

Spectral Clustering Using Evolving Similarity Graphs

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Abstract: In this paper, we propose a novel spectral graph clustering method that uses evolutionary algorithms in order to optimise the structure of a graph, by using a fitness function, applied in clustering problems. Nearest neighbour graphs and variants of these graphs are used in order to form the initial population. These graphs are transformed in such a way so as to play the role of chromosomes in the evolutionary algorithm. Multiple techniques have been examined for the creation of the initial population, since it was observed that it plays an important role in the algorithm's performance. The advantage of our approach is that, although we emphasise in clustering applications, the algorithm may be applied to several other problems that can be modeled as graphs, including dimensionality reduction and classification. Experiments on traditional dance dataset and on other various multidimensional datasets were conducted using both internal and external clustering criteria as evaluation methods, which provided encouraging results.

1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of clustering is to discover the natural grouping of a set of data, such that similar samples are placed in the same group, while dissimilar samples are placed into different ones. Clustering has been used in a wide variety of applications, including bioinformatics, data mining, image analysis, information retrieval etc. A detailed survey on clustering applications can be found in (Jain et al., 1999) and a more recent study in (Jain, 2008). In (Gira et al., 2004) the authors attempt to briefly review a few core concepts of unsupervised and semi-supervised clustering.

Spectral graph clustering (Bach and Jordan, 2003) refers to a class of graph techniques, that rely on eigenanalysis of the Laplacian matrix of a similarity graph, aiming to divide graph nodes in disjoint groups (or clusters). In spectral clustering, as in all clustering techniques, nodes that originate from the same cluster should have high similarity values, whereas nodes from different clusters should have low similarity values. Spectral analysis can be applied to a variety of practical problems (i.e. computer vision and speech analysis) and, as a result, spectral clustering algorithms have received increasing interest. Some clustering applications of spectral graph clustering are reviewed in (Schaeffer, 2007).

So far, some evolutionary-based approaches to the

problem of clustering have been proposed throughout the years. In (Maulik and Bandyopadhyay, 2000) the authors proposed a genetic algorithm in order to search for the cluster centers by minimising a clustering metric, while in (Murthy and Chowdhury, 1996) authors aim to find the optimal partition of the data, using a genetic algorithm, without searching all possible partitions. A more detailed survey of evolutionary algorithms for clustering is presented in (Hruschka et al., 2009).

In our approach, spectral graph clustering is applied in evolving similarity graphs, which have been transformed properly in order to play the role of the chromosomes in the employed genetic algorithm (Holland, 1992). The initial population, for the genetic algorithm, is constructed with the aid of k -nearest neighbour graphs which, then, are transformed to one-dimensional binary strings and undergo genetic operators.

The remainder of this paper is organised as follows. In section 2, the problem that we attempt to solve is stated and some general aspects that concern the algorithm are discussed, including similarity graph construction, and spectral clustering issues. Section 3, presents the proposed evolutionary algorithm in detail. In Section 4, experimental results of the algorithm are described. Finally, in Section 5, conclusions are drawn and future work is discussed.

2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Clustering is the process of partitioning a usually large dataset into groups, according to a similarity (or dissimilarity) measure. The aim is that samples that belong to the same cluster have a small distance from each another, whereas samples that belong to different clusters are at a large distance from each another. Clustering is usually not a trivial task, as the only information we have about the data, is the data itself. In order to obtain some information about the structure of the data, we usually construct similarity matrices.

2.1 Similarity Functions and Similarity Graphs

Similarities of data samples can be represented as a similarity graph $G = (V, E)$, where V, E represent vertices (or nodes) and edges of the graph, respectively. If we assume that each vertex v_i represents a data sample, then two nodes v_i, v_j are connected if the similarity $s_{i,j}$ between them is positive or larger than a threshold, and the edge is weighted by $s_{i,j}$. The problem of clustering may now be reformulated as finding a partition of the graph such that the weights within a cluster have high values, whereas weights between different clusters have low values.

Before constructing a similarity graph, we need to define a similarity function on the data. The most common similarity function \mathbf{S} is the Gaussian similarity function (heat kernel). Heat kernel between two graph nodes is defined as:

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{h}_{i,j} = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{v}_i - \mathbf{v}_j\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right), \quad (1)$$

where σ is a parameter that defines the width of the neighbourhood.

