

GASP, a generalized framework for agglomerative clustering of signed graphs and its application to Instance Segmentation

Alberto Bailoni ^{*†} Constantin Pape ^{‡†*} Nathan Hütsch ^{*} Steffen Wolf [§]
 Thorsten Beier [¶] Anna Kreshuk [†] Fred A. Hamprecht ^{*||}

Abstract

We propose a theoretical framework that generalizes simple and fast algorithms for hierarchical agglomerative clustering to weighted graphs with both attractive and repulsive interactions between the nodes. This framework defines GASP, a Generalized Algorithm for Signed graph Partitioning¹, and allows us to explore many combinations of different linkage criteria and cannot-link constraints. We prove the equivalence of existing clustering methods to some of those combinations and introduce new algorithms for combinations that have not been studied before. We study both theoretical and empirical properties of these combinations and prove that some of these define an ultrametric on the graph. We conduct a systematic comparison of various instantiations of GASP on a large variety of both synthetic and existing signed clustering problems, in terms of accuracy but also efficiency and robustness to noise. Lastly, we show that some of the algorithms included in our framework, when combined with the predictions from a CNN model, result in a simple bottom-up instance segmentation pipeline. Going all the way from pixels to final segments with a simple procedure, we achieve state-of-the-art accuracy on the CREMI 2016 EM segmentation benchmark without requiring domain-specific superpixels.

1. Introduction

In computer vision, the partitioning of weighted graphs has been successfully applied to tasks as diverse as image segmentation, object tracking and pose estimation. Most

graph clustering methods work with positive edge weights only, which can be interpreted as similarities or distances between the nodes. These methods require users to specify the desired numbers of clusters (as in spectral clustering) or a termination criterion (e.g. in iterated normalized cuts) or even to add a seed for each object (e.g. seeded watershed or random walker).

Other graph clustering methods work with so-called *signed graphs*, which feature both positive and negative edge weights corresponding to attraction and repulsion between nodes. The advantage of signed graphs over unsigned graphs is that balancing attraction and repulsion allows us to obtain a clustering without defining additional parameters. A canonical formulation of the signed graph partitioning problem is the *multicut* or *correlation clustering* problem [15, 35]. This problem is NP-hard, though many approximate solvers have been proposed [8, 47, 62, 77] together with greedy agglomerative clustering algorithms [36, 39, 51, 75]. Agglomerative clustering algorithms for signed graphs have clear advantages: they are parameter-free and efficient. Despite the fact that a variety of these algorithms exist, no overarching study has so far been conducted to compare their robustness and efficiency or to provide guidelines for matching an algorithm to the partitioning problem at hand.

Our first contribution is a simple theoretical framework that generalizes over agglomerative algorithms for signed graphs by linking them to hierarchical clustering (HC) on unsigned graphs (Section 3.2). This framework defines an underlying basic algorithm and allows us to explore its combinations with different linkage criteria and *cannot-link constraints* (see Fig. 1a, 1b, and Table 1). As second contribution, in Section 3.3, we formally prove that some of the combinations correspond to existing clustering algorithms, and introduce new algorithms for combinations which have not been explored before. By analyzing their theoretical properties, we also show that some of them define an ultrametric on the graph (see Table 1).

Third, we evaluate the algorithms on a large variety of both existing and synthetically generated signed graph clustering problems (Section 4). Fourth and finally, we also test

^{*}Heidelberg Collaboratory for Image Processing (HCI/IWR), Heidelberg, Germany. {name.surname}@iwr.uni-heidelberg.de

[†]EMBL, Heidelberg, Germany. {name.surname}@embl.de

[‡]Institute for Computer Science, University Göttingen, Germany. constantin.pape@informatik.uni-goettingen.de

[§]MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology, Cambridge, UK. swolf@mrc-lmb.cam.ac.uk

