DETECTION AND SEPARATION OF GENERIC-SHAPED OBJECTS BY FUZZY CLUSTERING

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - Existing shape-based fuzzy clustering algorithms are all designed to explicitly segment regular geometrically-shaped objects in an image, with the consequence that this restricts their capability to separate arbitrarily-shaped objects.

Design/Methodology/Approach – With the aim of separating arbitrary shaped objects in an image, this paper presents a new detection and separation of generic shaped objects (FKG) algorithm that analytically integrates arbitrary shape information into a fuzzy clustering framework, by introducing a shape constraint that preserves the original object shape during iterative scaling.

Findings- Both qualitative and numerical empirical results analysis corroborate the improved object segmentation performance achieved by the FKG strategy upon different image types and disparate shaped objects.

Originality/value - The proposed FKG algorithm can be highly used in the applications where object segmentation is necessary. Like this algorithm can be applied in MPEG-4 for real object segmentation that is already applied in synthetic object segmentation.

Key word: Fuzzy clustering, Image segmentation, B-splines, Generic shape information.

1. INTRODUCTION

Image segmentation involves the separation of mutually exclusive regions/objects of interest (see (Gonzalez and Woods, 2002)), and is integral to the image processing, coding and interpretation domains, with examples of some of the eclectic range of applications including; image analysis, robot vision, automatic car assembly, security surveillance systems, object recognition and medical imaging [1]. As there are potentially a very large number of perceptual objects in an image, with subtle variations between them, this makes generalised object-based segmentation an especially challenging task.

Fuzzy clustering techniques (see (Bezdek, 1981); (Krishnapuram and Keller, 1993); (Fan et al., 2003)) have successfully been applied to image segmentation, though their performance has proven to be highly dependent on the features used and types of objects in the image. For one particular image, the fuzzy c-means (FCM) clustering algorithm (see (Bezdek, 1981)) may well provide the best segmentation performance when pixel location is used as the feature, while for a different image, either pixel intensity or a combination of pixel intensity and location could be more propitious choices. This raises the rhetorical question as to which features provide the best object segmentation results for a particular clustering algorithm, with the outcome ultimately restricting both the algorithm’s generalisation capability and application domain. These limitations have motivated investigation of alternative strategies to characterise object-specific information in image segmentation frameworks, with shape being one of the most important perceptual attributes in both detecting and recognising objects.

Existing shape-based clustering techniques [2] all have their foundations embedded in fuzzy theory, with examples including; the Gustafson-Kessel (GK) algorithm [9], fuzzy k-ring (FKR) [10], fuzzy circular shell (FCS) [11], fuzzy ellipsoidal shells (FCES) [12] and fuzzy elliptic-ring (FKE) [13]. FKR and FCS were both designed to detect and separate, ring and compact spherical shapes, and their assorted combinations. Subsequently FKE and FCES were developed as the respective generalised versions of these algorithms, facilitating segmentation of ring and elliptical shaped objects and their combination. While the underlying mathematical models of both FKR and FKE have proven successful for separating particular object shapes, they are much less effective in segmenting ring and elliptical-shaped regions. In contrast, FCS and FCES are better suited for region-based separation as they include shape constraints within their objective function and use a normalized data distance to update both the membership values and other key parameters in the iterative minimisation process. Their main drawback however, is that most natural objects are neither ring nor elliptical in shape, which severely confines their capacity to segment arbitrary-shaped objects.

The GK algorithm [9] conversely does not explicitly use shape information and so is ineffectual for generic-shaped object segmentation, though it does employ a fuzzy covariance matrix in its model which automatically adapts the local data distance to the cluster shape, a property that has been exploited for shape initialisation purposes [9].

This paper generalises shape-based fuzzy clustering theory by seamlessly integrating arbitrary shape-based information into an FCM-based clustering framework. A new detection and separation of generic shaped object (FKG) algorithm is introduced, with shape descriptor information embedded within an analytic optimization of the FCM-based objective function. FKG is uniquely characterised by the following four distinct features: i) A special shape-based constraint which ensures the optimisation of the algorithm; ii) Provision for either manually defining or automatically generating the initial object shape contour by employing either parametric curve models or an alternative clustering technique; iii) Preservation of the initialised object shape during iterative scaling; and iv) Accurate intersection point calculation for the requisite data distances from the respective object contour. Collectively these features enable FKG to improve the overall segmentation
performance, with both qualitative and quantitative analysis conclusively confirming its superiority over all other existing shape-based clustering algorithms for many different image types and disparately shaped objects.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews the main properties of current shape-based fuzzy clustering algorithms, while the new FKG algorithm, including its full mathematical foundations and a complete computational complexity analysis are presented in Sections 3, 4 and 5. The object-based segmentation performance of FKG is analysed in Section 6, with some concluding comments being provided in Section 7.

2. SHAPE-BASED CLUSTERING ALGORITHMS

This section examines the various features and limitations of existing shape-based clustering algorithms. FCM [6] has become a widely adopted clustering algorithm, being either directly or indirectly applied in a broad range of applications including crucially, as the initialisation strategy for other fuzzy clustering techniques. Its performance however, is highly sensitive to the features used and the type of objects in an image, so to relax this dependency, a number of dedicated shape-based clustering methods have been developed, including the FKR, FCS, FCES and FKE algorithms (see (Man and Gath, 1994); (Dave, 1990); (Dave, 1992); (Gath and Hoory, 1995); (Babuska et al., 2002)), which all have as their fundamental premise, an iterative minimisation of an FCM-type objective function.

FCS [11] detects and separates circular structures in an image by considering relevant geometric representations and using the distance from the circular shell to the corresponding data point, in its objective function. Two special constraints are applied to integrate circular shape information into the clustering framework involving the ratio of the respective data distances from the cluster shell and cluster centre. Both the cluster centre and circular shell radius are updated using Newton’s iteration and while FCS performs well for circular-type shapes, it is ineffectual in segmenting arbitrary shaped objects due to its underlying non-linear mathematical model.

A similar judgement stands for FKR [10] which focuses upon ring-shaped objects. The respective membership functions, cluster centres and radii are iteratively updated based on the minimisation of an objective function defined for circular ring shapes, to separate both ring and spherical compact clusters, allied with combinations of ring-shaped clusters. Once again however, the algorithm fails to perform satisfactorily for arbitrary-shaped objects and ring-shaped regions, for the same reason delineated in Section 1.

