Class 7: Machine Learning 1

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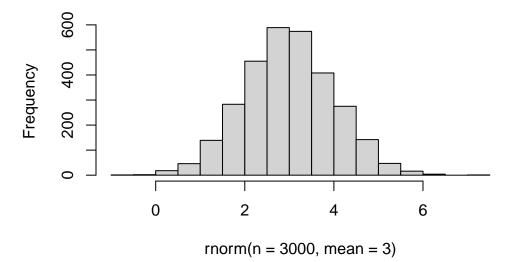
Today we will explore unsupervised machine learning methods including clustering & dimensionality reduction methods.

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 'rnorm()' function to help us here:

hist(rnorm(n=3000, mean = 3))

Histogram of rnorm(n = 3000, mean = 3)

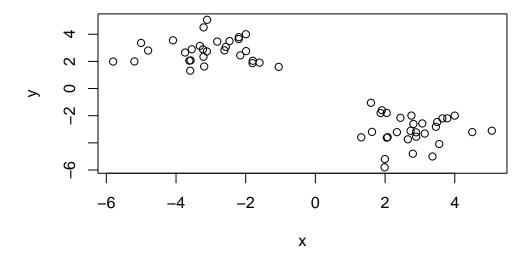


Make data with two "clusters"

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

```
x y
[1,] -3.190996 1.623297
[2,] -1.989774 2.755709
[3,] -2.155930 2.440371
[4,] -1.993812 3.998618
[5,] -2.200725 3.642545
[6,] -1.804729 1.871042
```

plot(z)



K-means clustering

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

```
k <- kmeans(z, center = 2)</pre>
K-means clustering with 2 clusters of sizes 30, 30
Cluster means:
        X
1 2.794307 -3.086687
2 -3.086687 2.794307
Clustering vector:
 Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:
[1] 59.59596 59.59596
 (between_SS / total_SS = 89.7 %)
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"
```

k\$size

[1] 30 30

Q. How many points lie in each cluster?

Q. What component of our results tells us about the cluster membership (i.e. which point lives in which cluster)?

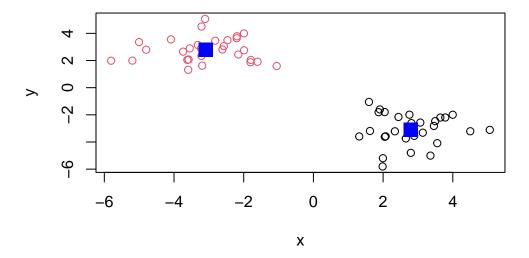
k\$cluster

- - Q. Center of each cluster?

k\$centers

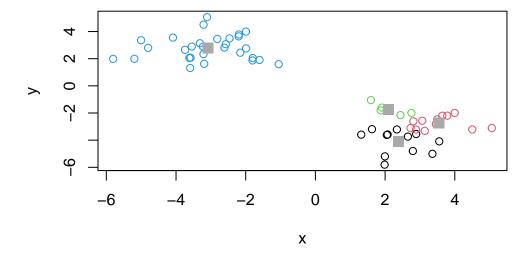
Q. Put this result info together and make a little "base R" plot of our clustering result. Also add the cluster center points to this plot.

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



Q. Run kmeans on our input 'z' and define 4 clusters

```
four_cluster <- kmeans(z, centers=4)
plot(z, col=four_cluster$cluster)
points(four_cluster$centers, col="darkgrey", pch=15, cex=1.5)</pre>
```



```
# total sum of squares which tells us how spread out it is
# the smaller the totss, the better the visualization
four_cluster$totss
```

[1] 1156.775

Hierarchical Clustering

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

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

Call:

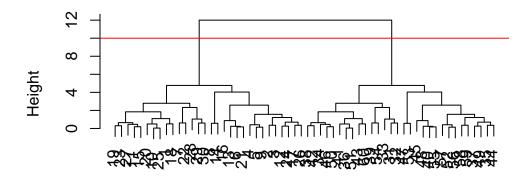
hclust(d = d)

Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

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

Cluster Dendrogram

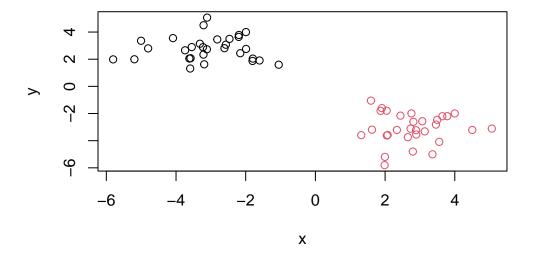


d hclust (*, "complete")

Once I inspect the "tree" I can "cut" the tree to yield my groupings or clusters. The function to this is called 'cutree()'

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

```
plot(z, col=grps)
```



Hands on with Principle Component Analysis (PCA)

Let's examine some 17-dimensional data.

```
# load in dataframe of UK foods
url <- "https://tinyurl.com/UK-foods"
x <- read.csv(url)

# explore the data
dim(x)</pre>
```

[1] 17 5

Q1. How many rows and columns are in your new data frame named x? What R functions could you use to answer this questions?

There are 17 rows and 5 columns in the data frame. I used 'dim()' to answer this question, but 'nrow()' and 'ncol()' would also work.

```
# preview first 6 rows
head(x)
```

```
X England Wales Scotland N.Ireland
1
         Cheese
                    105
                          103
                                   103
                                              66
2 Carcass_meat
                    245
                          227
                                   242
                                              267
    Other_meat
                    685
                          803
                                   750
                                             586
4
           Fish
                         160
                                   122
                                              93
                    147
5 Fats_and_oils
                    193
                          235
                                   184
                                              209
         Sugars
                    156
                          175
                                   147
                                              139
```

```
# removes first column names
rownames(x) <- x[,1]
x <- x[,-1]
head(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

```
# check dimensions of edited dataframe
dim(x)
```

[1] 17 4

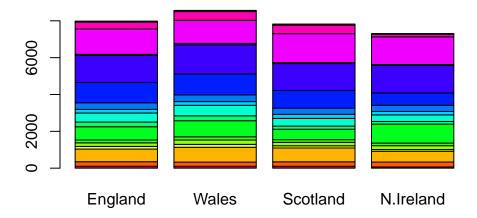
```
# alternative way to edit dataframe
x <- read.csv(url, row.names=1)
head(x)</pre>
```

	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

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 using the method that sets the 'row.names' argument when loading in the dataframe. It is a more streamlined way to input data. I would use it after checking what the data looked like and determining whether it should be used. Setting 'x <- x[,-1]' multiple times will remove the first column multiple times.

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



```
test <- as.matrix(x)
color <- rainbow(nrow(x))
test <- cbind(test, color)
test</pre>
```

	England	Wales	Scotland	N.Ireland	color
Cheese	"105"	"103"	"103"	"66"	"#FF0000"
Carcass_meat	"245"	"227"	"242"	"267"	"#FF5A00"
Other_meat	"685"	"803"	"750"	"586"	"#FFB400"
Fish	"147"	"160"	"122"	"93"	"#F0FF00"
Fats_and_oils	"193"	"235"	"184"	"209"	"#96FF00"
Sugars	"156"	"175"	"147"	"139"	"#3CFF00"

Fresh_potatoes	"720"	"874"	"566"	"1033"	"#00FF1E"
Fresh_Veg	"253"	"265"	"171"	"143"	"#00FF78"
Other_Veg	"488"	"570"	"418"	"355"	"#00FFD2"
Processed_potatoes	"198"	"203"	"220"	"187"	"#00D2FF"
Processed_Veg	"360"	"365"	"337"	"334"	"#0078FF"
Fresh_fruit	"1102"	"1137"	"957"	"674"	"#001EFF"
Cereals	"1472"	"1582"	"1462"	"1494"	"#3C00FF"
Beverages	"57"	"73"	"53"	"47"	"#9600FF"
Soft_drinks	"1374"	"1256"	"1572"	"1506"	"#F000FF"
Alcoholic_drinks	"375"	"475"	"458"	"135"	"#FF00B4"
Confectionery	"54"	"64"	"62"	"41"	"#FF005A"

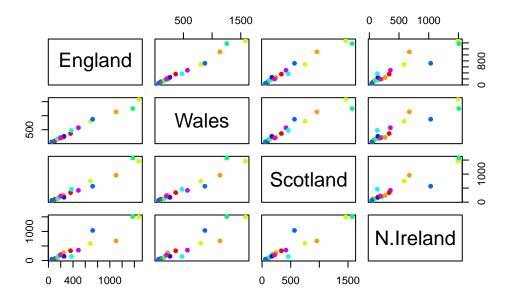
Q3: Changing what optional argument in the above barplot() function results in the following plot?

instead of 'beside=T' I set 'beside=F' to generate the stacked barplot

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?

The result is a matrix of scatterplots of the dataframe comparing the amount of different food groups each country eats. If a given point is on the diagonal for a given plot, it means that the two countries each similar amounts of that food. For example, England vs Wales plots are in the 2x1 and 1x2 positions. The blue dot lies on the diagonal for these two countries, indicating that England and Wales consume similar amounts of the food represented by the blue dot.

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



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

Northern Ireland's biggest difference is their consumption of the foods represented by the orange and blue dots. Orange represents carcass meat and the blue represents fresh fruit.

Looking at these types of "pairwise plots" can be helpful but it does not scale well & kind of sucks...

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.

