until** only a single cluster remains



Agglomerative Clustering Algorithm



Complexity of Agglomerative Clustering



- Space complexity:

- $O(N^2)$ for the proximity matrix
- N denotes the number of data elements

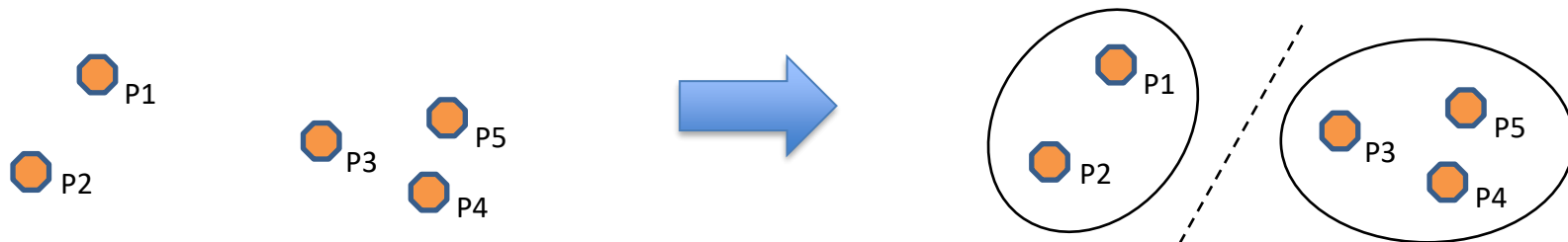
- Time complexity:

- $O(N^3)$ for many cases
 - ❑ N iterations
 - ❑ In each iteration, the proximity matrix needs to be searched and updated: N^2
- $O(N^2 \log(N))$ for some approaches



Partitioning Clustering

- Construct partitions (usually random) of the given dataset, then refine them using certain criteria



- By far, the most well-known algorithm is K-means
 - K-medoids: Instead of mean, use a data element in the cluster to represent the cluster medoid (exemplar)



K-means Clustering Algorithm

- Each cluster is associated with one and only one centroid (cluster mean)
- Each data element is assigned to the cluster with the closest centroid
- Need to predefine the number of clusters, i.e., K

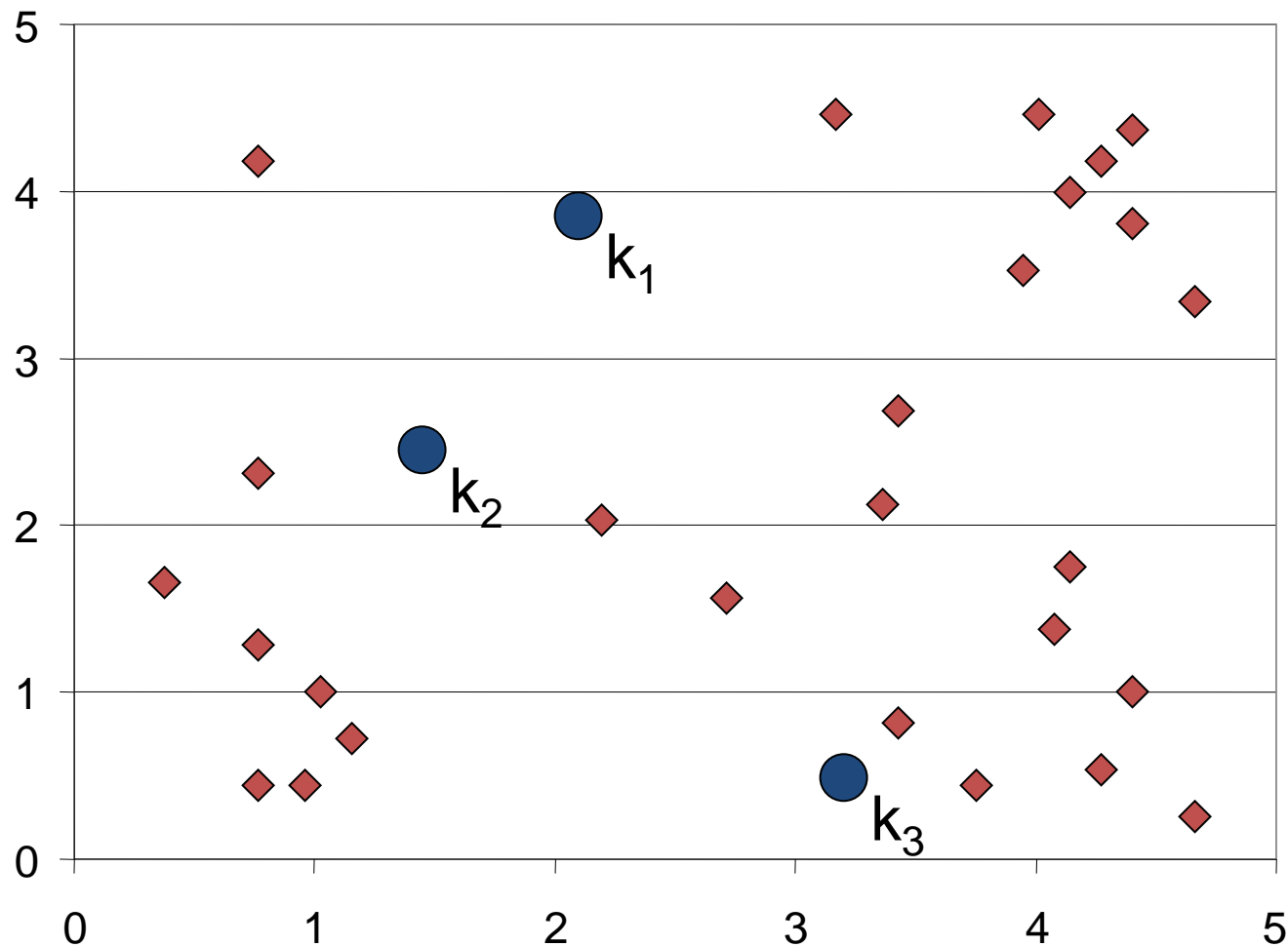
Input: A set of data points D ; Number of clusters K ; Number of iterations G

Output: Cluster assignment of each data point

- 1 Randomly select K data points (may not from D) as initial cluster centroids
 - 2 **repeat**
 - 3 Compute the distance between each data point and each centroid
 - 4 Associate each data point with its closest centroid
 - 5 All data points associated with the same centroid form a cluster
 - 6 Recompute the centroid of each cluster
 - 7 **until** centroids are stabilized or number of iterations equals to G
-