[¶]derthorstenbeier@gmail.com

^{||}Corresponding author

¹Code available at: <https://github.com/abailoni/GASP>

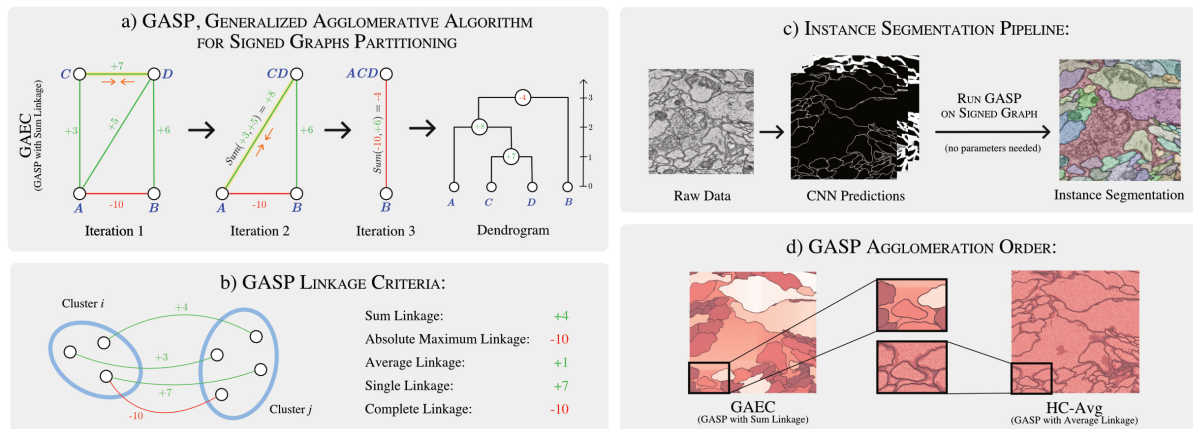


Figure 1. **(a)** Some iterations of GASP on a graph with attractive (green) and repulsive (red) interactions. At each iteration, the yellow edge with highest weight is contracted (example with sum linkage criterion is shown). **(b)** Linkage criteria used in this paper demonstrated on two small clusters (see definitions in Table 1 below). **(c)** Application of GASP to instance segmentation: we show raw data from the CREMI neuron-segmentation challenge and some predictions of our CNN model, where white pixels represent boundary evidence. **(d)** Seemingly similar linkage criteria can result in very different clustering dynamics, as shown in this example: color coded sequence of merges from early (white) via late (brown) to never (black).

GASP	Sum Linkage	Absolute Maximum Linkage	Average Linkage	Single Linkage	Complete Linkage
	$\sum_{e \in E_{ij}} w_e$	w_e with $e = \arg \max_{t \in E_{ij}} w_t $	$\sum_{e \in E_{ij}} w_e / E_{ij} $	$\max_{e \in E_{ij}} w_e$	$\min_{e \in E_{ij}} w_e$
Unsigned graphs	-	HC-Single	HC-Avg	HC-Single	HC-Complete
Signed graphs	GAEC [39]	Mutex Watershed [75]	HC-Avg	HC-Single	HC-Complete
Signed graphs + cannot-link constraints	HCC-Sum	Mutex Watershed [75]	HCC-Avg	HCC-Single	HC-Complete

Table 1. Conceptual contribution: Properties of clustering algorithms included in the proposed GASP framework, given a linkage criterion, a type of graph (signed or unsigned) and the optional use of cannot-link constraints. New constrained hierarchical clustering algorithms (HCC) proposed in this paper are highlighted in yellow. For algorithms typeset in bold font we prove that they define an ultrametric on the graph (Eq. 3). For algorithms in the green box we show that they are weight-shift invariant (Prop. 3.2). Notation: E_{ij} denotes the set of edges connecting two clusters $S_i, S_j \subseteq V$.

the algorithms on *instance segmentation* – a computer vision task consisting of assigning each pixel of an image to an object instance – by partitioning graphs whose edge weights are estimated by a CNN (see Fig. 1c and Section 4.2). Our experiments show that the choice of linkage criterion markedly influences how clusters are grown by the agglomerative algorithms (Fig. 1d), making some linkage methods more suited for certain types of clustering problems. We benchmark the clustering algorithms by focusing on their efficiency, robustness and tendency to over- or under-cluster. On instance segmentation, we show that the agglomerative algorithms outperform recently proposed spectral clustering methods, and that average-linkage based agglomerative algorithms achieve state of the art results on the CREMI 2016 challenge for neuron segmentation of 3D electron microscopy image volumes of brain tissue.

2. Related work

Proposal-free instance segmentation methods adopt a bottom-up approach by directly grouping pixels into instances. In the last years, there has been a growing interest in such methods that do not involve object detection because, in certain types of data, object instances cannot be approximated by bounding boxes [5, 41]. Some use metric learning to predict high-dimensional associative pixel embeddings that map pixels of the same instance close to each other [21, 23, 49, 60] and then retrieve final instances by applying a clustering algorithm [44]. Other recent methods let the model predict the relative coordinates of the instance center [13, 59] or, given a pixel (x, y) , they train a model to generate the mask of the instance located at (x, y) [70].

Edge detection also experienced recent progress thanks

to deep learning, both on natural images [29, 43, 55, 76] and biological data [18, 50, 57, 69]. In neuron segmentation for connectomics, a field of neuroscience we also address in our experiments, boundaries are converted to final instances with subsequent postprocessing and superpixel-merging: some use a combinatorial framework [10], others use loopy graphs [37, 45] or trees [26, 52, 54, 57, 72] to represent the region merging hierarchy. Flood-filling networks [32] and MaskExtend [57] used a CNN to iteratively grow one region/neuron at the time. A structured learning approach was also proposed in [28, 71].

Agglomerative graph clustering has often been applied to instance segmentation [3, 53, 66, 68] because of its efficiency as compared to other divisive approaches like graph cuts. Novel termination criteria and merging strategies have often been proposed: the agglomeration in [56] deploys fixed sets of merge constraints; the popular graph-based method [24] stops the agglomeration when the merge costs exceed a measure of quality for the current clusters. The optimization approach in [40] performs greedy merge decisions that minimize a certain energy, while other pipelines use classical linkage criteria, e.g. average linkage [50, 55], median [28] or a linkage learned by a random forest classifier [42, 61].

Clustering of signed graphs has the goal of partitioning a graph with both attractive and repulsive cues. Finding an optimally balanced partitioning has a long history in combinatorial optimization [16, 30, 31]. NP-hardness of the *correlation clustering* problem was shown in [7], while the connection with graph multicut was made by [22]. Modern integer linear programming solvers can tackle problems of considerable size [2], but accurate approximations [8, 62, 77], greedy agglomerative algorithms [36, 39, 51, 74] and persistence criteria [47, 48] have been proposed for even larger graphs. Another line of research is given by spectral clustering methods that, on the other hand, require the user to specify the number of clusters in advance. Recently, some of these methods have been generalized to graphs with signed weights [14, 19, 46], whereas others let the user specify must-link and cannot-link constraints between clusters [20, 65, 73].

