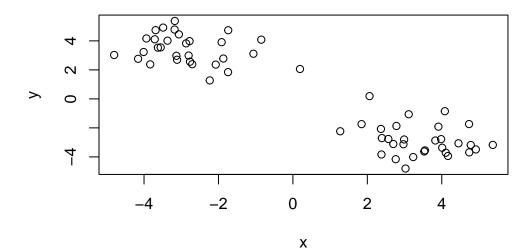
# Class 7: Machine Learning 1

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Before we get into clustering methods let's make some sample data to cluster where we know what the answer should be.

To help with this I will use the rnorm() function.

```
n=30
x <- c(rnorm(n, mean=3), rnorm(n, mean=-3))
y <- rev(x)
z <- cbind(x,y)
plot(z)</pre>
```



# K-mean clustering

The function in base R for k-means clustering is called kmeans().

```
km <- kmeans(z, 2)
km
```

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

Cluster means:

```
x y
1 3.420498 -2.835073
2 -2.835073 3.420498
```

Clustering vector:

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:

```
[1] 64.37361 64.37361
(between_SS / total_SS = 90.1 %)
```

Available components:

```
[1] "cluster" "centers" "totss" "withinss" "tot.withinss" [6] "betweenss" "size" "iter" "ifault"
```

# km\$centers

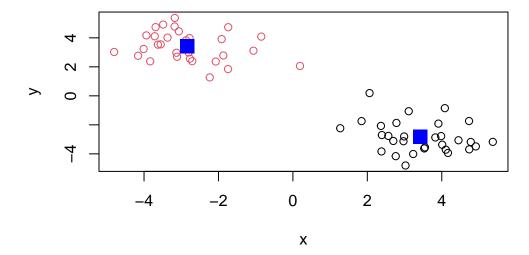
```
x y
1 3.420498 -2.835073
2 -2.835073 3.420498
```

Q. Print out the cluster membership vector (i.e. our main answer)

#### km\$cluster

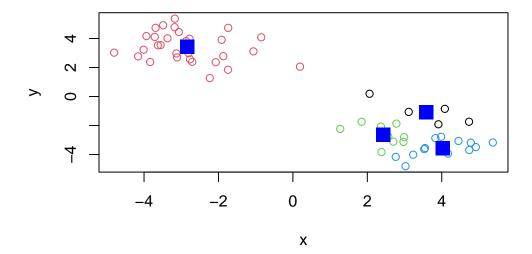
Plot with clustering result and add cluster centers:

```
plot(z, col=km$cluster)
points(km$centers, col="blue", pch=15, cex=2)
```



Q. Can you cluster our data in 'z' into four clusters please?

```
km4 <- kmeans(z, 4)
plot(z, col=km4$cluster)
points(km4$centers, col="blue", pch=15, cex=2)</pre>
```



Scree Plot - scree is rubble at the base of a cliff - big drop at the cliff, A way to tell how many clusters you want - looks for inflection point in sum of squares (ss) vs k plot - you want the drop off - where each change in k clusters results in a smaller decrease in ss - it will always decrease as the points will always be closer together with infinitely more clusters, but after a certain point there are diminishing returns Won't always be an inflection point, means there isnt great reason for you to choose that number of clusters kmeans is super quick, works well with large datasets, will do everything for your, but will always give you an answer, whatever you ask it for

### **Hirarchical Clustering**

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

Unlike kmeans() I can not just pass in my data as input I first need a distance matrix from my data.

dist - can feed it anything that is a number describing how far apart points are - in euclidian space, manhattan distance etc

object oriented - means it has methods specific for type of object

height of bar means that those points are more different - more separation means more dissimilarities between data that it separates

cut like a tree where it is easiest to cut, have largest height, and separate so that you have the most leaves attached to the branch below

## ?hclust()

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

Call:
hclust(d = d)

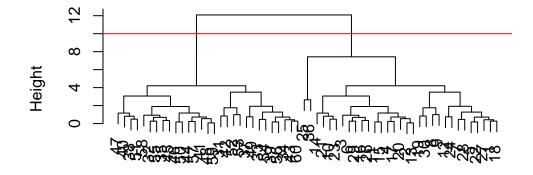
Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

There is a specific hclust plot() method...

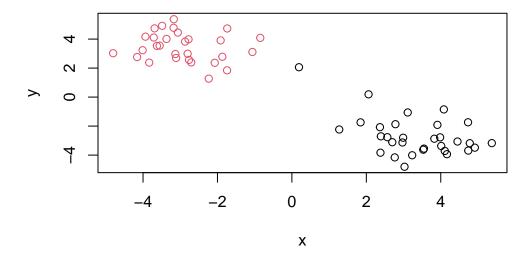
```
plot(hc)
abline(h=10, col='red')
```

# **Cluster Dendrogram**



d hclust (\*, "complete") To get my main clustering result (i.e. the membership vector) I can "cut" my tree at a given height. To do this I will use the 'cutree()' function

```
grps <- cutree(hc, h=10)
# can also use arguement k for specifying how many clusters you want - h specifies height, k
plot(z, col=grps)</pre>
```



## **Principal Component Analysis**

Used anywhere there are lots of observations and you want to look for larger patterns Similar to principal coordinate analysis - coordinate is with distance matrix instead of covariance matrix (component)

Sets up new axes that are better - data is more spread along the axis meaning that it captures the most variance in the data

Principal component analysis (PCA) is a well established "multivariate statistical technique" used to reduce the dimensionality of a complex data set to a more manageable number (typically 2D or 3D). This method is particularly useful for highlighting strong paterns and relationships in large datasets (i.e. revealing major similarities and differences) that are otherwise hard to visualize. As we will see again and again in this course PCA is often used to make all sorts of bioinformatics data easy to explore and visualize.