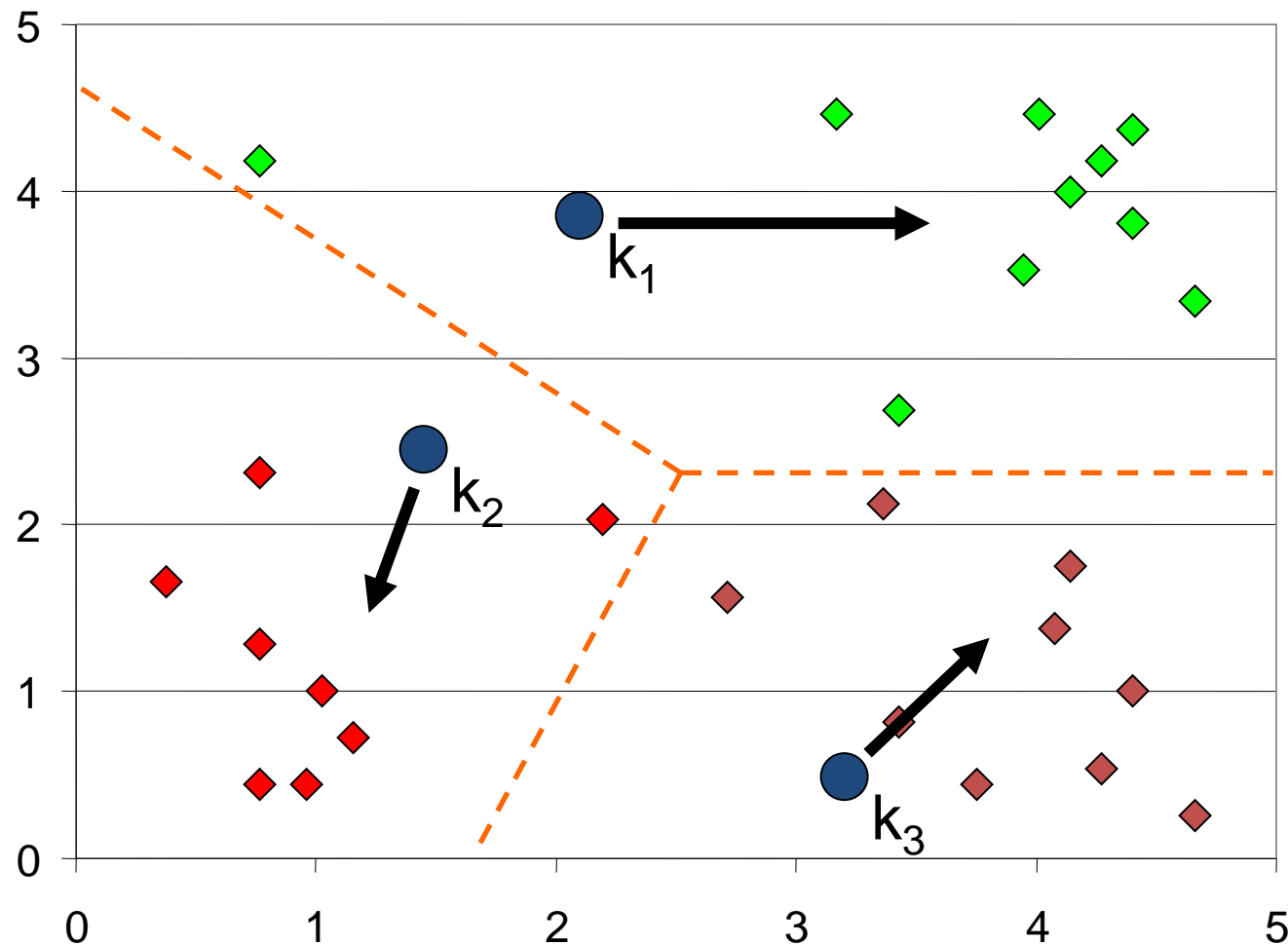
Step 1: Random initialization of centroids