This work reformulates the clustering algorithms of [39, 51, 75] in a generalized framework and adopts ideas from the proposal-free instance segmentation methods [50, 55, 75] to predict edge weights of a graph.

3. Generalized framework for agglomerative clustering of signed graphs

3.1. Notation

Graph formalism – We consider an undirected simple edge-weighted graph $\mathcal{G}(V, E, w^+, w^-)$ with both attractive and repulsive edge attributes. The weight function

$w^+ : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ associates to every edge a positive scalar attribute $w_e^+ \in \mathbb{R}^+$ representing a merge affinity or a similarity measure. On the other hand, $w^- : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ associates to each edge a split tendency $w_e^- \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Graphs of the type $\mathcal{G}(V, E, w^+, w^-)$ are often defined as *signed graphs* $\mathcal{G}(V, E, w)$, featuring positive and negative edge weights $w_e \in \mathbb{R}$. Following the theoretical considerations in [48], we define signed weights as $w_e = w_e^+ - w_e^-$.

Multicut objective – We call the set $\Pi = \{S_1, \dots, S_K\}$ a *clustering* or *partitioning* if $V = \cup_{S \in \Pi} S$, $S \cap S' = \emptyset$ for different clusters S, S' and every cluster $S \in \Pi$ induces a connected subgraph of \mathcal{G} . For any clustering Π of \mathcal{G} , we denote as $E_\Pi^0 = \{e_{uv} \in E \mid \exists S \in \Pi : u, v \in S\}$ the set of edges linking nodes in the same cluster. Its complementary set $E_\Pi^1 = E \setminus E_\Pi^0$ of edges linking nodes belonging to distinct clusters, is known as the *multicut* of \mathcal{G} associated to clustering Π . The instance of the NP-hard *minimum cost multicut problem* w.r.t. $\mathcal{G}(V, E, w_e)$ is the task of finding a clustering that optimally balances the attraction and repulsion in the graph and is given by the following binary integer program:

$$\min_{\Pi} \sum_{e \in E} w_e x_e^\Pi, \quad \text{where } x_e^\Pi = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } e \in E_\Pi^1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Linkage criteria and hierarchical trees – Let the interaction $\mathcal{W}(S \cup S') \in \mathbb{R}$ between two clusters S, S' be defined as a function, named *linkage criterion*, depending on the weights of *all* edges connecting clusters S and S' . The linkage criteria tested in this article are listed and defined in Table 1. A *dendrogram* T is a rooted binary tree² representing the merging order of an agglomerative algorithm, such that the leaves of the tree are in one-to-one correspondence with V and each node of the tree represents a merge between two clusters. Let $T_R, T_L \subset T$ denote the subtrees rooted at the two children of the root node in T . For any two leaves $u, v \in V$, let $T[u \vee v]$ be the subtree rooted at the least common ancestor $(u \vee v) \in T$ of nodes u and v (furthest from the root), and let $\text{leaves}(T[u \vee v]) \subseteq V$ be the set of leaves of this subtree. Given an agglomerative algorithm with merging tree T , let $h_T : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ denote the *dendrogram-height* of each $(u \vee v) \in T$, which is defined as the iteration number at which nodes $u, v \in V$ were merged by the algorithm (see example in Fig. 1a). We also define $\mathcal{W}_T(u, v)$ as the signed interaction $\mathcal{W}(S \cup S')$ between the two clusters S, S' that were merged at iteration $h_T(u, v)$:

$$\mathcal{W}_T(u, v) \equiv \mathcal{W}(\text{leaves}(T_R[u \vee v]) \cup \text{leaves}(T_L[u \vee v])) \quad (2)$$

²In general, one could look at trees that are not binary. However, the algorithms discussed in this paper always generate binary hierarchical trees, so nothing would be gained by this generalization.

3.2. The GASP algorithm

Our main contribution is a generalized agglomerative algorithm for signed graph partitioning (GASP) that generalizes hierarchical clustering (HC) to signed graphs. The framework, defined in the following, encompasses several known and new agglomerative algorithms on display in Table 1, which are differentiated by the linkage criterion employed, similarly to HC.

In Algorithm 1, we provide simplified pseudo-code for the proposed GASP algorithm. GASP implements a bottom-up approach that starts by assigning each node to its own cluster and then iteratively merges pairs of adjacent clusters. The algorithm proceeds in three phases.

In phase one, GASP selects the pair of clusters with the highest absolute interaction $|\mathcal{W}(S \cup S')|$, so that the most attractive and the most repulsive pairs are analyzed first. If the interaction is repulsive and the algorithm option *addCannotLinkConstraints* is `True`, then the two clusters are constrained so that their members can never merge in subsequent steps of phase one. If the interaction is attractive, then the clusters are merged, provided that they were not previously constrained. After each merge, the interaction between the merged cluster and its neighbors is updated according to one of the linkage criteria $\mathcal{W}(S \cup S')$ listed in Table 1. Phase one terminates when all the remaining clusters are either constrained or share repulsive interactions. Note that, on unsigned graphs, in phase one all nodes are merged into a single cluster and GASP is then equivalent to a standard hierarchical clustering algorithm.

Phase two: Now that the clusters have grown in size, the algorithm removes the constraints previously introduced in phase one and merges all the clusters that still share an attractive interaction, merging the most attractive one first³. The final clustering Π^* returned by GASP is found at the end of phase two and it is then composed of clusters sharing only mutual repulsive interactions.

