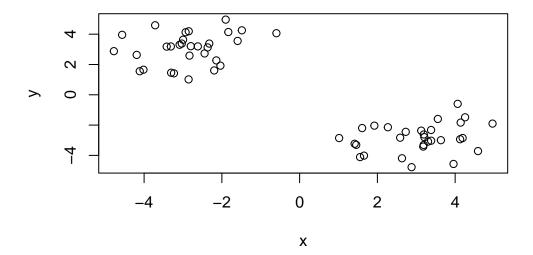
Class 7

Jimmi Nguyen



Use kmeans() function setting k to 2 and nstart = 20

```
km = kmeans(x, centers = 2, nstart = 20)
km
```

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

Cluster means:

Clustering vector:

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster: [1] 57.89978 57.89978

```
(between_SS / total_SS = 90.0 %)
```

Available components:

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

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

Q. How many points are in each cluster?

km\$size

[1] 30 30

Q. What 'component' of your results object details - cluster assignment/membership - cluster center?

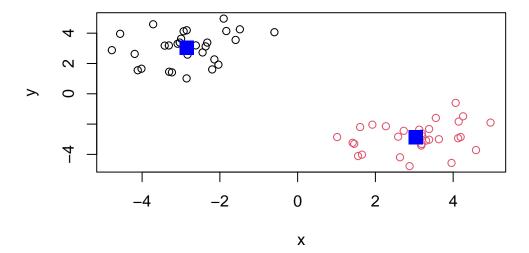
km\$cluster

km\$centers

x y 1 -2.852485 3.039061 2 3.039061 -2.852485

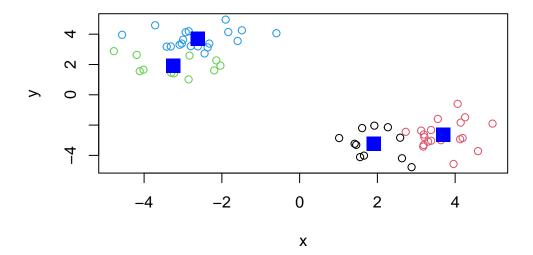
Q. Plot x colored by the kmeans cluster assignment and add cluster centers as blue points

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



Play with kmeans and ask for different number of clusters

```
km = kmeans(x, centers = 4, nstart = 20)
plot(x, col=km$cluster)
points(km$centers, col="blue", pch=15, cex=2)
```



Hierarchical Clustering

This is another very useful and widely emploued clusting method which has the advantage over kmeans in that it can help reveal the something of true grouping in your data.

The hclust() function wants a distace matrix as input. We can get this from the dist() function.

```
d = dist(x)
hc = hclust(d)
hc
```

Call: hclust(d = d)

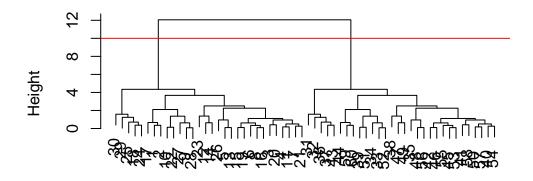
Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

There is a plot method for hclust results:

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

Cluster Dendrogram



d hclust (*, "complete")

To get my cluster membership vector I need to "cut" my tree to yield sub-trees or branches with all the members of a given cluster residing on the same cut branch. The function to do this is called cutree()

It is often helpful to use the k= argument to cutree rather than the h= height of cutting with cutree(). This will cut the tree to yield the number of clusters you want.

```
grps = cutree(hc, k=2)
grps
```

Principle Component Analysis (PCA)

The base R function for PCA is called prcomp() Let's play with some 17D data (a very small dataset) and see how PCA can help.

PCA of UK food data

Import the data

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

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

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

```
dim(x)
```

[1] 17 5

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?

```
x <- read.csv(url, row.names=1)
head(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

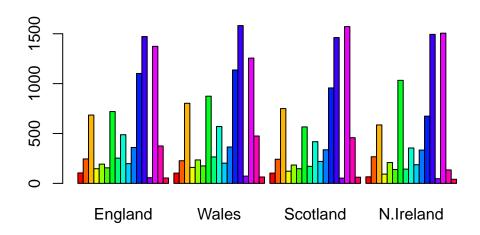
Fats_and_oils	193	235	184	209
Sugars	156	175	147	139

I prefer the row.names=1 argument because it sets a specific column as the row names while the x[,-1] code will delete the first row after setting them to the row names. The row.names function is more robust because you can run as many times and it will produce the same output, while the x[,-1] code will continously delete rows as you run it repeatedly.

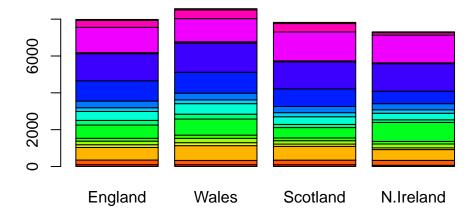
Q3: Changing what optional argument in the above barplot() function results in the following plot?

Change the beside argument to false will result in the following plot.

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



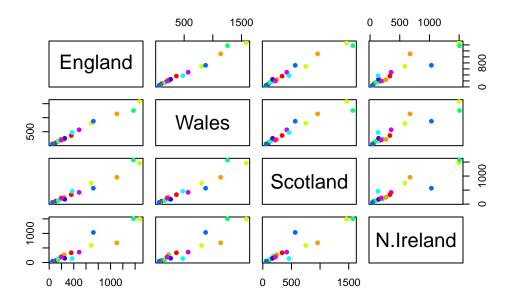
barplot(as.matrix(x), beside=F, col=rainbow(nrow(x)))



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?

The code is cross comparing different countries by their food consumption. If points lie on the diagonal it means the both countries consume the same amount in that specific food.