```
# transpose data
head(t(x))
```

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

	Fresh_potatoes	${\sf Fresh_Veg}$	Other_Veg	Processed	d_potatoes
England	720	253	48	8	198
Wales	874	265	57	0	203
Scotland	566	171	41	8	220
N.Ireland	1033	143	35	5	187
	Processed_Veg	Fresh_fruit	Cereals	Beverages	Soft_drinks
England	360	110	2 1472	57	1374
Wales	365	113	7 1582	73	1256
Scotland	337	95	7 1462	53	1572
N.Ireland	334	67	4 1494	47	1506
	Alcoholic_drink	s Confecti	onery		
England	3	75	54		
Wales	4	75	64		
Scotland	4	58	62		
N.Ireland	1	35	41		

```
# Use the prcomp() PCA function
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 in our PCA results

attributes(pca)

\$names

```
[1] "sdev" "rotation" "center" "scale" "x"
```

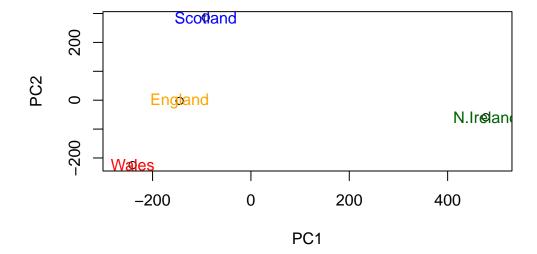
\$class

[1] "prcomp"

The 'pca\$x' result object is where we will focus first as this details how the countries are related to each other in terms of our new "axis" (a.k.a. PCs).

pca\$x[,2]

```
England Wales Scotland N.Ireland -2.532999 -224.646925 286.081786 -58.901862
```



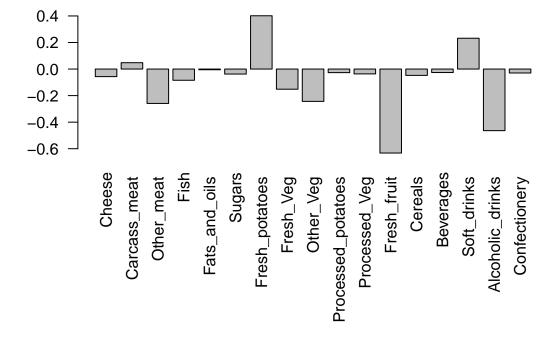
We can look at the so-called PC "loadings" result to see how the original foods contribute to our new PCs (i.e. how the original variables contribute to our new better variables)