Finally, in phase three, the algorithm keeps merging all clusters until only a single one is left and then returns the hierarchical tree T^* representing the full sequence of merging steps. The algorithm was implemented using a standard HC implementation with computational complexity $\mathcal{O}(N^2 \log N)$ (details left in Appendix A6.1).

3.3. GASP: New and existing algorithms

In this paper we focus on five linkage methods (see columns of Table 1). Many more linkage criteria have been applied to unsigned graphs [24, 28, 61], involving median-based⁴ or size-regularized methods, but we decided to focus

³Note that in the version of GASP without *cannotLinkConstraints*, nothing happens in phase two because all remaining interactions are repulsive.

⁴Median linkage is also implemented in our library (see implementation details Appendix A6.1).

Algorithm 1 GASP

Input: Graph $\mathcal{G}(V, E, w^+, w^-)$; linkage criterion \mathcal{W} ;
boolean *addCannotLinkConstraints*
Output: Final clustering Π^* , rooted binary hierarchical tree T^*

```

1: Initial clustering:  $\Pi = \{\{v_1\}, \dots, \{v_{|V|}\}\}$ 
2: Initialize hierarchical tree  $T^*$  with leaf nodes  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_{|V|}\}$ 
3: Initialize cluster interactions with  $w_e = w_e^+ - w_e^-$ ,  $\forall e \in E$ 
4: // Phase 1: Merge positive interactions (possibly using constraints)
5: Push incident nodes of every edge  $e \in E$  to priority queue (PQ) with
   priority  $|w_e|$ 
6: repeat
7:   Pop  $S, S' \in \Pi$  with highest interaction  $|\mathcal{W}(S \cup S')|$  from PQ
8:   if  $[\mathcal{W}(S \cup S') > 0]$  and  $[S, S' \text{ not constrained}]$  then
9:     Merge clusters  $S, S'$  and update hierarchical tree  $T^*$ 
10:    Update interactions & constraints with neighboring clusters
11:   else if addCannotLinkConstr and  $[\mathcal{W}(S \cup S') \leq 0]$  then
12:     Add CannotLink Constraint between  $S$  and  $S'$ 
13:   until  $[PQ \text{ is empty}]$ 
14: // Phase 2: Remove constraints & merge all positive interactions
15: Push signed interactions  $\mathcal{W}(S \cup S')$  to PQ,  $\forall S, S' \in \Pi$ 
16: repeat
17:   Pop  $S, S' \in \Pi$  with highest interaction  $\mathcal{W}(S \cup S')$  from PQ
18:   if  $[\mathcal{W}(S \cup S') > 0]$  then
19:     Merge clusters  $S, S'$  and update hierarchical tree  $T^*$ 
20:     Update interactions with neighboring clusters
21:   until  $[\mathcal{W}(S \cup S') \leq 0]$ 
22: Save the final clustering  $\Pi^* \leftarrow \Pi$ 
23: // Phase 3: Merge negative interactions until one single cluster is left
24: repeat
25:   Pop  $S, S' \in \Pi$  with highest interaction  $\mathcal{W}(S \cup S')$  from PQ
26:   Merge clusters  $S, S'$  and update hierarchical tree  $T^*$ 
27:   Update interactions with neighboring clusters
28:   until  $[\text{Only one cluster is left in } \Pi]$ 
29: return  $\Pi^*, T^*$ 

```

this paper on those five criteria because they represent the most popular choices.

Sum Linkage – On signed graphs, the sum of two attractive (or repulsive) interactions is still attractive (repulsive). On the other hand, on unsigned graphs, a strong attractive interaction could be obtained by summing many weak interactions, which depending on the application could be undesirable. This explains why, to our knowledge, an agglomerative algorithm with sum linkage has never been used on unsigned graphs. On signed graphs, such an algorithm was pioneered in [39, 51] and was named Greedy Agglomerative Edge Contraction (GAEC)⁵. GAEC always makes the *greedy choice* that most decreases the multicut objective defined in Eq. 1 each time two clusters with positive interaction are merged⁶. The authors of [51] propose an algorithm named *GreedyFixation*, which is equivalent to phase one of GASP using cannot-link-constraints and a sum linkage.

⁵An algorithm equivalent to GAEC was recently independently proposed in [12].

⁶In general, GASP cannot be seen as a local search algorithm of the multicut problem (for details see Appendix A6.2).

However, running both phase one and two of GASP with sum linkage (algorithm named HCC-Sum in this paper) performed better than GreedyFixation in our experiments.

AbsMax Linkage – This linkage method is also specific to signed graphs, since on unsigned graphs it would be equivalent to single linkage. Here, we prove that the Mutex Watershed Algorithm [75] can be seen as an agglomerative algorithm with AbsMax linkage (proofs of the following three propositions are given in Appendix A6.3):

Proposition 3.1. *The GASP Algorithm 1 with AbsMax linkage, with or without cannot link constraints, returns the same final clustering Π_{AbsMax}^* also returned by the Mutex Watershed Algorithm (MWS) [75], which has empirical complexity $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$.*

Average, Single, and Complete Linkage – These three linkage criteria have been thoroughly studied on unsigned graphs, but never - until very recently - on signed graphs. In concurrent independent related work [12], the authors prove that applying these three linkage methods to a signed graph is equivalent to applying them to the unsigned graph obtained by shifting all edge weights by a constant. Here, we prove which of the algorithms studied here are “intrinsically signed” and do not have this invariance-property:

Proposition 3.2. *We call an agglomerative algorithm “weight-shift invariant” if the dendrogram T returned by the algorithm is invariant w.r.t. a shift of all edge weights w_e by a constant $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Among the variations of GASP, only hierarchical clustering with Average (HC-Avg), Single (HC-Single), and Complete linkage (HC-Complete) are weight-shift-invariant (see green box in Table 1).*

Although average and single linkage methods have been largely studied on unsigned graphs, to our knowledge, they have never been combined with cannot-link constraints on signed graphs⁷, so we name these algorithms *HCC-Avg* and *HCC-Single*.

