AN ASSESSMENT OF NUMERICAL CLASSIFICATORY METHODS FOR GEOGRAPHY

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SINOPSIS

Perkembangan teknik pelbagai angkubah adalah selari dengan perkembangan dan kemudahan alat komputer. Kertas ini cuba menilai kegunaankegunaan salah satu daripada teknik-teknik pelbagai angkubah ini, iaitu, analisa perkelompokan, juga dikenali sebagai kelasifikasi numerikal. Dalam membincangkan kertas ini prosedur-prosedur teknik perkelompokan ini diterangkan. Sebagai satu contoh untuk menjelaskan teknik ini beberapa sedimen yang diambil daripada 30 sungai digunakan. 'Coefficient Dissimilarity iaitu 'Euclidean Distance' digunakan sebagai ukuran persamaan dan lima strategi penyatuan dipilih untuk menunjukkan berbagai-bagai keputusan.

SYNOPSIS

The development of the multivariate technique has grown parallel with the development and ready availability of digital computers. This paper attempts to assess the usefulness of one of these multivariate techniques, that is, the cluster analysis also commonly known as numerical classification. In this paper, procedures in developing clustering technique are described. As an illustration of this technique, continuous data of various sediments taken from 30 streams are used. Dissimilarity coefficient (the Euclidean distance) is used as measure of similarity and five fusion strategies are selected to produce various results.

Introduction:

The main surge of computer-based studies began in 1961 with the widespread use of machines produced in the IBM series. The demand on computer time is now doubling every two years. The main uses of computers in systems analysis appear to be studies in multivariate statistics, trend-surface decomposition, computer graphics and simulation (Hagget, 1969: 497-520).

Workers in the 1950's, using conventional statistics such as mean test, variance analysis, correlation and regression analysis, were the first to respond to the facilities and resources opened up by the computer. Studies were quickly extended to include multivariate methods such as principal

component analysis, factor analysis and multiple descriminant functions (King, 1969).

Researchers struggling through desk calculators to an exhausting five variables equation were suddenly confronted with powerful 'package' programmes which could not only compute coefficients for dozens of variables but provided means of selecting optimal sets from the rack (Hagget, 1969).

Something of the power of multivariate analysis may be seen in the geographical use of principal component analysis and factor analysis. These techniques have the capability of reducing immense arrays of data to a series of coherent and interpretable dimensions of factor. The amount of mathematics involved is normally outside the range of mechanical calculators, hence computer programmes have to be used.

It must be stressed that multivariate methods, including numerical taxonomy, have been applied far more in the field of biology and ecology when compared to the earth sciences, especially geomorphology.

In the last decades or so there has been a swift growth of taxonomic methods in ecology. Since the pioneering work of Sorenson in 1948 who employed both coefficient of association and cluster analysis, others have followed suit: Goodall (1953: 39-63), Williams and Lamberts (1959: 427-445), Greig-Smith (1964), and Whittaker (1967: 207-264).

Multivariate analysis in Geography is picking up in popularity. Geographical investigations are often of a multivariate nature in that they seek to analyse many attributes measured at different localities. Three of these techniques, namely, factor analysis, cluster analysis and multiple discriminant analysis are widely used.

This paper attempts to discuss how one of the multivariate techniques, that is, the cluster analysis, can be applied in geography. In this discussion procedures in developing clustering techniques are described. Continuous data of various sediments taken from 30 streams are used as an illustration. Dissimilarity Coefficient, the Euclidean distance, is used as measure of similarity and five fusion strategies are selected to produce various results.¹ It should be emphasised, however, that this paper is mainly concerned with the methodology rather than the problem solving work of this technique.

NUMERICAL CLASSIFICATION

Classification can be derived subjectively or objectively or by varying degrees of objectivity. This paper attempts to assess the usefulness of a clustering technique which is actually a numerical classification.

Clustering techniques have been developed in response to the following problem: given a sample of 'N' objects or individuals, each of which is measured on each of 'P' variables, devise a classification scheme for grouping the objects into 'g' classes (Everit, 1974). In clustering methods,

^{1.} The analysis of the data is by the use of ICL 1907 computer of Sheffield University. The package programme used is clustan 1A which is a comprehensive suite of Fortran IV programme developed by Wishart 1969-1970.



Figure I. A choice of classification strategies.

It is conventional to arrange data in the form of a N x P matrix in which N columns represent the individuals and P rows represent variables. The data matrix is then used to estimate the resemblance between pairs of individuals. The scores in a data matrix may be expressed in many ways and they depend on the nature of the variables. They may be presence/absence data, rank data, meristic data or continous data.

Cluster analysis or numerical classification is divided into two distinct types: the hierarchical or non-hierarchical. The former is equated with the production of a dendrogram while the latter is often known as recticulate.

The hierarchical type is divided into two major groups or methods. The first one is the divisive hierarchical method which begins with a complete set of entities. These entities will then be classified and divided progressively into smaller groups.

The second group is the agglomerative hierarchical method which starts with a single entity. It then considers which other entity is most similar to the chosen one in some defined sense, followed by a third entity which is most similar to the first and second entities and this proceeds to build up a cluster of entities. At some point it may be decided that none of the remaining entities is similar enough to be associated with the cluster being formed and a new cluster is initiated.

MONOTHETIC AND POLYTHETIC METHODS:

The terms "monothetic" and 'polythetic" have been associated with hierarchical classification. In monothetic procedures every group at every stage is being defined by the presence or lack of special attributes, or in other words, the union is based on one attribute. In polythetic procedures



the union is based on all the attributes.

