#### Chapter 9 - Unsupervised Learning

This notebook contains all the sample code in chapter 9.



Run in Google Colab (https://colab.research.google.com/github/ageron/handson-ml2/blob/master/09\_unsupervised\_learning.ipynb)

# Setup

First, let's import a few common modules, ensure MatplotLib plots figures inline and prepare a function to save the figures. We also check that Python 3.5 or later is installed (although Python 2.x may work, it is deprecated so we strongly recommend you use Python 3 instead), as well as Scikit-Learn ≥0.20.

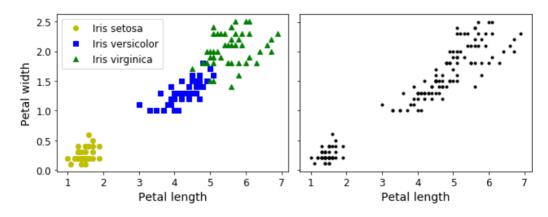
```
In [1]: # Python ≥3.5 is required
        import sys
        assert sys.version info >= (3, 5)
        # Scikit-Learn ≥0.20 is required
        import sklearn
        assert sklearn.__version__ >= "0.20"
         # Common imports
        import numpy as np
        import os
         # to make this notebook's output stable across runs
        np.random.seed(42)
         # To plot pretty figures
        %matplotlib inline
        import matplotlib as mpl
         import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        mpl.rc('axes', labelsize=14)
        mpl.rc('xtick', labelsize=12)
mpl.rc('ytick', labelsize=12)
         # Where to save the figures
        PROJECT ROOT DIR = "."
        CHAPTER ID = "unsupervised learning"
        IMAGES_PATH = os.path.join(PROJECT_ROOT_DIR, "images", CHAPTER ID)
        os.makedirs(IMAGES_PATH, exist_ok=True)
        def save fig(fig id, tight layout=True, fig extension="png", resolution=30
        0):
             path = os.path.join(IMAGES_PATH, fig_id + "." + fig_extension)
            print("Saving figure", fig_id)
             if tight_layout:
                plt.tight_layout()
             plt.savefig(path, format=fig extension, dpi=resolution)
         # Ignore useless warnings (see SciPy issue #5998)
         import warnings
        warnings.filterwarnings(action="ignore", message="^internal gelsd")
```

# Clustering

## Introduction - Classification vs Clustering

```
In [2]: from sklearn.datasets import load iris
In [3]:
           data = load iris()
           X = data.data
           y = data.target
           data.target names
Out[3]: array(['setosa', 'versicolor', 'virginica'], dtype='<U10')</pre>
In [4]: plt.figure(figsize=(9, 3.5))
           plt.subplot(121)
          plt.plot(X[y==0, 2], X[y==0, 3], "yo", label="Iris setosa")
plt.plot(X[y==1, 2], X[y==1, 3], "bs", label="Iris versicolor")
plt.plot(X[y==2, 2], X[y==2, 3], "g^", label="Iris virginica")
           plt.xlabel("Petal length", fontsize=14)
plt.ylabel("Petal width", fontsize=14)
           plt.legend(fontsize=12)
           plt.subplot(122)
           plt.scatter(X[:, 2], X[:, 3], c="k", marker=".")
           plt.xlabel("Petal length", fontsize=14)
           plt.tick params(labelleft=False)
           save_fig("classification_vs_clustering_plot")
           plt.show()
```

Saving figure classification vs clustering plot



A Gaussian mixture model (explained below) can actually separate these clusters pretty well (using all 4 features: petal length & width, and sepal length & width).

```
In [5]: from sklearn.mixture import GaussianMixture
In [6]: y_pred = GaussianMixture(n_components=3, random_state=42).fit(X).predict(X)
    mapping = np.array([2, 0, 1])
    y_pred = np.array([mapping[cluster_id] for cluster_id in y_pred])
```

```
plt.plot(X[y_pred==0, 2], X[y_pred==0, 3], "yo", label="Cluster 1")
plt.plot(X[y_pred==1, 2], X[y_pred==1, 3], "bs", label="Cluster 2")
plt.plot(X[y_pred==2, 2], X[y_pred==2, 3], "g^", label="Cluster 3")
In [7]:
                plt.xlabel("Petal length", fontsize=14)
plt.ylabel("Petal width", fontsize=14)
                plt.legend(loc="upper left", fontsize=12)
                plt.show()
                      2.5
                                      Cluster 1
                                      Cluster 2
                      2.0
                                      Cluster 3
                 Petal width
                      1.5
                      1.0
                      0.5
                      0.0
                                                                                           6
                                                         Petal length
```