The FCES [12] and FKE [13] algorithms generalize FCS and FKR respectively by supporting the segmentation of elliptically-shaped objects and their related geometric combinations. FCES applies the same constraints as FCS and employs a covariance matrix to calculate the distance between each datum and cluster centre, with this distance being adapted to the shape by taking cognisance of the orientation and scaling of the shell. Newton’s iteration again updates the cluster centres and radii, though both FCES and FKE consistently fail to effectively segment either region-based or arbitrarily-shaped objects.

The GK algorithm in contrast, does not explicitly incorporate any particular shape information, be it circular or ellipsoidal shell. Instead it uses a fuzzy covariance matrix that automatically adapts the local data distance metric to the cluster shape [9], an attribute that gives GK superior object segmentation performance compared with existing shape-based clustering algorithms including FKR, FCES and FKE. For this reason GK was adopted in the new FKG algorithm (Section 3) to provide better object shape initialization. The formal mathematical basis of the GK algorithm, which uses Lagrangian optimization techniques to iteratively minimize an FCM-based objective function is presented in Appendix A.

In summary, existing shape-based clustering algorithms are generally not very successful in segmenting arbitrary-shaped objects because they are specifically designed for regular geometric structures. This provided the impetus to investigate seamlessly incorporating generic shape object information into fuzzy clustering paradigms.

3. MATHEMATICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR INCORPORATING GENERIC SHAPE INFORMATION INTO A FUZZY CLUSTERING FRAMEWORK

This section introduces the FKG algorithm for detecting and separating arbitrary-shaped objects in an image. In the literature, the most effective shape approximating methods, like moment invariants, Fourier descriptors and boundary signatures, represent the shape of an object by a contour (Dengsheng and Guojun, 2004). This has been the underlying rationale for all available shape-based clustering algorithms to seamlessly incorporate regular geometric contours into their segmentation frameworks.

To embed generic shape information into the segmentation model, the contour points (shape descriptor) for each object must either be provided in terms of significant points or automatically determined from the initialization process. These are then used to calculate the data distance from the boundary, in an analogous manner to existing shape-based clustering algorithms including FKE and FCES. These two core algorithmic components will now be examined.
3.1 Embedding Shape Information

As previously alluded, to initialise FKG, the shape contour points have to be either manually provided as a set of significant points or automatically derived from the initialisation process, with in the former case, the B-spline approximation (e.g. (Francis, 1994); (Hearn and Baker, 1994); (Zhang, 1999); (Tony, 1988)) applied to generate the respective contour points of each object. For example, the shape descriptor for the *miss america* object displayed in Figure 1(a) is given in terms of significant points (denoted by ■) [25]. The significant points are generated by (e.g. (Francis, 1994); (Hearn and Baker, 1994); (Zhang, 1999); (Tony, 1988)) and are translation, rotation and scale normalised using the window-to-viewport normalisation ((Costa *et al.*, 2001); (Foley *et al.*, 1999)) in order to find the best matching region of the initialisation process. The cluster with the largest number of pixels lying inside the polygon of a set of significant points is then designated the best matching region [25], with the contour points of this region generated by B-spline using its corresponding set of significant points. The contour points for the set of significant points shown in the Figure 1(a) example, are represented by “*” in Figure 1(b).

When initialisation is automatically performed, there is no need for translation and rotation normalisation because the same object information is used throughout the process. As highlighted in Section 2, the GK algorithm uses a fuzzy covariance matrix that helps to automatically adapt the shape of the cluster, so enabling it to approximate the original shape of objects in an image. This is the main advantage in adopting the GK algorithm for automatic object shape initialisation purposes. Note in this particular initialisation scenario, there is no need to obtain the significant points and their respective contour points, because the image is segmented by GK, and the corresponding boundary points of each segmented region are scanned to obtain the set of *contour points*. These contour points then represent the relevant object shape and are considered as the initial shape of each object.

Figure 1: (a) Miss America, (b) B-spline generated shape with its significant points.

It needs to be emphasized however that in both cases, the scaling of particular segmented regions will automatically occur during the various iterations involved in the clustering process.
A core precept of shape-based fuzzy clustering algorithms [10], [13] is that the data distance used in the objective function must be calculated from the shape of corresponding region. To calculate this distance, the corresponding point on a shape for a datum must be found and this will actually be the intersection point between the object contour and a line passing through the cluster centre and datum. A suitable strategy for determining this intersection point is now presented.

### 3.2 Calculating the Intersection Points

The most important consideration in any clustering–based image segmentation strategy is how best to compute the data distance $d_{ij}$ implicit in the objective function. In FCM [6] for example, $d_{ij}$ is calculated from the cluster centre based upon some predefined features (pixel intensity and/or location), while for FKR and FKE, it is calculated from the contour of a circle and ellipse respectively. As FKG processes arbitrary-shaped objects, $d_{ij}$ has to be calculated from the respective contour points derived in the initialisation phase (Section 3.1). While the mathematical origins for both FKR and FKE are straightforward, no similar analytic framework exists for generic shapes, which means it is a more complex task to determine $d_{ij}$. To gain an intuitive insight into both this distance and the role of the shape descriptor, consider the butterfly shape in Figure 2(a) and its corresponding B-spline contour representation in Figure 2(b), where $v_i$ is assumed to be the centre of the object contour, $S_j$ is a datum and $S'_{ij}$, the corresponding intersection point, with $d_{ij}$ the distance between them. The aim is to determine the point $S'_{ij}$ on the initial contour intersected by the line $l_i$ which joins $S_j$ with the $i^{th}$ cluster centre $v_i$ as illustrated in Figure 2(b). $S'_{ij}$ can be calculated using either polar or a combination of polar and Cartesian coordinates. The former does not always accurately approximate the actual intersection point because it involves the matching of two angles, namely $\theta_j$ for the datum $S_j$ and $\theta^c_k$ for the $k^{th}$ contour point $C_{ij}$, with the minimum distance then being chosen. In many cases, it is not possible to accurately calculate the intersection point of a datum because the contour points $C_{ij}$ are mainly discontinuous as evinced in Figure 1(b). The corollary is that it is not feasible to compute the exact distance $d_{ij}$ for that datum, which causes improper scaling of the initial shape of a region during the clustering iterations, and can ultimately lead to poor segmentation performance.