Generally, the most common choice of similarity graphs are k -nearest neighbour graphs (to be called k -nn graphs) because of their simplicity as well as their sparsity. The aim of a k -nn graph \mathbf{A} is to connect node v_i with node v_j if v_j is among the k nearest neighbours of v_i , which results in a directed graph. In the proposed method, an undirected graph was used, obtained by simply ignoring the directions of the edges.

However, it is well known that spectral clustering is very sensitive to the choice of the similarity graph that is used for constructing the Laplacian (Luxburg, 2007). Indeed, selecting a fixed k parameter for the k -nn graph is very difficult and different values lead to dramatically different clusterings. Optimising the clustering over the graph structure is not a trivial task, since the clustering criteria are not differentiable with

respect to the graph structure. Thus, we propose in this paper to use evolutionary algorithms in order to optimise specific clustering criteria, that are considered as fitness functions, with respect to the underlying graph, which is transformed to a chromosome solution.

2.2 Spectral Graph Clustering

Spectral graph clustering (Bach and Jordan, 2003), refers to a class of graph techniques, which rely on the eigenanalysis of a matrix, in order to partition graph nodes in disjoint clusters and is commonly used in many clustering applications (Schaeffer, 2007).

Let \mathbf{D} be a diagonal $N \times N$ matrix having the sum $d_{ii} = \sum_j W_{i,j}$ on its main diagonal. Then, the generalised eigenvalue problem is defined as:

$$(\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{W})\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{D}\mathbf{v}, \quad (2)$$

where \mathbf{W} is the adjacency matrix, and \mathbf{v}, λ are the eigenvectors and eigenvalues respectively.

Although many variations of graph Laplacians exist (Luxburg, 2007), we focus on the normalised graph Laplacian \mathbf{L} (Ng et al., 2002) defined as:

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} \quad (3)$$

where \mathbf{W} is the adjacency matrix, with $w_{i,j} = w_{j,i} \geq 0$, \mathbf{D} is the degree matrix and \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix. The smallest eigenvalue of \mathbf{L} is 0, which corresponds to the eigenvector $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{1}$. The \mathbf{L} matrix is always positive semi-definite and has n non-negative real-valued eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$. The computational cost of spectral clustering algorithms is quite low when matrices are sparse. Luckily, we make use of k -nn graphs which are in fact sparse.

In the proposed method, we perform eigenanalysis on \mathbf{L} matrix, where \mathbf{W} is defined as:

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{S} \odot \mathbf{A}, \quad (4)$$

\mathbf{S} represents the full similarity matrix obtained using (1) and \mathbf{A} represents an undirected k -nn matrix, which is a sparse matrix. The \odot operator performs element-wise multiplication. This process results in a sparse matrix \mathbf{W} , only containing elements in places where \mathbf{A} matrix contains elements. An example of the \odot operator is illustrated in Figure 1. Eigenvalues are always ordered increasingly, respecting multiplicities, and the first k eigenvectors correspond to the k smallest eigenvalues. Once the eigenanalysis has been performed and the new representation of the data has been obtained, the k -means algorithm is used in order to attach a cluster to every data sample.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
& \mathbf{S} & \\
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.1 & 0.4 & 0.6 & 0.8 & 0.7 \\ 0.1 & 1 & 0.5 & 0.8 & 0.1 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.5 & 1 & 0.6 & 0.9 & 0.5 \\ 0.6 & 0.8 & 0.6 & 1 & 0.6 & 0.9 \\ 0.8 & 0.1 & 0.9 & 0.6 & 1 & 0.2 \\ 0.7 & 0.4 & 0.5 & 0.9 & 0.2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \odot & \begin{array}{ccc} & \mathbf{A} & \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & = & \begin{array}{ccc} & \mathbf{W} & \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.8 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0.8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0.6 & 0.9 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.8 & 0.6 & 1 & 0 & 0.9 \\ 0.8 & 0 & 0.9 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.9 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \end{array}
\end{array}$$

Figure 1: The \mathbf{S} matrix represents the full similarity matrix constructed using (1). The \mathbf{A} matrix represents a k -nn graph, which has undergone genetic operators. The \odot operator performs element-wise multiplication, resulting in a sparse matrix \mathbf{W} , which only contains elements in places where \mathbf{A} matrix contains elements.

