

DATA MINING TECHNIQUES IN PROCESSING MEDICAL KNOWLEDGE

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Abstract: *Data mining is an evolving and growing area of research and development, both in academia as well as in industry. It involves interdisciplinary research and development encompassing diverse domains. In this age of multimedia data exploration, data mining should no longer be restricted to the mining of knowledge from large volumes of high-dimensional data sets in traditional databases only. The aim of the paper is to develop a new learning by examples PCA-based algorithm for extracting skeleton information from data to assure both good recognition performances, and generalization capabilities in case of large data set. The classes are represented in the measurement/feature space by continuous repartitions, that is the model is given by the family of density functions $(f_h)_{h \in H}$, where H stands for the finite set of hypothesis (classes). The basis of the learning process is represented by samples of possible different sizes coming from the considered classes. The skeleton of each class is given by the principal components obtained for the corresponding sample.*

Key words: *data mining; principal component analysis; fuzzy clustering; c-means algorithm; supervised learning; cluster analysis*

1. Introduction

The last decade has witnessed a revolution in interdisciplinary research where the boundaries of different areas have overlapped or even disappeared. New fields of research emerge each day where two or more fields have integrated to form a new identity. Examples of these emerging areas include bioinformatics (synthesizing biology with computer and information systems), data mining (combining statistics, optimization, machine learning, artificial intelligence, and databases), and modern heuristics (integrating ideas from tens of fields such as biology, immunology, statistical mechanics, and physics to inspire search techniques). These integrations have proved useful in substantiating problem-solving approaches with reliable and robust techniques to handle the increasing demand from practitioners to solve real-life problems.

In the old days, system analysts faced many difficulties in finding enough data to feed into their models. The picture has changed and since databases have grown exponentially, ranging in size into the terabytes within these masses of data being hidden information of strategic importance, the reverse picture becomes a daily problem-how to understand the large amount of data we have accumulated over the years. When there are so many trees, how do we draw meaningful conclusions about the forest? Research into statistics, machine learning, and data analysis has been resurrected. Unfortunately, with the amount of data and the complexity of the underlying models, traditional approaches in statistics, machine learning, and traditional data analysis fail to cope with this level of complexity. The need therefore arises for better approaches that are able to handle complex models in a reasonable amount of time.

The newest answer has been named data mining (sometimes data farming), to distinguish them from traditional statistics, machine learning and other data analysis techniques. In addition, decision makers were not interested in techniques that rely too much on the underlying assumptions in statistical models. The challenge is not to have any assumptions about the model and try to come up with something new, something that is not obvious or predictable (at least from the decision maker's point of view). Notwithstanding, models that are free from assumptions-or at least have minimum assumptions-are expensive to use because of the inherent complexity due to the high dimensionality of the processed data. The dramatic search space cannot be navigated using traditional searching techniques, and this has highlighted a natural demand for the use of a special tailored methodology. Data mining is a process that uses a variety of data analysis tools to discover patterns and relationships in data that may be used to make valid predictions.

According to the Gartner Group, "Data mining is the process of discovering meaningful new correlations, patterns and trends by sifting through large amounts of data stored in repositories, using pattern recognition technologies as well as statistical and mathematical techniques".

There are also other definitions:

- "Data mining is the analysis of (often large) observational data sets to find unsuspected relationships and to summarize the data in novel ways that are both understandable and useful to the data owner (Hand, 2001)
- "Data mining is an interdisciplinary field bringing together techniques from machine learning, pattern recognition, statistics, databases, and visualization to address the issue of information extraction from large data bases" (Cabena, 1998)

Data mining is an evolving and growing area of research and development, both in academia as well as in industry. It involves interdisciplinary research and development encompassing diverse domains. In this age of multimedia data exploration, data mining should no longer be restricted to the mining of knowledge from large volumes of high-dimensional data sets in traditional databases only. Researchers need to pay attention to the mining of different datatypes, including numeric and alphanumeric formats, text, images, video, voice, speech, graphics, and also their mixed representations. Fuzzy sets provide the uncertainty handling capability, inherent in human reasoning, while artificial neural networks help incorporate learning to minimize error. Genetic algorithms introduce effective parallel searching in the high-dimensional problem space.

