## Lecture 16 - Clustering (continued) and Introduction to Probability



DSC 40A, Fall 2022 @ UC San Diego
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## Announcements

- Look at the readings linked on the course website!
- Groupwork Relsease Day: Thursday afternoon Groupwork Submission Day: Monday midnight Homework Release Day: Friday after lecture Homework Submission Day: Friday before lecture
$\Rightarrow$ See dsc4ea. com/calendar for the Office Hours schedule.
- We will grade the midterm soon.


## Agenda

- Review of k-Means clustering algorithm.
- Why does k-Means work?
- Practical considerations.
- Introduction to Probability


## Summary: K-Means clustering

Goal: Given a list of $n$ data points, stored as vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, $\vec{x}_{1}, \vec{x}_{2}, \ldots, \vec{x}_{n}$, and a positive integer $k$, place the data points into $k$ clusters of nearby points.

- Clusters are defined by centroids, $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{k}$. Each data point "belongs" to the group corresponding to the nearest centroid.
- We want to find the centroids that minimize inertia:

$$
\begin{aligned}
C\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{k}\right)= & \text { total squared distance of each } \\
& \text { data point } \vec{x}_{i} \text { to its } \\
& \text { closest centroid } \mu_{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

- k -Means Clustering is an algorithm that attempts to minimize inertia.


## Summary: Lloyd's Algorithm

1. Pick a value of $k$ and randomly initialize $k$ centroids.
2. Keep the centroids fixed, and update the groups.
$\checkmark$ Assign each point to the nearest centroid.
3. Keep the groups fixed, and update the centroids.

- Move each centroid to the center of its group by averaging their coordinates.

4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until the centroids stop changing.

## Summary: K-Means visualization


(a)

(d)

(b)

(e)

(c)

(f)

## Why does k-Means work?

## What is the goal of k-Means Clustering?

- Recall, our goal is to find the centroids $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{k}$ that minimize inertia:

$$
\begin{aligned}
C\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{k}\right)= & \text { total squared distance of each } \\
& \text { data point } \vec{x}_{i} \text { to its } \\
& \text { closest centroid } \mu_{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Let's argue that each step of the k-Means Clustering algorithm reduces inertia.
- After enough iterations, inertia will be small enough.


## Why does k-Means work? (Step 1)

Let's look at each step one at a time.
Step 1: Pick a value of $k$ and randomly initialize $k$ centroids.

- After initializing our $k$ centroids, we have an initial value of inertia. We are going to argue that this only decreases.


## Why does k-Means work? (Step 2)

Step 2: Keep the centroids fixed, and update the groups by assigning each point to the nearest centroid.
$>$ Assuming the centroids are fixed, for each $\vec{x}_{i}$ we have a choice - which group should it be a part of?

- Whichever group we choose, inertia will be calculated using the squared distance between $\vec{x}_{i}$ and that group's centroid.
- Thus, to minimize inertia, we assign each $\vec{x}_{i}$ to the group corresponding to the closest centroid.
Note that this analysis holds every time we're at Step 2, not just the first time.


## Why does k-Means work? (Step 3)

Step 3: Keep the groups fixed, and update the centroids by moving each centroid to the center of its group (by averaging coordinates).

- Before we justify why this is optimal, let's re-visit inertia.


## Aside: separating inertia

- Inertia:

$$
\begin{aligned}
C\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{k}\right)= & \text { total squared distance of each } \\
& \text { data point } \vec{x}_{i} \text { to its } \\
& \text { closest centroid } \mu_{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

> Note that an equivalent way to write inertia is

$$
\begin{aligned}
C\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{k}\right)= & C\left(\mu_{1}\right)+C\left(\mu_{2}\right)+\ldots+C\left(\mu_{k}\right) \text { where } \\
C\left(\mu_{j}\right)= & \text { total squared distance of each } \\
& \text { data point } \vec{x}_{i} \text { in group } j \\
& \text { to centroid } \mu_{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

- What's the point?


## Why does k-Means work? (Step 3)

$$
\begin{aligned}
C\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{k}\right)= & C\left(\mu_{1}\right)+C\left(\mu_{2}\right)+\ldots+C\left(\mu_{k}\right) \text { where } \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

Step 3: Keep the groups fixed, and update the centroids by moving each centroid to the center of its group (by averaging coordinates).

- Let's argue why this minimizes $C\left(\mu_{j}\right)$, for each group $j$.


## Why does k-Means work? (Step 3)

$$
\begin{gathered}
C\left(\mu_{j}\right)=\text { total squared distance of each data point } \vec{x}_{i} \\
\text { in group } j \text { to centroid } \mu_{j}
\end{gathered}
$$

Suppose group $j$ contains the points $(4,3),(6,4)$, and $(8,2)$. Where should we put $\mu_{j}=\left[\begin{array}{l}a \\ b\end{array}\right]$ to minimize $C\left(\mu_{j}\right)$ ?


## Cost and empirical risk

- On the previous slide, we saw a function of the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
C\left(\mu_{j}\right)=C(a, b) & =(4-a)^{2}+(3-b)^{2} \\
& +(6-a)^{2}+(4-b)^{2} \\
& +(8-a)^{2}+(2-b)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

- $C(a, b)$ can be thought of as the sum of two separate functions, $f(a)$ and $g(b)$.
- $f(a)=(4-a)^{2}+(6-a)^{2}+(8-a)^{2}$ computes the total squared distance of each $x_{1}$ coordinate to $a$.
- From earlier in the course, we know that $a^{*}=\frac{4+6+8}{3}=6$ minimizes $f(a)$.


