

Initializing k -Means Clustering

Christian Borgelt^{1,2} and Olha Yarikova¹

¹*University of Konstanz, Universitätsstraße 10, D-78457 Konstanz, Germany*

²*Paris-Lodron-University of Salzburg, Hellbrunner Straße 34, A-5020 Salzburg, Austria*
olha.yarikova@gmail.com, christian@borgelt.net

Keywords:

k -means, cluster initialization, maximin, k -means++

Abstract:

The quality of clustering results obtained with the k -means algorithm depends heavily on the initialization of the cluster centers. Simply sampling centers uniformly at random from the data points usually yields fairly poor and unstable results. Hence several alternatives have been suggested in the past, among which Maximin (Hathaway et al., 2006) and k -means++ (Arthur and Vassilvitskii, 2007) are best known and most widely used. In this paper we explore modifications of these methods that deal with cases, in which the original methods still yield suboptimal choices of the initial cluster centers. Furthermore we present efficient implementations of our new methods.

1 INTRODUCTION

If groups of similar objects are to be found in given data, the k -means clustering algorithm is among the most popular approaches. However, a problem of the k -means algorithm is that its success depends heavily on its initialization. If the initial centers are poorly chosen, it may get stuck in a local optimum far inferior to what may be possible. This is often the case for the naïve approach of choosing the initial cluster centers uniformly at random from the data points.

Two common approaches to address this problem are the Maximin method (Hathaway et al., 2006) and the k -means++ procedure (Arthur and Vassilvitskii, 2007). In this paper, after a brief review of the basic k -means algorithm in Section 2, we consider in Section 3 extensions of these two methods that aim at reducing the chances of low quality center choices. These variants try to avoid choosing outliers or centers that are too close together by restricting the data points from which the next center may be chosen, either strictly or in probability. In Section 4 we present experimental results on several standard benchmark data sets, evaluating both result quality and number of distance computations. The paper closes with Section 5, in which we draw conclusions from our experiments and their results.

2 K -MEANS CLUSTERING

The k -means algorithm finds a desired number k of clusters in a data set $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$. It starts by choosing k initial centers, e.g. by sampling uniformly at random from the data points. In the subsequent optimization phase, two steps are executed alternately: (1) each data point is assigned to the center that is closest to it and (2) the centers are re-computed as vector means of the data points assigned to them.

If $\nu(x)$ denotes the center closest to a data point x , this update scheme can be written as

$$\forall i; 1 \leq i \leq k : c_i^{t+1} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{1}(\nu^t(x_j) = c_i^t) \cdot x_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{1}(\nu^t(x_j) = c_i^t)}.$$

The upper indices indicate the update step and $\mathbb{1}(\phi)$ yields 1 if ϕ is true and 0 otherwise. $\nu^t(x_j)$ represents the assignment step, the fraction computes the mean of the points assigned to center c_i .

It can be shown that this update scheme must converge, that is, must reach a state in which another execution of the two steps does not change the cluster centers anymore (Selim and Ismail, 1984). However, there is no guarantee that the obtained result is optimal in the sense that it yields the smallest sum of squared distances between the data points and the cluster centers they are assigned to. Rather, it is very likely that the optimization gets stuck in local optimum.

```

real[] [] maximin (real data[] [], int n, int k):
  (* data: data points, n: number of data points, k: number of clusters *)
  int i, j, imax; (* loop variables, array indices *)
  real dsts[n], dmax, d; (* (min/max) distance to centers *)
  int hcis[n]; (* highest used cluster indices *)
  real ctrs[k] []; (* chosen initial cluster centers *)
  ctrs[0] = data[randint(0, n-1)]; (* choose first center randomly *)
  for i = 0 to n-1: (* compute distances to first cluster *)
    dsts[i] = distance(data[i], ctrs[0]); hcis[i] = 0;
  for j from 1 to k-1: (* select the remaining clusters *)
    dmax = 0; imax = 0; (* init. max. distance and index *)
    for i = 0 to n-1: (* traverse the data points *)
      if dsts[i] <= dmax: continue; (* if less than maximum, skip point *)
      while hcis[i] < j-1: (* traverse skipped clusters *)
        hcis[i] += 1; (* compute distance to center *)
        d = distance(ctrs[hcis[i]], data[i]);
        if d < dsts[i]: (* if less than known distance, *)
          dsts[i] = d; (* update the minimum distance *)
          if d < dmax: break; (* if less than current maximum, skip *)
        if dsts[i] > dmax: (* if larger than current maximum, *)
          dmax = dsts[i]; imax = i; (* note new maximum and index *)
      dsts[imax] = 0.0; (* mark the data point as selected *)
      ctrs[j] = data[imax]; (* and add it to the set of centers *)
  return ctrs; (* return the chosen cluster centers *)

```

Figure 1: Efficient implementation of the Maximin cluster center initialization.