Axes always has to be perpendicular - how is this accounted for in math? Doesnt just maximize PC1 - it maximizes explaining the total variance in two variables/dimensions - can you run PCA with more than 2 dimensions?

```
url <- "https://tinyurl.com/UK-foods"
x <- read.csv(url, row.names = 1)
x</pre>
```

	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
Fresh_potatoes	720	874	566	1033
Fresh_Veg	253	265	171	143
Other_Veg	488	570	418	355
Processed_potatoes	198	203	220	187
Processed_Veg	360	365	337	334
Fresh_fruit	1102	1137	957	674
Cereals	1472	1582	1462	1494
Beverages	57	73	53	47
Soft_drinks	1374	1256	1572	1506
Alcoholic_drinks	375	475	458	135
Confectionery	54	64	62	41

## Q1. How many rows and columns are in your new data frame named x? What R functions could ## Complete the following code to find out how many rows and columns are in x?  $\dim(x)$ 

#### [1] 17 4

#### head(x)

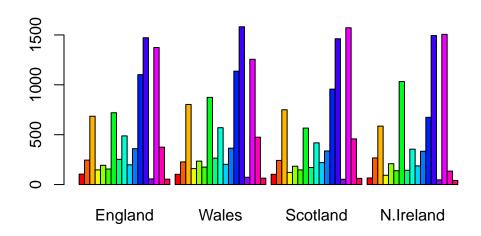
	England	Wales	Scotland	N.Ireland
Cheese	105	103	103	66
Carcass_meat	245	227	242	267
Other_meat	685	803	750	586
Fish	147	160	122	93

Fats_and_oils	193	235	184	209
Sugars	156	175	147	139

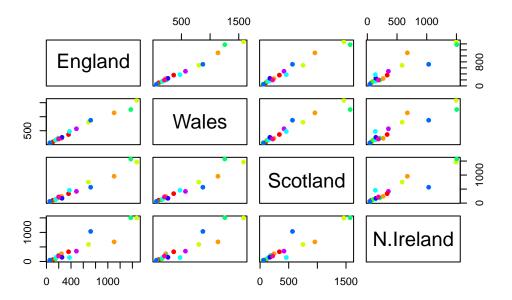
# tail(x)

	England	Wales	${\tt Scotland}$	N.Ireland
Fresh_fruit	1102	1137	957	674
Cereals	1472	1582	1462	1494
Beverages	57	73	53	47
Soft_drinks	1374	1256	1572	1506
Alcoholic_drinks	375	475	458	135
Confectionery	54	64	62	41

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



pairs(x, col=rainbow(10), pch=16)



#### PCA to the rescue

The main function to do PCA in base R is called 'prcomp()'

```
# Use the prcomp() PCA function
# You want the things you care about - like gene expression data - in columns
# Use t to transpose the data
pca <- prcomp( t(x) )
summary(pca)</pre>
```

## Importance of components:

```
PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4
Standard deviation 324.1502 212.7478 73.87622 3.176e-14
Proportion of Variance 0.6744 0.2905 0.03503 0.000e+00
Cumulative Proportion 0.6744 0.9650 1.00000 1.000e+00
```

Let's see what is inside our result object pca that we just calculated

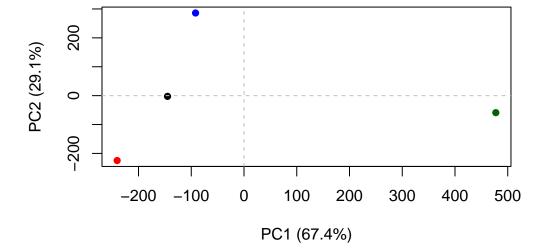
```
attributes(pca)
```

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

#### pca\$x

```
PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4
England -144.99315 -2.532999 105.768945 -4.894696e-14
Wales -240.52915 -224.646925 -56.475555 5.700024e-13
Scotland -91.86934 286.081786 -44.415495 -7.460785e-13
N.Ireland 477.39164 -58.901862 -4.877895 2.321303e-13
```

To make our main result figure, called a "PC plot" (or "score plot", "ordination plot or"PC1 vs PC2 plot".)



# Variable loadings plot

Can give us insight on how the original variables (in this case the foods) contribute to our new PC axis

```
## Lets focus on PC1 as it accounts for > 90% of variance
par(mar=c(10, 3, 0.35, 0))
barplot( pca$rotation[,1], las=2 )
```