3 THE PROPOSED ALGORITHM

In order to partition a dataset into clusters, spectral graph clustering has been applied on evolving k -nn similarity graphs. In more detail, we evolve a number of k -nn similarity graphs with the aid of a genetic algorithm, in order to optimise the structure of the graph, by optimising a clustering criterion. In this paper, clustering criteria were employed as fitness functions. Moreover, k -nn similarity graphs are transformed properly into chromosome solutions, in order to be used in the genetic algorithm.

Let J be a clustering criterion that depends on the similarity graph \mathbf{W} . However, the optimisation problem is not convex and moreover the fitness function is not differentiable with respect to \mathbf{W} . Since \mathbf{S} is considered constant after selecting a specific similarity function and through the definition of \mathbf{W} in (4), the optimisation problem is defined as:

$$\underset{\mathbf{A}}{\text{optimise}} J(\mathbf{A}), \quad (5)$$

where $\mathbf{A}_{i,j} \in 0, 1$ is a k -nn graph.

3.1 Construction of Initial Population

In our algorithm, we do not make use of the full similarity matrix S , in order to create the initial population, mainly for time and space efficiency reasons. Instead, we use the sparse matrices that originate from k -nn graphs, resulting in an initial population that consists of matrices with binary elements. The employment of the k -nn graphs, for the construction of the initial population, was based on the observation that their structure was already good (also they are sparse graphs), thus, we could find a new structure of the graphs so as to obtain better clustering results. Also, efforts to use only random sparse matrices, as initial population, have been made in order to gain completely different structures of the graphs, which led to worse results, thus, not presented here.

In this method, a Gaussian function has been employed as a similarity measure, in order to obtain the

similarity matrix \mathbf{S} , which is calculated pairwise for all the data in a database of our choice, using (1). Our experiments showed that the value of σ has a decisive role to the performance of the algorithm, thus, several, arbitrary rules exist, concerning the choice of σ ; in the proposed method, we have used multiples of the data diameter.

First, we calculate k -nearest neighbour matrices \mathbf{A} , with $k = 3, \dots, 8$, which constitute the backbone of the initial population. Next step is to enrich the population with nearly k -nearest neighbour matrices. In order to achieve that, we alter the k -nearest neighbour matrices that have already been calculated, by converting a small proportion of 0's, from \mathbf{A} matrices, to 1's and vice versa. This process guarantees that the proportion of 1's and 0's will remain the same in the new matrix. It is important not to alter the k -nn graphs completely, so as to keep all the good properties. Finally, a small proportion of completely random matrices are added, in order to increase the population diversity, in which the number of 1's are equal to the number of 1's that a 5-nn graph would have.

From the various experiments conducted, we have concluded that the selection of the parameter k of the nearest neighbour graphs is crucial to the clustering results, as illustrated in Figure 2. Figure 2(a) presents a dataset that consists of two classes with each one having a different colour. Figures 2(b) and 2(c) represent the clustering results when a 3 and a 5-nearest neighbour graph were used, respectively. We should highlight the difference between the clustering results, especially when the elements are close to both classes.

Before proceeding to the algorithm, we must define the way that the k -nn matrices, and variants of these matrices, in the initial population are transformed into chromosomes, thus, we need to define how a square matrix becomes a one-dimensional vector. As the k -nn graphs \mathbf{A} are constructed in such a way to be symmetrical, we may only keep the elements of the upper triangular matrix, with no loss of information. Then, the remaining elements are accessed in rows, forming the one-dimensional vector

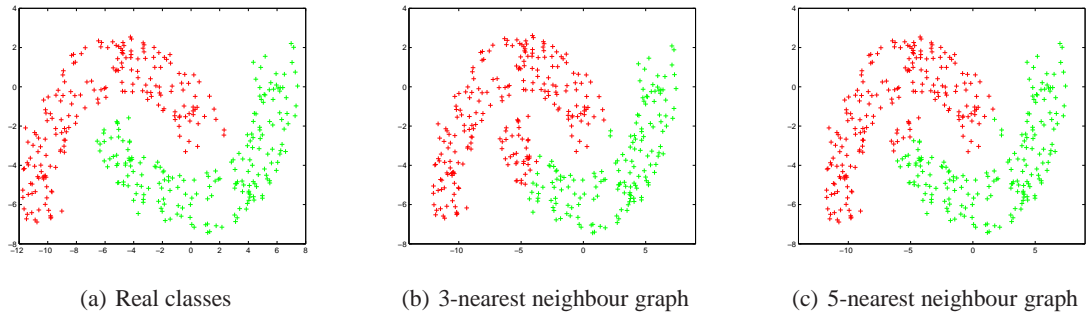


Figure 2: The effect of k -nearest neighbour graphs in clustering. In Figure 2(a) the two classes of the dataset are presented. Figures 2(b) and 2(c) represent the clustering results when a 3 and a 5-nearest neighbour graph were used, respectively. Notice the difference in clustering results especially when the data are close to both classes.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ & & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ & & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow [000100100110010]$$