2. Cluster analysis

Cluster analysis is a method of grouping data with similar characteristics into larger units of analysis. Since Zadeh, 1965, first articulated fuzzy set theory which gave rise to the concept of partial membership, based on membership functions, fuzziness has received increasing attention. Fuzzy clustering, which produce overlapping cluster partitions, has been widely studied and applied in various area (Bezdek, 1999).

So far, there have been proposed a relatively small number of methods for testing the existence/inexistence of a natural grouping tendency in a data collection, most of them being based on arguments coming from mathematical statistics and heuristic graphical techniques (Panayirci and Dubes, 1983, Smith and Jain, 1984, Jain and Dubes, 1988, Tukey, 1977, Everitt, 1978).

The data are represented by p -dimensional vectors, $X = (x_1, \dots, x_p)^t$, whose components are the feature values of a specified attributes and the classification is performed against a certain given label set. The classification of a data collection $\mathfrak{S} = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\} \subset \mathfrak{R}^p$ corresponds to a labelling strategy of the objects of \mathfrak{S} .

In the fuzzy approaches, the clusters are represented as fuzzy sets $(u_i, 1 \leq i \leq c)$, $u_i: \mathfrak{S} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, where $u_{ik} = u_i(X_k)$ is the membership degree of X_k to the i -th cluster, $1 \leq i \leq c$, $1 \leq k \leq n$. A c -fuzzy partition is represented by the matrix $U = \|u_{ik}\| \in M_{c \times n}$. The number of labels c has to be selected in advance, the problem of finding the optimal c is usually referred as cluster validation.

The main types of label vectors are *crisp* N_c , *fuzzy* N_p , and *possibilistic* N_{poz} , defined as follows,

$$N_c = \left\{ y \mid y \in \mathfrak{R}^c, y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_c), y_i \in \{0, 1\}, 1 \leq i \leq c, \sum_{i=1}^c y_i = 1 \right\} = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_c\}, \quad (1)$$

$$\text{where } (e_i)_j = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0, & i \neq j \\ 1, & i = j \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

$$N_p = \left\{ y \in \mathfrak{R}^c \mid y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_c), \forall i, y_i \in [0, 1], \sum_{i=1}^c y_i = 1 \right\}, \quad (3)$$

$$N_{poz} = \left\{ y \in \mathfrak{R}^c \mid y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_c), \forall i, y_i \in [0, 1], \exists j, y_j \neq 0 \right\}, \quad (4)$$

Obviously, $N_{poz} \supset N_p \supset N_c$. If we denote by $U = [U_1, \dots, U_n] = \|u_{ij}\|$ a partition of \mathfrak{S} , then, according to the types of label vectors, we get the c -partition types M_{poz} , M_p and M_c ,

$$M_{poz} = \left\{ U \mid U \in M_{c \times n}, U = [U_1, \dots, U_n], \forall k, U_k \in N_{poz}, \forall i, \sum_{k=1}^n u_{ik} > 0 \right\} \quad (5)$$

$$M_p = \left\{ U \mid U \in M_{poz}, \forall k, U_k \in N_p \right\} \quad (6)$$

$$M_c = \left\{ U \mid U \in M_p, \forall k, U_k \in N_c \right\} \quad (7)$$

Note that $M_c \subset M_p \subset M_{poz}$.

3. C-MEANS model

The C-MEANS algorithm is the most popular non-hierarchical iterative clustering algorithm. When it is applied on a set of data $\mathcal{X} = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^p$ the c-means finds some of the most natural c-groups existing in data.

C-Means Clustering Algorithm

- (1) Choose c cluster centers to coincide with c randomly-chosen patterns or c randomly defined points inside the hypervolume containing the pattern set.
 - (2) Assign each pattern to the closest cluster center according to a certain pre-specified metric or dissimilarity measure.
 - (3) Recompute the cluster centers using the current cluster memberships.
 - (4) If a convergence criterion is not met, go to step 2.
- else the computation is over and the current clusters correspond to the c - groups identified by the algorithm in the data.

Typical convergence criteria are: no (or minimal) reassignment of patterns to new cluster centers, or minimal decrease in squared error.

