CLUSTERING WITH GENETIC ALGORITHMS

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Abstract

Clustering is the search for those partitions that reflect the structure of an object set. Traditional clustering algorithms search only a small sub-set of all possible clusterings (the solution space) and consequently, there is no guarantee that the solution found will be optimal. We report here on the application of Genetic Algorithms (GAs) - stochastic search algorithms touted as effective search methods for large and complex spaces - to the problem of clustering. GAs which have been made applicable to the problem of clustering (by adapting the representation, fitness function, and developing suitable evolutionary operators) are known as *Genetic Clustering Algorithms* (GCAs).

There are two parts to our investigation of GCAs: first we look at clustering into a given number of clusters. The performance of GCAs on three generated data sets, analysed using 4320 differing combinations of adaptions, establishes their efficacy. Choice of adaptions and parameter settings is data set dependent, but comparison between results using generated and real data sets indicate that performance is consistent for similar data sets with the same number of objects, clusters, attributes, and a similar distribution of objects. Generally, group-number representations are better suited to the clustering problem, as are dynamic scaling, elite selection and high mutation rates. Independent generalised models fitted to the correctness and timing results for each of the generated data sets produced accurate predictions of the performance of GCAs on similar real data sets.

While GCAs can be successfully adapted to clustering, and the method produces results as accurate and correct as traditional methods, our findings indicate that, given a criterion based on simple distance metrics, GCAs provide no advantages over traditional methods.

Second, we investigate the potential of genetic algorithms for the more general clustering problem, where the number of clusters is unknown. We show that only simple modifications to the adapted GCAs are needed. We have developed a merging operator, which with elite selection, is employed to evolve an initial population with a large number of clusters toward better clusterings. With regards to accuracy and correctness, these GCAs are more successful than optimisation methods such as simulated annealing. However, such GCAs can become trapped in local minima in the same manner as traditional hierarchical methods. Such trapping is characterised by the situation where good (k-1)-clusterings do not result from our merge operator acting on good kclusterings. A marked improvement in the algorithm is observed with the addition of a local heuristic.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Clustering, or grouping, is an exploratory procedure that searches for "natural" structure within a data set. This process involves sorting the data cases, or *objects*, into groups, or *clusters*, so that objects in the same cluster are more like one another than they are like objects in other clusters. Sorting occurs on the basis of *similarities* calculated from the data; no assumptions about the structure of the data are made. Clustering is useful for data reduction (reducing a large amount of data to a number of characterising sub-groups), developing classication schemes (also known as taxonomies), and suggesting or supporting hypotheses about the structure of the data.

Clustering techniques have been used in a wide range of disciplines. In psychiatry, Pilowski, Levine and Boulton [32] used clustering to develop a classification of depression. In market research, Green, Frank, and Robinson [27] used a clustering algorithm to identify homogeneous sets of test markets. In archaeology, Hodson [30] applied clustering to the problem of classifying British Hand-axes. In pattern recognition, Levrat et al. [45] used fuzzy clustering to segment an image. In engineering, Reich and Fenves [54] used a clustering algorithm to create a hierarchy of specications and associated designs for existing bridges, and in medicine, Funk et al. [21] used clustering as a method of knowledge acquisition for expert system assisted diagnosis.

1.1 Background

This section contains a review of clustering, including a more formal definition of the clustering problem and an introduction to traditional clustering techniques.

1.1.1 The Clustering Problem

We shall define the clustering problem as follows:

The set of n objects $A = \{A_1, A_2, ..., A_n\}$ is to be clustered. Each $A_i \in \mathbb{R}^r$ is an attribute vector consisting of p real measurements describing the object. The objects are to be clustered into non-overlapping groups $C = \{C_1, C_2, ..., C_k\}$ (C is known as a *clustering*), where k is the number of clusters, $C_1 \cup C_2 \cup ... \cup C_k = X$, $C_i \neq \emptyset$, and $C_i \cap C_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$. The objects within each group should be more similar to each

other than to objects in any other group, and the value of k may be unknown. If k is known, the problem is referred to as the k-clustering problem.

1.1.2 Measures of Similarity

To cluster objects according to their similarity, one must define a measure of how close two objects are, or how well their values compare. A small distance between the objects should indicate a high similarity. Thus a *distance measure* can be used to quantify *dissimilarity*.

Several distance measures are employed for clustering [35, 15]. The most commonly used is the Euclidean distance,

$$
d(X_i, X_j) = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)'(X_i - X_j)} = \left[\sum_{l=1}^p (x_{il} - x_{jl})^2\right]^{\frac{1}{2}},
$$

the straight line distance between the two points representing the objects. An alternate measure is the "city-block" distance which sums the difference between all the attributes,

$$
d(X_i, X_j) = \sum_{l=1}^p |x_{il} - x_{jl}|.
$$

This measure is problematic if the attributes are correlated. Both of these distance measures are special cases of the more general Minkowski distance,

$$
d(X_i, X_j) = \left[\sum_{l=1}^p (x_{il} - x_{jl})^m\right]^{\frac{1}{m}}.
$$

The Mahalanobis distance is a standardised form of the Euclidean distance

$$
d(X_i, X_j) = \sqrt{(X_i - X_j)'\Sigma^{-1}(X_i - X_j)},
$$

where Σ is the correlation matrix. This measure scales the data in terms of standard deviations and adjusts for inter-correlations between the variables. However, it is not as commonly used as the Euclidean as prior knowledge of the clusters are required to compute Σ .

1.1.3 Traditional Clustering Algorithms

Clustering algorithms can be catergorised as either hierarchical or optimisation.

Hierarchical Techniques

Hierarchical clustering techniques proceed by either a series of successive mergers or a series of successive divisions. The result is the construction of a tree-like structure or hierarchy of clusterings which can be displayed as a diagram known as a *dendogram* (Figure 1). Agglomerative hierarchical methods begin with the each observation in a separate cluster. These clusters are then merged, according to their similarity (the most similar clusters are merged at each stage), until only one cluster remains.

Divisive hierarchical methods work in the opposite way. An initial cluster containing all the objects is divided into sub-groups (based on dissimilarity) until each object has its own group. Agglomerative methods are more popular than divisive methods.

Figure 1: Dendogram for hierarchical clustering (from [35]).

For both methods, the number of clusters is needed to select a clustering from the hierarchy. However the difference between the levels of the hierarchy may be an indication of the correct number of clusters.

The following are the the steps in an agglomerative hierarchical clustering algorithm for grouping n objects. Methods differ in how the distance between clusters is calculated.

- 1. Begin with n clusters, each containing one object.
- 2. Calculate the distance between each pair of clusters. These distances are usually stored in ^a symmetric distance matrix, $\mathbb{E}[h \wedge h] = \{h \wedge h\}$
- 3. Merge the two clusters with the minimum distance.
- 4. Update the distance matrix.
- 5. Repeat Steps 3 and 4 until a single cluster remains.

There are four important agglomerative clustering algorithms: single-linkage, complete-linkage, average-linkage, and Ward's minimum variance method. For single-linkage, or nearest neighbour clustering [20], the distance between two clusters is the distance between the two nearest objects in those clusters. Problems occur when the clusters are poorly delineated; this method can result in long chains with dissimilar objects at the ends (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Chaining in single-linkage clustering (from [2]).

Complete-linkage or furthest neighbour clustering [59] joins the two clusters with the minimum distance between their two furthest objects, thus eliminating the chaining problem experienced with single-linkage clustering.

Average-linkage or group-average clustering [58] defines the distance between two clusters to be the average distance from all objects in one cluster to all objects in the other cluster. This approach tends to combine clusters with small variances, and the method is biased towards producing clusters with approximately equal variance. In a variation of this method, called *centroid clustering* [44], the distance between two clusters is defined as the distance between their centroids. This method can produce messy and confusing results, since the centroids move as clusters are combined. Thus the distance between two clusters may be less than the distance between the centroids of clusters merged at an earlier stage (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Reversal in centroid clustering: (a) dendogram showing reversal; (b) migration of centroids $-$ if clusters with centroids p and q are merged, the centroid of the resulting cluster, t, is closer to r than either p or q (from [2]).

Unlike the above clustering methods, Ward's minimum variance method [67] optimises an objective statistic { the sum of the squared distances between each object and its cluster centre. At each step the algorithm merges the clusters that will minimise the increase of this statistic. This method tends to join clusters with small numbers of objects, and is biased towards producing clusters of approximately the same size.

Further detail on these clustering methods can be found in [2, 65, 15].

Comparison studies show that the performance of hierarchical methods vary according to the type of data — there is no one method that is best in all circumstances [53, 15]. However, Ward's minimum variance method and the average-linkage method cluster relatively accurately over a wide range of data types.

Hierarchical clustering methods suffer from several disadvantages:

- (i) they are restricted to smaller data sets due to the need to store similarity matrices;
- (ii) there is no provision for reallocation of objects that have been incorrectly grouped at an early stage; and
- (iii) the results reflect the degree to which the data conforms to the structural forms embedded in the algorithm.

Optimisation Techniques

Unlike hierarchical techniques, which produce a series of related clusterings, optimisation techniques produce a single clustering which optimises a pre-dened criterion or objective function. The number of clusters in this clustering, is either specified a priori or is determined as part of the clustering method.

Optimisation methods start with an initial partition of objects into a specied number of groups. Objects are then reassigned to clusters according to the objective function until some terminating criterion is met. These methods differ with respect to the starting partitions, the objective functions, the reassignment processes, and the terminating criteria.

Optimisation methods may use a random initial partition or one generated from seed points [2]. In the latter these seed points may be random, or may be selected using a method that attempts to ensure that they span the data. There are several methods for building partitions from seed points.

Objective functions which are commonly used as clustering criteria [15] include:

- minimization of the trace (W) (W)
- Minimisation of the determinant of (W)
- \bullet Maximisation of trace (*BW*T)

where:

$$
W = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (X_{ij} - \overline{X}_j)(X_{ij} - \overline{X}_i)'
$$

is the pooled within-cluster covariance matrix, and

$$
B = \sum_{i=1}^{k} n_i (\overline{X}_i - \overline{X})(\overline{X}_i - \overline{X})'
$$

is the between cluster covariance matrix. Here n_i is the number of objects in cluster i, X_{ij} is the j th object of the i th cluster, $\overline{X}_i = \frac{1}{n_i}$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n_i} X_{ii}$ is the centroid of cluster *i*, and $X = \frac{1}{n}$ $\sum_{l=1}^n X_l$ is the grand mean.

The minimisation of trace (W) is equivalent to minimising the sum of square Euclidean distances between individuals and their cluster centroids (Ward's minimum variance method uses this statistic to determine which clusters to merge at each step). This clustering criterion favours spherical clusters, since the correlation between the attributes is not considered. The second criterion is scale invariant, and is suitable for clusters which do not have a spherical distribution. The third criterion, trace (*BW*⁻⁻), is a generalisation of the Mahalanobis distance to more than two groups. For a more detailed review of these and other criterion refer to [26, 15].

Two types of reassignment are generally employed. The first loops through all the objects, reassigning each to the cluster whose centroid is the closest. The second searches a local neighbourhood of clusterings for one which improves the objective function value. Although the majority of optimisation methods require the number of clusters a priori, some reassignment processes have been designed to allow the number of clusters to evolve during clustering [2].

- 1. Start with an arbitrary partition into k initial clusters.
- 2. Take each object in sequence and move to the cluster which reduces the numerical criterion the most. Transfer the object, compute new centroids.
- 3. Repeat Step 2 until a full cycle through the objects cannot reduce the criterion value.

Figure 4: The k-means algorithm.

Optimisation algorithms terminate when there are no reassignments that will reduce the criterion value. This occurs when all objects are in the cluster whose centroid is closest to them, or the current clustering is a local minima.

Two popular optimisation methods are k-means and hill-climbing. Algorithms for these methods are given in Figures 4 and 5. Further discussion of optimisation methods can be found in [2, 29, 53, 15]. A more recent approach to the problem, using simulated annealing, is introduced in [41].

The k-means technique performs well in comparison to hill-climbing and hierarchical methods, although it is sensitive to its initial partition [53]. The k-means method is also less affected by outliers, the choice of distance measure, and the presence of irrelevant attributes or dimensions.

Unlike hierarchical clustering techniques, optimisation methods do not store similarity matrices. Thus the size of the data is not limited by storage space. However, there are a number of disadvantages affecting optimisation methods:

- (i) some methods require the number of clusters a priori, and will divide the data into this number of clusters regardless of the data structure;
- (ii) certain clustering criterion are biased toward particular cluster shapes, and will impose these shapes on the data; and
- (iii) the performance of optimisation techniques is highly dependent on the initial partition.
	- 1. Start with an arbitrary partition into k initial clusters.
	- 2. Search the local neighbourhood for the clustering which which reduces the numerical criterion
	- 3. Repeat Step 2 until no clusterings in the neighbourhood reduce the clustering criterion.

Figure 5: The hill-climbing algorithm.

Motivation 1.2

The number of ways of sorting *n* objects into *k* groups is given by Liu $[46]$:

$$
N(n,k) = \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i=0}^{k} (-1)^{i} \binom{k}{i} (k-i)^{n}
$$

For example, there are $N(25,5) = 2,436,684,974,110,751$ ways of sorting 25 objects into five groups [2]. If the number of clusters is unknown the objects can be sorted $\sum_{i=1}^n\;N(n,k)$ ways. For our zo objects this is over 4×10^{-1} clusterings. Ulearly, it is impractical for an algorithm to exhaustively search the solution space to find the optimal solution.

Furthermore, traditional clustering algorithms search a relatively small subset of the solution space (these subsets are defined by the number of clusters, the clustering criteria, and the clustering method). Consequently, the probability of success of these methods is small. Algorithms such as single-linkage are deterministic and will repeatedly find the same solution for a given data set, whereas algorithms such as k-means conduct a local search starting from an initial partition. In each case, the solution may be a *local* optimum, which is not necessarily the *global* solution. This is exacerbated when the solution space is very large.

Clearly, we need an algorithm with the potential to search large solution spaces effectively. Recently, *genetic algorithms* have been widely employed for optimisation problems in several domains. Their success lies in their ability to span a large subset of the search space. The application of genetic algorithms to clustering is the focus of this work. Below we introduce the fundamentals of genetic algorithms.

1.3 Genetic Algorithms

A Genetic Algorithm (GA) is a computational abstraction of biological evolution that can be used to solve some optimisation problems [31, 24]. In its simplest form, a GA is an iterative process applying a series of genetic operators such as selection, crossover and mutation to a population of elements (Figure 6). These elements, called chromosomes, or individuals represent possible solutions to the problem; the initial chromosomes are selected randomly from the solution space. Genetic operators combine the genetic information of the elements to form new generations of the population; this process is known as *reproduction*. Each chromosome has an associated fitness value which quantifies its value as a solution to the problem $-$ a chromosome representing a better solution will have a higher fitness value. The chromosomes compete to reproduce based on their fitness values, thus the chromosomes representing better solutions have a higher chance of survival.

Figure 6: Outline of a simple GA.

Selection according to fitness combined with crossover gives the GA its evolutionary power. The underlying assumption is that the recombination of short sequences of genetic material, or building blocks, from fit parents will lead to children of higher fitness. This is known as the building block hypothesis, and violation of this assumption may lead to poor performance [24].

GAs have been used to solve a variety of optimisation problems. Goldberg [24] reviews the application of GAs to problems including natural gas pipeline control, structural optimisation, and image registration. Michalewicz [48] discusses the application of evolutionary techniques to problems such as job scheduling, path planning, and the travelling salesman problem.

To successfully apply a GA to solve a problem one needs to determine the following:

- 1. how to represent possible solutions, or the chromosomal encoding;
- 2. what to use as the fitness function which accurately represents the value of the solution;
- 3. which genetic operators to employ; and
- 4. the parameter values (population size, probability of applying operators, etc.) which are suitable.

1.3.1 Representation

The representation should be *complete*, that is one should be able to encode all possible solutions to the problem. Clearly, if the GA cannot represent the solution, it can never find it. A secondary consideration is validity, that is all possible encodings should correspond to points inside the solution space. Invalid representations can be used, but it may be necessary to adapt the GA to avoid invalid encodings. The representation may also have a number of different chromosomes that represent the same solution, this is known as redundancy. Since a GA is a search over its representation space, not the solution space, high redundancy may present problems for convergence [36].

As a simple example of an encoding scheme let us consider a bank of six input switches. We can create a code by using a string of six 1's and 0's where each switch is represented by a 1 if the switch is on and a 0 if the switch is off (Figure 7). This representation is complete, valid and has no redundancy.

Figure 7: Encoding scheme for six on-off switches: (a) the six switches; (b) a representation of the given switch positions.

Goldberg [24] offers two basic principles for choosing a GA coding. First, the coding should contain meaningful building blocks (related information should be contained within a short substring). In our example the position of each switch is contained in a single bit which is the smallest sub-string possible. Secondly, the alphabet should be the smallest that permits a natural expression of the problem. The binary encoding we have selected is a natural representation for the switching problem.

In accordance with the above principles, the majority of traditional GAs have used the binary alphabet. Antonisse [3] argues that larger encoding alphabets are suitable for GAs, and empirical studies [34, 48] show that GAs with floating point representations are faster and more precise than binary encodings on continuous domains. Davis [13, 14] and Michalewicz [48] further emphasise the need for an encoding scheme that gives a natural representation of the problem irrespective of the alphabet size. For example, a permutation is perhaps the most natural representation of a tour for the travelling salesman problem (Figure 8).

Figure 8: Encoding scheme for the travelling salesman problem: (a) a tour of six cities; (b) a representation of the given tour.

1.3.2 Fitness Function

The fitness function quantifies the suitability of each chromosome as a solution and is used as a basis for selecting chromosomes for reproduction. Chromosomes with high fitness have more chance of being selected, and thus, passing their genetic material (recombined via crossover) to the next generation. The fitness function provides the pressure for the GA to evolve its population toward chromosomes of higher fitness, and clearly, the success of the GA for the problem is dependent on the choice of the fitness function.

The chromosome representing the optimal solution should have the maximum fitness value for the solution space; near optimal solutions should have high fitness values. Since GAs tend to retain genetic material found in chromosomes of high fitness, appropriate choice of fitness function will increase the probability of retaining genetic material associated with optimal or near optimal solutions.

Consider the six switches from Figure 7. The switches belong to a black box optimisation problem that has an associated payoff measure. A selection of payoff values are given in Table 1. An appropriate fitness function to find the switch settings with the highest payoff would be the payoff values themselves. However, if we wanted to find the switch settings that would give the payoff closest to \$20, we would use a fitness function based around the difference between the payoff and \$20 (for example, $f = -|20 - \text{Payoff}|$).

