Lecture 4: K-means and K-nearest neighbors

Reading: Sections 13.3, 14.3.6

GU4241/GR5241 Statistical Machine Learning

Linxi Liu January 26, 2017

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- EM algorithm
- ► K-means clustering

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- ► EM algorithm
- EM is more general, K means and K medoids are very similar
- K-means clustering
- K-medoids clustering

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- ► EM algorithm
- K-means clustering
- ► *K*-medoids clustering
- ► Hierarchical clustering

Handwritten digit identification

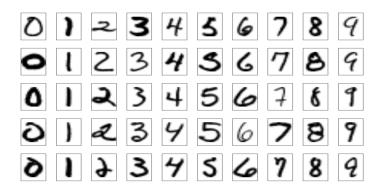


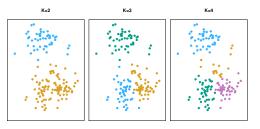
FIGURE 11.9. Examples of training cases from ZIP code data. Each image is a 16×16 8-bit grayscale representation of a handwritten digit.

Image segmentation



K-means clustering

▶ *K* is the number of clusters and must be fixed in advance.

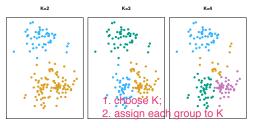


ISL Figure 10.5

we want to minimize the within parawised distance

K-means clustering

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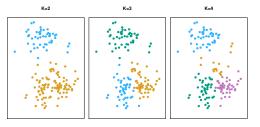
ISL Figure 10.5

► The goal of this method is to maximize the similarity of samples within each cluster:

$$\min_C W(C)$$

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ISL Figure 10.5

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$$\min_{C} W(C) \quad ; \quad W(C) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \sum_{C(j)=k} d(x_i, x_j).$$

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 - ▶ Find the *centroid* of each cluster ℓ ; i.e. the average $\overline{x}_{\ell,:}$ of all the samples in the cluster:

$$\overline{x}_{\ell,j} = \frac{1}{|\{i: C(i) = \ell\}|} \sum_{i: C(i) = \ell} x_{i,j} \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, p.$$

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Reassign each sample to the nearest centroid.

Elements of Statistical Learning (2nd Ed.) @Hastie, Tibshirani & Friedman 2009 Chap 14

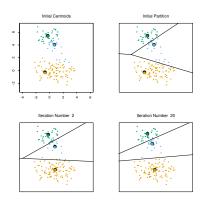


FIGURE 14.6. Successive iterations of the K-means clustering algorithm for the simulated data of Figure 14.4.

▶ The algorithm always converges to a local minimum of

$$\min_{C} W(C) \quad ; \quad W(C) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \sum_{C(j)=k} d(x_i, x_j).$$

this is the minimized within the clustering pairwise distance

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Why? When d is the Euclidean distance we use the mean to calculate the ED

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{C(i)=\ell} \sum_{C(j)=\ell} d(x_i, x_j) = |N_\ell| \sum_{C(i)=\ell} d(x_i, \overline{x}_\ell)$$

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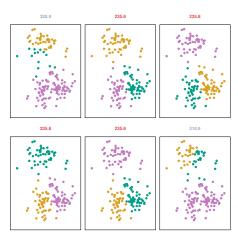
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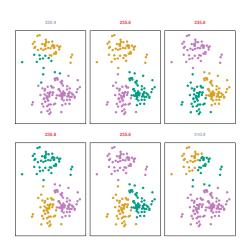
► Each initialization could yield a different minimum.

Example: K-means output with different initializations



ISL Figure 10.7

Example: K-means output with different initializations



and choose the output which minimizes the objective function.

In practice, we start from many random initializations

ISL Figure 10.7

Practical Issues

► Categorical features are usually coded as dummy variables:

$$(1 \ 0 \ 0)$$

$$(0 \ 1 \ 0)$$

$$X=1,2, \ \mbox{or} \ 3 \quad \rightarrow \quad \mbox{or} \quad (0 \ 0 \ 1)$$

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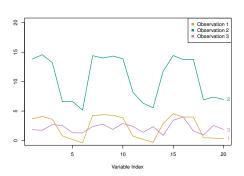
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- ► Weighting is also possible
- ▶ How to choose the number of clusters *K*?

