

Clustering Algorithms for High Dimensional Data Literature Review

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Abstract – In modern world, the complex data sets are growing. Clustering high dimensional data is challenging due to its dimensionality problem and it affects time complexity, space complexity, scalability and accuracy of clustering methods. This review will be more helpful to find clustering algorithms suitable for high dimensional data.

I. INTRODUCTION

In modern scientific and business domains, the high-dimensional data are involved. Clustering in high dimensional spaces presents much difficulty [1]. When talking about clustering high dimensional data, the clustering steps, Dimensionality Reduction, Subspace Clustering and Co-Clustering will be more helpful to address the problem of high dimension [20].

Clustering is helpful to understand the structure and abstract of the large data set [2]. Clustering methods are available for categorical data, spatial data, etc. Clustering methods are applied in object recognition, pattern recognition, image processing, text mining and information retrieval [21].

Clustering means partitioning data point into a set of groups. Simplification can be achieved by representing data in fewer clusters [3]. There are number of clustering algorithms introduced for clustering high dimensional data. It is broadly classified into partitioning and Hierarchical. Partitioning subdivided into K-means and K-medoids [8]. CLARA and CLARANS are popular to deal with large datasets. Hierarchical further classified into Agglomerative and Divisive. BIRCH, Chameleon, ROCK and CURE are examples of hierarchical method which deal with large amount of data [5]. Other categories of clustering methods are Model based clustering, Density based clustering, Grid-based clustering, and Constrained based clustering.

Cluster analysis has been an area of research for many decades. Many new methods are still being developed. In section 2, popular and mostly used clustering algorithms are discussed.

II. HIGH DIMENSIONAL DATA

A dataset with large amount of attributes or features is called high dimensional data. There are many application domains where the data is of considerably higher dimensionality such as spatial data, medical data, gene data, ecological data, social

media data, web log data, financial data, etc [4]. The dimensionality of data makes learning problems hardly amenable. In particular, the high dimensionality of data is a highly challenging factor for the clustering task [13]. The following problems need to be faced for clustering high-dimensional data:

- Curse of dimensionality.
- Concentration effects.
- Local feature relevance problem.
- In arbitrarily oriented affine subspaces.
- High-dimensional data could likely include irrelevant features, which may obscure the effect of the relevant ones.

Forthcoming section of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 3, we review clustering algorithms, based on the nature of generated clusters and techniques and theories behind them [10]. Furthermore, we discuss approaches for clustering large data sets, and high-dimensional data.

III. HIGH-DIMENSIONAL DATA CLUSTERING ALGORITHMS

This paper presents various clustering algorithms with by considering the problems of high dimensional such as time complexity, space complexity, scalability, etc. The overview of clustering taxonomy for high dimensional data is shown the figure 3.1.

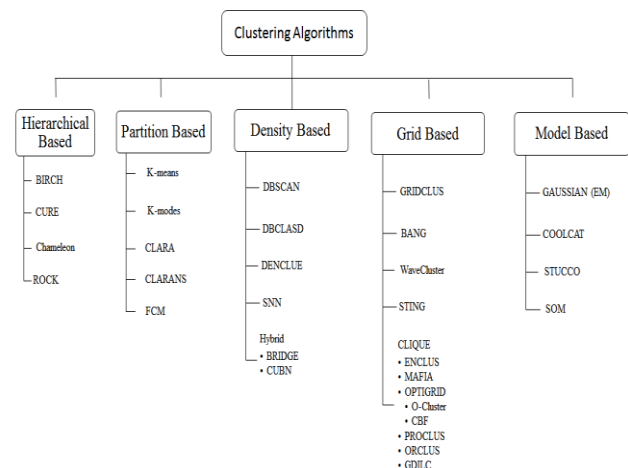


Fig 1. Overview of Clustering Algorithms

Hierarchical Based Clustering

Hierarchical clustering techniques is one of the clustering technique used for clustering of high dimensional data. Hierarchical clustering techniques works in two ways. One is Agglomerative (top-bottom) and another on is Divisive (bottom- top). In Agglomerative approach, initially starts with one object and successively merges the neighbour objects based on the distance (minimum, maximum and average) [9]. The process is continuous until a desired cluster is shaped. In Divisive approach, starts with set of objects as single cluster and divides them into further clusters until desired number of clusters are shaped. BIRCH [2], CURE [16], ROCK, Chameleon [6], Echidna, Wards, CACTUS are some of Hierarchical clustering.

Partition Based Clustering

All objects are considered initially as a single cluster. The objects are divided into number of partitions by iteratively locating the points between the partitions. The partitioning algorithms like K-means, K-modes, ROCK, CLARA, CLARANS, and FCM.

Density Based Clustering

Data objects are categorized into core points, border points and noise points. All the core points are connected together based on the densities to form cluster [7]. Arbitrary shaped clusters are formed by various clustering algorithms such as DBSCAN, DBCLASD, DENCLU, SUBCLU, SNN and hybrid clustering algorithms such as BRIDGE (which combines k-means and density based) and CUBN (which combines density based and distance based).

Grid Based Clustering

Grid based algorithm partitions the data set into number of cells to form a grid structure. Clusters are formed based on the grid structure [9]. To form clusters, Grid algorithm uses subspace and hierarchical clustering techniques. GRIDCLUST, BANG, STING, Wave cluster [11], CLIQUE, ENCLUS [14], MAFA [12], OptiGrid (O-cluster and CBF), PROCLUS, ORCLUS, GRIDCLUS, GDILC [9], FC and STIRR. Compare to all Clustering algorithms, Grid algorithms are very fast processing algorithms.

Model Based Clustering

Set of data points are connected together based on various strategies like statistical methods, conceptual methods, and robust clustering methods [19]. There are two approaches for model based algorithms one is neural network approach and another one is statistical approach [17]. Algorithms such as EM [19], COOLCAT, STUCCO, SOM [18], and SLINK are well known Model based clustering algorithms.

