# **Class 07- Machine Learning**

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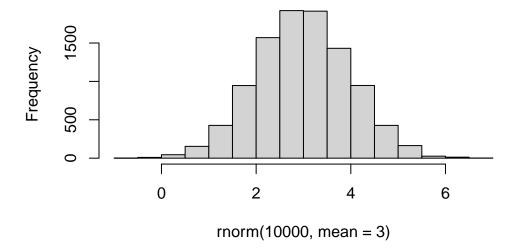
Today we will explore unsupervised machine learning methods starting with clustering and dimensionality reduction.

## Clustering

To start let's make up some data to cluster where we know what the answer should be. The rnorm() function will help us here.

```
hist( rnorm(10000, mean=3) )
```

# Histogram of rnorm(10000, mean = 3)



Return 30 numbers (a vector of 30 elements) centered on -3. Then do the same with positive 3.

```
У
 [1,] -1.6981285
                  2.0664976
 [2,] -3.0437124
                  1.3298806
 [3,] -1.5111845
                  1.5169687
 [4,] -2.4947773
                  4.4945683
 [5,] -3.0302841
                  2.2118881
 [6,] -2.7049707
                  3.0247849
 [7,] -3.1113827
                  0.7559237
 [8,] -2.9124431
                  3.1866345
 [9,] -2.7687072
                  3.3775433
[10,] -3.1842921
                  4.2118093
[11,] -2.4484406
                  2.1009738
[12,] -3.0801428
                  4.4701086
```

- [13,] -3.4822823 4.9098622
- [14,] -5.2915783 1.9649429
- [15,] -2.8296930 3.7512184
- [16,] -3.2662457 2.5272984
- [17,] -1.7214677 4.0782580
- [18,] -2.6183079 3.5496954
- [19,] -4.6046246 4.6357346
- [20,] -3.1604839 1.1428491 [21,] -2.4012385 2.1902371
- [22,] -3.4694786 3.6667724
- [23,] -1.7692965 2.5472309
- [24,] -3.4689491 1.4617259
- [25,] -4.4302804 3.9942563
- [26,] -3.1334542 3.2242124
- [27,] -2.8718356 3.5789886
- [28,] -4.1944781 2.2093556
- [29,] -0.5033586 1.8139809
- [30,] -3.6395110 3.9428218
- [31,] 3.9428218 -3.6395110
- [32,] 1.8139809 -0.5033586
- [33,] 2.2093556 -4.1944781
- [34,] 3.5789886 -2.8718356
- [35,] 3.2242124 -3.1334542
- [36,] 3.9942563 -4.4302804
- [37,] 1.4617259 -3.4689491
- [38,] 2.5472309 -1.7692965
- [39,] 3.6667724 -3.4694786
- [40,] 2.1902371 -2.4012385
- [41,] 1.1428491 -3.1604839
- [42,] 4.6357346 -4.6046246
- [43,] 3.5496954 -2.6183079
- [44,]4.0782580 -1.7214677
- [45,] 2.5272984 -3.2662457
- [46,] 3.7512184 -2.8296930
- [47,]1.9649429 -5.2915783
- [48,] 4.9098622 -3.4822823
- [49,] 4.4701086 -3.0801428
- [50,] 2.1009738 -2.4484406
- [51,] 4.2118093 -3.1842921
- [52,] 3.3775433 -2.7687072
- [53,] 3.1866345 -2.9124431
- [54,] 0.7559237 -3.1113827
- [55,] 3.0247849 -2.7049707

```
[56,] 2.2118881 -3.0302841

[57,] 4.4945683 -2.4947773

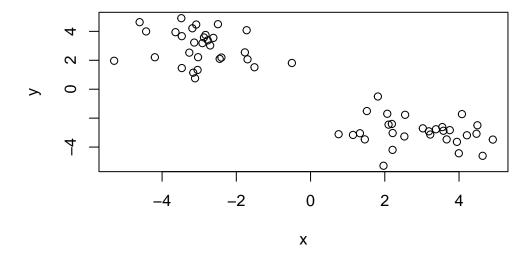
[58,] 1.5169687 -1.5111845

[59,] 1.3298806 -3.0437124

[60,] 2.0664976 -1.6981285
```

Make a plot of x.

