# **Learning Augmented Graph** k-Clustering

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#### **Abstract**

Clustering is a fundamental task in unsupervised learning. Previous research has focused on learning-augmented k-means in Euclidean metrics, limiting its applicability to complex data representations. In this paper, we generalize learning-augmented k-clustering to operate on general metrics, enabling its application to graph-structured and non-Euclidean domains. Our framework also relaxes restrictive cluster size constraints, providing greater flexibility for datasets with imbalanced or unknown cluster distributions. Furthermore, we extend the hardness of query complexity to general metrics: under the Exponential Time Hypothesis (ETH), we show that any polynomial-time algorithm must perform approximately  $\Omega(k/\alpha)$  queries to achieve a  $(1+\alpha)$ -approximation. These contributions strengthen both the theoretical foundations and practical applicability of learning-augmented clustering, bridging gaps between traditional methods and real-world challenges.

**Keywords:** Clustering, Learning-Augmented, *k*-means.

### 1. Introduction

Clustering is a cornerstone of unsupervised machine learning, widely applied in fields such as data organization, anomaly detection, and community detection in networks (Xu and Wunsch, 2005). Among clustering problems, the k-means and k-median problems stand out as fundamental due to their simplicity and effectiveness. Traditional algorithms aim to partition data into k clusters, minimizing either the sum of squared distances (k-means) or the sum of absolute distances (k-median) to their respective cluster centers. The k-means algorithm has been a cornerstone of clustering research for decades, tracing its roots to foundational works by (MacQueen, 1967) and (Lloyd, 1982), who introduced the iterative optimization approach still used today. Extensions by (Hartigan and Wong, 1979) improved convergence, while (Forgy, 1965) proposed widely-used initialization techniques. The optimization principles underlying k-means were influenced by earlier algorithmic developments, such as Floyd's contributions to optimization (Floyd, 1962). Improvements include k-means++ (Arthur and Vassilvitskii, 2007), which introduced a probabilistic seeding strategy to improve initialization quality and convergence, and Mini-Batch k-means(Sculley, 2010), which enabled clustering on massive datasets with reduced computational overhead. (Hamerly, 2010) proposed optimizations to Lloyd's algorithm for faster convergence, while coreset-based approaches (Lucic et al., 2016; Bachem et al., 2018) have further accelerated clustering by providing compact, provably accurate data summaries.

Significant progress has been made in improving approximation algorithms for k-means and k-median clustering. For k-means, (Ahmadian et al., 2017) introduced a primal-dual algorithm

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achieving a 6.357-approximation, while their techniques also improved guarantees for Euclidean k-median. Later, (Cohen-Addad et al., 2022a) further refined these results, achieving a 5.912-approximation for k-means and a 2.406-approximation for Euclidean k-median. For k-median, (Li and Svensson, 2012) made a groundbreaking contribution with a  $1+\sqrt{3}+\epsilon$  ( $\sim 2.732$ -approximation) using a pseudo-approximation approach, relaxing the requirement to exactly k clusters by allowing k+O(1) clusters. These advances underscore the evolving theoretical landscape for clustering problems, yet they primarily address static Euclidean settings.

In general metric spaces, (Cohen-Addad et al., 2020) showed that approximating the continuous k-median within a factor better than 2 and the continuous k-means within a factor better than 4 is NP-hard, significantly improving upon prior inapproximability results. Further, under the Johnson Coverage Hypothesis, (Cohen-Addad et al., 2021) demonstrated that discrete k-means is hard to approximate better than 3.94 in  $\ell_1$  and 1.73 in  $\ell_2$  metrics, underscoring the difficulty of achieving high-quality clustering solutions in geometric settings. In addition, lower bounds for coreset sizes, such as  $\Omega(k\varepsilon^{-2}\log n)$  in finite metrics and  $\Omega(k\varepsilon^{-2})$  in Euclidean spaces, were established by (Cohen-Addad et al., 2022b), revealing the trade-offs between coreset size and approximation quality.

These insights underscore the computational complexity and limitations of existing clustering approaches, motivating the need for new frameworks that address these challenges while expanding the applicability of clustering to dynamic and graph-structured data.

Traditional clustering methods, such as k-means, focus on partitioning data in Euclidean space by minimizing distances between data points and their assigned cluster centers. However, many real-world datasets are naturally represented as graphs, where relationships between data points are captured through edges and graph distances rather than explicit spatial coordinates. In such cases, conventional clustering methods face challenges, as Euclidean distance fails to capture the underlying graph structure (Fahad et al., 2014). This motivates the need for algorithms that operate directly on graph-based data.

In parallel, the emergence of *learning-augmented algorithms* has introduced a powerful framework for enhancing traditional methods by leveraging predictive models (Silwal, 2021). In the context of clustering, learning-augmented k-means algorithms incorporate learned information, such as approximate cluster centers, to improve computational efficiency and clustering quality (Ergun et al., 2022). Similarly, (Gamlath et al., 2022) addressed this challenge with the concept of Approximate Cluster Recovery from Noisy Labels, introducing an efficient algorithm capable of recovering clusters even when individual labels are perturbed with high probability (up to 99%). This method achieves a clustering cost within a factor of 1+o(1) of the optimum by leveraging side-information, even when significantly corrupted. Despite their potential, existing learning-augmented clustering methods have two key limitations:

- 1. They rely exclusively on Euclidean distance metrics (Silwal, 2021; Gamlath et al., 2022; Ergun et al., 2022), making them unsuitable for graph-structured data (Kriegel et al., 2009).
- 2. They assume that each cluster must contain a minimum number of points (Silwal, 2021; Gamlath et al., 2022), limiting their applicability in scenarios where cluster sizes are highly imbalanced or unknown.

