Density-based Clustering using Automatic Density Peak Detection

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Abstract: Clustering is an important unsupervised machine learning method which has played an important role in various fields. Density-based clustering methods are capable of dealing with clusters of different sizes and shapes. As suggested by Alex Rodriguez et al. in a paper published in Science in 2014, the 2D decision graph of the estimated density value versus the minimum distance from the points with higher density values for all the data points can be used to identify the cluster centroids. However, there lack automatic methods for the determination of the cluster centroids from the decision graph. In this work, a novel statistic-based method is designed to identify the cluster centroids automatically from the decision graph. So the number of clusters is also automatically determined. Experiments on several synthetic and real-world datasets show the superiority of the proposed method in centroid identification from the datasets with various distributions and dimensionalities. Furthermore, it is also shown that the proposed method can be effectively applied to image segmentation.

1 INTRODUCTION

Clustering is the process of grouping a set of data objects into multiple groups or clusters so that objects within a cluster have high similarity, but are very dissimilar to objects in other clusters. Dissimilarities or similarities are assessed based on the attribute values describing the objects using certain distance measures (Law, Urtasun, and Zemel, 2017). Clustering is an important technique for exploratory data analysis, and has been studied for many years. It has been shown to be useful in many practical domains such as data classification and image processing (Piotr, 2012).

Clustering is generally considered as a difficult problem because the optimal number of clusters cannot be easily determined and clusters may have different distributions, shapes and sizes (Lu and Wan, 2012). It has been shown that clustering is a nonconvex, discrete optimization problem. Due to the existence of many local minima, there is typically no way to find a globally minimal solution without trying all possible partitions (Kleinberg, 2003). Although many heuristic methods have been developed, most of them are not generic enough and can only be used for particular clustering problems. Most clustering algorithms are based on two popular techniques known as hierarchical and partitional clustering. The partitional clustering algorithms include square-error-based clustering methods, density-based clustering methods, distribution-based clustering methods and so on.

For hierarchical methods, they can be classified as being either agglomerative or divisive, based on how the hierarchical decomposition of the given set of data objects is formed (Grant and Flynn, 2016; Charikar and Chatziafratis, 2017). Hierarchical clustering methods don't need some strict initial conditions, but they suffer from the mechanism that a previous merge or split cannot be changed during the following process.

For square-error-based clustering methods, such as k-means (Wagstaff et al., 2001), k-medoids (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 2009), and affinity propagation (Frey and Dueck, 2007; Serdah and Ashour, 2016). An objective function, typically the sum of the distance to a set of putative cluster centers, is optimized until the best cluster center candidates are found (Serdah and Ashour, 2016; Ward, 1963; Hoppner, 1999; Jain, 2010). However, for k-means and k-medoids, because a data point is always assigned to the nearest center, they cannot be used to detect non-globular clusters (Jain, 2010). For affinity propagation method, with an improper initial exemplar preference, it may fail to work properly. Most square-error-based methods are greedy

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algorithms that depend on initial conditions and may converge to suboptimal solutions.

Unlike square-error-based clustering, densitybased clustering can detect clusters with arbitrary shapes or sizes. The most popular density-based clustering methods include DBSCAN (Ester et al., 1996), mean-shift (Fukunaga et al., 1975), OPTICS (Campello et al., 2015), and DENCLUE (Campello et al., 2015), etc. A drawback of these methods is that the parameter setting is not a straightforward task that user has to take care of. An excellent density-based clustering method published in Science in 2014 is proposed by Alex Rodriguez et al. (Rodriguez and Laio, 2014). The method is called Clustering by Fast Search and Find of Density Peaks (CFSFDP). It is based on the simple idea that a cluster centroid has a higher density value than its neighbors and is far away from the other objects with higher density values. CFSFDP can predict the number of clusters by identifying the cluster centroids in a 2D decision graph whose axes are the density value and the minimum distance from the points with higher density values respectively. But the cluster cendroids in the decision graph must be manually decided.

To address this issue, we propose a novel clustering method called Automatic Density Peak Detection (ADPD) in this paper. A new outlier detection method is designed to identify the cluster centroids automatically from the decision graph using a statistical-based nonparametric density estimation. This method can identify clusters with arbitrary shapes or sizes and can determine the number of clusters automatically.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The original CFSFDP method is introduced in Section 2. The proposed ADPD algorithm is described in Section 3. The experimental results are presented in Section 4. And conclusions are drawn in Section 5.

