

# Clustering

## K-means

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## Introduction to clustering

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## Definition

A cluster is a collection of objects which are “similar” between them and are “dissimilar” to the objects belonging to other clusters.

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Clustering is the algorithm that recognizes clusters from a given data set.

Part of common application domains in which the clustering problem arises are as follows:

- Multimedia Data Analysis
- Responding to public health crises
- Intermediate Step for other fundamental data mining problems
- Intelligent Transportation

## K-means Algorithm

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The **k-means clustering** problem is one of the oldest and most important questions in all of computational geometry.

Given an integer  $k$  and a set of  $n$  data points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , the goal of this problem is to choose **k centers** so as to **minimize the total squared distance between each point and its closest center**.

The most common K-means algorithm was first proposed by **Stuart Lloyd** of Bell Labs in 1957.

The objective function to minimize is the **within-cluster sum of squares** (WCSS) cost:

$$\text{Cost}(C_{1:k}, c_{1:k}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} \|x - c_i\|^2$$

where  $c_i$  is the **centroid** of cluster

#### Definition

**Cluster centroid** is the **middle** of a cluster.

A centroid is a vector that contains one number for each variable, where each number is the mean of a variable for the observations in that cluster.

The centroid can be thought of as the multi-dimensional average of the cluster.

## Lemma

Let  $C$  be a cluster of points with its mean to be  $\mu$ , and let  $c$  to be an arbitrary point. Then  $\sum_{x \in C} \|x - c\|^2 = \sum_{x \in C} \|x - \mu\|^2 + |C| \cdot \|c - \mu\|^2$

So we denote that:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Cost}(C_{1:k}, c_{1:k}) &= \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} \|x - c_i\|^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^k \left( \sum_{x \in C_i} \|x - \mu_i\|^2 + |C_i| \cdot \|c_i - \mu_i\|^2 \right) \\
 &= \text{Cost}(C_{1:k}, \text{mean}(C_{1:k})) + \sum_{i=1}^k |C_i| \cdot \|c_i - \mu_i\|^2
 \end{aligned}$$

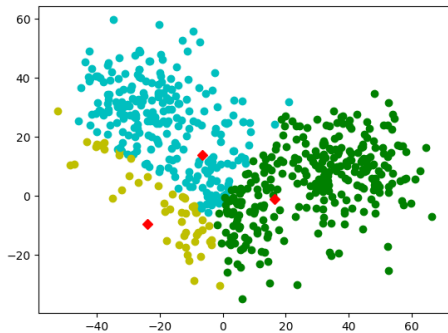


The k-means algorithm **iteratively** calculates the sum of distance within a cluster and updates the partition.

1. Arbitrarily choose and initial **k** centroids  $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, c_2 \dots c_k\}$
2. For each  $i \in \{1, 2 \dots k\}$ , set the cluster  $C_i$  to be the set of points that are **closer** to  $c_i$  than they are to  $c_j$  for all  $j \neq i$
3. For each  $i \in \{1, 2 \dots k\}$ , set  $c_i$  to be the center of all points in  $C_i$  where 
$$c_i = \frac{1}{|C_i|} \sum_{x \in C_i} x$$
4. Repeat Step 2 and Step 3 until  $\mathcal{C}$  no longer changes.