A. Hierarchical Based Clustering

BIRCH -Balanced Iterative Reducing and Clustering using Hierarchies

It is an unsupervised algorithm used to perform clustering on large datasets. It is the first clustering algorithm proposed in the database area to handle noise effectively

BIRCH Algorithm

Input: The dataset, threshold T , the maximum diameter (or radius) of a cluster R , and the branching factor B .
Step 1. (Load data into memory) An initial in-memory CF-tree is constructed with one scan of the data.
 Subsequent phases become fast, accurate and less order sensitive.
Step 2. (Condense into desirable range) Rebuild the CF-tree with a larger T .
Step 3. (Global clustering) Use the existing clustering algorithm on CF leaves.
Step 4. (Cluster refining) Do additional passes over the dataset and reassign data points to the closest centroid from step #3.
Output: Compute CF points, where $CF = (\# \text{ of points in a cluster } N, \text{ linear sum of the points in the cluster } LS, \text{ the square sum of } N \text{ data } SS)$.

CURE – Clustering Using REpresentatives

It is a novel hierarchical clustering algorithm that adopts a middle ground between the centroid-based and the all point extremes.

CURE Algorithm

Input: A set of points S
Step1: For every cluster u (each input point), in $u.mean$ and $u.rep$ store the mean of the points in the cluster and a set of c representative points of the cluster (initially $c = 1$ since each cluster has one data point) also $u.closest$ stores the cluster closest to u
Step2: All the input points are inserted into a k -d tree T
Step3: Treat each input point as separate cluster, compute $u.closest$ for each u and then insert each cluster into the heap Q
Step4: While $size(Q) > k$
Step5: Remove the top element of Q (say u) and merge it with its closest cluster $u.closest$ and compute the new representative points for the merged cluster w
Step6: Remove u and v from T and Q
Step7: For all the clusters x in Q , update $x.closest$ and relocate x
Step8: Insert w into Q
Step9: Repeat
Output: k clusters

Chameleon

The chameleon algorithm is a graph-based clustering algorithm. Given a similarity matrix of the database, construct a sparse graph representation of the data items based on the commonly used k -nearest neighbor graph approach. Finally, use the agglomerative hierarchical clustering algorithm to merge the most similar sub-clusters by taking into account the relative interconnectivity and closeness of the clusters.

Chameleon Algorithm

Input: the similarity matrix of the data set.
Step1: Find initial sub-clusters.
Step2: Use a graph-partitioning algorithm to partition the k -nearest neighbor graph of the database into a large number of sub-clusters such that the edge-cut is minimized.
Step3: Merge the sub-clusters generated in step 2 using a dynamic framework.
Output: Merge the similar sub-clusters.

ROCK –Robust Clustering using linKs

ROCK is an agglomerative hierarchical clustering algorithm that employs links to merge clusters. ROCK uses the link-based similarity measure to measure the similarity between two data points and between two clusters.

ROCK Algorithm

Input: n - number of data points, D - data set
Step1: for $i = 1$ to $n - 1$ do
Step2: for $j = i + 1$ to n do
Step3: Compute $\text{link}(p_i, p_j)$
Step4: end for
Step5: end for
Step6: for $i = 1$ to n do
Step7: Build a local heap $q[i]$ that contains every cluster C_j such that $\text{link}(C_i, C_j)$ is non-zero {at first, each data point forms a cluster}
Step8: end for
Step9: Build a global heap Q that is ordered in decreasing order of the best goodness measure and contains all the clusters
Step10: repeat
Step11: Merge the max cluster $C_j \in Q$ and the max cluster in $q[j]$ into a new cluster W , delete the two clusters from Q , and update link
Step12: until the number of links between every pair of the remaining clusters becomes zero or $\text{size}(Q) = k$
Output: Merge the clusters

Table 1. Computational Complexity and Scalability Analysis on Hierarchical based Clustering Algorithms

Algorithms	Computational Complexity	Scalability
BIRCH	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	Y
CURE	Time Complexity: $O(n^2 \log n)$ Space Complexity: $O(n)$	Y
Chameleon	Time Complexity: $O(nm + n \log n + m^2 \log m)$	Y
ROCK	Time Complexity: $O(n^2 + nm_m m_a + n^2 \log n)$ Space Complexity: $O(\min\{n^2, nm_m m_a\})$	Y

B. Partition Based Clustering**K-Means**

k-means is one of the simplest unsupervised learning algorithms that solve the well-known clustering problem.

k-Means Algorithm

Input: Data set D , Number of Clusters k , Dimensions d :
 $\{C_i \text{ is the } i^{\text{th}} \text{ cluster}\}$
 $\{1. \text{ Initialization Phase}\}$
Step1: $(C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k) = \text{Initial partition of } D$.
 $\{2. \text{ Iteration Phase}\}$
Step2: repeat
Step3: d_{ij} = distance between case i and cluster j
Step4: $n_i = \arg \min_{1 \leq j \leq k} d_{ij}$
Step5: Assign case i to cluster n_i
Step6: Re-compute the cluster means of any changed clusters above
Step7: until no further changes of cluster membership occur in a complete iteration
Output: Results

K-modes

The k-modes algorithm comes from the k-means algorithm, and it was designed to cluster categorical data sets. The main idea of the k-modes algorithm is to specify the number of clusters (say, k) and then to select k initial modes, followed by allocating every object to the nearest mode.

k-modes Algorithm

Input: Data set D , Number of Clusters k , Dimensions d :
Step1: Select k initial modes $Q = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k\}$, and q_i for cluster i
Step2: for $i = 1$ to n do
Step3: Find an l such that $d_{\text{sim}}(x_i, q_l) = \min_{1 \leq k \leq k} d_{\text{sim}}(x_i, q_k)$
Step4: Allocate x_i to cluster l
Step5: Update the mode q_l for cluster l
Step6: end for
Step7: repeat
Step8: for $i = 1$ to n do
Step9: Let l_0 be the index of the cluster to which x_i belongs
Step10: Find an l_1 such that $d_{\text{sim}}(x_i, q_{l_2}) = \min_{1 \leq t \leq k, t \neq l_0} d_{\text{sim}}(x_i, q_t)$
Step11: if $d_{\text{sim}}(x_i, q_{l_1}) < d_{\text{sim}}(x_i, q_{l_0})$ then
Step12: Reallocate x_i to cluster l_1
Step13: Update q_{l_0} and q_{l_1}
Step14: end if
Step15: end for
Step16: until No changes in cluster membership
Output: Results.