## K-Means

Let's start by generating some blobs:

Now let's plot them:

```
In [11]: def plot_clusters(X, y=None):
    plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=y, s=1)
    plt.xlabel("$x_1$", fontsize=14)
    plt.ylabel("$x_2$", fontsize=14, rotation=0)
```

```
In [12]: plt.figure(figsize=(8, 4))
plot_clusters(X)
save_fig("blobs_plot")
plt.show()

Saving figure blobs_plot

3.0
2.5
x<sub>2</sub>
2.0
```

-1 X<sub>1</sub>

#### **Fit and Predict**

1.5

1.0

Let's train a K-Means clusterer on this dataset. It will try to find each blob's center and assign each instance to the closest blob:

<u>-</u>2

```
In [13]: from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
In [14]: k = 5
    kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters=k, random_state=42)
    y_pred = kmeans.fit_predict(X)
```

Each instance was assigned to one of the 5 clusters:

```
In [15]: y_pred
Out[15]: array([0, 4, 1, ..., 2, 1, 4])
```

And the following 5 centroids (i.e., cluster centers) were estimated:

Note that the KMeans instance preserves the labels of the instances it was trained on. Somewhat confusingly, in this context, the *label* of an instance is the index of the cluster that instance gets assigned to:

```
In [17]: kmeans.labels_
Out[17]: array([0, 4, 1, ..., 2, 1, 4])
```

Of course, we can predict the labels of new instances:

```
In [18]: X_new = np.array([[0, 2], [3, 2], [-3, 3], [-3, 2.5]])
kmeans.predict(X_new)
Out[18]: array([1, 1, 2, 2])
```

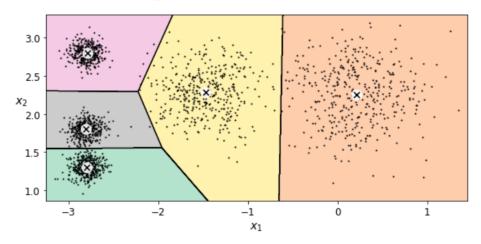
#### **Decision Boundaries**

Let's plot the model's decision boundaries. This gives us a *Voronoi diagram*:

```
In [19]: def plot data(X):
             plt.plot(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], 'k.', markersize=2)
         def plot centroids(centroids, weights=None, circle color='w', cross color='k
             if weights is not None:
                 centroids = centroids[weights > weights.max() / 10]
             plt.scatter(centroids[:, 0], centroids[:, 1],
                         marker='o', s=30, linewidths=8,
                         color=circle_color, zorder=10, alpha=0.9)
             color=cross_color, zorder=11, alpha=1)
         def plot decision boundaries(clusterer, X, resolution=1000, show centroids=T
         rue.
                                     show xlabels=True, show ylabels=True):
             mins = X.min(axis=0) - 0.1
             maxs = X.max(axis=0) + 0.1
             xx, yy = np.meshgrid(np.linspace(mins[0], maxs[0], resolution),
                                 np.linspace(mins[1], maxs[1], resolution))
             Z = clusterer.predict(np.c_[xx.ravel(), yy.ravel()])
             Z = Z.reshape(xx.shape)
             plt.contourf(Z, extent=(mins[0], maxs[0], mins[1], maxs[1]),
                         cmap="Pastel2")
             plt.contour(Z, extent=(mins[0], maxs[0], mins[1], maxs[1]),
                         linewidths=1, colors='k')
             plot data(X)
             if show_centroids:
                 plot_centroids(clusterer.cluster_centers_)
             if show xlabels:
                 plt.xlabel("$x 1$", fontsize=14)
             else:
                 plt.tick_params(labelbottom=False)
             if show_ylabels:
                 plt.ylabel("$x 2$", fontsize=14, rotation=0)
             else:
                 plt.tick params(labelleft=False)
```

```
In [20]: plt.figure(figsize=(8, 4))
    plot_decision_boundaries(kmeans, X)
    save_fig("voronoi_plot")
    plt.show()
```

Saving figure voronoi plot



Not bad! Some of the instances near the edges were probably assigned to the wrong cluster, but overall it looks pretty good.

