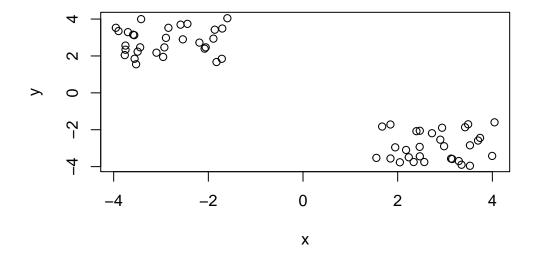
[Class 7] Machine Learning 1

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First up kmeans()

Demo ad using kmeans() function in base R. First make up some data with a known structure.

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



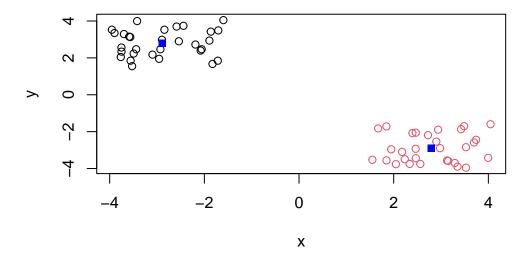
Now we have some made up data in x let's see how kmeans () works with this data.

```
k <- kmeans(x, centers = 2, nstart = 20)</pre>
 k
K-means clustering with 2 clusters of sizes 30, 30
Cluster means:
       Х
1 -2.887386 2.797440
2 2.797440 -2.887386
Clustering vector:
Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:
[1] 32.58051 32.58051
(between_SS / total_SS = 93.7 %)
Available components:
[1] "cluster"
             "centers"
                        "totss"
                                   "withinss"
                                             "tot.withinss"
[6] "betweenss"
             "size"
                        "iter"
                                   "ifault"
   Q. How many points are in each cluster?
 k$size
[1] 30 30
   Q. How do we go to the cluster membership/assignment?
 k$cluster
 Q. What about cluster centers?
 k$centers
```

```
x y
1 -2.887386 2.797440
2 2.797440 -2.887386
```

Now we got to the main results, let's use them to plot our data with the kmeans() result.

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



Now for Hierarchical Clustering

We will cluster the sama data x with the hclust(). In this case hclust() requires a distance matrix as input.

```
hc <- hclust(dist(x))
hc</pre>
```

Call: hclust(d = dist(x))

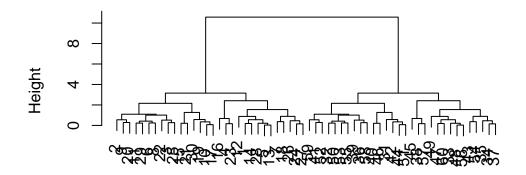
Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

Let's plot our hclut result.

```
plot(hc)
```

Cluster Dendrogram



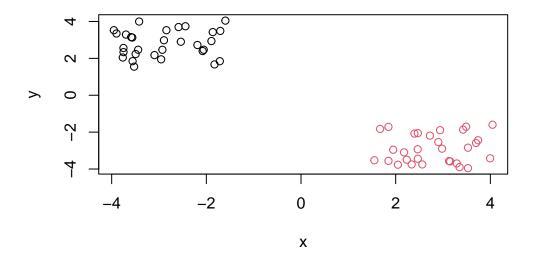
dist(x) hclust (*, "complete")

To get our cluster membership vector, we need to "cut" the tree with the cutree() function.

```
grps <- cutree(hc, h = 8)
grps</pre>
```

Now let's plot our data with the hclust() results.

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



Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

PCA of UK food data

Read data from website and try a few visualizations.

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

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

```
nrow(x)
[1] 17

ncol(x)
```

[1] 5

```
dim(x)
```

[1] 17 5

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

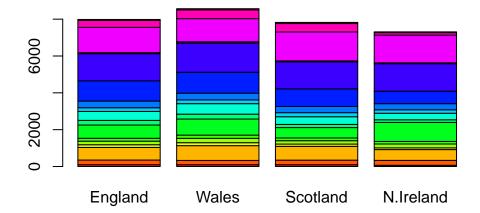
	England	Wales	Scotland	N.Ireland
Cheese	105	103	103	66
Carcass_meat	245	227	242	267
Other_meat	685	803	750	586
Fish	147	160	122	93
Fats_and_oils	193	235	184	209
Sugars	156	175	147	139
Fresh_potatoes	720	874	566	1033
Fresh_Veg	253	265	171	143
Other_Veg	488	570	418	355
Processed_potatoes	198	203	220	187
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

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?