The combined polar and Cartesian coordinate approach in contrast, involves the following two processing steps: i) Find two points on the contour of the curve that are closest to and lie on opposite sides of the line $l_i$ and; ii) As the shape descriptor linearly interpolates between two consecutive shape contour points $C_{ij}$, the intersection of these points and $l_i$ gives $S'_{ij}$. To locate the two consecutive shape contour points $C_{ij}$, the difference in angle $\Delta \theta_{ijk}$ needs to be calculated, where $\Delta \theta_{ijk} = \theta_j - \theta^c_k$ for $1 \leq k \leq N_j$, $1 \leq i \leq c$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$, with $N_j$ being the number of contour points $C_{ij}$ in the $i^{th}$ cluster. The two shape contour points with minimum $\Delta \theta_{ijk}$ lying either side of the line $l_i$ will be the respective consecutive shape contour points $C_{ij}$. These two points together with $l_i$ are then used to calculate the accurate intersection point of the $j^{th}$ datum $S_j$. In this scenario, the calculation of the intersection point is determined from the intersection of two straight lines. If more than one point is found, the point having the smallest $d_{ij}$ will be the exact intersection point, a decision that resolves any problem arising of handling concave and convex object shapes.

The various steps to locate the intersection point are detailed in Algorithm 1, where $(r_{ij}^c, \theta_j^c)$ and $(r_{ik}^c, \theta_k^c)$ respectively represent the polar coordinate of datum $S'_{ij}$ and corresponding $k^{th}$ contour point in the $i^{th}$ cluster. Firstly convert all the contour points $C_{ij}$ into its corresponding polar form (Step 1 of Algorithm 1) while it also requires same conversion for all data points to polar form like $(r_{ik}^c, \theta_k^c)$ in Step 2. After conversion to polar form of both contour points $C_{ij}$ and data points $S_j$, a datum is taken and then calculate angle differences $\Delta \theta_{ijk}$ with all the contour points $C_{ij}$ (Step 3) and
then find two contour points having minimum angle difference \( \Delta \theta_{gs} \) and lying both side of the line \( (l_1) \) in Step 4 of Algorithm 1. Now, find out the intersection point \( S_{ij} \) between the lines \( l_1 \) and the line passing through the contour points found in Step 4, which is the respective intersection point \( S'_{ij} \) (Step 5). Once all the intersection points are found, the algorithm terminates (Step 6).

Having determined the \textit{intersection point} of every datum, \( d_{ij} \) can now be calculated and the FKG objective function formulated, as detailed in the following section.
Figure 2: (a) Original butterfly object, (b) Contour points $C_{ij}$ of the butterfly object for the given set of significant points in Figure 1(a) generated by B-spline. Example of an intersection point $S_{ij}'$ denoted by "*" between the contour and line $l_1$ joining datum $S_j$ and the cluster centre $v_i$.

Algorithm 1: Determining the intersection point between a datum and its corresponding cluster centre.

**Precondition:** cluster contour points $C_{ij}$, cluster centre $v_i$ and datum $S_j$.

**Post condition:** Intersection point $S_{ij}'$.

1. Convert all contour points into polar form $(r_{ik}, \theta_{ik})$ with respect to the corresponding cluster centre $v_i$.
2. Convert all data points into polar form $(r_{ij}, \theta_{ij})$ with respect to the corresponding cluster centre $v_i$.
3. Calculate $\Delta \theta_{ijk} = \theta_{ij} - \theta_{ik}$ for $1 \leq k \leq N_i^c$, where $N_i^c$ is the number of contour points in the $i^{th}$ cluster.
4. Use the minimum $\Delta \theta_{ijk}$ value to locate the two points lying either side of $l_1$ for $S_j$.
5. Calculate intersection point $S_{ij}'$ between a line joining the two selected contour points and $l_1$. If more than one point is found, the point with the shortest $d_{ij}$ is the intersection point.
6. STOP
3.3 Integrating Shape Constraints

Existing shape-based algorithms like FKR and FCS do not require shape constraints in their paradigms, because they respectively consider regular circular and elliptic geometric shapes, which can be analytically expressed by standard equations that both preserve and scale the respective shapes during the clustering process. In contrast, no mathematical representation exists for generically shaped objects, so in order to incorporate arbitrary-shape information into the clustering framework, an appropriate shape constraint must be introduced. To address this requirement, the shape constraint integrated into the FKG algorithm is defined as:

\[ r_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} r_{it} = k_{ij} \]  

(1)

where \( r_{ij} \) is the distance between the intersection point \( S^i_j \) and the \( i^{th} \) cluster centre \( v_i \) and \( k_{ij} \) is a constant for the \( j^{th} \) datum of the \( i^{th} \) cluster. The notable feature of (1) is that it preserves the initial shape during iterative scaling, irrespective of the size of the initial contour, as will now be proven in Lemma 1.

**Lemma 1**: The arbitrary shape constraint \( r_{ij} = k_{ij} \sum r_{ij} \) always preserves the original shape during iterative scaling, regardless of size of the initial shape contour.

A formal proof of this Lemma is provided in Appendix B.

The objective function and its associated constraint for the FKG algorithm are now formally defined:

\[ J_q(\mu, V) = \sum_{i=1}^{c} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (\mu_{ij})^q d_{ij}^2 \]  

(2)

subject to \( \sum_{i=1}^{c} \mu_{ij} = 1 \) and \( r_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} r_{it} = k_{ij} \)  

(3)

and

\[ 0 \leq \mu_{ij} \leq 1; \quad i \in \{1, \ldots, c\} \text{ and } j \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \]  

(4)

where \( S \) is the dataset containing \( S_j \), \( \mu \) is the set of membership values \( \mu_{ij} \), \( V \) is a vector containing the cluster centre values \( v_i \), \( q \) is the fuzzifier \( 1 < q \leq \infty \), and distance \( d_{ij} = d(S_j, v_i) - r_{ij} = D_j^i \). \( d(S_j, v_i) \) is the Euclidian distance between datum \( S_j \) and \( v_i \), while \( c \) and \( n \) represent the number of clusters and data respectively.

For iterative optimization of the objective function, (2) and (3) are minimised by Lagrangian techniques. In calculating the membership function, if \( d_{ij} = 0 \) a crisp decision is mandated and the \( j^{th} \) data is classified into the \( i^{th} \) cluster, otherwise the membership value is updated based upon the distance \( d_{ij} \) as (see Appendix C for formal derivation):

IF \( d_{ij} = 0 \) THEN \( \mu_{ij} = 1 \) maintaining \( \sum_{i=1}^{c} \mu_{ij} = 1 \)  

(5)

ELSE \( \mu_{ij} = \left[ \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{c} \left( \frac{d_{ij}}{d_{kj}} \right)^{\frac{2}{q-1}} \right] \)  

(6)

To scale the initial shape during the iterative minimization of the objective function (2), the contour radius \( r_{ij} \) as proven in Appendix C, is analytically derived as:

\[ r_{ij} = D_j^i - \frac{k_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} D_{it}^i - D_j^i}{k_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{1-k_{it}}{\mu_{it}^q} - \frac{1-k_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}^q}} \left( 1 - k_{ij} \right) \]  

(7)
When data are further away from the contour of a cluster, their corresponding membership values $\mu_{ij}$ are close to zero, which forces the second term in (7) towards zero and as a consequence, leads to faster convergence and an over-scaling of the initial shape. To mitigate the impact of over-scaling, $r_{ij}$ is updated as follows (Ameer et al., 2006):

$$r_{ij}(\text{new}) = \lambda r_{ij} + (1 - \lambda) r_{ij}^0$$

where $r_{ij}^0$ and $r_{ij}$ are the initial and current values respectively, while $\lambda$ is an empirically selected constant derived from the data which is a trade-off between the current and initial cluster sizes.

