# Class 7: Machine Learning 1

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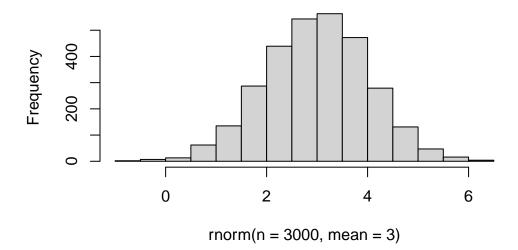
Today we will explore unsupervised machine learning methods including clustering and dimensionality reduction methods.

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

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

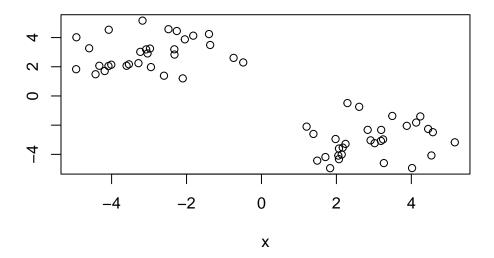
hist( rnorm(n=3000, mean=3))

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



Maka data with two "clusters"

```
rnorm(30, mean=-3)
 [1] -4.6509205 -3.5182382 -1.3451984 -1.9913666 -4.1015001 -4.6408188
 [7] -2.7362652 -4.1506600 -2.7372411 -1.2762107 -2.3451460 -2.1790611
  [13] \ -1.6123614 \ -1.6455144 \ -3.0067532 \ -2.4498934 \ -4.2800646 \ -1.5693193 
[19] -3.6700829 -4.3876040 -3.0731000 -3.5306117 -3.6284063 -3.1932948
[25] -3.1651918 -3.6891133 -4.0156109 -0.9890104 -3.6266892 -3.6581970
rnorm(30, mean = +3)
 [1] 2.614250 2.144188 3.842839 2.394593 1.832834 3.483717 2.598581 4.463182
 [9] 2.675834 1.898151 1.094417 1.463168 2.442005 4.834874 2.435494 3.066762
[17] 2.618904 2.859983 2.133250 2.113777 1.575965 1.911324 2.290022 2.457374
[25] 4.215312 3.145305 4.640862 4.900828 3.853942 3.054499
x < -c(rnorm(30, mean=-3),
rnorm(30, mean = +3))
z \leftarrow cbind(x=x,rev(x))
head(z)
[1,] -4.940042 4.019674
[2,] -3.234489 3.021461
[3,] -3.538299 2.169452
[4,] -4.083971 2.051238
[5,] -4.428989 1.488085
[6,] -2.950248 1.977737
plot(z)
```



How big is  ${\bf z}$ 

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

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

Cluster means:

x 1 2.912899 -3.014359 2 -3.014359 2.912899

Clustering vector:

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:

[1] 75.06942 75.06942 (between\_SS / total\_SS = 87.5 %)

Available components:

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

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

### K-means clustering

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

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

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

Cluster means:

x 1 -3.014359 2.912899 2 2.912899 -3.014359

Clustering vector:

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:

[1] 75.06942 75.06942 (between\_SS / total\_SS = 87.5 %)

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 likes in which cluster)?