2 THE CFSFDP METHOD

The CFSFDP method (Rodriguez and Laio, 2014) generates clusters by assigning data points to the same cluster as its nearest neighbor with higher density after cluster centroids are selected by users. A heuristic method named decision graph is designed to select these centroids. For each data point *i*, two important indicators are considered in the decision graph: local density p_i , and the minimum distance d_i from points of higher density values. Their definitions are:

Local Density p_i : The local density p_i of point *i* is defined as

$$p_i = \sum_j \chi (r_{ij} - r_c) \tag{1}$$

where $\chi(x)$ is a kernel function, r_{ij} is the distance between point *i* and point *j*, and r_c is the cutoff distance threshold. In the CFSFDP method, r_c is a parameter which needs to be determined manually. In our experiments, the Gaussian kernel function is used. So the local density p_i is defined as: $p_i = \sum_i e^{-r_{ij}^2/2r_c^2}$.

Minimum Distance d_i : The minimum distance d_i of point *i* is measured by computing the minimum distance between the point *i* and any other points of higher density values:

$$d_{i} = \begin{cases} \min_{j}(r_{ij}) & \text{, if } \exists j \text{ st } p_{j} > p_{i} \\ \max_{j}(r_{ij}) & \text{, otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(2)

The value d_i is much larger than the typical distances between nearest neighbours if the p_i of point *i* is a local or global maximum density value. This observation, which is the core of the algorithm, is illustrated by an example in Figure 1. Figure 1A shows 30 points from two normal distributions. Figure 1B is the decision graph which shows the plot of d_i as a function of p_i for each point. From the decision graph, the two points having high local density values and large minimum distances can be easily identified. The two points are identified as cluster centroids, which are shown as filled triangle or square in both Figure 1A and Figure 1B.



Figure 1: (A) Points distribution in a 2D space. (B) Decision graph for the data in (A).

3 IDENTIFYING CENTROIDS FROM THE DECISION GRAPH AUTOMATICALLY

As shown in Figure 1B, the cluster cendroids are usually the points that have large d_i values and relatively high p_i values, a simple threshold-based method suggested by Alex Rodriguez et al. (Rodriguez and Laio, 2014) for selecting the cluster centroids is to use the following formula:

$$\gamma_i = p_i \times d_i > TH_{\gamma} \tag{3}$$

where the threshold parameter TH_{γ} has to be decided by users. The drawbacks of the method are that it does not use the distribution information of the points in the decision graph and the parameter TH_{γ} can not be easily determined for different datasets.

To deal with the drawbacks of the above method, a statistic-based method for selecting the cluster centroids is developed based on the following observation: the value d_i is much larger than the typical distances between nearest neighbors if the point *i* is a point having local or global maximum density value. Thus, an important feature for identifying a cluster cendroid is that its d_i value is anomalously large. So, in our method, cluster cendroids are identified using a specially designed outlier detection method which contains mainly three steps: firstly, the probability density $p_v(p_i, y)$ in the decision graph at a specific density value p_i and an arbitrary distance value y is estimated; secondly, the expectation value and the variance of the distance y are computed at the specific p_i value using the probability density $p_v(p_i, y)$; thirdly, the cluster cendroids are identified using the expectation value and the variance of the distance *y*.

Two-dimensional Gaussian function is used to estimate the probability density at the specific p_i in the decision graph, which is given by:

$$p_{y}(p_{i}, y) = \frac{\sum_{j=1, j\neq i}^{N} \frac{1}{2\pi ab} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \times \left(\left(\left(p_{j} - p_{i} \right) / a \right)^{2} + \left(\left(d_{j} - y \right) / b \right)^{2} \right)}}{\sum_{z=1, z\neq i}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \times \left(\frac{p_{z} - p_{i}}{a} \right)^{2}}}$$
(4)

where the *N* is the total number of the data points, *a* and *b* are the 2D kernel widths. The denominator is a normalization factor which is used to ensure that $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p_y(p_i, y) = 1$.