The $i^{th}$ cluster centre $v_i$ is given by (see Appendix C):

$$v_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q \left( S_j - D_y \right) \frac{r_{ij}}{S_j - r_{ij} - r_{ij}}}{2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q \left( S_j - D_y \right)}$$

(9)

where for any image, the 2-D data and cluster centre are respectively given by $S_j = \begin{bmatrix} S_{j1} \\ S_{j2} \end{bmatrix}$ and $v_i = \begin{bmatrix} v_{i1} \\ v_{i2} \end{bmatrix}$.

The complete FKG algorithm is formalised in Algorithm 2, with the object shape initialised in STEP 1 by the GK algorithm, as highlighted in Section 3.1. The intersection points for each datum are calculated in STEP 2, with $r_{ij}$ and $k_{ij}$ being initialised in STEP 3. The membership values $\mu_{ij}$, contour radii $r_{ij}$ and cluster centres $v_i$ are then iteratively updated in STEPS 4 and 5 until either the maximum number of iterations ($\text{maxits}$) is fulfilled or a specified threshold ($\xi$) is exceeded.

A major consideration for any fuzzy clustering algorithm, especially one designed for object-based segmentation applications, is how to determine the optimal number of clusters (objects), either directly from the image data or using a priori knowledge. This issue is considered in the next section.

### Algorithm 2: Detection and separation of generic shaped object using fuzzy clustering (FKG).

**Precondition:** Dataset $X$, number of clusters $c$, $\text{maxits}$ and threshold $\xi$.

**Post condition:** Final segmented regions $R$

1. Initialise the object shape (Section 3.1).
2. Find intersection point using Algorithm 1.
3. Calculate the initial $r_{ij}$ and $k_{ij}$ values from (3).
4. FOR $l = 1, 2, 3,...\text{maxits}$
   5. Update $\mu_{ij}$, $r_{ij}$ and $v_i$ using (5) to (9)
   6. IF $\|\mu_{ij} - \mu_{ij}^{(l-1)}\| < \xi$ then STOP

### 4. DETERMINING THE NUMBER OF CLUSTERS

As there is no single unified definition of what exactly constitutes an object, there typically exists a large number of objects with their definition very much depending upon user perception and the purpose of the application. In this context, the cluster number $c$ can either be manually provided or automatically determined from image data, with the standard approach adopted in the latter case being to use validity measures to find the optimal $c$ ([6]; [11] (Jain and Dubes, 1988); (Chong et al., 2002); (Yen and Langari, 1999)). There are certain situations however, particularly in object-based
segmentation, where validity algorithms fail to generate the correct (optimal) number of clusters (e.g. (Chong et al., 2002); (Dave, 1992)) because they focus on homogeneous regions of interests, which are often contrary to the human perception of an object, and this ultimately degrades the overall clustering performance. Conversely, there are numerous applications in the manufacturing and medical imaging (Pal and Pal, 1993) domains for example, where the number of objects to be segmented is known *a priori*, and so in this paper for all shape-based fuzzy clustering algorithms, $c$ is provided.

5. COMPUTATIONAL TIME COMPLEXITY

A detailed computational time complexity analysis for the FKG algorithm is now presented.

**Assumption 1:** For object-based image segmentation, $n >> c$ and $n >> p'$ where $n$ is the number of data points, $c$ the number of clusters and $p'$ the data dimension, so both $O(c)$ and $O(p')$ will be constant.

A stepwise computational complexity for Algorithm 1 is firstly derived, which calculates the intersection point for every datum in each cluster.

5.1 Time Complexity for Algorithm 1

**Step 1:** To convert $N_i^c$ contour points for the $i^{th}$ cluster from Cartesian to polar coordinates takes $O(N_i^c)$ time, so for $c$ clusters, this takes $O(cm')$, where $m'$ is the average number of contour points i.e., $m' = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{i=1}^{c} N_i^c$.

Using Assumption 1, for object-based segmentation $c$ will be small, so $O(c^l)$ is constant and the time taken $O(m')$.

**Step 2:** Takes $O(n)$ time to convert $n$ data points from Cartesian to polar coordinates.

**Step 3:** The angle difference $\Delta \theta_{jk} = \theta_{ij} - \theta_{ik}$ for a particular $j^{th}$ data point in the $i^{th}$ cluster needs to calculate the difference between it and the angles of all contour points $\theta_{ik}$ where $1 \leq k \leq N_i^c$. Thus for a given $c$ and $m'$ average contour points, this takes $O(cm') = O(m')$ time and for $n$ data points $O(nm')$.

**Step 4:** To find the two contour points on either side of the connecting line $l_i$ i.e., the line between a datum and cluster centre $v_i$ requires $O(m')$ and so for $n$ data takes $O(nm')$.

**Step 5:** To find the intersection point of two lines takes $O(1)$ time for a single datum, and $O(n)$ time to find the intersection point for $n$ data points.

In summary therefore, for $n$ data and $c$ cluster contours, all the intersection points can be computed in $O(nm')$ time.

5.2 Time Complexity for the FKG Algorithm

A full stepwise complexity analysis for the FKG algorithm is now delineated.

**Step 1:** The shape initialisation technique (Section 3.1) can be computed in $O(n)$ time.

**Step 2:** For $n$ data points, Algorithm 1 needs $O(nm')$ time (see Section 5.1), while the contour radius $r_i^c$ can be initialised in $O(n)$ time, so the total time for this step is $O(nm')$. 
Step 3: To initialise $K_{ij}$ requires $O(n)$ time.

Step 4: The membership values are updated in $O(n)$ time, while similar times are incurred to update the contour radii and cluster centre values, so the total execution time for this step is $O(n)$.

