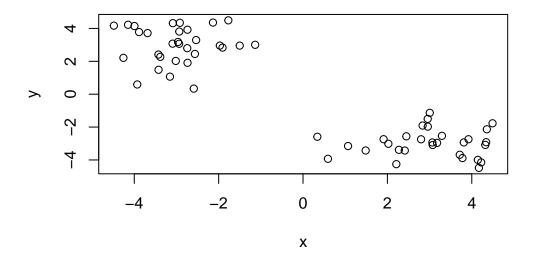
# **Class 7: Machine Learning**

Izabelle Querubin

# **Example of K-means clustering**

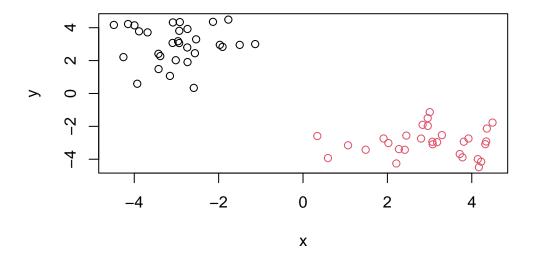
First step is to make up some data with a known structure, so we know what the answer should be.

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



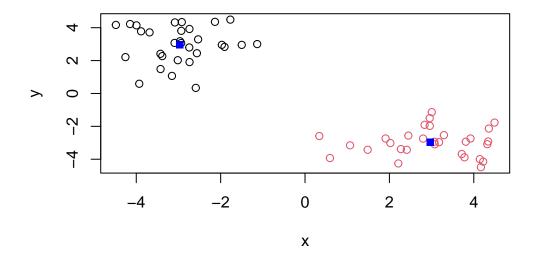
Now we have some structured data in x. Let's see if k-means is able to identify the two groups.

```
k <- kmeans(x, centers = 2, nstart = 20)</pre>
  k
K-means clustering with 2 clusters of sizes 30, 30
Cluster means:
        X
1 -2.968109 2.973144
2 2.973144 -2.968109
Clustering vector:
Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:
[1] 57.20792 57.20792
(between_SS / total_SS = 90.2 %)
Available components:
[1] "cluster"
               "centers"
                           "totss"
                                        "withinss"
                                                    "tot.withinss"
[6] "betweenss"
               "size"
                           "iter"
                                        "ifault"
Let's explore k:
  k$size
[1] 30 30
  k$centers
        X
                у
1 -2.968109 2.973144
2 2.973144 -2.968109
  plot(x, col = k$cluster)
```

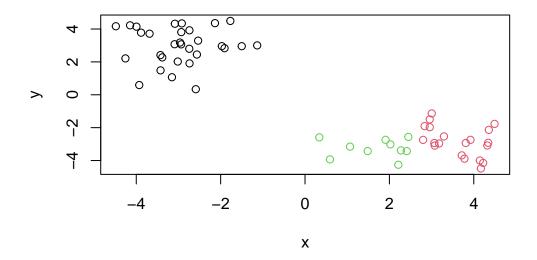


Now we can add the clusters centers:

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



k\_3 <- kmeans(x, centers = 3, nstart = 20)
plot(x, col = k\_3\$cluster)</pre>



# **Example of Hierarchical Clustering**

Let's use the same data as before, which we stored in x. We will use the hclust() function.

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

#### Call:

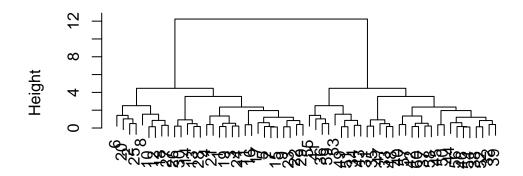
hclust(d = dist(x))

Cluster method : complete
Distance : euclidean

Number of objects: 60

plot(clustering)

# **Cluster Dendrogram**

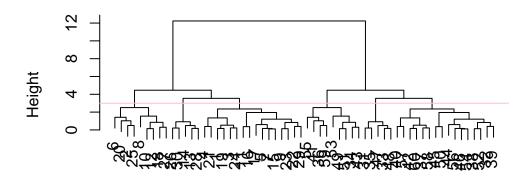


dist(x)
hclust (\*, "complete")