```
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?

The main differences are their elevated consumption of fresh potatoes, lower alcohol consumption, and lower fresh fruit consumption.

```
pca = prcomp( t(x) )
summary(pca)
```

Importance of components:

```
PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4
Standard deviation 324.1502 212.7478 73.87622 4.189e-14
Proportion of Variance 0.6744 0.2905 0.03503 0.000e+00
Cumulative Proportion 0.6744 0.9650 1.00000 1.000e+00
```

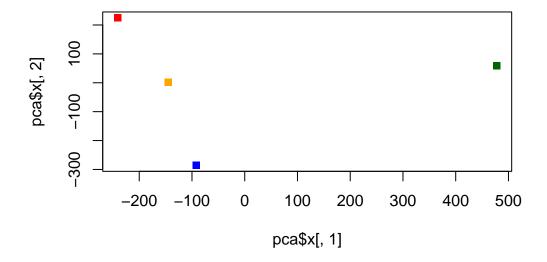
PCA plot

pca\$x

PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4 England -144.99315 2.532999 -105.768945 2.842865e-14

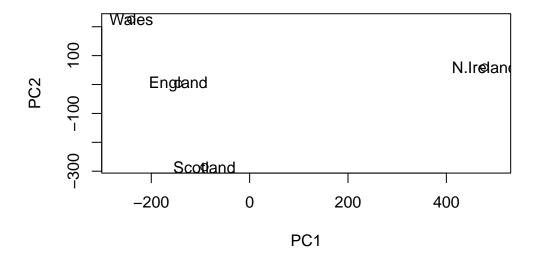
```
Wales -240.52915 224.646925 56.475555 7.804382e-13
Scotland -91.86934 -286.081786 44.415495 -9.614462e-13
N.Ireland 477.39164 58.901862 4.877895 1.448078e-13
```

```
plot(pca$x[,1],pca$x[,2], col=c("orange","red","blue","darkgreen"),pch=15)
```



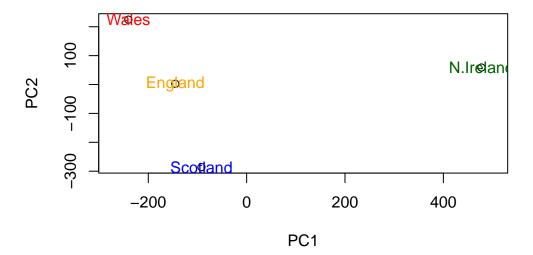
Q7. Complete the code below to generate a plot of PC1 vs PC2. The second line adds text labels over the data points.

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



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"))
```



Below we can use the square of pca\$sdev, which stands for "standard deviation", to calculate how much variation in the original data each PC accounts for.

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

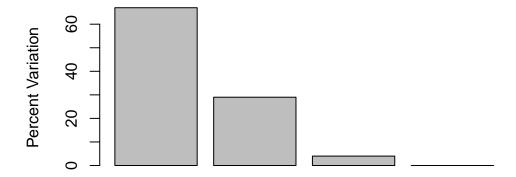
[1] 67 29 4 0

Summarized the variances with respect to the principal component using the summary() function and then using barplot().

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