	Switch								
	2	3	4	5	6	\$			
OFF	OFF	OFF	OFF	OFF	OFF	0.9			
OFF	OΝ	OFF	OFF	OΝ	OΝ	15.1			
OFF	OΝ	OΝ	OΝ	OΝ	OFF	17			
$\cap N$	OFF	OFF	OFF	OFF	OFF	21.0			
$\cap N$	OΝ	OFF	OFF	OFF	OΝ	39.4			
OΝ	OΝ	ΩN	OΝ	OΝ	OΝ	23.3			

Table 1: Some payoff values for the black box optimisation problem with six switches.

A further issue when considering the fitness function is *scaling*. When the population fitness values are diverse, the fitter individuals will have high selection probabilities compared to average individuals. However, as the fitness values converge the fitter individuals will have similar probabilities to the average individuals. Thus the probability of selecting the fitter individuals (the driving force behind the GA's evolution) can be signicantly reduced.

Selection pressure can be maintained by scaling the fitness values. Linear scaling calculates the scaled fitness \bar{f} from the raw fitness f using a linear transformation, $f_{\parallel}=af+b$ [24]. The constants a and b are chosen so that the average scaled fitness is equal to the average raw fitness, and the maximum scaled fitness equals the maximum raw fitness multiplied by the number of expected copies desired for the best population member. Linear scaling may produce negative scaling values, although Goldberg [24] provides an algorithm to avoid this. Power law scaling calculates the scaled fitness as some specified power of the raw fitness, $f_{\parallel}=f^+$ [24]. The value of c is problem dependent.

1.3.3 Genetic Operators

There are four major operators used for GAs: initialisation, selection, crossover and mutation.

The Initialisation Operator

This operator is used to generate the initial population for the GA. The initial population should contain chromosomes which are scattered throughout the solution space, thus providing the GA with a variety of genetic material. The easiest way to achieve this is to randomly select chromosomes from the representation space. For our switches example (Section 1.3.1) we could generate a population of random binary strings of length six. Alternatively, a population of random permutations of the integers 1 to 6 is appropriate for our travelling salesman representation.

The Selection Operator

Selection chooses individuals for reproduction based on their fitness values. Fitness proportional selection or roulette wheel selection [24] chooses individuals with a probability proportional to their relative fitness. This corresponds to a spinning wheel where each chromosome has been allocated a section of the wheel according to its relative fitness value — the higher the fitness the larger the allocated section. An alternate selection scheme is remainder stochastic sampling [9]. Here, the number of expected occurrences of each individual in the next population are calculated. Parents

are selected according to the integer part of this number, and the chromosomes then compete according the the fractional parts for the remaining places in the population. Stochastic universal sampling [4] selects all the parents at the same time. This method is analogous to a single spinning wheel with the number of (equally spaced) pointers representing the desired number of parents. Tournament selection [9] is a process which selects parents according to their rank. The identity of a parent is decided by randomly selecting a predetermined number of individuals, and then finding the fittest individual within this set.

A simple GA will select a sufficient number of parents to reproduce and form the next generation. However, steady state GAs will select a single pair of parents to reproduce and then add the resulting offspring back into the population (perhaps deleting the parents to make room for them) before selecting another pair to reproduce. Elite selection strategies [37] copy the fittest individuals straight from one generation to the next to prevent them from being lost during reproduction. Further discussion of these and other selection mechanisms can be found in [24, 48].

The Crossover Operator

Crossover combines the genetic material of one or more parents to produce one or more offspring. Single-point crossover exchanges the tails of two parent strings. The size of the strings exchanged is determined by a randomly generated crossover point (Figure 9a). Uniform crossover exchanges each bit with a random probability (Figure 9b).

Figure 9: Examples of single-point and uniform crossover: (a) single-point crossover exchanges the tails of two parents; (b) uniform crossover randomly swaps bits between parents.

There are two main problems to consider when deciding which crossover operator to use. Firstly, some crossover operators give invalid solutions when applied to certain representations. For example, if we applied single-point or uniform crossover to the permutation representation we used for the travelling salesman problem (Section 1.3.1), we may produce a tour which visits some cities more than once, and skips one or more cities.

There are two ways to deal with this problem: (1) we can check each offspring after crossover and try again if the offspring is invalid; or (2) we select (or modify/design) the crossover operator so that it always produces valid offspring for that representation.

Numerous crossovers have been designed for permutation representations. Partially mapped crossover or PMX [23] chooses a substring of one parent and then preserves the order and position of as many values as possible from the other parent (Figure 10a). PMX starts by swapping a randomly selected substring between the two parents. This substring defines a series of mappings which are applied to produce the offspring.

Order-based crossover or OX [12] builds offspring by choosing a substring from one parent and preserving the relative order of values from the other parent (Figure 10b). OX starts by copying a (randomly selected) substring of the second parent into the first child. Then starting at the end of the substring, the sequence of the remaining values in the first parent is copied into the child.

Figure 10: Crossover operators for permutation representations: (a) PMX preserves the order and position of values in the parents; (b) OX preserves the order of values within the parents.

Michalewicz [48] describes suitable crossover operators for a variety of encoding schemes.

The second problem to consider when selecting a crossover operator is one of *context* insensitivity. This occurs when a chromosome is similar to its parent chromosomes, but the solution it represents is not similar to the solutions represented by the parent chromosomes $$ the crossover operator is insensitive to the solutions that the parents represent. We shall discuss this further in Chapter 2.

The Mutation Operator

The mutation operator introduces new genetic material into the population. For a binary string, a simple mutation would change a 0 to a 1 (or a 1 to a 0) somewhere along the string. For a permutation, we might swap two integer values. For real-valued chromosomes, a mutation operator could replace values by using a Gaussian distribution with a mean equal to the current real value.

As with the crossover operator, it is possible to create invalid chromosomes by applying some mutation operators to certain representations (for example, applying a binary mutation to a permutation encoding), so we need to ensure that the mutation operator is suitable for the representation.

1.3.4 Parameter Values

GA performance is sensitive to certain parameter values, in particular the population size, frequency of operator application, and the termination criterion. Small populations may converge quickly to sub-optimal solutions, while large populations waste computational resources. Low crossover rates slow down the convergence because of the increased time required to explore the existing genetic material. If the mutation rate is too high, the relationship between generations may be too low, possibly decaying into random search. If the rate is too low, unseen and novel traits will appear infrequently.

There are two common termination criteria. The first allows the GA a set number of generations which may not be enough to produce a satisfactory solution. The second requires the convergence of the population. If complete convergence is necessary for termination the GA will only stop when all members of the population are the same chromosome. This may never occur. An alternative is to stop the GA when one chromosome occupies a certain percentage of the population.

A number of studies have been conducted to determine appropriate parameter values. De Jong [37] calculated parameter values from theory, using a suite of five functions to test the values. Grefenstette [28] used a GA to evolve parameter values $-$ a meta-GA with a population of GAs with varying parameter values. Schaffer et al. [56] ran exhaustive tests for a wide range of values. More recently, numerous theoretical studies model GAs as Markov chains in order to determine the optimal parameter values [25, 52, 62] However, all of these studies consider only binary encoding schemes, and only small problems are used in the empirical studies. An alternate approach is to allow the operator probabilities to adapt during the GA's evolution [13, 61].

1.3.5 Final Comments $-$ GAs

GAs have gained popularity for solving optimisation problems. However, De Jong [38] emphasises that GAs are not function optimisers, but can be adapted to work as such. Davis [13, 14] and Michalewicz [48] go even further, stressing that a GA must be adapted to suit the problem $-$ in particular, the representation and operators need to be be designed carefully. In fact Davis [13] states:

. . . a great many real-world optimization problems appear ripe for solution by genetic algorithms, yet the binary representation appears ineffective or inefficient for them. Further, operators other than binary crossover and binary mutation appear to contribute to good performance in those domains. . . . [A further problem] then, is that of parameterizing a genetic algorithm that differs from the type studied so thoroughly by researchers in the field.

1.4 Overview

This thesis is an investigation of using genetic algorithms to cluster. In particular, we:

- (i) determine the adaptions necessary to enable the GA to cluster successfully;
- (ii) find suitable parameter values for k-clustering (these may vary for different data sets);
- (iii) compare the performance of genetic clustering with traditional k-clustering algorithms; and
- (iv) explore the potential of GAs for the general clustering problem.

The layout of this thesis is as follows: Chapter 2 discusses the process of adapting GAs for the clustering problem when the number of clusters is known, Chapter 3 contains a comparison of genetic clustering with other clustering methods, and Chapter 4 examines the issue of genetic clustering when the number of clusters is unknown. A final discussion is presented in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

Adapting GAs for k-Clustering

A number of authors have applied GAs to the problem of k-clustering, where the required number of clusters is known [43, 1, 8, 6]. Various adaptions are used to enable the GAs to cluster and to enhance their performance, but there is little or no comparison between the different adaptions. Further, the clustering GAs or *genetic clustering algorithms* (GCAs) are tested on small data sets, or heuristics are added to enable the GAs to cope with a larger number of objects. It is not clear which adaptions are best suited to the clustering problem, or how any adaptions will affect GA performance for differing data sets.

In this chapter we shall compare a number of adaptions appropriate for the k-clustering problem, including some used for more general grouping problems. The aim is to determine which adaptions will enable GAs to find the correct clusterings in the fastest time. We shall also ascertain whether these adaptions should vary with the data set.

2.1 **Background**

Adaptions for the k-clustering problem fall into the following areas: representation, fitness function, operators, and parameter values.

2.1.1 **Representation**

Genetic representations for clustering or grouping problems are based on two underlying schemes. The first allocates each object one (or more) integers or bits, known as *genes*, and uses the value of these genes to signify which cluster the object belongs to. The second scheme represents the objects with gene values, and the position of these genes signifies how the objects are divided amongst the clusters. Representations using these schemes differ in how the genes are assigned and how the gene values are interpreted.

Figure 11 contains encodings of the clustering $\{\{X_1, X_3, X_6\}, \{X_2, X_4, X_5\}\}\;$ for a number of representations that we will discuss in detail shortly. The two clusters are denoted as 1 and 2 respectively, and the six objects are denoted by the numbers 1 to 6.

Group-number encoding $[36]$ is based on the first encoding scheme and represents a clustering of n objects as a string of n integers where the *i*th integer signifies the group number of the *i*th

Figure 11: Chromosomes representing the clustering $\{\{X_1, X_3, X_6\}, \{X_2, X_4, X_5\}\}\$ for various encoding schemes: (a) group-number; (b) matrix; (c) permutation with the separator character 7; (d) greedy permutation"; (e) order-based". I assuming the correct clustering is the local minimum for this chromosome.

object. When there are only two clusters this can be reduced to a binary encoding scheme by using 0 and 1 as the group identiers [43].

Bezdek et al. [6] use an n-k matrix to represent a clustering, with each row corresponding to a cluster and each column associated with an object. A 1 in row i, column j means that object j is in group i. Each column contains exactly one 1, whereas a row can have many 1's. All other elements are 0's. This representation can be adapted for overlapping clusters or fuzzy clustering [5].

Encoding schemes that signify objects by gene values use permutations of the object numbers to represent clusterings. Permutation with separators encoding [36] uses the integers $n+1$ to $n+k-1$ (or other appropriate separators) to indicate where the cluster boundaries are in the permutation.

There are also permutation representations that need a local search to determine which clustering they correspond to $-$ these are known as greedy representations. Greedy permutation encoding [36] uses the first k objects in the permutation to seed k clusters. The remaining objects are then, in the order they appear in the permutation, added to the cluster which yields the best objective function value (typically the cluster with the closest centroid).

Bhuyan, Raghavan, and Elayavalli [8] also use a greedy encoding scheme. Here a permutation represents all possible clusterings with the correct number of clusters and the objects in that order. An algorithm by Fisher $[19, 29]$ is used to find which of these clusterings gives the best objective function value (Figure 12). This algorithm will find the optimal k-clustering for the permutation, but the clustering is not necessarily unique. This is called order-based encoding.

As we saw in Chapter 1, when selecting a genetic representation we need to consider: completeness, validity, and redundancy. An incomplete representation cannot encode all possible solutions as chromosomes, and any GA using such a representation will be searching a proper subset of the solution space. All of the above representations are complete except for the two greedy encoding schemes. Both of these decode clusterings using local search, so only clusterings that are local minima (or maxima) are represented. This can be a problem if the optimal clustering is not a minima (or maxima) of the local search.

For the k-clustering problem, any chromosome that does not represent a clustering with k groups is necessarily invalid: a group number chromosome that does not include all group numbers as gene values is invalid; a matrix encoding with a row of 0's is invalid; a permutation with separators chromosome with adjacent separators, or a separator as the first or last gene, is invalid. A matrix encoding is also invalid if there is more than one 1 in any column. Chromosomes with group values that do not correspond to a group or object, and permutations with repeated or missing object identiers are invalid.

- 1. Compute the diameter D(I ; J) for the cluster (I ; I + 1; :::; J), for all I ; J such that 1 I < J M. $D(I, J) = \sum \{I \le L \le J\} [X(L) - X]^2$ and $X = \sum \{I \le L \le J\} \frac{A(L)}{I}$ JI+1
- 2. Compute the errors of the optimal partitions, 2 I M, by e[P (I ; 2)] = min[D(1; J 1) + $D(J,I)]$ over the range $2\leq J\leq I$.
- 3. For each L(3 L K) compute the errors of the optimal partitions e[P (I ; L)](L I M) by

$$
e[P(I, L)] = \min\{e[P(J - 1, L - 1)] + D(J, I)\}\
$$

over the range L J I.

 \mathcal{A} . The optimal partition P (M; L) is discovered from the table of errors effectively (I \mathcal{A} , L) \mathcal{A} $I \leq M)$ by first finding J so that

$$
e[P(M, K)] = \min\{e[P(J - 1, K - 1)] + D(J, M)\}.
$$

The last cluster is then $(J, J + 1, ..., M)$. Now find J so that $e|P$ ($J = 1$, K) $\equiv e|P$ ($J = 1, K =$ $11 + D(J, J - 1)$ the second-to-last cluster of $P(M, K)$ is $(J, J + 1, ..., J - 1)$ and so on.

Figure 12: Fisher's Algorithm for finding the optimal k-clustering for a permutation (from [29]).

All of the above encoding schemes have some level of redundancy (more than one chromosome represents a clustering). We can swap the group numbers (or rows) $k!$ ways, and the redundancy of permutation encoding grows exponentially with the number of objects [17].

A final consideration when selecting a representation is the complexity of the local search for the greedy representations. The local search for greedy permutation is $O(nk)$, while the order of Fisher's algorithm for order-based encoding is $O(n^2k)$.

2.1.2 Fitness Function

Objective functions used for traditional clustering algorithms (see Section $1.1.3$) can act as fitness functions for GCAs. However, if the optimal clustering corresponds to the minimal objective function value, we will need to transform the objective function value since GAs work to maximise their fitness values. In addition, fitness values in a GA need to be positive if we are using fitness proportional selection.

Krovi [43] uses the ratio of the between sum of squares and within sum of squares as his fitness function. Since the aim is to maximise this value, no transformation is necessary. Bhuyan et al. [8] and Bhuyan [7] use the sum of squared Euclidean distance of each object from the centroid of its cluster. This value is then transformed ($f~\equiv~\textstyle \mathcal{C}_{max} = f$, where f is the raw fitness, f is the scaled fitness, and C_{max} is the value of the poorest string in the population — this is known as a *local* transformation) and linearly scaled (see Section 1.3.2) to get the fitness value. Alippi and Cucchiara [1] also use the same criterion, but use a GA that has been adapted to minimise fitness values. Bezdek et al.'s [6] clustering criterion is also based around minimising the sum of squared distances of objects from their cluster centres, but they use three different distance metrics (Euclidean, diagonal, and Mahalonobis) to allow for different cluster shapes. Bezdek et al. have adapted their selection operator to avoid the need to transform the criterion values (see Section 2.1.3).

2.1.3 Genetic Operators

The operators pass genetic information between subsequent generations of the population. As a result, operators need to be matched with or designed for the representation, so that the offspring are valid and inherit characteristics from their parents. Operators used for genetic clustering or grouping include some of the selection, crossover and mutation methods we looked at in the previous chapter, some adaptions of these, and some totally novel operators.

Initialisation

The initial population of a GCA should provide a wide variety of genetic material, necessary for a thorough search of the problem space. Care also needs to be taken to ensure that the population contains only valid chromosomes unless the GCA can handle invalid ones. Randomly generating the initial population is one method of selecting a spread of genetic material. Heuristic initialisation operators can be used to select fit chromosomes in an effort to reduce the time required for the GCA to converge on a solution.

Group-number

An initial group-number population can be created from chromosomes with each object's group number a random number between 1 and k inclusive (Krovi [43] uses 0 or 1). This method may produce invalid chromosomes (with less than k groups) so Jones and Beltramo [36] check to see that all groups are included. If not, the chromosome is rejected.

Bezdek, et al. $[6]$ use a partially random initialisation process. k cluster centres are produced by selecting feature values from random objects (the jth attribute of the ith centre is the jth attribute of a randomly selected object). A matrix chromosome is then created from the cluster centres — the exact method is not explained in detail. Alippi and Cucchiara [1] do not elaborate on their initialisation process.

Permutation with separators

Jones and Beltramo [36] use a three step process to produce valid chromosomes for this representation:

- 1. Generate a string of random group numbers and divide the objects into groups accordingly. Reject the chromosome if there is an empty group.
- 2. Randomly permute the order of the objects in each group.
- 3. Create the chromosome by listing the objects in their permuted order and adding the separators (in random order).

Greedy permutation

Jones and Beltramo [36] use random permutations as the initial population for this representation.

Bhuyan et al. $[8]$ compare three different initial population constructors, namely A, B, and C. The first constructor, A, randomly places the objects into a random list. The second, constructor B, chooses an initial object randomly, and then selects (from the remaining objects) the object that is closest to the last selected object. This is repeated until all the objects have been selected. The complexity of this constructor is $O(n^+)$. Constructor C is the same as constructor B except that instead of searching all remaining objects to find the closest one, only c (a constant defined by the user) are searched. Bhuyan [7] uses the same constructor C.

Selection

Chromosomes are selected for reproduction based on their relative fitness. Thus the representation is not a factor when choosing an appropriate selection operator, but the fitness function is. If all fitness values are positive, and the maximum fitness value corresponds to the optimal clustering, then fitness proportional selection may be appropriate. Otherwise, a ranking selection method may be used. In addition, elite selection will ensure that the fittest chromosomes are passed from one generation to the next.

