# Class 7: Machine Learning 1

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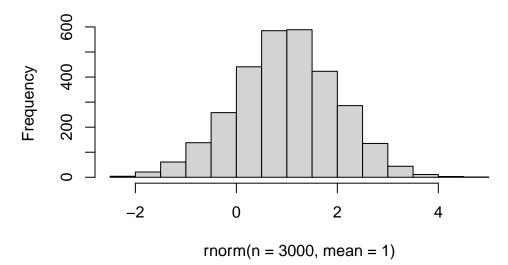
Today we will explore unsupervised machine learning methods, including clustering and dimensionallity reduction methods.

Let's start by making up some data (where we know there are clear groups) that we can use to test out different clustering methods.

We can use the rnorm() function to help us here:

hist(rnorm(n = 3000, mean = 1))

## Histogram of rnorm(n = 3000, mean = 1)

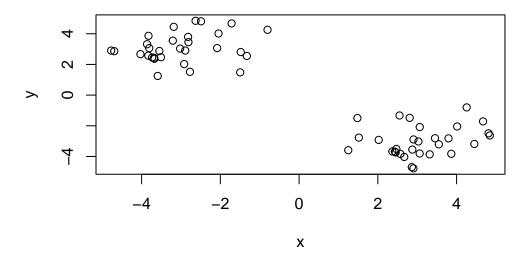


Make data z with two "clusters"

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

```
x y
[1,] -3.183680 4.450886
[2,] -3.548759 2.876119
[3,] -2.890676 2.905432
[4,] -3.686936 2.434117
[5,] -4.694051 2.863518
[6,] -2.810581 3.451711
```

#### plot(z)



## K-means clustering

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

```
k <- kmeans(z, centers = 2)</pre>
K-means clustering with 2 clusters of sizes 30, 30
Cluster means:
        X
                у
1 3.077765 -3.008406
2 -3.008406 3.077765
Clustering vector:
 Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:
[1] 54.83824 54.83824
 (between_SS / total_SS = 91.0 %)
Available components:
[1] "cluster"
                "centers"
                            "totss"
                                         "withinss"
                                                     "tot.withinss"
[6] "betweenss"
                "size"
                            "iter"
                                         "ifault"
attributes(k)
$names
[1] "cluster"
                "centers"
                            "totss"
                                         "withinss"
                                                     "tot.withinss"
[6] "betweenss"
                "size"
                            "iter"
                                         "ifault"
$class
[1] "kmeans"
```

- - Q. How many points lie in each cluster?

#### k\$size

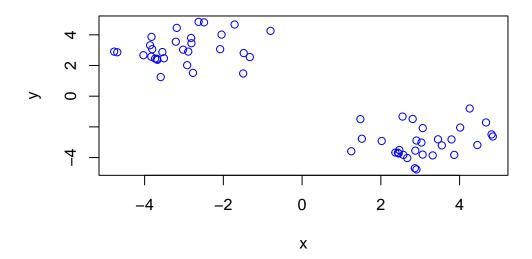
- [1] 30 30
  - Q. What component of our results tells us about the cluster membership (i.e. which point lies in which cluster)?

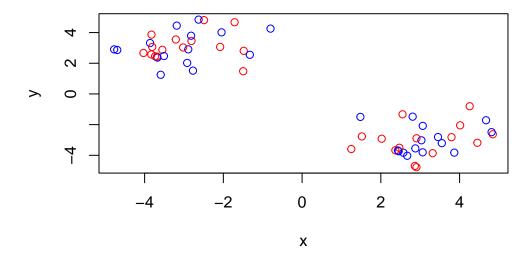
#### k\$cluster

- - Q. Center of each cluster?

#### k\$centers

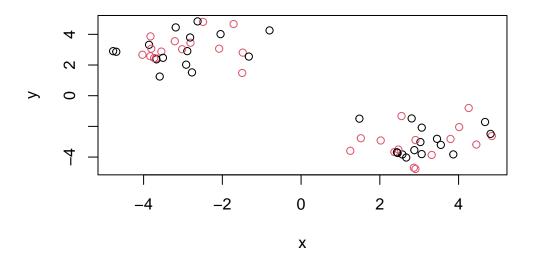
Q. Put this result info together and make a little "base R" plot of our clustering result. Also, add the cluster center points to this plot.