## plot(x)



### K-means

The main function in "base" R for K-means clustering is called kmeans().

```
km <- kmeans(x, centers=2)
km</pre>
```

K-means clustering with 2 clusters of sizes 30, 30

Cluster means:

x y

- 1 2.931234 -2.961501
- 2 -2.961501 2.931234

Clustering vector:

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:

[1] 66.34473 66.34473

(between\_SS / total\_SS = 88.7 %)

Available components:

[1] "cluster" "centers" "totss" "withinss" "tot.withinss"

[6] "betweenss" "size" "iter" "ifault"

The kmeans() function return "list" with 9 components.

### attributes(km)

#### \$names

[1] "cluster" "centers" "totss" "withinss" "tot.withinss"

[6] "betweenss" "size" "iter" "ifault"

#### \$class

- [1] "kmeans"
  - Q. How many points are in each cluster?

#### km\$size

- [1] 30 30
  - Q. Cluster assignment/membership vector?

#### km\$cluster

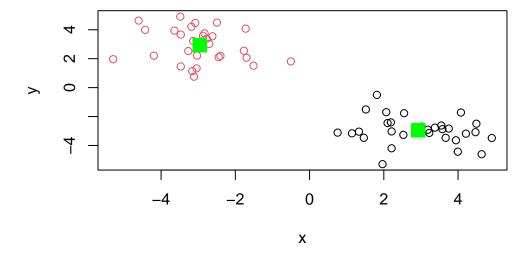
- - Q. Cluster centers?

### km\$centers

```
x y
1 2.931234 -2.961501
2 -2.961501 2.931234
```

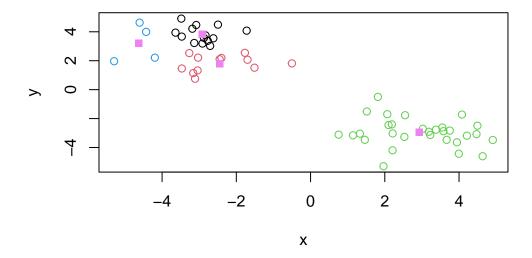
Q. Make a plot of our kmeans() results showing cluster assignment using different colors for each cluster/group of points and cluster centers.

```
plot(x, col=km$cluster) #color by cluster
points(km$centers, col="green", pch=15, cex=2)
```



Q. Run kmeans again on x and create 4 groups/clusters. Plot the same result figure as above.

```
km4 <- kmeans(x, centers=4)
plot(x, col=km4$cluster)
points(km4$centers, col="violet", pch=15)</pre>
```



**key point**: K means clustering is super popular but can be misused. One big limitation is that it can impose a clustering pattern on your data even if clear natural grouping doesn't exist- i.e. it does what you tell it to do in terms of centers.

## **Hierarchical Clustering**

The main function in "base" R for hierarchical clustering is called hclust()

You can't just pass our dataset as is into hclust() you must give "distance matrix" as input. We can get this from the dist() function in R.

```
d <- dist(x)
hc <- hclust(d)
hc</pre>
```

# Call: hclust(d = d)

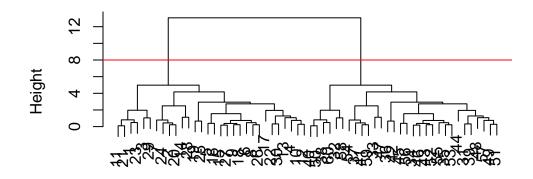
Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

The results of hclust() don't have a useful print() method but do have a special plot() method.

```
plot(hc)
abline(h=8, col='red')
```

