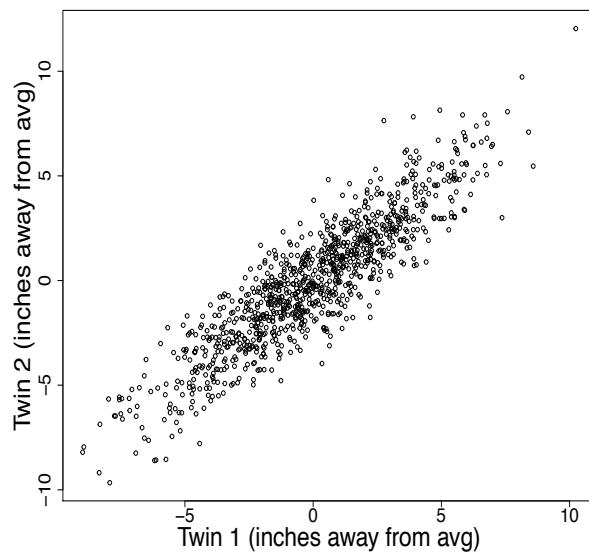


# Dimension Reduction

PCA, SVD, MDS, and clustering

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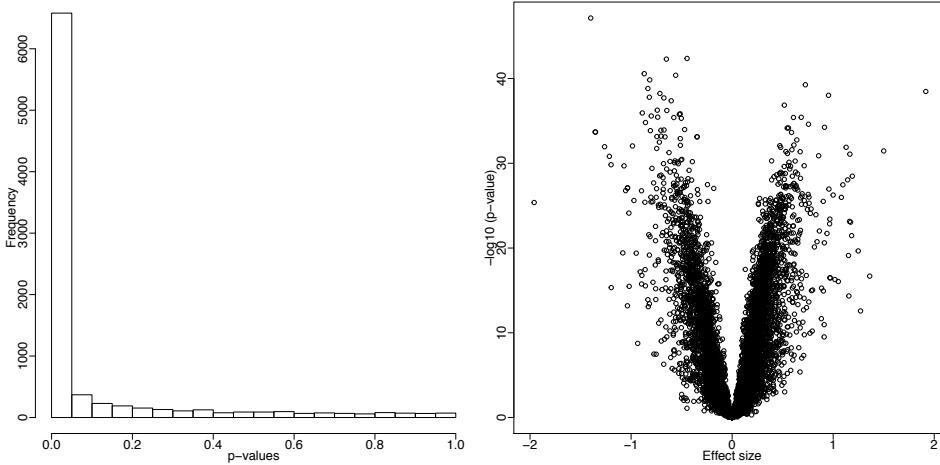
## Example: height of identical twins



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[ RI ]

## Expression between two ethnic groups



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[ RI ]

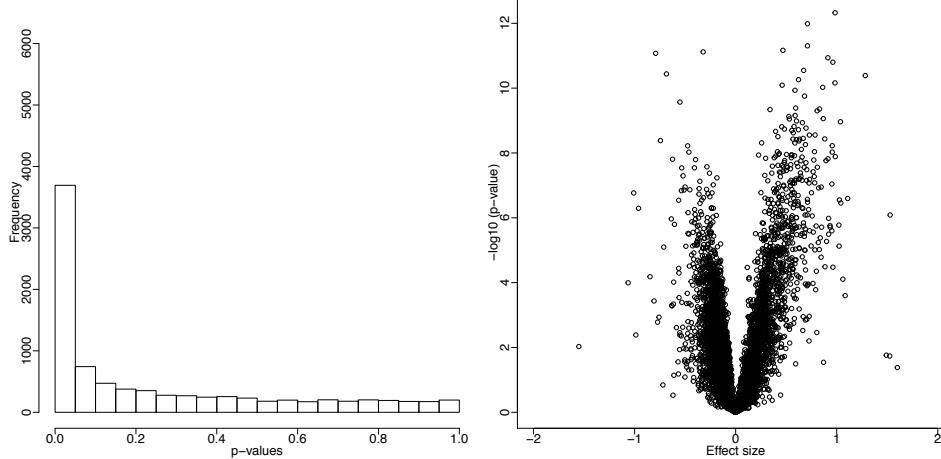
## Ethnicity is confounded with year

Year	ASN	CEU
2002	0	32
2003	0	54
2004	0	13
2005	80	3
2006	3	0

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[ RI ]