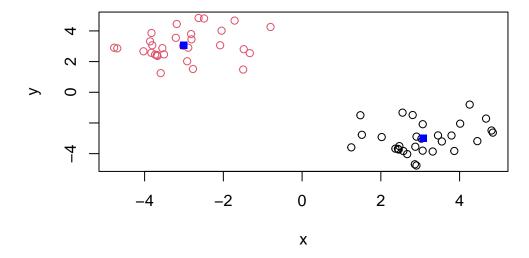
You can color by number.

$$plot(z, col = c(1, 2))$$



Plot colored by cluster membership:

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



Q. Run kmeans on our input **z** and define 4 clusters, making the same result visualization plot as above (pot of z colored by cluster membership)

```
k4 <- kmeans(z, centers = 4)
k4</pre>
```

K-means clustering with 4 clusters of sizes 18, 18, 12, 12

#### Cluster means:

x y 1 2.673991 -3.631733 2 -3.631733 2.673991 3 3.683427 -2.073414 4 -2.073414 3.683427

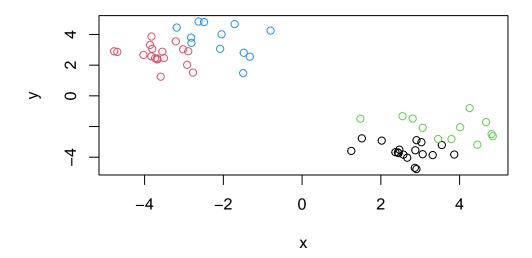
#### Clustering vector:

#### [39] 3 1 1 3 3 1 1 1 1 3 1 1 3 1 1 1 3 1 1 3 3

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:
[1] 12.24313 12.24313 17.77443 17.77443
(between\_SS / total\_SS = 95.1 %)

#### Available components:

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



#### k4\$totss

[1] 1220.921

### **Hierarchical Clustering**

The main function in base R for this is called hclust(). It will take as input a distance matrix (key point is that you can't just give your "raw" data as input - you have to first calculate a distance matrix from your data).

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

Call:

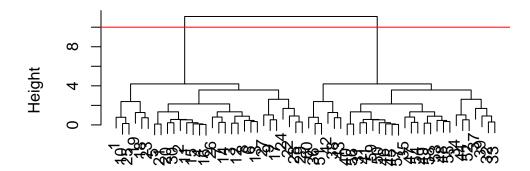
hclust(d = d)

Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

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

## **Cluster Dendrogram**

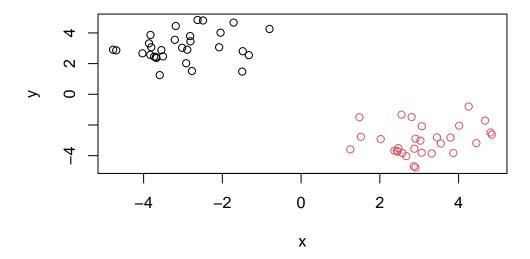


d hclust (\*, "complete")

Once I inspect the "tree" I can "cut" the tree to yield my groupings or clusters. The function to do this is called <code>cutree()</code>.

```
grps <- cutree(hc, h = 10)</pre>
```

plot(z, col = grps)



## Hands on with Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Let's examine some silly 17-dimensional data detailing food consumption in the UK.

#### Data import

```
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 you use to answer this question?

### nrow(x)

[1] 17

#### ncol(x)

[1] 4

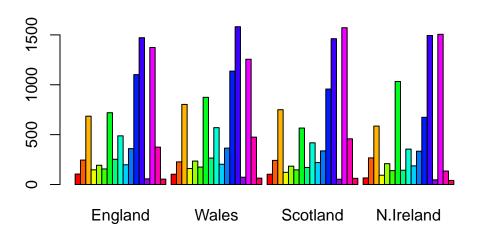
### dim(x)

#### [1] 17 4

Q2. Which approach to solving the 'row-names problem' mentioned above do you prefer and why? Is one approach more robust than another under certain circumstances?

I prefer editing the data import code because it's more simple than the other option. The other option adds more lines of code overall.

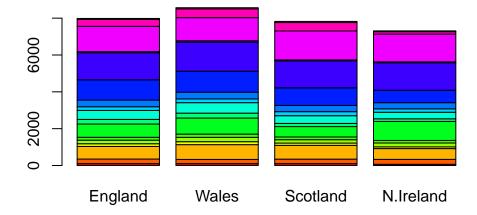
```
barplot(as.matrix(x), beside=T, col=rainbow(nrow(x)))
```



Q3. Changing what optional argument in the above barplot() function results in the following plot?

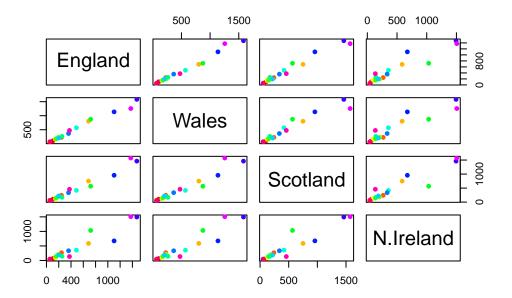
This plot is a result of setting the beside argument to F, where the different foods are stacked on top of each other.

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



Q5. Generating all pairwise plots may help somewhat. Can you make sense of the following code and resulting figure? What does it mean if a given point lies on the diagonal for a given plot?

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



Q6. What is the main differences between N. Ireland and the other countries of the UK in terms of this data-set?

Compared to other countries in the UK, people in N. Ireland eat more potatoes and less fresh fruit.

Looking at these types of "pairwise plots" can be helpful but it does not scale well and kind of sucks! There must be a better way...

#### PCA to the rescue!

The main function for PCA in base R is called prcomp(). This function wants the transpose of our input data - i.e. the important foods in as columns and the countries as rows.