Algorithms defining an ultrametric – The connection between agglomerative algorithms and ultrametries⁸ is well known. Usually, ultrametries are associated to strictly positive *similarity* or *dissimilarity* measures on a graph. In our framework, a trivial ultrametric is always given by the height h_T of the dendrogram. However, for some of the GASP variations, we now define an ultrametric based on the edge weights and the signed interactions between clusters,

⁷Note that Complete linkage methods return the same clustering whether constraints are enforced or not (proof in Lemma A6.3, in Appendix).

⁸A metric space (X, d) is an *ultrametric* if, for every $x, y, z \in X$, $d(x, y) \leq \max\{d(x, z), d(y, z)\}$.

generalizing what has been done for HC on unsigned graphs [33, 58]. To define this measure and prove its ultrametric property, we first map the signed interaction \mathcal{W}_T defined in Eq. 2 to positive “pseudo-distances” $d_T : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$:

$$d_T(u, v) \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u = v \\ M - \mathcal{W}_T(u, v) & \text{if } u \neq v \end{cases} \quad \forall u, v \in V \quad (3)$$

$$\text{where } M \equiv \epsilon + \max_{u', v' \in V, u' \neq v'} \mathcal{W}_T(u', v') \quad (4)$$

and where $\epsilon > 0$. We then prove the following proposition:

Proposition 3.3. *Among the algorithms included in the GASP framework (see Table 1), only Mutex Watershed and hierarchical clustering with Average (HC-Avg), Single (HC-Single) and Complete linkage (HC-Complete) define an ultrametric (V, d_{T^*}) , where d_{T^*} is defined in Eq. 3 and T^* is the tree returned by the GASP Algorithm 1.*

In summary, in this section we have extended the family of HC algorithms [33, 58] with “weight-based ultrametries” to signed graphs. Next, we move to their empirical evaluation.

4. Experiments

4.1. Signed graph clustering problems

We evaluate the agglomerative clustering algorithms included in our framework on a large collection of both synthetic and real-world graphs with very different structures. The size of the graphs ranges from a few hundred to hundreds of millions of edges. In this way, we will highlight the strengths and limitations of the different linkage criteria introduced in the last section.

Synthetic SSBM graphs – We first consider synthetic graphs generated by a signed stochastic block model (SSBM). We use an Erdős-Rényi random graph model $\mathcal{G}(N, p)$ with N vertices and edge probability p . Following the approach in [19], we partitioned the graph into k *ground-truth* clusters, such that edges connecting vertices belonging to the same cluster (different clusters, respectively) have Gaussian distributed edge weights centered at $\mu = 1$ ($\mu = -1$, respectively) and with standard deviation $\sigma = 0.1$. To model noise, the sign of the edge weights is flipped independently with probability η .

Existing signed graphs – We use clustering instances from the OpenGM benchmark [34] as well as biomedical segmentation instances [62]. The dataset *Image Segmentation* contains planar region-adjacency-graphs (RAG) that are constructed from superpixel adjacencies of photographs. The *Knott-3D* datasets contains 3D-RAGs arising from volume images acquired by electron microscopy (EM). The set *Modularity Clustering* contains complete graphs constructed from clustering problems on small social networks.

Clustering problem	Graph Type	# I	$ V $	$ E $	Multicut objective values (average across instances, lower is better)				
					GAEC [39]	HCC-Sum	MWS [75]	HC-Avg	HCC-Avg
<i>Modularity Clustering</i> [11]	<i>complete</i>	6	34-115	561-6555	-0.457	-0.453	-0.073	-0.467	-0.467
<i>Image Segmentation</i> [1]	<i>RAG</i>	100	156-3764	439-10970	-2,955	-2,953	-2,901	-2,903	-2,896
<i>Knott-3D (150-300-450)</i> [2]	<i>3D-RAG</i>	24	572-17k	3381-107k	-36,667	-36,652	-35,200	-35,957	-35,631
<i>CREMI-3D-RAG (OurCNN)</i>	<i>3D-RAG</i>	3	134k-157k	928k-1065k	-1,112,287	-1,112,286	-1,109,731	-1,112,177	-1,112,100
<i>Fruit-Fly Level 1-4</i> [62]	<i>3D-RAG</i>	4	5m-11m	28m-72m	-151,022	-151,017	-150,879	-150,909	-150,876
<i>CREMI-gridGraph (OurCNN)</i>	<i>gridGraph</i>	15	39m	140m	-73,317,601	-73,328,867	-73,330,568	-73,502,947	-73,474,856
<i>Fruit-Fly Level Global</i> [62]	<i>3D-RAG</i>	1	90m	650m	-151,688	-151,596	-146,315	-150,466	-150,171

Table 2. List of compared signed graph clustering problems: for each, we specify the number of instances $\#I$, number of nodes $|V|$, and number of edges $|E|$ per instance. We compare algorithms in the GASP framework by their value of the multicut objective defined in Eq. 1 (lower is better).