Using the row.names function rather than minus indexing is much preferable to me because I understand it better. Both are useful to utlize but in this problem, row.names seems much more straightforward.

Spotting major differences and trends.

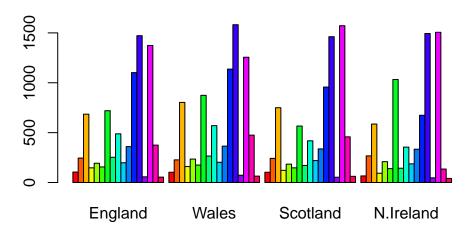
```
cols <- rainbow(nrow(x))
barplot(as.matrix(x), col = cols)</pre>
```



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

Having beside = FALSE, (or just leave it as default) results in the barplot that is seen above. Beside = True will equal the below barplot.

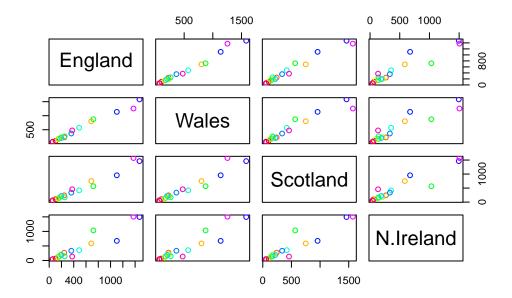
```
barplot(as.matrix(x), col = cols, beside = TRUE)
```



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 given point lies on the diagonal for a give plot, that means the two countries being compared have points that are correlated.

```
pairs(x, col = cols)
```



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

N. Ireland is much more different compared to the other countries, with very little correlation that can be mapped out.

PCA to the rescue. The main base R PCA function is called prcomp() and we will need to give it the transpose of our input data.

```
pca <- prcomp (t(x) )</pre>
```

There is a nice summary of how well PCA is doing.

```
summary(pca)
```

Importance of components:

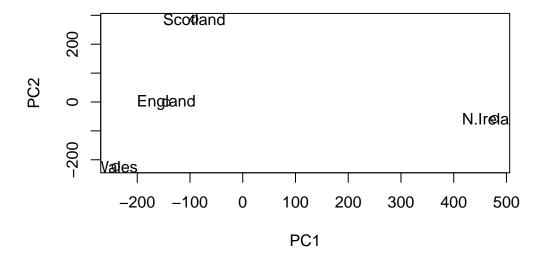
```
PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4
Standard deviation 324.1502 212.7478 73.87622 3.176e-14
Proportion of Variance 0.6744 0.2905 0.03503 0.000e+00
Cumulative Proportion 0.6744 0.9650 1.00000 1.000e+00
```

```
attributes(pca)
```

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

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

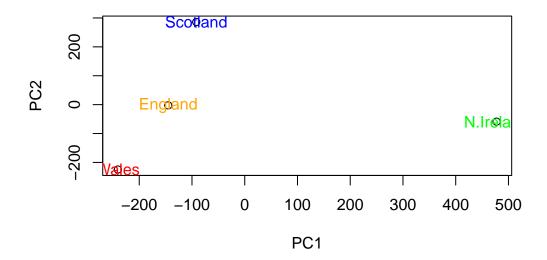
To make our new PCA plot (aka PCA score plot) we access pca\$x.



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.

Color the plot.

```
text(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], colnames(x), col = country_cols)
```



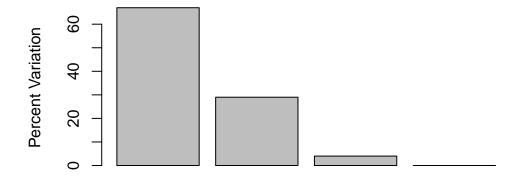
Calculting how much variation in the original data for each PC accounts for.