This paper addresses these limitations simultaneously by *generalizing learning-augmented k-clustering* in three significant ways:

- 1. **Extending Distance Metrics**: We replace Euclidean distances with graph-based distances, enabling the application of learning-augmented clustering to graph-structured data. This extension broadens the framework to new domains such as social networks, biological networks, and recommendation systems (Yang et al., 2022).
- 2. **Removing Cluster Size Constraints**: We develop a novel method that eliminates the need for minimum cluster size assumptions in general metrics. The previous findings concerning the removal of size limitations are exclusively applicable to the Euclidean distance, as cited in (Nguyen et al., 2023). This allows for greater flexibility in clustering settings where clusters naturally vary in size or where such constraints are impractical (Yin et al., 2024).

We propose a method to simultaneously achieve the two objectives mentioned above.

3. Hardness Results for Query Complexity. In this paper, we extend hardness results to query complexity for clustering in general metric spaces. Here, query complexity is defined such that the predictor assigns expected labels to input points, and retrieving the true label of a point constitutes one query—consistent with the framework in Ergun et al. (2022). Specifically, we show that under the Exponential Time Hypothesis (ETH), any polynomial-time algorithm must perform approximately  $\Omega(k/\alpha)$  queries to output a  $(1+\alpha)$ -approximate solution. This result generalizes the known hardness of query complexity from Euclidean distances (Ergun et al., 2022) to general metrics, providing deeper insights into the computational barriers inherent in clustering problems across diverse settings.

Our contributions are primarily theoretical, presenting a unified framework that incorporates graph distances into learning-augmented clustering while eliminating restrictive size constraints. We also offer a formal analysis of the algorithmic guarantees of our approach, demonstrating its robustness and generality. By bridging the gap between graph clustering and learning-augmented methods, this work establishes a new foundation for adaptive clustering techniques capable of operating on diverse data structures. The proposed framework offers significant theoretical advancements while opening pathways for future research in learning-augmented algorithms for graph data.

# **High-level Idea**

For the Euclidean k-means problem, it is well known that if k=1, the optimal center for a set of points  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is simply the centroid of X. Prior work leverages one of the useful properties of Euclidean spaces as follows. Let cost(X,c) be the cost of clustering X using center c. If  $C_X$  is the centroid of X (which is the optimal center), then the following identity is well known (see Inaba et al. (1994)):

$$cost(X, c) = cost(X, C_X) + |X| \cdot ||c - C_X||^2.$$

This identity provides a strong bound on the clustering cost when the center is estimated incorrectly because the distance between the optimal center and the estimated center is sufficient to bound the cost. However, this property does not hold for a general metric space. There, we can only apply the triangle inequality. Suppose we define  $cost(X, C_X) = \sum_{x \in X} d(x, C_X)^2$ . For a center c at distance  $D := d(C_X, c)$  from  $C_X$ , we can only conclude:

$$\mathrm{cost}(X,c) = \sum_{x \in X} d(x,c)^2 \leq \sum_{x \in X} \left( d(x,C_X) + D \right)^2 = \mathrm{cost}(X,C_X) + |X| \cdot D^2 + 2D \cdot \sum_{x \in X} d(x,C_X),$$

where the extra term  $D \cdot \sum_{x \in X} d(x, C_X)$  appears in contrast to the Euclidean case. Therefore, we found another way to relate the distance D between a center and the clustering cost  $cost(\cdot, \cdot)$ . It takes the form of an inequality rather than an equality, but it is still sufficient for proving our main theorem.

Next, let us describe the idea behind our algorithm. Suppose the predictor labels a set of points P as one cluster, whereas the true optimal cluster is  $P^*$ . If the predictor is sufficiently accurate, we assume:

$$|P \cap P^*| \ge (1 - \alpha) \max(|P|, |P^*|).$$

We prove (see Lemma 2) that if  $\alpha$  is sufficiently small (e.g.,  $\alpha=0.1$ ), then  $\cos(P\cup P^*,C_{P^*})$  is close to  $\cos(P\cup P^*,C_{P\cup P^*})$ , which is optimal. From this, if we can approximate  $C_{P\cup P^*}$ , the resulting center should be effective. However, we only know P and not  $P^*$ . It turns out that by finding the center of the densest subset of P, we effectively remove the impact of outliers in  $P\setminus P^*$  and return a suitable estimated center.

## 2. Preliminary

#### 2.1. Problem Definition

Given a connected, weighted simple graph G = (V, E), the objective is to select a set of k points C (referred to as cluster centers) to minimize the cost function:

$$\mathrm{cost}(G,C) = \sum_{v \in V} \min_{c \in C} \mathrm{cost}(c,v),$$

where  $\operatorname{cost}(\cdot,\cdot)$  represents the cost associated with assigning a point v to a cluster centered at c. Typically, we assume that  $\operatorname{cost}(x,y)$  is a function of the distance d(x,y) between points x and y in V.