## Hard Clustering vs Soft Clustering

Rather than arbitrarily choosing the closest cluster for each instance, which is called *hard clustering*, it might be better measure the distance of each instance to all 5 centroids. This is what the transform() method does:

You can verify that this is indeed the Euclidian distance between each instance and each centroid:

## K-Means Algorithm

The K-Means algorithm is one of the fastest clustering algorithms, but also one of the simplest:

- ullet First initialize k centroids randomly: k distinct instances are chosen randomly from the dataset and the centroids are placed at their locations.
- Repeat until convergence (i.e., until the centroids stop moving):
  - Assign each instance to the closest centroid.
  - Update the centroids to be the mean of the instances that are assigned to them.

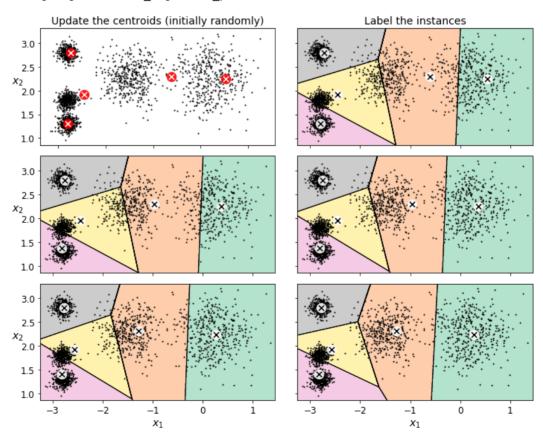
The KMeans class applies an optimized algorithm by default. To get the original K-Means algorithm (for educational purposes only), you must set init="random", n\_init=1 and algorithm="full". These hyperparameters will be explained below.

Let's run the K-Means algorithm for 1, 2 and 3 iterations, to see how the centroids move around:

And let's plot this:

```
In [24]: plt.figure(figsize=(10, 8))
         plt.subplot(321)
         plot data(X)
         plot_centroids(kmeans_iter1.cluster_centers_, circle_color='r', cross_color=
          'w')
         plt.ylabel("$x_2$", fontsize=14, rotation=0)
         plt.tick params(labelbottom=False)
         plt.title("Update the centroids (initially randomly)", fontsize=14)
         plt.subplot(322)
         plot_decision_boundaries(kmeans_iter1, X, show_xlabels=False, show_ylabels=F
         alse)
         plt.title("Label the instances", fontsize=14)
         plt.subplot(323)
         plot decision boundaries(kmeans iter1, X, show centroids=False, show xlabels
         plot_centroids(kmeans_iter2.cluster_centers_)
         plt.subplot(324)
         plot_decision_boundaries(kmeans_iter2, X, show_xlabels=False, show_ylabels=F
         alse)
         plt.subplot(325)
         plot_decision_boundaries(kmeans_iter2, X, show_centroids=False)
         plot_centroids(kmeans_iter3.cluster_centers_)
         plt.subplot(326)
         plot_decision_boundaries(kmeans_iter3, X, show_ylabels=False)
         save_fig("kmeans_algorithm_plot")
         plt.show()
```

Saving figure kmeans algorithm plot

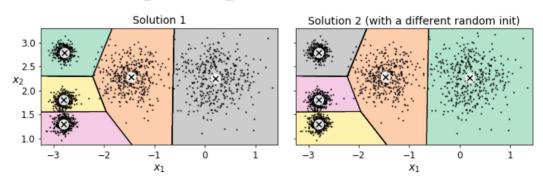


## K-Means Variability

In the original K-Means algorithm, the centroids are just initialized randomly, and the algorithm simply runs a single iteration to gradually improve the centroids, as we saw above.