Several variants (Anderberg, 1973) of the c-means algorithm have been reported in the literature. Some of them attempt to select a good initial partition so that the algorithm is more likely to find the global minimum value.

In fuzzy clustering, the fuzzy c-means clustering algorithms are the best know and most powerful methods used in cluster analysis (Bezdek, 1981).

The variational problem corresponding to c-means model is given by

$$\min_{(U,V)} \{J_m(U, V; w)\} \tag{8}$$

where

$$J_m(U, V; w) = \sum_{i=1}^c \sum_{k=1}^n u_{ik}^m D_{ik}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^c w_i \sum_{k=1}^n (1 - u_{ik})^m$$

$U \in M_c / M_p / M_{pos}$, $V = (v_1, \dots, v_c) \in M_{c \times p}$, v_i is the centroid of the i -th cluster, $w = (w_1, \dots, w_c)^T$ is the penalties vector corresponding to the cluster system, $m \geq 1$ is the fuzzyfication degree, and $D_{ik}^2 = \|x_k - v_i\|^2$.

Let us denote by (\hat{U}, \hat{V}) a solution of (8). Then,

1. The crisp model:

$$(U, V) \in M_c \times M_{c \times p}; w_i = 0, 1 \leq i \leq c, \hat{u}_{ik} = \begin{cases} 1, D_{ik} \leq D_{ij}, i \neq j \\ 0, \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{9}$$

$$\hat{v}_i = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n \hat{u}_{ik} x_k}{\sum_{k=1}^n \hat{u}_{ik}}; \quad 1 \leq i \leq c, 1 \leq k \leq n \tag{10}$$

2. The fuzzy model:

$$(U, V) \in M_p \times M_{c \times p}; m > 1, w_i = 0, 1 \leq i \leq c$$

$$\hat{u}_{ik} = \left[\sum_{j=1}^c \left(\frac{D_{ik}}{D_{jk}} \right)^{\frac{2}{m-1}} \right]^{-1} \quad (11)$$

$$\hat{v}_i = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n u_{ik}^m x_k}{\sum_{k=1}^n u_{ik}^m}; \quad 1 \leq i \leq c, 1 \leq k \leq n \quad (12)$$

3. The possibilistic model:

$$(U, V) \in M_{pos} \times M_{c \times p}; \quad \forall i, w_i > 0$$

$$\hat{u}_{ik} = \left[1 + \left(\frac{D_{ik}^2}{w_i} \right)^{\frac{1}{m-1}} \right]^{-1}$$

$$\hat{v}_i = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n u_{ik}^m x_k}{\sum_{k=1}^n u_{ik}^m}; \quad 1 \leq i \leq c, 1 \leq k \leq n \quad (13)$$

The general scheme of a cluster procedure φ is ,

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t ← 0
repeat
  t ← t + 1
  Ut ← Fφ(Vt-1)
  Vt ← Gφ(Ut-1)
until (t = T or ||Vt - Vt-1|| ≤ ε)
(U, V) ← (Ut, Vt)

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where c is the given number of clusters, T is upper limit on the number of iterations, m is the weight parameter, $1 \leq m < \infty$, C is the terminal condition, w is the system of weights $\forall i, w_i > 0$, $V_0 = (v_{1,0}, \dots, v_{c,0}) \in M_{c \times p}$ is the initial system of centroids and F_φ, G_φ are the updating functions.

4. PCA-based algorithm for extracting skeleton information

In the following a new learning by examples PCA-based algorithm for extracting skeleton information from data to assure both good recognition performances, and generalization capabilities, is developed. Here the generalization capabilities are viewed twofold, on one hand to identify the right class for new samples coming from one of the classes taken into account and, on the other hand, to identify the samples coming from a new class. The classes are represented in the measurement/feature space by continuous repartitions, that is the model is given by the family of density functions $(f_h)_{h \in H}$, where H stands for the finite set of hypothesis (classes).

The basis of the learning process is represented by samples of possible different sizes coming from these classes. The skeleton of each class is given by the principal components obtained for the corresponding sample. The recognition algorithm identifies the class whose skeleton is the "nearest" to the tested example, where the closeness degree is expressed in terms of the amount of disturbance determined by the decision of allotting it to the corresponding class. The model is presented as follows. Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N be a series of n -dimensional vectors coming from a certain class C . The sample covariance matrix is

$$\Sigma_N = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \mu_N)(X_i - \mu_N)^T, \quad (14)$$

where $\mu_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$.