Krovi [43] uses the fitness proportional selection provided in Goldberg's book [24]. The selection operator used by both Bhuyan et al. $[8]$ and Bhuyan $[7]$ is an elite version of fitness proportional selection. A new population is formed by picking the x (a parameter provided by the user) best strings from the combination of the old population and the offspring. The remaining chromosomes in the new population are selected from the offspring.

Jones and Beltramo [36] and Bezdek et al. [6] use ranking selection methods. Jones and Beltramo use a steady-state GCA where only two parents are selected for reproduction during each iteration. The selection probability depends linearly on rank — the best population member is selected with probability b/P and the worst member with probability $(2 - b)/P$. Here b is the bias and P is the population size. The parents are crossed to form a single child which is inserted into the population and the worst population member is deleted so the population size remains constant.

The selection operator used by Bezdek et al. works as follows. First, the population is sorted by fitness value and a set of R chromosomes with the lowest values are chosen to reproduce. The reproduction pairs are randomly chosen from this set. After reproduction the R child matrices are added to the population and those with the greatest fitness values are dropped. Bezdek et al. actually state that $P - R$ matrices are dropped but this would mean that the population size would change unless R is half the value of P (which it is in all their examples). If instead R matrices are dropped the population size will remain constant for all values of P and R. Since Bezdek et al. use a ranking selection method, the fitness function values do not need to be transformed. Hence the lower fitness values correspond to better solutions in this case, which is why the chromosomes with low fitness values are selected for reproduction.

Alippi and Cucchiara [1] do not report their selection method.

Crossover

The crossover operator is designed to transfer genetic material from one generation to the next. The major concerns with this operator are validity and context insensitivity. It may be necessary to check that offspring produced by a certain operator are valid, and reject any invalid chromosomes.

Context insensitivity occurs when the crossover operator used in a redundant representation acts on the chromosomal level instead of the clustering level. In this case the child chromosome may resemble the parent chromosomes, but the child clustering does not resemble the parent clusterings $-$ the operator is insensitive to the context of the chromosomes. Figure 13 shows

Figure 13: Context insensitivity of single-point crossover.

that single-point crossover is context insensitive for the group-number representation. Here both parents represent the same clustering, $\{\{X_1, X_2, X_3\}, \{X_4, X_5, X_6\}\}\$ although the group numbers are different. Given that the parents represent the same solution, we would expect the children to also represent this solution. Instead both children are the clustering $\{\{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6\}\}\$ which does not resemble either parents (it is also invalid, but that is a separate issue).

Falkenauer [18] demonstrates the context insensitivity of the PMX operator for permutation encodings of grouping problems.

Group-number

Single-point and uniform crossover can be used for group-number chromosomes. However both operators may produce invalid chromosomes and are context insensitive.

Krovi [43] uses single-point crossover as implemented by Goldberg [24].

Jones and Beltramo [36] compare three types of cross-over for the group-number representation: single-point, uniform, and edge-based. They use two versions of the former operators: one with rejection, and one with rejection and renumbering. Rejection is introduced to counter the problem of validity $-$ a child is only accepted if it is valid. Renumbering is an attempt to cope with context insensitivity $-$ the parents are canonically renumbered before crossover. For example the first parent in Figure 13 would be renumbered to match the second.

For single-point crossover all possible children are generated and then one valid child is selected from these. Uniform crossover is repeated until the child has k groups or a limit on the number of attempted crosses is reached (if this occurs the child is set to one of the parents at random).

The edge-based crossover operator constructs a child chromosome by combining the edges of the parent chromosomes (two objects are considered to be connected by an edge if they are in the same group). This proceeds as follows:

- 1. Initialise the child to the set of non-empty intersections of the clusters of the two parents. Let L denote the number of non-empty intersections.
- 2. If L ⁼ K, stop. Otherwise go to step 3.
- 3. Select the pair of groups with the minimum number of non-inherited edges (between-group edges not present in either parent), breaking ties at random. Join this pair of groups, set $L = L - 1$, and go to step 2.

Since edge-based crossover manipulates the parent clusterings rather than their chromosomes, this operator is context sensitive for all representations. Further, if both parents are valid, edge-based crossover will always produce a valid child. However, this crossover has $O(k^*)$ complexity.

For example, consider the following parent chromosomes:

These parents encode the clusterings:

$$
\{\{X_1\}, \{X_3, X_4, X_5\}, \{X_2, X_6\}\}\
$$

$$
\{\{X_3\}, \{X_2, X_4, X_6\}, \{X_1, X_5\}\},\
$$

and the non-empty intersections of these clusterings are:

$$
{\{X_1\},\{X_3\},\{X_4\},\{X_5\},\{X_2,X_6\}\}}
$$

We initialise the child to the set of intersections and then merge clusters until the correct number of clusters is reached.

One possible child is:

$(1)322113$

which inherits $\{X_3, X_4\}$ from parent 1, $\{X_1, X_5\}$ from parent 2, and $\{X_2, X_6\}$ from both parents.

Von Laszewski [66] and Muhlenbein [50] also describe crossover operators (for the graph partitioning problem) that work with partitionings rather than chromosomes. Both copy a random group from one parent to the other and then rearrange the result to form a valid partitioning (Von Laszewski and Muhlenbein have the constraint of equal group sizes). In order to deal with the problem of context insensitivity, Muhlenbein [50] rearranges the group numbers in the second parent so that the group number of the partition being copied is the same as the most similar partition in the second parent.

Alippi and Cucchiara [1] use a single-point asexual crossover to avoid the problem of

Figure 14: Alippi and Cucchiara's asexual crossover (adapted from [1]).

redundancy (Figure 14). The tails of two rows of the matrix are swapped, starting from a randomly selected crossover point. Clusterings with less than k groups may be produced by this operator.

Bezdek et al. [6] use a sexual 2-point crossover (Figure 15). A crossover point and a distance (the number of columns to be swapped) are randomly selected $-$ these determine which columns are swapped between the parents. This operator is context insensitive, and may produce children with less than k groups.

Parent 1								Parent 2								
	1		$1\quad 0$		0	1	0		0			$1\quad 0$	$\overline{}$ 1	0		
	0		0	0 1 0			0		1	0			$\begin{array}{cccccc}\n0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1\n\end{array}$		1	
	0			$\overline{1}$	0	0	1		0	1					0	
	Crossover point with distance of 2															
	Child 1							Child 2								
	1		1	$\overline{0}$	$\overline{1}$	O	0		0			0	Ω	1		
	0	1	0	$\mathbf 0$	Ω	Ω	0		1	0	0	0 ₁		Ω	1	
	0			1	0	1	1		0			1	O		0	

Figure 15: Bezdek et al.'s 2-point matrix crossover (adapted from [6]).

Permutation with separators

Jones and Beltramo [36] use two crossovers for permutation encodings, PMX and OX (see Section 1.3.3). In both cases parents are repeatedly crossed until the child decodes into a clustering with k groups.

Greedy permutation

Jones and Beltramo [36] also use PMX and OX crossover for the greedy permutation representation.

Order-based

Bhuyan et al. [8] describe two operators for their order-based representation. Operator 1 (Figure 16a) randomly selects a dominating parent; the remaining parent becomes the supporting parent. Next an object and a distance or window size are selected at random. These define the substring which is copied from the supporting parent to the child $-$ the substring is the selected object plus any other objects within the window size (either side of the selected object). The substring is copied into the child so that the selected object is in the same position as in the dominating parent, and the order of the objects in the dominating

Figure 16: Bhuyan et al.'s crossover operators (adapted from [8]). ¹placement order differs slightly from that shown.

parent is maintained. The remaining objects are placed into the child in the same order they appear in the dominating parent.

Operator 2 (Figure 16b) starts by selecting the object in the first position of one of the parents, and placing this in the first position of the child. We then select an object from all the objects that are next to this object in either parent. The selected object becomes the second object in the child. This process continues until all of the objects are represented in the child.

A third operator is mentioned in the results section but is never described.

Bhuyan's [7] crossover operator is similar to Operator 1 above, in that a substring from a supporting parent is copied to the dominating parent (Figure 17). However, in this case we copy complete clusters (one or more) rather than random substrings. First, the \borrowed"

Figure 17: Bhuyan's crossover (adapted from [7]).

clusters are added to the dominating parent. Then we rearrange the remaining clusters in the dominating parent to make it a valid clustering. This is done by removing any clusters that contain objects also in the borrowed clusters, and using a local search to add any missing objects to the clustering. This is essentially the same operator Von Laszewski [66] used for group-number encoding.

Mutation

Mutation introduces new genetic material into the population. In a clustering context this corresponds to moving an object from one cluster to another. How this is done is dependent on the representation.

Group-number

Krovi [43] uses the mutation function implemented by Goldberg [24]. Here each bit of the chromosome is inverted with a probability equal to the mutation rate, $P_{mut.}$ Jones and Beltramo [36] change each group number (provided it is not the only object left in that group) with probability, $P_{mut} = \frac{1}{n}$ where *n* is the number of objects.

Matrix

Alippi and Cucchiara [1] use a column mutation. An element is selected from the matrix at random and set to 1. All other elements in the column are set to 0. If the selected element is already 1 this operator has no effect.

Bezdek et al. [6] also use a column matrix, but they choose an element that is currently 0 and set it to 1 (Figure 18). The element that is 1 is set to 0.

Figure 18: Bezdek et al.'s mutation (adapted from [6]).

Permutation with separators

Jones and Beltramo [36] randomly select two objects and swap them. To ensure that the resulting chromosome is valid, group separators cannot be swapped.

Greedy permutation

Two objects are randomly selected and swapped [36].

• Order-based

The mutation operator used by Bhuyan, et al. [8] is the same as that used for the greedy permutation representation. Bhuyan [7] compares two mutation operators. The first moves a randomly selected object to a randomly selected cluster; the second moves the object only if the move results in a decrease in the objective function value.

Other Operators

• Order-based

Bhuyan et al. [8] apply a local-tuning operator after a specied number of generations. Each object is considered in turn, and moved to the first cluster that reduces the value of the objective function.

Parameter Values $2.1.4$

The parameter values used for the genetic clustering implementations vary considerably, and there is little or no documented justication for the selection of these values. Some parameters values are even omitted. Population sizes range from 40 [8, 7] to 1000 [36]; the number of generations varies from 40 [8] to 200 [6] or to complete convergence; crossover probabilities are high (0.70, 1.0); and mutation rates are low $(0.1, 0.3)$ — although these values are high compared to typical mutation rates for genetic algorithms.

2.2 Methodology

In order to determine the best adaptions for the clustering problem, and the relationship between the data and these adaptions, we compared the performance of a range of adaptions over a number of data sets. This was achieved as follows:

- 1. We selected three data sets with differing numbers of objects and clusters. For each of these we generated a similar data set (same number of objects, attributes, and clusters; similar cluster shape and proximity).
- 2. Exhaustive tests with different combinations of adaptions were performed on the generated data sets.
- 3. Using the test results from Step 2, suitable adaptions were selected for each of the generated data sets. We then compared the performance of these adaptions on the original and generated data.

2.2.1 Data Sets

The selected data sets were Ruspini [55, 39], German Towns [60] and Iris [51] (Figure 19); the properties of these data sets are listed in Table 2. The Ruspini data represents a relatively small number of objects clustered into a moderate number of well separated clusters. The German Towns data has a small number of objects, but there is no "correct" clustering for this data set. The data can be "successfully" divided into differing numbers of clusters (although five, seven, or nine clusters appear to best suit the data [60]). For this experiment we chose the correct number of clusters to be seven. The Iris data set contains a larger number of objects which are divided amongst three hyperspherical clusters. Two of these clusters overlap slightly.

The new data sets were generated with the same number of objects, attributes, and clusters as the original data sets. Further, the shape and proximity of the clusters were based on those found

(a) Ruspini (from [39])

(b) German Towns (adapted from [60])

 \mathbf{r} is a interesting to \mathbf{r}

Figure 19: Two dimensional plots of the selected data sets.
		Number of Number of Number of	
	objects	attributes	– clusters
Ruspini	75		
German Towns	59		
T1S	-150		

Table 2: Properties of the experimental data sets.

in the original sets. However, the range of attribute values, the number of objects in the individual clusters, and the relative positioning of the clusters was purposely altered for the generated data sets. Finally, the shape and positioning of the clusters was adjusted so that the correct clustering corresponded to the maximum value of the objective function (or that the clusters were clearly separable).

2.2.2 Ob jective Function

The objective function for the experiment was trace (W) or the sum of the squared distances between objects and their cluster centres (see section 1.1.3). This was minimised over the solution space.

The attribute values were standardised to minimise the difference in objective function values

Adaptions 2.2.3

The following adaptions were compared:

Representation

Both the group-number and order-based representations were implemented. The poor performance of the GCAs with order-based representation meant that these trials took longer to complete, and due to time constraints the range of adaptions compared for this representation was reduced.

• Fitness Function

Four different scaling mechanisms were used for the group-number representation: local transformation, adjusted transformation, linear scaling with $C_{Multi} = 2.0$, and linear scaling with $C_{Multi} = 4.0$. Adjusted and linear scaling were also compared for the order-based representation.

Selection

Fitness proportional selection was compared with three different elite levels: the top $0, 1$, or 5% of population size individuals were copied straight from one generation to the next. Elite levels of 0 and 5% were used with order-based encoding.

Crossover

For the group-number representation, single-point, uniform, and edge-based crossover were compared. For order-based encoding the PMX crossover operator was compared with two new operators. The first, *borrow*, is similar to the operator described by both Bhuyan [7] and

⁴

Von Laszewski [66], but the operator has been designed to avoid the need for local search. A single cluster (randomly selected) is copied from the first parent and placed into the child. The remaining objects are added to the child in the order they occur in the second parent.

The second operator is an edge-based operator for order-based encodings. This operator works exactly the same as for the group-number representation, but the objects are placed in the child in the same order they occur in the first parent.

Mutation

The mutation implemented for the group-number representation randomly changes a groupnumber with probability $\frac{Fmu}{n}$. Two types of mutation were compared for order-based encoding. The first, uniform, moves an object with probability $\frac{F_{mu}}{n}$ to a uniformly distributed point along the length of the chromosome. The second, gaussian, moves the object according to a Gaussian distribution with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of $\frac{\Delta}{4}$.

Parameters

The following parameters were compared for the group-number representation: population size $\in \{50, 100, 200, 400\}$; crossover probability $\in \{0.50, 0.70, 0.90\}$; and mutation rate $\{0.01, 0.05, 0.10, 0.20, 0.50, 0.70, 0.90\}$. For order-based these were reduced to: population size $\in \{50, 100, 200\}$; crossover probability $\in \{0.50, 0.70, 0.90\}$; and mutation rate \in $\{0.10, 0.20, 0.70, 0.90\}.$

All of the GCAs used random initialisation, and replaced the entire population during the reproduction phase (except in the case of elite selection). There were no checks to ensure that all chromosomes contained k groups.

Since the operators are dependent on the representation type, the experimental tests were divided into two groups according to the representation type. Each group involved five replications (using different random seeds) of each possible combination of relevant adaptions. There were 3024 combinations of adaptions for the group-number representation and 1296 combinations for orderbased encoding. These combinations were tested on each of the three data sets, giving a total of six result sets according to the representation and the data.

Each run of the GCA continued until the correct clustering was found or the execution time exceeded five CPU minutes which was considered a reasonable amount of time to find a solution. The number of correct runs (maximum of five) and the average time to find the solution (calculated from those runs that found the solution) were recorded for each combination.

2.2.4 Testing Conditions

All of the tests were conducted on one of two Sparc Ultras (all runs for a particular representation/data combination were conducted on the same machine). The load average on both machines during testing was approximately 1.0.

2.2.5 Statistical Analysis

Each of the six representation type/data set results were analysed separately. Independent generalised linear models were fitted to the correctness and time results. These were used to determine the factors influencing correctness and speed, and also to predict which adaptions would give the highest probability of a correct clustering in the fastest time. All statistical analysis was completed using S-Plus version 3.4 release 1 for Silicon Graphics Iris, IRIX 5.3: 1996.

Generalised linear models were fitted to both the correctness and time data. The probability of finding the correct clustering was assumed to follow the logit model

$$
\pi = \frac{\exp(z'\alpha)}{1 + \exp(z'\alpha)},
$$

with the design vector $z_{\parallel}=$ (1, PS, Ir, El, Ur, UP, Mu, MR, PS:Ir, PS:El, ...). The symbols in the design vector represent population size, fitness transformation, elite constant, crossover type, crossover probability, mutation type, and mutation rate. Terms such as PS:Tr represent the interaction between these two factors, namely the population size and the fitness transformation.

The filme to find the solution was assumed to follow the Poisson model (with z as above)

$$
\mu = \exp(z'\beta).
$$

Each model was assumed to be hierarchical, that is higher-order terms were only included if lower-order related terms were also included. The final models were the best possible models with no higher than third-order terms. All of the variables (including those continuous) were treated as factors as the purpose of the analysis was to find the best of the selected factors levels. Analysis of deviance was used to judge the signicance of terms, with insignicant terms being dropped from the models. Information on generalised linear models can be found in [64, 47, 16].

The mean time to solution on the real and generated data sets was compared with the predicted values using two-sided z tests (or t tests when there were less than 30 correct runs). Each test used the null hypothesis that the actual mean time was equal to the predicted time.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Generated Data

Figure 20 contains the three generated data sets: Ruspini2, Towns2, and Iris2.

2.3.2 Adaptions

Table 3 contains the correctness results for the group-number GCAs. The majority of the GCAs found the correct clustering for both Ruspini2 and Iris2 in all five runs $(79.1\%$ and 73.2% respectively). However, only 4% found the solution for the Towns2 data in all five runs. 97.8% of the group-number GCAs found the correct clustering for Ruspini2 four or five times $-$ with all GCAs finding the solution in at least two runs for this data set. A considerable proportion of the GCAs did not find the solution in any run for both Towns2 (10.8%) and Iris2 (15.1%) .

The correctness results for the order-based trials are presented in Table 4. For each data set, a large proportion of the trials did not find the correct clustering in any run. In fact, for the Iris2 data set, the GCAs were unable to find the solution in any run of any trial. However, a reasonable proportion of the GCAs found the correct clustering in all five runs for both Ruspini2 and Towns2.

(a) Ruspini2

 \cdots

Figure 20: Two dimensional plots of the generated data sets.

Table 3: Correctness of group-number GCAs.