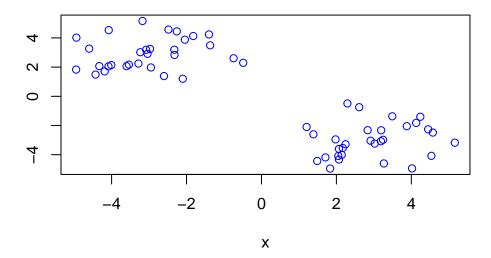
#### k\$cluster

Q. Center of each cluster?

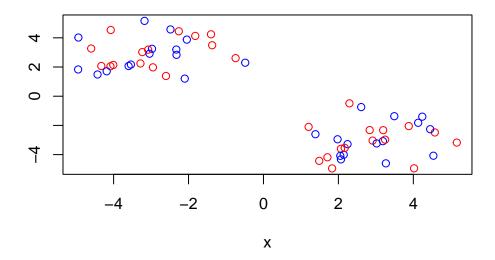
#### k\$centers

x 1 -3.014359 2.912899 2 2.912899 -3.014359

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

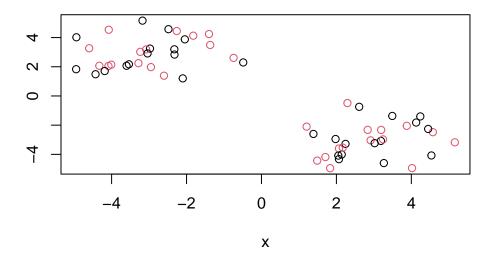


plot(z, col=c("blue", "red"))



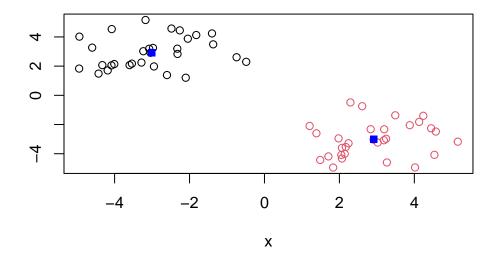
You can color by number

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



Plots 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).

#### head(z)

```
x

[1,] -4.940042 4.019674

[2,] -3.234489 3.021461

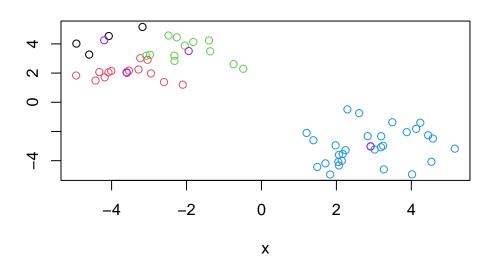
[3,] -3.538299 2.169452

[4,] -4.083971 2.051238

[5,] -4.428989 1.488085

[6,] -2.950248 1.977737
```

```
k4 <- kmeans(z, centers=4)
plot(z, col=k4$cluster)
points(k4$centers, col="purple")</pre>
```



### **Hierarchical Clustering**

The main function in base R for this is called hclust() it will take as input a distance matrix (key poiny 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:

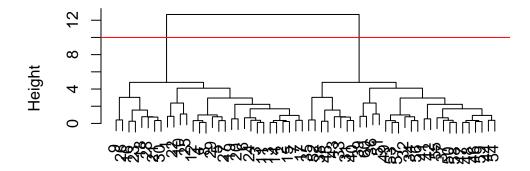
hclust(d = d)

Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

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

## **Cluster Dendrogram**

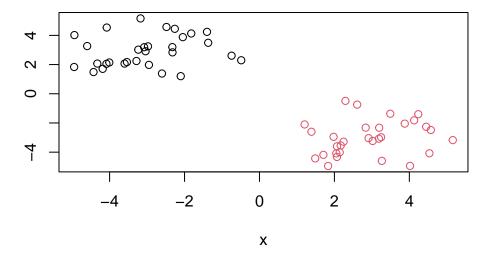


d hclust (\*, "complete")

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

```
cutree(hc, h=10)
```

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



Lets examine some silly 17-dimensional data detailing good consumption in the UK(England,Scotland,Wales, and N.Ireland). Are these countries eating habits different or similar and if so how.

### 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 questions?

we can use the dim() function, which will return both the number of rows and columns in a data frame. Alternatively, we can use nrow() for rows and ncol() for columns separately. There are 17 rows, 4 columns, and 17+4 columns + rows.

## nrow(x)

[1] 17

#### ncol(x)

[1] 4

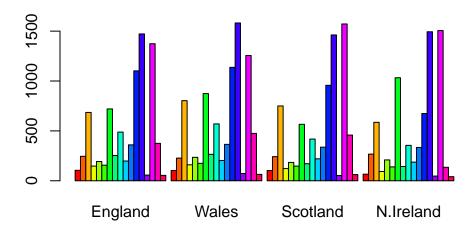
#### dim(x)

#### [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 approach, using row.names=1 when reading the CSV, is cleaner and more efficient, especially if you're working with a large dataset where you want to avoid mistakes from manually altering the data frame later.