Figure 3: The way a k -nn graph \mathbf{A} is transformed into a, one-dimensional vector, chromosome. We only keep the elements of the upper diagonal, as the matrix is constructed to be symmetric, resulting in a matrix like the one in the middle. Then, this matrix is accessed horizontally, in order to obtain the desirable result, the chromosome.

(Figure 3).

3.2 Optimisation of the Solutions

The novelty of the proposed algorithm is based on the way that we select to optimise the solutions of the problem, by optimising a clustering criterion J , as previously defined in (5). Clustering criteria are divided into two main categories, internal and external criteria. The calculation of internal criteria implies that we have no prior knowledge about the data and we can only depend on quantities and features inherent to the dataset, whereas calculation of external criteria implies that we have some knowledge about the dataset in advance (i.e. ground truth).

In the recent literature, many different clustering criteria (Vendramin et al., 2009) have been proposed. Some of the most common internal criteria are Calinski-Harabasz index (Caliński and Harabasz, 1974), Davies-Bouldin index (Davies and Bouldin, 1979) and Dunn's index (Dunn, 1974), whereas some external criteria are purity (Zhao and Karypis, 2001), F -measure (Zu Eissen and Wißbrock, 2003), a measure based on hungarian algorithm (Munkres, 1957) and normalised mutual information (He et al., 2005). All the aforementioned criteria have been used both for optimisation and evaluating the performance of the algorithm.

As the value of such criteria cannot be optimised,

without the use of derivatives, we have employed evolutionary techniques in order to solve this problem. The optimisation is performed by altering the chromosomes or, else, by altering the k -nn similarity matrices \mathbf{A} as in (2).

3.3 The Genetic Cycle

As we have already defined how the initial population is formed and how the chromosome evaluation is performed, we may now define the details of the genetic algorithm.

Evolutionary algorithms solve problems based on operators inspired from biology. The first step of the genetic algorithm is to select the chromosomes which will undergo the crossover operator. For this purpose, a roulette wheel method has been employed (De Jong, 1975), where a probability is associated with each chromosome, based on the value of the fitness function: the higher the value, the higher the probability to be selected. The probability p_i of the i -th chromosome to be selected, if f_i is its fitness value is defined as:

$$p_i = \frac{f_i}{\sum_{j=1}^N f_j}. \quad (6)$$

Next, we combine the selected chromosomes, based on the crossover rate which was set to 0.7, in order to produce new ones. In the proposed algorithm, a single crossover point is randomly selected

for every set of chromosomes and the sub-sequences that are formed are exchanged respectively. Then, we randomly choose a small proportion of the chromosomes, based on the mutation rate which was set to 0.4, to undergo mutation, that is the random change of some elements of a chromosome. In order to guarantee that the newly produced chromosomes will not have been altered too much we perform mutation by converting 1% of 0's to 1's and vice versa.

After the application of genetic operations to the chromosomes, the new generation has been formed. In order to perform spectral clustering (Section 2.2), we need to reconstruct the k -nearest neighbour matrix \mathbf{A} , which will consist of binary digits, from the one-dimensional vector chromosome. Then we apply the similarity matrix \mathbf{S} on \mathbf{A} using the \odot operator, in order to obtain the \mathbf{W} as illustrated in Figure 1. Spectral clustering (Ng et al., 2002) may now be performed on \mathbf{L} as in (3).

The next step is to calculate the fitness values of all the newly produced chromosomes, and place them along with the parent-chromosomes. Then, elitism is performed: we sort all chromosomes, with the fittest being on the top, and we keep only those chromosomes with the highest fitness value, so as the number of the chromosomes kept to remain unchanged after every generation.

The proposed algorithm terminates when a maximum of 50 generations has been reached, or when the optimised criterion has not been altered for 5 consecutive generations.