However, one major problem with this approach is that if you run K-Means multiple times (or with different random seeds), it can converge to very different solutions, as you can see below:

Saving figure kmeans\_variability\_plot



#### Inertia

To select the best model, we will need a way to evaluate a K-Mean model's performance. Unfortunately, clustering is an unsupervised task, so we do not have the targets. But at least we can measure the distance between each instance and its centroid. This is the idea behind the *inertia* metric:

```
In [27]: kmeans.inertia_
Out[27]: 211.5985372581683
```

As you can easily verify, inertia is the sum of the squared distances between each training instance and its closest centroid:

The score() method returns the negative inertia. Why negative? Well, it is because a predictor's score() method must always respect the "great is better" rule.

```
In [29]: kmeans.score(X)
Out[29]: -211.59853725816828
```

## **Multiple Initializations**

So one approach to solve the variability issue is to simply run the K-Means algorithm multiple times with different random initializations, and select the solution that minimizes the inertia. For example, here are the inertias of the two "bad" models shown in the previous figure:

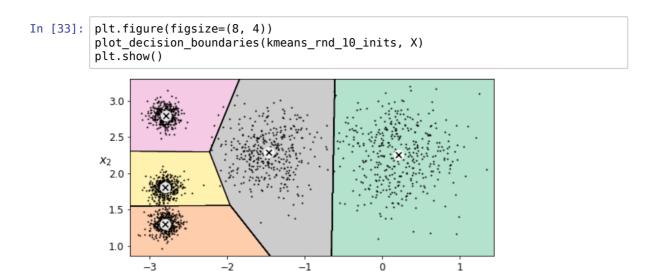
```
In [30]: kmeans_rnd_init1.inertia_
Out[30]: 211.60832621558367

In [31]: kmeans_rnd_init2.inertia_
Out[31]: 211.62301821329766
```

As you can see, they have a higher inertia than the first "good" model we trained, which means they are probably worse.

When you set the  $n_{init}$  hyperparameter, Scikit-Learn runs the original algorithm  $n_{init}$  times, and selects the solution that minimizes the inertia. By default, Scikit-Learn sets  $n_{init}=10$ .

As you can see, we end up with the initial model, which is certainly the optimal K-Means solution (at least in terms of inertia, and assuming k=5).



#### K-Means++

Instead of initializing the centroids entirely randomly, it is preferable to initialize them using the following algorithm, proposed in a <a href="mailto:2006.paper">2006 paper (https://goo.gl/eNUPw6)</a> by David Arthur and Sergei Vassilvitskii:

 $x_1$ 

- Take one centroid  $c_1$ , chosen uniformly at random from the dataset.
- Take a new center  $c_i$ , choosing an instance  $\mathbf{x}_i$  with probability:  $D(\mathbf{x}_i)^2 / \sum_{j=1}^m D(\mathbf{x}_j)^2$  where  $D(\mathbf{x}_i)$  is the distance between the instance  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and the closest centroid that was already chosen. This probability distribution ensures that instances that are further away from already chosen centroids are much more likely be selected as centroids.
- ullet Repeat the previous step until all k centroids have been chosen.

The rest of the K-Means++ algorithm is just regular K-Means. With this initialization, the K-Means algorithm is much less likely to converge to a suboptimal solution, so it is possible to reduce <code>n\_init</code> considerably. Most of the time, this largely compensates for the additional complexity of the initialization process.

To set the initialization to K-Means++, simply set init="k-means++" (this is actually the default):

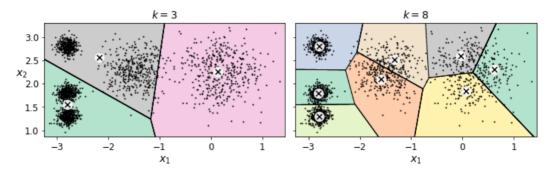
#### Finding the optimal number of clusters

What if the number of clusters was set to a lower or greater value than 5?

```
In [36]: kmeans_k3 = KMeans(n_clusters=3, random_state=42)
kmeans_k8 = KMeans(n_clusters=8, random_state=42)

plot_clusterer_comparison(kmeans_k3, kmeans_k8, X, "$k=3$", "$k=8$")
save_fig("bad_n_clusters_plot")
plt.show()
```