We denote by $\lambda_1^N \geq \lambda_2^N \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n^N$ the eigen values and by $\psi_1^N, \dots, \psi_n^N$ a set of orthonormal eigen vectors of Σ_N .

If X_{N+1} is a new sample, then, for the series $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N, X_{N+1}$, we get

$$\Sigma_{N+1} = \Sigma_N + \frac{1}{N+1} (X_{N+1} - \mu_N)(X_{N+1} - \mu_N)^T - \frac{1}{N} \Sigma_N \quad (15)$$

The computation can be carried out as follows.

$$\mu_{N+1} = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} X_i = \frac{N}{N+1} \mu_N + \frac{1}{N+1} X_{N+1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma_{N+1} &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} (X_i - \mu_{N+1})(X_i - \mu_{N+1})^T = \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \mu_{N+1})(X_i - \mu_{N+1})^T + \frac{1}{N} (X_{N+1} - \mu_{N+1})(X_{N+1} - \mu_{N+1})^T \end{aligned}$$

Obviously,

$$\frac{1}{N} (X_{N+1} - \mu_{N+1})(X_{N+1} - \mu_{N+1})^T = \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{N}{N+1} \right)^2 (X_{N+1} - \mu_N)(X_{N+1} - \mu_N)^T$$

For each $1 \leq i \leq N$, we have

$$X_i - \mu_{N+1} = X_i - \frac{N}{N+1} \mu_N - \frac{1}{N+1} X_{N+1} = X_i - \mu_N + \frac{1}{N+1} \mu_N - \frac{1}{N+1} X_{N+1}$$

Hence, taking into account that $\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \mu_N) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \mu_{N+1})(X_i - \mu_{N+1})^T &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(X_i - \mu_N + \frac{1}{N+1} \mu_N - \frac{1}{N+1} X_{N+1} \right) \left(X_i - \mu_N + \frac{1}{N+1} \mu_N - \frac{1}{N+1} X_{N+1} \right)^T = \\ &= \frac{N-1}{N} \Sigma_N + \frac{1}{N(N+1)} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \mu_N)(\mu_N - X_{N+1})^T + \frac{1}{N(N+1)} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mu_N - X_{N+1})(X_i - \mu_N)^T + \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{N+1} \right)^2 (\mu_N - X_{N+1})(\mu_N - X_{N+1})^T = \frac{N-1}{N} \Sigma_N + \left(\frac{1}{N+1} \right)^2 (\mu_N - X_{N+1})(\mu_N - X_{N+1})^T \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we finally obtain.

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma_{N+1} &= \frac{N-1}{N} \Sigma_N + \left(\frac{1}{N+1}\right)^2 (\mu_N - X_{N+1})(\mu_N - X_{N+1})^T + \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{N}{N+1}\right)^2 (X_{N+1} - \mu_N)(X_{N+1} - \mu_N)^T = \\ &= \frac{N-1}{N} \Sigma_N + \frac{1}{N+1} (X_{N+1} - \mu_N)(X_{N+1} - \mu_N)^T\end{aligned}$$

Lemma. In case the eigen values of Σ_N are distinct, the following first order approximations hold, (State, Cocianu & al., 2006)

$$\lambda_i^{N+1} = \lambda_i^N + (\psi_i^N)^T \Delta \Sigma_N \psi_i^N = (\psi_i^N)^T \Sigma_{N+1} \psi_i^N \quad (16)$$

$$\psi_i^{N+1} = \psi_i^N + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{(\psi_j^N)^T \Delta \Sigma_N \psi_i^N}{\lambda_i^N - \lambda_j^N} \psi_j^N \quad (17)$$

The skeleton of C is represented by the set of estimated principal components $\psi_1^N, \dots, \psi_n^N$. When the example X_{N+1} is included in C, then the new skeleton is $\psi_1^{N+1}, \dots, \psi_n^{N+1}$. The skeleton disturbance induced by the decision that X_{N+1} has to be allotted to C is measured by

$$D = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n d(\psi_k^N, \psi_k^{N+1}) \quad (18)$$

where $d(\psi_k^N, \psi_k^{N+1}) = \left(\sum_{j=1}^N (\psi_{kj}^N - \psi_{kj}^{N+1})^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