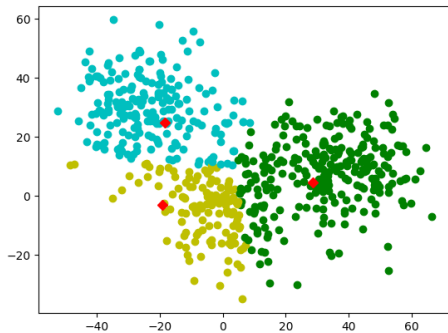
# Toward a K-means Algorithm

Iteration = 1



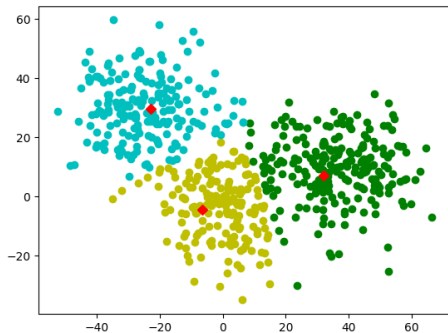
# Toward a K-means Algorithm

Iteration = 2

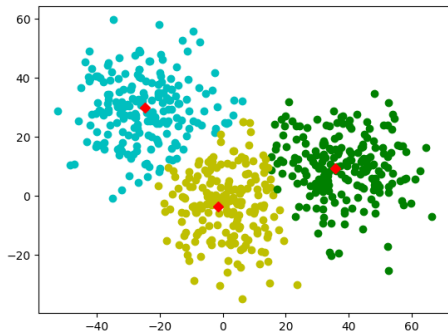


## Toward a K-means Algorithm

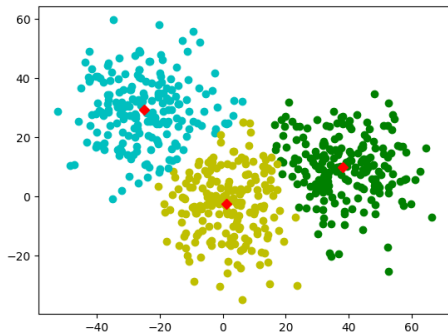
Iteration = 3



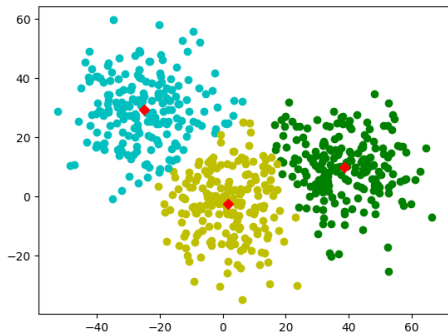
Iteration = 4



Iteration = 5



Iteration = 6



### Proof.

During the course of the k-means algorithm, the cost monotonically decreases. □



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Let  $c_1^{(t)} \dots c_k^{(t)}, C_1^{(t)} \dots C_k^{(t)}$  denote the centroids and clusters at the start of  $t^{\text{th}}$  iteration of K-means.

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The first step of the iteration assigns each point to its nearest center, therefore:

$$\text{Cost}(C_{1:k}^{(t+1)}, c_{1:k}^{(t)}) \leq \text{Cost}(C_{1:k}^{(t)}, c_{1:k}^{(t)})$$

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On the second step, each cluster re-centered at its mean. By lemma above:

$$\text{Cost}(C_{1:k}^{(t+1)}, c_{1:k}^{(t+1)}) \leq \text{Cost}(C_{1:k}^{(t+1)}, c_{1:k}^{(t)})$$

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Naive K-means algorithm's time complexity is  $O(kni)$



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In each iteration there are such steps:

- Distance calculation: To calculate the distance from a point to the centroid, we can use the squared Euclidean proximity function, which is thought to be  $O(1)$
- Comparisons between distances.
- Centroid calculation.

**Proof.**

Naive K-means algorithm's time complexity is  $O(kni)$



So the total number of operations in one iteration is:

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \text{distance calculation} + \text{comparisons} + \text{centroids calculation} \\ &= k * n * O(1) + (k - 1) * n * O(1) + k * n * O(1) \\ &= O(kn) \end{aligned}$$

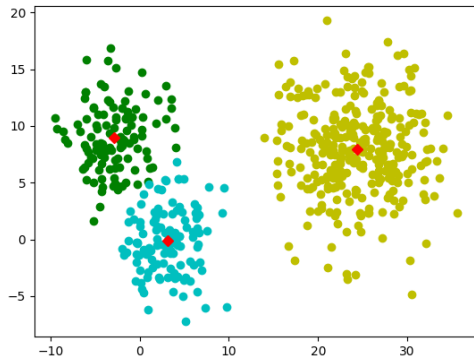
where  $k$  denotes the number of clusters,  $n$  denotes the count of data vectors and  $d$  denotes vector dimension.

And the whole process takes  $i$  iterations in total so the time complexity of K-means algorithm is  $O(kni)$ .

In the case of initializing  $k$  centroids using naive K-means algorithm (usually Lloyd's algorithm), we use **randomization**. The initial  $k$  centroid are picked in the range of data set randomly.

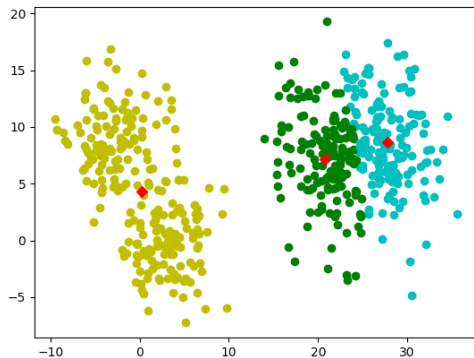
However, this initialization strategy could result in initialization sensitivity. The final formed clusters could be affected greatly by the initial picked centroids.