3 K-MEANS INITIALIZATION

The quality of a k -means result depends heavily on the initial centers. Poor choices can lead to inferior results due to a local optimum. However, improvements over naively sampling uniformly at random from the data points are easily found, for example the Maximin method (Hathaway et al., 2006) (Section 3.1) and the k -means++ procedure (Arthur and Vassilvitskii, 2007) (Section 3.2).

3.1 Maximin and Its Variants

Standard Maximin. A simple and straightforward method to obtain well dispersed initial centers is the Maximin method (Hathaway et al., 2006): the first center is sampled uniformly at random from the data points. All subsequent centers are chosen as those data points that maximize the minimum distance to the already chosen cluster centers (hence the name “Maximin”).

A naïve implementation of Maximin computes, after the first center has been chosen, the distances of all data points to the most recently chosen center and updates a minimum distance to a center that is stored for each data point. This requires $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (n-i) \approx (k-1)n$ distance computations. However, using ideas that are inspired by approaches like (Elkan, 2003; Hamerly, 2010; Newling and Fleuret, 2016a) for accelerating the

optimization phase, the number of distance computations can be reduced (Yarikova, 2019).

The core idea is as follows: we store for each data point a (minimum) distance to a center and the index of this center. These distances are initialized with the distance to the first center and all indices are set to zero. Any new center can obviously only reduce the stored distances. Hence, in the search for the maximum of the minimum distances of data points to already chosen centers, any data points with a smaller minimum distance than the current maximum can be skipped, even if not all distances to the currently chosen centers have been computed. These distances are computed only on a need-to-know basis: if the minimum distance stored with a data point is greater than the current maximum, it could yield the new maximum, and hence distances to centers that were skipped before are determined, but only as long as the minimum distance of the data point remains larger than the current maximum. Thus, for data points close to some already chosen cluster center, distance computations may no longer be necessary. A formal description of this algorithm in pseudo-code (somewhat Python-like) is shown in Figure 1.

Trimmed Maximin. A core problem of the Maximin method is that it tends to select outliers, that is, data points at the very rim of the data point cloud. Although this ensures well dis-

persed initial centers, it also tends to select centers that are far away from other data points and thus atypical for any clusters.

A simple solution to this problem is trimmed Maximin (Hathaway et al., 2006), where in each selection step a certain number s (or fraction) of the farthest data points are trimmed. Hence the data point with the $(s + 1)$ -th largest minimum distance to already chosen centers is selected.

Such an approach is easily implemented by replacing the single maximum distance `dmax` and corresponding index `imax` in the algorithm in Figure 1 by a minimum heap of size $s + 1$, which collects the $s + 1$ data points with the largest minimum distances (Yarikova, 2019). We used a simple binary heap in our implementation. Whenever a data point has a larger minimum distance than the data point at the top of the heap, the data point at the top of the heap is replaced (unless the heap is not yet full—then the new point is simply added) and the new point sifts down in the heap to its proper place. After all data points have been processed, the data point at the top of the heap is chosen as the next center.

Sectioned Maximin. An alternative to excluding extreme data points is to reduce at least the chance that outliers are chosen by selecting the data point with the largest maximum distance not among all data points, but only in a (random) subset of the data points (Yarikova, 2019).

This can be achieved with a simple modification of the algorithm shown in Figure 1: The subset size $s \leq n$ is passed as an additional parameter. The loop “for `i = 0` to `n-1`:” is replaced by a loop “for `r = 1` to `s`:” (`r` is a new variable), while the variable `i` is initialized to zero before it and updated by “`i = (i+1) mod n`;” in each loop. In this way the subsets, from which the next centers are chosen as those data points with the largest minimum distances, are sections of data points that are cut cyclically from the (initially shuffled) data points. Note that choosing `s = n` conveniently yields the original Maximin behavior as a special case (Yarikova, 2019).

3.2 k -Means++ and Its Variants

Standard k -Means++. The k -means++ procedure (Arthur and Vassilvitskii, 2007) can be seen as a randomized version of the Maximin method. The data point with the largest minimum distance from the already chosen centers is not selected absolutely, but is merely assigned a (significantly) higher probability than other data points.

To be more specific, the probability that a data point is chosen as the next center is proportional to the square of the minimum distance it has to already chosen cluster centers (sampling from a d^2 -distribution). Thus data points that are far away from all already chosen centers have a high probability of being chosen, without the farthest one being the only possible choice.

A standard implementation of k -means++ requires, like a naïve implementation of the Maximin method, $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (n - i) \approx (k - 1)n$ distance computations. Unfortunately, this cannot be reduced so easily as for the Maximin method, because all minimum distances to cluster centers need to be known for the random sampling. For large data sets, the methods suggested in (Bachem et al., 2016a; Bachem et al., 2016b) may be useful, which yield an approximation of k -means++ with the help of a Markov Chain Monte Carlo method. We implemented these as well, but since their results do not differ much for standard benchmark data sets, we do not study them here.