### **Useful Notations**

- d(x, y) denotes the distance between points x and y in V.
- cost(X, p) represents the total cost of a cluster made up of points in X and centered at p. Formally:

$$cost(X, p) = \sum_{x \in X} cost(x, p).$$

•  $C_X$  is the *center* of the cluster X, defined as:

$$C_X = \arg\min_{p \in V} \cos(X, p).$$

• B(x, r) denotes the *ball* of radius r, centered at  $x \in V$ . Formally:

$$B(x,r) = \{ v \in V \mid d(x,v) < r \}.$$

## **Definition of k-Clustering in General Metrics**

In a general metric graph, the *k-clustering problem* involves partitioning the vertex set V into k disjoint subsets (clusters) such that each vertex  $v \in V$  is assigned to the cluster whose center minimizes the  $l_q$  distance cost. Formally, the problem seeks:

$$OPT(k,q) = \min_{C \subseteq V, |C| = k} \sum_{v \in V} \min_{c \in C} d(v,c)^q,$$

where C is the set of k cluster centers and d(v,c) denotes the shortest path distance (or edge-weight-based distance) between vertices v and c in the graph G.

The clustering problem operates under the following assumptions:

- G is a connected graph, ensuring distances between any two vertices are well-defined.
- k is a user-specified number of desired clusters.
- The distance function  $d(\cdot, \cdot)$  satisfies the triangle inequality, as is typical in metric spaces.

The goal is to minimize the total distance-based cost incurred by assigning each vertex  $v \in V$  to its closest cluster center in C.

### **Learning-Augmented Setting**

In the *learning-augmented setting*, we assume access to a predictor  $\Pi$  that provides labels for each point. These labels align with a  $(1 + \alpha)$ -approximately optimal clustering C. A predictor  $\Pi$  is said to have a *label error rate*  $\lambda \leq \alpha$  if:

- For each cluster label  $i \in [k] := \{1, \dots, k\}$ ,  $\Pi$  makes errors on at most a  $\lambda$  fraction of all points in the true cluster i of C.
- Additionally,  $\Pi$  errs on at most a  $\lambda$  fraction of all points it assigns to label i.

In other words,  $\Pi$  guarantees a precision and recall of at least  $(1 - \lambda)$  for each label.

Our goal is to find a set of centers  $\tilde{C}$  such that:

$$cost(G, \tilde{C}) \le (1 + f(\alpha)) \cdot cost(G, C^{opt}),$$

where  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$  is a function of  $\alpha$ . Ideally, as  $\alpha \to 0$ , we aim for  $f(\alpha) \to 0$ , though this may not always be achievable.

We note that our choice of predictor is both well-founded and practically relevant. Classical clustering problems such as k-median and k-means have been extensively studied in learning-augmented settings ((Ergun et al., 2022), (Gamlath et al., 2022), (Nguyen et al., 2023)), all of which assume the predictor model used in our paper. While exploring alternative predictors may lead to new insights, to the best of our knowledge, no prior work has employed fundamentally different predictors. Specifically, (Ergun et al., 2022) presents empirical evidence demonstrating that this predictor outperforms standard baselines such as 'kmeans++' as well as alternative predictors like nearest neighbor and simple neural networks on real-world datasets.

# 3. Learning-Augmented k-Clustering Algorithm

In this section, we extend the learning augmented algorithm from Euclidean metrics to general metrics. The following is the current candidate solutions of the above problem.

Comparison with Prior Work: Our approach extends the learning-augmented k-means clustering algorithm proposed in (Ergun et al., 2022) to general metric spaces. The prior work assumes that the input lies in Euclidean space and refines cluster centers coordinate-wise using a robust intervalbased filtering method (CRDEST). While this method is efficient in Euclidean settings due to the separability of dimensions, it cannot be applied to general metric spaces. In contrast, our algorithm removes the reliance on Euclidean structure by employing a ball-based center estimation approach that minimizes clustering cost within a robustly chosen subset of points. While our work shares some conceptual similarities—such as using subset selection for cost minimization—the methods differ significantly. The approach in Nguyen et al. (2023) operates in a coordinate-wise manner: it selects a subset of points and computes the mean (centroid) along each coordinate independently, then bounds the distance between this centroid and the optimal center in each dimension. In contrast, our method selects a single subset of points in the full space and uses it directly, allowing the approach to generalize naturally to arbitrary metric spaces beyond Euclidean settings.

### **Algorithm 1** Learning-augmented k clustering in general metrics

**Require:** A point set X with labels from predictor  $\Pi$ , label error rate  $\lambda$ , and distance  $l_q$ 

**Ensure:**  $(1 + O(\alpha))$ -approximate k-means clustering of X

- 1: **for** i = 1 to k **do**
- 2: Let  $X_i$  be the set of points in X labeled as i by  $\Pi$ .
- 3: Run GETCENTER( $X_i, \lambda$ ) to compute the center  $C'_i$ .
- 4: end for
- 5: **Return**  $C'_1, \ldots, C'_k$  {Output all cluster centers.}

# **Algorithm 2** GETCENTER

```
Require: A point set X, corruption level \lambda \leq \alpha, and distance l_q

1: if q=1 then

2: Return C_X {Just return the center of a predictor output}

3: else if q=2 then

4: Compute S \leftarrow \arg\min_{S \subset V(G), |S|=(1-\alpha)|V(G)|} cost(S, C_S) {Estimate center.}

5: Return C_S {Return the center estimate.}

6: end if
```

**Theorem 1** For k-clustering problem with respect to the  $\ell_q$  (q=1,2) distance in a general metric space, let  $\alpha \in (0,\frac{1}{2})$ , and  $\Pi$  be a predictor with label error rate  $\lambda \leq \alpha$ . Then **Algorithm 1** outputs a  $(1+O(\alpha^{1/q}))$ -approximation in polynomial time.