CLARA –Clustering LARge Application

CLARA algorithm randomly chooses a small portion of the actual data as a representative of the large data. A sample dataset D' is drawn from the original dataset D , and the PAM algorithm is applied to D' to find the k medoids. Calculate the current dissimilarity using these k medoids and the dataset D . If it is smaller than the previous iteration, then these k medoids are kept as the best k medoids. The whole process is performed iteratively till getting the best clusters.

CLARA Algorithm

Input: X, d, k
Step1: $\text{bestDissim} \leftarrow \infty$
Step2: for $t \leftarrow 1$ to S
Step3: do $X' \leftarrow \text{RANDOM-SUBSET}(X, s)$
Step4: $D \leftarrow \text{BUILD-DISSIM-MATRIX}(X', d)$
Step5: $(C', M) \leftarrow \text{PAM}(X', D, k)$
Step6: $C \leftarrow \text{ASSIGN-MEDIODS}(X, M, S)$
Step7: $\text{dissim} \leftarrow \text{TOTAL-DISSIM}(C, M, D)$
Step8: if $\text{dissim} < \text{bestDissim}$
Step9: then $\text{bestDissim} \leftarrow \text{dissim}$
Step10: $C_{\text{best}} \leftarrow C$
Step11: $M_{\text{best}} \leftarrow M$
Step12: return $(C_{\text{best}}, M_{\text{best}})$
Output: Best clusters

CLARANS –Clustering Large Applications based on RANdomized Search

CLARANS has two parameters: the maximum number of neighbors examined (Max neighbor) and the number of local minima obtained (numlocal). The higher the value of max neighbor, the closer is CLARANS to PAM, and the longer is each search of a local minima. But, the quality of such local minima is higher and fewer local minima need to be obtained.

CLARANS Algorithm

Input: Parameters numlocal and maxneighbor. Initialize i to 1, and mincost to a large number
Step1: Set current to an arbitrary node in G_n
Step2: Set j to 1
Step3: Consider a random neighbor S of current, and based on 5, calculate the cost differential of the two nodes
Step4: If S has a lower cost, set current to S , and go to Step 3
Step5: Otherwise, increment j by 1. If j maxneighbor, go to Step 4
Step6: Otherwise, when $j > \text{maxneighbor}$, compare the cost of current with mincost. If the former is less than mincost, set mincost to the cost of current and set bestnode to current
Step7: Increment i by 1. If $i > \text{numlocal}$, output bestnode and halt. Otherwise, go to Step 2
Output: Best node

FCM –Fuzzy C-Means

The FCM algorithm partitions X into c fuzzy clusters and find out each clusters center so that the cost function (objective function) of dissimilarity measure is minimization or below a certain threshold. FCM analyze membership value of each data in each cluster.

FCM Algorithm

Input: Given the dataset, set the desire number of clusters c , the fuzzy parameter m (a constant > 1), stopping condition, initialize the fuzzy partition matrix, and set $stop = false$

Step 1: Do:

Step 2: Calculate the cluster centroids and the objective value J

Step 3: Compute the membership values stored in the matrix

Step 4: If the value of J between consecutive iterations is less than the stopping condition, then $stop = true$

Step 5: While (!stop)

Output: A list of c cluster centres and a partition matrix are produced

Table 2. Computational Complexity and Scalability Analysis on Partition based Clustering Algorithms

Algorithms	Computational Complexity	Scalability
k-means	Time Complexity: $O(I * K * m * n)$ Space Complexity: $O((m+K)n)$	Y
k-modes	Time Complexity: $O(U)$	N
CLARA	Time Complexity: $O(ks^2 + k(n-k))$	Y
CLARANS	Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$	Y
FCM	Time Complexity: $O(tkNn^2)$	Y

C. Density Based Clustering

DBSCAN - Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise

Density based clustering algorithm has played a vital role in finding non-linear shapes structure based on the density. DBSCAN is most widely used density based algorithm. Only one input parameter is required, and the algorithm also supports the user in determining an appropriate value for this input parameter.

DBSCAN Algorithm

Input: Let $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$ be the set of data points. DBSCAN requires two parameters: ϵ (eps) and the minimum number of points required to form a cluster (minPts).

Step1: Start with an arbitrary starting point that has not been visited.

Step2: Extract the neighborhood of this point using ϵ (All points which are within the ϵ distance are neighborhood).

Step3: If there are sufficient neighborhood around this point then clustering process starts and point is marked as visited else this point is labelled as noise (Later this point can become the part of the cluster).

Step4: If a point is found to be a part of the cluster then its ϵ neighborhood is also the part of the cluster and the above procedure from step 2 is repeated for all ϵ neighborhood points. This is repeated until all points in the cluster is determined.

Step5: A new unvisited point is retrieved and processed, leading to the discovery of a further cluster or noise.

Step6: This process continues until all points are marked as visited.

DBCLASD –Distribution Based Clustering of Large Spatial Databases

DBCLASD is an incremental algorithm, i.e. the assignment of a point to a cluster is based only on the points processed so far without considering the whole cluster or even the whole database. DBCLASD incrementally augments an initial cluster by its neighboring points as long as the nearest

neighbor distance set of the resulting cluster still fits the expected distance distribution.