## Two batches within ethnic groups

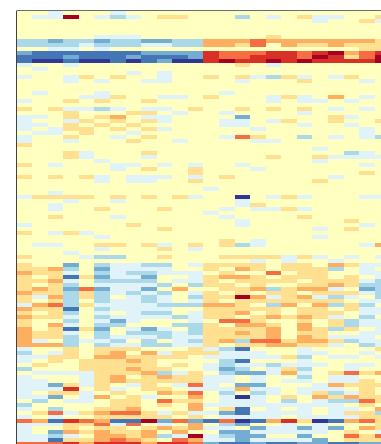


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## 12 males and females, 2 months, 109 genes

	Female	Male
June 2005	3	9
October 2005	9	3



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[ RI ]

## Finding an unknown batch

$$\Delta_i \equiv (Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{in})(1/n_1, \dots, 1/n_1, -1/n_2, \dots, -1/n_2) = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_1} Y_{i,j} - \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_{j=n_1+1}^{n_1+n_2} Y_{i,j}$$

Find  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  that make this difference large for many genes.

More precisely, maximize:

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \Delta_i^2$$

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## Finding an unknown batch

More generally, let  $v$  be any vector with mean 0 and variance 1, find the  $v$  that maximizes

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n Y_{i,j} v_j \right\}^2 = (Y_{m \times n} v_{n \times 1})' (Y_{m \times n} v_{n \times 1})$$

The  $v$  that maximizes this variance is called the first principal component direction or **eigenvector**, and

$$Y_{m \times n} v_{n \times 1}$$

is the **first principal component**.

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## Principal components

We can remove the variability explained by  $v_1$ , and find the vector  $v_2$  that maximizes the variability in these residuals.

By continuing this process we end up with  $n$  eigenvectors:

$$v_{n \times n} = (v_1 \dots v_n)$$

## Singular value decomposition (SVD)

SVD is a powerful mathematical approach that permits us to compute matrices  $U$ ,  $D$  and  $V$  such that

$$Y_{m \times n} = U_{m \times n} D_{n \times n} V'_{n \times n}$$

and  $V$  are the eigenvectors.

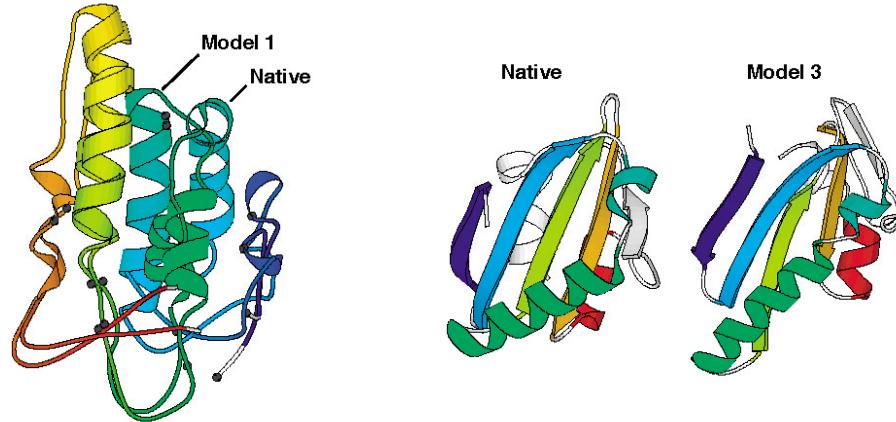
$U$  and  $V$  are both orthogonal matrices and  $D$  is diagonal.

$U$  orthogonal means that the columns of  $U$  are such that

$$U'_i U_i = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad U'_i U_j = 0$$

In other words, the sample standard deviation of each column is 1 and the sample correlation of any two columns is 0.