No. of Correct Runs Ruspini2 No. of Trials 547 63 47 78 104 457 % of Trials 42.2 4.9 3.6 6.0 8.0 35.3 Towns2 No. of Trials 578 56 40 48 66 508 % of Trials 44.6 4.3 3.1 3.7 5.1 39.2 Iris2 No. of Trials 1296 0 0 0 0 0 % of Trials 100.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0

Table 4: Correctness of order-based GCAs.

Table 5 contains the time results for the group-number GCAs. The GCAs were able to find solutions to the Ruspini2 data set in the shortest time, with 95.3% of the trials finding at least one solution in under 120 seconds. The mean time to solution for Iris2 was higher than that for the other two data sets, and the mean time for the Towns2 data set was higher than that for Ruspini2.

The time results for the order-based GCAs can be found in Table 6. The results for the Iris2 data set were not included as no solutions were found. Notice that the recorded times for the Towns2 data set are less than those of Ruspini2. In both cases, the times are greater than those of the corresponding group-number trials.

We now present the results for each of the representation/data set combinations in greater detail. Tables 7 to 10 contain the correctness distributions for the various adaptions, and Figures 21 to 25 provide the corresponding boxplots of the time data. Tables 12 and 13 contain the final models for these results. Further detail on the models can be found in Appendix A. There are no models for the order-based GCAs on Iris2 since no solutions were found.

		Time to solution ¹		Percentage of trials ²				
	Minimum	Mean	Median	$\langle 20 \text{ sec}$	< 60 sec	$< 120 \text{ sec}$	$< 300 \text{ sec}$	
Ruspini2	1.98	41.3	$27.1\,$	40-1	76 1	953	100.0	
Towns2	2.50	77.8	583	16.6	45.2	69.6	89.2	
Iris2	641	115 0	89 5	52	29.5	514	85 O	

Table 5: Time to solution for group-number GCAs. "seconds CPU. Unat found one or more solution(s).

		Time to solution ¹		Percentage of trials ²				
	Minimum	Mean	Median		$\langle 20 \text{ sec} \rangle$ < 60 sec < 120 sec < 300 sec			
Ruspini2	50.2	183.0	184	0.5		57.3		
Towns2	20.5	124 0	914	18 0	32.5	55.4		

Table 6: Time to solution for order-based GCAs. ¹ seconds CPU. ² that found one or more solution(s).

Group-number and Ruspini2

For each of the distribution tables we are looking for adaptions that give an increased probability of finding the correct solution. In this particular case, the number of trials with less than four correct runs is small and we should concentrate on the last two columns in each table. The adaptions that show marked changes in proportion are population size (200 or 400 appears best), crossover (edgebased out-performs uniform and single-point), and mutation $(0.20 - 0.90)$ are more successful). The final model includes these terms as well as a few higher-order interaction terms.

ΡS			No. of Correct Runs		Tr				No. of Correct Runs	
	$\overline{2}$	3	$\overline{4}$	5			$\overline{2}$	3	$\overline{4}$	5
50	25.0	20.3	31.9	23.5	adjust		0.0	25.0	29.6	24.0
100	25.0	28.1	27.0	24.5	local		25.0	28.1	22.5	25.5
200	0.0	20.3	20.4	26.3	scale2.0		75.0	25.0	24.3	25.1
400	50.0	31.3	20.7	25.8	scale4.0		0.0	21.9	23.6	25.5
El			No. of Correct Runs		$_{\rm Cr}$				No. of Correct Runs	
	$\overline{2}$	3	4	5			$\overline{2}$	3	$\overline{4}$	5
$\overline{0}$	75.0	34.4	33.9	33.1	edge		50.0	18.8	21.1	36.6
$\bf{1}$	25.0	31.3	30.9	34.0	single		25.0	40.6	38.5	31.9
5% ¹	0.0	34.4	35.3	32.9	uniform		25.0	40.6	40.4	31.5
CP			No. of Correct Runs		МR				No. of Correct Runs	
	$\overline{2}$	3	$\overline{4}$	5		$\overline{2}$	3		$\overline{4}$	5
0.50	75.0	42.2	33.9	32.9	0.01	0.0	18.8		17.9	13.3
0.70	0.0	26.6	33.7	33.5	0.05	25.0	20.3		16.5	13.6
0.90	25.0	31.3	32.4	33.6	0.10	0.0	18.8		17.2	13.5
					0.20	0.0	15.6		13.1	14.5
					0.50	0.0	9.4		11.7	15.1
					0.70	0.0	10.9		13.5	14.6
					0.90	75.0	6.3		10.1	15.4

Table 7: Empirical distributions of the adaptions with group-number encoding for Ruspini2 (relative frequencies in percents). ¹ of population size.

All of the first-order factors are included in the time model. The larger population sizes took more time to find the correct clustering, plus there was a greater range of times; the adjusted fitness transform produced faster and more consistent times; increasing the elite constant decreased the time to find the solution; single-point crossover was clearly the fastest crossover, with edgebased being the slowest; there was not much difference in the average times between the crossover probabilities, but the 0.50 level appears to be slightly more consistent; mutation rates of 0.50 and 0.70 appear to give the fastest results.

Figure 21: Time results for group-number GCAs on Ruspini2.

PS			No. of Correct Runs				Tr					No. of Correct Runs			
	Ω	1	2	3	4	5			$\mathbf{0}$	1	$\overline{2}$	3	4		5
50	11.6	26.4	27.4	25.7	29.9	17.2	adjust		11.0	26.2	28.7	27.3	25.4		14.8
100	16.5	22.6	27.1	27.2	23.9	33.6	local		27.8	22.8	24.3	25.2	26.1		27.9
200	26.0	26.8	22.0	25.8	24.6	31.1	scale2.0		29.7	25.9	23.9	23.8	25.1		23.8
400	45.9	24.2	23.4	21.3	21.6	18.0	scale4.0		31.5	25.1	23.1	23.8	23.4		33.6
El			No. of Correct Runs				C_{Γ}	No. of Correct Runs							
	Ω	1	$\overline{2}$	3	4	5			Ω	1	$\overline{2}$	3	4		5
$\overline{0}$	64.2	45.2	32.3	24.5	17.3	13.1	edge		60.9	26.4	28.4	29.5	30.7		58.2
	23.9	26.0	33.8	35.6	42.9	42.6	single		11.6	33.0	36.3	39.0	36.8		25.4
5% ¹	11.9	28.8	33.9	39.8	39.8	44.3	uniform		27.5	40.6	35.3	31.5	32.5		16.4
CP			No. of Correct Runs				MR					No. of Correct Runs			
	0	$\mathbf 1$	2	3	4	5		$\mathbf 0$		2		3	4	5	
0.50	26.6	38.6	32.7	35.6	29.7	28.7	0.01	14.7	16.8	16.7		12.4	11.9	4.9	
0.70	35.5	32.2	32.9	33.8	33.0	33.6	0.05	8.9	16.6	17.8		13.9	10.4	9.0	
0.90	37.9	29.1	34.4	30.5	37.3	37.7	0.10	10.1	17.3	16.4		12.4	13.5	12.3	
							0.20	8.6	13.7	13.9		16.3	14.7	20.5	
							ο κο	191	19 Q	190		1 E. O	1C.2	140	

Table 8: Empirical distributions of the adaptions with group-number encoding for Towns2 (relative rrequencies in percents). Toi population size.

0.70 18.0 12.0 10.1 16.1 18.0 19.7 0.90 26.6 10.9 11.3 13.5 15.2 18.9

Group-number and Towns2

For the Towns2 data set, lower population sizes $(50 - 200)$ seem to increase the probability of correctness, although the proportion of trials with population size of 50 and five runs correct is relatively small. The treatment data is difficult to interpret, with each method represented in the same proportions in the trials with 0 and 5 correct. Elite selection clearly improved the chances of finding the solution in all five runs, with 64.2% of the GCAs with 0 correct runs lacking elite selection. Edge-based crossover also corresponds to a high proportion of trials with 5 correct runs. However, 60.9% of GCAs with 0 correct runs also have edge-based crossover. The crossover probability did not significantly influence the correctness. Finally, higher mutation rates seem to improve the probability of correctness.

Figure 22: Time results for group-number GCAs on Towns2.

The time data for the Towns2 data set follows the trends of the previous time data although the average times are higher and the deviance of the values is greater. The fitted models are similar, although the model for Towns2 contains more terms.

Group-number and Iris2

Once again, low population size appears to increase the probability of correctness, and this time the population size of 50 appears the best choice. The adjusted fitness transformation clearly increases the chances of nding the solution. Elite selection also represents a higher proportion of the trials with higher correctness. The most successful crossover is single-point, with edge-based crossover the least successful (75.4% of the GCAs with 0 correct runs used edge-based crossover). Lower crossover probabilities seem to slightly increase the probability of correctness, and again the mutation rate significantly influences correctness.

PS			No. of Correct Runs				$\operatorname{Tr}% \nolimits_{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}\equiv\operatorname{Tr}\nolimits_{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}\equiv\operatorname{Tr}\nolimits_{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}\equiv\operatorname{Tr}\nolimits_{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}\equiv\operatorname{Tr}\nolimits_{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}\equiv\operatorname{Tr}\nolimits_{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}\equiv\operatorname{Tr}\nolimits_{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}}\equiv\operatorname{Tr}\nolimits$			No. of Correct Runs					
	Ω	1	$\overline{2}$	3	4	5			$\mathbf 0$	1	$\overline{2}$	3	$\overline{4}$	5	
50	3.1	5.7	8.2	7.8	22.9	31.2	adjust		3.3	7.1	14.8	23.4	24.8	30.4	
100	5.5	24.3	24.6	32.8	34.4	28.2	local	34.0		30.0	29.5	26.6	26.8	22.7	
200	30.7	42.9	42.6	39.1	24.2	22.4	scale2.0	31.8		38.6	31.1	17.2	26.1	23.1	
400	60.7	27.1	24.6	20.3	18.5	18.2	scale4.0	30.9		24.3	24.6	32.8	22.3	23.8	
El			No. of Correct Runs				C_{Γ}			No. of Correct Runs					
	Ω			3		5						3			
		1	$\overline{2}$		$\overline{4}$				$\mathbf 0$	1	$\overline{2}$		4	5	
$\mathbf{0}$	53.9	57.1	57.4	45.3	41.4	26.8	edge		75.4	45.7	45.9	42.2	49.7	22.5	
1	27.6	25.7	29.5	29.7	28.7	35.3	single		0.4	5.7	11.5	14.1	15.9	43.4	
$5\%^{1}$	18.4	17.1	13.1	25.0	29.9	38.0	uniform		24.1	48.6	42.6	43.8	34.4	34.1	
CP		No.		of Correct Runs			MR			No. of Correct Runs					
	Ω	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	3	$\overline{4}$	5		$\mathbf 0$	1	$\overline{2}$	3	$\overline{4}$		5	
0.50	31.8	28.6	26.2	29.7	33.1	34.1	0.01	21.9	37.1	49.2	51.6	47.8		7.6	
0.70	33.1	30.0	31.1	40.6	35.0	33.2	0.05	12.1	15.7	11.5	14.1	10.8		15.0	
0.90	35.1	41.4	42.6	29.7	31.8	32.7	0.10	9.9	7.1	11.5	10.9	9.6		15.9	
							0.20	9.6	8.6	4.9	9.4	7.6		16.3	
							0.50	11.4	10.0	9.8	3.1	8.3		15.9	
							0.70	15.4	14.3	8.2	7.8	7.0		14.9	
							0.00	107	- 1	\sim	21	\circ \circ		1 4 4	

Table 9: Empirical distributions of the adaptions with group-number encoding for Iris2 (relative rrequencies in percents). Toi population size.

Figure 23: Time results for group-number GCAs on Iris2.

The time results for the Iris2 data set follow the same trends as the two previous models, although the averages and spreads of the values in this case are greater than those of both the previous models. The time models for all three data sets are similar.

Order-based and Ruspini2

Here the GCAs with smaller population sizes (50, 100) achieved a higher level of correctness. The scaling transformations were more likely to produce five correct runs than the adjusted transformation, although the trials with 0 correct were divided fairly evenly between the three. There was a slight advantage to using elite selection. Edge-based crossover clearly out-performed the other crossovers (75% of the trials with 5 correct runs used edge-based crossover). Further, none of the GCAs using PMX crossover found the solution more than three times in any trial, and 77.9% of the trials with 0 correct runs used PMX crossover.

Table 10: Empirical distributions of the adaptions with order-based encoding for Ruspini2 (relative rrequencies in percents). Toi population size.

Only six of the GCAs with PMX crossover found the solution in one or more runs, so these GCAs were removed before the time data was analysed. As with the group-number GCAs, larger populations resulted in a longer time to find the solution and increasing the mutation rate tended to decrease this time. However, the adjusted transformation was considerably slower than the scaling transformations, elite selection did not decrease the time to solution (in fact it increased it slightly), edge-based crossover found the solution faster than the simpler borrow operator, and increasing the crossover probability resulted in a marked decrease in the average time to find the solution. Finally, there was a slight time advantage to using uniform rather than gaussian mutation.

Figure 24: Time results for order-based GCAs on Ruspini2.

PS			No. of Correct Runs			
	$\overline{0}$	1	$\overline{2}$	3	4	5
50	27.7	33.9	37.5	33.3	47.0	37.6
100	31.1	37.5	30.0	47.9	37.9	33.7
200	41.2	28.6	32.5	18.8	15.2	28.7
El			No. of Correct Runs			
	$\overline{0}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	3	4	5
$\mathbf 0$	55.7	51.8	40.0	37.5	27.3	48.2
5% ¹	44.3	48.2	60.0	62.5	72.7	51.8
CP			No. of Correct Runs			
	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	3	4	5
0.50	36.3	46.4	42.5	14.6	22.7	30.9
0.70	33.0	32.1	32.5	43.8	25.8	33.9
0.90	30.6	21.4	25.0	41.7	51.5	35.2
MR			No. of Correct Runs			
	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	3	4	5
0.10	23.5	30.4	40.0	45.8	37.9	21.3
0.20	23.0	25.0	25.0	29.2	31.8	26.0
0.70	25.8	21.4	17.5	18.8	16.7	26.8
0.90	27.7	23.2	17.5	6.3	13.6	26.0

Table 11: Empirical distributions of the adaptions with order-based encoding for Towns2 (relative rrequencies in percents). Toi population size.

Order-based and Towns2

The distributions for Towns2 are similar to those for Ruspini2, but a higher proportion of GCAs with 5 runs correct used the adjusted fitness transformation. Further, the differences in performance due to crossover probability and mutation rate were not as great, and the dominance of the edge-based crossover was more pronounced (all of the GCAs with edge-based crossover found the solution in four or five runs).

Figure 25: Time results for order-based GCAs on Towns2.

The trends shown in the time results are similar to those of Ruspini2, but the averages for the Towns2 data set are lower and the deviations higher (except for crossover, which has lower averages and smaller deviances). The differences in times for the crossover probability and mutation rate as also not as great. The type of mutation did not significantly influence the time.

The Final Models

The terms which signicantly contributed to each model are listed in Tables 12 and 13. A complete listing of the coefficients and discussion of the fit of each model is contained in Appendix A. The group-number correctness models for Ruspini2 and Iris2, and the order-based correctness models for Ruspini2 and Towns2 contain mainly first and second order terms and fit the data well. The correctness model for the group-number GCAs on Towns2 does not fit as well, but is the best third order model for the data. The time models contain a larger number of higher order terms, with the group-number models for Ruspini2 and Iris3 providing a good fit. The remaining time models do not fit as well.

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Table 12: Factors included in the correctness and time models for the group-number encoding GAs. $* =$ significant at the 5% level; ** $=$ significant at the 1% level; ns $=$ not significant at the 5% level but still included in the model to maintain hierarchical structure; no symbol indicates the factor was not included in the model; : signifies an interaction term.

cont.				
	Ruspini2		Towns2	
Factor	Correctness	Time	Correctness	Time
PS:Tr:MR		$**$		**
PS: El: Cr				**
PS:El:Mu		\ast		
PS:El:MR				**
PS:Cr:CP	$**$			**
PS:Cr:MR		**		**
PS:CP:Mu		\ast		
PS:CP:MR		$***$		
PS:Mu:MR		\ast		
Tr: El: CP		$***$		
Tr:El:Mu		\ast		
Tr: EI: MR		$***$		
Tr:Cr:CP		**		
Tr:Cr:MR				\ast
Tr : CP : Mu		\ast		
Tr CP MR		$***$		**
El:Cr:MR		$**$		
El:CP:Mu		$***$		
Cr : CP : MR		\ast		
Cr:Mu:MR		$***$		

Table 13: Factors included in the correctness and time models for the order-based GAs. $* =$ significant at the 5% level; $** =$ significant at the 1% level; ns = not significant at the 5% level but still included in the model to maintain hierarchical structure; no symbol indicates the factor was not included in the model; : signifies an interaction term. Factors missing from the table are not in either model.

The top five GCAs for each representation/data set combination are presented in Tables 14 to 18. In each case the correctness model was used to predict the adaptions that would give the highest probability of finding the correct clustering. These adaptions were then ranked according to the predictions of the appropriate time model.

PS	Tr.	F.I	$C_{\rm T}$	CP	MR.	Correctness	Time
200	scaled 4.0	5%	edge-based 0.50 0.50			1.000	42.954
200	scaled 4.0	5%	$edge-based$ 0.70		0.50	1.000	50.187
200	scaled 4.0	5%	$edge-based$ 0.90		0.50	1.000	57.205
200	scaled 4.0	$\mathbf{1}$	$edge-based$ 0.50		0.50	1.000	61.510
200	scaled 4.0	$\mathbf{0}$	$edge-based$ 0.50		0.50	1.000	68.034

Table 14: Top five predicted adaption combinations for group-number GCAs on Ruspini2.

ΡS	Tт	El	Cr.	CP	MR.	Correctness	Time
100	scaled 2.0		$edge-based$ 0.70		0.50	0.826	109.291
50	scaled 2.0		$single-point \quad 0.50$		0.70	0.819	8.615
100	scaled 2.0		$single-point$ 0.70		0.90	0.818	37.170
50	scaled 2.0		single-point	0.90	0.70	0.806	9.761
100	scaled 2.0		$edge-based$ 0.70		0.70	0.804	150.931

Table 15: Top five predicted adaption combinations for group-number GCAs on Towns2.