DBCLASD Algorithm

Input: initialize the points of db as being assigned to no cluster

Step1: initialize an empty list of candidates

Step2: initialize an empty list of unsuccessful candidates

Step3: initialize an empty set of processed points

Step4: for each point p of the database db do

Step5: if p has not yet been assigned to some cluster then

Step6: create a new cluster C and insert p into C

Step7: reinitialize all data structures for cluster C

Step8: expand cluster C by 29 neighboring points

Step9: for each point p_1 of the cluster C do

Step10: answers := retrieve_neighborhood(C, p_1)

Step11: update_candidates($C, answers$)

Step12: end for each point p_1 of the cluster C

Step13: expand_cluster(C)

Step14: end if p has not yet been assigned to some cluster

Step15: end for each point of the database

Step16: procedure expand_cluster (cluster C)

Step16: procedure expand_cluster (cluster C)

Step17: change := TRUE

Step18: while change do

Step19: change := FALSE

Step20: while the candidate list is not empty do

Step21: remove the first point p from the candidate list

Step22: assign it to cluster C

Step23: if distance set of C still has the expected distribution then

Step24: answers := retrieve_neighborhood(C, p)

Step25: update_candidates($C, answers$)

Step26: change := TRUE

Step27: else

Step28: remove p from the cluster C

Step29: insert p into the list of unsuccessful candidates

Step30: end if distance set still has the expected distribution

Step31: end while the candidate list is not empty

Step32: list of candidates := list of unsuccessful candidates

Step33: end while change

Step34: listOfPoints procedure retrieve_neighborhood(cluster C ; point p)

Step35: calculate the radius m according to (ii) in section 4.1

Step36: return result of circle query with center p and radius m

Step37: procedure update_candidates(cluster C ; listOfPoints points)

Step38: for each point in points do

Step39: if point is not in the set of processed points then

Step40: insert point at the tail of the list of candidates

Step41: insert point into the set of processed points

Step42: end if point is not in the set of processed points

Step43: end for each point in points

DENCLUE -DENSITY-based CLUstEring

The DENCLUE algorithm works in two steps. Step one is a pre-clustering step, in which a map of the relevant portion of the data space is constructed. The map is used to speed up the calculation of the density function which requires to efficiently access neighboring portions of the data space. The second step is the actual clustering step, in which the algorithm identifies the density-attractors and the corresponding density-attracted points.

DENCLUE Algorithm

Input: The dataset, σ , and ξ .

Step1: Take dataset in a map which has each side is of 2σ , consider only populated cubes.

Step2: Calculate the mean of each populated cubes.

Step3: Find highly populated cubes.

Step4: Determine the connection between each highly populated cube, and other cubes (Highly or just populated cubes) by the distance between their means. If $d(\text{mean}(c_1), \text{mean}(c_2)) < 4\sigma$, then the two cubes are connected.

Step5: Only the highly populated cubes and cubes which are connected to a highly populated cube are considered in determining clusters.

Step6: Find the representative of the hyper-cube.

Step7: Connecting the representatives of hyper-cubes having the same path to form a cluster.

Output: Assignment of data values to clusters.

SNN –Shared Near Neighbour Graph)

Initially, the SNN algorithm finds the K nearest neighbours of each point of the dataset. The similarity between pairs of points is calculated in terms of how many nearest neighbours the two points share. The points are classified as core points, if the density of the point is equal or greater than MinPts (core point threshold). If any points that are not classified into any cluster will be classified as noise points.

SNN Algorithm

Input: K, the neighbours' list size, Eps, the threshold density, MinPts, the threshold that define the core points.

Step1: Identify the k nearest neighbours for each point (the k points most similar to a given point, using a distance function to calculate the similarity).

Step2: Calculate the SNN similarity between pairs of points as the number of nearest neighbours that the two points share. The SNN similarity is zero if the second point is not in its list of k nearest neighbours, and vice-versa.

Step3: Calculate the SNN density of each point: number of nearest neighbours that share Eps or greater neighbours.

Step4: Detect the core points. If the SNN density of the point is equal or greater than MinPts then classify the point as core.

Step5: Form the cluster from the core points. Classify core points into the same cluster if they share Eps or greater neighbours.

Step6: Identify the noise points. All non-core points that are not within a radius of Eps of a core point is classified as noise.

Step7: Assign the remainder points to the cluster that contains the most similar core point.

Output: Assignment of data values to clusters.

Hybrid Clustering Algorithm

BRIDGE (Combines k-means and density based)

BRIDGE, which integrates the popular k-means algorithm and the density-based algorithm DBSCAN. BRIDGE enables DBSCAN to handle very large databases and at the same time improves the quality of k-means clusters by removing noise.

BRIDGE Algorithm

Input: k: number of clusters.

Step1: Run the k-means algorithm and label each data point with the k-means cluster ID and core/ ϵ -core/noncore.

Step2: Determine ϵ and N_{min} for DBSCAN.

Step3: Run DBSCAN for core and ϵ -core points of each k-means cluster.

Step4: Run DBSCAN for all core and noncore points.

Step5: Resolve multiple cluster IDs.

Step6: Run the k-means algorithm without the noise found in DBSCAN, taking earlier centers as initial points.

CUBN (Combines density based and distance based)

The CUBN algorithm consists of three phases. At the first phase, the erosion operation is used to find border points. Then the nearest neighbor method is used to cluster the border points. Finally, the nearest neighbor method is employed to cluster the inner points.