## RMSD from SVD



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## Principal components from SVD

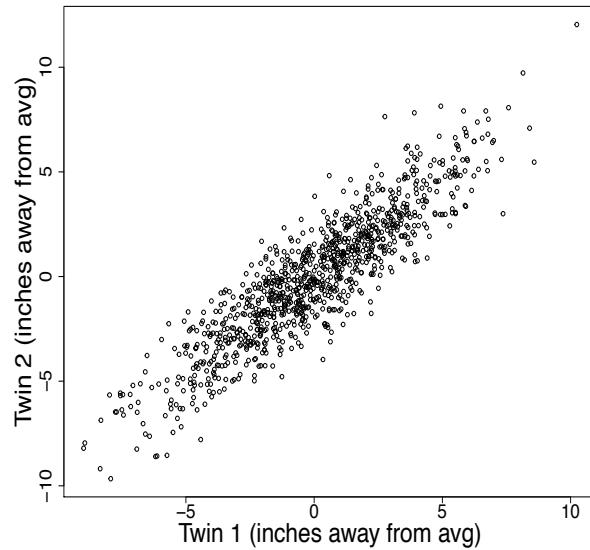
Notice that we can get the principal components from U and D

$$Y_{m \times n} V_{n \times n} = U_{m \times n} D_{n \times n}$$

and the variance from D:

$$(Y_{m \times n} V_{n \times n})' (Y_{m \times n} V_{n \times n}) = D U' U D = D_{n \times n}^2$$

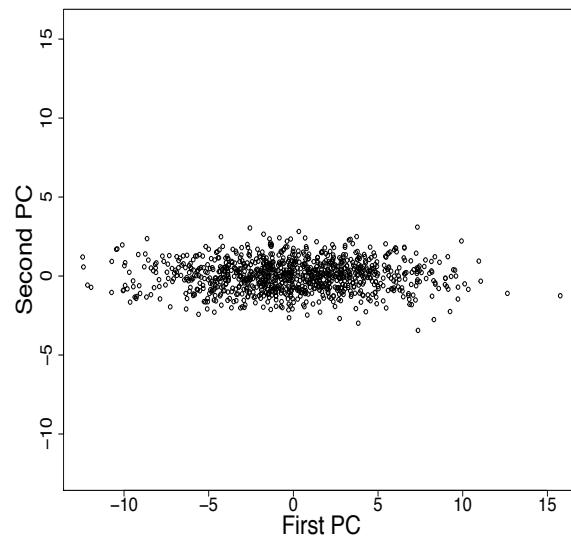
## Example: height of identical twins



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## Example: principal components



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## Example: eigenvectors and SDs

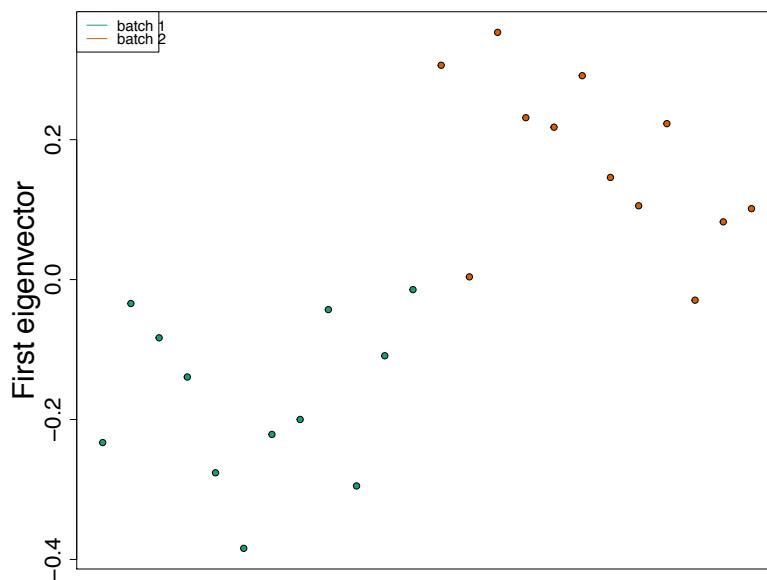
$$V_{2 \times 2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.706 & 0.708 \\ 0.708 & -0.706 \end{pmatrix} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} D_{2 \times 2} = \begin{pmatrix} 4.3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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[ RI ]