#### 3.1. Proof of Theorem 1

We first prove **Theorem 1**, which shows that **Algorithm 1** provides a  $(1 + O(\alpha))$ -approximation to the optimal k-clustering in general metrics. Specifically, we demonstrate that the empirical center computed from any  $(1-\alpha)$ -fraction of the points serves as a robust approximation to the true center.

**Lemma 2** Let P and Q be disjoint subsets of V such that  $X = P \cup Q$ ,  $|P| \ge (1 - \alpha)|X|$  and  $|Q| \le \alpha |X|$ . Then,

$$cost(X, C_P) \leq (1 + f(\alpha)) \cdot cost(X, C_X),$$

for some function f. Especially, for  $\alpha < 1/8$ , the following holds:

- If  $cost(X, p) = \sum_{x \in X} d(x, p)$ , then  $f(\alpha) = \frac{2\alpha}{1-\alpha}$ .
- If  $cost(X, p) = \sum_{x \in X} d(x, p)^2$ , then  $f(\alpha) = 6\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}}$ .

**Proof** For any point  $p \in P$ , by the triangle inequality, we have

$$D := d(C_P, C_X) \le d(C_P, p) + d(p, C_X).$$

Case 1:  $cost(X, p) = \sum_{x \in X} d(x, p)$ . Summing this inequality over all points in P, we obtain:

$$|P| \cdot D \leq \sum_{p \in P} \left( d(C_P, p) + d(p, C_X) \right) = \operatorname{cost}(P, C_P) + \operatorname{cost}(P, C_X) \leq 2 \cdot \operatorname{cost}(P, C_X),$$

since  $cost(P, C_P) \leq cost(P, C_X)$  by definition of  $C_P$ . Similarly, for any  $q \in Q$ , by the triangle inequality,

$$d(q, C_P) \le d(q, C_X) + d(C_X, C_P).$$

Therefore,

$$cost(Q, C_P) \le cost(Q, C_X) + |Q| \cdot D.$$

Combining these results, we obtain an upper bound for  $cost(X, C_P)$ :

$$cost(X, C_P) = cost(P, C_P) + cost(Q, C_P)$$

$$\leq cost(P, C_X) + cost(Q, C_X) + |Q| \cdot D$$

$$= cost(X, C_X) + |Q| \cdot D.$$

Substituting  $D \leq \frac{2 \cdot \cot(P, C_X)}{|P|}$ , we get:

$$cost(X, C_P) \le cost(X, C_X) + \frac{2|Q|}{|P|} \cdot cost(P, C_X).$$

Using  $|Q| \le \alpha |X|$  and  $|P| \ge (1 - \alpha)|X|$ , we have

$$\frac{|Q|}{|P|} \le \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}.$$

Substituting this back, we obtain:

$$cost(X, C_P) \le \left(1 + \frac{2\alpha}{1 - \alpha}\right) cost(X, C_X).$$

Case 2:  $cost(X, p) = \sum_{x \in X} d(x, p)^2$ . For squared distances, by a similar argument, we start with:

$$cost(X, C_P) - cost(X, C_X) \le \sum_{q \in Q} ((d(q, C_X) + D)^2 - d(q, C_X)^2).$$

Expanding the square terms, we get:

$$\operatorname{cost}(X, C_P) - \operatorname{cost}(X, C_X) \le 2D \cdot \sum_{q \in Q} d(q, C_X) + |Q| \cdot D^2.$$

In this case, by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, the following holds:

$$|P| \cdot D \le \sum_{p \in P} \left( d(C_P, p) + d(p, C_X) \right) \le \sqrt{|P| \cdot \cot(P, C_P)} + \sqrt{|P| \cdot \cot(P, C_X)}$$
$$\le 2\sqrt{|P| \cdot \cot(X, C_X)},$$

and

$$\sum_{q \in Q} d(q, C_X) \leq \sqrt{|Q| \cdot \mathrm{cost}(Q, C_X)}.$$

Therefore, by substituting D we obtain:

$$\operatorname{cost}(X, C_P) - \operatorname{cost}(X, C_X) \le 4\sqrt{\frac{|Q|}{|P|}} \cdot \operatorname{cost}(X, C_X) + \frac{4|Q|}{|P|} \cdot \operatorname{cost}(X, C_X).$$

For  $\alpha < \frac{1}{8}$ , combining terms gives:

$$cost(X, C_P) \le \left(1 + 6\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}}\right) cost(X, C_X).$$

This completes the proof.

When cost is defined as the sum of distances, we proved that the predictor's output is good enough to use without any modification.

**Lemma 3** Let  $P_i$  be the set of points which the predictor labels as i, and  $P_i^*$  be the set of points belonging to the i-th set in the optimal solution. Then for  $\alpha < 1/2$ ,

$$cost(P_i^*, C_{P_i}) \leq \left(1 + \frac{4\alpha}{1 - 2\alpha}\right) \cdot cost(P_i^*, C_{P_i^*})$$

when  $cost(X, p) = \sum_{x \in X} d(x, p)$ .