# **Cluster Dendrogram**

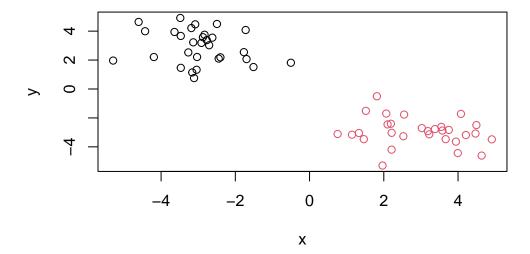


d hclust (\*, "complete")

To get our main cluster assignment (membership vector) we need to "cut" the tree at the big goalposts

```
grps <- (cutree(hc, h=8))
grps</pre>
```

```
table(grps)
```



Hierarchical Clustering is distinct in that the dendrogram (tree figure) can reveal the potential grouping in your data

# **Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**

PCA is a common and highly useful dimensionality reduction technique used in many fields-particularly bioinformatics.

Here we will analyze some data from the UK on food consumption.

## Data import

```
url <- 'https://tinyurl.com/UK-foods'
x <- read.csv(url)
head(x)</pre>
```

```
2 Carcass_meat
                  245
                       227
                                242
                                         267
3
    Other_meat
                  685 803
                                750
                                         586
4
          Fish
                  147 160
                                122
                                         93
5 Fats_and_oils
                  193
                        235
                                184
                                         209
        Sugars
                        175
                                147
                  156
                                         139
```

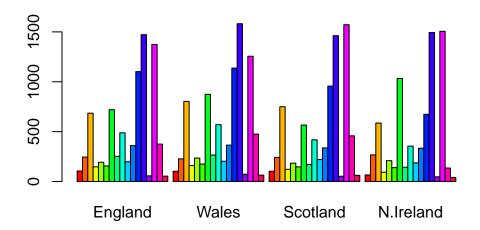
```
rownames(x) <- x[,1]
x <- x[,-1] #destructive, removes each time
head(x)
```

	England	Wales	${\tt Scotland}$	N.Ireland
Cheese	105	103	103	66
Carcass_meat	245	227	242	267
Other_meat	685	803	750	586
Fish	147	160	122	93
Fats_and_oils	193	235	184	209
Sugars	156	175	147	139

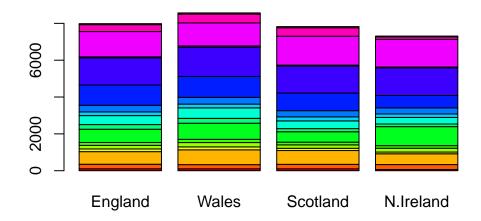
```
x <- read.csv(url, row.names = 1)
head(x)</pre>
```

	England	Wales	Scotland	N.Ireland
Cheese	105	103	103	66
Carcass_meat	245	227	242	267
Other_meat	685	803	750	586
Fish	147	160	122	93
Fats_and_oils	193	235	184	209
Sugars	156	175	147	139

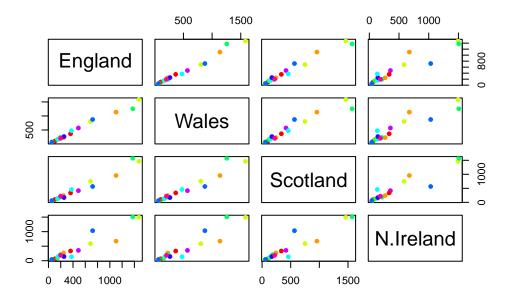
barplot(as.matrix(x), beside=T, col=rainbow(nrow(x)))



barplot(as.matrix(x), beside=F, col=rainbow(nrow(x)))



One conventional plot that can be useful is called a "pairs" plot (plot of all pairwise combinations of countries next to each other)



This pairwise plot produces 12 graphs directly comparing each country to each other country.

## PCA to the rescue

The main function in base R for PCA is called prcomp().

```
pca <- prcomp( t(x) )
summary(pca)</pre>
```

## Importance of components:

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
Standard deviation	324.1502	212.7478	73.87622	2.921e-14
Proportion of Variance	0.6744	0.2905	0.03503	0.000e+00
Cumulative Proportion	0.6744	0.9650	1.00000	1.000e+00

PC1 vs PC2 results in 96.5% coverage (see cumulative proportion)

The prcomp() function returns a list object of our results with

### attributes(pca)

```
$names
[1] "sdev" "rotation" "center" "scale" "x"
$class
[1] "prcomp"
```

The two main "results" in here are pca\$x and pca\$rotation. The first of these (pca\$x) contains the scores of the data on the new PC axis- we use these to make our "PCA plot".