Trimmed k -Means++. k -means++ still suffers from two drawbacks: in the first place, outliers again have a high probability of being chosen as initial cluster centers. Secondly, even though data points with a small minimum distance to already chosen centers are assigned only a small probability, the number of these data points naturally increases as more centers are being selected. Hence they collect considerable probability mass simply by their number. As a consequence, the chance that centers are chosen that are too close together may be unfavorably high.

We address these problems with a trimming approach based on quantiles (Yarikova, 2019): data points with a minimum distance below a user-specified lower quantile $1 - q_l$ or above a user-specified upper quantile $1 - q_u$ cannot be chosen as the next cluster center. (Note that we specify both quantiles as $1 - q$, because we want q_l and q_u to refer to fractions of data points with the *largest* minimum distances.)

Especially if the lower quantile is large (we recommend to choose $q_l < 0.5$), this also enables an efficient implementation that can use (similar to the trimmed Maximin method) a heap to find the data points above the lower quantile $1 - q_l$. That is, we create a minimum heap of size $s = \lfloor q_l \cdot n \rfloor$, which collects the data points having the s largest minimum distances to already chosen cluster centers. This heap is filled in exactly the same way as the one for trimmed Maximin. After all data points have been processed,

```

real[] [] kmeanspp (real data[] [], int n, int k, int s, int t):
  (* data: data points, n: number of data points, k: number of clusters *)
  (* s, t: number of data point from lower/upper quantile to end n *)
  int i, j, isel; (* loop variables, array indices *)
  real dsts[n+1], dcum[], d; (* (min/cum) distances to centers *)
  int hcis[n]; (* highest used cluster indices *)
  int heap[s], h[]; (* heap for largest min. distances *)
  real ctrs[k] []; (* chosen initial cluster centers *)
  ctrs[0] = data[randint(0, n-1)]; (* choose first center randomly *)
  for i = 0 to n-1: (* compute distances to first cluster *)
    dsts[i] = distance(data[i], ctrs[0]); hcis[i] = 0;
  dsts[n] = -1.0; (* set distance sentinel for heap *)
  for j from 1 to k-1: (* select the remaining clusters *)
    heap[0] = n; j = s; (* set heap sentinel, start index *)
    for i = 0 to n-1: (* traverse the data points *)
      if dsts[i] <= dsts[heap[0]]: continue; (* if less than heap data, skip point *)
      while hcis[i] < k-1: (* traverse skipped clusters *)
        hcis[i] += 1; (* go to the next cluster *)
        d = distance(ctrs[hcis[i]], data[i]);
        if d < dsts[i]: dsts[i] = d; (* if less, update minimum distance *)
      if dsts[i] <= dsts[heap[0]]: (* if less than heap data, *)
        continue; (* skip the data point *)
      if j > 0: j -= 1 (* get (next) position in heap *)
      sift(heap, j, s, i, dsts); (* let new distance sift down in heap *)
    if t <= 0: h = heap; (* if all in top quantile, use heap *)
  else: (* if to trim uppermost quantile *)
    quantile(heap, s, t-1, dsts); (* trim off t largest distances *)
    if t < s: h = heap[t:]; (* get the remaining heap *)
    else: h = heap[-1:]; (* or at least the last element *)
  dcum = cumsum([dsts[i] for i in h]); (* form cumulative sums *)
  isel = searchsorted(dcum, dcum[-1] *random());
  if isel >= len(h): isel = len(h)-1; (* sample randomly from  $d^2$  distrib. *)
  isel = h[isel]; (* get chosen data point index *)
  dsts[isel] = 0.0; (* mark the data point as selected *)
  ctrs[j] = data[isel]; (* and add it to the set of centers *)
  return ctrs; (* return the chosen cluster centers *)

```

Figure 2: Efficient implementation of the trimmed k -means++ procedure. The function `sift` performs a standard sift down operation for a binary heap (as a simple array), called on the heap, the number of empty elements in the heap, and the size of the heap, the data point and its distance. The function `cumsum` forms the cumulative sums of the values in its parameter array; the function `searchsorted` finds the index of an element in an array.

the top $t = \lfloor q_u \cdot n \rfloor$ data points (that is, the t data points with the largest minimum distances) may be trimmed from the heap using the quickselect scheme (Hoare, 1961) for finding a quantile quickly as well as collecting the values above the quantile. A formal description of this algorithm in pseudo-code (somewhat Python-like) is shown in Figure 2 (Yarikova, 2019).