CUBN Algorithm

Algorithm for Finding border points

Input: the data set S (n points in d-dimensional space), p – the value in the matrix B

Step1: $r = p/\sqrt{2}$

Step2: for each column b in matrix B

Step3: for each point in x in S

Step4: $\{k = \# \{y \mid y \in O(x + b, r) \cap S\}\}$

Step5: if $k = 0$

Step6: $C \leftarrow C \cup \{x\}$

Output: C – a set of border points

Algorithm for clustering border points

Input: C – a set of border points

Step1: regard the C as the initial PC, i.e., $PC \leftarrow C$;

Step2: repeat

Step3: for each PC_i and PC_j

Step4: if $\exists u \in PC_i, \exists v \in PC_j$, and distance $(u, v) \leq \epsilon$

Step5: merge PC_i and PC_j , i.e., $PC_i \leftarrow PC_i \cup PC_j$

Step6: until no change

Output: PC – a set of border clusters

Algorithm for clustering inner points

Input: PC – a set of border cluster

Step1: $Z \leftarrow S - C$, i.e., Z is the set of all inner points

Step2: $RC \leftarrow \emptyset$

Step3: while $Z \neq \emptyset$

Step4: $I = \emptyset$

Step5: for each inner point x

Step6: for each PC_i

Step7: if $\exists y \in PC_i$ and distance $(x, y) \leq \epsilon$

Step8: $I_i \leftarrow I_i \cup \{x\}$

Step9: $Z \leftarrow Z - \{x\}$

Step10: $PC \leftarrow I$

Step11: $RC \leftarrow RC \cup I$

Output: RC – a set of clusters

Table 3. Computational Complexity and Scalability Analysis on Density based Clustering Algorithms

Algorithms	Computational Complexity	Scalability
DBSCAN	Time Complexity: $O(m \log m)$ Space Complexity: $O(m)$	N
DBSCAN	Time Complexity: $O(3n^2)$	Y
DENCLUE	Time Complexity: $O(\log D)$	Y
SNN	Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$	Y
BRIDGE	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	Y
CUBN	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	N

D. Grid Based Clustering

GRIDCLUS – GRIDCLUSTERing

GRIDCLUS Algorithm

Algorithm GRIDCLUS

Step1: Initialization

Step2: Create the Grid Structure

Step3: Calculate the block densities D_{B_i}

Step4: Generate a sorted block sequence $S = \langle B_1, B_2, \dots, B_b \rangle$

Step5: Mark all blocks 'not active' and 'not clustered'

Step6: while a 'not active' block exist do

Step7: $u := u + 1$

Step8: Find active blocks $B_i \dots B_j$

Step9: for each 'not clustered' block $B_k := B_i \dots B_j$ do

Step10: create a new cluster set $C[u]$

Step11: $W[u] := W[u] + 1$

Step12: $C[u, W[u]] \leftarrow B_k$

Step13: mark block B_k clustered

Step14: NEIGHBOR-SEARCH($B_k, C[u, W[u]]$)

Step15: endfor

Step16: for each 'not active' block B_i do

Step17: $W[u] := W[u] + 1$

Step18: $C[u, W[u]] \leftarrow B_i$

Step19: endfor

Step20: Mark all blocks 'not clustered'

Step21: endwhile

end GRIDCLUS

Procedure NEIGHBOR-SEARCH(B, C)

Step22: for each 'active' and 'not clustered' neighbor B_n of B do

Step23: $C \leftarrow B_n$

Step24: mark block B_n clustered

Step25: NEIGHBOR-SEARCH(B_n, C)

Step26: endfor

end NEIGHBOR-SEARCH

BANG

In the BANG-clustering system, the feature space into is partitioned into a hierarchical set of grid regions and each grid region is assigned a unique identity (r, l) , where r is the region number and l is the level number. The blocks are sorted according to their density indices. Blocks with the highest density index become clustering centers and the remaining blocks are clustered iteratively in order of their density indices and the remaining blocks either build new cluster centers or merge with existing clusters.

BANG Algorithm

- Step1:** Partition the feature space into rectangular grids such that each grid contains up to a maximum of p_{\max} data points.
- Step2:** Construct a binary tree to maintain the populated grids, in which the partition level according to the node depth in the tree.
- Step3:** Calculate the dendrogram in which the density indices of all regions are calculated and sorted in decreasing order.
- Step4:** Starting with the highest-density region (i.e., the first region), determine all the neighbors and classify them in decreasing order. BANG Clustering places the found regions to the right of the original regions in the dendrogram.
- Step5:** Repeat step 4 for the remaining regions of the dendrogram.

WaveCluster

WaveCluster is an algorithm for clustering spatial data based on wavelet transforms. WaveCluster is insensitive to noise, capable of detecting clusters of arbitrary shape at different degrees of detail, and efficient for large databases.

WaveCluster Algorithm

- Step1:** Partitions the original data space into non-overlapping hyper-rectangles, i.e., cells.
- Step2:** The j^{th} dimension is segmented into m_j intervals.
- Step3:** Each cell c_i is the intersection of one interval from each dimension and has the form $(c_{i1}, c_{i2}, \dots, c_{id})$, where $c_{ij} = [l_{ij}, h_{ij})$ is the right open interval in the partitioning of the j^{th} dimension and d is the number of dimensions.
- Step4:** A point $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$ is said to be contained in a cell x_i if $l_{ij} \leq x_j < h_{ij}$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, d$.
- Step5:** Let $c_i \cdot \text{count}$ denote the number of points contained in the cell c_i .
- Step6:** a wavelet transforms to $c_i \cdot \text{count}$ values.
- Step7:** transformed space is defined as the set of cells after the wavelet transformation on the count values of the cells in the quantized space.

STING –Statistical Information Grid-based clustering method

STING is a query-independent approach since the statistical information exists independent of queries. The computational complexity of STING for cluster is $O(K)$, and this is quite efficient in clustering large data sets especially when $K \ll N$.