Saving figure bad\_n\_clusters\_plot



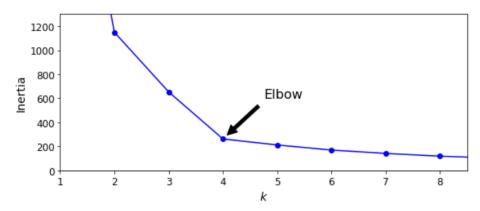
Ouch, these two models don't look great. What about their inertias?

```
In [37]: kmeans_k3.inertia_
Out[37]: 653.2223267580945

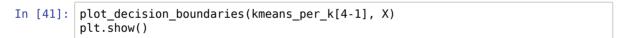
In [38]: kmeans_k8.inertia_
Out[38]: 118.44108623570082
```

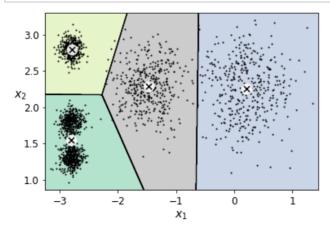
No, we cannot simply take the value of k that minimizes the inertia, since it keeps getting lower as we increase k. Indeed, the more clusters there are, the closer each instance will be to its closest centroid, and therefore the lower the inertia will be. However, we can plot the inertia as a function of k and analyze the resulting curve:

Saving figure inertia\_vs\_k\_plot



As you can see, there is an elbow at k=4, which means that less clusters than that would be bad, and more clusters would not help much and might cut clusters in half. So k=4 is a pretty good choice. Of course in this example it is not perfect since it means that the two blobs in the lower left will be considered as just a single cluster, but it's a pretty good clustering nonetheless.





Another approach is to look at the *silhouette score*, which is the mean *silhouette coefficient* over all the instances. An instance's silhouette coefficient is equal to  $(b-a)/\max(a,b)$  where a is the mean distance to the other instances in the same cluster (it is the *mean intra-cluster distance*), and b is the *mean nearest-cluster distance*, that is the mean distance to the instances of the next closest cluster (defined as the one that minimizes b, excluding the instance's own cluster). The silhouette coefficient can vary between -1 and +1: a coefficient close to +1 means that the instance is well inside its own cluster and far from other clusters, while a coefficient close to 0 means that it is close to a cluster boundary, and finally a coefficient close to -1 means that the instance may have been assigned to the wrong cluster.

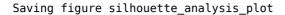
Let's plot the silhouette score as a function of k:

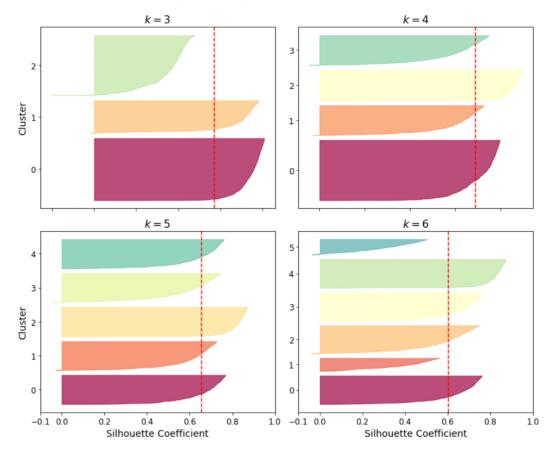
```
In [42]:
         from sklearn.metrics import silhouette score
In [43]: | silhouette_score(X, kmeans.labels_)
Out[43]: 0.655517642572828
        In [44]:
In [45]: plt.figure(figsize=(8, 3))
         plt.plot(range(2, 10), silhouette_scores, "bo-")
         plt.xlabel("$k$", fontsize=14)
         plt.ylabel("Silhouette score", fontsize=14)
         plt.axis([1.8, 8.5, 0.55, 0.7])
         save_fig("silhouette_score_vs_k_plot")
         plt.show()
         Saving figure silhouette_score_vs_k_plot
            0.700
           0.675
         Silhouette score
           0.650
           0.625
           0.600
           0.575
            0.550
                          ż
                  2
                                   4
                                           5
                                                    6
                                            k
```

As you can see, this visualization is much richer than the previous one: in particular, although it confirms that k=4 is a very good choice, but it also underlines the fact that k=5 is quite good as well.