-PS	Ŧг	F.I	$C_{\rm T}$	CP	MR.	Correctness	Time
50	adjusted	5%	single-point	0.90	0.70	1.000	6.678
50	adjusted	θ	single-point	0.90	0.70	1.000	7.176
50	adjusted	5%	single-point	0.70	0.70	1.000	7.432
50	adjusted	1	single-point	0.70	0.70	1.000	7.635
50	adjusted	5%	single-point	0.50	0.90	1.000	7.773

Table 16: Top five predicted adaption combinations for group-number GCAs on Iris2.

PS.	$\rm Tr$	El	$C_{\rm F}$	CP	Mп	MR.	Correctness	Time
50	scaled 2.0	$\vert 0 \vert$	edge-based 0.90 uniform			0.70	0.999983	57.317
50	scaled 2.0	Ω	$edge-based$ 0.90		gaussian 0.70		0.999983	68.455
50	scaled 2.0	5%	edge-based 0.90 uniform			0.70	0.999981	57.4119
50	scaled 2.0	5%	$edge-based$ 0.90		gaussian	0.70	0.999981	66.6432
-50	scaled 2.0	\Box 0	$edge-based$ 0.90		gaussian 0.70		0.999975	59.171

Table 17: Top five predicted adaption combinations for order-based GCAs on Ruspini2.

PS.	Tг	El	$C_{\rm F}$	CP.	Mu	MR.	Correctness	Time
50	scaled 4.0	θ	$edge-based$ 0.90 gaussian 0.10				1.000	23.888
50	scaled 4.0	0	$edge-based$ 0.90		uniform 0.10		1.000	24.814
50	scaled 4.0	5%	$edge-based$ 0.90		gaussian	0.10	1.000	27.812
50	scaled 4.0	5%.	edge-based 0.90		uniform	-0.10	1.000	28.892
50	scaled 4.0	5%	edge-based 0.90 gaussian 0.20				1.000	30.190

Table 18: Top five predicted adaption combinations for order-based GCAs on Towns2.

2.3.3 Performance of Selected Adaptions

Tables 19 and 20 contain summaries of the performance of the top predictions for each model on the generated and real data sets. For the purposes of this experiment, the correct clustering for each of the real data sets was assumed to be the clustering with the minimum objective function value (thus the correct clustering for the Iris data set was not its real clustering, since the real clustering includes overlapping clusters).

The group-number results on both the real and generated Ruspini data match the predictions well, as do the correctness results for the Iris data. However, the group-number GCA was unable to consistently find the correct clustering for the German Towns data set despite good results in the generated data set. Although the mean time to solution for the GCAs on the real and generated Iris data was signicantly higher than the predicted value, it was within an order of magnitude in each case.

Table 19: Performance of the top group-number GCAs on generated and real data sets. Corr. is the number of correct runs out of 40. For the real data sets the correct clustering was assumed to correspond to the minimum objective function value. Time is the average time to solution in seconds CPU for the correct runs, the standard deviations are included in brackets. $* =$ significantly different from predicted value at 1% level.

The the correctness of the order-based GCA on the real Ruspini data matched that on the generated data and the prediction, although the time to find the solution was significantly higher in both cases. The order-based GCA for the German Towns data set, matched the prediction on the generated data set but was unable to find a single solution for the real data.

Table 20: Performance of the top order-based GCAs on generated and real data sets. Corr. is the number of correct runs out of 40. For the real data sets the correct clustering was assumed to correspond to the minimum objective function value. Time is the average time to solution in seconds CPU for the correct runs, the standard deviations are included in brackets. $* =$ significantly different from predicted value at 1% level.

Figure 26 shows the evolution of a successful group-number GCA's population over 200 generations for the Ruspini data set. The initial population (Generation 0) has high raw fitness (or objective function) values, which indicate that these clusterings do not suit the Ruspini data. As the number of generations increases, the raw fitness of clusterings within the population decreases, as the GCA is biased towards the survival of genetic material contained within the clusterings with low objective function values. For this data set, the minimum objective function value is 10.088 which corresponds to the correct clustering for the data set. This GCA found the correct clustering

Figure 26: Fitness distribution of 200 Generations¹ of a successful group-number GCA on Ruspini. $\text{PS} = 200, \text{ IF} = \text{scaled } 4.0, \text{ EI} = 9\%, \text{UF} = \text{edge-based}, \text{UF} = 0.50, \text{MH} = 0.50.$ -sampled every 20 generations.

 Γ igure 21: Fitness distribution of 200 Generations of a unsuccessful group-number GCA on R uspini. P $S = 50$, If \equiv local, El $\equiv 0$, Cr \equiv single-point, CP \equiv 0.50, MR \equiv 0.05. 1 sampled every 20 generations.

in the 140th generation, and this clustering made up 39% of the final population.

Figure 27 shows the evolution of an unsuccessful GCA for the Ruspini data. Although the fitness of the population is decreasing over the generations, the evolution is not fast enough for the CGA to find the correct clustering within the 200 generations.

2.4 Discussion

The overall correctness results for the generated data (Tables 3 and 4) raise some interesting questions $-\psi$ why did the group-number GCAs perform so well on Ruspini2 and Iris2, yet poorly on Towns2? and why did the order-based GCAs fail to find a single solution for Iris2? The answer to the first question appears to be the high value of k for the Towns2 data set; whereas the large number of objects in the Iris2 data set may provide the answer for the second question.

A group-number representation for a data set with a large number of clusters has a high level of redundancy (each clustering can be represented by $k!$ different chromosomes). This means that the representation space has many more optima than the solution space. This divides the focus of the population, and crosses between chromosomes near differing optima tend to be unproductive and wasteful. Overall, redundancy slows down the convergence and reduces the diversity of the population.

Since edge-based crossover is context sensitive (and therefore not affected by redundancy) we expect the GCAs with this crossover to out-perform the other GCAs on this data set. In fact, a high proportion of the trials with 5 correct runs did use edge-based crossover. However, there were also a large number of edge-based GCAs that did not find a single solution. This is due to the high complexity of the edge-based operator, $O(k^*)$, combined with large population sizes which greatly increases the time required to produce a new generation. Five processor minutes was simply not enough time for these GCAs to find the solution.

The poor performance of the order-based GCAs on Iris2 can be explained by the large number of objects in the data set, which affects the speed of the local search (due to its complexity of $O(n^2\kappa)$) and the size of the representation space (see Table 21). This meant that the time fimit of 300 seconds restricted the GCA to only a few generations, limiting the GCAs' search to a very small portion of a very large representation space.

		Size of Space						
Data Set	n	k Solution	Group-number $\operatorname{Rep.}^1$	Order-based Rep. ²				
Ruspini2	75	$4 + 6 \times 10^{43}$	1×10^{45}	7×10^{112}				
Towns2	59	1×10^{46}	7×10^{49}	2×10^{83}				
Iris2	150	6×10^{70}	3×10^{71}	6×10^{266}				

Table 21: Size of the representation space for generated data sets. ¹ Size of group-number representation space is k^{\ast} . "Size of order-based representation space is effectively $\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)!$ (the local heuristic searches through $\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$ clusterings for each chromosome, and there are n ! possible chromosomes).

When considering the results of the adaptions tests, it is important to remember that these tests were limited to 300 seconds. Thus the correctness models that have been presented feature adaptions that increase the probability of finding the correct clustering in under five minutes.

The adaption tests for the data sets resulted in a different model for each. This suggests that the type of data set should be an important consideration when selecting or designing a suitable GCA.

Population Size

Increasing the population size increases the size of the GCA's gene pool which is advantageous for group-number GCAs that are searching for clusterings with high k (for Ruspini and Iris2) GCAs with the smallest population size were not as successful at finding the correct solution as the GCAs with larger populations). The local search used for order-based encoding means that a relatively small population can span a considerable portion of the representation space (the results do not suggest that increasing the population size will improve performance). However, increasing the population size means that each reproductive phase takes longer and therefore less generations occur in the same time. This is important because it is the

reproductive phase that evolves the population. It will also take longer to converge a larger pool of genes.

Fitness transformations can allow certain chromosomes to dominate the population by giving them high relative fitness values. For smaller populations and larger solution spaces scaling is important as it increases the probability that the genes of fitter solutions remain in the population. However, too high a level of scaling can quickly converge the population to sub-optimal solutions. The results suggest that linear scaling (with C_{Multi} of 2.0 or 4.0) is appropriate for data sets used in the experiments. Some time advantage may be gained by using the adjusted transformation on data sets with small k .

Elite selection ensures that good genes are not lost from the population. However, elite selection also decreases the size of the population that is actively searching for new solutions. The results suggest that elite selection is useful for decreasing the time taken to find the solution for group-number GCAs, and it does appear to improve the correctness for the larger data sets. However performance of the order-based GCAs was worse with elite selection, possibly because it reduced the size of the active population.

crossover Type

The crossover type had a large influence on the correctness and time results for both the group-number and order-based GCAs. Single-point crossover was clearly sufficient for the data set with low k ; this was also the fastest crossover method for the group-number GCAs. However, group-number GCAs with the slower edge-based crossover found more correct solutions on Ruspini2 and Towns2. Perhaps a context sensitive crossover is more important for data sets with higher k. With the order-based GCAs, the best performing crossover was edge-based which found the solution in less generations than borrow or PMX. Due to the time complexity of the local search, and consequently the reduced number of generations, it was important that the crossover operator combined genetic material effectively during reproduction.

Crossover Probability

The crossover probability had little effect on the performance of the group-number GCAs, although increasing the value tended to reduce the time to find the solution. The order-based GCAs also performed well with high crossover probabilities.

\blacksquare . The transferred Type \blacksquare

There was only a small time difference between the two mutation types used for the orderbased GCAs. There does not seem to be any reason to favour one operator over the other.

\cdots

The largest affect of changing the mutation rate is seen in the time to solution. However, a certain level is necessary to introduce new genetic material to the population (note the generally poor performance of all GCAs with very low mutation). Too high a mutation rate

will also degrade the performance of a GCA by reducing the GCA's evolution to a random search.

The models produced from the results of adaption experiments all contain interaction terms, which means the combination of some adaptions will be more effective than others. Hence it is necessary to select a total set of adaptions carefully.

There appears to be advantages to using both clustering representations. Group-number encoding when combined with single-point crossover is a fast method of finding clusterings for data sets with low k. This method also seems to be able to cope with relatively large data sets, although size of the data sets used in these experiments was limited. The performance of the group-number GCAs on data sets with high k values was poorer, with many CGAs returning sub-optimal minima.

The performance of the order-based GCAs with edge-based crossover on the first two generated data sets was excellent. The time to find the solution for Ruspini2 was comparable with the groupnumber GCAs, whereas the time to find the solution for Towns2 was considerably less. However, this method was unable to find a single solution for the data set with the most objects. As a result of the complexity of the local search, this method cannot cope with large data sets, but is suitable for small data sets with large values of k .

The comparison of GCA performance on the generated and real data sets raises some important For both the group-number and order-based GCAs, the results on the Ruspini data points. sets matched the predictions very well (the fit of the time model for the order-based GCA was questionable, so we do not expect the time results to match too well). The correctness results for the other GCAs on the generated data sets were close to the predicted values (the group-number correctness model for Towns2 also had questionable fit), and the group-number correctness for the Iris data was equal to the predicted value. However, both the group-number and the order-based GCAs performed poorly on the German Towns data set.

The fact that the best adaptions for each data set were clearly different suggests that GAs should be modied in order to attain optimal performance for a particular data set. However, the results for the generated and real data sets were similar for Ruspini and Iris, indicating that it may be possible to adapt GAs to suit a class of data sets (with approximately the same number of objects, clusters, and distribution). The contrasting performance of the GCAs on the German Towns data set may be a result of the low similarity between the distribution of the generated and real objects. The generated data set is clearly separable into seven clusters, whereas the towns in the real data set do not fall into distinct clusters. For the real data this means there will be a large number of clusterings with objective function values close to the optimum value. Clearly, such a data set is harder for a GCA to cluster, and the chances of nding a local minima rather than the optimal solution are greatly increased. Increasing the rate of mutation in the early generations (to increase the available genetic material during the initial stages), may improve performance in this case.

Although the results presented in this chapter suggest that differing data sets require different adaptions for optimal performance (correctness and speed), this does not mean that a particular set of adaptions will not find the correct solution to a large number of data sets if given enough time. Indeed, it would seem that a number of adaptions (elite constant, fitness transformation, crossover probability, and mutation rate) have a large effect on the time taken to find the optimal solution, and that for simpler data sets these adaptions can be used to speed up the evolution of the GCA without sacrificing correctness. So although it seems important to invest some time in adapting the GA to suit the data set, it may not be necessary to find the optimal adaptions to find correct clusterings within a reasonable time.

Finally, the adaptions implemented in this experiment are only a sample of the numerous possible adaptions. Thus the performance of GCAs on these and other data sets may be improved by the investigation of further adaptions.

Chapter 3

Genetic versus Traditional Clustering Algorithms

In the last chapter we described how GAs can be adapted for the problem of clustering, and compared the effectiveness of some selected adaptions. In this chapter we compare these adapted GAs with three hierarchical clustering methods (SLINK, average-linkage, and Ward's method) and four optimisation clustering methods (k-means, iterated nearest neighbour, iterated hillclimber, and simulated annealing) in terms of correctness, consistency, and speed.

3.1 3.1 Clustering Algorithms

Traditional clustering methods were broadly described in Chapter 1. In this section we describe those algorithms selected for this experiment in further detail.

SLINK

Hierarchical clustering techniques use a series of successive fusions or divisions to construct a hierarchy of clusterings. The single-linkage method [20] starts with each object in its own cluster. Clusters are then merged according to the distance between their nearest members until only one cluster remains.

A simple implementation of the single-linkage algorithm involves calculating and storing the \ldots n distance matrix, $D = \lceil a_i \rceil$ where $a_i \rceil$ is the Euclidean distance between the closest objects in Cluster i and Cluster j . At each stage the clusters with the minimum distance are merged, and the distance matrix is updated by: (i) deleting the rows and columns corresponding to the merged clusters; and (ii) adding a row and column giving distances between the new cluster and the remaining clusters.

SLINK is an optimally efficient algorithm for the single-linkage clustering method developed by Sibson [57] (Figure 28). Instead of storing a matrix of distances that is referred to and updated numerous times during the clustering process, the SLINK algorithm only reads (or calculates) each row of the initial distance matrix once.

1. Set
$$
\Pi(n + 1)
$$
 to $n + 1$, $\Lambda(n + 1)$ to ∞ \n2. Set $M(i)$ to $d(i, n + 1)$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$ \n3. For i increasing from 1 to n if $\Lambda(i) \geq M(i)$ set $M(\Pi(i))$ to $\min \{M(\Pi(i)), \Lambda(i)\}$ set $\Lambda(i)$ to $M(i)$ set $\Pi(i)$ to $n + 1$ if $\Lambda(i) < M(i)$ set $M(\Pi(i))$ to $\min \{M(\Pi(i)), M(i)\}$ \n4. For i increasing from 1 to n if $\Lambda(i) \geq \Lambda(\Pi(i))$ set $\Pi(i)$ to $n + 1$

Figure 28: The SLINK algorithm (from [57]).

The SLINK algorithm manipulates three arrays of size n. The first, Λ , is used to store the levels at which the clusters are merged $-\lambda(i)$ is the lowest level at which i is no longer the last object in its cluster. The second array, Π , stores the merging sequence $-\pi(i)$ is the last object in the cluster which object i then joins. The final array, M, is used for the distance values $(d(i, j)$ is the Euclidean distance between objects i and j . The implemented algorithm starts by calculating a row of the lower triangular distance matrix and placing the values in M. These values are compared against those in Λ , and the values in Λ and Π are adjusted accordingly. The values of Λ are then compared against each other and any necessary adjustments made. This is repeated for each row of the distance matrix. A final step involves decoding the resulting clustering from Λ and Π .

Average-linkage

The average-linkage method [58] merges the clusters with the minimum average distance between all pairs of objects where one member of a pair belongs to each cluster. Hence the distance between two clusters, A and B, was calculated as

$$
\frac{1}{n_A n_B} \sum_{i=1}^{n_A} \sum_{j=1}^{n_B} d(X_{Ai}, X_{Bj}),
$$

where n_A , n_B are the number of objects in clusters A and B, respectively; and $d(X_{Ai}, X_{Bj})$ is the Euclidean distance between the *i*th object in A and the *j*th object in B. If there were more than one pair of clusters with the minimum distance between them, the pair to be merged was randomly selected from those with the minimum distance.

Since the distance measure was based on the Euclidean distance between pairs of objects, two distance matrices were stored. The first contained the Euclidean distances between all pairs of objects, and was used to calculate the distances between clusters. The second matrix stored the distance between the existing clusters (initially this is the same as the first matrix), and was updated during the clustering process. Only the lower triangular portion of the matrices were stored since they were both symmetric.

The clustering was stored as an array of n clusters, where each cluster was represented by a

list of object numbers and the number of objects stored in this list. An array of cluster numbers was used as an index for the cluster array $-$ the number of values stored in this array varied from n to 1 during the clustering process. When two clusters, say A and B were selected for merging, the data structure was updated as follows:

- 1. The objects in B were added to A 's object list. The number of objects in A was incremented by the number of objects in B.
- 2. B was removed from the list of cluster numbers.
- 3. The distance matrix was updated by removing the rows and columns for B and recalculating those for A (now AB).

Ward's Method

The implementation of Ward's method was similar to that of average-linkage, but in this case the distance between two clusters was calculated as

$$
\frac{2 n_A n_B}{n_A + n_B} d^2(\overline{X}_A, \overline{X}_B),
$$

where n_A , n_B are the number of objects in clusters A and B, respectively; and \overline{X}_A and \overline{X}_B are the centroids of the two clusters. This distance is a simplication of Ward's sum of squared distances statistic [39].

Since the distance between two clusters was based on the Euclidean distance between their centroids, a single distance matrix was sufficient. As with the average-linkage implementation, the clustering was stored as an array of clusters. However, each cluster was represented by its centroid (stored as a p-dimensional vector) and its number of objects.

A final difference was the method of updating the clustering structure during merging (Step 1 , from above). For Ward's method, the centroid of Cluster A was replaced by the centroid of Cluster AB ,

$$
\overline{X}_{AB} = \frac{n_A \overline{X}_A + n_B \overline{X}_B}{n_A + n_B}
$$

The number of objects in A was then incremented by the number of objects in B . The remaining updating steps were the same as those for average-linkage.

k-means

Optimisation clustering techniques use a search method to find a clustering that optimises a pre-defined objective function. These techniques start with an initial clustering (containing the correct number of groups), and then reassign objects according to the objective function until some terminating criterion is met.

