Class 7: Intro to Machine Learning

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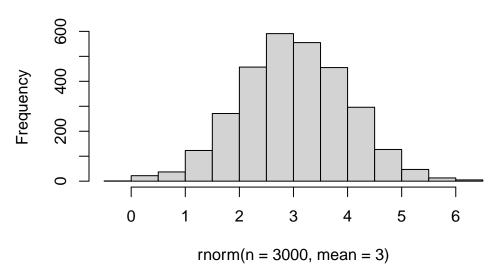
Today we will explore unsupervised machine learning methods including clustering and dimentionality reduction methods.

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

We can use the ${\tt rnorm}()$ for

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

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



Make data z with two "clusters"

```
rnorm(30, mean=-3)
```

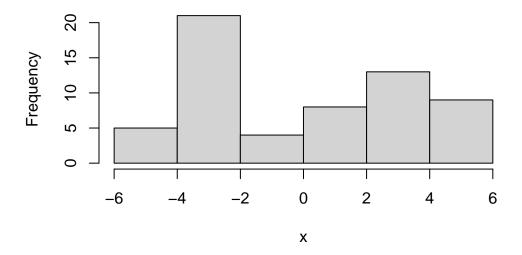
```
[1] -3.7433153 -4.3217792 -1.7935740 -4.0083938 -2.1423993 -4.8050819
[7] -3.1227694 -3.8793063 -1.6400976 -2.4738805 -2.5137105 -3.2710059
[13] -4.3814283 -2.7573337 -3.8191915 -3.4313084 -3.9037321 -3.7413905
[19] -3.2917719 -2.1486427 -3.1573811 -3.2697133 -2.6017514 -4.7756139
[25] -1.5591695 -0.9643865 -2.1290850 -2.4372159 -2.9797937 -2.4223979
```

rnorm(30, mean= +3)

```
[1]
     1.9656432
                2.6165892
                          2.4576659 4.0839193 2.5460514
                                                          2.2198801
 [7]
     2.6294766
                3.9199817
                          2.4131573 1.7513112 3.7873296 1.8843090
[13]
     3.7294562
                2.7017269
                          3.1007470 4.8384023
                                                3.7593797 -0.1232246
[19]
     4.1205845
                6.2365091
                          2.0469441
                                     3.7537896
                                                3.0279897
                                                          3.3793664
[25]
     4.2383501
                2.7450149
                                     2.2843404 4.2715554 2.1194014
                          1.1914912
```

```
x <- c(rnorm(30, mean=-3),
rnorm(30, mean= +3))
hist(x)</pre>
```

Histogram of x

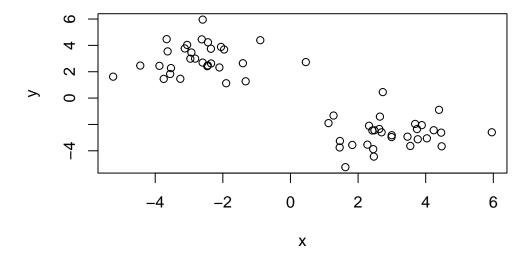


```
x <- c(rnorm(30, mean=-3),
rnorm(30, mean= +3))

z <- cbind(x=x, y=rev(x))
head(z)</pre>
```

```
x y
[1,] -2.9295538 3.460984
[2,] -0.8919533 4.394508
[3,] -3.8755243 2.447696
[4,] -2.6230031 4.457529
[5,] 0.4548172 2.731386
[6,] -2.0539523 3.883956
```

plot(z)



How big is z

nrow(z)

[1] 60

ncol(z)

[1] 2

K-means clustering

The main function in "base" R for K-means clustering is called ${\tt kmeans}$ ().

```
k <- kmeans(z, centers = 2)
k</pre>
```

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

Cluster means:

x y

- 1 -2.696343 2.983828
- 2 2.983828 -2.696343

Clustering vector:

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:

[1] 72.73951 72.73951

(between_SS / total_SS = 86.9 %)

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? (aka. size of cluster?)