An even more informative visualization is given when you plot every instance's silhouette coefficient, sorted by the cluster they are assigned to and by the value of the coefficient. This is called a *silhouette diagram*:

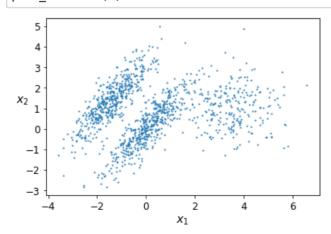
```
In [46]:
         from sklearn.metrics import silhouette samples
         from matplotlib.ticker import FixedLocator, FixedFormatter
         plt.figure(figsize=(11, 9))
         for k in (3, 4, 5, 6):
             plt.subplot(2, 2, k - 2)
             y_pred = kmeans_per_k[k - 1].labels_
             silhouette coefficients = silhouette samples(X, y pred)
             padding = len(X) // 30
             pos = padding
             ticks = []
             for i in range(k):
                 coeffs = silhouette coefficients[y pred == i]
                 coeffs.sort()
                 color = mpl.cm.Spectral(i / k)
                 plt.fill_betweenx(np.arange(pos, pos + len(coeffs)), 0, coeffs,
                                    facecolor=color, edgecolor=color, alpha=0.7)
                 ticks.append(pos + len(coeffs) // 2)
                 pos += len(coeffs) + padding
             plt.gca().yaxis.set_major_locator(FixedLocator(ticks))
             plt.gca().yaxis.set_major_formatter(FixedFormatter(range(k)))
             if k in (3, 5):
                 plt.ylabel("Cluster")
             if k in (5, 6):
                 plt.gca().set xticks([-0.1, 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1])
                 plt.xlabel("Silhouette Coefficient")
             else:
                 plt.tick params(labelbottom=False)
             plt.axvline(x=silhouette_scores[k - 2], color="red", linestyle="--")
             plt.title("$k={}$".format(k), fontsize=16)
         save fig("silhouette analysis plot")
         plt.show()
```





## **Limits of K-Means**

## In [48]: plot\_clusters(X)



In [49]:

```
0]]), n_init=1, random_state=42)
kmeans_bad = KMeans(n_clusters=3, random_state=42)
kmeans_good.fit(X)
kmeans_bad.fit(X)

Out[49]: KMeans(n_clusters=3, random_state=42)

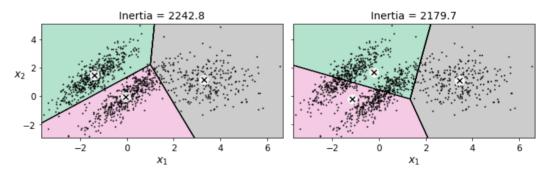
In [50]: plt.figure(figsize=(10, 3.2))
    plt.subplot(121)
    plot_decision_boundaries(kmeans_good, X)
    plt.title("Inertia = {:.1f}".format(kmeans_good.inertia_), fontsize=14)

    plt.subplot(122)
    plot_decision_boundaries(kmeans_bad, X, show_ylabels=False)
    plt.title("Inertia = {:.1f}".format(kmeans_bad.inertia_), fontsize=14)

    save_fig("bad_kmeans_plot")
    plt.show()
```

kmeans good = KMeans(n clusters=3, init=np.array([[-1.5, 2.5], [0.5, 0], [4,

Saving figure bad\_kmeans\_plot



## **Gaussian Mixtures**

Let's train a Gaussian mixture model on the previous dataset:

```
In [52]: from sklearn.mixture import GaussianMixture
In [53]: gm = GaussianMixture(n_components=3, n_init=10, random_state=42)
gm.fit(X)
Out[53]: GaussianMixture(n components=3, n init=10, random state=42)
```

Let's look at the parameters that the EM algorithm estimated:

```
In [54]: gm.weights
Out[54]: array([0.39054348, 0.2093669, 0.40008962])
In [55]: gm.means
Out[55]: array([[ 0.05224874,
                               0.07631976],
                [ 3.40196611, 1.05838748],
                [-1.40754214, 1.42716873]])
In [56]: | gm.covariances_
Out[56]: array([[[ 0.6890309 ,
                                0.797170581,
                 [ 0.79717058,
                                1.21367348]],
                [[ 1.14296668. -0.03114176].
                 [-0.03114176, 0.9545003]],
                [[ 0.63496849, 0.7298512 ]
                 [ 0.7298512 , 1.16112807]]])
```

Did the algorithm actually converge?

```
In [57]: gm.converged_
Out[57]: True
```

Yes, good. How many iterations did it take?

```
In [58]: gm.n_iter_
Out[58]: 4
```

You can now use the model to predict which cluster each instance belongs to (hard clustering) or the probabilities that it came from each cluster. For this, just use predict() method or the predict\_proba() method:

This is a generative model, so you can sample new instances from it (and get their labels):

Notice that they are sampled sequentially from each cluster.