## pca\$x

```
        PC1
        PC2
        PC3
        PC4

        England
        -144.99315
        -2.532999
        105.768945
        -9.152022e-15

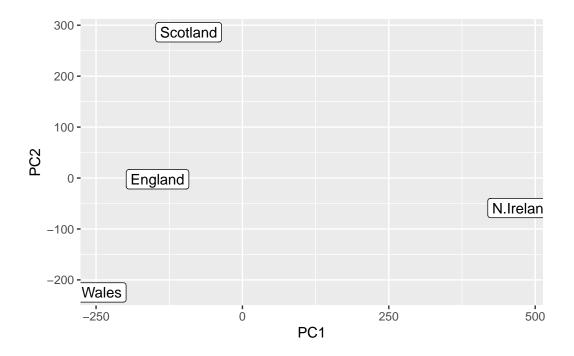
        Wales
        -240.52915
        -224.646925
        -56.475555
        5.560040e-13

        Scotland
        -91.86934
        286.081786
        -44.415495
        -6.638419e-13

        N.Ireland
        477.39164
        -58.901862
        -4.877895
        1.329771e-13
```

Q. Make a plot of pca\$x with PC1 vs PC2

```
ggplot(pca$x) +
  aes(PC1, PC2, label=rownames(pca$x)) +
  geom_point() +
  geom_label()
```



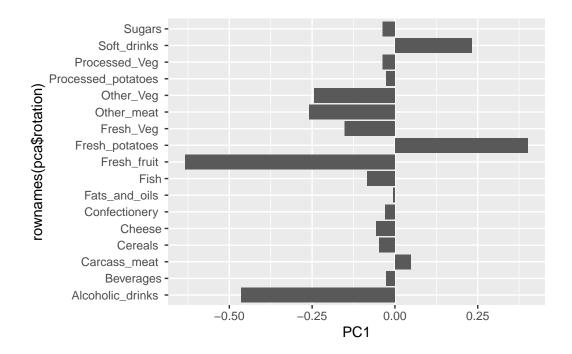
This plot shows the distribution spread of the four countries.

The second major result is contained in the pca\$rotation object or component. Let's plot this to see what PCA is picking up...

## pca\$rotation

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
Cheese	-0.056955380	0.016012850	0.02394295	-0.409382587
Carcass_meat	0.047927628	0.013915823	0.06367111	0.729481922
Other_meat	-0.258916658	-0.015331138	-0.55384854	0.331001134
Fish	-0.084414983	-0.050754947	0.03906481	0.022375878
Fats_and_oils	-0.005193623	-0.095388656	-0.12522257	0.034512161
Sugars	-0.037620983	-0.043021699	-0.03605745	0.024943337
Fresh_potatoes	0.401402060	-0.715017078	-0.20668248	0.021396007
Fresh_Veg	-0.151849942	-0.144900268	0.21382237	0.001606882
Other_Veg	-0.243593729	-0.225450923	-0.05332841	0.031153231
Processed_potatoes	-0.026886233	0.042850761	-0.07364902	-0.017379680
Processed_Veg	-0.036488269	-0.045451802	0.05289191	0.021250980
Fresh_fruit	-0.632640898	-0.177740743	0.40012865	0.227657348
Cereals	-0.047702858	-0.212599678	-0.35884921	0.100043319
Beverages	-0.026187756	-0.030560542	-0.04135860	-0.018382072
Soft_drinks	0.232244140	0.555124311	-0.16942648	0.222319484

```
ggplot(pca$rotation) +
  aes(PC1, rownames(pca$rotation)) +
  geom_col()
```



This plot compares the PC1 to our original dataset.