3.3 Local Outlier Factor

In order to prevent outliers from being chosen as cluster centers (this is the main problem of the Maximin approach, see above), we also tried finding (potential) outliers first and excluding them from the available choices for (initial) cluster centers. That is, the described methods for choosing initial cluster centers were executed only on

those data points that were not labeled as outliers, while all data points were used in the subsequent cluster optimization phase.

For detecting outliers we relied on the local outlier factor measure (Breunig et al., 2000) in the `SciKitLearn` (Pedregosa et al., 2011) implementation, using default settings (20 neighbors, automatic thresholding). For all used data sets, the local outlier factors were computed and turned into outlier indicators (thresholds determined as described in (Breunig et al., 2000)), which could then be passed in a separate file to the actual clustering program. In this way we avoided having to re-compute the local outlier factors again for each clustering run, although execution times were generally very low (see the last column of Table 1 in the next section).

We also experimented with the somewhat newer method of local outlier probability (Kriegel et al., 2009), in the implementation that is provided by PyNomaly¹. However, the execution times were so much longer than those of the local outlier factor implementation of SciKitLearn that we soon abandoned this possibility.

4 EXPERIMENTS

For our experiments we used the data sets shown in Table 1, most of which stem from (Fränti and Sieranoja, 2018)², although the data sets “iris”, “wine” and “yeast” can also be found in the UCI machine learning repository (Dheeru and Taniskidou, 2017). The data set “hepta” (Ultsch, 2005) is part of the Umatrix package for R.³ These data sets have been used several times in similar contexts (e.g. (Newling and Fleuret, 2016b; Fränti and Sieranoja, 2018)) and hence may be viewed as standard benchmark data sets. All data sets were z -score normalized in all dimensions, that is, transformed in such a way that each dimension has a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one. After an initialization with the different methods described above, the actual k -means optimization was conducted with the Exponion method (Newling and Fleuret, 2016a).

Experimental results on these data sets are shown in Tables 2 to 6. Table 2 shows the number of distance computations needed in the initialization phase relative to the number needed in a naive Maximin or a standard k -means++ implementation (i.e., $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (n-i) \approx (k-1)n$). Clearly, the optimized form of Maximin can reduce distance computations considerably, often down to less than half. Trimming comes, of course, at a price, since the restrictions on the minimum distances that have to be considered are less strict. (It does not suffice for a minimum distance to be less than the current maximum to skip additional distance computations, but it must be less than the top $x\%$ of minimum distances.) Sectioned Maximin, especially for small section sizes, reduces the number of distance computations the most, sometimes to as little as a fifth.

As can be seen, the k -means++ procedure clearly profits from trimming, and, not surprisingly, profits the more, the tighter the trimming:

¹<https://github.com/vc1492a/PyNomaly>

²<http://cs.joensuu.fi/sipu/datasets/>

³<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/Umatrix/index.html>

data set	m	n	k	o	time/s
iris	4	150	3	5	<0.01
wine	14	178	3	8	<0.01
yeast	8	1484	10	44	0.04
hepta	3	212	7	0	<0.01
r15	3	600	30	48	<0.01
d31	3	3100	31	215	0.02
a1	2	3000	20	82	0.02
a2	2	5250	35	181	0.03
a3	2	7500	50	261	0.04
s1	2	5000	15	158	0.03
s2	2	5000	15	123	0.02
s3	2	5000	15	67	0.03
s4	2	5000	15	97	0.02
birch1	2	100000	100	156	0.61
birch2	2	100000	100	2731	0.67
birch3	2	100000	100	857	0.61

Table 1: Used data sets and their properties: m : number of dimensions, n : data points, k : clusters, o : outliers (local outlier factor), “time/s”: time in seconds for outlier computation (SciKitLearn).

Trimming allows similar optimizations of skipping distance computations as Maximin: what cannot enter the heap needs no update.

Table 3 shows the clustering error, measured as the sum of squared distances between centers and assigned data points. All results are averages over 100 runs. Clearly, trimming very often improves the initialization, although there are cases (wine, yeast), where proper trimming parameters are crucial. This is not too surprising, though, as the best parameters depend on the level of contamination of the data set with outliers.

If such outliers are identified before initialization by computing a local outlier factor (see Table 4), the percentages become somewhat worse. However, the reason for this is that the standard Maximin method fares better, as it can no longer select such outliers as cluster centers. The higher percentages thus reflect the smaller base of standard Maximin rather than that trimming works less well. Nevertheless the initialization still profits considerably from trimming.