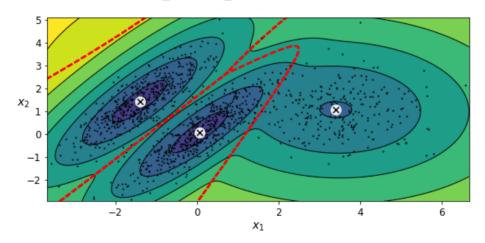
You can also estimate the log of the *probability density function* (PDF) at any location using the <code>score\_samples()</code> method:

Let's check that the PDF integrates to 1 over the whole space. We just take a large square around the clusters, and chop it into a grid of tiny squares, then we compute the approximate probability that the instances will be generated in each tiny square (by multiplying the PDF at one corner of the tiny square by the area of the square), and finally summing all these probabilities). The result is very close to 1:

Now let's plot the resulting decision boundaries (dashed lines) and density contours:

```
In [65]: from matplotlib.colors import LogNorm
         def plot gaussian mixture(clusterer, X, resolution=1000, show ylabels=True):
             mins = X.min(axis=0) - 0.1
             maxs = X.max(axis=0) + 0.1
             xx, yy = np.meshgrid(np.linspace(mins[0], maxs[0], resolution),
                                   np.linspace(mins[1], maxs[1], resolution))
             Z = -clusterer.score_samples(np.c_[xx.ravel(), yy.ravel()])
             Z = Z.reshape(xx.shape)
             plt.contourf(xx, yy, Z,
                           norm=LogNorm(vmin=1.0, vmax=30.0),
                           levels=np.logspace(0, 2, 12))
             plt.contour(xx, yy, Z,
                         norm=LogNorm(vmin=1.0, vmax=30.0),
                         levels=np.logspace(0, 2, 12),
                         linewidths=1, colors='k')
             Z = clusterer.predict(np.c_[xx.ravel(), yy.ravel()])
             Z = Z.reshape(xx.shape)
             plt.contour(xx, yy, Z,
                         linewidths=2, colors='r', linestyles='dashed')
             plt.plot(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], 'k.', markersize=2)
             plot_centroids(clusterer.means_, clusterer.weights_)
             plt.xlabel("$x_1$", fontsize=14)
             if show ylabels:
                 plt.ylabel("$x_2$", fontsize=14, rotation=0)
                 plt.tick_params(labelleft=False)
```

Saving figure gaussian mixtures plot



You can impose constraints on the covariance matrices that the algorithm looks for by setting the <code>covariance\_type</code> hyperparameter:

- "full" (default): no constraint, all clusters can take on any ellipsoidal shape of any size.
- "tied": all clusters must have the same shape, which can be any ellipsoid (i.e., they all share the same covariance matrix).
- "spherical": all clusters must be spherical, but they can have different diameters (i.e., different variances).
- "diag": clusters can take on any ellipsoidal shape of any size, but the ellipsoid's axes must be parallel to the axes (i.e., the covariance matrices must be diagonal).