k\$size

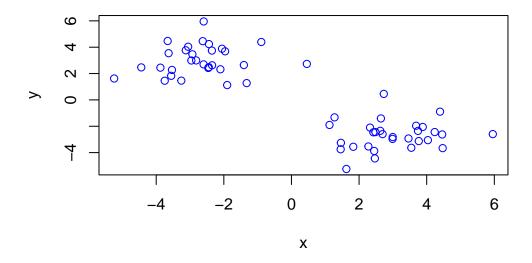
- [1] 30 30
 - Q. What component of our results tells us about the cluster membership (i.e. which point likes in which cluster)?

k\$cluster

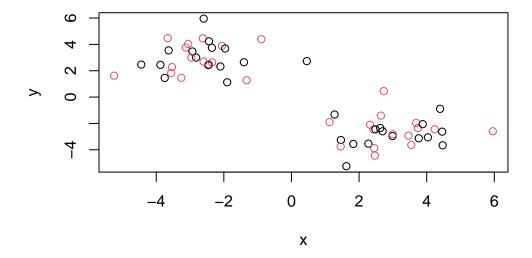
- - Q. Center of each cluster?

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.

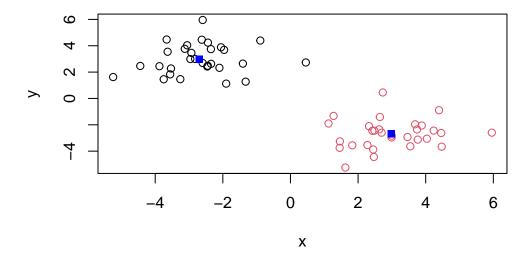


plot(z, col=c(1, 2))



Plot colored by cluster membership:

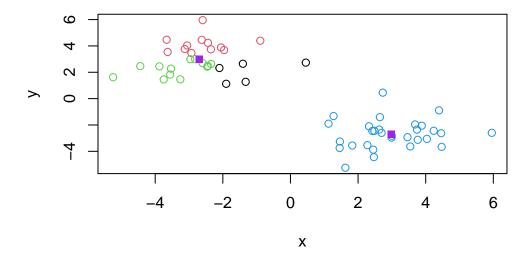
```
plot(z, col=k$cluster)
points(k$centers, col="blue", pch = 15)
```



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

```
k4 <- kmeans(z, center = 4)

plot(z, col=k4$cluster)
points(k$centers, col="purple", pch = 15)</pre>
```



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 "row" data as input. You have to first calculate a distance matrix from your data).

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

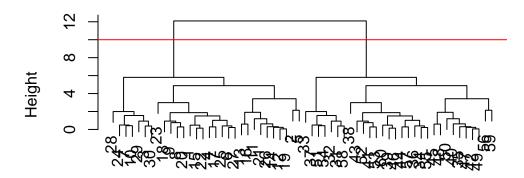
Call:
hclust(d = d)

Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

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

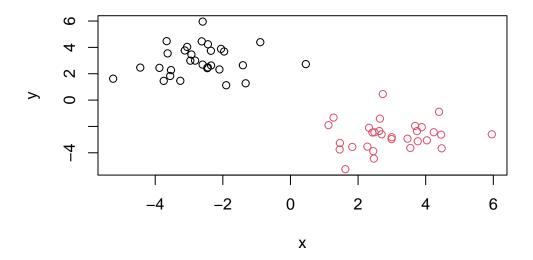
Cluster Dendrogram



d hclust (*, "complete")

Once I inspect the "tree" of dendrogram, I can "cut" the tree to yield my groupings or clusters. The function to this is called ${\tt cutree}()$.

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



1. PCA of UK food data

Hands on with Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Let's examine a 17-dimensional data containing details of food consumption in the UK. Are these countries different? How?

Data import

```
url <- "https://tinyurl.com/UK-foods"
x <- read.csv(url, row.names =1) #Q2, first way
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 examine this?