```
PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4
Standard deviation 324.15019 212.74780 73.87622 4.188568e-14
Proportion of Variance 0.67444 0.29052 0.03503 0.000000e+00
Cumulative Proportion 0.67444 0.96497 1.00000 1.000000e+00
```

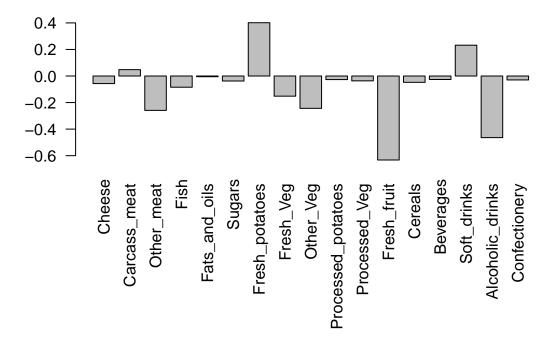
```
barplot(v, xlab="Principal Component", ylab="Percent Variation")
```



Principal Component

Plotting the influences of original variables against the principal components using the barplot() function which gives us loading scores.

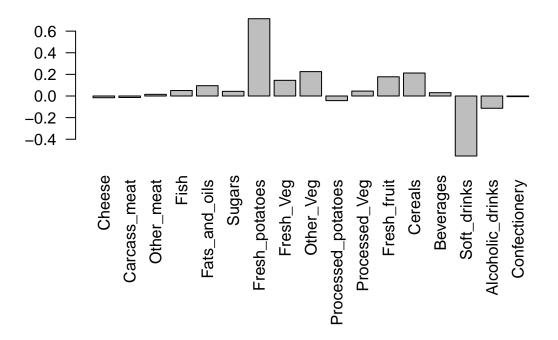
```
par(mar=c(10, 3, 0.35, 0))
barplot( pca$rotation[,1], las=2 )
```



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

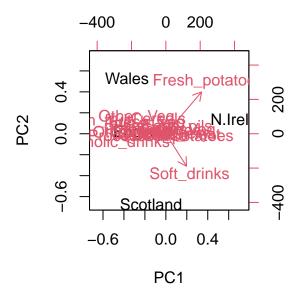
Fresh potatoes with the most positive loading score and soft drinks with the most negative loading score. PC2 tells us

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



information also can be summarized using the biplot() function.

biplot(pca)



New data of gene expression.

```
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
                408
                     429 420
       439 458
                               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
                829
                     856 760 849 856 835 885 894
       783 792
                204
                     244 225 277 305 272 270 279
gene5
       181 249
                     491 493 612 594 577 618 638
gene6
       460 502
                491
```

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

There are 10 samples and 100 genes.

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

[1] 10

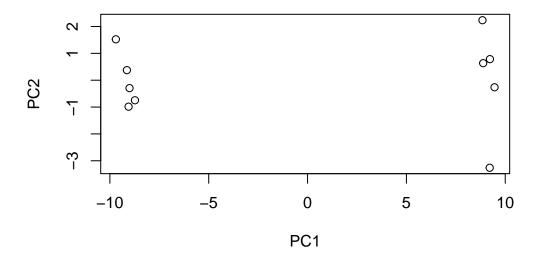
```
nrow(rna.data)
```

[1] 100

PCA and plot the results.

```
## 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 of how much variation in the original data each PC account for.

```
summary(pca)
```

Importance of components:

barplot summary of this Proportion of Variance

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

Quick scree plot



generate our own scree-plot.

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

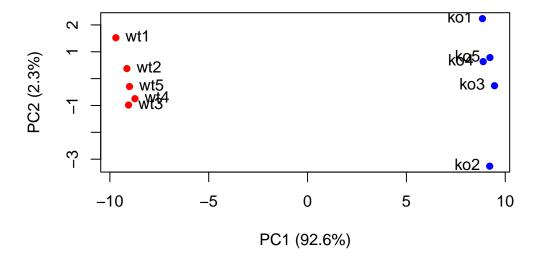
## Percent variance is often more informative to look at
pca.var.per <- round(pca.var/sum(pca.var)*100, 1)
pca.var.per</pre>
```

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

Scree Plot PC1 PC3 PC5 PC7 PC9

PCA plot a bit more attractive and useful...

Principal Component

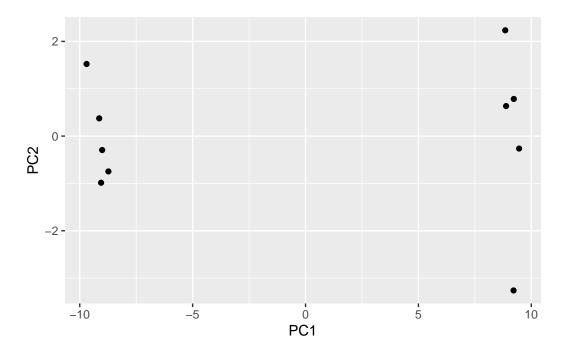


We could use the ggplot2 package here.

```
library(ggplot2)

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

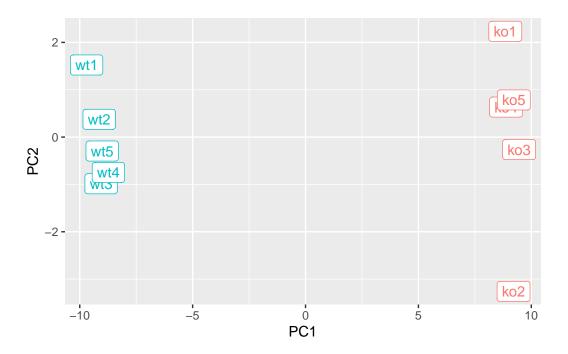
# Our first basic plot
ggplot(df) +
   aes(PC1, PC2) +
   geom_point()</pre>
```



adding a condition specific color and sample label aesthetics.

```
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)
p</pre>
```



some spit and polish

PCA of RNASeq Data

PC1 clealy seperates wild-type from knock-out samples