An instance of good clustering result:





An instance of poor clustering result:



## K-means optimizations

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The K-means++ algorithm uses totally a different way to initialize the  $k$  centroids. Rather than uniformly randomly pick point in the range of all points, it uses special to **make the  $k$  centroids as far away from each other** as possible. In this way, the results are always good as expected.

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And the updated algorithm does exactly the same in the iteration steps.

The algorithm goes as follows:

1. Pick the first centroid  $c_1$  **randomly** from the dataset  $S$
2. Compute the distance of all points in the dataset from **nearest, previously chosen centroid  $c_i$** . The distance of a point  $x$  could be calculated by

$$\text{Dist}(x) = \min_{c_i \in C} \|x - c_i\|$$

3. Take a new centroid  $c_i$ , choosing  $x_j \in$  from all points with probability  $P_j$

$$P_j = \frac{\text{Dist}^2(x_j)}{\sum_{x_j \in S} \text{Dist}^2(x_j)}$$

4. **Repeat** the above steps until  $k$  centroids are found
5. Iteration steps are exactly the same as naive K-means algorithm

**Proof.**

K-means++ algorithm's initialization time complexity is  $O(k * n)$   $\square$

In each iteration there are such steps:

- Distance calculation: To calculate the distance from a point to a newly selected centroid, we can use the squared Euclidean proximity function, which is thought to be  $O(1)$
- Comparisons between distances.
- Centroid calculation.

**Proof.**

K-means++ algorithm's initialization time complexity is  $O(k * n)$   $\square$

So the total number of operations in  $i^{\text{th}}$  iteration is:

$$\begin{aligned}C_i &= \text{distance calculation} + \text{comparisons} + \text{centroids selection} \\&= n * O(1) + n * O(1) + O(1) \\&= O(n)\end{aligned}$$

where  $k$  denotes the number of clusters,  $n$  denotes the count of data vectors.

And the whole initializing process takes  $k$  iterations in total so the time complexity of K-means++'s initialization is  $O(kn)$ .



There are  $n$  data points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  space and  $k$  clusters for partition, each iteration involves  $n * k$  distance computations.

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If a point is **far away from a centroid**, it is not necessary to calculate the exact distance between the point and the centroid in order to know that the point should not be assigned to this centroid.

Conversely, **if a point is much closer to one center than to any other**, calculating exact distances is not necessary to know that the point should be assigned to the first center.

The key idea is to **bound on data point** to cluster centroid distance and use **triangle inequality** to avoid redundant computations of distance between data points and cluster centroids.

### Lemma

Triangle inequality: For any 3 points  $x, y, z$ ,  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ .

The only black box property of any distance metrics.

### Lemma

Let  $x$  be a point and let  $b$  and  $c$  be centers. If  $d(b, c) \geq 2d(x, b)$  then  $d(x, c) \geq d(x, b)$ .

### Proof.

Use triangle inequality,  $d(b, c) - d(x, b) \leq d(x, c)$ . And bring in  $d(b, c) \geq 2d(x, b)$ , we can get the conclusion.  $\square$

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### Lemma

Let  $x$  be a point and let  $b$  and  $c$  be centers.  $d(x, c) \geq \max(0, d(x, b) - d(b, c))$ .

### Proof.

Use triangle inequality  $d(x, c) \geq d(x, b) - d(b, c)$ , with  $d(x, c) \geq 0$ , we can get the conclusion.  $\square$

### Corollary

if  $\frac{1}{2}d(c, s) \geq d(x, c)$  then  $d(x, s) \geq d(x, c)$ , and we **don't need to compute  $d(x, s)$** .

### Corollary

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### Corollary

Suppose that we don't know  $d(x, c)$  exactly, and we do know an upper bound  $u$  such that  $u \geq d(x, c)$ : For any other possible choice, **we only need to compute  $d(x, c)$ ,  $d(x, s)$  iff  $u > \frac{1}{2}d(c, s)$**  .

### Corollary

Suppose that  $u \leq \frac{1}{2}d(c, s)$  for any possible  $s$ , all distance calculations for  $x$  can be avoided.