Let's add a horizontal line:

```
plot(clustering)
abline(h = 3, col = "pink")
```

### **Cluster Dendrogram**



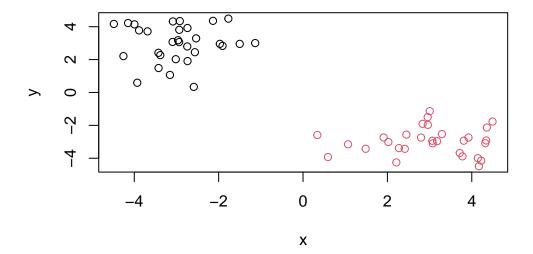
### dist(x) hclust (\*, "complete")

To get our results (i.e. membership vector), we need to "cut" the tree. The function for doing this is cutree().

```
subgroups <- cutree(clustering, h = 10)
subgroups</pre>
```

Plotting this...

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



You can also "cut" your tree with the number of clusters you want:

# **Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**

#### PCA of the UK Food

First was to read the data:

```
url <- "https://tinyurl.com/UK-foods"
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

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

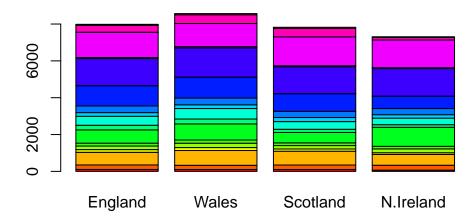
Rows: 17; Columns: 4

To answer this question, you could use the dim() function.

# 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  $x \leftarrow read.csv(url, row.names=1)$  is preferable and more robust since it is much simpler and more efficient.

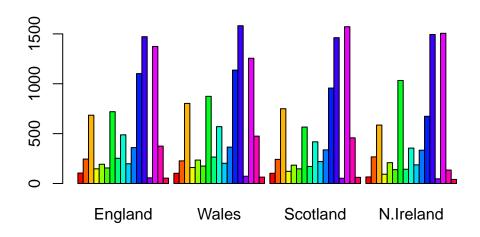
Now we can generate some basic visualizations.



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

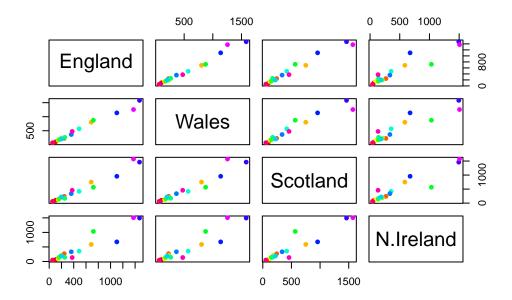
beside = TRUE —TRUE will render the plot below, FALSE will render the plot above. Let's refine our barplot.

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



Other visualizations that can be useful...

```
pairs(x, col = rainbow(nrow(x)), pch = 16)
```



# 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?

These plots are meant to compare population means and determine how significantly different they are from one another. A point that lies on the diagonal suggests that the value of that variable is similar in both populations.

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

Most of the data is clustered towards the bottom left of the plot, indicating that N. Ireland consumes different amounts of the different foods compared to the other countries of the UK.

Let's apply PCA (principal components analysis). For that, we need to use the command prcomp(). This function expects the transpose of our data.

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

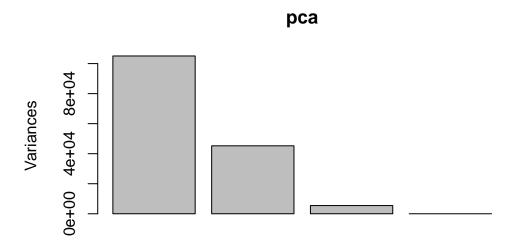
### summary(pca)

#### 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
```

Let's plot the PCA results!

plot(pca)