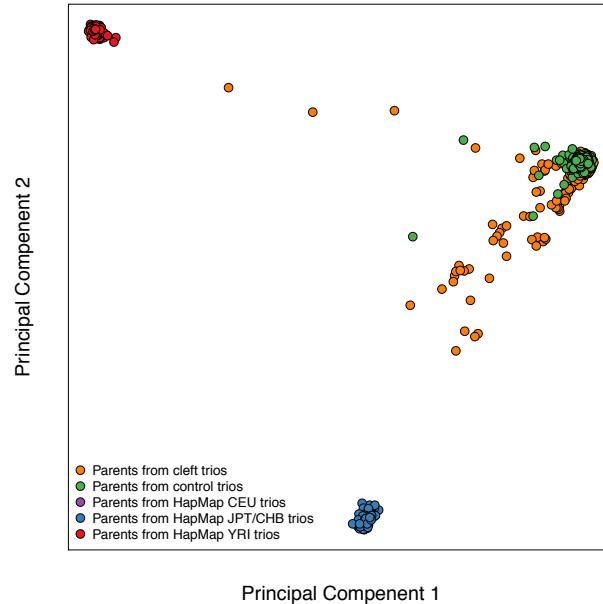
## Gene expression example



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[ RI ]

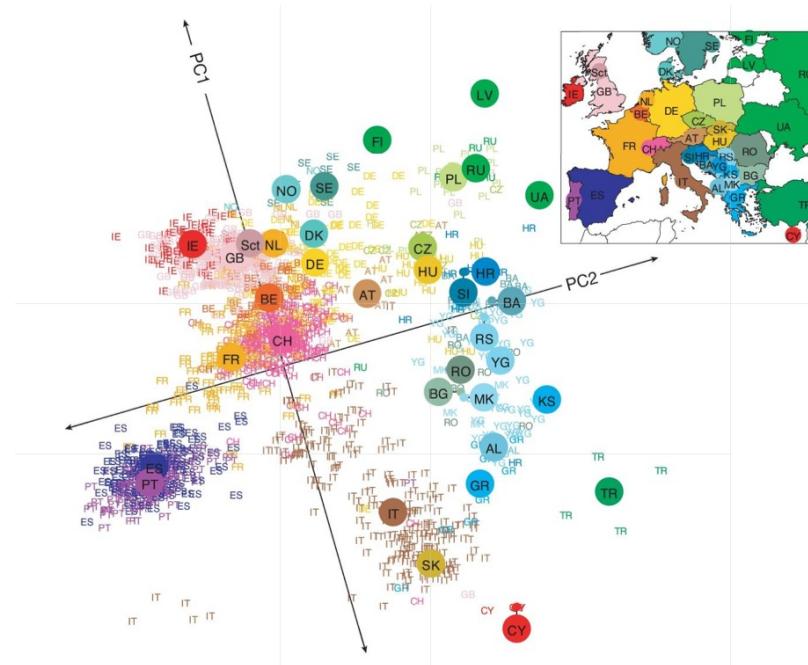
# Genetic heterogeneity



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PMID 24528994

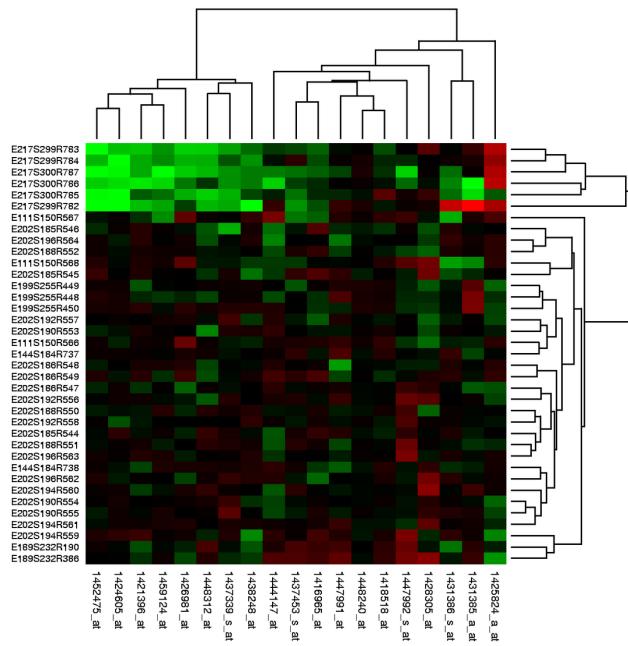
# Genetic heterogeneity



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PMID 18758442

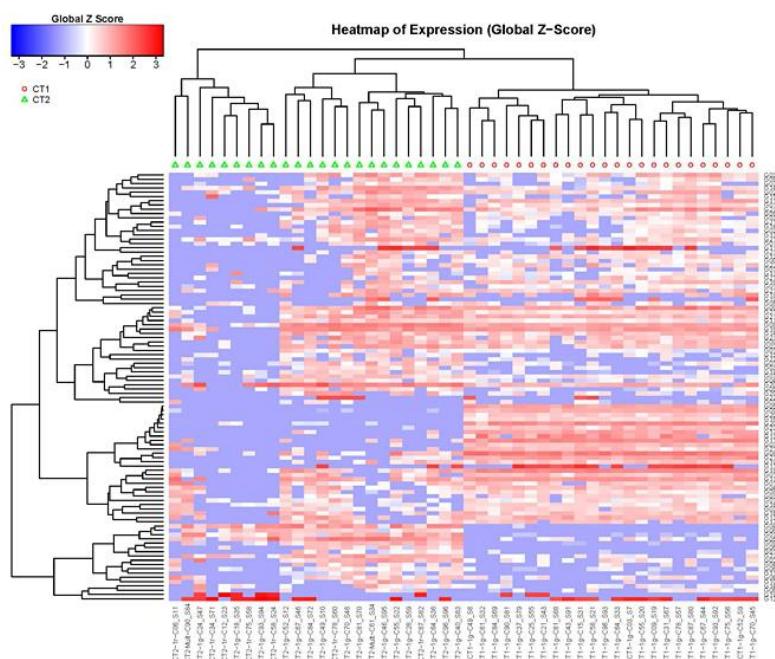
## A heatmap



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[commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Heatmap.png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Heatmap.png)

## Another heatmap



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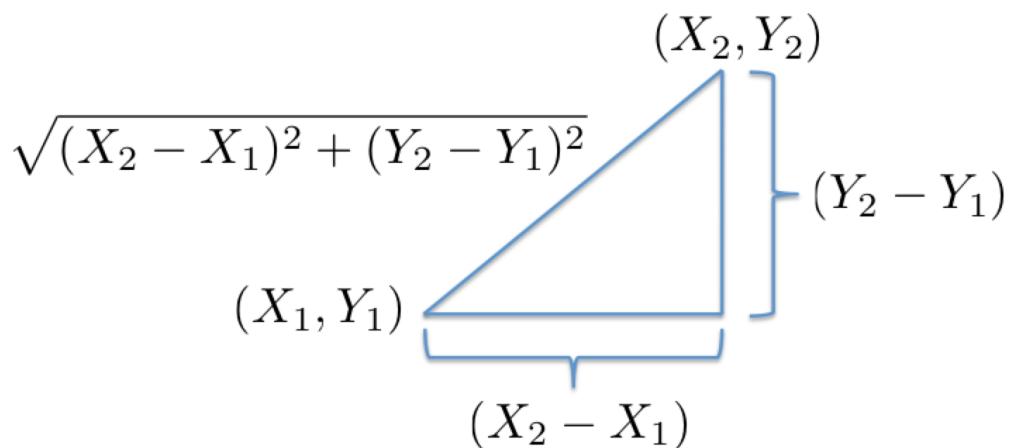
[www.fluidigm.com](http://www.fluidigm.com)

## Distance

- Clustering organizes things that are “close” into groups.
- What does it mean for two genes to be close?
- What does it mean for two samples to be close?
- Once we know this, how do we define groups?

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## Distance in two dimension



# Gene expression

Subset of a 22,215 x 189 gene expression table:

	kidney	kidney	kidney	hippocampus	hippocampus	hippocampus
201342_at	10.1	10.3	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.4
201343_at	9.1	9.6	9.2	9.6	9.7	9.0
201344_at	6.2	6.3	6.2	7.6	7.8	7.0
201345_s_at	9.1	10.0	9.3	9.4	9.3	8.3
201346_at	9.0	9.5	9.2	11.4	10.7	10.1
201347_x_at	12.0	10.0	11.5	9.4	9.3	8.6
201348_at	14.0	12.3	13.9	8.2	8.2	8.2
201349_at	10.4	9.7	10.0	9.2	8.8	8.9
201350_at	9.7	10.0	9.7	9.3	9.1	9.9
201351_s_at	8.4	8.8	8.5	8.0	8.2	6.8
201352_at	10.0	10.1	9.9	9.6	10.0	8.8
...						