The *Fruit-Fly* 3D-RAG instances were generated from volume image scans of fruit fly brain matter. Instances *Level 1-4* are progressively simplified versions of the global problem obtained via block-wise domain decomposition [62].

Grid-graphs from CNN predictions – We also evaluate the clustering methods on the task of neuron segmentation in EM image volumes using training data from the CREMI 2016 EM Segmentation Challenge [27]. We train a 3D U-Net [17, 67] using the same architecture as [28] and predict long-and-short range affinities as described in [50]. The predicted affinities $a_e \in [0, 1]$, which represent how likely it is for a pair of pixels to belong to the same neuron segment, are then mapped to signed edge weights $w_e = a_e - 0.5$, resulting in a 3D grid-graph having a node for each pixel/voxel of the image⁹. We divided the three CREMI training samples, consisting of ~ 196 million voxels each, into five sub-blocks for a total of 15 clustering problems (named *CREMI-gridGraph* in Table 2). See Appendix A6.5 for extended details about training, data augmentation, and how we remove tiny clusters left after running GASP on the *CREMI-gridGraph* clustering problems.

3D-RAG from CNN-predictions – Lastly, we use the predictions of our CNN model to generate three graph instances (one for each CREMI training sample, named *CREMI-3D-RAG* in Table 2), which have very similar structure to the *Knott-3D* and *Fruit-Fly* instances. We obtain these problems by using a pipeline that is very common in neuron segmentation: a watershed algorithm generates superpixels and from those a 3D region-adjacency graph is built, where edge weights are given by the CNN predictions averaged over the boundaries of adjacent superpixels (details in Appendix A6.5).

4.2. Comparison of results and discussion

Multicut objective values – In Table 2, we report the values of the multicut objective obtained for clustering with different GASP algorithms¹⁰. Although many heuristics

⁹To map affinities to signed weights, we also tested the *logarithmic mapping* proposed in [2, 25], but it performed worse in our experiments.

¹⁰Objective values achieved by Single and Complete linkage methods are much worse compared to other algorithms and are reported in Table A5, in Appendix.

were proposed to better optimize this objective [8, 9, 38], these methods are out of the scope of this paper, since they do not scale to the largest graph instances considered here. By looking at results in Table 2, we observe that GAEC almost always achieves the lowest objective values, except in the *CREMI-gridGraph* instances. Despite this, on graphs where a ground truth clustering is known, GAEC does not achieve the lowest ARAND errors (see Tables 3a) and 3b)).

Size of growing clusters: Sum vs Avg linkage – In all the studied clustering problems, we empirically observe that sum-linkage algorithms like GAEC grow clusters one after the other, as shown in Fig. 1d and Fig. 3 by the agglomeration order of GAEC¹¹. This is intuitively explained by the following: initially, many of the most attractive edge weights have very similar values; when the two nodes u, v with the highest attraction are merged, there is a high chance that they will have a common neighboring node t belonging to the same cluster; thus, the interaction between the merged nodes uv and t is likely assigned to the highest priority, because it is given by the sum of two highly attractive edge weights. This will then start a “chain reaction” where only a single cluster is agglomerated at the time. In the following, we will show how this unique *flooding strategy* of the sum-linkage methods can be both an advantage or a disadvantage, depending on the type of clustering problem.

Comparison to spectral clustering – The spectral clustering methods for signed graphs SPONGE_{sym} and SPONGE proposed by [19] achieved state of the art performances on SSBM synthetic graphs. Their competitive performances are also confirmed by our experiments in Fig. 2. However, these methods do not scale up to the large graph instances considered here and they also require the user to specify the true number of clusters in advance, which is not known for other graph instances tested in this paper. In Appendix, Table A6, we report the scores achieved by these methods on a much smaller sub-instance of the *CREMI-gridGraph* problem: even when the true number of clusters is specified in advance for the spectral methods, they perform much worse than other GASP algorithms, with an

¹¹This *flooding agglomeration-strategy* of GAEC was also observed in [36].

	ARAND Error	VOI split	VOI merge	Runtime (s)		ARAND Error	VOI split	VOI merge	Runtime (s)		Needs superpixels?	CREMI Score	ARAND Error	VOI split	VOI merge
HC-Avg	0.0487	0.387	0.258	2344	HC-Avg	0.0896	0.603	0.323	86	OurCNN: 3D-RAG + LiftedMulticut	✗	0.221	0.108	0.339	0.115
HCC-Avg	0.0492	0.389	0.259	2892	HCC-Avg	0.0898	0.600	0.325	87	GASP: <i>OurCNN</i> + <i>gridGraph</i> + <i>HCC-Avg</i>	□	0.224	0.113	0.361	0.085
MWS [75]	0.0554	0.440	0.249	688	GAEC [39]	0.0905	0.606	0.323	89	GASP: <i>OurCNN</i> + <i>gridGraph</i> + <i>HC-Avg</i>	□	0.224	0.114	0.364	0.083
GAEC [39]	0.0856	0.356	0.338	4717	HCC-Sum	0.0910	0.608	0.323	85	PNI CNN [50]	✗	0.228	0.116	0.345	0.106
HCC-Sum	0.0872	0.365	0.337	4970	MWS [75]	0.1145	0.825	0.295	86	LSI-Masks [6]	□	0.246	0.125	0.383	0.107
HC-Complete	0.9211	4.536	0.211	1020	HCC-Single	0.5282	0.437	1.367	88	GASP: <i>OurCNN</i> + <i>3D-RAG</i> + <i>HCC-Avg</i>	✗	0.257	0.132	0.438	0.063
HCC-Single	0.9264	0.060	4.887	312	HC-Single	0.5282	0.437	1.367	85	GASP: <i>OurCNN</i> + <i>3D-RAG</i> + <i>HC-Avg</i>	✗	0.262	0.135	0.448	0.063
HC-Complete	0.9264	0.060	4.887	6440	HC-Complete	0.5654	2.253	0.249	86	MALA CNN + MC [28]	✗	0.276	0.132	0.490	0.089
HCC-Single	0.9264	0.060	4.887	6440						CRU-Net [78]	✗	0.566	0.229	1.081	0.389