The crisp classification procedure identifies for each example the closest cluster in terms of the measure (18). Let $H = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_M\}$. In order to protect against misclassifications of samples coming from new classes not belonging to H, a threshold $T > 0$ is imposed, that is the example X_{N+1} is allotted to one of C_i for which

$$D = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n d(\psi_{k,j}^N, \psi_{k,j}^{N+1}) = \min_{1 \leq p \leq M} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n d(\psi_{k,p}^N, \psi_{k,p}^{N+1}) \quad (19)$$

and $D < T$, where the skeleton of C_i is $\psi_{1,j}^N, \dots, \psi_{n,j}^N$.

The classification of samples for which the resulted value of D is larger than T is postponed and the samples are kept in a new possible class CR. The reclassification of elements of CR is then performed followed by the decision concerning to either reconfigure the class system or to add CR as a new class in H.

In case of fuzzy classification, the value of the membership degree of X_{N+1} to each cluster of

$HT = H \cup \{CR\}$ is computed as follows. Let $d(X_{N+1}, C_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n d(\psi_{k,i}^N, \psi_{k,i}^{N+1})$, $1 \leq i \leq M$ and

$$d(X_{N+1}, CR) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n d(\psi_{k,R}^N, \psi_{k,R}^{N+1}), & \text{if } CR \neq \emptyset \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \text{ where the skeleton of CR is represented by the}$$

set of estimated principal components $\psi_{1,R}^N, \dots, \psi_{n,R}^N$.

$$\mu_{C_i}(X_{N+1}) = 1 - \frac{d(X_{N+1}, C_i)}{S}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq M \quad (20)$$

$$\mu_{CR}(X_{N+1}) = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{d(X_{N+1}, CR)}{S}, & \text{if } d(X_{N+1}, CR) \neq \infty \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

where

$$S = \begin{cases} \sum_{C \in HT} d(X_{N+1}, C), & \text{if } d(X_{N+1}, CR) \neq \infty \\ \sum_{C \in H} d(X_{N+1}, C), & \text{if } d(X_{N+1}, CR) = \infty \end{cases} \quad (22)$$

5. Experimental results and concluding remarks

Several tests were performed on simulated data and they pointed out very successful performance of the proposed classification strategy.

A series of tests were performed on 4-dimensional simulated data coming from 5 classes each of them having 50 examples. Each class consists of Gaussian data (State, Cocianu & al., 2006)

The classification criterion is: allote X_{N+1} to C_{j_i} if

$$D = \min_{1 \leq i \leq t} \frac{1}{m_{j_i}} \sum_{k=1}^{m_{j_i}} d(\psi_{j_i}^k, \psi_{j_i, N+1}^k) \quad (23)$$

In order to evaluate the generalization capacities, 100 new examples were generated for each distribution. The results are presented in Table 1. (State, Cocianu & al., 2006)

The evaluation of the generalization capacities in case of examples coming from new classes was performed on 1000 samples generated from $N(\mu, \Sigma)$, where $\mu = [0 \ 11 \ -9 \ -9.5]$ and

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 8.2725 & 3.1080 & 1.7925 & 1.3680 \\ 3.1080 & 6.8986 & 1.8390 & 2.5561 \\ 1.7925 & 1.8390 & 6.0422 & 1.6410 \\ 1.3680 & 2.5561 & 1.6410 & 5.2261 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The admissibility criterion for allotting a sample to a certain class is given by the maximum value of D corresponding to correct classifications. The results showed that about 975 examples were classified in CR, that is the algorithm managed to detect the intruded examples. (State, Cocianu & al., 2006)

Table 1. Results on new simulated examples

Class	C ₁	C ₂	C ₃	C ₄	C ₅
Number of correct classified examples	100	100	96	99	100
Number of misclassified examples	0	0	4 - allotted to C ₂	1 - allotted to C ₁	0
The mean value of D in case of correct classifications	0.08	0.05	0.75	0.21	0.14
The maximum value of D in case of correct classified examples	0.41	0.19	1.85	0.55	0.53

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