```
nrow(x)
```

[1] 17

```
ncol(x)
```

[1] 4

```
dim(x)
```

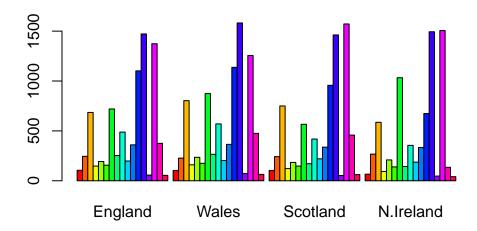
[1] 17 4

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?

```
#The second way
#rownames(x) <- x[,1]

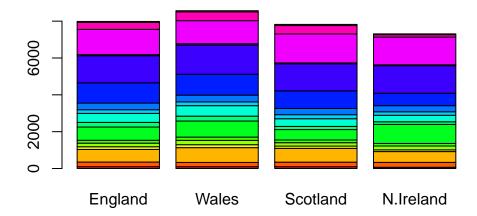
#x <- x[,-1]
#head(x)
```

I like the first way better, because it eliminates first column and read the file in one line. However, if I do not know which column of the file I should eliminate, it would be better to print the original table first, then use the second way to eliminate the column.



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

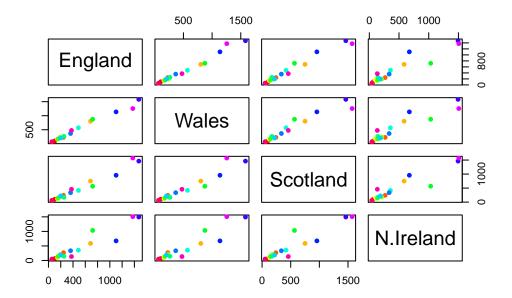
barplot(as.matrix(x), beside=F, col=rainbow(nrow(x)))



Set beside as False.

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)



If a point lies on the diagonal of a plot, it means the two countries have similar comsumption of that food.

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

The main difference is that N. Ireland consumes much more fresh potatoes.

Looking at these types of "pairwise plots" can be helpful but it does not scale well. 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 - ie 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.

head(pca\$x)

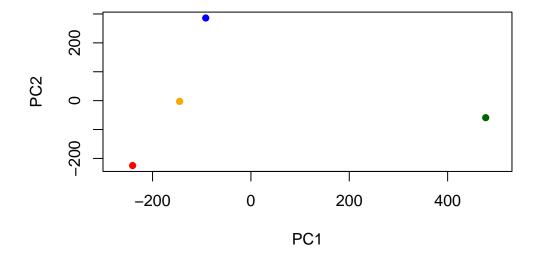
```
PC1
                             PC2
                                        PC3
                                                       PC4
England
          -144.99315
                       -2.532999 105.768945 -9.152022e-15
Wales
          -240.52915 -224.646925 -56.475555
                                             5.560040e-13
                      286.081786 -44.415495 -6.638419e-13
Scotland
           -91.86934
N.Ireland 477.39164
                      -58.901862 -4.877895
                                             1.329771e-13
```

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" (aka. "PCs", "eigenvectors", etc.)

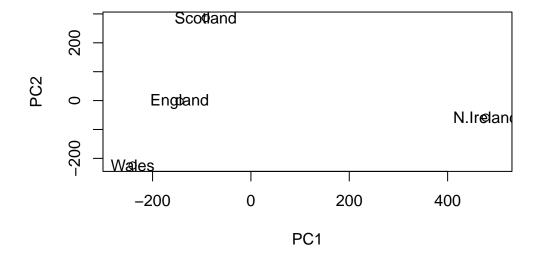
Q7. Complete the code below to generate a plot of PC1 vs PC2. The second line adds text labels over the data points.

Plot PC1 vs PC2

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

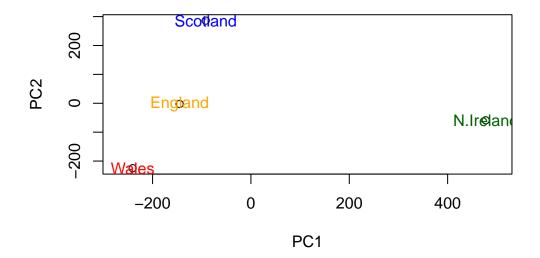