STING Algorithm

- Step1:** Construct the grid hierarchical structure according to the database and generate the parameters of each cell.
- Step2:** Determine a layer to begin with
- Step3:** For each cell in this layer, compute the confidence interval of the probability that this cell is relevant to the query
- Step4:** if this layer is not the bottom layer then
- Step5:** Go to the next level in the hierarchy structure and go to step 3 for the relevant cells of the higher-level layer
- Step6:** else if the specification of the query is met then
- Step7:** Find the regions of relevant cells and return those regions that meet the requirements of the query
- Step8:** else
- Step9:** Reprocess the data in the relevant cells and return the results that meet the requirements of the query
- Step10:** end if

CLIQUE

CLIQUE is a clustering algorithm that is able to identify dense clusters in subspaces of maximum dimensionality. The CLIQUE algorithm consists of three steps. In the first step, the subspaces that contain clusters are identified. In the second step, the clusters embedded in the subspaces identified in step 1 are found. Finally, a minimal description of each cluster is generated.

ENCLUS –Entropy-based CLUStering

ENCLUS is an entropy-based subspace clustering algorithm for clustering numerical data. It can find arbitrarily shaped clusters embedded in the subspaces of the original data space. It follows similar approaches suggested by CLIQUE, but does not make any assumptions about the cluster shapes and hence is capable of finding arbitrarily shaped clusters embedded in subspaces.

ENCLUS Algorithm

- Input:** D-Data set, ω -Entropy threshold, γ -Interest threshold
- Step1:** Let $l \leftarrow 1$ and C_1 be one-dimensional subspaces
- Step2:** while $C_l \neq \emptyset$ do
- Step3:** for all $c \in C_l$ do
- Step4:** Calculate the density $f_c(\cdot)$
- Step5:** Calculate the entropy $H(c)$ from $f_c(\cdot)$
- Step6:** if $H(c) < \omega$ then
- Step7:** if $\text{interest}(c) > \gamma$ then
- Step8:** $S_l \leftarrow S_l \cup c$;
- Step9:** else
- Step10:** $NS_l \leftarrow NS_l \cup c$
- Step11:** end if
- Step12:** end for
- Step13:** end for
- Step14:** Generate C_{l+1} from NS_l
- Step15:** $l \leftarrow l + 1$
- Step16:** end while
- Output:** $U_1 S_l$ as significant subspaces

MAFIA – Merging of Adaptive Finite Intervals

MAFIA is a parallel subspace clustering algorithm using adaptive computation of the finite intervals in each dimension that are merged to explore clusters embedded in subspaces of a high dimensional data set. It is also a density- and grid-based clustering algorithm.

MAFIA Algorithm

- Input:** D_i – Domain of i^{th} attribute, N – Total number of data points in the data set, a – Size of the generic interval
- Step1:** for $i = 1$ to d do
- Step2:** Divide D_i into intervals of some small size x
- Step3:** Compute the histogram for each interval in the i^{th} dimension, and set the value of the window to the maximum in the window
- Step4:** From left to right, merge two adjacent intervals if they are within a threshold β
- Step5:** if number of bins $= 1$ then
- Step6:** Divide the i^{th} dimension into a fixed number of equal intervals and set a threshold β' for it
- Step7:** end if
- Step8:** end for

OPTIGRID

The OptiGrid clustering algorithm is a very efficient algorithm for clustering high-dimensional databases with noise.

OptiGrid Algorithm

Input: data set D, q, min_cut_score
Step1: Determine a set of contracting projections $P = \{P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ and calculate all the projections of the data set D: $P_i(D)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$
Step2: Initialize a list of cutting planes $BEST_CUT \leftarrow \emptyset$, $CUT \leftarrow \emptyset$
Step3: for $i = 0$ to k do
Step4: $CUT \leftarrow$ best local cuts $P_i(D)$
Step5: $CUT_SCORE \leftarrow$ Score best local cuts $P_i(D)$
Step6: Insert all the cutting planes with a score \geq min_cut_score into $BEST_CUT$
Step7: if $BEST_CUT = \emptyset$ then
Step8: Return D as a cluster
Step9: else
Step10: Select the q cutting planes of the highest score from $BEST_CUT$ and construct a multidimensional grid G using the q cutting planes
Step11: Insert all data points in D into G and determine the highly populated grid cells in G and add these cells to the set of clusters C
Step12: Refine C
Step13: for all clusters C_i in C do
Step14: Do the same process with data set C_i
Step15: end for
Step16: end if
Step17: end for

Variants of OptiGrid that were introduced to address the issues of the scalability of the grid structure, especially with respect to available memory, and a clear criterion for the selection of cutting planes. They are O-Cluster and CBF which is discussed in the below section.

O-cluster –Orthogonal partitioning CLUSTERing

A O-cluster introduced to address three limitations of OptiGrid. One is scalability in terms of data relative to memory size, second, lack of clear criterion to determine if a cutting plane is optimal or not, and third one is sensitivity to threshold parameters for noise and cut plane density.

O-cluster Algorithm

Input: Load data buffer.
Step1: Compute histograms for active partitions.
Step2: Find “best” splits for active partitions.
Step3: Flag ambiguous and “frozen” partitions.
Step4: Split active partitions.
Step5: Reload buffer.

CBF –Cell-Based Filtering

CBF focuses on the scalability of the grid structure, handling large data sets in memory, and the efficiency of insertion and retrieval of clusters from the grid structure. It also offers a clear criterion for a cutting plane.

CBF Algorithm

Input: Load Data.
Step1: Split each dimension into a set of partitions.
Step2: Optimal split section in each dimension.
Step3: Create cells from overlapping regions of the partitions in each dimension.
Step4: Insert the cells with higher density into the clusters in the index structure.
Step5: Provide the cluster information file by grouping clusters into sections.
Step6: For each sections of cluster
Step7: if density_of_section > threshold then
Step8: secondary_index = true
Step9: else
Step10: secondary_index = false

PROCLUS – (PRO)jected CLUSTERing

PROCLUS is a variation of the k-medoid algorithm in subspace clustering. The algorithm consists of three phases: the initialization phase, the iteration phase, and the refinement phase.