The objective function used for the optimisation clustering methods in this experiment was the sum of the squared Euclidean distance between objects and their cluster centroids. This criterion is equivalent to Trace (W) , and is minimised over the representation space (Section 1.1.3). Using the same objective function for the optimisation algorithms means we are comparing the effectiveness of the search methods when we compare these algorithms. Further, this criterion is similar to the distance measures used in the above hierarchical methods.

The k-means algorithm was implemented as described by Hartigan [29]. The algorithm starts by generating a random clustering, which is the starting point for a local search that takes each object in sequence and moves it to the cluster that reduces the objective function value the most. If the objective function value is not reduced, the object remains in its current cluster; the algorithm terminates when the objective function value cannot be reduced by any move.

The current clustering for this algorithm was stored in an array using the group-number representation described in Section 2.1.1. The change in objective function value associated with transferring Object i from its cluster, A , to Cluster B , was calculated as

$$
\frac{n_B d^2(X_i, \overline{X}_B)}{n_B + 1} - \frac{n_A d^2(X_i, \overline{X}_A)}{n_A - 1},
$$

where n_A , n_B are the number of objects in clusters A and B , and $a^-(\Lambda_i, \Lambda_j)$ is the squared Euclidean distance between Object i and the centroid of Cluster j [29]. Here, a negative value indicates a reduction in the objective function value. An array of clusters was used to store the centroid of, and the number of objects in, each cluster — the same structure as used in the implementation of Ward's method. However, since the current clustering always has k clusters, there were only k clusters in the data structure, and there was no need to keep track of cluster numbers.

Moving an object simply required changing the object's group-number in the current clustering, and updating the two relevant clusters — the cluster the object was moving from, and the cluster it was moving to.

Iterated Nearest Neighbour

The iterated nearest neighbour algorithm is adapted from the greedy permutation representation discussed in Section 2.1.1. GAs with this representation tend to find their optimal solution in the initial generation [36], which suggests that an iterated version of this local search would make an appropriate clustering algorithm.

The algorithm starts by generating a random permutation of the objects. The first k objects become seed points and each is assigned to a separate cluster. The remaining objects are, in the order they occur in the permutation, added to the cluster with the closest centroid (measured as the squared Euclidean distance between the object and the cluster centroid). These steps are repeated a number of times (determined by the user) and the clustering with the minimum objective function value is returned as the solution.

In general, if the seed points correspond to the clusters in the data set (that is, there is a seed point in each cluster), and the clusters are well separated, this algorithm will find the clustering that corresponds to the minimum sum of squared Euclidean distance between objects and their cluster centres. For more complicated data sets, only seed points close to the cluster centroids will lead to the optimal clustering. In either case, the probability of finding the solution is increased by increasing the number of iterations, as this improves the chances of nding good seed points.

The data structure for this implementation was the same as that for k-means. However, a second array was necessary to store the best clustering found during the iterations. Adding an object to a cluster involved setting the object's group-number in the clustering, updating the cluster's centroid, and incrementing the number of objects in the cluster.

Iterated Hillclimber

The hill-climbing or steepest descent algorithm starts from a random clustering and searches a local neighbourhood for the clustering which reduces the objective function value the most. If such a clustering is found, it becomes the current clustering and the algorithm then searches the neighbourhood of this clustering; otherwise the algorithm terminates. The success or failure of this algorithm is determined by the starting string, and the chances of finding the global optimum for a problem with many local optima are slim. An iterated version of the hill-climbing algorithm can be found in [48]. This simply repeats the normal hill-climbing algorithm a set number of times and saves the clustering with the minimum objective function value.

For this experiment, the local neighbourhood of a given clustering was considered to include the clusterings in which all the objects were in the same groups, except for a single object whose group-number differed by 1. For example, given a clustering with Object 1 in Cluster 4, we can create two neighbours by moving Object 1 to Cluster 3 and Cluster 5 respectively. This denition means that a clustering in a data set with n objects has 2° neighbours.

The current clustering for the hillclimbing algorithm was stored using group-number representation, and the best clustering for the iterations was saved in a similar manner. The cluster centroids were re-calculated during each evaluation of a clustering.

Simulated Annealing

Simulated annealing [40] is a method of function optimisation that is modelled on the annealing process used in glass blowing and metallurgy. The annealing process involves heating the glass or metal to a temperature just below its melting point, and then allowing it to cool slowly. During the cooling stage the molecules in the material re-align themselves and crystalise, which reduces the internal stresses resulting from working the material.

In simulated annealing, the search is controlled by a parameter called "temperature", which occasionally allows the search to move uphill (and thus escape local optima). Moves that decrease the objective function value are always accepted; while moves that increase this value are accepted with a probability based on the temperature, and the change in objective function value. The temperature value $-$ initially high $-$ is lowered in stages to mimic the annealing process, and the probability of accepting an uphill move decreases with decreasing temperature.

Figure 29 contains an outline of the implemented simulated annealing algorithm. This is similar to the algorithm described in [48]; a more complex implementation for the clustering problem can be found in [41].

The algorithm contains two loops. The outer loop controls the temperature, which starts at T_0 and is successively decreased by a (cooling) factor of T_δ . The algorithm terminates when the temperature falls below the final temperature, T_F .

The inner loop, which is repeated T_{steps} times for this implementation, randomly generates a new clusterings by selecting a new group for an object. The new clustering is accepted as the

```
Initialise the temperature T to T0
Select a current clustering Cc at random and calculate its objective function value f (Cc )
repeatfor the team of th
                       Select a new clustering Cn by randomly selecting a new group for an object
                       \blacksquare If \blacksquare is the function of \blacksquareC_n becomes the current clustering C_celseC_n becomes the current clustering C_c with probability \exp(\frac{f(\nabla c)}{T})- - - -where \mathbf{r} is the \mathbf{r}
```
Figure 29: Clustering with simulated annealing.

current clustering: (1) if its objective function value is lower than that of the current clustering; or (2) with a probability based on the temperature, and the difference in the objective function values between the new and current clusterings.

The current and new clusterings were stored using group-number representation, and the cluster centroids were re-calculated for each clustering.

Genetic Clustering

The GCAs used for this experiment have two important differences to those developed in the previous chapter. Firstly, exponential mutation has been added to the GCAs for the Ruspini and German Towns data sets. The mutation rate is high for the initial generations and then decays exponentially with increasing generations. This increases the amount of new genetic material introduced in the early generations and reduces the chances of mutation destroying good solutions in later generations.

Exponential mutation is described by two mutation rates $-$ the initial and final rate. Each mutation rate is expressed as the probability of mutating a chromosome, that is mutating a single gene on that chromosome. The mutation rate for a given generation, φ_{n} , is calculated as

$$
MR_{gen} = MR_F \times \exp\left[\ln\left(\frac{MR_0}{MR_F}\right)\left(1 - \frac{gen}{MG}\right)\right]
$$

where MR_0 and MR_F are the initial and final mutation rates, respectively; and MG is the maximum number of generations.

Secondly, the GCAs here are run for a set number of generations rather than for a set time interval as in the previous chapter. The number of generations to use in each case was calculated from the performance of the GCAs on the real data sets in the last chapter (the generation that the correct solution was found was recorded, and the average and standard deviation of these values were used to calculate a 95% condence interval that was used as a guide for selecting an appropriate number of generations).

As in the previous chapter, each GCA is described by a list of parameters: PS (population size), MG (maximum number of generations), Tr (scaling transformation), El (elite constant), Cr (crossover type), CP (crossover probability), and MR (mutation rate(s)).

3.2 Methodology

All of the described algorithms were implemented by the author. The algorithms were coded in C and compiled using gcc with the optimisation flag set to level 3. The clustering algorithms were compared on the three data sets introduced in the previous chapter - Ruspini, German Towns, and Iris (see Section 2.2.1). Each data set was clustered 40 times by each algorithm. The following information was collected: (i) the number of runs that found the correct solution, (ii) the average and standard deviation of the correctness over the 40 runs, (iii) the consistency of the 40 solutions, and (iv) the average and standard deviation of the time taken by the algorithm.

The correctness was measured as the maximum percentage of objects that were clustered in the same groups as the correct clustering (there are k! ways that the groups can be matched since the group-numbers do not necessarily correspond). For example, if the correct clustering was $\{\{X_1, X_3, X_6\}, \{X_2, X_4, X_5\}\}\)$, the clustering $\{\{X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5\}, \{X_1, X_6\}\}\)$ has a correctness of 83.3% (five out of six objects). This matches the first group in the correct clustering with the second group in the other clustering - the alternate matching has only one object correctly clustered.

A run was considered to be correct only if there was a perfect match between the clustering found by the algorithm and the correct clustering (that is, a correctness of 100.0%). For this experiment the correct clustering for each of the data sets was assumed to be the clustering that corresponded to the minimum sum of squared distances between the objects and their cluster centres. Consistency was calculated as the maximum percentage of objects that were clustered in the same clusters for all 40 runs (groups were matched in a similar manner to the correctness calculations). The time taken by the algorithm was measured in seconds CPU (resolution of the clock was 16.667 milliseconds), and did not include the time taken to store the objects' attribute values. In order to remain consistent with the previous chapter, the objects' attribute values were standardised so that each attribute had a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. The tests were conducted on a single Sparc Ultra; the load average during testing was approximately 0.9.

The number of iterations for both the iterated nearest neighbour and iterated hillclimber algorithm were varied until the performance of these algorithms exceeded that of the GCA (either in terms of correctness, or time). The temperature parameters for the simulated annealing algorithm were adapted in a similar manner.

The mean correctness and time of the algorithms was compared against that of the GCA using one-sided z tests (null hypothesis of equal mean values), which were appropriate due to the large number of runs.

3.3 Results

Tables 22 to 24 contain the clustering results for the three data sets. All of the clustering algorithms, except for k-means, found the correct solution for the Ruspini data set in every run. SLINK was the fastest of the algorithms that found the correct clustering in all runs. The time for the iterated hillclimber was closest to that of the GCA, but all of the comparison algorithms were significantly faster than the GCA.

Algorithm	Correctness			Consistency	Time	
	Runs	%	std dev.	%	sec. CPU	std dev.
SLINK	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.004 ^t	0.007
average linkage	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.016^{\dagger}	0.006
Ward's method	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.022^{\dagger}	0.008
k-means	35	95.8	11.2	66.7	0.002^{\dagger}	0.005
iterated nearest neighbour ¹	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.054 ^t	0.007
iterated hillclimber ¹	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	46.808^{\dagger}	1.098
simulated annealing ²	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	3.009^{\dagger}	0.022
GCA^3	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	51.707	1.996

Table 22: Comparison of K-clustering algorithms on Ruspini. The Reations. $u_0 = 10.0, L_{steps} = 1$ $200, T_{\delta} = 0.9$, and $T_F = 0.000001$. $TS = 200$, $MG = 200$, $T = 0.01$ and $T = 10$, $CT = 0$ edge-based, \cup r \equiv 0.50, m κ \equiv 0.90 = 0.10. <code>'significantly</code> faster than the GCA at 170 level.

Algorithm		Correctness		Consistency	Time	
	Runs	%	std dev.	%	sec. CPU	std dev.
SLINK	0	57.6	0.0	100.0	0.001 [†]	0.004
average linkage	0	79.7	0.0	100.0	0.008 [†]	0.008
Ward's method	0	$94.9*$	0.0	100.0	0.010^{\dagger}	0.008
k-means	9	85.5	9.9	44.1	0.004^{\dagger}	0.007
iterated nearest neighbour ¹	31	$98.6*$	4.0	79.7	4.870 ^t	0.025
iterated hillclimber ²	0	59.4	6.5	5.1	271.910^{\dagger}	4.767
simulated annealing ³	15	90.1	7.8	76.3	249.229	2.505
GCA ⁴	14	86.4	12.2	45.8	284.695	10.269

Table 25: Comparison of K-clustering algorithms on German Towns. Trubbo Refations. Trubb The rations. $I_0 = 10.0$, $I_{steps} = 200$, $I_{\delta} = 0.999$, and $I_F = 0.00001$. $TS = 100$, $M_{\rm O} = 1500$, Tr $=$ scaled 2.0, El $=$ 1, Cr $=$ edge-based, Cr $=$ 0.10, MR $=$ 0.90 $=$ 0.10. Significantly more correct than the GCA at 1% level. 'significantly faster than the GCA at 1% level.

Algorithm	Corrections			Consistency	Time	
	Runs	%	std dev.	%	sec. CPU	std dev.
SLINK	0	68.0	0.0	100.0	0.014 ^t	0.006
average linkage		68.0	0.0	100.0	0.108^{\dagger}	0.008
Ward's method	0	80.0	0.0	100.0	0.165^{\dagger}	0.010
k-means	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.004^{\dagger}	0.007
iterated nearest neighbour ¹	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	1.415^{\dagger}	0.022
iterated hillclimber ²	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	71.600	2.824
simulated annealing ³	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	2.735^{\dagger}	0.015
GCA ⁴	40	100.0	0.0	100.0	38.633	2.515

Table 24: Comparison of K-clustering algorithms on Iris. The Relations. The Relations. $1_{0} = 1.0, I_{steps} = 100, I_{\delta} = 0.9, \text{ and } I_{F} = 0.00001.$ $\Gamma S = 50, \text{ MG} = 1000, \text{ If } I = \text{adjusted},$ $E1 = 3$, Cr = single-point, Cr = 0.90, MK = 0.70. 'significantly faster than the GCA at 1% level.

None of the hierarchical methods found the correct clustering for German Towns. However, the mean correctness of Ward's method was signicantly higher than that of the GCA, and all of the hierarchical methods were signicantly faster. Only two algorithms, iterated nearest neighbour and simulated annealing, found the solution for the German Towns data set more times than the GCA. Both of these algorithms were signicantly faster than the GCA, and iterated nearest neighbour was also signicantly more correct.

None of the hierarchical methods found correct solution for the Iris data set, but all of the optimisation methods, including the GCA, found the clustering with the minimum objective function value on every run. All of the algorithms, except for the iterated hillclimber, were signicantly faster than the GCA.

3.4 **Discussion**

All clustering methods search a restricted subset of the solution space. Hierarchical methods tend to search a smaller subset than the optimisation methods. Thus the search is faster and the results are more consistent, though the constraints of the hierarchical techniques sometimes prevent the algorithms from finding the optimal solution (for example, the hierarchical methods were unable to find the correct clustering for either the German Towns or Iris data sets).

The performance of optimisation methods is limited by two factors: the suitability of the objective function, and the effectiveness of the search method. Optimisation clustering methods search for the clustering that corresponds to the minimum (or maximum) objective function value, which may or may not be the correct clustering. For example, all of the optimisation methods found the clustering with the minimum objective function value for the Iris data set, but this is not the real clustering of this data set (the clustering defined as the correct clustering for this experiment has a correctness of 83.3% when compared to the real clustering). For data sets such as Iris, with over-lapping clusters, it may be impossible to define an objective function that can identify the correct solution. However, the selected objective function was sufficient for the optimisation methods to find a more correct solution than the hierarchical algorithms.

Even if the objective function can identify the correct solution, there is no guarantee that the search method will find it. Consider the performance of the optimisation algorithms on the German Towns data. By definition, the correct clustering was the clustering with the minimum objective function value, yet the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm did not find this clustering on nine runs, and the iterated hillclimber was unable to find it on any run. Clearly, some of the search methods are more effective than others for certain data sets.

Optimisation methods such as k-means and iterated nearest neighbour search a relatively small subset of the solution space. These methods (in particular the iterated nearest neighbour method) are well suited to the objective function used for these experiments, and the subset they search contains solutions with high correctness. Hence these algorithms produce fast results with relatively high correctness.

The three remaining optimisation methods search a larger subset of the solution space, thus these algorithms are the slowest. For the iterated hillclimber and simulated annealing, this subset is determined by the definition of the neighbourhood, and the parameter values. The iterated hillclimber did not perform well on the German Towns data set, perhaps due to the large number of local optima for this data set. However, altering the neighbourhood denition may improve this algorithm's performance.

Overall, we are looking for a method that consistently produces correct clusterings in a relatively short amount of time for a wide range of data sets, where correctness is most important. Hence the GCA was clearly out-performed by two other clustering methods: iterated nearest neighbour and simulated annealing. This suggests that there is no advantage to using genetic clustering for the k-clustering problem for data sets with similar characteristics to those used in our experiment. The addition of further adaptions to the GCA may enhance its performance, but it is improbable that such improvements would allow the algorithm to match the performance of the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm.

We also expect that the iterated nearest neighbour clustering algorithm would continue to outperform the GCA on data sets with more objects and a larger number of clusters. However, the described iterated nearest neighbour algorithm is based around the given objective function. It may not be possible to use a similar method for other objective functions. Thus a GCA with a different objective function may outperform this method for certain data sets.

The trend across the three data sets indicates that the GCA may outperform simulated annealing on data sets with large numbers of clusters.

Thus, although the GCA can match or better the correctness results for all of the algorithms (except for iterated nearest neighbour) on the given data sets, it is also significantly slower than these clustering algorithms.

Chapter 4

Genetic Clustering for Unknown k

Thus far we have concentrated on the k-clustering problem, where the number of clusters is known. Here we extend our GCA to deal with the more general clustering problem, where the optimal number of clusters is determined as part of the clustering process.

4.1 **Background**

Determining the optimal number of clusters for a data set is one of the more difficult aspects to the clustering process. Most optimisation clustering methods require the user to specify the number of clusters, and hierarchical methods typically produce a series of clusterings from 1 to n clusters without specifying the most appropriate number of clusters.

Numerous procedures have been suggested for determining the optimal number of clusters [10, 11, 49, 15], including some criteria appropriate for use as the objective function for optimisation clustering methods. For these criteria, the clustering that results in the minimum (or maximum) value of the objective function should be the best possible clustering (with the optimal number of clusters) for the data set.

4.1.1 Criteria for Determining the Number of Clusters

Milligan and Cooper [49] compare 30 criteria for determining the number of clusters. The criteria were used in conjunction with four hierarchical clustering methods to determine the best number of clusters for articial data sets with distinct non-overlapping clusters. The method suggested by Calinski and Harabasz [10],

$$
\frac{(n-k)\times trace(B)}{(k-1)\times trace(W)},
$$

produced the best results for the experiment $(B \text{ and } W \text{ are defined in Section 1.1.3}).$ The optimal clustering is indicated by the maximum value of this measure.