A better initialization is one thing, but does this also improve the error of the final result after optimization? Table 5 shows that this is actually often the case, although results depend heavily on the specific data set. Note, however, that this table shows *average* errors over 100 runs, which is not necessarily what is relevant. In practice, clustering will be run several times with different initializations and then the best result gets selected. W.r.t. best results over 100 runs (not shown) the different approaches hardly differ for these data sets (they usually find the global optimum if only

data set	maximin							kmeans++						
	opt	trimmed			sectioned			std	trimmed					
		1%	2%	5%	5%	10%	20%		20% 0%	20% 2%	10% 0%	10% 2%	5% 0%	5% 1%
iris	60.9	73.7	76.2	80.4	51.6	52.4	53.6	100	86.0	86.6	78.7	79.4	72.5	72.3
wine	53.7	62.5	68.7	76.0	51.4	52.0	52.4	100	84.9	85.1	75.8	76.7	68.3	68.0
yeast	14.1	67.3	63.9	64.2	13.9	14.8	15.2	100	72.3	73.0	57.2	60.0	44.5	46.7
hepta	50.0	72.7	72.2	72.4	23.3	27.6	33.7	100	81.8	82.0	74.6	74.8	68.2	68.4
r15	35.9	40.6	42.7	51.5	34.3	36.3	35.8	100	74.4	74.7	61.0	61.0	51.4	50.9
d31	46.6	56.3	58.2	62.1	32.7	40.2	44.2	100	77.0	76.9	67.8	67.8	62.1	62.0
a1	38.4	51.8	54.5	60.6	23.3	32.8	36.4	100	76.9	76.9	67.4	67.3	60.4	60.3
a2	36.5	52.6	54.6	60.0	30.2	34.3	35.6	100	76.5	76.4	66.6	66.7	60.0	60.1
a3	35.8	52.9	54.9	60.3	32.3	34.9	36.0	100	76.2	76.1	66.7	66.6	60.3	60.3
s1	40.2	56.1	58.7	63.7	20.0	30.3	36.8	100	77.9	77.9	69.3	69.6	63.3	63.9
s2	40.2	54.6	56.9	62.6	19.4	29.2	35.8	100	77.6	77.7	68.7	68.8	62.4	62.7
s3	37.5	52.9	55.0	59.0	18.8	28.3	33.9	100	77.1	77.0	67.1	66.8	60.9	59.7
s4	40.7	53.8	55.8	61.0	18.5	27.9	34.5	100	77.0	76.8	67.5	67.3	61.2	60.7
birch1	31.0	49.6	52.6	58.4	28.6	29.8	30.3	100	75.8	75.7	65.7	65.6	58.5	58.5
birch2	38.6	46.3	48.2	56.2	34.0	36.1	37.4	100	75.1	74.9	64.0	63.8	56.1	55.7
birch3	32.4	43.2	45.7	52.6	29.3	30.8	31.5	100	72.0	71.8	61.0	60.5	53.1	52.4

Table 2: Numbers of distance computations for different initialization methods on different data sets. All numbers are percentages relative to a naive computation (both Maximin or k -means++), which requires $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (n-i) \approx (k-1)n$ distance computations.

they are executed often enough). A lower average error can be read as a higher chance to obtain a good or even the best clustering result in a limited number of runs, though.

An important insight gained from Table 5 is that k -means++, the *de facto* standard for k -means initialization, performs worse than Maximin on many data sets, sometimes considerably (hepta, d31). In these cases trimming has a very beneficial effect: not only does it reduce the number of distance computations, but it also makes k -means++ competitive with Maximin again.

Finally, Table 6 shows that the trimming approaches also lead to gains in the number of update steps (iris appears to be somewhat of an exception, but this may be acceptable given the better result quality, see Table 5). For most data sets, better results can thus even be obtained in less time (or more runs can be conducted in the same time, thus increasing the chance of obtaining a good result), not only by reducing the needed number of distance computations in the initialization, but also by reducing the number of update steps and thus the number of distance computations in the optimization process.

5 CONCLUSION

We developed two new initialization methods for k -means clustering, namely sectioned Maximin and trimmed k -means++, and provided efficient implementations of all Maximin versions (standard, trimmed, sectioned) as well as of trimmed k -means++ (see also the URLs given below, from where our software can be obtained).

As our experimental results demonstrate, these methods can yield better clustering quality, while at the same time reducing the number of distance computations needed for the center initialization as well as the number of update steps (and thus the distance computations) needed until the k -means optimization procedure converges.

Somewhat surprisingly, finding outliers first and excluding them from the choice of initial cluster centers did not really improve the results—likely, because trimming during initialization already handles outliers very effectively.

However, selecting an outlier as an initial cluster center may not be so bad either. Since outliers are “surrounding” the data point cloud, they may still be reasonably good choices for initial cluster centers that are directed to their proper places by the optimization procedure. This effect may also explain why Maximin often outperforms k -means++. This demonstrates that the current *de facto* initialization standard may be worse than it is held to be, at least it can be improved upon. Our trimming approaches make k -means++ competitive with Maximin again, though. However, in terms of the number of needed distance computations, Maximin still wins.