3.4 Semi-supervised Learning

It is natural for many practical problems to consider that we only possess a proportion of labels in a dataset. Then, the problem of clustering can be transformed into how this small proportion of labels can be used in order to obtain a better clustering of the data. Semi-supervised learning (Chapelle et al., 2006), in machine learning, is a class of techniques which uses both labeled and unlabeled data, usually a small set of the former and a large set of the latter, in order to obtain clusters. In this paper, semi-supervised learning has been used in clustering, in order to optimise an external criterion.

In more detail, for some of the experiments, we have assumed that we possess a small proportion of labels l of the dataset, which are selected randomly once and, then, the same labeled data are used in every genetic cycle. Then, using only these l labels, we have computed the fitness value f of the population, by using one of the external criteria. The evaluation of the algorithm is performed using only the rest of the

Table 1: Datasets used.

Dataset	Duration	Classes	Size of dataset	# of features
Movie 1	02 : 06 : 21	21	1,222	152×152
Movie 2	01 : 44 : 31	41	1,435	150×150
Dataset	Source	Classes	Size of dataset	# of features
Libras				
Movement	UCI	15	360	90
Iris	UCI	3	150	4
folk dances		5	1012	1000

criteria (and not the one being optimised), which are also being calculated during every experiment. The overall value of a criterion is the value of an external criterion calculated as if we possessed the labels for the whole dataset. Thus, this technique uses both labeled and unlabeled data in order to obtain clusters. Essentially, only a small proportion of labels was used in this method for obtaining the fitness values of chromosomes, while the rest of the procedure remained unchanged.

4 EXPERIMENTS

In order to evaluate the proposed algorithm, we have conducted several experiments using 5 different datasets and exploiting several input parameters. The characteristics of the datasets used, are described in Table 1.

Datasets “Movie 1” and “Movie 2” consist mainly of facial images originate from movies, detected using a face detector. In the experiments the images were scaled, in order to have the same size, considering all the detected facial images of the movie clip and using a mean bounding box, from all bounding boxes that the face detector provided. A problem that might arise is that of anisotropic scaling: the images returned by the detector might have different height and width, which is problematic when scaling towards a mean bounding box, thus we calculate the bigger dimension of the bounding box and then we take the square box that equals this dimension centered to the original bounding box center. Datasets “Libras Movement” and “Iris” originate from UCI (Newman and Merz, 1998) and consist of less data than the rest. Lastly, the initial “Folk dances” dataset consists of 5 different traditional dances: Lotzia, Capetan Loukas, Ramna, Stankena and Zablitsena with 180, 220, 220, 201 and 192 videos respectively, from which histograms were extracted according to (Iosifidis et al., 2013). An example of the dataset is illustrated in Figure 4.

The size of the populations remained unchanged

Table 2: Libras Movement. Optimising F -measure % criterion.

σ	labels%	C	CH		DB		Dunn		Hungarian		NMI		F -measure %		Purity		F -measure	
			best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
0.89	10	14	161.47	131.35	0.67	0.76	0.10	0.07	48.06	45.93	0.64	0.63	0.68	0.64	0.50	0.48	0.51	0.49
1.33	20	15	167.21	110.02	0.61	0.79	0.08	0.04	45.93	45.83	0.63	0.62	0.59	0.57	0.50	0.48	0.50	0.48
2.66	20	14	141.89	101.17	0.69	0.70	0.05	0.08	47.41	42.96	0.62	0.61	0.58	0.55	0.50	0.46	0.51	0.48
5.32	10	14	127.39	110.85	0.70	0.75	0.12	0.07	45.28	44.72	0.63	0.61	0.69	0.66	0.48	0.47	0.51	0.49

Table 3: Iris. Optimising F -measure % criterion, $\sigma=3.83$.

σ	labels%	C	CH		DB		Dunn		Hungarian		NMI		F -measure %		Purity		F -measure	
			best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
3.83	5	3	140.68	134.05	0.67	0.74	0.23	0.13	74.67	70.67	0.59	0.59	0.83	0.78	0.76	0.74	0.77	0.75
3.83	10	3	161.40	82.17	0.49	0.89	0.16	0.04	65.56	58.22	0.48	0.33	0.80	0.71	0.68	0.60	0.69	0.62
3.83	All	3	359.03	162.73	0.60	0.53	0.28	0.07	85.11	69.78	0.69	0.49	-	-	0.85	0.72	0.85	0.72

Table 4: Folk dances dataset. Optimising Calinski-Harabasz criterion.