PROCLUS Algorithm

Input: D-Data set, k-Number of clusters, l-Average dimensions of cluster
Step1: Let A, B be constant integers
Step2: Draw a sample S of size $A \cdot k$ randomly
Step3: Let medoids set $M \leftarrow$ Greedy(S, $B \cdot k$)
Step4: Let $BestObjective \leftarrow \infty$ and $M_{curr} \leftarrow$ random set of medoids $\{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k\} \subset M$
Step5: repeat
Step6: Let δ_i be the distance to the nearest medoid from m_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$
Step7: Let L_i be the set of points in a sphere centered at m_i with radius δ_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$
Step8: $(P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k) \leftarrow$ FindDimensions(k, l, L_1, L_2, \dots, L_k)
Step9: $(C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k) \leftarrow$ AssignPoints(P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k)
Step10: Objective \leftarrow EvaluateClusters($C_1, \dots, C_k, P_1, \dots, P_k$)
Step11: if Objective < BestObjective then
Step12: Let $BestObjective \leftarrow$ Objective, $M_{best} \leftarrow M_{curr}$
Step13: Compute the bad medoids in M_{best}
Step14: end if
Step15: Compute M_{curr} by replacing the bad medoids in M_{best} with random points from M
Step16: until Stop criterion
Step17: $(P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k) \leftarrow$ FindDimensions(k, l, L_1, L_2, \dots, L_k)
Step18: $(C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k) \leftarrow$ AssignPoints(P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k)
Step19: Return $M_{best}, P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k$

ORCLUS –ORiented projected CLUSTER generation

ORCLUS is an extension of PROCLUS. It diagonalizes the covariance matrix of each cluster and finds information about projection subspaces from the diagonalization of the covariance matrix.

ORCLUS Algorithm

Input: D-Data set, k-Number of clusters, and l-Number of dimensions
Step1: Pick $k_0 > k$ initial data points from D and denote them by $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{k_0}\}$
Step2: Set $k_c \leftarrow k_0$ and $l_c \leftarrow d$
Step3: For each i, set P_i to be the original axis system
Step4: Set $\alpha \leftarrow 0.5$ and compute β
Step5: while $k_c > k$ do
Step6: $(s_1, \dots, s_{k_c}, C_1, \dots, C_{k_c}) \leftarrow$ Assign($s_1, \dots, s_{k_c}, P_1, \dots, P_{k_c}$) {find the partitioning induced by the seeds}
Step7: Set $k_{new} \leftarrow \max\{k, k_c \cdot \alpha\}$ and $l_{new} \leftarrow \max\{l, l_c \cdot \beta\}$
Step8: $(s_1, \dots, s_{k_{new}}, C_1, \dots, C_{k_{new}}, P_1, \dots, P_{k_{new}}) \leftarrow$ Merge($C_1, \dots, C_{k_c}, k_{new}, l_{new}$)
Step9: Set $k_c \leftarrow k_{new}$ and $l_c \leftarrow l_{new}$
Step10: end while
Step11: for $i = 1$ to k do
Step12: $P_i \leftarrow$ FindVectors(C_i, l)
Step13: end for
Step14: $(s_1, \dots, s_k, C_1, \dots, C_k) \leftarrow$ Assign($s_1, \dots, s_k, P_1, \dots, P_k$)
Step15: Output (C_1, \dots, C_k)

GDILC –Grid-based Density-IsoLine Clustering

GDILC is capable of eliminating outliers and finding clusters of various shapes. The distribution of data samples can be depicted very well by the so-called density-isoline figure. A grid-based method is employed to calculate the density of each data sample and find relatively dense regions.

GDILC Algorithm

Step1: (Initializing cells) Divide each dimension into m intervals
Step2: (Computing distance threshold RT) For each point x, compute the distances between x and every point in the neighbor cells of C_x . Then compute the distance threshold RT by calculating the average distance from those distances.
Step3: (Computing density vector and density threshold DT) For each point x, compute the density of x by counting the number of points within RT of x. Then compute the density threshold DT by calculating the average density from the density vector.
Step4: (Clustering) At first, take each point whose density is more than DT as a cluster. Then, for each point x, check whether the distance from x of each point whose density is more than DT in the neighbor cells of C_x is less than RT. If so, then merge the two clusters containing those two points. Continue the above merging process until all point pairs have been checked.
Step5: (Removing outliers) Remove those clusters whose sizes are less than a certain number.

Table 4. Computational Complexity and Scalability Analysis on Grid based Clustering Algorithms

Algorithms	Computational Complexity	Scalability
GRIDCLUS	Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$	Y
BANG	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	Y
WaveCluster	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	Y
STING	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	N
CLIQUE	Time Complexity: $O(n+k^2)$	Y
ENCLUS	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	Y
MAFIA	Time Complexity: $O(m^2+pN)$ Space Complexity: $O(mp+pN)$	Y
OPTIGRID	Time Complexity: $O(d \cdot N \cdot \log N)$	Y
O-cluster	Time Complexity: $O(Nd)$	Y
CBF	Time Complexity: $O(N)$	Y
PROCLUS	Time Complexity: $O(nkl)$	Y
ORCLUS	Time Complexity: $O(k_0^3 + k_0nd + k_0^2d)$	Y
GDILC	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	N

E. Model Based Clustering

Gaussian (EM)

This algorithm assumes apriori that there are 'n' Gaussian and then algorithm try to fits the data into the 'n' Gaussian by expecting the classes of all data point and then maximizing the maximum likelihood of Gaussian centers.