Software and Extended Results. Our implementations (Python and C, MIT License) as well as extended result tables can be obtained at

<http://www.borgelt.net/cluster.html>

<http://www.borgelt.net/docs/clsinit.txt>

The first author gratefully acknowledges the financial support from Land Salzburg within the WISS 2025 project IDA-Lab (20102-F1901166-KZP and 20204-WISS/225/197-2019).

data set	maximin						kmeans++							
	std	trimmed			sectioned			std	trimmed					
		1%	2%	5%	5%	10%	20%		20% 0%	20% 2%	10% 0%	10% 2%	5% 0%	5% 1%
iris	100	109	103	73.7	60.6	65.9	77.7	65.9	60.3	57.7	68.1	61.7	81.6	71.6
wine	100	121	108	98.6	84.1	86.0	93.8	80.3	81.9	79.4	88.9	80.9	92.9	88.9
yeast	100	114	95.5	77.4	76.1	84.8	90.8	55.9	57.5	69.8	64.2	73.9	72.2	74.4
hepta	100	91.4	90.8	80.6	107	91.0	93.5	145	93.2	93.4	86.5	84.7	91.9	88.6
r15	100	67.1	60.2	56.7	62.9	69.9	78.3	62.8	58.7	57.9	60.4	57.5	61.6	58.0
d31	100	50.3	47.6	78.3	63.9	72.2	81.7	85.5	61.1	70.8	55.0	57.7	53.7	50.8
a1	100	62.4	61.1	66.7	76.4	82.6	89.4	78.8	66.8	66.3	63.9	62.0	64.2	61.8
a2	100	60.7	61.5	66.4	77.7	83.3	90.3	84.9	66.8	69.2	64.5	64.2	64.4	62.0
a3	100	62.3	64.6	67.1	77.5	84.9	90.3	87.7	69.1	71.1	64.8	67.1	64.3	62.3
s1	100	46.9	42.0	36.9	65.2	75.3	84.0	70.5	49.9	47.7	44.1	43.2	46.8	40.0
s2	100	50.6	44.9	45.4	69.4	78.5	85.1	64.7	52.5	51.6	49.9	46.0	51.8	46.2
s3	100	64.3	59.0	55.8	81.8	87.3	92.7	67.8	60.0	56.8	61.4	55.3	63.1	57.0
s4	100	61.5	57.1	51.0	79.3	83.8	89.8	64.4	57.5	53.3	57.5	52.5	59.0	55.3
birch1	100	78.6	78.6	81.7	95.1	96.6	98.4	102	83.9	86.9	81.3	82.4	80.6	79.7
birch2	100	61.6	63.7	84.6	93.0	95.4	97.7	75.0	61.4	80.9	60.3	74.6	60.5	63.5
birch3	100	58.4	55.9	62.4	90.6	93.8	96.0	53.8	49.8	56.6	50.9	56.0	53.7	53.7

Table 3: Average error (sum of squared distances of data points to closest clusters, 100 runs) directly after the initialization. All columns show percentages relative to the column “maximin:std”, which thus necessarily always shows 100%.

data set	maximin						kmeans++							
	std	trimmed			sectioned			std	trimmed					
		1%	2%	5%	5%	10%	20%		20% 0%	20% 2%	10% 0%	10% 2%	5% 0%	5% 1%
iris	100	109	95.1	70.9	68.6	74.0	79.5	69.6	68.3	63.5	74.5	69.6	84.2	75.9
wine	100	97.5	101	91.2	86.5	89.7	92.9	88.9	86.1	83.9	87.2	84.2	93.4	89.8
yeast	100	103	84.1	82.3	78.6	84.5	91.3	59.5	61.3	77.9	66.6	81.3	72.3	79.5
hepta	100	91.0	91.2	80.8	102	90.1	92.3	156	91.4	95.7	86.9	84.9	91.2	87.7
r15	100	75.6	68.7	67.2	74.2	77.4	84.4	77.9	71.8	71.1	71.9	70.4	73.5	70.0
d31	100	60.3	58.2	98.0	71.4	78.4	85.9	109	74.8	81.4	67.9	70.7	63.6	62.6
a1	100	65.1	62.8	72.0	77.8	84.3	90.1	85.0	69.5	71.1	67.3	66.4	67.4	65.0
a2	100	66.3	64.3	72.2	80.0	86.1	90.5	91.7	74.5	77.2	69.9	72.0	69.6	67.9
a3	100	68.3	70.9	75.4	82.0	87.5	91.9	97.0	74.2	80.1	70.7	73.6	70.5	69.6
s1	100	55.5	48.3	43.0	72.5	79.3	88.6	78.7	56.1	57.1	52.3	50.9	51.8	45.9
s2	100	54.9	50.1	51.3	75.1	83.2	87.8	73.0	58.9	55.7	54.2	52.1	55.8	51.4
s3	100	64.1	61.0	54.9	82.1	87.2	92.7	72.0	61.2	58.4	61.9	57.0	62.6	57.7
s4	100	66.0	59.8	56.6	80.8	86.0	90.8	70.3	61.5	58.6	63.1	57.3	65.6	59.1
birch1	100	80.9	81.1	84.4	95.0	97.0	98.2	104	86.9	89.7	83.8	85.2	82.1	81.7
birch2	100	62.8	66.0	89.6	93.1	95.8	98.2	75.1	63.1	84.5	61.4	75.7	62.0	63.8
birch3	100	60.3	58.7	69.7	90.1	93.3	95.7	56.8	52.4	61.2	53.1	60.7	55.8	56.7