σ	labels%	C	Calinski-Harabasz		Davies-Bouldin		NMI		Purity	
			best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
0.45		5	77.803	40.665	2.116	3.317	0.32	0.255	0.468	0.434
0.9		5	71.026	38.309	2.745	3.252	0.281	0.271	0.441	0.434
1.8		5	74.923	43.649	2.292	3.013	0.312	0.291	0.469	0.463

Table 5: Movie 1. From top to bottom optimising Calinski-Harabasz, F -measure %, Purity % criteria.

σ	labels %	C	Calinski-Harabasz		Davies-Bouldin		Hungarian		Purity	
			best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
5000		21	161.239	121.659	1.165	1.162	20.922	20.758	0.468	0.475
15000		21	161.011	123.922	1.208	1.103	21.495	21.167	0.462	0.477
20000		21	149.195	121.413	1.169	1.072	21.113	20.404	0.459	0.475
σ	labels %	C	Hungarian		F -measure %		Purity		F -measure total	
			best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
20000	10	22	21.17	19.42	0.31	0.29	0.48	0.46	0.24	0.22
10000	20	22	21.79	19.99	0.29	0.26	0.47	0.48	0.23	0.23
15000	20	22	20.51	20.51	0.28	0.26	0.47	0.48	0.24	0.23
20000	20	22	20.73	19.37	0.29	0.27	0.49	0.47	0.24	0.23
σ	labels %	C	Hungarian		Purity %		Purity		F -measure	
			best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
5000	20	21	20.786	19.858	0.493	0.485	0.487	0.479	0.232	0.226
10000	20	20	21.877	21.304	0.504	0.493	0.483	0.473	0.245	0.240
15000	20	20	21.086	20.949	0.503	0.497	0.477	0.472	0.241	0.240



Figure 4: An example of Ramna dance, from the "Folk dances" dataset.

for all the experiments conducted and was set to 200 chromosomes. Every experiment was executed 3

times, so the results presented here are the average of these runs. We should highlight here that, in every experiment, only one clustering criterion c is being optimised. The values of the rest of the criteria are also calculated during every experiment only for evaluation reasons. In other words, the values of the rest of the criteria are not their best values as if they were being optimised themselves. Instead, their values depend on the clustering obtained by optimising the criterion c . Moreover, the optimisation of a single criterion does not necessarily mean that the rest of the criteria will also be improved, especially when the way in which the criteria are calculated differs a lot.

In Figure 5, results from "Movie 2" are illustrated, with "Purity %" being the optimised criterion and assuming that we possess 20% of the total labels. Axes

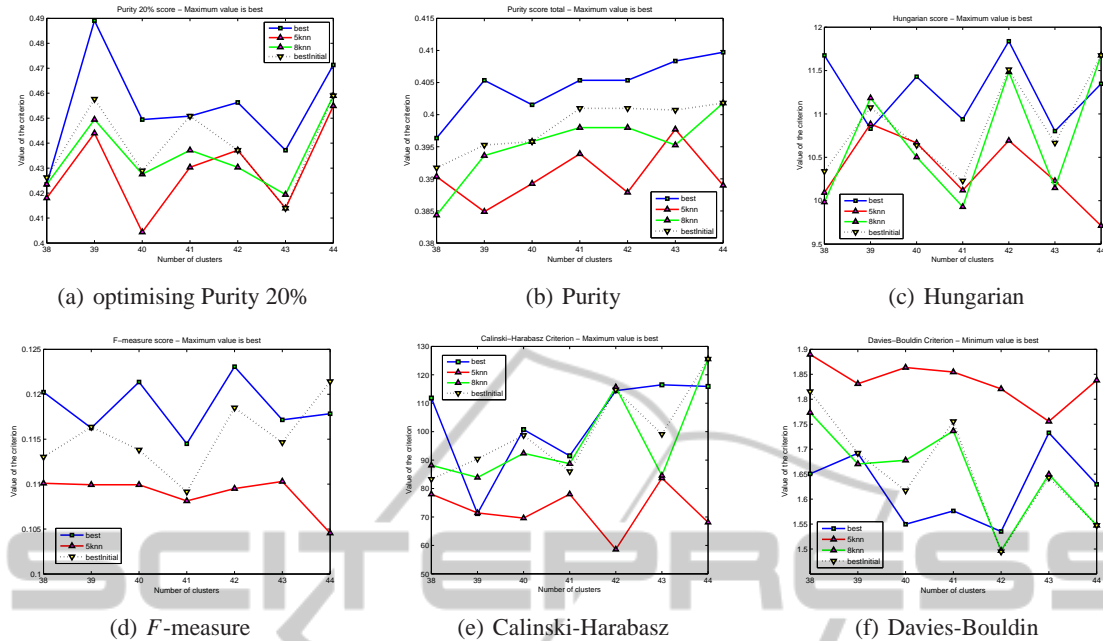


Figure 5: Results for dataset “Movie 2”. In every plot axis x, y represent the number of clusters and the value of each criterion respectively. The optimisation was performed using the technique of semi-supervised learning and assuming that we possess 20% of the labels. The parameter of heart kernel was set to $\sigma = 75$.