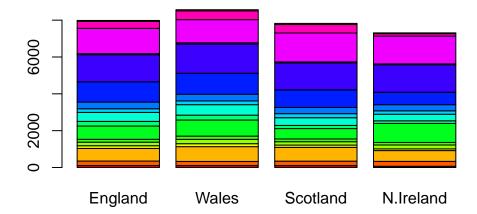
The second approach is more robust as it eliminates the chance of modifying the dataset unintentionally.



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

Changing the besides from True to False results in the bar graph.

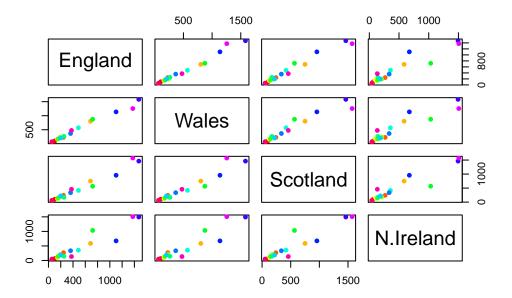
```
barplot(as.matrix(x), beside=F, col=rainbow(nrow(x)))
```



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?

If a point lies on the diagonal of a pairwise plot, it indicates that the two variables being compared are perfectly correlated with each other, meaning they change in tandem. In this case, for the pairwise plots, the diagonal shows that the variables are compared against themselves.

```
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?

Looking at this data set we can see that northern Ireland has a significantly different food consumption that the other countries, although it is still hard to see this on these type of plots as the details are not very easily understod.

Looking at these types of "pairwise plots" cam be helpful but it does not scale well and is much more time consuming. There has got to be a better way...

#### PCA to the rescue!

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

Lets see what is in our result object pca

#### attributes(pca)

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

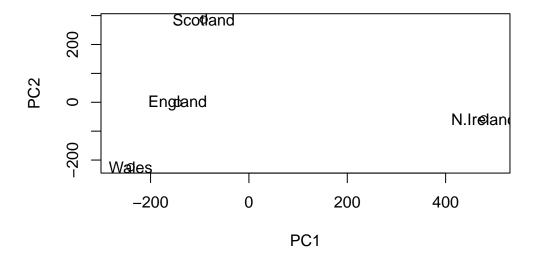
The pca\$x results object is wehre I will focus first as this details how the countries are related to eachother in terms of our new "axis" (aka "PCs"," eigenvectors", etc.)

#### head(pca\$x)

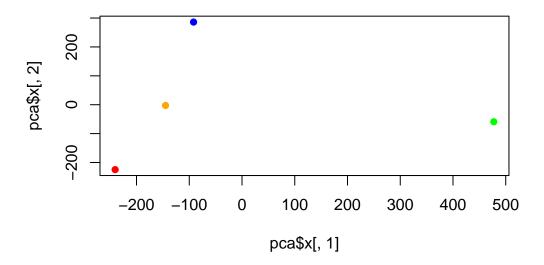
```
PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4
England -144.99315 -2.532999 105.768945 -9.152022e-15
Wales -240.52915 -224.646925 -56.475555 5.560040e-13
Scotland -91.86934 286.081786 -44.415495 -6.638419e-13
N.Ireland 477.39164 -58.901862 -4.877895 1.329771e-13
```

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

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

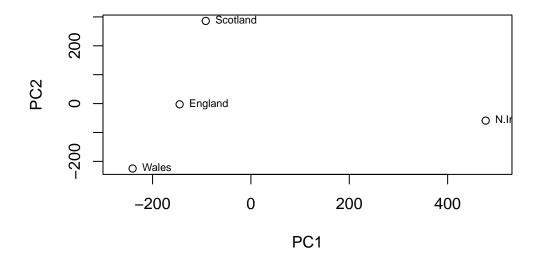


plot(pca\$x[,1], pca\$x[,2],pch=16, col = c("orange", "red", "blue", "green"))

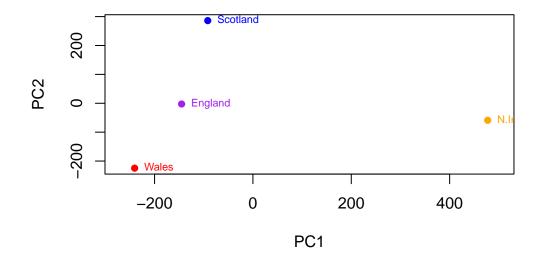


Q7. Complete the code below to generate a plot of PC1 vs PC2. The second line adds text labels over the data points.