Correlation distance

► Euclidean distance would cluster all customers who purchase few things (orange and purple).



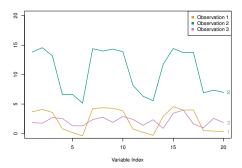
Correlation distance

- ► Euclidean distance would cluster all customers who purchase few things (orange and purple).
- ▶ Perhaps we want to cluster customers who purchase *similar* things (orange and teal).

similar the scaling step, we need to normalize the data.

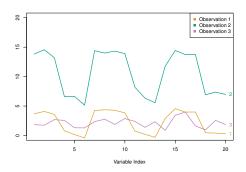
Otherwise, the result is informative. Thus use ED method, based on the quantity If we use correlation method, the result is based on the preference.

Thus use correlation method == scaling step.



Correlation distance

- Euclidean distance would cluster all customers who purchase few things (orange and purple).
- Perhaps we want to cluster customers who purchase similar things (orange and teal).
- ► Then, the **correlation distance** may be a more appropriate measure of dissimilarity between samples.



Fact of correlation distance

Correlation is defined by

$$\rho(x_i, x_{i'}) = \frac{\sum_j (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)(x_{i'j} - \bar{x}_{i'})}{\sqrt{\sum_j (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2 \sum_j (x_{i'j} - \bar{x}_{i'})^2}},$$

where \bar{x}_i = mean of obeservation i.

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where $\bar{x}_i = \text{mean of observation } i$.

If observations are standardized:

$$x_{ij} \leftarrow \frac{x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i}{\sqrt{\sum_j (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2}},$$

then
$$2(1 - \rho(x_i, x_{i'})) = \sum_j (x_{ij} - x_{i'j})^2$$
.

1. Assign each sample to a cluster from 1 to K arbitrarily, e.g. at random.

in K means, we need to find the center of the each cluster, center can be just mean or other thing; in the K medoids, we need to set the center as the particular observation

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 - ► For a given cluster assignment *C* find the observation in the cluster minimizing total pairwise distance with the other cluster members:

$$i_k^* = \mathop{\rm argmin}_{\{i:C(i)=k\}} \sum_{C(i')=k} d(x_i, x_{i'}).$$

Then $z_k = x_{i_k^*}$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ are the current estimates of the cluster centers.

the centroid can give us the summary of the data set, we want the centroid to be meaningful, and particular. Thus the Centroids is an observation

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▶ Given a current set of cluster centers $\{z_1, \ldots, z_K\}$, minimize the total error by assigning each observation to the closest (current) cluster center:

$$C(i) = \underset{1 \le k \le K}{\operatorname{argmin}} d(x_i, z_k).$$

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- Advantage: centroid is one of the observations— useful, for example when features are 0 or 1. Also, one only needs pairwise ditances for K-medoids rather than the raw observations.

K-nearest neighbors regression

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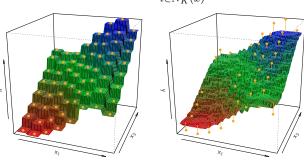
$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in N_K(x)} y_i$$

K-nearest neighbors regression

KNN regression: prototypical nonparametric method.