a) CREMI-gridGraph (OurCNN)

b) CREMI-3D-RAG (OurCNN)

c) CREMI Challenge leader-board

Table 3. **Tables (a-b)**: Scores and run times of algorithms in the GASP framework on the *CREMI-gridGraph* and *CREMI-3D-RAG* clustering problems: average linkage methods achieved the best accuracy. Measures shown are: Adapted-Rand error (ARAND, lower is better); Variation of Information (VOI) [4] (VOI-merge for under-clustering error and VOI-split for over-clustering error, lower values are better). **Table (c)**: Current leading entries in the CREMI challenge leaderboard (November 2021). CREMI-score is given by the geometric mean of (VOI-split + VOI-merge) and ARAND error (lower is better).

accuracy penalty of almost 50%. For these reasons, we exclude them from our other comparison experiments.

GASP on synthetic SSBM graphs – GASP algorithms using cannotLinkConstraints are not expected to perform well on these graphs, because of the type of employed sign noise, so we focus our comparison only on the GAEC, HC-Avg and MWS algorithms (using Sum, Average, and AbsMax linkage methods, respectively). Empirically, we observe that GAEC is the agglomerative algorithm performing best on SSBM graphs, on par with spectral method SPONGE_{sym} (see Fig. 2). Given the simple properties of SSBM graphs, we can now give a detailed explanation of these empirical results. In SSBM graphs, the number of edges E_{ij} connecting two clusters S_i, S_j is proportional to the product $|S_i| \cdot |S_j|$ of cluster sizes. With Sum or Avg linkage methods, due to the law of large numbers, the flipping noise is “averaged out” as soon as the set E_{ij} becomes larger and clusters grow in size. On the other hand, when clusters are small, it can happen that, for few clusters, several of their edges in E_{ij} are flipped and the algorithm makes a mistake by merging two clusters belonging to different ground truth communities. From this observation, it follows that the *flooding strategy* of the sum-linkage algorithm GAEC is a very good strategy on these types of graphs, because clusters are immediately grown in size (see dendrograms in Fig. 3). Average linkage method HC-Avg instead performs much worse on these graphs because it grows small equally-sized clusters and makes several wrong merge-decisions at the beginning. Lastly, the MWS algorithm is not expected to perform well on these graphs because of the high sensitivity of the AbsMax linkage to flipping noise. In Proposition A6.2 (see Appendix), we prove that, at every iteration, the MWS algorithm makes a mistake with at least probability η , independently on the sizes of the two clusters that are popped from priority queue. In summary, for the SSBM, we can obtain a deep understanding of the dynamics induced by various linkage criteria, and find that GAEC gives highest accuracy by a large margin.

Scores on CREMI instance-segmentation – SSBM

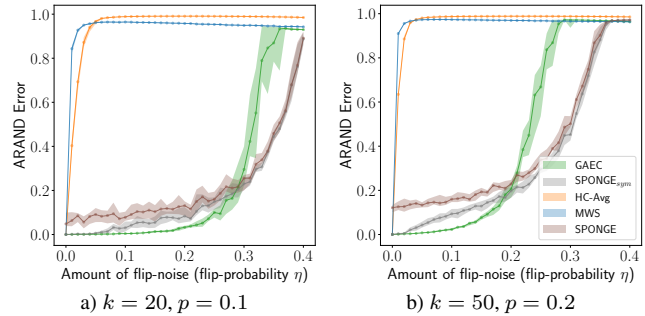


Figure 2. ARAND errors (median values over 20 experiments, lower is better) on synthetic graphs generated with SSBM. We consider k ground truth communities of random size. Graphs have $N = 10000$ nodes; edges are randomly added with probability p .

graphs are *non-planar*, and every edge has the same probability to be present in the graph. On the other hand, the *gridGraph* and *3D-RAG* graphs of Table 2 are sparse and have a very regular structure: regardless of whether a node represents a pixel or a superpixel, it will only have edge connections with its neighbors in the image (up to a certain hop distance). Tables 3a)-3b) show that average linkage methods (HC-Avg, HCC-Avg) strongly outperform other methods on *CREMI-gridGraph* instances and also achieve the best scores on *CREMI-3D-rag* graphs. Sum-based linkage methods (GAEC, HCC-Sum) have a two times higher ARAND error on grid-graphs and often return under-clustered segments (see failure cases in Fig. 4). This suggests that the *flooding strategy* observed previously in the sum-linkage methods does not work on grid-graphs, because in this setup edge weights are predicted by a CNN and noise is strongly spatially-correlated¹². To fully test this hypothesis, we conduct a set of experiments where the CNN predictions are perturbed by adding structured noise and simulating addi-

¹²This effect is not as strong on *3D-RAG* graphs, because edge weights are computed by averaging CNN predictions (and noise) over the boundaries of adjacent supervoxels.