**Proof** The label names are not important, so we abuse the notation by ignoring subscripts. Let  $D := d(C_P, C_{P^*})$ . For any point  $p \in P \cap P^*$ , by the triangle inequality, we have

$$D = d(C_P, C_{P^*}) \le d(C_P, p) + d(p, C_{P^*}).$$

Summing this inequality over all points in  $P \cap P^*$ , we obtain:

$$|P \cap P^*| \cdot D \le \operatorname{cost}(P \cap P^*, C_P) + \operatorname{cost}(P \cap P^*, C_{P^*}). \tag{1}$$

From the definition of the center  $C_P$ ,  $cost(P, C_P) \leq cost(P, C_{P^*})$  holds. Since  $P = (P \cap P^*) \cup (P \setminus P^*)$ ,

$$cost(P \cap P^*, C_P) \le cost(P \cap P^*, C_{P^*}) + cost(P \setminus P^*, C_{P^*}) - cost(P \setminus P^*, C_P).$$

Moreover, by the triangle inequality  $d(p, C_{P^*}) \le d(p, C_P) + D$  for any  $p \in P \setminus P^*$ , the following holds:

$$cost(P \cap P^*, C_P) \le cost(P \cap P^*, C_{P^*}) + |P \setminus P^*| \cdot D. \tag{2}$$

Combining (1) and (2) gives the upper bound for D:

$$|P \cap P^*| \cdot D \leq 2 \cdot \operatorname{cost}(P \cap P^*, C_{P^*}) + |P \setminus P^*| \cdot D$$

which implies

$$D \le \frac{2 \cdot \cot(P \cap P^*, C_{P^*})}{|P \cap P^*| - |P \setminus P^*|} \le \frac{2 \cdot \cot(P \cap P^*, C_{P^*})}{(1 - 2\alpha) \max(|P|, |P^*|)}$$

because  $|P \cap P^*| \ge (1 - \alpha) \cdot \max(|P|, |P^*|)$ .

At this point, we can derive the result as follows. By (2) and the triangle inequality, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \cos((P^*, C_P) &= \cos((P \cap P^*, C_P)) + \cos((P^* \setminus P, C_P)) \\ &\leq \cos((P \cap P^*, C_{P^*})) + |P \setminus P^*| \cdot D + \cos((P^* \setminus P, C_P)) \\ &\leq \cos((P \cap P^*, C_{P^*})) + |P \setminus P^*| \cdot D + \cos((P^* \setminus P, C_{P^*})) + |P^* \setminus P| \cdot D \\ &\leq \cos((P^*, C_{P^*})) + 2\alpha \cdot \max(|P|, |P^*|) \cdot D \end{aligned}$$

because  $|P \cap P^*| \ge (1 - \alpha) \cdot \max(|P|, |P^*|)$ . Plugging into the above upper bound for D gives the desired result.

When cost is defined as the sum of squared distances, the proof takes a slightly different approach. First, we identify a subset  $B \subset P$ , which is the ball of size  $(1 - \alpha)|P|$  that minimizes the clustering cost, i.e.,

$$cost(B, C_B) = \min_{\substack{S \subset P \\ |S| = (1-\alpha)|P|}} cost(S, C_S),$$

where  $C_B$  is the center of B. Since  $|P \cap P^*| \subset P$  and  $|P \cap P^*| \ge (1 - \alpha)|P|$ , it follows that:

$$cost(B, C_B) \leq cost(P \cap P^*, C_{P \cap P^*}).$$

Our claim is that the center  $C_B$  serves as the desired empirical center. Intuitively, B captures the majority of the points in P, ensuring a clustering cost close to optimal. Actually, we have slightly misused the term ball here. This is because if |B| is fixed as  $(1-\alpha)|P|$ , then there may not exist a ball B that satisfies this condition. Therefore, we refer to B(x,r) as a semi-ball of radius r centered at x, which means that B contains all points p such that d(p,x) < r, as well as some points p for which d(p,x) = r.

**Lemma 4** Let  $P_i$  be the set of points which the predictor labels as i, and  $P_i^*$  be the set of points belonging to the i-th set in the optimal solution. Let  $C_{B_i}$  be the center of semi-ball  $B_i$  of size  $(1-\alpha)|P_i|$  that minimizes the clustering cost. Moreover, when the cost is defined as the sum of the squares of distances,

$$cost(P_i^*, C_{B_i}) \le (1 + O(\sqrt{\alpha})) \cdot cost(P_i^*, C_{P_i^*}).$$

**Proof** The label names are not important, so we abuse the notation by ignoring subscripts. Let  $R = B \cap P \cap P^*$ ,  $R_1 = B \setminus R$ , and  $R_2 = (P \cap P^*) \setminus R$ . Also, define  $X = B \cup (P \cap P^*)$ . By Lemma 2, we have:

$$cost(X, C_B) \le \left(1 + 6\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}}\right) \cdot cost(X, C_X) \le \left(1 + 6\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}}\right) \cdot cost(X, C_{P \cap P^*}), \quad (3)$$

because  $|B| \ge (1 - \alpha)|P|$  and  $|X| \le |P|$ . For brevity, let  $k_1 = \frac{6}{\sqrt{1-\alpha}}$ . Let  $D = d(C_{P \cap P^*}, C_B)$ . By the triangle inequality, for  $r \in R_1$ , we have  $d(r, C_{P \cap P^*}) \le d(r, C_B) + D$ . Thus:

$$cost(R_1, C_{P \cap P^*}) = \sum_{r \in R_1} d(r, C_{P \cap P^*})^2 \le \sum_{r \in R_1} (d(r, C_B) + D)^2$$

$$= cost(R_1, C_B) + 2D \sum_{r \in R_1} d(r, C_B) + |R_1| \cdot D^2. \quad (4)$$