```
plot(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], xlab="PC1", ylab="PC2", xlim=c(-270,500))
text(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], labels=rownames(pca$x), pos=4, cex=0.7)
```



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.

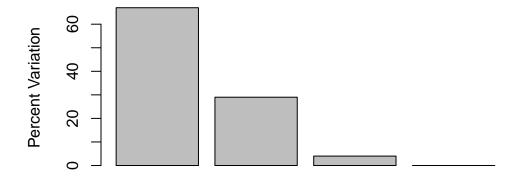


```
v <- round( pca$sdev^2/sum(pca$sdev^2) * 100 )
v</pre>
```

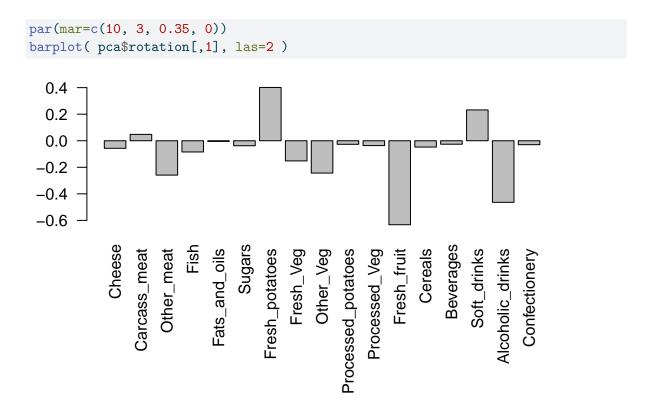
[1] 67 29 4 0

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

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



## **Principal Component**

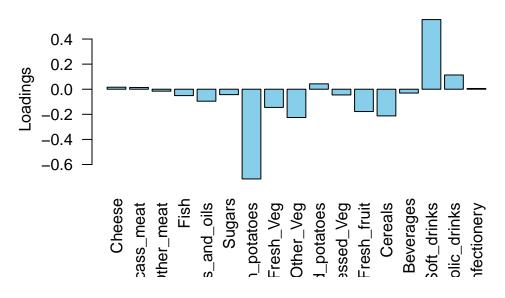


Q9: Generate a similar 'loadings plot' for PC2. What two food groups feature prominantely and what does PC2 maniply tell us about?

```
par(mar=c(10, 3, 0.35, 0))
bar_midpoints <- barplot(pca$rotation[,2], las=2, col="skyblue",</pre>
```

main="PC2 Loadings", ylab="Loadings")

## **PC2 Loadings**



dev.flush()

[1] 0

#### PCA OF RNA SEQ DATA

n this example, a small RNA-seq count data set (available from the class website (expression.csv and the tinyurl short link: "https://tinyurl.com/expression-CSV" ) is read into a data frame called rna.data where the columns are individual samples (i.e. cells) and rows are measurements taken for all the samples (i.e. genes).

```
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
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 10 samples, and there are, 100 genes.