The selection of the values for the 2D kernel widths *a* and *b* are important. It is found that *a* and *b* can be estimated using the standard deviations of p_i and d_i of all the data points:

$$\begin{cases} a = \alpha \times \sigma_{p_i} & 0 < \alpha < 1 \\ b = \beta \times \sigma_{d_i} & 0 < \beta < 1 \end{cases}$$
(5)

The selection of the parameters α and β will be discussed in Subsection 4.2.

Using the probability density defined in (4), the expectation value and the variance of the distance y at the specific p_i can be computed using:

$$\mu_{y}(p_{i}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p_{y}(p_{i}, y) y dy$$
(6)

$$\sigma_y^2(p_i) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p_y(p_i, y) \left(y - \mu_y(p_i) \right)^2 dy \quad (7)$$

By substituting (4) into (6) and (7), it follows that:

$$\mu_{y}(p_{i}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} d_{j} \times e^{-\frac{1}{2} \times \left(\frac{p_{j} - p_{i}}{a}\right)^{2}}}{\sum_{\tau=1}^{N} z \neq i} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \times \left(\frac{p_{z} - p_{i}}{a}\right)^{2}}$$
(8)

$$\sigma_y^2(p_i) = \frac{\sum_{j=1, j\neq i}^{N} \left[b^2 + \left(d_j - \mu_y(p_i) \right)^2 \right] \times e^{-\frac{1}{2} \times \left(\frac{p_j - p_i}{a} \right)^2}}{\sum_{z=1, z\neq i}^{N} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \times \left(\frac{p_z - p_i}{a} \right)^2}} \quad (9)$$

Using (8) and (9), the expectation value and the variance at the specific p_i can be easily computed using the summation instead of the integration in (6) and (7). Then, the outliers are identified using the following threshold:

$$TH_d(p_i) = \mu_y(p_i) + 3 \times \sigma_y(p_i) \tag{10}$$

For any point *i*, if its minimum distance $d_i > TH_d(p_i)$, it is identified as an outlier, and thus is used as a cluster cendroid in our experiments.

The process and result of identifying the cluster centroids using the proposed method is shown in Figure 2, where the data is from the Figure 1A.



Figure 2: (A) The process of identifying cluster centroids in the decision graph. (B) The result of clustering, different colors correspond to different clusters.

Using the threshold defined in (10), two points represented as filled triangle and square are identified as the cluster centroids.

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

There are six synthetic datasets and eight real-world datasets used in the experiments. Two synthetic datasets, called Dataset A and Dataset B generated by ourselves, are shown in Figure 3, where different colors represent different classes. The other four synthetic datasets, including Aggregation, Flame, Spiral, and R15, are downloaded from the internet, which are shown in Table 1. Eight UCI real-world datasets, including Iris, Breast cancer (Wisconsin), Glass Identification, Wine Quality-red, Liver Disorders, Seeds, Banknote authentication, Ecoli, are also shown in Table 1.



Figure 3: Dataset A: Three 2D normal distributions with the same size $(n = 200, \sigma = 1)$ centered at (0,0), (2.5,4) and (5,0). Dataset B: Four 2D normal distributions with different size: n = 100, $\sigma = 2$, centered at (0,0); n = 200, $\sigma = 3$, centered at (6,13); n = 300, $\sigma = 4$, centered at (12,0) and n = 400, $\sigma = 2$, centered at (16,11).

4.1 Evaluation Criterion

Because for all the datasets, ground truth cluster labels are available, the Fowlkes-Mallows index (FM-index) is used to evaluate the clustering result (Fowlkes and Mallows, 1983), which is defined as:

$$FM = \sqrt{\frac{TP}{TP + FP} \times \frac{TP}{TP + FN}}$$
(11)

where TP is the number of true positives, FP is the number of false positives, and FN is the number of false negatives. A higher value for the FM-index indicates a greater similarity between the clusters and the ground truth.

4.2 Parameter Selection

In the CFSFDP method, the parameter r_c must be determined before computing the density values. It can be chosen under the condition that the average number of neighbors is around 1% to 2% of the total number of the points, as suggested by Alex Rodriguez et al (Rodriguez and Laio, 2014). In our experiments, it is found that 4% is a better choice. So, in our experiments, the parameter r_c is determined with the condition that the average number of neighbors is around 4% of the total number of the points.