Given a training set (X, y):

 $\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in N_K(x)} y_i$

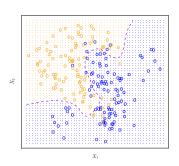


$$K = 1$$

K = 9

1/k gives the flexibility, less 1/k, then the model is smoother

Classification problem



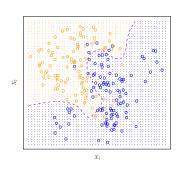
ISL Figure 2.13

Recall:

- $ightharpoonup X = (X_1, X_2)$ are inputs.
- $\qquad \qquad \mathsf{Color} \ Y \in \{\mathsf{Yellow} \ , \mathsf{Blue}\} \ \mathsf{is} \ \mathsf{the} \\ \mathsf{output}.$

we will only use bayes classifier, for it is the optimal one under zero one laus function

Classification problem

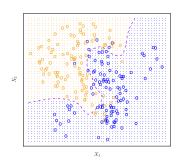


ISL Figure 2.13

Recall:

- ▶ $X = (X_1, X_2)$ are inputs.
- ▶ Color $Y \in \{\text{Yellow }, \text{Blue}\}$ is the output.
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Classification problem



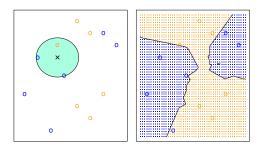
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- ▶ (X, Y) have a joint distribution.
- ► Purple line is *Bayes boundary* the best we could do if we knew the joint distribution of (*X*, *Y*)

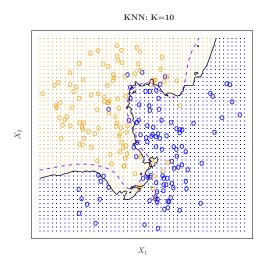
K-nearest neighbors

To assign a color to the input \times , we look at its K=3 nearest neighbors. We predict the color of the majority of the neighbors.



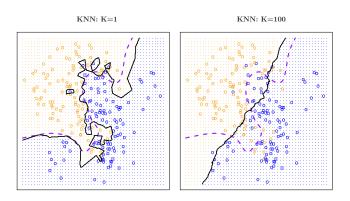
ISL Figure 2.14

K-nearest neighbors also has a decision boundary

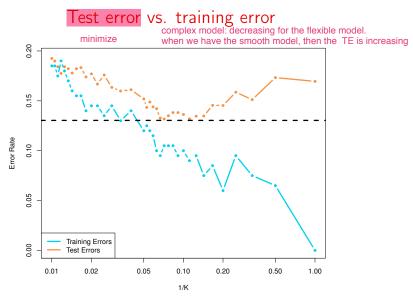


ISL Figure 2.15

The higher K, the smoother the decision boundary



ISL Figure 2.16



ISL Figure 2.17

Curse of dimensionality

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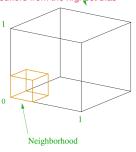
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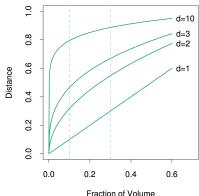
- near neighborhoods tend to be spatially large, the estimates are biased.
- ► reducing the spatial size of the neighborhood means reducing *K*, and the variance of the estimate increases.

In order to:
point is close enough
cover the fixed fraction of data
then we want the volume to be B,
and edge is R^1/p, (p dimension)
ha

Curse of dimensionality

if we want to make prediction, we need to suffers from the highest bias





ESL Figure 2.6

- ▶ We want to obtain a hypercubicual neighborhood about a target point to capture a fraction r of the observations.
- The expected edge length will be $e_p(r) = r^{1/p}$. In ten dimensions, $e_{10}(0.01) = 63\%$.

Example

▶ 1000 training examples x_i generated uniformly on $[-1,1]^p$.

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- ▶ 1000 training examples x_i generated uniformly on $[-1,1]^p$.
- $Y = f(X) = e^{-8||X||^2}$ (no measurement error).
- use the 1-nearest-neighbor rule to predict y_0 at the test-point $x_0=0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{MSE}(x_0) &= & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}[f(x_0) - \hat{y}_0]^2 \\ &= & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}[\hat{y}_0 - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(\hat{y}_0)]^2 + [\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}(\hat{y}_0) - f(x_0)]^2 \\ &= & \mathsf{Var}_{\mathcal{T}}(\hat{y}_0) + \mathsf{Bias}^2(\hat{y}_0). \end{aligned}$$