Gaussian(EM) Algorithm

Input: Let $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$ be the set of data points

$V = \{\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3, \dots, \mu_c\}$ be the set of means of Gaussian

$P = \{p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_c\}$ be the set of probability of occurrence of each Gaussian

Step1: On the i^{th} iteration initialize:

$$\lambda_i = \{\mu_i(t), \mu_i(t) \dots \mu_i(t), \Sigma_i(t), \Sigma_i(t) \dots \Sigma_i(t), p_i(t), p_i(t) \dots p_i(t)\}$$

Step2: E-Step - Compute the "expected" classes of all data points for each class using:

$$p(w_i | x_k, \lambda_i) = \frac{p(x_k | w_i, \lambda_i) p(w_i | \lambda_i)}{p(x_k | \lambda_i)} = \frac{p(x_k | w_i, \mu_i(t), \Sigma_i(t)) p_i(t)}{\sum_{j=1}^c p(x_k | w_j, \mu_j(t), \Sigma_j(t)) p_j(t)}$$

Step3: M-Step - Compute "maximum likelihood μ " given our data class membership distribution using

$$\mu_i(t+1) = \frac{\sum_k P(w_i | x_k, \lambda_i) x_k}{\sum_k P(w_i | x_k, \lambda_i)} \quad p_i(t+1) = \frac{\sum_k P(w_i | x_k, \lambda_i)}{R}$$

COOLCAT

COOLCAT algorithm is proposed to cluster categorical attributes using entropy. Given a data set D of N data points p^1, p^2, \dots, p^N , where each point is a multidimensional vector of d categorical attributes, i.e., $p^j = \{p_j^1, p_j^2, \dots, p_j^d\}$, the goal of this algorithm is to minimize the entropy of the whole arrangement.

COOLCAT Algorithm

Step1: Draw a sample data set S ($|S| \ll N$) from the entire data set, where N is the size of the entire data set

{1. Initialization phase}

Step2: Find the k most "dissimilar" records from the sample data set by maximizing the minimum pairwise entropy of the chosen data points {To do this, it first finds the two data points p_{i1}, p_{i2} such that the entropy $E(p_{i1}, p_{i2})$ is maximized, i.e., $E(p_{i1}, p_{i2}) \geq E(p_1, p_2) \forall p_1, p_2 \in S$, and then puts them in two separate clusters C_1, C_2 and marks the two data points; after it selects $j-1$ points, it will find the j^{th} point such that

$$\min_{i=1,2,\dots,j-1} (E(p_{si}, p_{sj}))$$

is maximized and then put this point in the j^{th} cluster C_i and mark this point.

{2. Incremental phase}

Step3: Process the unmarked $|S| - k$ data points in the sample data set S and the remaining data points (i.e., data points outside the sample). Given the k initial sets of clusters found in the first step, bring a batch of data $\tilde{C} = C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k$, points to the memory from disk and, for each data point p in this batch of data points, place p in cluster C_i and compute $\tilde{E}(\tilde{C}^i)$, where \tilde{C}^i denotes the cluster obtained by placing p in C_i , and then find the index j such that

$$\tilde{E}(\tilde{C}^j) \leq \tilde{E}(\tilde{C}^i) \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

and place p in cluster C_j . The above procedure is kept executing until all points have been assigned to some cluster.

STUCCO

In the algorithm STUCCO, a new concept of contrast-sets is defined in order to find the contrast-sets whose supports differ meaningfully among different groups. To do that, a method of tree searching is used to calculate all possible combinations of attribute values. One then retains the significant contrast-sets, post processes those contrast sets, and then selects a subset.

STUCCO Algorithm

Step1: Using canonical ordering of attributes to construct a search tree, scan the database, count the support for each group, and retain the significant contrast-sets.

Step2: Test the null hypothesis that contrast-set support is equal across all groups or contrast set support is independent of group membership to check whether a contrast-set is significant.

Step3: Prune the nodes that can never be significant contrast-sets.

Step4: Find surprising contrast-sets.

SOM –Self-Organizing Map

SOM is used for clustering data without knowing the class memberships of the input data. The SOM can be used to detect features inherent to the problem and thus has also been called SOFM, the Self-Organizing Feature Map

SOM Algorithm

Step1: Select output layer network topology – Initialize current neighborhood distance, $D(0)$, to a positive value

Step2: Initialize weights from inputs to outputs to small random values

Step3: Let $t = 1$

Step4: While computational bounds are not exceeded do

Step5: Select an input sample I_i

Step6: Compute the square of the Euclidean distance of I_i from weight vectors (w_i) associated with each output node

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (I_{i,k} - w_{j,k}(t))^2$$

Step7: Select output node j^* that has weight vector with minimum value from step 6)

Step8: Update weights to all nodes within a topological distance given by $D(t)$ from j^* , using the weight update rule:

$$w_j(t+1) = w_j(t) + \eta(t)(I_i - w_j(t))$$

Step9: Increment t

Step10: Endwhile Learning rate generally decreases with time:

$$0 < \eta(t) \leq \eta(t-1) \leq 1$$

Table 5. Computational Complexity and Scalability Analysis on Model based Clustering Algorithms

Algorithms	Computational Complexity	Scalability
Gaussian(EM)	Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$	N
COOLCAT	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	Y
STUCCO	Time Complexity: $O(n)$	N
SOM	Time Complexity: $O(1)$	Y

IV. CONCLUSION

The purpose of survey paper is to present a comprehensive view of different clustering algorithms available for high dimensional data. Clustering high dimensional data sets is apervasive task. The enormous growth in data in every domain, there is great growth in high dimensional data spaces. This study focuses on various algorithms available for high dimensional data. Computational complexity and scalability are examined thoroughly for all clustering algorithms. There are many potential applications like bioinformatics, text mining with high dimensional data where subspace clustering, projected clustering approaches could help to uncover patterns missed by state-of-art clustering approaches. The major challenge for clustering high dimensional data is to overcome

the “curse of dimensionality” [15]. This survey will be helpful to choose the right clustering algorithm for different applications.

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