We need to access the results of the PCA analysis.

```
attributes(pca)
```

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

We can explore the pca\$x dataframe:

```
pca$x
```

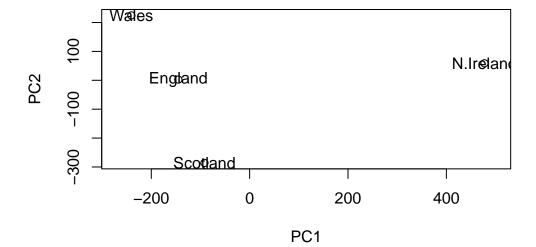
```
PC1
                              PC2
                                          PC3
England
          -144.99315
                        2.532999 -105.768945
                                               2.842865e-14
Wales
          -240.52915
                      224.646925
                                    56.475555
                                               7.804382e-13
           -91.86934 -286.081786
Scotland
                                    44.415495 -9.614462e-13
N.Ireland 477.39164
                       58.901862
                                     4.877895
                                               1.448078e-13
```

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

Plotting:

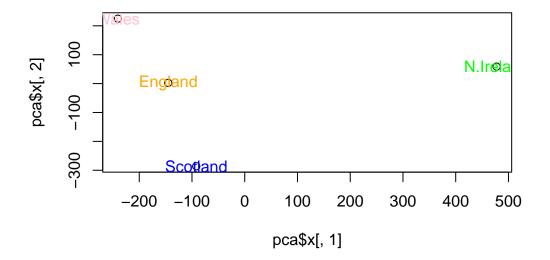
```
plot(x = pca$x[, 1], y = pca$x[, 2], xlab = "PC1", ylab = "PC2", xlim = c(-270,500))

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 the start of this document.

```
plot(x = pca$x[, 1], y = pca$x[, 2])
colors_countries <- c('orange', 'pink', 'blue', 'green')
text(x = pca$x[, 1], y = pca$x[, 2], colnames(x), col = colors_countries)</pre>
```



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

[1] 67 29 4 0

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

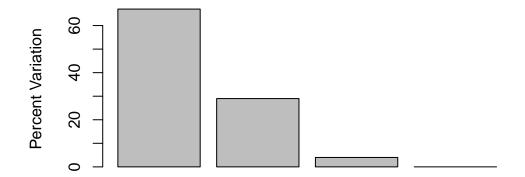
```
        PC1
        PC2
        PC3
        PC4

        Standard deviation
        324.15019
        212.74780
        73.87622
        4.188568e-14

        Proportion of Variance
        0.67444
        0.29052
        0.03503
        0.000000e+00

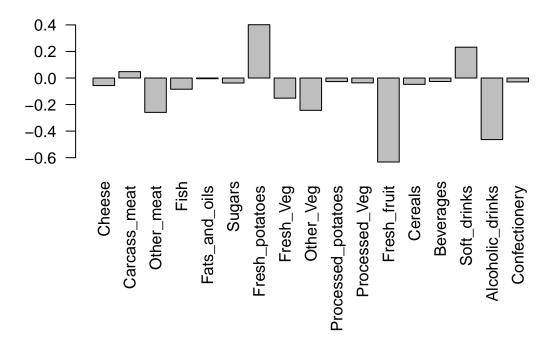
        Cumulative Proportion
        0.67444
        0.96497
        1.00000
        1.000000e+00
```

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



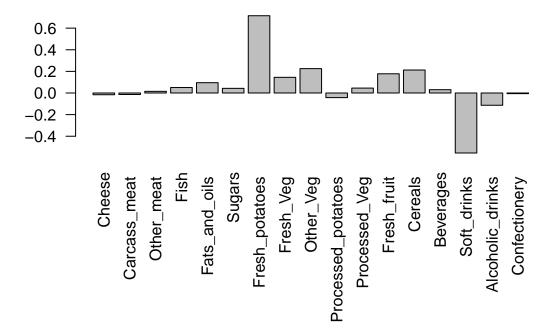
### **Principal Component**

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



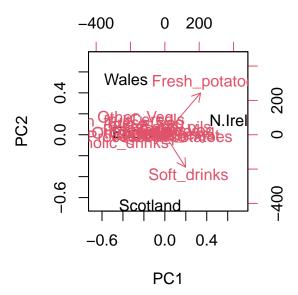
# Q9. Generate a similar 'loadings plot' for PC2. What two food groups feature prominently and what does PC2 mainly tell us about?

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



The food with the largest positive loading score is mainly Fresh\_potatoes and the food with the highest negative score is mainly Soft\_drinks. PC2 tells us about the second principle component, which is the secondary trend or pattern that is orthogonal to PC1.

biplot(pca)



## PCA of a RNA-Seq Dataset

```
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
      219 200
                204
                     210 187 427 423 434 433 426
gene2
gene3 1006 989 1030 1017 973 252 237 238 226 210
                829
gene4
      783 792
                     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?