This means the overall computational complexity of the FKG algorithm is $O(nm')$, i.e., it is dependent on the average number of cluster contour points $m'$. For most real world images, if pixels are uniformly distributed among all clusters, the minimum number of contour points will be $O\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{c}\right)$ i.e., $O(m') = O\left(\sqrt{n}\right)$ (Karmakar, 2002) so in the best case scenario, the time complexity will be $O\left(n^{3/2}\right)$. In contrast, for the worst case, particularly where objects comprise only the contour so $m' \geq n$, the overall computational complexity of FKG becomes $O(n^2)$.

6. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To analyse the segmentation performance of the new FKG algorithm, the results were both qualitatively and numerically compared with five other shape-based clustering algorithms, namely FKR, FKE, GK, FCS, and FCES. While both the FKE and FCES algorithms are the generalized versions of FKR and FCS respectively, all algorithms were considered in the evaluation in order to rigorously test the performance of FKG. Various natural and synthetic gray-scale images together with medical images were randomly selected for analysis having multiple regions (objects) and comprising diverse features and shapes. When pixel location alone is used as a feature in FCM, it arbitrarily divides the image into a given number of clusters (Ameer et al., 2005b). For this reason, in order to segment foreground objects into perceptually meaningful regions, all background pixels were manually set to zero, with any zero-valued foreground object pixels being replaced by 1 to avoid the possibility of foreground pixels merging with the background, without impacting upon visual perception. All the algorithms are implemented using Matlab 6.1 and the background of the images are separated using Paintshop-Pro software while Pentium 4 personal computer with 1GB RAM is also used to perform the experiments. To quantitatively appraise the performance of all the fuzzy clustering algorithms, the objective segmentation evaluation method, discrepancy based on the number of misclassified pixels (Karmakar, 2002) was used. The two errors, namely Type I, $errorI_i$ and Type II, $errorII_i$ are formally defined as:

$$errorI_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{c} (M_{ji} - M_{ii})}{\sum_{j=1}^{c} M_{ji}} \times 100$$

(10)

$$errorII_i = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{c} \sum_{j=1}^{c} M_{ij} - \sum_{i=1}^{c} \sum_{j=1}^{c} M_{ji}\right)}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{c} \sum_{j=1}^{c} M_{ij} - \sum_{j=1}^{c} \sum_{i=1}^{c} M_{ji}\right)} \times 100$$

(11)

where $M$ is the confusion matrix. Type I, $errorI_i$ is the percentage error of all $i^{th}$ region pixels that are misclassified in other regions, while Type II, $errorII_i$ is the percentage error of all region pixels misclassified into the $i^{th}$ region. Representative samples of the manually segmented reference regions together with the original images are shown in

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1 Obtained from IMSI (Master Photo Collection, San Rafael, CA 94901-5506, USA.), the Internet and personal collection.
Figure 3 (a)-(b) to Figure 5 (a)-(b), where to improve the visual interpretation of the results, both the reference and segmented regions are displayed in different colours rather than their original gray-scale intensities. Before a detailed analysis of the results, an outline is given on the various initialisation strategies used for each clustering method. The GK, FCS and FCES algorithms were all initialised using random membership values $\mu_{ij}$, while FKR used a fuzzy k-means (FKM) algorithm and FKE employed the same initialisation approach as in [13], namely 10 iterations of FKM followed by 10 iterations of FKR. For FKG, while in principle any clustering algorithm can be used, the GK algorithm was selected for automatic shape initialisation because as highlighted in Section 2, it has consistently proven to give superior results for object-based segmentation compared with FKR, FCS, FKE and FCES. In the FKG experiments, $\lambda = 0.1$ was chosen in (8) to give a higher priority to the initial shape size, the rationale being that as the initial shape has been automatically determined, the ensuing clustering process will not alter it very much and as a consequence, it will not improve the quality of the segmentation. To achieve better performance it is therefore essential to downscale the cluster in each iteration, and for this reason, the initial cluster size was heuristically downscaled by 25%. The first set of results relate to the X-ray image in Figure 3 (a) which has two objects (regions), namely the femur ($R_1$) and tibia ($R_2$) with both regions being arbitrarily shaped. The segmentation results for all the various shape-based algorithms are displayed in Figure 3 (c)-(h). If Figure 3 (c) is compared with the manually segmented reference regions in Figure 3 (b), it is visually apparent that for FKR, a large number of pixels in $R_1$ have been misclassified into $R_2$ and vice versa because neither region is circular in shape. Similar judgments can be made concerning the results for the FKE, FCS and FCES algorithms in Figure 3 (d), (f) and (g) respectively, while the GK algorithm failed to effectively segment $R_1$ and $R_2$ because as alluded earlier, it does not explicitly consider specific shape information. In contrast, the results for the FKG algorithm (Figure 3 (h)) reveal it correctly classified both $R_1$ and $R_2$ with a minimal number of misclassified pixels vindicating the incorporation of generic shape information. The corresponding numerical results for $R_1$ in Table 1 confirm this improved performance with FKG producing the lowest overall average error of 3.3% compared with the next best average error of 6.2% for both FCS and FCES. This error is directly attributable to the erroneous initial object shape generated by the GK algorithm as evidenced in Figure 3(e).

![Figure 3](image-url)

**Figure 3:** (a) Original X-ray image, (b) Manually segmented reference of (a). Figures (c)-(h) the segmented results of (a) using FKR, FKE, GK, FCS, FCES, and FKG respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Type I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FKG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Percentage error of segmentation results in Figure 3 for region $R_1$
A second series of experiments were performed upon the dog image in Figure 4 (a), which has two distinctly asymmetric-shaped objects; the camel \( R_1 \) and dog \( R_2 \). The corresponding results for FKR, FKE, GK, FCS, FCES, and FKG are evinced in Figure 4 (c)-(h) respectively. If the segmented results produced by FKR in Figure 4 (c) are compared with the reference image in Figure 4 (b), it is clear many pixels from \( R_2 \) have been misclassified into \( R_1 \) and vice versa, which is not surprising given that neither object is circular in shape. Similarly, FKE also generated a high number of misclassified pixels for \( R_2 \) in Figure 4 (d), while interestingly the GK algorithm produced a lower misclassification than FKR, FKE, FCS and FCES because it adapts to the local topological structure of the cluster shape (Figure 4 (e)), though some misclassified pixels from \( R_1 \) in \( R_2 \) remain. In contrast, both \( R_1 \) and \( R_2 \) have been correctly classified by FKG with Table 2 corroborating its superior segmentation performance, with a minimum average error of just 0.01% compared with the next best error of 2.75% for GK, which was used to initialize the new FKG algorithm.