Source:
Lecture slides by
Carla Brodley,
Tufts University



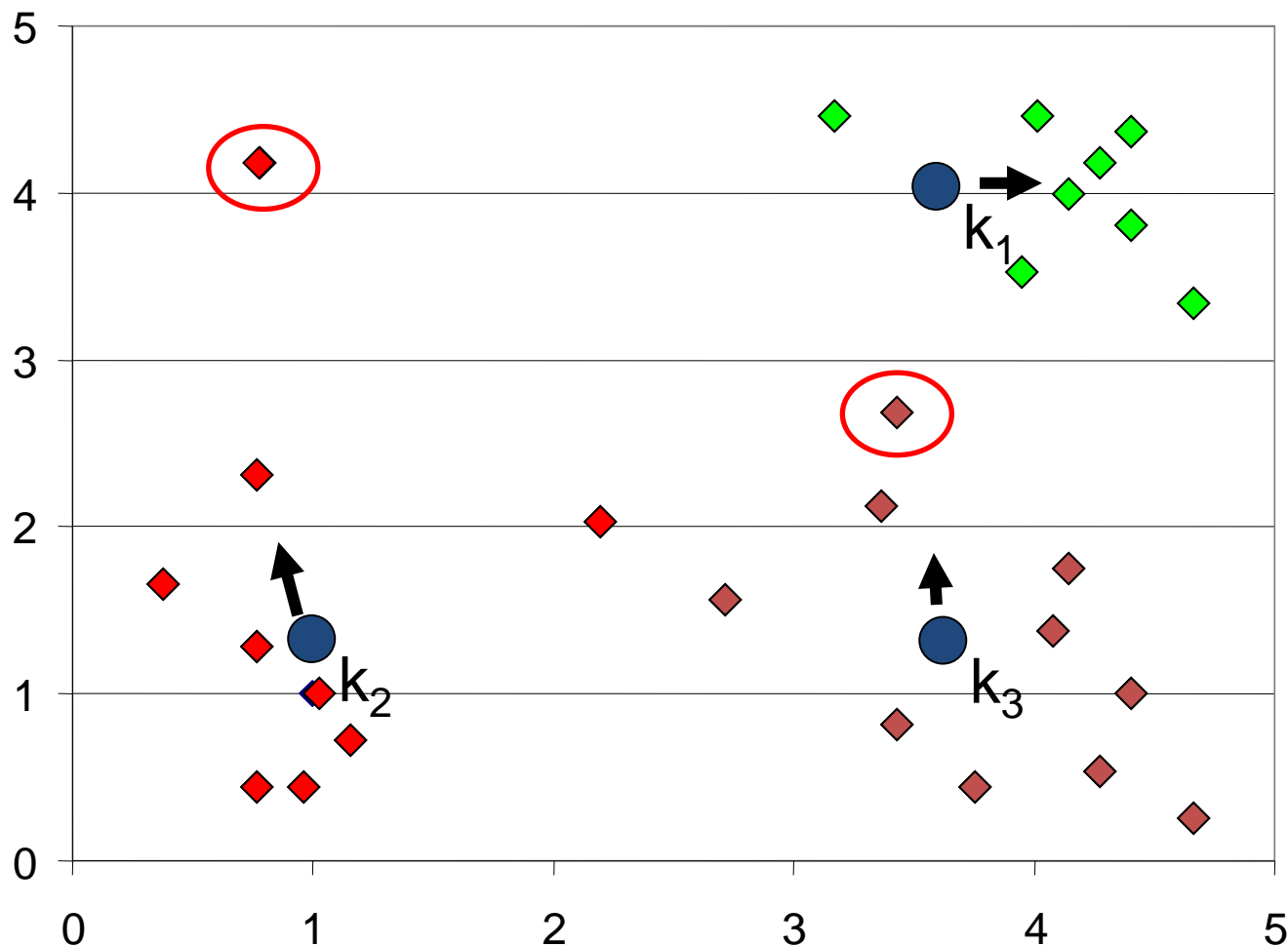
Step 2:
Form
clusters

Step 3:
Update the
centroids

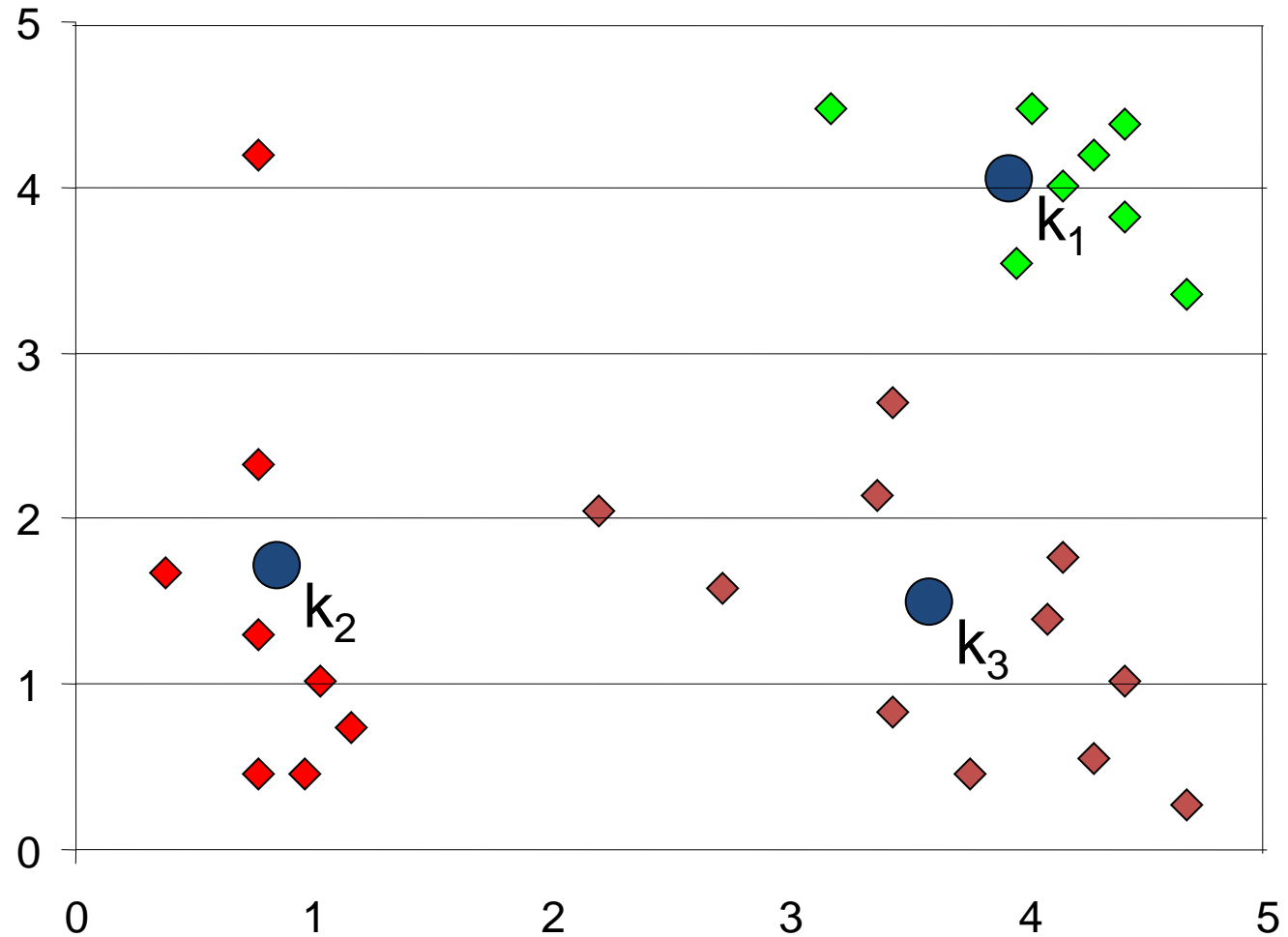


Step 4:
Update
clusters

Step 5:
Update
centroids
again



Step 6: Algorithm converges





Convergence of K-means

- Does K-means always converge?
 - Yes, because it is a special case of a general procedure known as the Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm
 - EM is known to guarantee convergence
 - ❑ But the number of iterations needed to converge may be large
- For K-means:
 - Usually, the number of iterations needed to converge is not large
 - For complex datasets, no harm to set max_iteration

Complexity and Evaluation of K-means

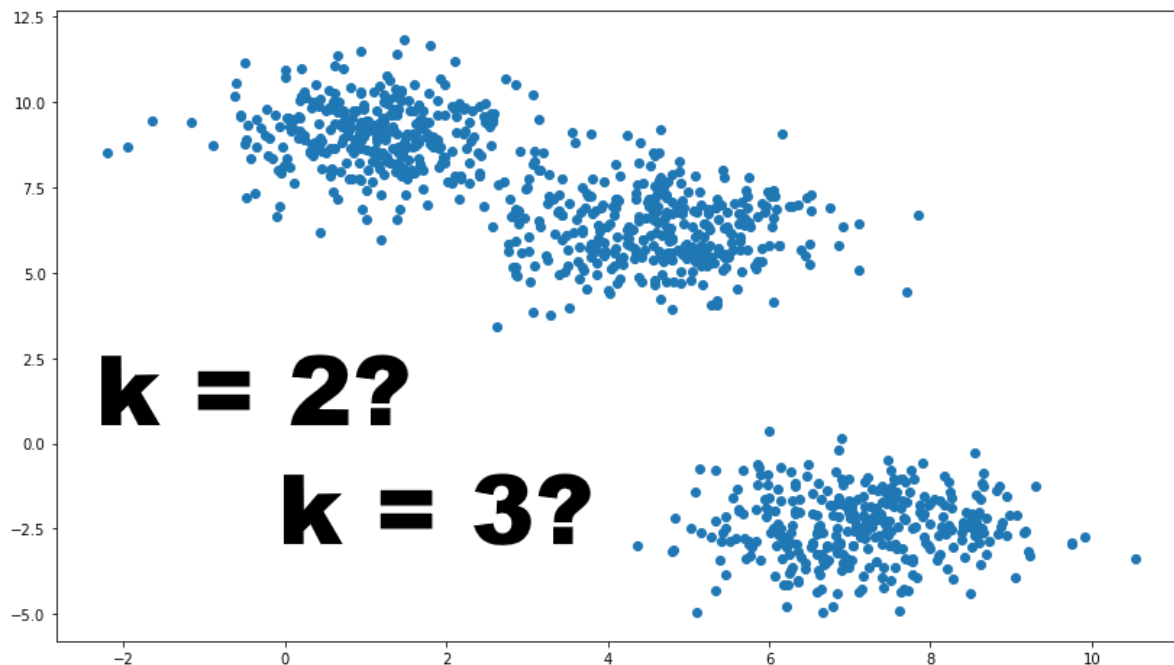


- **Time complexity** of K-means is $O(I \cdot K \cdot N \cdot F)$
 - I : #iterations; K : #clusters; N : # data elements; F : #features
 - Faster than hierarchical methods
- Commonly use **SSE** to evaluate the clusters
 - $$SSE = \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{x_i \in C_j} d(x_i, m_j)^2$$
 - C denotes the clusters, x_i denotes each data element, and m denotes the cluster center
 - May use SSE to determine when to stop, and compare two sets of clustering results



Limitations of K-means (1)

- How to determine **K**?



Source:
[How to Determine the Optimal K for K-Means?](#)