```
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

Let's see what is in our PCA result object pca

#### attributes(pca)

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

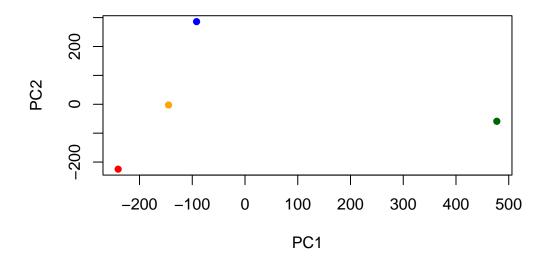
The pca\$x result object is where we will focus first as this details how the countries are related to eachother in terms of our new "axis" (aka "PCs", "eigenvectors", etc)

#### head(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

Q7. Complete the code below to generate a plot of PC1 vs PC2. The second line adds text labels over the data points. Q8. Customize your plot so that the colors of the country names match the colors in our UK and Ireland map and table at start of this document.

```
plot(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], pch=16, col = c("orange", "red", "blue", "darkgreen"), xlab="PC1", y
```



We can look at the so-called PC "loadings" result object to see how the original foods contribute to our new PCs (i.e. how the original variables contribute to our new, better PC variables).

## pca\$rotation[,1]

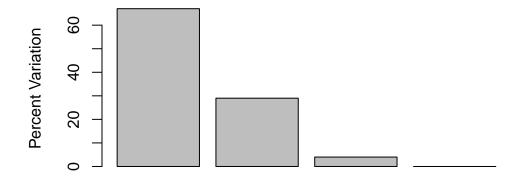
Cheese	Carcass_meat	Other_meat	Fish
-0.056955380	0.047927628	-0.258916658	-0.084414983
Fats_and_oils	Sugars	Fresh_potatoes	${\tt Fresh\_Veg}$
-0.005193623	-0.037620983	0.401402060	-0.151849942
Other_Veg	Processed_potatoes	Processed_Veg	$Fresh_fruit$
-0.243593729	-0.026886233	-0.036488269	-0.632640898
Cereals	Beverages	${\tt Soft\_drinks}$	Alcoholic_drinks
-0.047702858	-0.026187756	0.232244140	-0.463968168
Confectionery			
-0.029650201			

```
v <- round( pca$sdev^2/sum(pca$sdev^2) * 100 )
v</pre>
```

[1] 67 29 4 0

```
z <- summary(pca)
z$importance</pre>
```

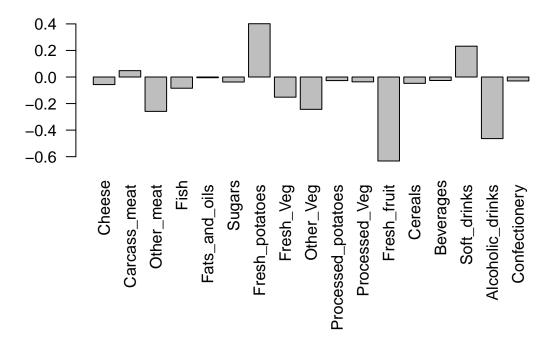
```
barplot(v, xlab="Principal Component", ylab="Percent Variation")
```