```
plot(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], xlab="PC1", ylab="PC2", xlim=c(-270,500))
text(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], colnames(x))
```



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], xlab="PC1", ylab="PC2", xlim=c(-270,500))
text(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], colnames(x), col=c("orange", "red", "blue", "darkgreen"))
```



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

pca\$rotation[,1]

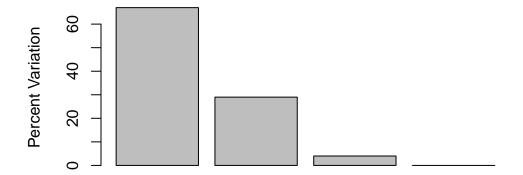
Cheese	Carcass_meat	Other_meat	Fish
-0.056955380	0.047927628	-0.258916658	-0.084414983
Fats_and_oils	Sugars	Fresh_potatoes	${\tt Fresh_Veg}$
-0.005193623	-0.037620983	0.401402060	-0.151849942
Other_Veg	Processed_potatoes	Processed_Veg	$Fresh_fruit$
-0.243593729	-0.026886233	-0.036488269	-0.632640898
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

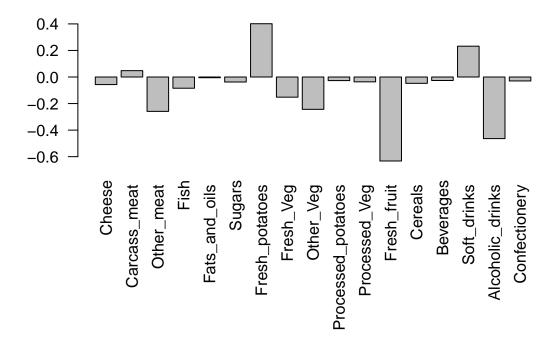
```
## or the second row here...
z <- summary(pca)
z$importance</pre>
```

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



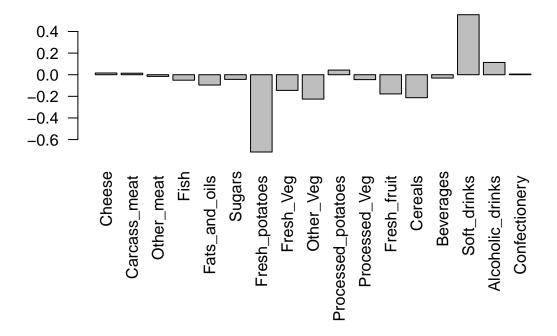
Principal Component

```
## 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?

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



Soft drinks and fresh potatoes are the two prominent food groups. PC2 tells us that the consumption of fresh potatoes and soft drinks have opposite trends. If fresh potatoes are larges consumed, soft drinks are not. And vise versa.

2. 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
          458
                408
                      429 420
                               90
                                   88
                                        86
                                            90
                                                93
gene1
       219 200
                204
                     210 187 427 423 434 433 426
gene2
gene3 1006 989 1030 1017 973 252 237 238 226 210
                829
                      856 760 849 856 835 885 894
gene4
       783 792
                204
                      244 225 277 305 272 270 279
gene5
       181 249
gene6
       460 502
                491
                      491 493 612 594 577 618 638
```

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

```
genes <- nrow(rna.data)
genes</pre>
```

[1] 100

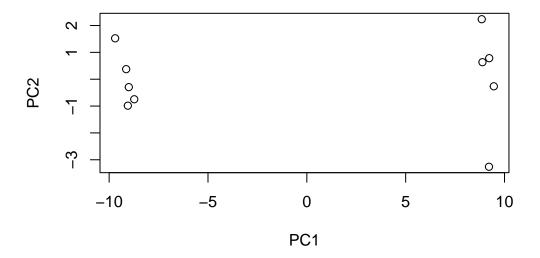
```
samples <- ncol(rna.data)
samples</pre>
```

[1] 10

There are 100 genes and 10 samples.

```
## 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>
```



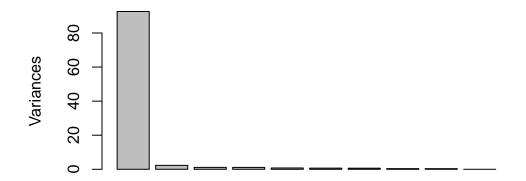
summary(pca)