Table 4: Average error directly after the initialization (100 runs), if found outliers are ineligible as cluster centers. All columns show percentages relative to the column “maximin:std”, which thus necessarily always shows 100%.

REFERENCES

- Arthur, D. and Vassilvitskii, S. (2007). *k*-means++: The advantages of careful seeding. In *Proc. 18th Annual SIAM Symp. on Discrete Algorithms (SODA’07, New Orleans, LA)*, pages 1027–1035, Philadelphia, PA, USA. Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics.
- Bachem, O., Lucic, M., Hassani, S., and Krause, A. (2016a). Approximate *k*-means++ in sublinear time. In *Proc. 30 AAAI Conf. on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI’16, Phoenix, AZ)*, pages 1459–1467, Menlo Park, CA, USA. AAAI Press.
- Bachem, O., Lucic, M., Hassani, S., and Krause, A. (2016b). Fast and provably good seedings for *k*-means. In *Proc. 30th Conf. on Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS’16, Barcelona, Spain)*, pages 55–63, Red Hook, NY, USA. Curran Associates.
- Breunig, M., Kriegel, H.-P., Ng, R., and Sander, J. (2000). Lof: Identifying density-based local outliers. *SIGMOD Record*, 29:93–104.
- Dheeru, D. and Taniskidou, E. (2017). *UCI Machine Learning Repository*. University of California at Irvine, Irvine, CA, USA.
- Elkan, C. (2003). Using the triangle inequality to accelerate *k*-means. In *Proc. 20th Int. Conf. on Machine Learning (ICML’03, Washington, DC)*, pages 147–153, Menlo Park, CA, USA. AAAI Press.
- Fränti, P. and Sieranoja, S. (2018). *k*-means properties on six clustering benchmark datasets. *Applied Intelligence*, 48:4743–4759.
- Hamerly, G. (2010). Making *k*-means even faster. In *Proc. SIAM Int. Conf. on Data Mining (SDM 2010, Columbus, OH)*, pages 130–140, Philadelphia, PA, USA. Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics.
- Hathaway, R., Bezdek, J., and Huband, J. (2006). Maximin initialization for cluster analysis. In *Proc. Iberoamerican Cong. on Pattern Recogni-*

data set	maximin						kmeans++							
	std	trimmed			sectioned			std	trimmed					
		1%	2%	5%	5%	10%	20%		20% 0%	20% 2%	10% 0%	10% 2%	5% 0%	5% 1%
iris	100	89.3	89.4	91.9	93.0	93.8	95.7	95.3	93.5	94.2	94.8	92.8	95.8	96.4
wine	100	99.2	99.2	102	99.9	101	100	99.5	100	101	99.8	101	101	101
yeast	100	94.0	105	108	96.9	97.7	99.3	98.8	94.1	109	94.8	109	96.2	107
hepta	100	100	100	100	118	100	100	178	110	110	100	100	100	100
r15	100	101	104	103	102	102	101	106	104	104	103	103	103	103
d31	100	96.5	97.9	137	97.5	97.6	98.0	153	118	130	106	112	100	103
a1	100	93.8	95.3	98.8	98.6	97.5	98.4	103	98.4	99.7	97.3	96.8	96.6	96.0
a2	100	89.5	90.7	95.5	94.3	95.7	97.1	107	96.0	98.1	92.6	93.3	92.4	91.2
a3	100	89.7	90.9	96.7	93.8	95.1	96.4	113	99.8	101	95.7	96.5	91.9	93.6
s1	100	70.4	72.0	73.1	83.9	87.4	90.2	108	88.4	88.8	80.0	81.1	79.1	72.4
s2	100	91.7	85.8	88.6	94.1	93.0	95.8	102	91.9	90.9	90.5	88.8	89.5	87.5
s3	100	101	101	101	101	101	101	103	102	101	101	101	102	102
s4	100	99.5	100	99.8	102	101	101	102	101	101	99.4	100	101	102
birch1	100	95.1	95.1	95.9	98.8	98.9	99.2	98.8	96.4	96.5	96.1	96.1	95.7	95.9
birch2	100	99.0	99.1	99.9	102	101	101	101	97.8	99.0	98.2	98.9	98.3	98.4
birch3	100	94.3	95.1	99.4	98.5	99.1	99.5	94.3	92.8	97.5	92.4	96.2	92.8	94.4