The cluster separation method suggested by Davies and Bouldin [11, 33] also performed reasonably well. This criterion is based on the minimum ratio of within-cluster dispersions, S_i , and between-cluster separation, $T_{i,j}$:

where

$$
R_i = \max_{j,j \neq i} \frac{S_i + S_j}{T_{i,j}}
$$

$$
S_i = \left[\frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} |x_{ij} - \overline{x}_i|^s\right]^{\frac{1}{s}}
$$

$$
T_{i,j} = \left[\sum_{l=1}^p |\overline{x}_i^l - \overline{x}_j^l|^t\right]^{\frac{1}{t}}
$$

 $W_k = \frac{1}{k} \sum$

 \cdot \cdot

and the values of s and t are user-defined (although Davies and Bouldin offer some guidance for selecting appropriate values). The criterion value should be minimised over the solution space.

Further discussion of criteria for determining the number of clusters can be found in [63, 15]. Criteria for use with fuzzy clustering methods is described in [5, 22, 42].

4.1.2 Adaptions for the General Clustering Problem

It is possible to adapt the group-number GCAs we developed in Chapter 2 by simply exchanging the fitness function for a criterion appropriate for the general clustering problem. The k parameter now becomes an upper limit on the number of clusters, $maxk$ (which might even be n), rather than the required number of clusters. The group-number representation allows clusters to have anywhere between 1 and maxk groups (missing group numbers indicate less than maxk groups). The uniform mutation operator will randomly move objects between groups (perhaps even introducing a new group), while single-point and uniform crossover recombine group-numbers during crossover (edgebased crossover is not appropriate because it always produces offspring with k clusters). However, this is not necessarily the best or the only approach.

Representation

While the number of clusters is implicit in the group-number representation, this is not the case for all representations. The matrix representation can be extended in a similar manner to group-number, by increasing the number of rows to maxk. Adjacent separators in the permutation with separators encoding scheme could be used to indicate empty groups if $max k - 1$ separators were included in each chromosome. However, both the greedy permutation and orderbased representations require some independent means of storing the number of clusters for each chromosome. Adding an extra gene to store this value is one possible method.

Falkenauer [17, 18] describes an encoding scheme specically designed for grouping GAs. Under this scheme each chromosome consists of two parts: an object part and a group part. The group part is exactly the same as a standard group-number encoding, and the object part is simply a list of the group-numbers that occur in the object part. Figure 30 contains Falkenauer's encoding of the clustering $\{\{X_1, X_3, X_6\}, \{X_2, X_4, X_5\}\}\.$ Since the number of groups in the object part can vary, so can the length of the chromosome. The genetic operators work with the group part of the representation, thus the operators are manipulating groups rather than objects.

Figure 30: Chromosome representing the clustering $\{\{X_1, X_3, X_6\}, \{X_2, X_4, X_5\}\}\$ for Falkenauer's encoding scheme.

Initialisation

For the k-clustering problem we initialised the group-number population by generating strings of random numbers between 1 and k . For the general clustering problem we could use the same method but increase the upper limit of the group-numbers to $maxk$. However, when n is much larger than $maxk$ most of the population would contain $maxk$ groups.

The initial population should provide a random selection of strings from the representation space, thus there should be approximately the same number of chromosomes with each possible value of k . Such a population could be generated by creating chromosomes as follows:

- 1. Randomly select the number of clusters, k, from $[1, maxk]$.
- 2. Randomly select a k group-numbers from $[1,k]$.
- 3. Randomly select a group-number (from the group-numbers selected in Step 2) for each object.

The second step is included to ensure that the group-numbers in the chromosomes are randomly distributed, rather than between 1 to k inclusive in each case.

Crossover

The context insensitive crossover operators, single-point and uniform, can be used for a groupnumber approach to the general clustering problem. However, again there is no definite relationship between the clusterings of the parents and the offspring. We saw in Chapter 2 that these crossovers were less effective for data sets with higher k values, so we consider these operators inappropriate for the general clustering problem (effectively we are looking for a maxk-clustering, where $max k > k$).

As mentioned previously, the edge-based crossover will always produce an offspring with k clusters. This is appropriate if both the parents have k clusters, but unsatisfactory otherwise. One solution to this problem is to modify the operator so that it produces two offspring and the k values of both parents are inherited by the children (the first child has the same number of clusters as the first parent, the second child has the same number of clusters as the second parent). Alternatively, the edge-based operator could be modied to produce a single child with its number of clusters randomly selected from the range of the parents' values. For example, if the parents have 3 and 6 clusters, the number of clusters in the child is selected from the interval [3; 6]. Thus the number of clusters in the child is in
uenced by the number of clusters in both parents.

Falkenauer's [18] crossover operator is similar to that of Bhuyan [7] and von Laszewski [66] in that it copies a number of groups from one parent to another and then uses a local search to produce the final child. Such an operator is easier to apply to Falkenauer's representation.

Mutation

The mutation operator for the k-clustering problem can be used for the general clustering problem. It is capable of both introducing new groups and removing existing groups in its current form. However, the mutation of a single gene is unlikely to result in any great increase in fitness, and mutations of this form will be quickly lost from the population [18]. Thus we need some method of introducing a new clusters that contain a number of objects.

The simplest approach may be to introduce a *split* operator that selects a group from a particular clustering and moves objects from that group into a new group with a set probability. Other mutation operators appropriate for this problem include a merge operator that moves all the objects in one cluster to another pre-existing cluster, and a move operator which shifts objects between groups already existing on a chromosome. Figure 31 illustrates the effects of these three operators. All three operators may be applied, with differing rates, to the population.

Figure 31: Mutation operators for the general clustering problem: (a) Split randomly moves objects from group 2 into the new group 3; Merge moves all of the objects from group 1 into group 3; and Move randomly shuffles objects between pre-existing groups.

Falkenauer $[17, 18]$ outlines similar strategies for his mutation operators — creating a new group, eliminating existing groups, and shuffling objects among their respective groups. However, once again, local search is used to place objects in groups during the mutation process. For example, a group is eliminated by moving all of the objects in that group to other groups according to a

4.2 Methods

4.2.1 Ob jective Function

Our first step in adapting a GA for the general clustering problem involved finding an appropriate objective function. Thus the first part of our experiment was the evaluation of a number of clustering criterion. Each of our three data sets (Ruspini, German Towns, and Iris see Section 2.2.1) was clustered into 1 to 10 clusters using the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm from the previous chapter. Then the values of the criteria described in Section 4.1.1 were calculated for each clustering of each data set (the data was not standardised for this experiment). The objective function was selected on the basis of these values. The values of $s = 2.0$ and $t = 2.0$ were used for the Davies and Bouldin criterion during this experiment.
4.2.2 Clustering Algorithms

Genetic clustering was compared with three traditional clustering algorithms $-$ Ward's method, iterated nearest neighbour, and simulated annealing — that were modified for the general clustering problem. For the first two methods, this involved finding the best clusterings into 2 to $maxk$ groups and then using the objective function value to select the optimal clustering from these (this required one run of Ward's method, and $maxk - 1$ runs of the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm). The neighbourhood definition used in the implementation of the simulated annealing algorithm allows the number of clusters to vary (moving the last object in one group into a pre-existing group will decrease the number of clusters by one, introducing a new group number will increase the number of clusters by one), so this was not changed. However, the initial clustering was created using the initialisation process described in Section 4.1.2, and the objective function was replaced.

To adapt the GCA for the general clustering problem, changes were made to the representation, fitness function, and the initialisation, crossover, and mutation operators. A group-number representation was used, but each chromosome also stored its number of clusters. Since the GCA was to search for the maximum objective function value, the objective function could be used as the fitness function without transformation. However, the local and scaled transformations were updated to suit this objective function. The initialisation operator described in Section 4.1.2, choosek, was added as an alternative to random initialisation. Two edge-based crossover operators were implemented: the first, $edge$, producing two children with the same number of clusters as the first and second parent, respectively; and the second, $edge$, producing a single child with its number of clusters randomly selected from $[k_1, k_2]$ where k_i is the number of clusters in the *i*th parent. The split, move, and merge mutation operators described previously were also implemented.

Each data set was clustered 40 times with each algorithm, and the clusterings found were ranked in order of frequency. The objective function value and the correctness (percentage of objects correctly clustered, defined in the previous chapter) of the most frequent clustering were also recorded. For this experiment the correctness of the clusterings was calculated from the real clusterings of the data sets. The correctness for the German Towns data set was not recorded since the real clustering for this data set is unknown. The average clustering time of the algorithms was measured in seconds of CPU time. A maxk value of 10 was used throughout this experiment.

All of the tests were conducted on a Sparc Ultra, with load average around 0.9. The algorithms were written in C and compiled using \gcd with the optimisation flag set to level 3.

The number of iterations for the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm were the same as those used in the previous experiment (Section 3.3). The parameters for the simulated annealing algorithms and GCAs were varied until a reasonable level of performance was achieved, or until the clustering time became excessive.

The mean time of the algorithms was compared against that of the GCAs using one-sided z tests (null hypothesis of equal mean values).

4.3 Results

Objective Function $4.3.1$

Tables 25 to 27 list the values of the selected criteria for the clusterings of the three data sets. The correct clustering for the Ruspini data set gives the minimum Calinski and Harabasz value, and the maximum Davies and Bouldin criterion value, for the given clusterings.

Table 25: Clustering criteria values for ten clusterings of the Ruspini data set. ¹ correct clustering. $*$ minimum criterion value. \dagger maximum criterion value.

For the German Towns data set, the clustering with seven clusters has the maximum Calinski and Harabasz criterion value; whereas the clustering with ten clusters has the minimum Davies and Bouldin criterion value. In fact, the Davies and Bouldin values indicate that none of these clusterings represent the natural structure of the data (Davies and Bouldin [11] suggest that values above 0.6 ($s = t = 2.0$) for two-dimensional data indicate a particularly inappropriate clustering).

k	Calinski and Harabasz	Davies and Bouldin
1	undefined	undefined
2	76.34	0.8641
3	75.28	0.7955
4	86.66	0.8471
5	85.55	0.7545
6	88.00	0.7984
7	92.09^{\dagger}	0.8081
8	89.05	0.7809
9	87.56	0.8096
10	87.216	$0.7014*$

Table 26: Clustering criteria values for ten clusterings of the German Towns data set. * minimum criterion value. [†]maximum criterion value.

For the Iris data set, the maximum Calinski and Harabasz criterion value is given by the clustering with three clusters; whereas the Davies and Bouldin criterion indicates that the clustering with two clusters is the best. The 3-clustering evaluated in Table 27 is not the correct clustering for the Iris data set. The criteria values for the correct clustering -486.32 and 0.8446, respectively | are not the maximum (or minimum) value for either criterion. Consequently, neither of the criterion are suitable for finding the real clustering for this data set.

k	Calinski and Harabasz	Davies and Bouldin
	undefined	undefined
$\overline{2}$	513.30	$0.4747*$
3 ²	560.40^\dagger	0.7259
4	529.40	0.8438
5	494.09	0.8573
6	474.52	0.9913
7	450.77	1.0349
8	436.61	0.9990
9	409.70	1.0005
10	385.52	1.1162

Table 27: Clustering criteria values for ten clusterings of the Iris data set. ² not the correct clustering (the criteria values for the correct clustering are 486.32 and 0.8446 , respectively). $*$ minimum criterion value. [†] maximum criterion value.

Since the Calinski and Harabasz criterion correctly indicated the number of clusters in the Ruspini and Iris data sets (the correct clustering for the German Towns data set is not defined) it was selected as the objective function for the clustering algorithms. However, since this measure is undefined when there is only one cluster, the implemented clustering algorithms were restricted to clusterings with more than one cluster.

4.3.2 Clustering Algorithms

The results of the comparison between the selected clustering algorithms can be found in Tables 28 to 30. Both Ward's method and the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm found the correct clustering of the Ruspini data on every run. However, the simulated annealing algorithm was unable to find the correct clustering. In fact, this algorithm always clustered the Ruspini data set into $maxk$ clusters. The GCA performed reasonably well, finding the correct clustering on 35 of the 40 runs. Ward's method and the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm were signicantly faster than the GCA.

Ward's method found the same clustering of the German Towns data set on each run; this clustering divided the objects between ten groups, and had the lowest objective function value of the clusterings found by the algorithms. The simulated annealing algorithm also clustered the data set into ten groups, but this clustering still had a relatively high objective function value. The most frequent clustering for both the iterated nearest neighbour and GCAs had seven groups,

Table 28: Comparison of clustering algorithms on Ruspini. The netations. $1_0 = 10.0, I_{steps} = 1$ $300, T_{\delta} = 0.999$, and $T_F = 0.000001$. $PS = 200$, MG $= 200$, In $=$ random, Ir $=$ none, El $= 5$, Cr \pm edgez, CP \pm 1.00, MK \pm move 0.70, merge 0.10 \pm 0.50. Psignificantly faster than the GCA at 1% level.

Algorithm	Frequency		k Obj. Function	Time	
			Value	sec. CPU	std dev.
Ward's method	40		78.87	0.011 ^t	0.008
iterated nearest neighbour ¹	35		92.09	42.9731	0.686
simulated annealing ²		10	86.88	564.614	9.416
GCA^3			92.09	546.022	18.288

Table 29: Comparison of clustering algorithms on German Towns. Through terations. $I_0 =$ $100.0, I_{steps} = 300, I_{\delta} = 0.999, \text{ and } I_F = 0.000001.$ $PS = 100, MG = 2000, \text{ in } = \text{random}, \text{ If } =$ none, $E1 = 5$, Cr = edgez, Cr = 1.00, M $E1 = 0.00$, Merge 0.10 \pm 0.40. \pm significantly faster than the GCA at 1% level.

and was the clustering with the highest objective function value for this data set. However, the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm was twice as successful at nding this clusters as the GCA. In addition, the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm was signicantly faster than the GCA.

The iterated nearest neighbour algorithm was the only method that divided the Iris data into the correct number of clusters. Ward's method, and the GCA, found two clusters on every run, while the simulated annealing algorithm always found a clustering with ten groups.

Table 30: Comparison of clustering algorithms on Iris. The Herations. $I_0 = 10.0, I_{steps} =$ $200, T_{\delta} = 0.999$, and $T_F = 0.000001$. $\Gamma S = 50$, MG = 1000, In = random, Ir = none, El = 5, $\rm Cr =$ edgez, $\rm CF = 1.00, \, \rm MHz =$ move 0.70, merge 0.10 = 0.30. <code>significantly</code> faster than the GCA at 1% level.

Numerous parameter combinations were tested for the simulated annealing algorithm on all of the data sets. However, the algorithm always found clusterings with nine or ten clusters, with the most frequent clusterings having ten clusters.

Initial attempts at finding good parameter values for the GCA involved using the *choosek* initialisation operator, the edge1 crossover operator, and various rates of the three mutation operators. The resulting performance was poor, with the population converging rapidly to a sub-optimal number of clusters (Figure 32). Subsequent attempts used the random initialisation operator to seed the population with clusterings containing $maxk$ clusters. The probability of the merge operator was exponentially increased over the generations to force the GCA to explore clusterings with less groups. The edge2 crossover operator was used since it can create a child with a different number of groups than either parent, and the move mutation operator used to move objects between pre-existing groups. These parameter values forced the GCA's population to move through different k values over the generations (Figure 33). The results presented in Tables 28 to 30 use these parameter values.

Figure 32: Distribution of k values during genetic clustering of the Ruspini data set with initial parameter values: $PS = 200$, $MG = 200$, $In = \text{choose}$, $Tr = \text{none}$, $El = 5$, $Cr = \text{edge1}$, $CP =$ 1.00, $MR = split\ 0.30 - 0.10$, merge $0.30 - 0.10$, move 0.70.

Figure 33: Distribution of k values during genetic clustering of the Ruspini data set with subsequent parameter values: $PS = 200$, $MG = 200$, $In = \text{random}$, $Tr = \text{none}$, $El = 5$, $Cr = \text{edge2}$, $CP =$ 1.00, $MR = merge\ 0.10 - 0.50$, move 0.70.

4.3.3 Local Search

A final attempt at improving the GCA's performance involved modifying the merge mutation operator. Instead of joining two random groups, the operator was modied to place objects from a randomly selected group into the clusters (not including the selected group) with the closest centroid — each object was placed in the cluster with the closest centroid to it. The overall strategy was similar to the one described previously, with the population seeded with maxkclusterings which were then merged to form clusterings with less groups. The modified merge should enhance the fitness of these clusterings. In order to prevent the population from converging to too few groups, split mutation was used.

The resulting performance of the GCA on our three data sets is contained in Table 31. This algorithm performed better on both Ruspini and Iris, finding the correct clustering in every run for the Ruspini data, and every run except one for the Iris data (this is comparable with the performance of the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm). In addition, on these data sets, the algorithm was signicantly faster (at 1% level) with these parameter values.

Modifying the *merge* operator also improved the performance of the GCA on the German Towns data set, but the algorithm still only found the correct solution on 60% of the runs. Further, the modified algorithm was significantly slower (at 1% level) than the previous version of the algorithm. Clearly, the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm still produced the best results for this data set.

Data	Frequency	k.	Obj. Function	Correctness	Time	
			Value	%	sec. CPU	std dev.
Ruspini ¹	40		42533	100.0	307.556	18.671
German Towns ²	24		92.09		643.814	42.077
Iris ³	39		560.40	89.33	522.471	56.755

Table 31: Performance of GCAs with modified merge mutation. TPS \equiv 200, MG \equiv 200, In \equiv random, $Tr = none$, $El = 5$, $Cr = edge2$, $CP = 1.00$, $MR = move 0.70$, merge $0.10 - 0.30$, split 0.05 ± 0.25 . PS \equiv 100, MG \equiv 2000, In \equiv random, Ir \equiv none , El \equiv 5, Cr \equiv edge2, CP \equiv 1.00, $\text{M}\,\text{K} = \text{move } 0.70, \text{ merge } 0.10 = 0.40, \text{split} = 0.05 = 0.20, \text{ } ^\circ \text{PS} = 50, \text{ } ^\prime \text{M}\,\text{G} = 1000, \text{ } ^\prime \text{R} = \text{random}, \text{ } ^\prime \text{R} = \text{m}$ $=$ none, El $= 5$, Cr $=$ edge2, CP $= 1.00$, MR $=$ move 0.70, merge 0.10 $-$ 0.30, split 0.05 $-$ 0.15.