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

[1] 67 29 4 0

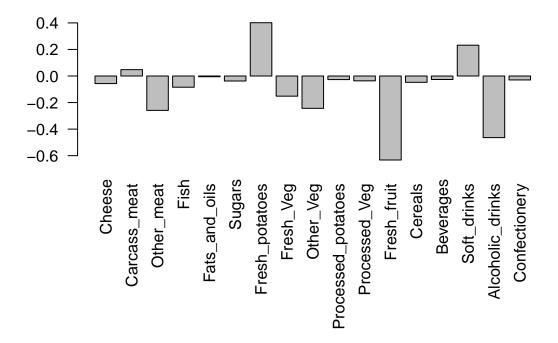
z <- summary(pca)
z$importance</pre>
```

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



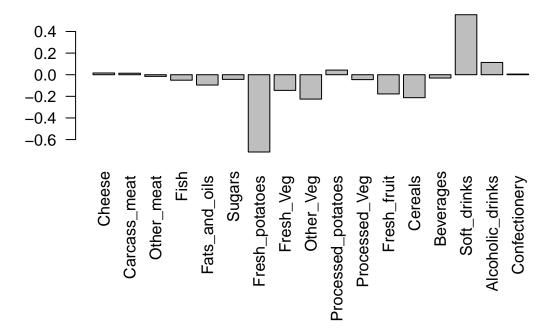
Principal Component

```
## 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?

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

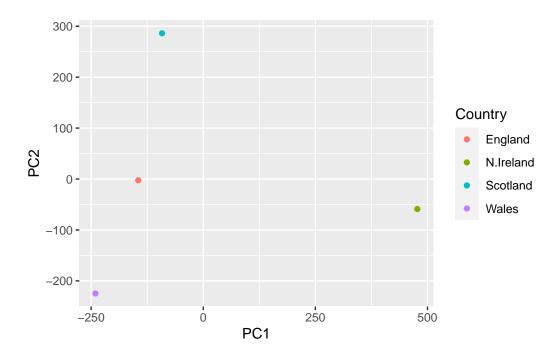


Using ggplot to visualize these figures.

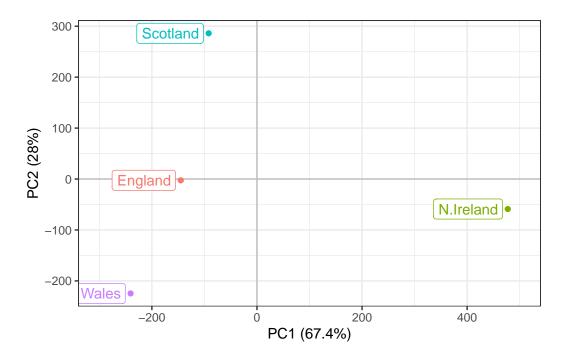
```
library(ggplot2)

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>
```



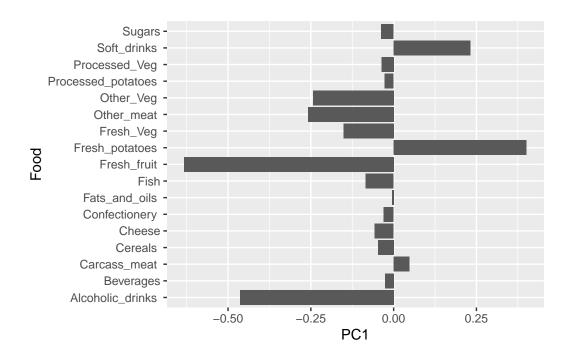
```
ggplot(df_lab) +
  aes(PC1, PC2, col=Country, label=Country) +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 0, col="gray") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 0, col="gray") +
  geom_point(show.legend = FALSE) +
  geom_label(hjust=1, nudge_x = -10, show.legend = FALSE) +
  expand_limits(x = c(-300,500)) +
  xlab("PC1 (67.4%)")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



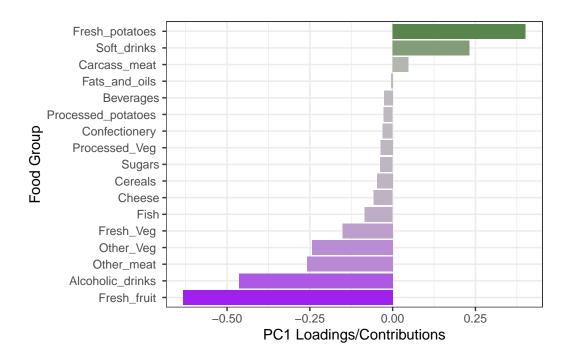
For our PC contribution figures.

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

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

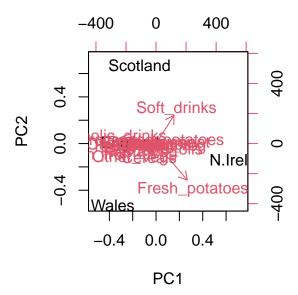