**Principal Component** 

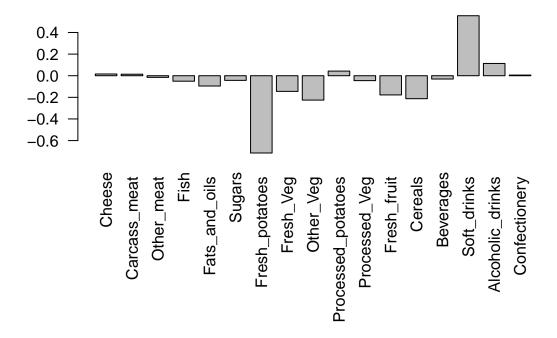
## Digging deeper (variable loadings)

```
par(mar=c(10, 3, 0.35, 0))
barplot( pca$rotation[,1], las=2 )
```



Q9. Generate a similar 'loadings plot' for PC2. What two food groups feature prominantely and what does PC2 mainly tell us about?

```
par(mar=c(10, 3, 0.35, 0))
barplot( pca$rotation[,2], las=2 )
```



PC2 is mainly influenced by the soft drinks and fresh potatoes food groups. There are higher PC2 scores with soft drinks and lower PC2 scores with fresh potatoes. PC2 provides us with information from an additional 29% of the data that contribute to N. Ireland's position on the PCA plot.

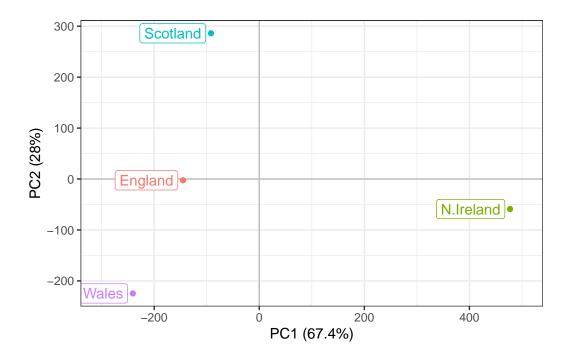
#### Using ggplot for these figures

```
library(ggplot2)

df <- as.data.frame(pca$x)

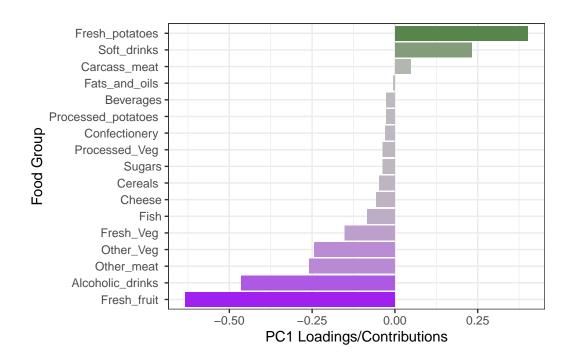
df_lab <- tibble::rownames_to_column(df, "Country")

ggplot(df_lab) +
   aes(PC1, PC2, col=Country, label=Country) +
   geom_hline(yintercept = 0, col="gray") +
   geom_vline(xintercept = 0, col="gray") +
   geom_point(show.legend = FALSE) +
   geom_label(hjust=1, nudge_x = -10, show.legend = FALSE) +
   expand_limits(x = c(-300,500)) +
   xlab("PC1 (67.4%)") +
   ylab("PC2 (28%)") +
   theme_bw()</pre>
```



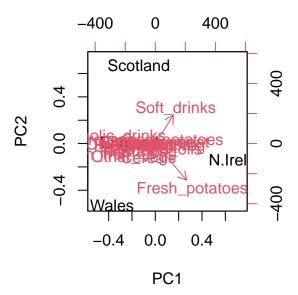
```
ld <- as.data.frame(pca$rotation)
ld_lab <- tibble::rownames_to_column(ld, "Food")

ggplot(ld_lab) +
   aes(PC1, reorder(Food, PC1), bg=PC1) +
   geom_col() +
   xlab("PC1 Loadings/Contributions") +
   ylab("Food Group") +
   scale_fill_gradient2(low="purple", mid = "gray", high = "darkgreen", guide = NULL) +
   theme_bw()</pre>
```



## **Biplots**

biplot(pca)



#### PCA of RNA-seq data

```
url2 <- "https://tinyurl.com/expression-CSV"
rna.data <- read.csv(url2, row.names = 1)
head(rna.data)</pre>
```

```
wt4 wt5 ko1 ko2 ko3 ko4 ko5
       wt1 wt2
                wt3
      439 458
                408
                     429 420
                              90
                                  88
                                      86
                                           90
gene1
gene2
       219 200
                204
                     210 187 427 423 434 433 426
gene3 1006 989 1030 1017 973 252 237 238 226 210
gene4
       783 792
                829
                     856 760 849 856 835 885 894
       181 249
                204
                     244 225 277 305 272 270 279
gene5
                491
                     491 493 612 594 577 618 638
gene6
       460 502
```