## Practical considerations

## Initialization

- Depending on our initial centroids, k-Means may "converge" to a clustering that doesn't actually have the lowest possible inertia.
- In other words, like gradient descent, k-Means can get caught in a local minimum.
- Some solutions:
$\Rightarrow$ Run k-Means several times, each with different randomly chosen initial centroids. Keep track of the inertia of the final result in each attempt. Choose the attempt with the lowest inertia.
- k-Means++: choose one initial centroid at random, and choose the remaining initial centroids by maximizing distance from all other centroids.


## Choosing $k$

$\Rightarrow$ Note that as $k$ increases, inertia decreases.

- Intuitively, as we add more centroids, the distance between each point and its closest centroid will drop.
- But the goal of clustering is to put data points into groups, and having a large number of groups may not be meaningful.
- This suggests a tradeoff between $k$ and inertia.


## The "elbow" method

- Strategy: run $k$-Means Clustering for many choices of $k$ (e.g. $k=1,2,3, \ldots, 8$ ).
- Compute the value of inertia for each resulting set of centroids.
$>$ Plot a graph of inertia vs $k$.
- Choose the value of $k$ that appears at an "elbow".


See the notebook for a demo.

## Low inertia isn't everything!

$\Rightarrow$ Even if k-Means works as intended and finds the choice of centroids that minimize inertia, the resulting clustering may not look "right" to us humans.

- Recall, inertia measures the total squared distance to centroids.
- This metric doesn't always match our intuition.
- Let's look at some examples at https://tinyurl.com/40akmeans.
> Go to "I'll Choose" and "Smiley Face". Good luck!



## Other clustering techniques

b-Means Clustering is just one way to cluster data.

- There are many others, each of which work differently and produce different kinds of results.
- Another common technique: agglomerative (hierarchical) clustering.
- High level: start out with each point being in its own cluster. Repeatedly combine clusters until only $k$ are left.
- Check out this chart.


## Agglomerative hierarchical clustering



- Agglomerative clustering is a "bottom-up" method for creating hierarchical clusters.
- A dendrogram is a diagram representing a tree. For example, the right figure is a dendrogram representing the hierarchical clustering.


## Agglomerative vs. Divisive



## Summary of clustering methods

| Method name | Parameters | Scalability | Usecase | Geometry (metric used) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| K-Means | number of clusters | Very large n_samples, medium n_clusters with <br> MiniBatch code | General-purpose, even cluster size, flat geometry, not too many clusters, inductive | Distances between points |
| Affinity propagation | damping, sample preference | Not scalable with n_samples | Many clusters, uneven cluster size, non-flat geometry, inductive | Graph distance (e.g. near-est-neighbor graph) |
| Mean-shift | bandwidth | Not scalable with n_samples | Many clusters, uneven cluster size, non-flat geometry, inductive | Distances between points |
| Spectral clustering | number of clusters | Medium n_samples, small n_clusters | Few clusters, even cluster size, non-flat geometry, transductive | Graph distance (e.g. near-est-neighbor graph) |
| Ward hierarchical clustering | number of clusters or distance threshold | Large n_samples and n_clusters | Many clusters, possibly connectivity constraints, transductive | Distances between points |
| Agglomerative clustering | number of clusters or distance threshold, linkage type, distance | Large n_samples and n_clusters | Many clusters, possibly connectivity constraints, non Euclidean distances, transductive | Any pairwise distance |
| DBSCAN | neighborhood size | Very large n_samples, medium n_clusters | Non-flat geometry, uneven cluster sizes, outlier removal, transductive | Distances between nearest points |
| OPTICS | minimum cluster membership | Very large n_samples, large n_clusters | Non-flat geometry, uneven cluster sizes, variable cluster density, outlier removal, transductive | Distances between points |
| Gaussian mixtures | many | Not scalable | Flat geometry, good for density estimation, inductive | Mahalanobis distances to centers |
| BIRCH | branching factor, threshold, optional global clusterer. | Large n_clusters and n_samples | Large dataset, outlier removal, data reduction, inductive | Euclidean distance between points |
| Bisecting KMeans | number of clusters | Very large n_samples, medium n_clusters | General-purpose, even cluster size, flat geometry, no empty clusters, inductive, hierarchical | Distances between points |

https:

## Summary of clustering methods


https:
//scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/clustering.html

## Introduction to Probability

## Why do we need probability in Machine Learning?

- Probability is one of the foundations of Machine Learning.
- Learning algorithms will make decisions using probability. Classification models must predict a probability of class membership.
$>$ Algorithms are designed using probability (e.g. Naive Bayes or Gaussian Mixture Models, etc.).
- The data we collect/observe can be understood as samples from some probability distribution.


## What is probability?

Informally, a probability distribution $p: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ over some domain $X$ is a function such that $\sum_{x \in X} p(x)=1$ and $p(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in X$.

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- If we toss the fair coin and the fair dice infinite number of times, what does the frequencies look like? Tends to the uniform distribution.