The agglomerative monothetic cannot exist but in a trivial sence. At the other extreme the divisive polythetic classification is computationally out of the question for most researchers and thus it has not been sufficiently developed. The most popular classifications in use at present are the divisive monothetic and agglomerative polythetic. Agglomerative polythetic method is, however, historically older than the divisive monothetic, deriving at least from the work of Kulczynski in 1972. The agglomerative polythetic will be dealt with in greater detail below as this method is comparatively more superior and popular than the other methods.

AGGLOMERATIVE POLYTHETIC METHOD:

The first stage in agglomerative polythetic method is the calculation of



neighbour sorting strategy

similarity matrix between two individuals using some kind of index of coefficient. Index of similarity coefficient can be broadly divided into four groups: distance coefficient; association coefficient: correlation coefficient; and probablistic similarity coefficient.

Distance coefficient measures distances between individuals in a space defined in various ways, and the most familiar measurement is simple Euclidean distance. Distance coefficient is the converse of similarity; it is in fact a measure of dissimilarity. It has great intellectual appeal to taxonomists as it is easiest to visualise (Sneath & Sokal, 1973). Association coefficient may involve quantitative data. It can be applied to rank and continuous data by sacrificing information. Correlation coefficient measures proportionality and independence between pairs of individual sectors. The product moment correlation coefficient is frequently applied



to continuous data. Probablistic coefficient is more recent and it includes information-type statistics which measure the homogeneity of the data by partitioning or sub-partitioning sets of individuals (William & Dale, 1965: 35-68).

The next stage is the sorting strategy of fusion. The sorting strategy involves grouping together of individuals to form a dendrogram. Eight types of sorting strategies are recognized. They are nearest neighbour or single linkage, furtherest neighbour or complete linkage, centroid, medium, group average, Ward's, Mcquitty and the Lance and William flexible Beta method.

The result of fusion is expressed in a dendrogram form. The distance away from the base line at which two individuals or groups joined is a direct expression of their degree of similarity. Hence the most similar



distance similarity coefficient and displaying group average sorting strategy

groups are first joined. The best fusion will depend on its ability to form a good group structure. Figure 1 shows the stages of numerical classification techniques already described above. The differences between these arise essentially because of the different ways of defining distance (or similarity) between an individual and group containing several variables or between groups of individuals.

Test runs on agglomerative polythetic techniques of numerical classification are given in Figures 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6. The variables consist of 13 different sediment samples taken from 30 different streams. Euclidean distance coefficient is used for similarity measures and fusion strategies used are the nearest neighbout, furtherest neighbour, centroid, group average and Ward's method.

Some methods do not produce satisfactory clusters. Usually, this is due to chaining effects as seen in Figure 2. Chaining is a tendency of clustering



sorting strategy

together certain individuals at a relatively low level and to incorporate individuals into existing clusters rather than to generate new clusters. Generally, chaining is considered to be a defect. However, Jardine and Sibson (1968 177-184) argue that nearest neighbour is the best mathematical method and point out that to treat chaining as a defect is misleading. Chaining, according to them, is simply a description of what a method does and if one is looking for optimally connected clusters, and not for homogenous clusters, such a method may be useful. However, because of chaining, nearest neighbour may fail to resolve relatively distinct clusters. Many of the density reach techniques arose from attempts to correct the effect of chaining in the single linkage method (Everitt, 1974).

Figures 3, 4 and 5 produce slightly better dendrograms than the nearest neighbour method. However, with the exception of Figure 3, the imbalance in the two clusters is obvious. But Figure 4 (centroid method)

shows some reversals which reflect another weakness of a dendrogram. "Reversals effect" occurs when the computer prints one fusion which is at a lower level than has already been drawn on the diagram.

Figure 6 (Ward's method) produces dendrograms that are conspicuous for their symmetrical hierarchical structure even though the 'steps' or change in levels is average. The dendrogram identifies two large groups. Distinct smaller groups are clearly present.

In conclusion, the above discussion illustrates that geographical data can be analysed using agglomerative polythetic with five selected sorting strategies. The Ward's method shows good structured dendrogram while the others show weaker, structured dendrograms with chaining, reversals and some crowding.

Thus, suffice to say that the choice on the sorting strategy does influence the structure of the dendrogram and, therefore, to a certain extent the results of the analysis. The most important factor is that the user must be aware that the choice showed suits the data that one is dealing with so that the results would easily be grasped and analysed.

On the whole, the agglomerative polythetic technique in analysing geographical data should be useful. Firstly, most geographical data are multivariate in nature and this suits well with the numerical classification or cluster analysis technique which deals only with such data. Other uses of this technique relevant to analysing and solving geographical problems include finding a true typology, model fitting, prediction generating and data reduction (Everitt 1974).

Application of the cluster analysis technique can also and has been used in the other fields of social sciences and humanities. For example, Buechley (1967 53-69) has made a cluster analysis of family names in different geographic localities. Wishart and Leach (1970: 90-99) have used several methods of clustering in examining the works of Plato so as to determine the probable chronology, and Grumm (1965: 350-362) has studied the voting behaviour of legislators by average linkage clustering. However, in applying the cluster analysis technique in the social science, one major problem that has to be considered is the question of quantifying variables. Some data in the social sciences are difficult to quantify and therefore would pose a problem to the data input. Such a problem is least faced by the physical sciences.

In short, in multivariate analysis, the cluster analysis method has applications in geography as well as in other fields of study

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