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

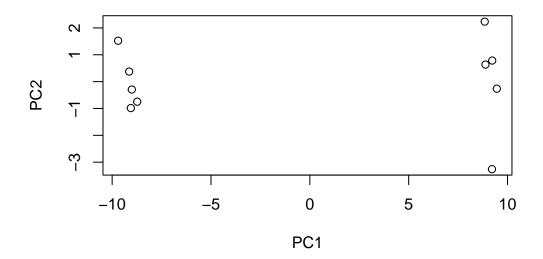
[1] 10

```
nrow(rna.data)
```

[1] 100

```
pca <- prcomp(t(rna.data), scale=TRUE)</pre>
```

```
plot(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], xlab="PC1", ylab="PC2")
```



#### summary(pca)

#### Importance of components:

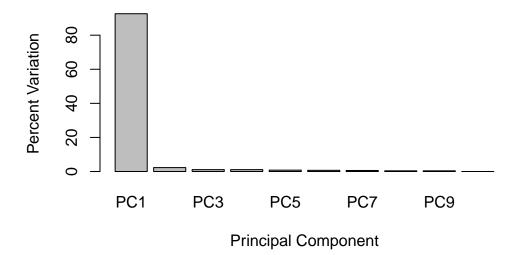
PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4 PC5 PC6 PC7 Standard deviation 9.6237 1.5198 1.05787 1.05203 0.88062 0.82545 0.80111 Proportion of Variance 0.9262 0.0231 0.01119 0.01107 0.00775 0.00681 0.00642 Cumulative Proportion 0.9262 0.9493 0.96045 0.97152 0.97928 0.98609 0.99251 PC8 PC9 PC10 Standard deviation 0.62065 0.60342 3.345e-15 Proportion of Variance 0.00385 0.00364 0.000e+00 Cumulative Proportion 0.99636 1.00000 1.000e+00

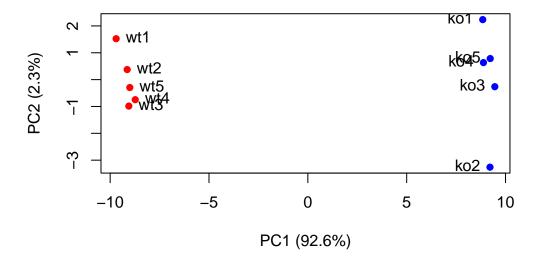
plot(pca, main="Quick scree plot")

## **Quick scree plot**



## **Scree Plot**





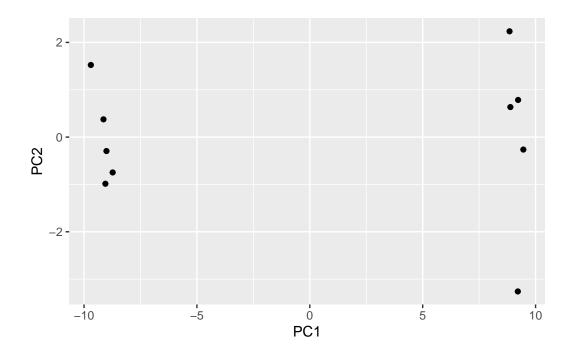
## USING GGPLOT

geom\_point()

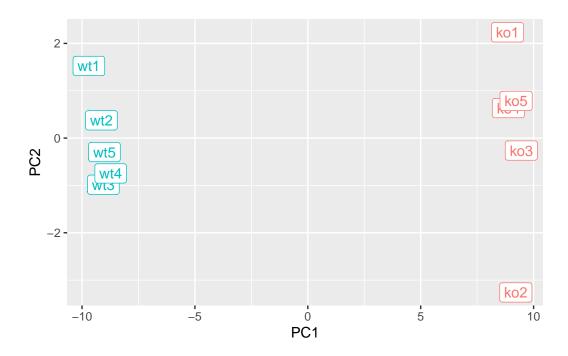
```
library(ggplot2)

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

ggplot(df) +
  aes(PC1, PC2) +</pre>
```



```
df$samples <- colnames(rna.data)
df$condition <- substr(colnames(rna.data),1,2)</pre>
```



## PCA of RNASeq Data

PC1 clealy seperates wild-type from knock-out samples