On the other hand, by the triangle inequality, for  $r \in R$ , it holds that:

$$D = d(C_{P \cap P^*}, C_B) \le d(C_{P \cap P^*}, r) + d(r, C_B).$$

Summing over all  $r \in R$  and applying the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality gives:

$$|R| \cdot D = \sum_{r \in R} d(C_{P \cap P^*}, C_B) \le \sum_{r \in R} \left( d(C_{P \cap P^*}, r) + d(C_B, r) \right)$$

$$\le \sqrt{|R|} \cdot \left( \sqrt{\operatorname{cost}(R, C_{P \cap P^*})} + \sqrt{\operatorname{cost}(R, C_B)} \right). \tag{5}$$

Our first goal is to find an upper bound for  $cost(P \cap P^*, C_B) = cost(R \cup R_2, C_B)$ . By (3) and (4), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \cot(P \cap P^*, C_B) &= \cot(X, C_B) - \cot(R_1, C_B) \\ &\leq (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot \cot(X, C_{P \cap P^*}) - \cot(R_1, C_B) \\ &\leq (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot \cot(R \cup R_2, C_{P \cap P^*}) + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha} \cdot \cot(R_1, C_B) \\ &+ (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot \left(2D \cdot \sum_{r \in R_1} d(r, C_B) + |R_1| \cdot D^2\right). \end{aligned}$$

By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,  $\sum_{r \in R_1} d(r, C_B) \le \sqrt{|R_1| \cdot \cot(R_1, C_B)}$  holds. Also, by substituting D by (5), the above inequality becomes as follow:

$$cost(P \cap P^*, C_B) 
\leq (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot cost(R \cup R_2, C_{P \cap P^*}) + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha} \cdot cost(R_1, C_B) 
+ 2(1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{|R_1|}{|R|}} \left( \sqrt{cost(R, C_B)} \cdot cost(R_1, C_B)} + \sqrt{cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*})} \cdot cost(R_1, C_B) \right) 
+ (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot \frac{|R_1|}{|R|} \left( \sqrt{cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*})} + \sqrt{cost(R, C_B)} \right)^2 
\leq (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot cost(P \cap P^*, C_{P \cap P^*}) + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha} \cdot cost(R_1, C_B) 
+ (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}} \left( cost(R, C_B) + cost(R_1, C_B) + cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*}) + cost(R_1, C_B) \right) 
+ 2(1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \left( cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*}) + cost(R, C_B) \right)$$
(6)

where the last inequality follows from the simple AM-GM inequality  $2\sqrt{ab} \le a + b$ . Our second goal is to bound the remaining term  $cost(P^* \setminus P, C_B)$ . By the triangle inequality,

$$cost(P^* \setminus P, C_B) = \sum_{p \in P^* \setminus P} d(p, C_B)^2$$

$$\leq \sum_{p \in P^* \setminus P} (d(p, C_{P \cap P^*}) + D)^2$$

$$= cost(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*}) + 2D \cdot \sum_{p \in P^* \setminus P} d(p, C_{P \cap P^*}) + |P^* \setminus P| \cdot D^2.$$

Note that  $|R|=|B\cap P\cap P^*|=|B|+|P\cap P^*|-|B\cup (P\cap P^*)|\geq |P\cap P^*|-\alpha|P|$ . Also, since  $(1-\alpha)|P|\leq |P\cap P^*|\leq |P^*|$ , thus  $|R|\geq \frac{1-2\alpha}{1-\alpha}|P^*|$ . Substituting D by (5) and applying the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we obtain:

$$cost(P^* \setminus P, C_B) 
\leq cost(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*}) 
+ 2\sqrt{\frac{|P^* \setminus P|}{|R|}} \left( \sqrt{cost(R, C_B) \cdot cost(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*})} + \sqrt{cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*}) \cdot cost(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*})} \right) 
+ \frac{|P^* \setminus P|}{|R|} \left( \sqrt{cost(R, C_B)} + \sqrt{cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*})} \right)^2 
\leq cost(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*}) 
+ \sqrt{\frac{\alpha(1 - \alpha)}{1 - 2\alpha}} \left( cost(R, C_B) + cost(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*}) + cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*}) + cost(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*}) \right) 
+ \frac{2\alpha(1 - \alpha)}{1 - 2\alpha} \left( cost(R, C_B) + cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*}) \right).$$
(7)

where the last inequality follows from the simple AM-GM inequality  $2\sqrt{ab} \le a+b$ . Finally, for  $\alpha < \frac{1}{8}$ , adding (6) and (7) gets us:

$$cost(P^*, C_B) \leq (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot cost(P \cap P^*, C_{P \cap P^*}) 
+ \left(2(1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}} + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}\right) \cdot \left(cost(R, C_B) + cost(R_1, C_B)\right) 
+ \left((1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \left(\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}} + \frac{2\alpha}{1 - \alpha}\right) + \sqrt{\frac{\alpha(1 - \alpha)}{1 - 2\alpha}} + \frac{2\alpha(1 - \alpha)}{1 - 2\alpha}\right) 
\cdot \left(cost(R, C_{P \cap P^*}) + cost(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*})\right).$$
(8)