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

[1] 100 10

I have 100 genes and 10 samples.

#### Let's apply PCA:

```
pca_rna = prcomp(t(rna.data), scale = TRUE)
summary(pca_rna)
```

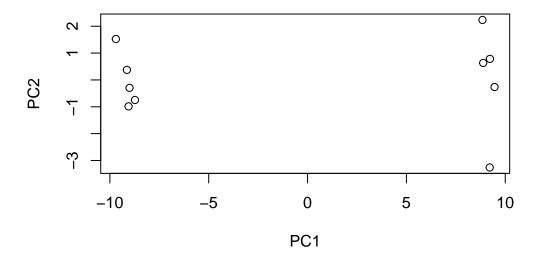
#### Importance of components:

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 3.348e-15

Proportion of Variance 0.00385 0.00364 0.000e+00 Cumulative Proportion 0.99636 1.00000 1.000e+00

Let's plot the principle components 1 and 2.

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

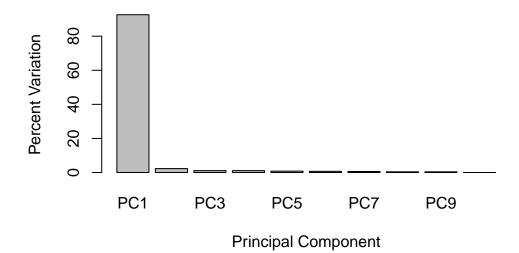


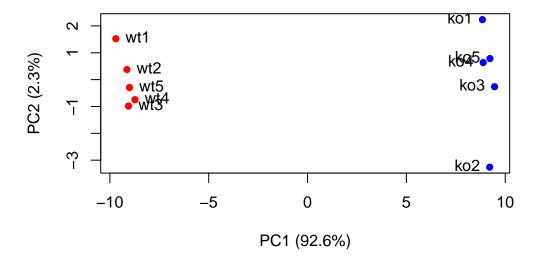
```
plot(pca_rna, main = "Quick scree plot")
```

# **Quick scree plot**



### **Scree Plot**



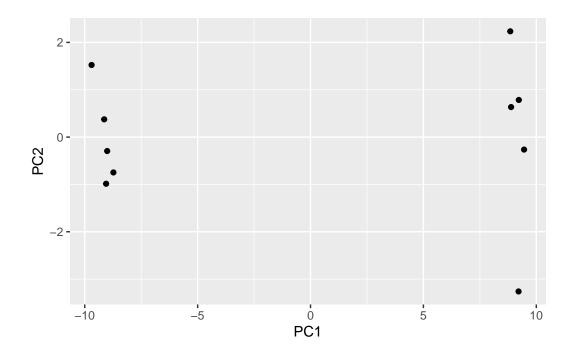


### Using ggplot

```
library(ggplot2)

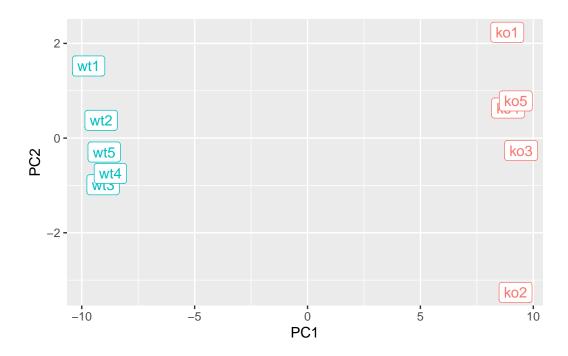
df <- as.data.frame(pca_rna$x)

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



```
# Add a 'wt' and 'ko' "condition" column
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>
```



# PCA of RNASeq Data

PC1 cleanly separates wild-tyoe from knock-out samples