```
ggplot(ld_lab) +
  aes(PC1, reorder(Food, PC1), bg=PC1) +
  geom_col() +
  xlab("PC1 Loadings/Contributions") +
  ylab("Food Group") +
  scale_fill_gradient2(low="purple", mid="gray", high="darkgreen", guide=NULL) +
  theme_bw()
```



Biplots.

The inbuilt biplot() can be useful for small datasets biplot(pca)



PCA of RNA-Seq data

Read in data from website.

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

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

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

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

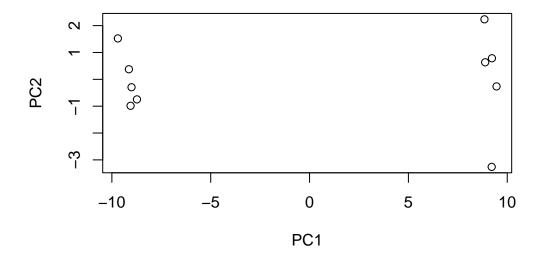
[1] 100

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

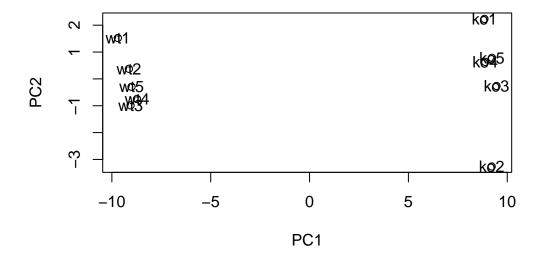
Importance of components:

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

Do our PCA plot of this RNA-Seq data



```
text(pca$x[,1], pca$x[,2], colnames(rna.data))
```



Quick barplot summary of the proportion of variance for each PC.

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

Quick scree plot



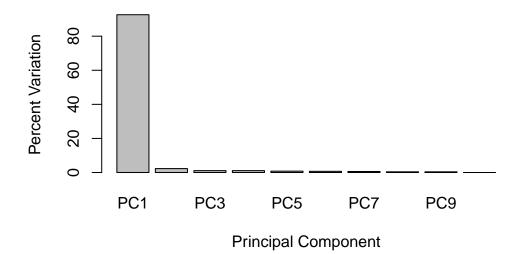
```
## Variance captured per PC
pca.var <- pca$sdev^2

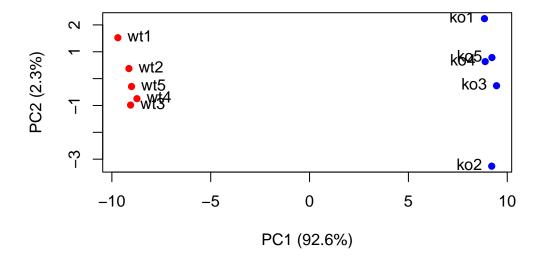
## Percent variance is often more informative to look at
pca.var.per <- round(pca.var/sum(pca.var)*100, 1)
pca.var.per

[1] 92.6 2.3 1.1 1.1 0.8 0.7 0.6 0.4 0.4 0.0</pre>
```

Generate our own scree-plot.

Scree Plot



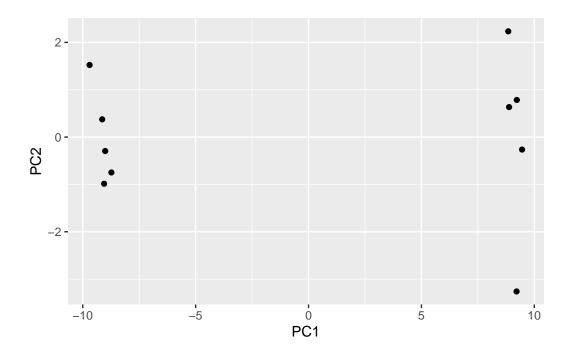


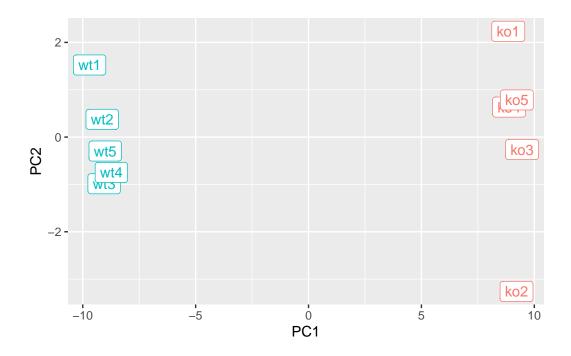
Using ggplot.

```
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