![Figure 4: (a) Original dog image, (b) Manually segmented reference of (a). Figures (c)-(h) the segmented results of (a) using FKR, FKE, GK, FCS, FCES, and FKG respectively.](image)

**Table 2:** Percentage error of segmentation results in Figure 4 for \( R_1 \) region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Type I</th>
<th>Type II</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FKR</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FKE</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GK</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCS</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCES</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FKG</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final test image (bird) used in the experiments (Figure 5 (a)) contained three regions, all of which were arbitrarily shaped, namely reptile \( R_1 \), bird \( R_2 \) and tree branch \( R_3 \), with \( R_2 \) and \( R_3 \) being connected. The corresponding results for the FKR, FKE, GK, FCS, FCES and FKG algorithms are displayed in Figure 5 (c)-(h) respectively. As with the other
test images, because all objects are arbitrarily shaped, there is an ensuing large number of misclassified pixels between $R_1$, $R_2$ and $R_3$ for FKE as confirmed in Figure 5 (c). The results for FKE, FCS and FCES in Figure 5 (d), (f) and (g) respectively, are also characterized by high pixel misclassifications, though for these algorithms this is especially noticeable between the connected two regions $R_2$ and $R_3$. Conversely, the FKG algorithm (Figure 5 (h)) has successfully separated $R_1$ and generated significantly fewer misclassified pixels for both $R_2$ and $R_3$ compared with the other algorithms. These perceptual judgments are substantiated by the quantitative results in Table 3 which confirm FKG again had the lowest mean error of 1% compared with 46.8% for FKR and 3.02% for GK.

![Figure 5: (a) Original bird image, (b) Manually segmented reference of (a). Figures (c)-(h) the segmented results of (a) using FKR, FKE, GK, FCS, FCES, and FKG respectively.](image)

### Table 3: Percentage errors for the segmentation results in Figure 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Type I R1</th>
<th>Type I R2</th>
<th>Type I R3</th>
<th>Type II R1</th>
<th>Type II R2</th>
<th>Type II R3</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FKR</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>59.4</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FKE</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GK</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCS</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCES</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FKG</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To rigorously assess the performance of the FKG algorithm, experiments were conducted upon 185 randomly selected images containing multiple objects with circular, elliptic and arbitrary shaped structures of differing orientations and size. With the object shape descriptor being generated by GK initialization (Section 3.1), FKG produced the best segmentation performance for 80 images while as shown in Figure 8, FKR, FKE, GK, FCS, and FCES provided better segmentation results for only 2, 17, 4, 6, and 21 respectively. FKG also produced analogous results for 29 and 27 images respectively to GK and the other algorithms considered, while FKR, FKE, FCS, and FCES exhibited similar results for only 6, 17, 16, and 19 images respectively. Since these latter algorithms are specifically tailored for regular geometric objects, they provided either comparable or slightly improved segmented results compared with FKG for such objects. As highlighted in Section 2, while FKG adopts the same philosophy as the FKR, FCS, FKE and FCES algorithms (see (Man and Gath, 1994); (Dave, 1990); (Dave, 1992); (Gath and Hoory, 1995)), it does explicitly consider contour-based shape information and not the enclosed region that defines a particular object, with the consequence that in only 4 images did FKG fail to improve upon the GK initialization. An example is illustrated in Figure 6 for the cat image, where the degraded FKG segmentation performance is directly due to the poor initial segmented regions produced by GK leading to poor initial shapes and subsequent improper scaling of these shapes.
Another example is given in Figure 7 for the snake image containing two arbitrary shaped objects, where it clearly visible that the segmentation results of FKG for given shape information is better than that of for automated generated shape information.

Overall, to assess the results validate the enhanced performance of the FKG algorithm in being able to segment arbitrary-shaped objects, with the consistent superior segmentation results for most images justifying the strategy of seamlessly integrating generic shape information into a clustering framework.
This paper has presented a new shape-based fuzzy image segmentation algorithm called detection and separation of generic shaped objects (FKG) that seamlessly incorporates generic shape information, and introduces a shape constraint to preserve the original object shape and ensure its optimization during subsequent iterative scaling. A thorough qualitative and quantitative analysis has been conducted to compare the performance with existing shape-based algorithms using a myriad of images comprising multiple objects having different shapes, with FKG consistently providing better segmentation results by virtue of integrating generic shape information into an FCM-based fuzzy clustering framework. The FKG algorithm can further be extended to implement it in MPEG-4 for real images, which has already been implemented for synthetic images.

8. REFERENCES


**BIOGRAPHY**

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APPENDIX A

THE GUSTAFSON-KESSEL (GK) ALGORITHM

Let \( c \) and \( n \) be the number of clusters and data respectively. \( S \) is the dataset containing \([S_j]\), \( \mu \) is a set of membership values, \( V \) is a vector containing the cluster centre values \( v_i \), \( q \) is the fuzzifier \( 1 < q \leq \infty \), and \( D_{ij} \) is the distance norm calculated for clusters of different shapes in one data set using:

\[
D_{ij}^2 = (S_j - v_i)^T A_i (S_j - v_i)
\]  
(A.1)

where \( A_i \) is the norm inducing matrix, which allows the distance norm to adapt to the local topological structure of the data (see (Babuska et al., 2002)). The GK algorithm iteratively optimizes the following objective function to derive \( \mu_{ij} \) and \( v_i \):

\[
J_q(S, \mu, V) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{c} (\mu_{ij})^q D_{ij}^2
\]  
(A.2)

for \( 0 \leq \mu_{ij} \leq 1; \ i \in \{1, \ldots, c\} \) and \( j \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \)  
(A.3)

and \( \sum_{i=1}^{c} \mu_{ij} = 1; \ j \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \)  
(A.4)

For \( D_{ij} = 0 \), a crisp decision is mandated and the \( j^{th} \) datum is classified into the \( i^{th} \) cluster, otherwise the membership value \( \mu_{ij} \) is updated using \( D_{ij} \) so:

**IF \( D_{ij} = 0 \) THEN**

\[
\mu_{ij} = 1 \text{ maintaining } \sum_{i=1}^{c} \mu_{ij} = 1
\]  
(A.5)

**ELSE**

\[
\mu_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{c} \left( \frac{D_{ij}}{D_{kj}} \right)^{\frac{2}{q-1}}} \]  
(A.6)

While the cluster centre \( v_i \) is updated by:

\[
v_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (\mu_{ij})^q S_j}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (\mu_{ij})^q}
\]  
(A.7)

and \( A_i \) adapts the local topological structure of the cluster shape as follows:
\[
F_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n}(\mu_{ij})^p (S_j - v_i)^T (S_j - v_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{n}(\mu_{ij})^p}
\]

(A.8)

\[
A_j = \left| \rho_i \det(F_i)^{\gamma/\rho} F_i^{-1} \right|
\]