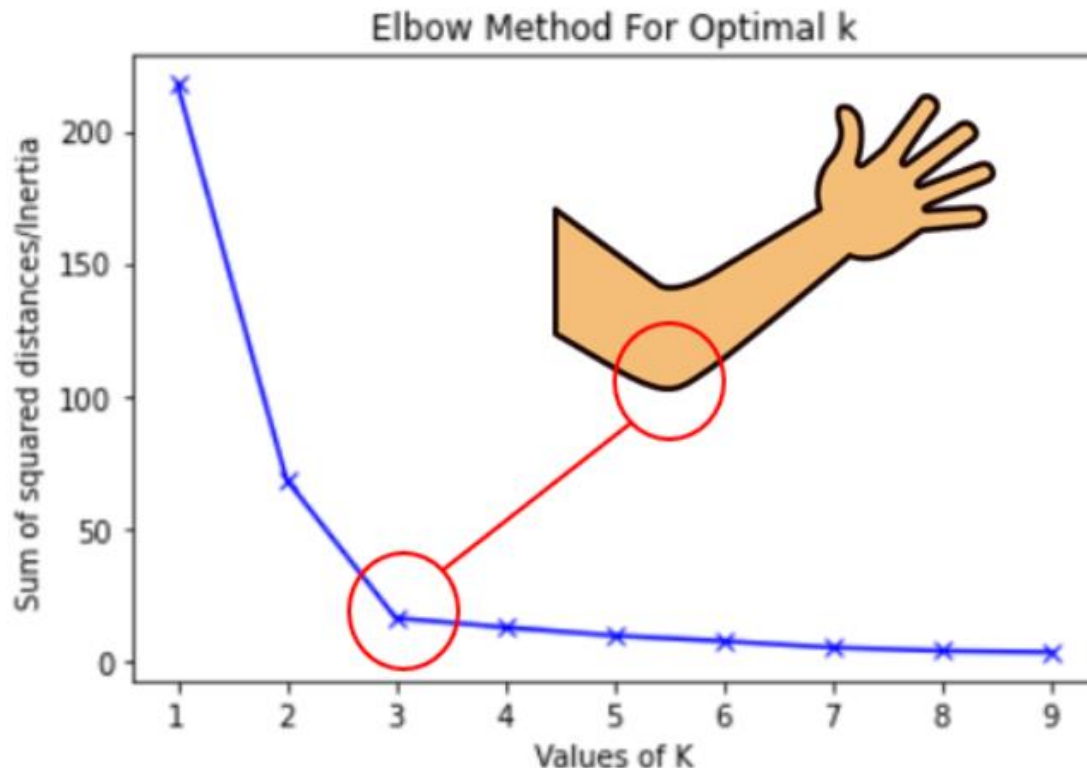


Determination of K

- Use the elbow method

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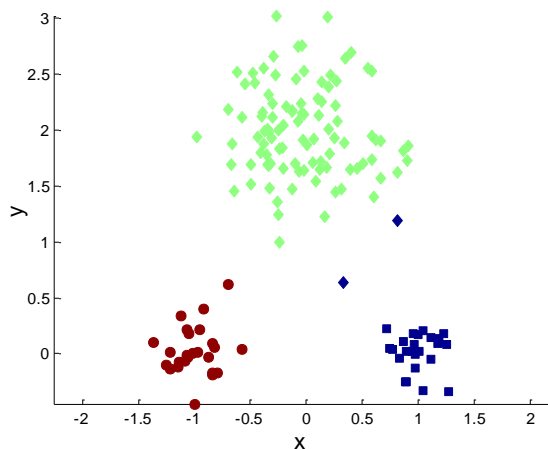
[K-Mean: Getting The Optimal Number Of Clusters](#)



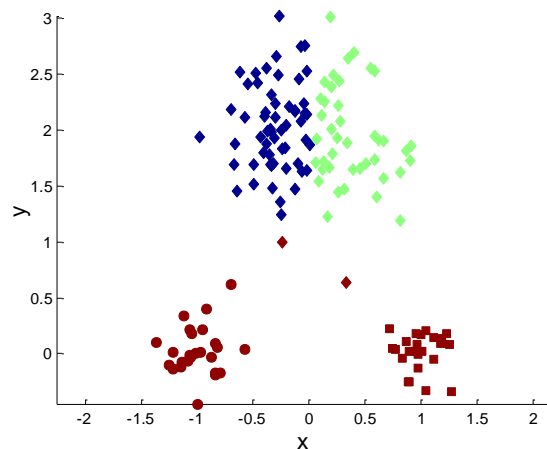


Limitations of K-means (2)

- Performance may vary drastically due to different **initializations** of cluster centroids
 - *Trap in local minima, hard to find global minima*



(Sub-)optimal result



Undesirable result

Source:
Internet



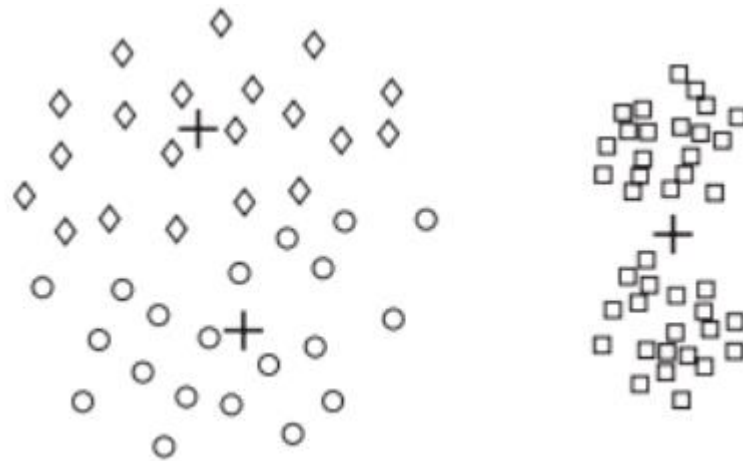
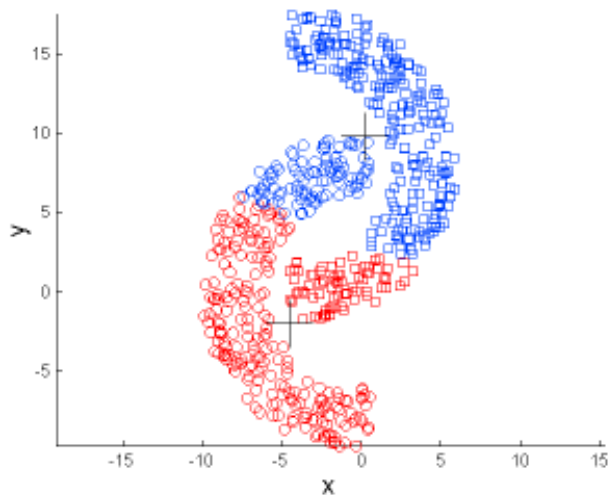
Initialization in K-means

- Try multiple times, then select the sensible cluster centroids as initializations
 - **Computationally heavy**, may not work for complex cases
- Pre-analyze the data distribution
 - Require **additional computation and prior knowledge**
- Select many centroids to start with, then select the well separated ones
 - **Investigation required**
 - May help to determine K at the same time



Limitations of K-means (3)

- Assume clusters are **spherical**
- Also, may not well handle **different sizes and densities**



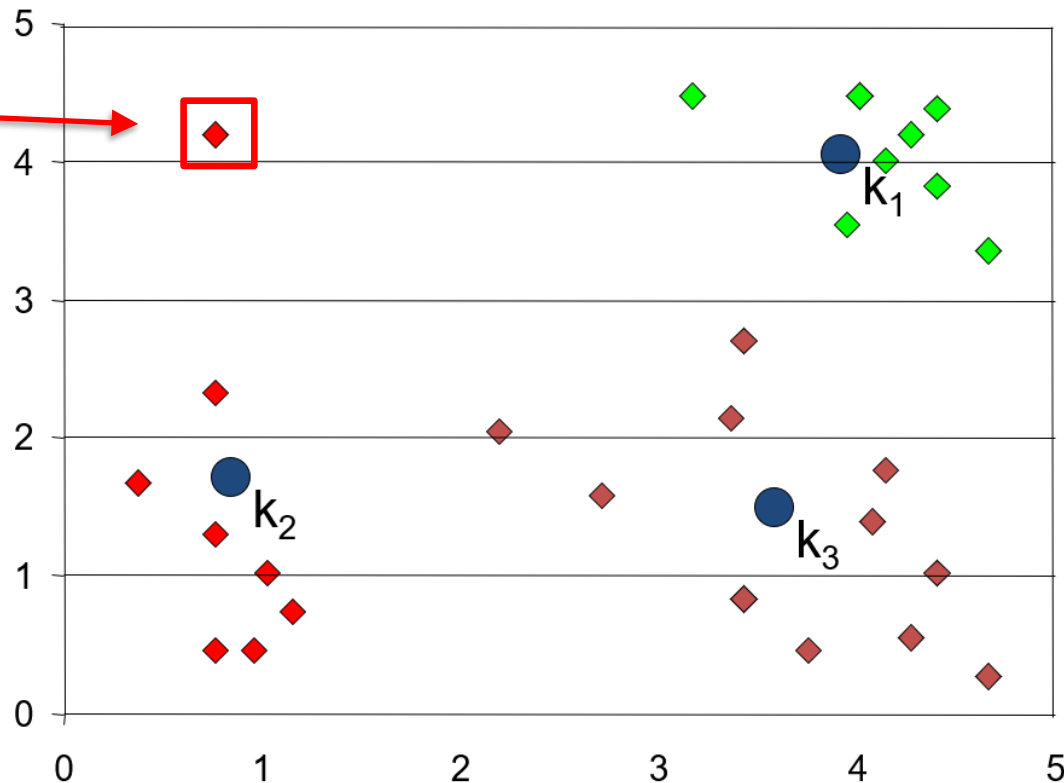
Source:

[Learn Clustering Method 101 in 5 minutes](#)



Limitations of K-means (4)

- Does not detect **outliers** and is sensitive to them
- Solution to limitations 3 & 4:
 - Use other clustering methods





Density-based Clustering Algorithms

- Clustering based on density (local cluster criterion), such as density-connected points
- Key features:
 - Able to discover clusters of **arbitrary** shape
 - Well handle **noises / outliers**
 - Need **one or few scans** only
 - Require **density parameters** to form clusters and know when to stop
- Representatives
 - [DBSCAN](#) (KDD'96), [CLIQUE](#) (SIGMOD'98), [OPTICS](#) (SIGMOD'99)
 - [DPC](#) (Science'14) and its variants: [REDPC](#) (Neurocomputing'19), [McDPC](#) (NCAA'20), [VDPC](#) (Information Sciences'23), etc.



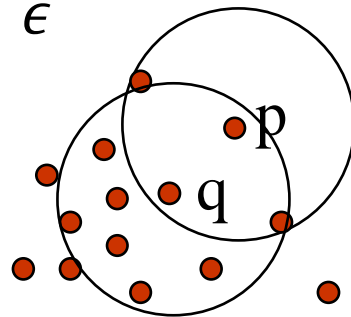
DBSCAN

- DBSCAN: Density-based spatial clustering of applications with noise
- Two parameters:
 - ϵ : Radius of the neighborhood (*Eps*)
 - *MinPts* : A threshold to define density using the number of data points in the ϵ –neighborhood
- Neighborhood of data point p :
 - All data points within distance ϵ from p
 - $N_{Eps}(p) = \{q \mid d(p, q) \leq \epsilon\}$



Definitions in DBSCAN

- If $|N_{Eps}(p)| \geq MinPts$, then p is called a **core point**
- A data point p is **directly density-reachable** from another data point q if
 - $p \in N_{Eps}(q)$, i.e., $d(p, q) \leq \epsilon$
 - $|N_{Eps}(q)| \geq MinPts$, i.e., q is a core point

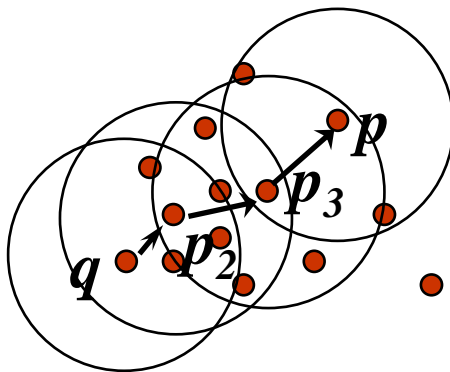


$MinPts = 5$



Definitions in DBSCAN

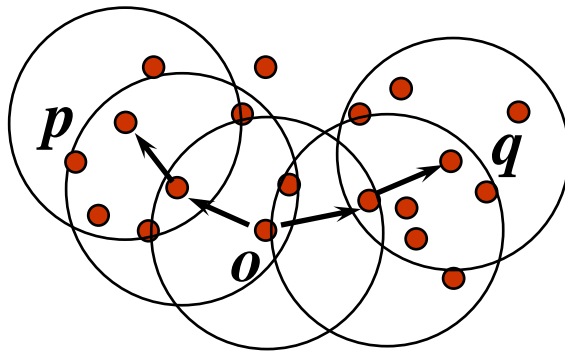
- A data point p is **density-reachable** from another data point q if
 - There is a chain of points p_1, \dots, p_n , $p_1 = q$, $p_n = p$ such that p_{i+1} is directly density-reachable from p_i





Definitions in DBSCAN

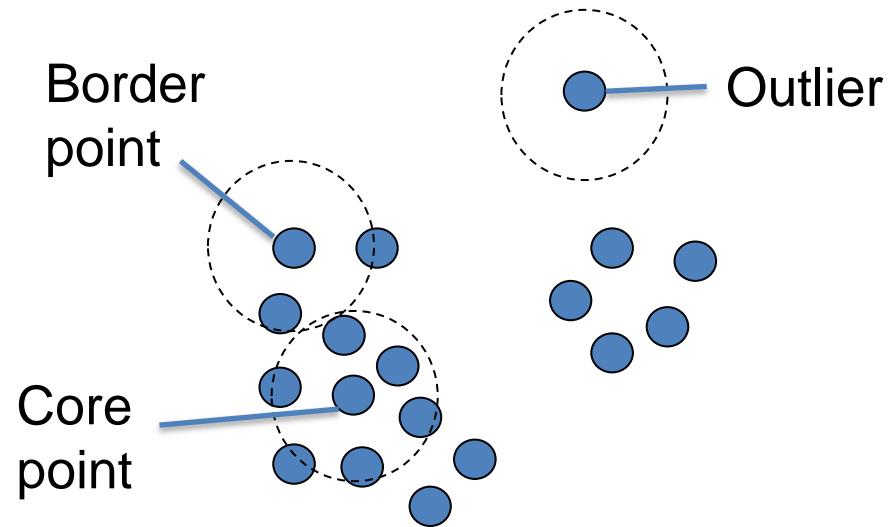
- A data point p is **density-connected** to another data point q if
 - There is a data point o such that both p and q are *density-reachable* from o





Cluster Formation in DBSCAN

- A cluster is defined as a maximal set of density-connected points
- If a data point is not included in any cluster:
 - It is labelled as an outlier





Algorithm of DBSCAN

Input: N objects to be clustered and global parameters Eps , $MinPts$.

Output: Clusters of objects.

Algorithm:

- 1) Arbitrary select a point P .
- 2) Retrieve all points density-reachable from P wrt **Eps** and **$MinPts$** .
- 3) If P is a core point, a cluster is formed.
- 4) If P is a border point, no points are density-reachable from P and **DBSCAN** visits the next point of the database.
- 5) Continue the process until all of the points have been processed.