pca\$rotation

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
Cheese	-0.056955380	0.016012850	0.02394295	-0.694538519
Carcass_meat	0.047927628	0.013915823	0.06367111	0.489884628
Other_meat	-0.258916658	-0.015331138	-0.55384854	0.279023718
Fish	-0.084414983	-0.050754947	0.03906481	-0.008483145
Fats_and_oils	-0.005193623	-0.095388656	-0.12522257	0.076097502
Sugars	-0.037620983	-0.043021699	-0.03605745	0.034101334

```
Fresh_potatoes
                    0.401402060 -0.715017078 -0.20668248 -0.090972715
                   -0.151849942 -0.144900268 0.21382237 -0.039901917
Fresh_Veg
Other_Veg
                   -0.243593729 -0.225450923 -0.05332841
                                                        0.016719075
Processed_potatoes
                   0.030125166
Processed Veg
                   -0.036488269 -0.045451802 0.05289191 -0.013969507
Fresh fruit
                   -0.632640898 -0.177740743
                                            0.40012865
                                                        0.184072217
Cereals
                   -0.047702858 -0.212599678 -0.35884921
                                                        0.191926714
Beverages
                   -0.026187756 -0.030560542 -0.04135860
                                                        0.004831876
Soft drinks
                               0.555124311 -0.16942648
                    0.232244140
                                                        0.103508492
Alcoholic_drinks
                   -0.463968168
                                0.113536523 -0.49858320 -0.316290619
                   -0.029650201 0.005949921 -0.05232164 0.001847469
Confectionery
```

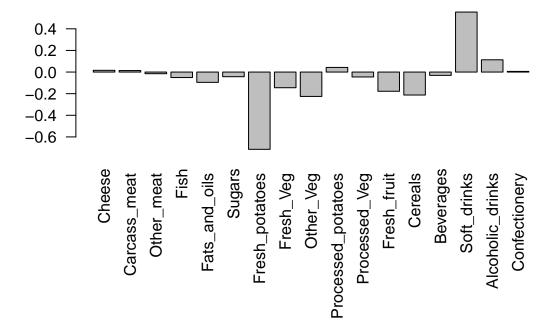
```
## Lets focus on PC1 as it accounts for > 90% of variance
par(mar=c(10, 3, 0.35, 0))
barplot( pca$rotation[,1], las=2 )
```



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

Fresh potatoes and soft drinks feature prominantly (similar to PC1). The other food groups feature less prominantly than in the first loading graph. PC2 is the vector that is perpendicular to PC1 and tells us about the second largest source of variation in the data not captured by PC1.

```
# loading plot for PC2
par(mar=c(10, 3, 0.35, 0))
barplot( pca$rotation[,2], las=2 )
```

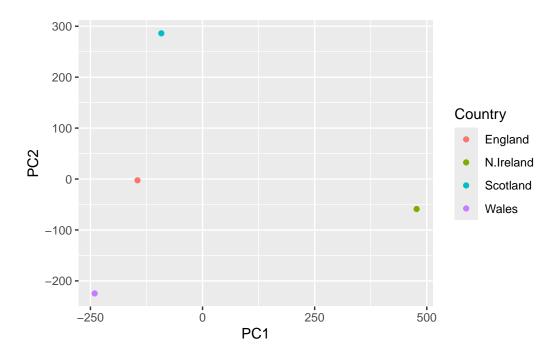


```
library(ggplot2)

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

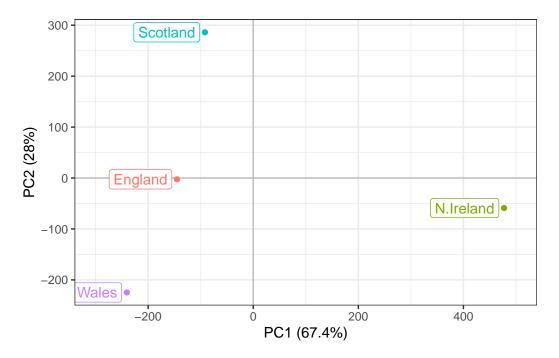
df_lab <- tibble::rownames_to_column(df, "Country")

# Our first basic plot
ggplot(df_lab) +
   aes(PC1, PC2, col=Country) +
   geom_point()</pre>
```