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 3.345e-15
Proportion of Variance 0.00385 0.00364 0.000e+00
Cumulative Proportion 0.99636 1.00000 1.000e+00
```

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

Quick scree plot

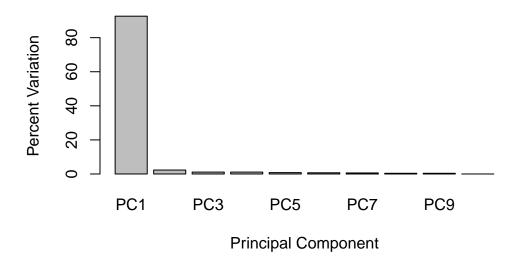


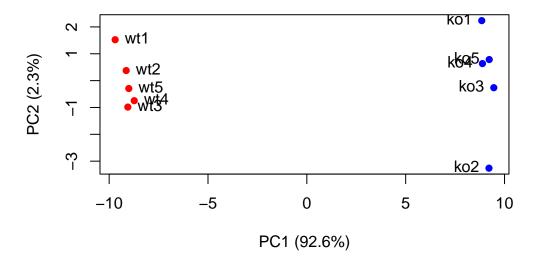
```
## Variance captured per PC
pca.var <- pca$sdev^2

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



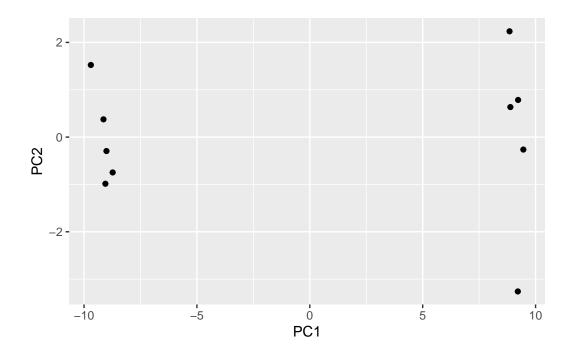


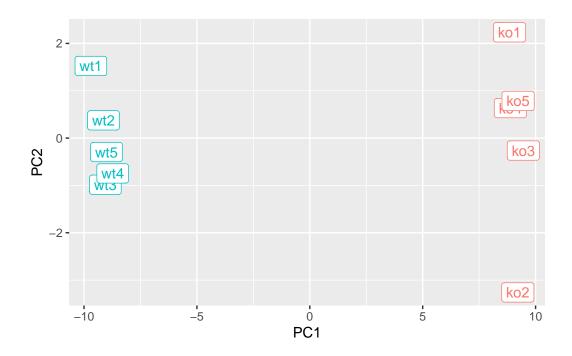
ggplot

```
library(ggplot2)

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

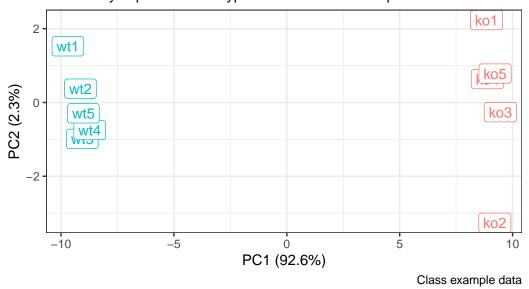
# Our first basic plot
ggplot(df) +
   aes(PC1, PC2) +
   geom_point()</pre>
```





PCA of RNASeq Data

PC1 clealy seperates wild-type from knock-out samples



Optional: Gene loadings

```
loading_scores <- pca$rotation[,1]

## Find the top 10 measurements (genes) that contribute
## most to PC1 in either direction (+ or -)
gene_scores <- abs(loading_scores)
gene_score_ranked <- sort(gene_scores, decreasing=TRUE)

## show the names of the top 10 genes
top_10_genes <- names(gene_score_ranked[1:10])
top_10_genes</pre>
```

```
[1] "gene100" "gene66" "gene45" "gene68" "gene98" "gene60" "gene21" [8] "gene56" "gene10" "gene90"
```