- **Time complexity**: $O(N \log(N))$

- Worst case: $O(N^2)$, when ϵ is ill selected (e.g., all distance $< \epsilon$)



Limitations of DBSCAN

- Not entirely deterministic:
 - The assignment of borderline points on multiple borders
- May not work well if the dataset has large differences in densities
 - Because the combination of *MinPts* and *Eps* cannot be chosen properly for all clusters
- Need to predetermine two parameters
 - Although only two, not trivial, need to be carefully determined
- Hence, new algorithms such as DPC emerge



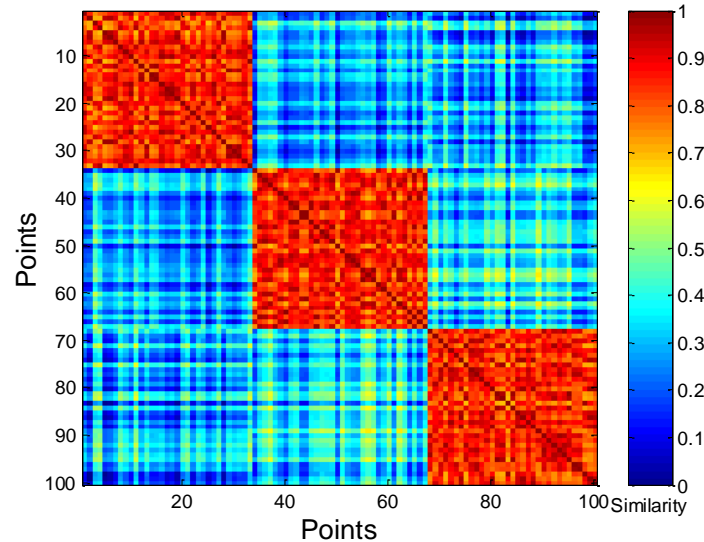
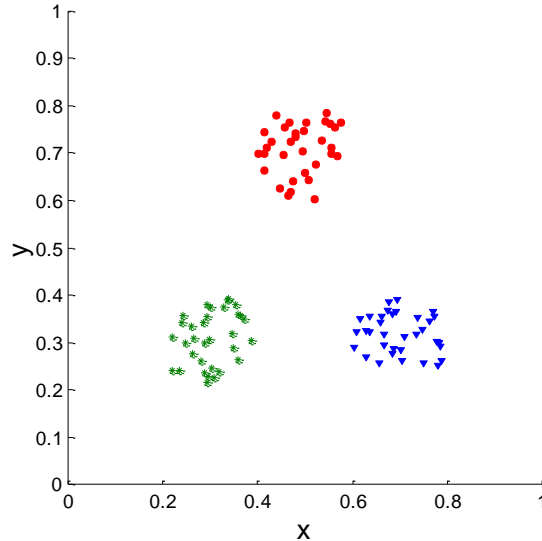
Validating Clusters

- In unsupervised learning, we need to define how to evaluate the **goodness** of the resulting clusters
 - Without ground-truth labels for measures like accuracy
- We need such evaluation criteria to:
 - Avoid finding poor representative patterns, especially when the dataset is noisy and/or tricky
 - Benchmark clustering algorithms
 - Compare different clustering results

Similarity Matrix for Cluster Validation



- Visualize the similarity matrix
 - Order the data points according to cluster labels

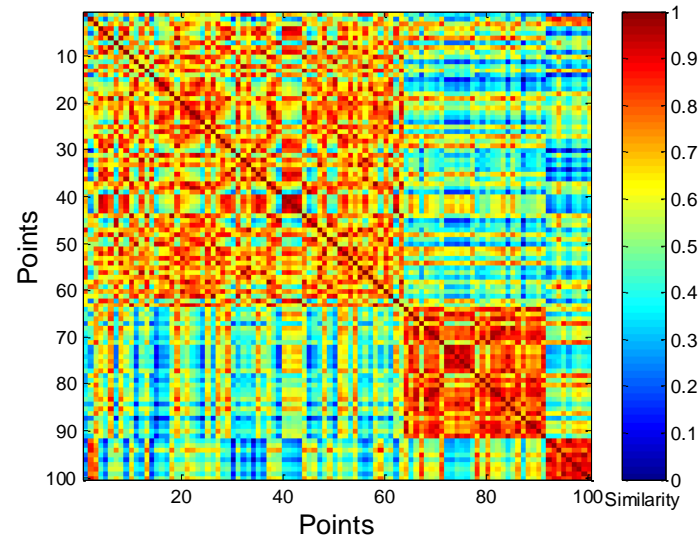
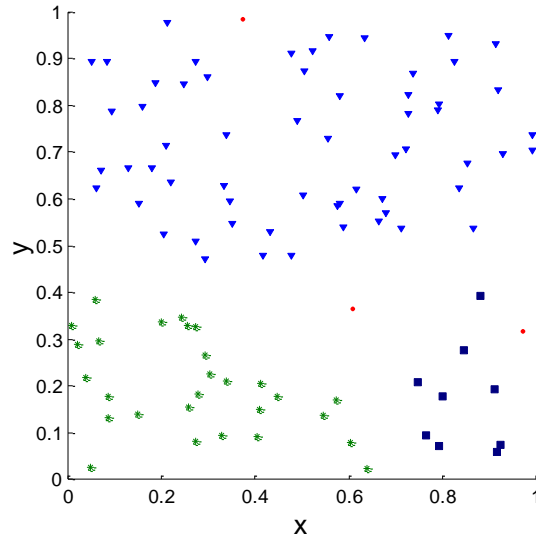


Source:
Internet

Similarity Matrix for Cluster Validation



- Less well separated clusters



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Internet



Cohesion vs Separation

- Cluster cohesion:

- Measures how closely the objects are within the clusters
- E.g., use within-cluster sum of squared errors (SSE):
$$WSS = \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{x_i \in C_j} d(x_i, m_j)$$

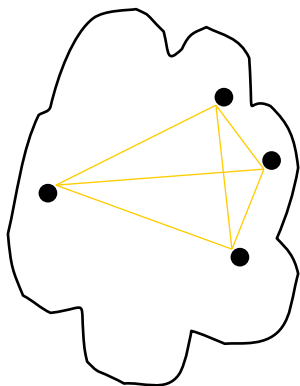
- Cluster separation:

- Measures how distinct or well-separated the clusters are from the others
- E.g., Use between-cluster sum of errors:
$$BSS = \sum_i |C_i| d(m, m_i),$$
 where m denotes the centroid of the whole dataset and $|\cdot|$ denotes the size of the cluster

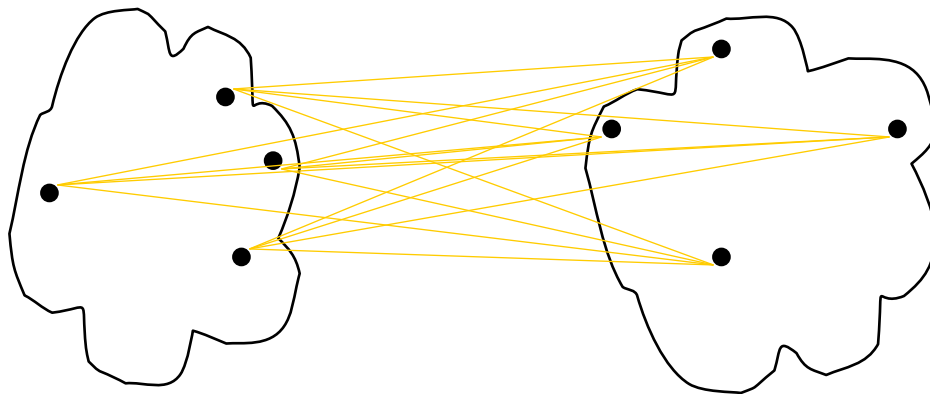


Cohesion vs Separation

- Note that $WSS + BSS = \text{constant}$



- **Cohesion:** Sum of weights of all links within the cluster



- **Separation:** Sum of weights between data points in the cluster and those outside



Silhouette Coefficient (SC)

- It combines the ideas of both cohesion and separation
- For an individual data point $i \in C_I$:
 - Compute the mean distance between i and all other data points in the same cluster

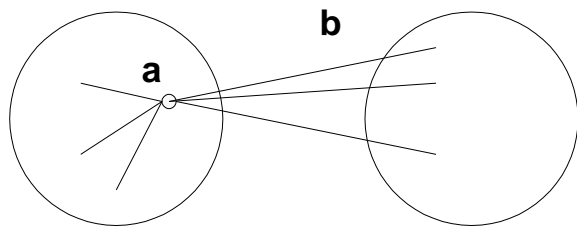
$$a(i) = \frac{1}{|C_I| - 1} \sum_{j \in C_I, j \neq i} d(i, j)$$