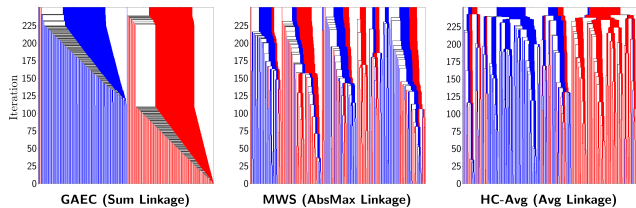


Figure 3. Clustering dynamics and accuracy of GASP variations on stochastic block models. The dendrograms result from three versions of GASP on a synthetic graph generated with SSBM (250 nodes, edge probability $p = 0.05$, flipping probability $\eta = 0.1$). Red and blue colors show which of the two equal-sized ground-truth communities each node belongs to. At the top, dendrograms are truncated at the level of the final clustering Π^* returned by GASP.

tional artifacts like “holes” in the boundary evidence¹³. The plot in Fig. 5 confirms that HC-Avg and HCC-Avg are very robust algorithms on this data, followed by Sum-linkage algorithms and the Mutex Watershed algorithm (MWS). It is not a surprise that the AbsMax linkage used by MWS is not robust to this type of structured noise. However, the scores and runtimes in Table 3a) prove how MWS can achieve high accuracy with 70% lower runtime compared to HC-Avg.

Complete and Single Linkage – We use these two linkage methods as baselines to highlight the difficulty of the studied graph clustering problems listed in Table 2. Scores in Tables 3a)-3b) show their poor performance: Single linkage hierarchical clustering (HC-Single), which here is equivalent to thresholding the edge weights at $w_e = 0$ and computing connected components in the graph, often returned few big under-segmented clusters. HC-Complete returned instead a lot of over-segmented clusters.

Results on CREMI challenge – Table 3c) shows that the HCC-Avg and HC-Avg clustering algorithms achieve state-of-the-art accuracy on the CREMI challenge, when combined with predictions of our CNN. Most of the other entries (apart from *LSI-Masks* [6]) employ super-pixels based post-processing pipelines and cluster 3D-region-adjacency graphs. As we show in Table 3b), using superpixels considerably reduces the size of the clustering problem and, consequently, the post-processing time. However, our method operating directly on pixels (*gridGraph* + *HCC-Avg*) achieves better performances than superpixel-based methods (*3D-RAG* + *HCC-Avg*) and does not require the parameter tuning necessary to obtain good super-pixels, which is usually highly dataset dependent. To scale up our method operating on pixels, we divided each test-volume into four sub-blocks, and then combined the resulting clusterings by running the algorithms again on the combined graph. The method *3D-*

¹³See Appendix A6.6 for details about how we perturbed the *CREMI-gridGraph* problems by using Perlin noise [63, 64], which is one of the most common gradient noises used in procedural pattern generation.

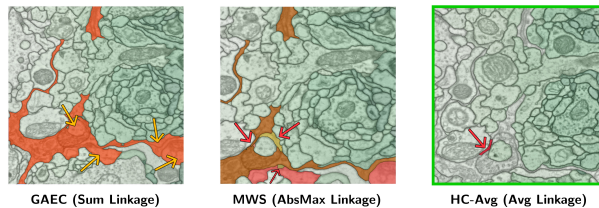


Figure 4. Failure cases of three versions of GASP applied to neuron segmentation. Only *wrongly* segmented regions are highlighted in different warm colors. Red arrows point to wrongly split regions; yellow arrows point to false merge errors. HC-Avg returned the best segmentation. Data is 3D, hence the same color could be assigned to parts of segments that appear disconnected in 2D.

RAG + *LiftedMulticut* based on the lifted multicut approximation of [10] achieves the best scores overall, but it takes into account different information through the lifted edge weights that also depend on additional raw-data and shape information from highly engineered super-pixels.

5. Conclusion

We have presented a unifying framework for agglomerative clustering of graphs with both positive and negative edge weights. This framework allowed us to explore new combinations of constraints and linkage criteria and to perform a consistent evaluation of all algorithms in it. We have then analyzed several theoretical and empirical properties of these algorithms. On instance segmentation, algorithms based on an average linkage criterion outperformed all the others: they proved to be simple and robust approaches to process short- and long-range predictions of a CNN. On biological images, these simple average agglomeration algorithms achieve state-of-the-art results without requiring the user to spend much time tuning complex task-dependent pipelines based on super-pixels.

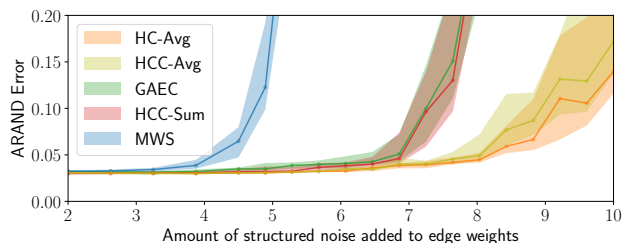


Figure 5. ARAND errors (median values over 20 experiments, lower is better) on *CREMI-gridGraph* clustering problems perturbed with structured noise. Average-linkage algorithms proved to be the most robust.

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