Since  $cost(R, C_B) + cost(R_1, C_B) \le cost(B, C_B) \le cost(P \cap P^*, C_{P \cap P^*}) \le cost(P^*, C_{P^*})$ , and by Lemma 2,

$$\operatorname{cost}(R, C_{P \cap P^*}) + \operatorname{cost}(P^* \setminus P, C_{P \cap P^*}) \leq \operatorname{cost}(P^*, C_{P \cap P^*}) \leq (1 + k_1 \sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot \operatorname{cost}(P^*, C_{P^*}).$$

Therefore, for  $\alpha < 1/8$ , it can be proved that:

$$cost(P^*, C_B) \le (1 + 45\sqrt{\alpha}) \cdot cost(P^*, C_{P^*}).$$

However, we have not attempted to optimize this constant factor, and it seems there is room for improvement.

## 4. Query Complexity Lower Bound

In this paper, we define query complexity as follows: the predictor assigns expected labels to input points, and obtaining the label of a point is considered issuing one query. This definition is consistent with prior work in (Ergun et al., 2022). In this section, we investigate the hardness of query complexity in clustering. The goal is to determine whether we can achieve the same performance as the main theorem (full-information scenario), while only predicting labels for a subset of points. In the Euclidean setting, (Ergun et al., 2022) shows that for any  $\delta \in (0,1]$ , any  $(1+\alpha)$ -approximation algorithm runs in time  $O(2^{n^{1-\delta}})$  must make  $\omega(\frac{k^{1-\delta}}{\alpha \log k})$  queries under the ETH. Their proof proceeds in two steps, building on the result of Lee et al. (2017), which improves the inapproximability of the k-means problem by a reduction from the vertex cover problem on 4-regular graph.

First, they prove that the vertex cover problem remains APX-hard even when a sublinear portion (e.g., of size  $O(n^{1-\delta})$ ) of a minimum vertex cover in an n-vertex graph G is known. Second, they construct a k-means instance that embeds the instance constructed by Lee et al. (2017), thereby translating the ability to query the predictor into revealing partial solutions of the optimal vertex cover. The hardness of query complexity can be intuitively understood as follows: even if a part of the optimal solution is known (e.g., corresponding to  $O(k^{1-\delta})$  centers), it remains impossible to approximate the vertex cover arbitrarily closely to 1 (as  $\alpha \to 0$ ) because the remaining problem instance, stripped of the known part, still corresponds to a vertex cover problem, which is APX-hard.

We show similar results to those in (Ergun et al., 2022) also hold in a general metric setting. Our proof starts from establishing a reduction from the vertex cover problem on 4-regular graphs to our k-clustering problem. (Lee et al., 2017) converts the 4-regular graph into a Euclidean k-means instance, which can be used to approximate the minimum vertex cover of the original graph. Its NP-hardness is derived from the results of (Chlebík and Chlebíková, 2006), which showed that it is NP-hard to approximate the minimum vertex cover problem within a factor of  $\alpha_{max}/\alpha_{min}$ , where  $\alpha_{min} = (2\mu_{4,k} + 8)/(4\mu_{4,k} + 12)$  and  $\alpha_{max} = (2\mu_{4,k} + 9)/(4\mu_{4,k} + 12)$  for  $\mu_{4,k} \le 21.7$ .

Moreover, in (Ergun et al., 2022), the authors mentioned that assuming ETH, approximate it within the same approximation ratio in time  $O(2^{n^{1-\delta}})$  is also impossible. We note that we use this more strong result in the proof of Theorem 9.

The conversion in (Lee et al., 2017), from a 4-regular graph G to G', is as follows: since |E(G)|=2n, and given the well-known fact that every graph has a cut of size at least half of its edges, there exists a set  $E_2\subseteq E(G)$  such that  $|E_2|=n$ . Let  $E_1=E(G)\setminus E_2$ . Then G' is created by replicating each edge in  $E_1$  three times, specifically:

$$V(G') = V(G) \bigcup_{e=(u,v)\in E_1} \{v'_{e,u}, v'_{e,v}\},$$
  
$$E(G') = E(G) \bigcup_{e=(u,v)\in E_1} \{(u, v'_{e,u}), (v'_{e,u}, v'_{e,v}), (v'_{e,v}, v)\},$$

which implies that |V(G')| = 3n, |E(G')| = 4n.

**Lemma 5** (Lee et al., 2017) For a given 4-regular graph G and its converted graph G', the following holds:

- If the size of the minimum vertex cover of G is at most  $\alpha_{min}n$ , then G' has a vertex cover of size at most  $(\alpha_{min} + 1)n$ .
- If every vertex cover of G has a size of at least  $\alpha_{max}n$ , then every vertex cover of G' has a size of at least  $(\alpha_{max} + 1)n$ .