(A.9)

where \( F_i \) is the fuzzy covariance matrix, \( P \) is the data dimension, and \( \rho_i \) is the cluster volume, which is usually set equal to unity.
APPENDIX B

PROOF OF LEMMA 1

Proof: The shape constraint $r_{ij} = k_{ij} \cdot \sum r_{ij}$ will not deform an object shape because $k_{ij}$ is defined as the ratio of the normalized radius with respect to the sum of all radii $\sum r_{ij}$, so it is constant for every iteration. This therefore represents the shape irrespective of its size, so for example, in the $t^{th}$ and $(t+1)^{th}$ iterations, the following holds:

$$k_{ij}(t) = \frac{r_{ij}(t)}{\sum r_{ij}(t)} = \frac{r_{ij}(t + 1)}{\sum r_{ij}(t + 1)} = k_{ij}(t + 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum r_{ij}(t) = \sum r_{ij}(t + 1)$$

$$r_{ij}(t) + \sum_{k \neq i, m \neq j} r_{km}(t) \cdot \frac{r_{ij}(t + 1) + \sum r_{km}(t + 1)}{r_{ij}(t + 1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{r_{ij}(t)}{r_{ij}(t + 1)} = \frac{r_{ij}(t)}{r_{ij}(t + 1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + \sum_{k \neq i, m \neq j} \frac{r_{km}(t)}{r_{ij}(t)} = 1 + \sum_{k \neq i, m \neq j} \frac{r_{km}(t + 1)}{r_{ij}(t + 1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{r_{ij}(t)}{\sum_{k \neq i, m \neq j} r_{km}(t)} = \frac{r_{ij}(t + 1)}{\sum_{k \neq i, m \neq j} r_{km}(t)}$$

So every $r_{km}(t + 1)$ in the current iteration is updated by the ratio $\frac{r_{ij}(t + 1)}{r_{ij}(t)}$ and the respective $r_{km}(t)$ from the previous iteration. Since this ratio is constant for all radii, it either scales up or down by the same amount and so the scaling does not distort the original shape of the region. The shape constraint $r_{ij} = k_{ij} \cdot \sum r_{ij}$ thus ensures the original object shape is preserved.

$\blacksquare$
APPENDIX C
SOME FORMAL FKG ALGORITHM PROOFS

The objective function of the proposed FKG algorithm is defined as follows:

\[ J_q(\mu, V) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{c} \left( \mu_{ij} \right)^q d_{ij}^2 \]  \hspace{1cm} (C.1)

subject to:

\[ 0 < \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} < n; \quad 1 \leq j \leq n \]  \hspace{1cm} (C.2)

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{c} \mu_{ij} = 1; \quad 1 \leq i \leq c \]  \hspace{1cm} (C.3)

\[ r_{ij} = K \sum_{r=1}^{n} r_{ir} \]  \hspace{1cm} (C.4)

where \( d_{ij} = d(S_j, v_i) - r_{ij} = D_j^* - r_{ij} \), \( r_{ij} = d(S_j, v_i) \), \( d(S_j, v_i) = D_j^* = \| S_j - v_i \| \), with all other parameters being defined as in Appendix A.

Applying Lagrangian multiplier and using (C.1) to (C.4), (C.1) can be derived as follows:

\[ J^* = J_q(\mu, V) = \sum_{i=1}^{c} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q d_{ij}^2 + \lambda_1 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{c} \mu_{ij} - 1 \right) \]

\[ + \lambda_2 \left( r_{ij} - K \sum_{r=1}^{n} r_{ir} \right) \]  \hspace{1cm} (C.5)

To derive \( \mu_{ij} \), (C.5) is differentiated with respect to \( \mu_{ij} \) and set equal to 0

\[ \frac{dJ^*}{d\mu_{ij}} = \frac{d}{d\mu_{ij}} \sum_{i=1}^{c} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q d_{ij}^2 + \lambda_1 \frac{d}{d\mu_{ij}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{c} \mu_{ij} - 1 \right) = 0 \]

\[ \Rightarrow q \mu_{ij}^{q-1} d_{ij}^2 + \lambda_1 = 0 \]

\[ \Rightarrow -\frac{\lambda_1}{q} = \mu_{ij}^{q-1} d_{ij}^2 \]

\[ \Rightarrow \left( -\frac{\lambda_1}{q} \right)^{\frac{1}{q-1}} = \mu_{ij} \cdot \frac{d_{ij}^2}{d_{ij}^{q-1}} \]

\[ \Rightarrow \mu_{ij} = \left( -\frac{\lambda_1}{q} \right)^{\frac{1}{q-1}} \left( \frac{1}{d_{ij}} \right)^{\frac{2}{q-1}} \]  \hspace{1cm} (C.6)

Again from (C.3):
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{c} \mu_{kj} = 1 \]

\[ \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{c} \left( -\frac{\lambda_1}{q} \right)^{1-q^{-1}} \cdot \left( \frac{1}{d_{kj}} \right)^{2-q^{-1}} = 1 \]

\[ \Rightarrow \left( -\frac{\lambda_1}{q} \right)^{1-q^{-1}} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{c} \left( \frac{1}{d_{kj}} \right)^{2-q^{-1}} = 1 \]

\[ \Rightarrow \mu_{ij} \cdot \frac{d_{ij}^2}{d_{ij}^{q^{-1}}} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{c} \left( \frac{1}{d_{kj}} \right)^{2-q^{-1}} = 1 \]

\[ \Rightarrow \mu_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{c} \left( \frac{d_{ij}}{d_{kj}} \right)^{2-q^{-1}}} \]  

\[(C.7)\]
To calculate $r_{ij}$, (C.5) is differentiated with respect to $r_{ij}$:

$$\frac{dJ}{dr_{ij}} = \frac{d}{dr_{ij}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q d_{ij}^2 + \lambda_2 \left( r_{ij} - K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} r_{it} \right) \right\}$$

$$= \mu_{ij}^q 2d_{ij} \frac{d}{dr_{ij}} (d_{ij}) + \lambda_2 \left( 1 - K_{ij} \right)$$

(C.8)

Now $\frac{d}{dr_{ij}} (d_{ij}) = \frac{d}{dr_{ij}} (D_{ij} - r_{ij}) = (-1)$

(C.9)