- Compute the mean dissimilarity of data point i to another cluster C_J as the mean of the distance from i to all data points in C_J , and select the minimum value among all such distances

$$b(i) = \min \frac{1}{|C_J|} \sum_{j \in C_J} d(i, j)$$



Silhouette Coefficient (SC)



- Then the silhouette coefficient for data point i is

$$s(i) = \frac{b(i) - a(i)}{\max\{a(i), b(i)\}}, \text{ if } |C_I| > 1$$
$$s(i) = 1, \text{ if } |C_I| = 1$$



Silhouette Coefficient (SC)

- $-1 \leq s(i) \leq 1$
 - 1: Best matched to the cluster
 - 0: On the border between two clusters
 - -1: Better fit in the neighboring cluster
- Let $SC = \text{mean}(s(i))$, obviously $-1 \leq SC \leq 1$
 - A larger value denotes an overall better clustering formation, usually



External Measures

- Evaluation of clustering results without ground-truth labels is called **internal measure**
- Evaluation with ground-truth labels (remember, **not used during clustering**) is called **external measure**
 - We can reuse the concept of confusion matrix
 - If the size of the dataset is N , $TP+TN+FP+FN=C_N^2$

	Same cluster in clustering	Different clusters in clustering
Same class in ground-truth	TP	FN
Different classes in ground-truth	FP	TN



External Measures

- Rand Index (RI):

$$RI = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

- Adjusted Rand Index ([ARI](#))

➤ Adjusted measure using contingency table

- Jaccard Index (JI)

$$J(A, B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP + FN}$$



Other Evaluation Measures

- A lot more measures proposed in literature to evaluate the clustering results
 - Internal measure (without ground-truth)
 - ❑ DBI ([Davies–Bouldin Index](#)), sensitive to #clusters
 - External measure (with ground-truth)
 - ❑ NMI ([Normalized Mutual Information](#))



Infusing Clustering into FNN

- Clustering has been used in FNNs, to **generate fuzzy membership functions** (fmf)
 - Data samples are grouped in the clustering process
 - Representations of clusters are used to derive fmf
 - Thus, fmf are initialized rather than learned from scratch
 - Also, the structure of FNN is determined by the clustering results
- This leads to a family of **self-organizing** FNNs



Two Examples of Self-Organizing FNNs

- DENFIS

- Dynamic Evolving Neural-Fuzzy Inference System
- Kasabov & Song, 2002
- Employs TS rules
- Evolving Clustering Method (ECM)
- Clusters are formed in the hyperspace
- Each cluster is transformed into a fuzzy rule

- GenSoFNN

- Generic Self-organizing Fuzzy Neural Network
- Tung & Quek, 2002
- Employs Mamdani rules
- Discrete Incremental Clustering (DIC)
- Clusters are formed on individual dimensions
- Rules are determined based on the selected rule generation scheme

Evolving Clustering Method in DENFIS



- Both online and offline modes supported
- Its idea is generic:
 - If the new data point is **close** enough to some clusters
 - ❑ Merge it into the nearest cluster, update cluster characteristics if needed (based on distance criteria)
 - Else, create a new cluster
- Takes only one parameter
 - *Dthr*: A constant value as the threshold for **distance constraint**
- Use normalized Euclidean distance
 - $d(i, j) = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_q (x_i - x_j)^2}}{\sqrt{q}}$, where q denotes the number of dimensions



ECM Algorithm

- 1 create a cluster using the first data point
- 2 **for** each subsequent data point i **do**
- 3 compute its distance to all cluster centers denoted as C
- 4 find the nearest cluster m
- 5 **if** $d(i, C_m) \leq R_m$, where R denotes the cluster radius, merge i into cluster m , no update needed
- 6 **else**
- 7 compute distance $s(i, C_j)$ to all cluster centers, where $s(i, C_j) = d(i, C_j) + R_j$
- 8 find the nearest cluster a
- 9 **if** $s(i, C_a) > 2Dthr$, create a new cluster
- 10 **else** merge i into cluster a and if $R_a < Dthr$, update the center and radius

ECM in Action



(a)

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \mathbf{x}_1 \\
 C_1^0 \\
 Cc_1^0
 \end{array}
 \rightarrow *$$

$$Ru_1^0 = 0$$

(b)

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \mathbf{x}_3 \\
 C_2^0 \\
 Cc_2^0
 \end{array}
 \rightarrow *$$

$$Ru_2^0 = 0$$

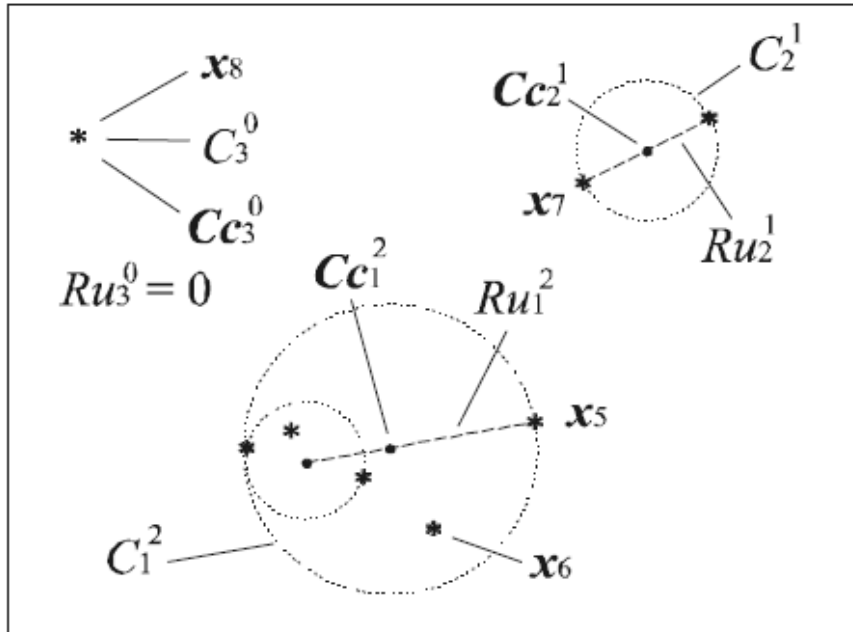
$$\begin{array}{c}
 \mathbf{x}_1 \\
 C_1^1 \\
 Cc_1^1
 \end{array}
 \rightarrow *$$

$$Ru_1^1$$

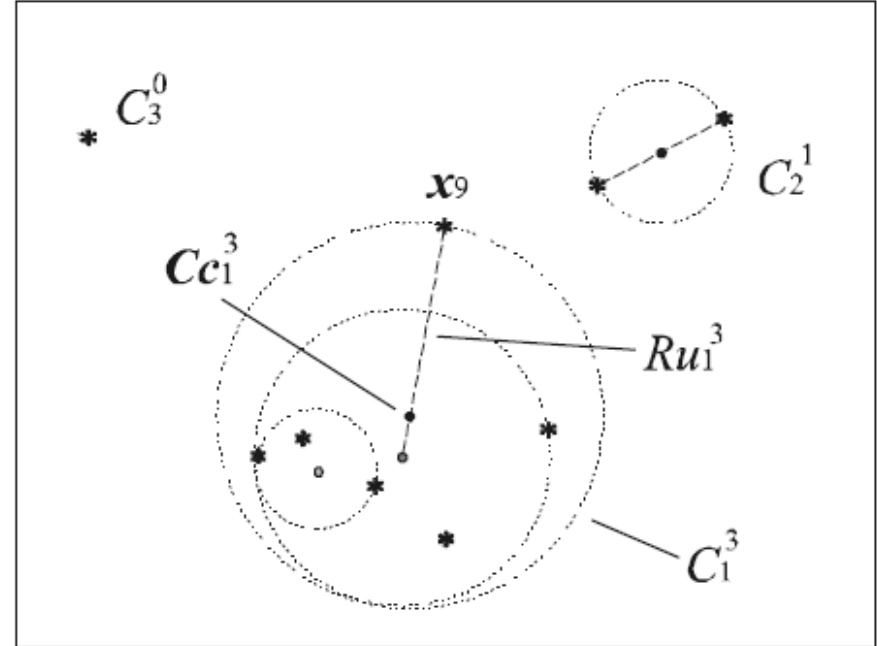
ECM in Action



(c)