Nicer looking ggplot

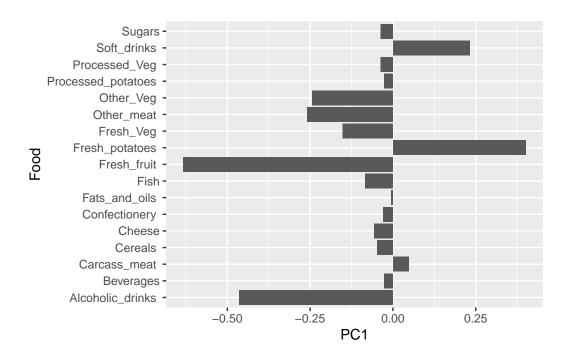
```
ggplot(df_lab) +
  aes(PC1, PC2, col=Country, label=Country) +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 0, col="gray") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 0, col="gray") +
  geom_point(show.legend = FALSE) +
  geom_label(hjust=1, nudge_x = -10, show.legend = FALSE) +
  expand_limits(x = c(-300,500)) +
  xlab("PC1 (67.4%)")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



loading plots

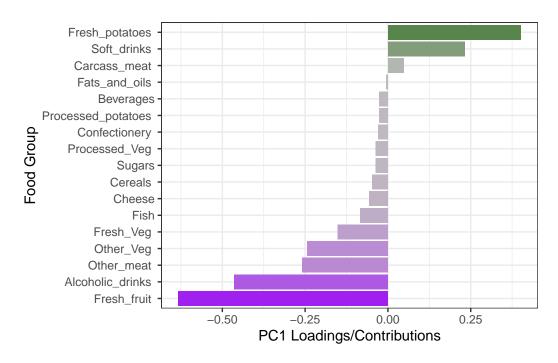
```
ld <- as.data.frame(pca$rotation)
ld_lab <- tibble::rownames_to_column(ld, "Food")

ggplot(ld_lab) +
  aes(PC1, Food) +
  geom_col()</pre>
```



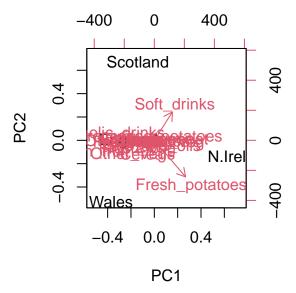
Nicer looking loading plot

```
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()
```



Biplots are another way to visualize the information.

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>
```

```
    wt1
    wt2
    wt3
    wt4
    wt5
    ko1
    ko2
    ko3
    ko4
    ko5

    gene1
    439
    458
    408
    429
    420
    90
    88
    86
    90
    93

    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

    gene5
    181
    249
    204
    244
    225
    277
    305
    272
    270
    279

    gene6
    460
    502
    491
    491
    493
    612
    594
    577
    618
    638
```

Q10: How many genes and samples are in this data set? There are 100 genes and 10 samples in this dataset.

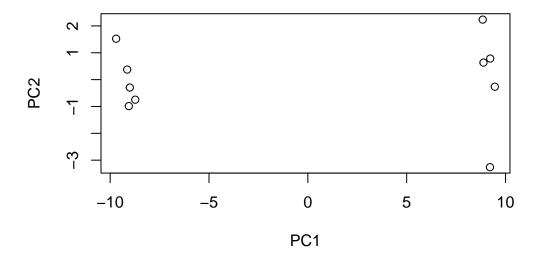
```
dim(rna.data)
```

[1] 100 10

Plot a PCA graph of the RNA-seq data

```
## Again we have to take the transpose of our data
pca <- prcomp(t(rna.data), scale=TRUE)

## Simple un polished 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 Standard deviation 9.6237 1.5198 1.05787 1.05203 0.88062 0.82545 0.80111 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 3.457e-15 Proportion of Variance 0.00385 0.00364 0.000e+00 Cumulative Proportion 0.99636 1.00000 1.000e+00

Using ggplot

```
library(ggplot2)

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

## Percent variance is often more informative to look at
pca.var.per <- round(pca.var/sum(pca.var)*100, 1)</pre>
```

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

# Add a 'wt' and 'ko' "condition" column to our plot
df$samples <- colnames(rna.data)
df$condition <- substr(colnames(rna.data),1,2)

p <- ggplot(df) +
        aes(PC1, PC2, label=samples, col=condition) +
        geom_label(show.legend = FALSE) +

# add titles and labels and change theme to make graph look nicer
        labs(title="PCA of RNASeq Data",
            subtitle = "PC1 clealy seperates wild-type from knock-out samples",
            x=paste0("PC1 (", pca.var.per[1], "%)"),
            y=paste0("PC2 (", pca.var.per[2], "%)"),
            caption="Class example data") +
            theme_bw()

p</pre>
```

PCA of RNASeq Data

PC1 clealy seperates wild-type from knock-out samples