So from (B.8) and (C.9), and setting (C.8) = 0 gives:

$$\frac{dJ}{dr_{ij}} = (-1) \mu_{ij}^q \cdot 2d_{ij} + \lambda_2 \left( 1 - K_{ij} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (-1) \mu_{ij}^q \cdot 2(D_{ij} - r_{ij}) + \lambda_2 \left( 1 - K_{ij} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -2 \mu_{ij}^q D_{ij} + 2 \mu_{ij}^q r_{ij} + \lambda_2 \left( 1 - K_{ij} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 \mu_{ij}^q D_{ij} - 2 \mu_{ij}^q r_{ij} - \lambda_2 \left( 1 - K_{ij} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow r_{ij} = D_{ij} - \frac{\lambda_2 \left( 1 - K_{ij} \right)}{2 \mu_{ij}^q}$$

(C.10)

Again, using (C.4) and (C.10),

$$r_{ij} = K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} r_{it} = K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \left\{ D_{it} - \frac{\lambda_2 \left( 1 - K_{it} \right)}{2 \mu_{it}^q} \right\}$$

$$= K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} D_{it} - \frac{\lambda_2}{2} \cdot K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{1 - K_{it}}{\mu_{it}^q}$$

$$\Rightarrow K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} D_{it} = \frac{\lambda_2}{2} \cdot K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{1 - K_{it}}{\mu_{it}^q} = r_{ij}$$

$$K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} D_{it} - \frac{\lambda_2}{2} \cdot K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{1 - K_{it}}{\mu_{it}^q} = D_{ij} - \frac{\lambda_2}{2} \cdot \frac{1 - K_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}^q}$$

$$\Rightarrow K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} D_{it} - D_{ij} = \frac{\lambda_2}{2} \cdot \left\{ K_{ij} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{1 - K_{it}}{\mu_{it}^q} - \frac{1 - K_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}^q} \right\}$$
\[ \frac{\lambda_2}{2} = \frac{K_{ij} \sum_{i=1}^{n} D_{it} - D_{ij}^t}{K_{ij} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1 - K_{ij}}{\mu_{it}^q} - \frac{1 - K_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}^q}} \]  
\[ (C.11) \]

Using (C.11) and (C.10) can be expressed as:

\[ r_{ij} = D_{ij}^t - \frac{K_{ij} \sum_{i=1}^{n} D_{it} - D_{ij}^t}{K_{ij} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1 - K_{ij}}{\mu_{it}^q} - \frac{1 - K_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}^q}} \cdot \frac{1 - K_{ij}}{\mu_{ij}^q} \]  
\[ (C.12) \]

To obtain \( v_i \), (C.5) is differentiated with respect to \( v_i \):

\[ \frac{dJ}{dv_i} = \frac{d}{dv_i} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{c} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q d_j^2 \right\} \]

\[ = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q \frac{d}{dv_i} (d_j^2) \]

\[ = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q \cdot 2d_i \cdot \frac{d}{dv_i} d_j \]

\[ = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q \cdot d_i \frac{d}{dv_i} \left\{ d(S_j, v_i) - r_{ij} \right\} \]

\[ = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^q \cdot \left\{ \frac{d}{dv_i} d(S_j, v_i) - \frac{d}{dv_i} r_{ij} \right\} \]  
\[ (C.13) \]

If datum \( S \) and cluster center \( V \) are 2D, i.e., \( \begin{bmatrix} S_{j1} \\ S_{j2} \end{bmatrix} \) and \( \begin{bmatrix} v_{i1} \\ v_{i2} \end{bmatrix} \) respectively, then

\[ \frac{d}{dv_i} d(S_j, v_i) = \frac{d}{dv_i} \left\{ \sqrt{(S_{j1} - v_{i1})^2 + (S_{j2} - v_{i2})^2} \right\} \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2 \sqrt{(S_{j1} - v_{i1})^2 + (S_{j2} - v_{i2})^2}} \cdot 2(S_{j1} - v_{i1}).(-1) \] when the X-coordinate is considered and:

\[ \frac{d}{dv_i} \left\{ \sqrt{(S_{j1} - v_{i1})^2 + (S_{j2} - v_{i2})^2} \right\} \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2 \sqrt{(S_{j1} - v_{i1})^2 + (S_{j2} - v_{i2})^2}} \cdot 2(S_{j2} - v_{i2}).(-1) \] while this considers only the Y-coordinate. So,
\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \nu_i} d(S_j, \nu_i) = \frac{2(S_j - \nu_i)(-1)}{2\sqrt{(S_j - \nu_i)^2 + (S_j - \nu_i)^2}} \]
\[ = \frac{(-1)(S_j - \nu_i)}{d(S_j, \nu_i)} = \frac{(-1)(S_j - \nu_i)}{D_{ij}} \]

(C.14)

Similarly,
\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \nu_i} r_{ij} = \frac{(-1)(S_j' - \nu_i)}{r_{ij}} \]

(C.15)

Using (C.13):
\[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \nu_i} = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial \nu_i} d(S_j, \nu_i) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \nu_i} r_{ij} \right\} \]
\[ = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} d_{ij} \left\{ \frac{(-1)(S_j - \nu_i)}{D_{ij}} - \frac{(-1)(S_j' - \nu_i)}{r_{ij}} \right\} \]
\[ = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} \left( D_{ij} - r_{ij} \right) (-1) \left\{ \frac{S_j - \nu_i}{D_{ij}} - \frac{S_j' - \nu_i}{r_{ij}} \right\} \]
\[ = (-1)2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} \left\{ S_j - \nu_i - D_{ij} \frac{S_j' - \nu_i}{r_{ij}} \right\} \]
\[ - r_{ij} \frac{S_j - \nu_i}{D_{ij}} + S_j' - \nu_i \right\} \]
\[ = (-1)2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} \left\{ S_j - 2\nu_i - D_{ij} \frac{S_j' - \nu_i}{r_{ij}} \right\} \]
\[ - r_{ij} \frac{S_j - \nu_i}{D_{ij}} + S_j' \right\} \]

(C.16)

For optimization, (C.16) is set to 0:
\[ (-1)2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} \left\{ S_j - 2\nu_i - D_{ij} \frac{S_j' - \nu_i}{r_{ij}} \right\} \]
\[ - r_{ij} \frac{S_j - \nu_i}{D_{ij}} + S_j' \right\} = 0 \]
\[ \frac{2v_i}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^g = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^g \left\{ S_j - D_{ij} \frac{S_{ij} - v_i}{r_{ij}} + S_{ij} - r_{ij} \frac{S_j - v_i}{D_{ij}} \right\} \]

\[ \Rightarrow v_i = \frac{1}{2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^g} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij}^g \left\{ S_j - D_{ij} \frac{S_{ij} - v_i}{r_{ij}} + S_{ij} - r_{ij} \frac{S_j - v_i}{D_{ij}} \right\} \]

(C.17)