In our method, the parameters α and β defined in (5) have to be determined. To decide the value of α , we first set β =0.5, then different values of α are used to compute TH_d and identify the cluster centroids. The clustering results of three datasets including Iris, Seeds and Dataset B are shown in Figure 4A when different α values are used. It can be seen from Figure 4A that the clustering results are not sensitive

Table 1: Details of datasets in our experiments.

Dataset	N ^a	D ^b	Mc	Source
Aggregation	788	2	7	http://cs.joensuu.fi/sipu/datasets/
Flame	240	2	2	http://cs.joensuu.fi/sipu/datasets/
R15	600	2	15	http://cs.joensuu.fi/sipu/datasets/
Spiral	312	2	3	http://cs.joensuu.fi/sipu/datasets/
Iris	150	4	3	http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/
Seeds	210	7	3	http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/
Ecoli	336	8	8	http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/
Wine Quality-red	1599	12	6	http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/
Liver Disorders	345	7	2	http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/
Glass Identification	214	9	7	http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/
Banknote authentication	1372	4	2	http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/
Breast cancer (Wisconsin)	699	9	2	http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/

^a The number of the data points

^b The number of features

^c The actual number of the clusters

to the selection of the parameter α . So, in our experiments, the parameter α is set to 0.5.

To determine the parameter β , the parameter α is set to 0.5, and different values of β are used in our experiments. The clustering results produced with different β values are shown in Figure 4B. It is found that good clustering results with FMindex>0.7 can be produced within a relatively wide range of the parameter β , while β =0.5 is a relatively good choice. So, the parameter β =0.5 is selected in our experiments.



Figure 4: The FM-indices of the clustering results produced with (A) different α values and (B) different β values.

4.3 Comparison of the Clustering Results

In order to evaluate the statistic-based centroid identification method in ADPD algorithm, it is compared with the simple threshold-based CFSFDP method proposed by Alex Rodriguez et al (Rodriguez and Laio, 2014). First, the percentile-based method is used to select the centroids for CFSFDP, the *f*-th percentile value from the set

 $\{\gamma_i | \gamma_i = p_i \times d_i, 1 \le i \le N\}$ is used to determine the threshold TH_{γ} . The three datasets, including Iris, Seeds and Dataset B, are also used in the experiments. The clustering results under different *f* values for the three datasets are shown in Figure 5.

From Figure 5, it can be found that f = 1 is a good choice. So the 1*st* percentile from the set $\{\gamma_i | \gamma_i = p_i \times d_i, 1 \le i \le N\}$ is used as the threshold TH_{γ} for the percentile-based method.

The comparison of the FM-indices of the clustering results for the percentile-based method and the proposed ADPD method are shown in Table 2 for different datasets. As shown in Table 2, compared with the percentile-based method, the ADPD method has produced better results for 11 datasets out of the total 14 datasets.

Our method ADPD only has a worse result for the Banknote authentication dataset. From the results of the two method, it is found that accurate identification for cluster centroids is important. Automatic threshold-based methods, such as the percentile-based method, cannot always work well for different datasets.



Figure 5: The FM-indices of the clustering results produced with different *f* values.

Table 2: The FM-indices and the number of clusters produced by the percentile-based method and our method on 14 different datasets.

Dataset	Percentile-ba	ased method	ADPD	
_	FM-index	#Clusters	FM-index	#Clusters
Dataset A	0.854	6	0.964	3
Dataset B	0.777	10	0.996	7
Aggregation	0.800	8	0.937	6
Flame	0.865	3	0.994	3
R15	0.374	6	0.993	15
Spiral	0.919	4	1	3
Iris	0.771	2	0.771	2
Seeds	0.809	3	0.809	3
Ecoli	0.544	4	0.672	5
Wine Quality-red	0.380	16	0.508	9
Liver Disorders	0.523	4	0.689	9
Glass Identification	0.480	3	0.544	5
Banknote authentication	0.550	14	0.513	35
Breast cancer (Wisconsin)	0.402	7	0.719	2

To further evaluate the effectiveness of our method, it is also compared with the CFSFDP method using manual parameter selection, in which different TH_{γ} values are tuned for different datasets. A lot of values of the parameter TH_{γ} are tried for each dataset and the best one is used in the experiments for the manual CFSFDP method. The FM-indices of the clustering results and the number of clusters are recorded in Table 3.