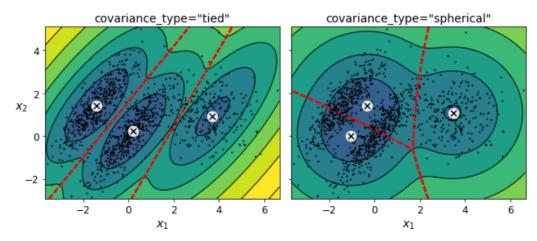
```
In [68]: def compare_gaussian_mixtures(gm1, gm2, X):
    plt.figure(figsize=(9, 4))

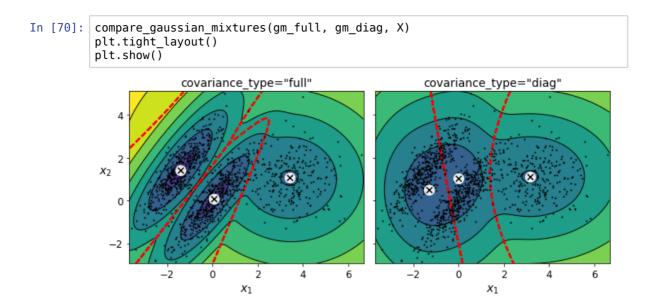
    plt.subplot(121)
    plot_gaussian_mixture(gm1, X)
    plt.title('covariance_type="{}"'.format(gm1.covariance_type), fontsize=1
4)

    plt.subplot(122)
    plot_gaussian_mixture(gm2, X, show_ylabels=False)
    plt.title('covariance_type="{}"'.format(gm2.covariance_type), fontsize=1
4)
```

```
In [69]: compare_gaussian_mixtures(gm_tied, gm_spherical, X)
    save_fig("covariance_type_plot")
    plt.show()
```

Saving figure covariance\_type\_plot





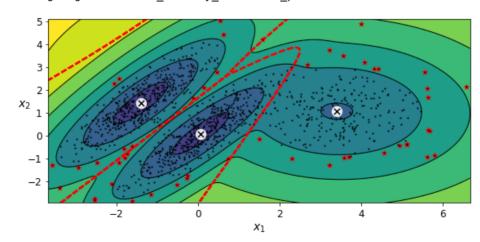
# **Anomaly Detection using Gaussian Mixtures**

Gaussian Mixtures can be used for *anomaly detection*: instances located in low-density regions can be considered anomalies. You must define what density threshold you want to use. For example, in a manufacturing company that tries to detect defective products, the ratio of defective products is usually well-known. Say it is equal to 4%, then you can set the density threshold to be the value that results in having 4% of the instances located in areas below that threshold density:

```
In [71]: densities = gm.score_samples(X)
    density_threshold = np.percentile(densities, 4)
    anomalies = X[densities < density_threshold]

In [72]: plt.figure(figsize=(8, 4))
    plot_gaussian_mixture(gm, X)
    plt.scatter(anomalies[:, 0], anomalies[:, 1], color='r', marker='*')
    plt.ylim(top=5.1)
    save_fig("mixture_anomaly_detection_plot")
    plt.show()</pre>
```

Saving figure mixture\_anomaly\_detection\_plot



## **Model selection**

We cannot use the inertia or the silhouette score because they both assume that the clusters are spherical. Instead, we can try to find the model that minimizes a theoretical information criterion such as the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) or the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC):

$$BIC = \log(m)p - 2\log(\hat{L})$$
  $AIC = 2p - 2\log(\hat{L})$ 

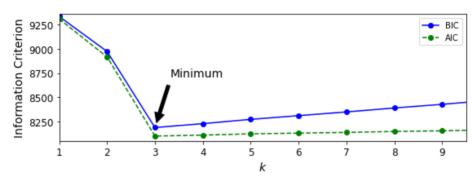
- *m* is the number of instances.
- ullet p is the number of parameters learned by the model.
- $\tilde{L}$  is the maximized value of the likelihood function of the model. This is the conditional probability of the observed data X, given the model and its optimized parameters.

Both BIC and AIC penalize models that have more parameters to learn (e.g., more clusters), and reward models that fit the data well (i.e., models that give a high likelihood to the observed data).

```
In [73]: gm.bic(X)
Out[73]: 8189.662685850679
In [74]: gm.aic(X)
Out[74]: 8102.437405735641
```

Let's train Gaussian Mixture models with various values of k and measure their BIC:

Saving figure aic\_bic\_vs\_k\_plot



Let's search for best combination of values for both the number of clusters and the covariance\_type hyperparameter:

```
In [79]: best_k
Out[79]: 3
In [80]: best_covariance_type
Out[80]: 'full'
```

Note: Rather than manually searching for the optimal number of clusters, it is possible to use instead the BayesianGaussianMixture class which is capable of giving weights equal (or close) to zero to unnecessary clusters. Just set the number of components to a value that you believe is greater than the optimal number of clusters, and the algorithm will eliminate the unnecessary clusters automatically.

```
In [ ]:
```