x, y represent the number of clusters and the value of each criterion, respectively. The “best” line, in the Figure 5(a) represents the values of this criterion after its optimisation, whereas in the rest figures of the criteria represents the value of the respective criterion (i.e. Purity, Hungarian, etc.) according to the best results of the optimised criterion (here, the “Purity%” criterion). The “5knn” and “8knn” lines represent the values of the criterion if clustering had been performed using the 5 and 8-nearest neighbour graph, respectively. The comparison with the results of the 5 and 8-nearest neighbour graphs is made as a baseline for our method, since, especially the 5-nearest neighbour graph, they are a common choice for data representation. Finally, the “bestInitial” line represents the results if the clustering would have been performed on the best initial population among the k -nn graphs, with $k = 3, \dots, 8$. When optimising “Purity %” criterion, the rest of the external criteria are also improving. Moreover, optimisation of “Purity %” seems to improve the clustering when the number of clusters was set equal to the number of classes, according to internal criteria. Notice that, the way the internal criterion “Davies-Bouldin” is defined, low values mean better clustering has been performed.

In Tables presented here, we have attempted to summarise some of the results of the datasets. The results of the proposed method are represented under the label “best”, while “5nn” represent the results of

the clustering if the 5-nn graph would have been employed to the data. Tables 2, 3 represent the results of the algorithm, when “F-measure %” external criterion was being optimised. For Tables 4, 5 and 6 the criteria being optimised are highlighted in every sub-table (from top to bottom “Calinski-Harabasz”, “F-measure %”, “Purity %”). The σ parameter is the heat kernel parameter as in (1), C is the number of clusters, and “labels %” is the percentage of the labels we assumed to possess (only for external criteria).

5 CONCLUSION

We have presented a novel algorithm that makes use of evolutionary algorithms in order to achieve good clustering results, with the aid of nearest neighbour graphs. It is important to remark that the algorithm is general and can be used to manipulate a wide variety of different problems, such as clustering and dimensionality reduction. The technique of using nearest neighbour graphs as initial population appears to yield satisfactory results, in terms of both internal and external criteria.

In the future, we aim to improve the proposed evolutionary algorithm, by optimising even different criteria, or even use multiple of them in order to decide which chromosome is best. We shall also focus our efforts on creating an even better initial population,

Table 6: Movie 2. From top to bottom optimising Calinski-Harabasz, F -measure %, Purity % criteria.

σ	C	Calinski-Harabasz		Davies-Bouldin		Hungarian		Purity	
		best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
25	40	81.917	70.737	1.240	1.204	15.889	15.447	0.400	0.398
50	41	76.269	69.302	1.144	1.257	16.353	15.819	0.410	0.408
75	41	78.449	66.245	1.226	1.200	16.121	15.981	0.401	0.402
150	40	82.090	66.393	1.183	1.248	16.167	15.772	0.403	0.391

σ	labels %	C	Hungarian		F -measure %		Purity		F -measure total	
			best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
50	10	40	16.19	15.77	0.33	0.32	0.41	0.39	0.17	0.17
25	20	41	15.96	15.42	0.26	0.24	0.40	0.40	0.17	0.17
50	20	41	16.26	15.96	0.25	0.23	0.41	0.41	0.17	0.17
75	20	41	16.33	16.28	0.25	0.25	0.40	0.40	0.17	0.17

σ	labels %	C	Hungarian		Purity %		Purity		F -measure	
			best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn	best	5nn
50	20	41	32.733	32.706	0.404	0.404	0.380	0.378	0.458	0.461
75	20	41	10.229	10.120	0.451	0.430	0.401	0.394	0.109	0.108
150	20	41	17.267	16.667	0.515	0.497	0.455	0.440	0.181	0.178

for example by including more than only random variations of the nearest neighbour graphs.

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