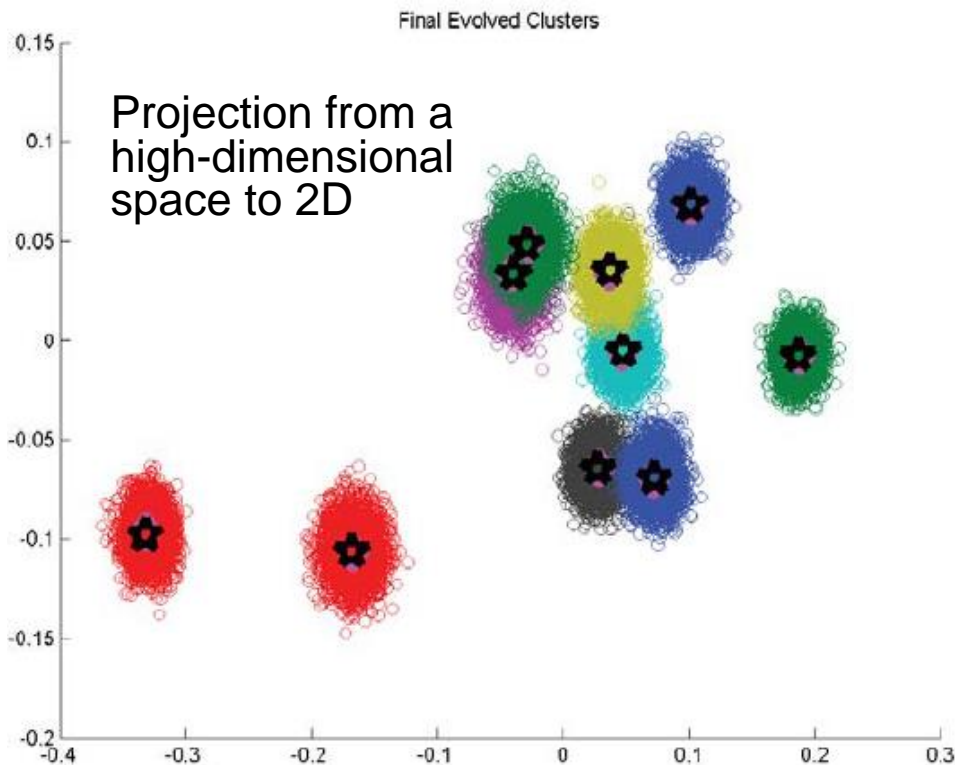


(d)





Clusters Obtained Using ECM



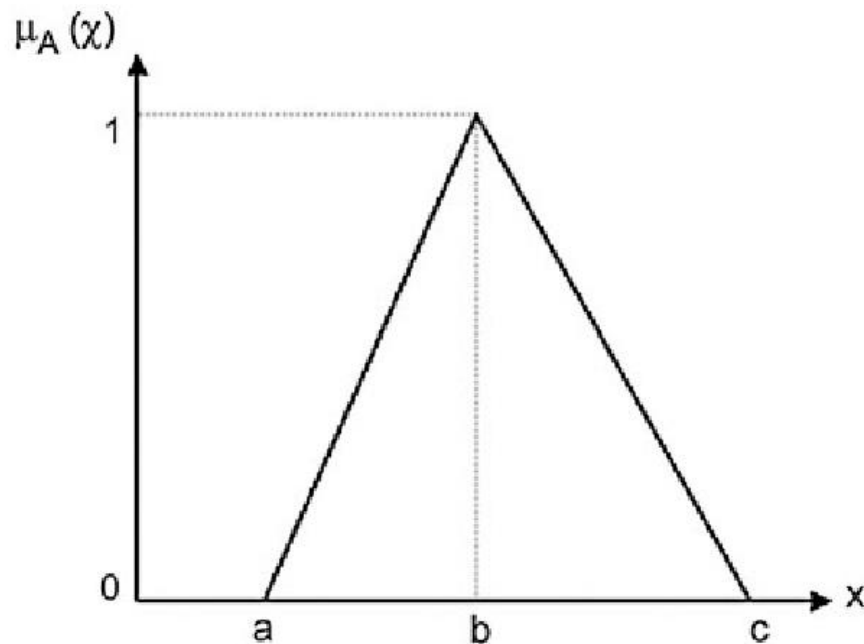
- Hyperspheres
- Each cluster is formulated as one fuzzy rule in DENFIS
 - Generates **lots of rules** (to cover the high-D space)
 - **Curse of dimensionality**

Source: [Karnowski's PhD Thesis](#)



Transforming Clusters to FMF

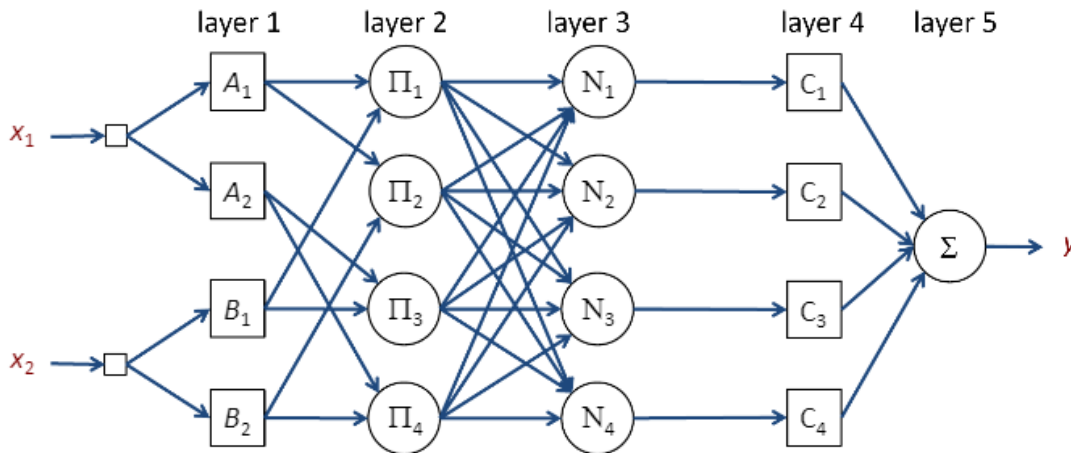
- Triangular fmf
 - b takes the value of the cluster centre on the respective dimension
 - $a = b - \beta \cdot Dthr$
 - $c = b + \beta \cdot Dthr$
 - β is a predetermined parameter in the $[1.2, 2]$ value range





DENFIS Architecture

- **Same** as ANFIS
 - #rules no longer p^N
- **Same** update mechanism for L4 parameters
- **Different** update mechanism for L1 parameters
 - Not learning from scratches means leads to **shorter** training time than ANFIS





Benchmark on MACKEY-GLASS

Methods	Neurons or Rules	Epochs	Training Time (s)	Training NDEI	Testing NDEI
MLP-BP	60	50	1779	0.083	0.090
MLP-BP	60	500	17928	0.021	0.022
ANFIS	81	50	23578	0.032	0.033
ANFIS	81	200	94210	0.028	0.029
DENFIS I	116	2	352	0.068	0.068
DENFIS I	883	2	1286	0.023	0.019
DENFIS II	58	100	351	0.017	0.016