As is shown in Table 3, the method ADPD has similar performance as the manual method. The proposed ADPD method and the manual CFSFDP method has the same results for 8 datasets out of the total 14 datasets, noticing that the ADPD method uses fixed parameters for all the datasets while the manual method use different tuned parameters for different datasets. Furthermore, the ADPD method has produced the best results for 4 datasets which all have complex distribution or high dimensions, while the manual CFSFDP method has produced the best results for only 2 datasets. For dataset Banknote authentication, the ADPD fails to produce a satisfying result. To study the special case, the decision graph for the Banknote authentication dataset is shown in Figure 6 from which it is found that it is difficult to identify the centroids from the decision graph, which may be why APDP does not perform well.

In addition, from analysis of the results of Dataset B, Flame, and Glass Identification, it is found that the centroids located at the area of low density points or isolated points can not be identified by the simple threshold-based methods. So for some unbalanced datasets, the threshold-based method may produce bad results.



Figure 6: The decision graph for Banknote authentication.

From both Table 2 and Table 3, it can be seen that the proposed ADPD method can produce better results compared to the percentile-based CFSFDP method, and can produce competitive results compared to the manual CFSFDP method which needs manual tuning of the parameters.

4.4 Application on Image Segmentation

Image segmentation is the decomposition of a gray level or color image into homogeneous tiles. It is arguably the most important low-level vision task. Homogeneity is usually defined as similarity in pixel values, so clustering algorithms can be used for image segmentation. In our experiments, the proposed ADPD method and the percentile-based CFSFDP method are used to do automatic image segmentation for two color images named City and Flower, which have 30000 and 31440 pixels respectively. In the experiments, only the RGB values of each pixel are used as features for both methods. The results of the image segmentation are shown in Figure 7.

Table 3: The FM-indices and the number of clusters produced by the manual method and our method on 14 different datasets.

Dataset	Dataset Manual method			ADPD	
_	FM-index	#Clusters	FM-index	#Clusters	
Dataset A	0.964	3	0.964	3	
Dataset B	0.993	4	0.996	7	
Aggregation	0.937	6	0.937	6	
Flame	1	2	0.994	3	
R15	0.993	15	0.993	15	
Spiral	1	3	1	3	
Iris	0.771	2	0.771	2	
Seeds	0.809	3	0.809	3	
Ecoli	0.649	2	0.672	5	
Wine Quality-red	0.508	3	0.508	9	
Liver Disorders	0.526	3	0.689	9	
Glass Identification	0.537	2	0.544	5	
Banknote authentication	0.693	3	0.513	35	
Breast cancer (Wisconsin)	0.719	2	0.719	2	



Figure 7: The image segmentation results by the percentile-based method (middle) and our ADPD method (right) for the color image Flower and City.

As shown from the Figure 7, the first column on the left are the original images, the middle column shows the segmentation produced by the percentilebased CFSFDP method, and the last column on the right shows the segmentation produced by the proposed ADPD method. The first row contains the results for the Flower image, and the second row contains the results for the City image. For the Flower image, the percentile-based CFSFDP method produces 315 clusters, while the ADPD method produces 280 clusters. For the City image, the percentile-based CFSFDP method produces 300 clusters, while the ADPD method produces 280 clusters. So, the percentile-based CFSFDP method produces more clusters than the proposed ADPD method for both images.

From the segmentation results in Figure 7, it can be seen that the proposed ADPD method can identify good homogenous segmented regions, such as sky, clouds, walls, roofs, cars, flowers, stamens, etc. The percentile-based CFSFDP method can also identify homogenous segmented regions, but it fails to identify the clouds, cars, and stamens. So, although the percentile-based CFSFDP method produces more clusters, it identifies fewer details of the images compared to the ADPD method. It can be seen that with the proposed automatic centroid identification in the ADPD method, good image segmentation can be produced with only the RGB features.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, a novel clustering method is proposed based on a statistical-based automatic centroid identification from the decision graph. It is shown that the proposed ADPD method can deal with datasets of various distributions and dimensionalities, and the proposed statistical-based centroid identification is better than the simple thresholdbased centroid identification. Besides, the ADPD method can also be used for image segmentation effectively. In future work, we plan to improve the ADPD method to estimate the number of clusters more accurately with advanced density estimation.

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