4.4 Discussion

4.4.1 Ob jective Function

The objective function for a clustering algorithm should: (i) be defined for every clustering the algorithm can produce; and (ii) provide a relative measure of each clustering's worth $-$ the minimum (or maximum) value should correspond to the optimal clustering for the data set. None of the clustering criteria tested in this chapter satised these requirements for all three data sets. The Calinski and Harabasz, and Davies and Bouldin measures are undefined when all objects are placed in a single cluster, and neither could identify the real clustering of the Iris data set. However, the Calinski and Harabasz criterion can be used to determine the correct number of clusters in all of the given data sets, whereas the Davies and Bouldin measure only identied the correct number of clusters for the Ruspini data set. Further, the values of this measure for the German Towns

data set suggest that none of the clusterings for this data set are appropriate. These results agree with those of Milligan and Cooper [49] in which the Calinski and Harabasz criterion outperformed the Davies and Bouldin measure.

4.4.2 Clustering Algorithms

The fact that the objective function was an external criterion for Ward's method (it was used to select from clusterings that had been produced by the hierarchical algorithm) meant that this algorithm could not always find the clustering with the maximum objective function value. In fact, this algorithm found clusterings with the wrong number of clusters for both German Towns and Iris, since these clusterings had higher objective function values than any of the other clusterings produced by the algorithm. However, a different external criterion may produce better results with this method.

The iterated nearest neighbour algorithm clearly out-performed the other clustering algorithms on all three data sets. This is a result of the high correspondence between the method used to create the clusterings and the external objective function. The algorithm creates clusterings by placing objects into clusters with the closest centroid; this minimises the sum of the Euclidean distance between objects and their cluster centres, which is the denominator of the Calinski and Harabasz criterion. However, since these clusters are built around random seed points, the algorithm must be iterated; and complex data sets (high k, close clusters) will require a large number of iterations to produce good results (for complex data sets, there are fewer seed points that will lead to good clusterings). Despite this, this method is still a relatively fast method of clustering data sets.

The simulated annealing algorithm always clustered the data sets into $maxk$ groups. This is most probably due to the interaction between the neighbourhood definition, which allows a single object to be moved into a random group, and the objective function. Moving a single object will not often increase the objective function value, unless the object is being moved to a new group. Hence the algorithm will tend to divide the objects into as many clusters as possible.

The performance of the GCA on the first two data sets is promising, although this requires a particular set of adaptions: random initialisation, exponentially increasing merge mutation, and $edge2$ crossover. This combination of adaptions uses the same concept as the hierarchical clustering algorithms, that is merging two clusters in a good k-clustering will most likely result in a good (k-1)-clustering. Thus the random initialisation operator is used to create a population of maxkclusterings, and the merge mutation operator is applied exponentially to allow the population to develop some good clusterings for each number of clusters, before the population evolves to a new number of clusters. Elite selection ensures that the best clusterings found so far remain in the population, and ensures that the final population is based around clusterings with the correct number of clusters (assuming that these are also the fittest clusterings).

The $edge$ crossover operator enables a child chromosome to have a different number of clusters to its parents. But the number of clusters is restricted to the range of the number of clusters in the parents. Given that edge-based crossover creates a child by finding groups in both parents, this operator will often have the same effect as the merge operator.

The emphasis on merging explains the poor performance of the GCA on the Iris data set. The

Figure 34: Optimal 4-clustering for the Iris data set.

best clustering of the Iris data set into four clusters divides two of the correct groups between three different clusters, one of which has equal numbers of the objects that belong in different groups (Figure 34). Thus the optimal clustering cannot be reached by merging any two of the existing clusters, and such a merging would result in a clustering with a relatively low fitness value. However, if the three closest clusters are merged, a good 2-cluster results, which is why the GCA finds this clustering rather than the optimal one. A similar effect can be observed in the results for Ward's method since the hierarchical algorithms also work by merging clusters.

Since the GCA works by exchanging information (in this case cluster membership) between members of its population, it appears that the GCA (as described in this Chapter) is not suitable for the k-clustering problem — the clusters contained in a good k-clustering will not necessarily lead to a good $(k-1)$ -clustering. Thus, allowing the clusterings in the population to have differing numbers of clusters, and exchanging clusters between them using an edge-based crossover, is perhaps not the best approach to this problem.

4.4.3 Local Search

The modified *merge* operator used a local search to place objects from a randomly selected group into the clusters with the closest centroids. Thus the GCA could form better (k-1)-clusterings from the k-clusterings in its population (hence the GCA was more likely to find the optimal solution). Due to the increased fitness of the clusterings with less groups, the GCA converged to clusterings with fewer clusters in a shorter space of time (except for the German Towns data, where the relatively high fitness of clusterings with seven clusters, kept the number of clusters in the population high). Given that the majority of time per generation is spent on crossover, and that the complexity of the edge-based crossover is proportional to the number of clusters, this meant that this modication actually decreased the time taken for the GCA on the Ruspini and Iris data sets. This was despite the fact that the modification to the *merge* operator increased the time taken for this operator. However, since the number of clusters in the population of the GCA

The success of the modified GCA was comparable to the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm for the Ruspini and Iris data sets. However, the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm was more successful on the German Towns data set, and was signicantly faster than the GCA on every data set. Thus there is no advantage to choosing the GCA over the iterated nearest neighbour algorithm, even with the addition of a local search.

Chapter 5

Conclusions

This research has been an investigation into the use of GAs for clustering data. We reviewed the various adaptions that enable GAs to cluster into a pre-dened number of groups, and compared the performance of 4320 combinations of adaptions on three generated data sets. Each adaption combination was ranked according to: (1) the number of times (out of five replications) that it found the clustering with the minimum objective function value in less than five processor minutes; and (2) the average time taken to find this clustering. Independent generalised linear models were fitted to the correctness and time results for each of the generated data sets, and the models were used to predict the performance of the GCAs on three real data sets with similar structure. The linear models quantified the effects of the various adaptions on the performance of the GCAs; and accurate predictions were produced, by models with good fit, when there was high similarity between the real and generated data.

A number of adaptions are essential for GCAs, namely an appropriate representation, fitness function, and suitable operators $-$ the GCA needs to be able to encode potential solutions; the fitness function is necessary to drive the evolution of the population toward the optimal clustering; and the operators must be able to produce valid offspring by manipulating the representation. Other adaptions such as context sensitive operators, elite selection, and parameter values such as the population size and the mutation rate can have a large effect on the time taken to find the optimal clustering for a given data set. Further, the effects of these adaptions and parameters varies for different data sets, although comparison between the real and generated data sets suggests that the variation is not signicant for data sets with the same number of objects, clusters, attributes, and a similar distribution of objects. However, the group-number representation is better suited for the k-clustering problem than the order-based representation, and high dynamic scaling of the fitness function values, elite selection, and high mutation rates increase the probability of finding the correct clustering within a reasonable time. Larger population sizes and context sensitive crossover appear more important for data sets with a high number of clusters.

Comparison of GCAs with traditional k-clustering algorithms for the three data sets shows, that although the GCAs cluster the data successfully, the method provides no advantages over traditional methods. This is due to the high complexity of the GCAs when compared to the traditional algorithms, which are based around simple distance measures. Further, these same distance measures are used in several clustering criteria, which limits the correctness of both GCAs using these clustering criteria, and the traditional algorithms based around these measures.

Only simple modications to the developed GCAs were needed for the general clustering problem, where the value of k is unknown. The best performance resulted from exploiting the merging concept behind hierarchical clustering, by seeding the population with clusterings with high numbers of clusters and then forcing the GCA to evolve clusterings with fewer clusters. If the optimal solution is found during this evolution process, the elite selection strategy will ensure that it remains in the population. However, such a GCA can become trapped in a local minimum in a similar manner to various hierarchical algorithms, since merging clusters in a good k-clustering does not always lead to a good (k-1)-clustering. In fact, the population structure of the GCA (as described in this thesis) is not appropriate for the general clustering problem, as given free reign it evolves the population by swapping genetic information between randomly selected members of the population (effectively, the GCA is trying to build good k-clusterings using subsets of groupings found in good 2-clusterings to maxk-clusterings).

The addition of local search to the merge operator markedly improved the performance of the GCAs on both the German Towns, and the Iris data sets. For the Iris data the GCA found the clustering with the maximum objective function value in 39 out of 40 trials (this clustering correctly allocates 89.3% of the objects according to the real clustering of the data, and is comparable to the performance of other clustering GAs [6]).

There are two factors limiting the performance of GCAs: the choice of objective function, and the high complexity of the GCA. The objective function drives the evolution of the GCA, and as such if the objective function does not suit the structure of the data, the GCA will be unable to find good clusterings for the data set. Further, traditional clustering algorithms are based on concepts similar to the majority of clustering criteria. Thus the solutions given by these methods match, or better any that can be found by using these clustering criteria. Plus the complexity of these traditional algorithms is low. There is no advantage to conducting a more thorough search of the solution space, as the objective function is not sufficient to find a better solution. Incorporating heuristics into the GCA will improve its performance, but for the same reasons will not match the performance of the heuristic on its own.

There are four possible areas of improvement for the genetic clustering algorithms. Firstly, the GCAs could be adapted to control their own operator probabilities [13, 61]. This may even involve different rates according to the fitness of each chromosome, so that, for example, less fit chromosomes are more likely to undergo mutation. This would remove the need to determine good parameter values, and should enhance the performance of the GCAs.

Secondly, better clustering criteria may give the GCA an advantage over other clustering methods. Certainly, work in the area of fuzzy clustering suggests that genetic clustering may benefit from the clustering criteria in this field (the matrix representation is suitable for fuzzy clustering) [22, 42]. GCAs may perform better when there are large numbers of sub-optimal minima that trap other search techniques.

Thirdly, parallel implementations of GAs [66, 50] divide the algorithm between a number of computers by creating a number of small populations rather than a single larger population. Such a method may offer both time and correctness advantages. Further, individual sub-populations

could be devoted to a certain number of clusters, thus this method may give worthwhile results for the general clustering problem.

Finally, the addition of further adaptions, such as modications to the population structure and better reproductive operators, may enhance the effectiveness of the GCAs' search.

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Appendix A

Models for GA adaptions

This appendix contains the coefficients for all of the models used in Chapter 2. There are two models for each representation/data set combination, one that gives a probability of finding the solution within 300 seconds, the other giving a time to find the solution. These models were used to determine the best set of adaptions for each data set (Tables 14 to 18). Since the order-based GCAs were unable to find the correct clustering for the Iris2 data set there are no models for this representation/data set combination.

In each case the correctness models were derived from the complete set of correctness data. The time models were based only on the GCAs which found one or more solutions, since there was no time data for the GCAs that didn't find a solution. The data for GCAs with PMX crossover was removed from the time models for the order-based GCAs since the number with correct runs was extremely low (6 for Ruspini2 and 9 for Towns2). Some of the models have coefficients that are not defined due to singularity (the data was insufficient to determine the effect of the factor). This is an indication of a low probability of a GCA with this particular factor finding the correct solution in under 300 seconds.

The fit of each model is also assessed, using the residual deviance, comparison of the experimental and fitted values, and plots of the residuals for the time models. The final model in each case was the model that gave the best fit with no higher than third-order terms (the time taken to fit higher order models was prohibitive).

For both the correctness and time models a good fit is indicated by a low residual deviance, preferably lower than the corresponding degrees of freedom. The residual plots should be randomly distributed around a mean of zero, and the range of the residuals should be approximately uniform along the fitted scale (the fitted values have been transformed to the constant-information scale of the error distribution, $2\sqrt{\mu}$ for Poisson errors [47]).

A.1 Group-number and Ruspini2

We will start with the correctness model for the group-number GCAs on the Ruspini2 data set. The coefficients are listed in Table 32, with Figures 35 containing the comparative histograms. The residual deviance of 2084.3 on 2904 degrees of freedom indicates that this model fits well, although

Figure 35: Comparison of experimental and fitted correctness values for group-number GCAs on Ruspini2.

the comparative histograms show that the model over-predicts the number of trials with five runs correct.

Table 32: Coecients for the correctness model for group-number

GCAs on Ruspini2.

The coefficients for the corresponding time model are listed in Table 33. The residual deviance for this model is 2405.7 on 2694 degrees of freedom, indicating a good fit which is supported by the similarities between the experimental and predicted values shown in Figure 36. The plot of the residual values (Figure 37) shows perhaps a little skewness, but no indications of serious violations of the model assumptions.

Figure 36: Comparison of experimental and fitted time values for group-number GCAs on Ruspini2.

Figure 37: Residual plot for time model for group-number GCAs on Ruspini2.

Table 33: Coecients for the time model for group-number GCAs on

Ruspini2.

A.2 Group-number and Towns2

Table 34 lists the coefficients for the correctness model for the Towns2 data set. The residual deviance of this model (3493.9 on 2634 degrees of freedom) is large, suggesting that the model does not fit the data well. The histograms in Figure 38 confirm this. The addition of higher order terms may improve the fit of the model, although initial attempts at this failed to do so. Smoothing techniques may be more appropriate for the analysis of this data.

Figure 38: Comparison of experimental and fitted correctness for group-number GCAs on Towns2.

			Table 54. A Collibration for the correctified though to	
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GCAs on Towns2.

The fit of time model for the Town2 data is also questionable due to a high residual deviance (22985 on 2073 degrees of freedom). The range of time values predicted by this model to not match the experimental values (as can be seen in Figure 39). The residual plot shows a definite change in the variance of the residuals over the fitted scale (Figure 40). This model includes all first, second and third order terms which suggests the addition of higher order terms may improve the fit. The coefficients for this model are given in Table 35.

Figure 39: Comparison of experimental and fitted time for group-number GCAs on Towns2.

Figure 40: Residual plot for time model for group-number GCAs on Towns2.

Table 35: Coecients for the time model for group-number GCAs on

Towns2.

A.3 Group-number and Iris2

Coefficients for correctness model for the Iris2 data set can be found in Table 36. This model fits the data well (residual deviance of 925.7 on 2908 degrees of freedom, Figure 41).

Figure 41: Comparison of experimental and fitted correctness for group-number GCAs on Iris2.

cont.					
Covariate	Effect	Covariate	Effect	Covariate	Effect
PS400 MR0 10	-8.5357	PS100 MR0.20	-2.5203	PS200 MR0.20	-4.7470
PS400 MR0.20	-5.4922	PS100 MR0 50	-2.8162	PS200 MR0 50	-5.3126
PS400 MR0.50	-5.5382	PS100 MR0.70	-1.8084	PS200 MR0 70	-1.8033
PS400 MR0.70	-0.1238	PS100 MR0 90	-4.4764	PS200 MR0 90	-3.9219
PS400 MR0.90	-1.9889	PS100: Triocal	-1.3073	PS200: Triocal	-2.7165
PS400 Triocal	-4.0142	PS100 Trscale2	-1.0285	PS200 Trscale2	-2.2246
PS400 Trscale2	-3.7362	PS100 Trscale4	-1.0908	PS200 Trscale4	-2.3681
PS400 Trscale4	-3.7813	PS100EI1	-0.0011	PS200EI1	0.2187
PS400E11	-0.4128	PS100E15%	0.4390	PS200E15%	11998
PS400E15%	0.9041	Triocal MR0.05	-7.5766	Trscale2: MR0.05	-7.0973
Trscale4: MR0.05	-8.3979	Triocal MR0.10	-7.4056	Trscale2: MR0.10	-7.2346
Trscale4: MR0.10	-8.3486	Triocal MR0.20	-126637	Trscale2: MR0.20	-12.4918
Trscale4: MR0.20	-13 5055	Triocal MR0.50	-149067	Trscale2: MR0.50	-14.2789
Trscale4: MR0.50	-15.4905	Triocal MR0.70	-131867	Trscale2 MR0.70	-13.1047
Trscale4: MR0.70	-13.8578	Triocal: MR0.90	-16.1629	Trscale2: MR0.90	-16.4954
Trscale4: MR0.90	-171303	E11 MR0.05	1 9 1 7 2	E15% MR0.05	4.1203
EI1 MR0.10	1 1792	E15% MR0.10	4.3200	E11 MR0.20	35082
E15% MR0.20	6 7296	EI1 MR0.50	3 7658	E15% MR0.50	79447
EI1 MR0.70	4.7965	E15% MR0.70	8.2603	E11 MR0.90	78553
E15% MR0.90	11.0439	Crsingle CP0.70	1.9581	Cruniform:CP0.70	2.0465
Crsingle: CP0.90	3.9334	Cruniform:CP0.90	3.6640	PS100 CP0 70	0.5873
PS200 CP0 70	0.8287 \overline{r}	PS400 CP0 70 ± 1 \mathbf{I}	0.6567	PS100 CP0 90 \overline{c}	-0.1047

Table 36: Coecients for the correctness model for group-number

GCAs on Iris2.

The corresponding time model also provides a good fit (residual deviance of 1635.6 on 2057 degrees of freedom). The suitability of this model is also supported by the comparative histograms (Figure 42) and the residual plot (Figure 43). Model coefficients are listed in Table 37.

Figure 42: Comparison of experimental and fitted time for group-number GCAs on Iris2.

Figure 43: Residuals plot for time model for group-number GCAs on Iris2.

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Table 37: Coecients for the time model for group-number GCAs on

Iris2. $NA =$ coefficient not defined because of singularity.

A.4 Order-based and Ruspini2

Table 38 provides the coefficients for the order-based correctness model for Ruspini2. The residual deviance of 926.8 on 1239 degrees of freedom indicates a good fit, and this is supported by the histograms in Figure 44).

Figure 44: Comparison of experimental and fitted correctness for order-based GCAs on Ruspini2.

on Ruspini2. $NA = coefficient not defined because of singularity.$

The coefficients for the corresponding time model are listed in Table 39. This model fits the data poorly with a residual deviance of 1619.7 on 566 degrees of freedom (see Figure 45). The residual plot (Figure 46) does not indicate any violation of model assumptions.

Figure 45: Comparison of experimental and fitted time for order-based GCAs on Ruspini2

Figure 46: Residual plot for time model for order-based GCAs on Ruspini2

Ruspini2.

$A.5$ Order-based and Towns2

The correctness model coefficients for the order-based GCAs on Towns2 are listed in Table 40. This model has a residual deviance of 386.1 on 1252 degrees of freedom and matches the data well (Figure 47).

Figure 47: Comparison of experimental and fitted correctness for order-based GCAs on Towns2.

Table 40: Coecients for the correctness model for order-based GCAs

on Towns2.
The coefficients for the final time model can be found in Table 41. This model has a residual deviance of 1182.3 on 591 degrees of freedom which indicates a relatively poor fit (notice the variations in the histograms in Figure 48). There are no obvious violations of model assumptions in the residual plot (Figure 49).

Figure 48: Comparison of experimental and fitted time for order-based GCAs on Towns2.

Figure 49: Residual plot for time model for order-based GCAs on Towns2.

Towns2.