Table 5: Average error (sum of squared distances of data points to closest clusters, 100 runs) after k -means optimization until convergence. All columns show percentages relative to the column “maximin:std”, which thus necessarily always shows 100%.

data set	maximin						kmeans++							
	std	trimmed			sectioned			std	trimmed					
		1%	2%	5%	5%	10%	20%		20% 0%	20% 2%	10% 0%	10% 2%	5% 0%	5% 1%
iris	100	112	121	99.3	108	111	106	103	105	95.7	105	104	114	105
wine	100	87.7	79.9	76.7	89.2	89.7	93.2	89.0	78.4	82.6	87.0	78.7	89.0	83.4
yeast	100	58.9	71.6	86.8	91.3	103	88.6	79.7	75.2	78.5	80.6	83.3	89.7	86.4
hepta	100	100	100	100	116	102	100	158	106	110	100	100	100	100
r15	100	95.9	113	101	94.7	92.2	94.6	99.8	93.3	97.2	96.9	95.4	90.3	93.7
d31	100	70.4	75.4	117	72.4	83.1	85.4	137	110	123	93.3	106	86.4	87.1
a1	100	57.7	66.1	73.3	79.1	82.5	87.1	72.7	67.9	69.7	68.7	67.8	70.1	67.6
a2	100	76.9	85.9	90.3	90.3	98.9	102	117	92.9	102	90.1	90.0	86.1	80.4
a3	100	70.8	69.9	87.0	80.3	80.9	87.0	100	91.4	94.1	80.2	85.2	73.4	79.7
s1	100	46.9	50.4	53.0	75.9	81.7	94.1	133	92.3	83.7	67.7	68.9	62.8	48.6
s2	100	73.8	68.1	64.8	94.1	87.1	95.7	104	84.8	88.0	71.5	75.5	68.4	67.4
s3	100	95.6	91.1	94.2	101	104	104	103	90.7	92.7	96.5	96.9	96.0	93.2
s4	100	87.0	89.9	84.1	94.4	100	100	92.4	92.6	90.0	86.1	76.9	85.9	85.9
birch1	100	72.9	72.0	77.7	87.9	91.9	99.0	96.8	79.9	81.5	73.5	75.5	72.5	77.6
birch2	100	135	138	139	113	107	109	134	135	145	132	140	121	134
birch3	100	96.8	90.6	103	95.8	99.4	97.7	102	94.9	98.8	95.6	97.4	99.4	101

Table 6: Average number of update steps (epochs) until the k -means optimization converges (100 runs). All columns show percentages relative to the column “maximin:std”, which thus necessarily always shows 100%.

tion (CIARP 2006, Cancun, Mexico), pages 14–26, Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany. Springer.

Hoare, C. (1961). Algorithm 65: Find. *Communications of the ACM*, 4:321–322.

Kriegel, H.-P., Kröger, P., Schubert, E., and Zimek, A. (2009). Loop: Local outlier probabilities. In *Proc. 18th ACM Int. Conf. on Information and Knowledge Management (CIKM’09, Hong Kong, China)*, pages 1649–1652, New York, NY, USA. ACM Press.

Newling, J. and Fleuret, F. (2016a). Fast k -means with accurate bounds. In *Proc. 33rd Int. Conf. on Machine Learning (ICML’16, New York, NY)*, pages 936–944. JMLR Workshop and Conference Proceedings 48.

Newling, J. and Fleuret, F. (2016b). k -medoids for k -means seeding. In *Proc. 31th Conf. on Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS’17, Long Beach, CA)*, pages 5195–5203, Red Hook, NY, USA. Curran Associates.

Pedregosa, F., Varoquaux, G., Gramfort, A., Michel,

Y., Thirion, B., Grisel, O., Blondel, M., Prettenhofer, P., Weiss, R., Dubourg, V., Vanderplas, J., Passos, A., Cournapeau, D., Brucher, M., Perrot, M., and Duchesnay, E. (2011). Scikit-learn: Machine learning in python. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 12:2825–2830.

Selim, S. and Ismail, M. (1984). k -means-type algorithms: A generalized convergence theorem and characterization of local optimality. *IEEE Trans. Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 6:81–87.

Ultsch, A. (2005). U*C: Self-organized clustering with emergent feature maps. In *Lernen, Wissensentdeckung und Adaptivität (LWA)*, pages 240–244, Saarbruecken, Germany.

Yarikova, O. (2019). Vergleich der Initialisierungsmethoden für den k -Means-Clustering-Algorithmus. Bachelor’s thesis, University of Konstanz, Konstanz, Germany.