Let  $x$  be any data point, let  $c$  be any center, let  $s$  become previous version of same center. Suppose that in the previous iteration we knew a lower bound  $g$  such that  $d(x, s) \geq g$ . Then we can infer a lower bound  $h$  for current iteration:

$$d(x, c) \geq \max\{0, d(x, s) - d(s, c)\} \geq \max\{0, g - d(s, c)\} = h$$

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### Claim

If center moved a small distance ( $d(s, c)$  is small), the lower bound only make a small move.

We use  $u(x)$  to represent upper bound of distance between a given point  $x$  and its currently assigned center  $c$ .  $l(x, c')$  is the lower bound on the distance between  $x$  and some other center  $c'$ .

### Claim

If  $u(x) \leq l(x, c')$ , we don't need to calculate  $d(x, c)$ ,  $d(x, c')$ .

Initially, we set  $l(x, c) = 0$  for each point  $x$  and center  $c$ . Then assign each  $x$  to its closest initial center.

Each time  $d(x, c)$  is computed, set  $l(x, c) = d(x, c)$ . At last, set upper bounds  $u(x) = \min_c(d(x, c))$ .

Then repeat this until convergence.

1. For all centers  $c$  and  $c'$ , compute  $d(c, c')$ . Set  $s(c) = \frac{1}{2} \min_{c \neq c'} d(c, c')$ .
2. Identify all points  $x$  such that  $u(x) \leq s(c(x))$ .
3. For each pair of remaining  $x$  and  $c$ , which satisfy: i)  $c \neq c(x)$  and ii)  $u(x) > l(x, c)$  and iii)  $u(x) > \frac{1}{2} d(c(x), c)$ :
  - 3.1 If  $r(x) = \text{true}$ , compute  $d(x, c(x))$  and assign  $r(x) = \text{false}$ . Otherwise,  $d(x, c(x)) = u(x)$ .
  - 3.2 If  $d(x, c(x)) > l(x, c)$  or  $d(x, c(x)) > \frac{1}{2} d(c(x), c)$ , then compute  $d(x, c)$  and decide if swap  $c$  for  $x$ .

4. For each center  $c$ , compute centroid, store in  $m(c)$ .
5. For each pair of  $x$  and  $c$ , set  $l(x, c) = \max(l(x, c) - d(c, m(c)), 0)$
6. For each point  $x$ , set  $u(x) = u(x) + d(m(c(x)), c(x))$
7. For each point  $x$ , set  $r(x) = \text{True}$
8. Really replace  $c$  by  $m(c)$

Compared to naive K-means++ algorithm, in 6 typical benchmark, using this optimization speeds up algorithms from  $11.3\times$  to  $351\times$ .

Another contribution helps reduce the iteration cost to  $n * k'$  ( $k' \ll k$ ) by generating **candidate cluster list (CCL)** of size  $k'$  for each data point.

This augmentation makes trade-off between loss function and running time and relaxes the previous algorithm's restrictions. Their target:

- For convergence time:  $T' < T$
- For loss:  $E' \leq E$  or  $E' \overset{\text{marginally}}{>} E$



Consider a data point  $p_1$  and cluster centroids represented as  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$ .  
We assume that  $k' \ll k$  and there is a candidate cluster list for  $p_1$ .

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If we run K-means for second iteration,  $p_1$  will compute distance to all  $k$  centroids. After second iteration, there are two possible cases:

1. The list do not change but only members' ranking changes.
2. Several members of the centroids in the previous list are replaced with other centroids which were not in the list.

In real world data rarely makes case 2 happen! That is, the set of top few closest centroids for a data point remains almost unchange.

Overhead analysis:

- Computation overhead:  $O(nk\log(k))$  for creating CCL at first. We have to compute the distance to each cluster's centroid for each point and sort them to create CCL.
- Memory overhead:  $O(nk')$  to maintain CCL.

**Use a range of set:** We choose a set of K and compare their performance. In this set, we need to choose k **significantly smaller than the number of objects in the data sets** and let it be reasonably large based on this.

**statistical measures:** There are several statistical measures available for selecting K. They are calculated with certain assumptions about the underlying distribution of the data.

e.g. The Bayesian information criterion is calculated on data sets which are constructed by a set of Gaussian distributions.

**visualization:** Visual verification is applied widely because of its simplicity and explanation possibilities. In my own practice, I usually use PCA or other methods to draw points on a planar graph to check how many clusters exist in Machine Learning course's project. But it has many restrictions. e.g. The application of visualization techniques implies a data distribution continuity in the expected clusters. In fact, Visual examples are often used to illustrate the drawbacks of an algorithm.

## Key properties

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## Application

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## Conclusion

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