Our goal is to construct a k-clustering problem instance, a weighted graph G'' = (V(G''), E(G'')), as follows. Let  $V(G'') = \{v_{e'} \mid e' \in E(G')\} \cup \{s\}$ , meaning that the nodes of G'' correspond to the edges of G', plus a special node s. For E(G''), there are two types of edges. First, an edge  $(v_{e_1}, v_{e_2})$  with weight 1 exists if and only if  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are incident in G'. Second, for any node  $u \in V(G'')$ , an edge (u, s) with weight  $2^{1/q}$  exists. In summary, G'' is the union of the line graph of G', L(G') (with weight 1), and a star centered at s with weight  $2^{1/q}$ . Also, let  $k = (\alpha_{min} + 1)n$ . The lemma from (Lee et al., 2017), originally proposed in (Awasthi et al., 2015), states that a similar property holds in G''.

**Lemma 6** Let  $X = \{v_{e_1}, \dots, v_{e_l}\}$  be a cluster on G''. Then  $l-1 \le cost(X, C_X) \le 2l$ , and there exist two nodes in V(G') that are incident with at least  $2l-1-cost(X,C_X)$  edges of G'. Furthermore,  $cost(X,C_X)=l-1$  if and only if X is a star.

**Proof** When the special node s is selected as the center, we have  $cost(X,s) = 2l \ge cost(X,C_X)$ . Since any distance between two distinct nodes in V(G'') is at least 1,  $cost(X,C_X) \ge l-1$ . Additionally, if  $cost(X,C_X) = l-1$ , then at least one node contributes a cost of 0, implying  $C_X \in X$ . Other nodes in  $X \setminus C_X$  are adjacent to  $C_X$  in G'', meaning X is a star in G'.

When  $cost(X, C_X) < 2l-1$ , if  $C_X \notin X$ , there are at least  $2l-cost(X, C_X)$  nodes at a distance of exactly 1 from  $C_X$ . Otherwise, if  $C_X \in X$ , then at least  $2l-2-cost(X, C_X)$  nodes are at distance 1 from  $C_X$ , with  $C_X$  itself at distance 0. Since the edges of G'' with weight 1 form the line graph of G', there exists an edge e such that  $C_X = v_e$ . Consequently, at least  $2l-1-cost(C_X)$  edges are incident to  $v_e$ , so the endpoints of e are the desired two nodes in V(G').

**Lemma 7** (Completeness) For q=1,2, if G has a vertex cover of size at most  $\alpha_{min}n$ , then the optimal clustering cost of G'' is at most  $(3-\alpha_{min})n+2^{1/q}$ .

**Proof** By Lemma 5, there exists a vertex cover S' of G' with size at most  $(\alpha_{min}+1)n$ . We construct a clustering as follows: each cluster corresponds to the nodes in S'. Each  $e \in E(G')$  is grouped with one of its endpoints in S' (chosen arbitrarily if both endpoints are in S'). By construction, each cluster is star-shaped in G'. The special node  $s \in G''$  is connected to all other nodes, contributing at most  $2^{1/q}$  to the clustering cost. Therefore, the total clustering cost is:

$$2^{1/q} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} cost(C_i) = 2^{1/q} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} (|C_i| - 1) = 4n - k = (3 - \alpha_{min})n + 2^{1/q}.$$

**Lemma 8** (Soundness) If every vertex cover of G has a size of at least  $\alpha_{max}n$ , then the optimal clustering cost of G'' is at least  $(3 - \alpha_{min} + \frac{1}{3}(\alpha_{max} - \alpha_{min}))n$ .

**Proof** Ignoring the special node s, let  $\mathcal{C}$  be any clustering of G''' - s. By Lemma 6 and Lemma 5, we can apply the proof of Lemma 5 from (Lee et al., 2017). Since the contribution of s to the clustering cost is non-negative, the result holds.

By Lemma 7 and Lemma 8, it is NP-hard to distinguish the following cases:

- The optimal cost of the k-clustering problem is at most  $(3 \alpha_{min})n + 2^{1/q}$ .
- Every feasible clustering cost is at least  $(3 \alpha_{min} + \frac{1}{3}(\alpha_{max} \alpha_{min}))n$ .

Therefore, there exists a constant C such that it is NP-hard to approximate the general metric k-clustering problem on a graph within a factor of (1+C). We establish the following hardness result:

**Theorem 9** For  $\delta \in (0,1)$  and q=1,2, no algorithm can produce  $(1+O(\alpha^{1/q}))$ -approximation solutions to the optimal k-clustering problem on a general metric in  $O(2^{n^{1-\delta}})$  time while performing at most  $O(\frac{k^{1-\delta}}{\log k})$  queries to the predictor  $\Pi$  with label error rate  $\alpha$ , assuming the Exponential Time Hypothesis.

**Proof** The proof is by contradiction. Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be the instance of the general metric k-clustering problem constructed via the process described above. Assume for contradiction that there exists an algorithm running in time  $O(2^{n^{1-\delta}})$  and making at most  $O(\frac{k^{1-\delta}}{\log k})$  queries, which achieves a  $(1+O(\alpha^{1/q}))$ -approximation. Then, we can convert this algorithm into one that does not use the predictor. This is because we can simulate all  $k^{O(\frac{k^{1-\delta}}{\log k})} = O(2^{k^{1-\delta}})$  possible predictor outputs. For each set of simulated outputs, we can compute the corresponding solution for the base problem (vertex cover on 4-regular graphs) and select the one with minimum cost. Thus, when  $\alpha$  is sufficiently small, the properties of our reduction used to construct  $\mathcal I$  imply the existence of an approximation algorithm for the vertex cover problem on 4-regular graphs that surpasses its known approximation hardness, runs in time  $O(2^{n^{1-\delta}})$ .

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