Q10. How many genes and samples are in this data set?

```
ncol(rna.data)
```

[1] 10

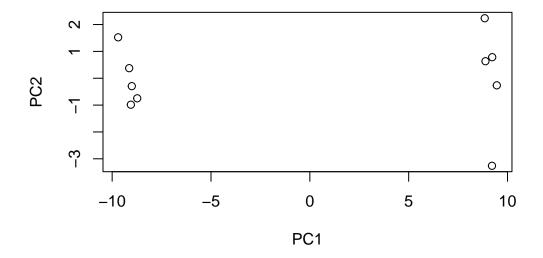
#### nrow(rna.data)

#### [1] 100

In this data set, there are 100 genes, # of rows, and 10 samples, # of columns.

```
## Take the transpose of our data
pca <- prcomp(t(rna.data), scale=TRUE)

## Unpolished plot of pc1 and pc2
plot(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], xlab = "PC1", ylab = "PC2")</pre>
```



#### summary(pca)

#### Importance of components:

PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4 PC5 PC6 PC7 9.6237 1.5198 1.05787 1.05203 0.88062 0.82545 0.80111 Standard deviation Proportion of Variance 0.9262 0.0231 0.01119 0.01107 0.00775 0.00681 0.00642 Cumulative Proportion 0.9262 0.9493 0.96045 0.97152 0.97928 0.98609 0.99251 PC8 PC9 PC10 Standard deviation 0.62065 0.60342 3.345e-15

```
plot(pca, main = "Quick scree plot")
```

## **Quick scree plot**

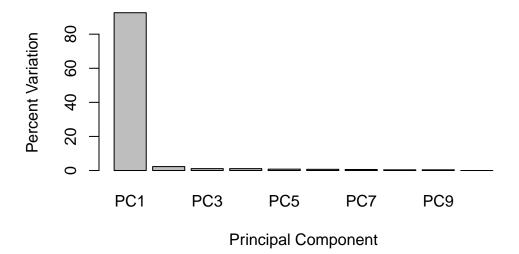


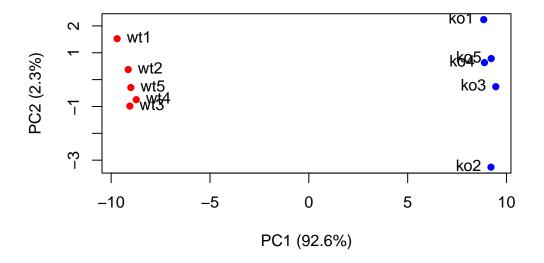
```
## Variance per PC
pca.var <- pca$sdev^2

## Percent variance
pca.var.per <- round(pca.var / sum(pca.var) * 100, 1)
pca.var.per</pre>
```

[1] 92.6 2.3 1.1 1.1 0.8 0.7 0.6 0.4 0.4 0.0

## **Scree Plot**

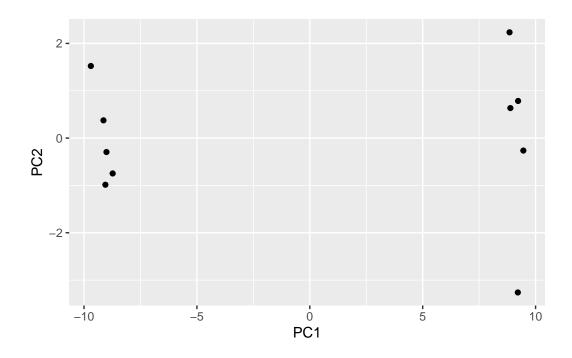


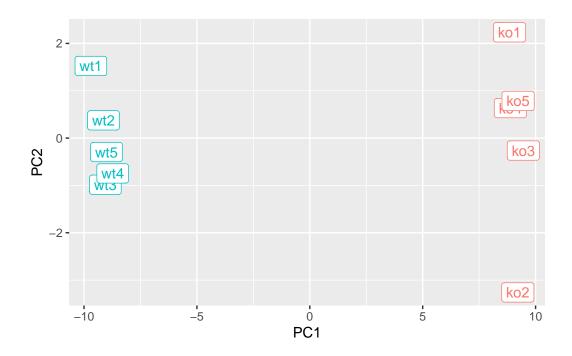


```
library(ggplot2)

df <- as.data.frame(pca$x)

# First basic plot
ggplot(df) +
   aes(PC1, PC2) +
   geom_point()</pre>
```





## PCA of RNASeq Data

PC1 clealy seperates wild-type from knock-out samples