[ RI ]

# Distances

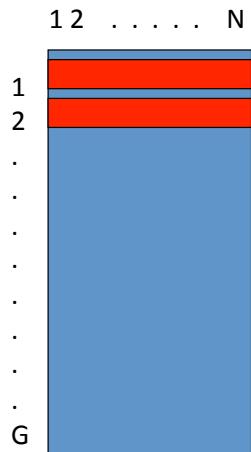
There are 17,776 pairs of samples for which we can compute a distance:

$$d(j, k) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{22,215} (X_{i,j} - X_{i,k})^2}$$

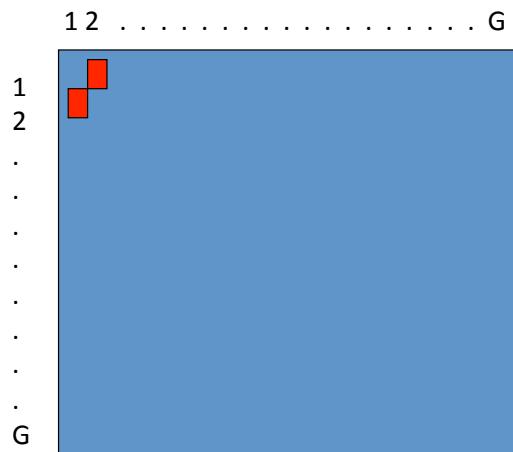
There are 246,742,005 pairs of genes for which we can compute a distance:

$$d(h, i) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^N (X_{h,j} - X_{i,j})^2}$$

## The similarity / distance matrices



DATA MATRIX

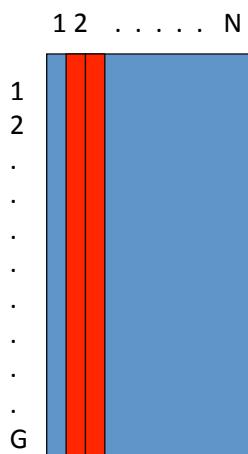


GENE SIMILARITY MATRIX

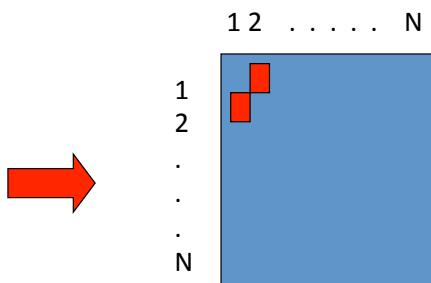
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[ 140.688 ]

## The similarity / distance matrices



DATA MATRIX



SAMPLE SIMILARITY MATRIX

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[ 140.688 ]

# Multidimensional scaling

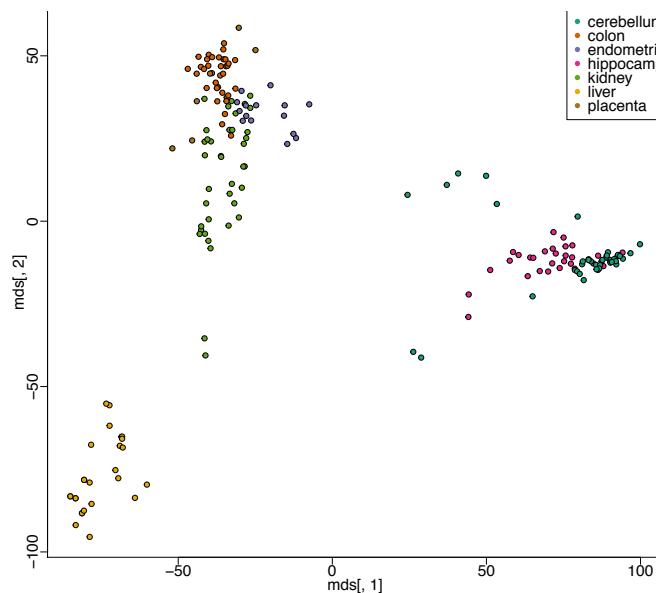
We can find a linear transformation for the data

$$Z = AX$$

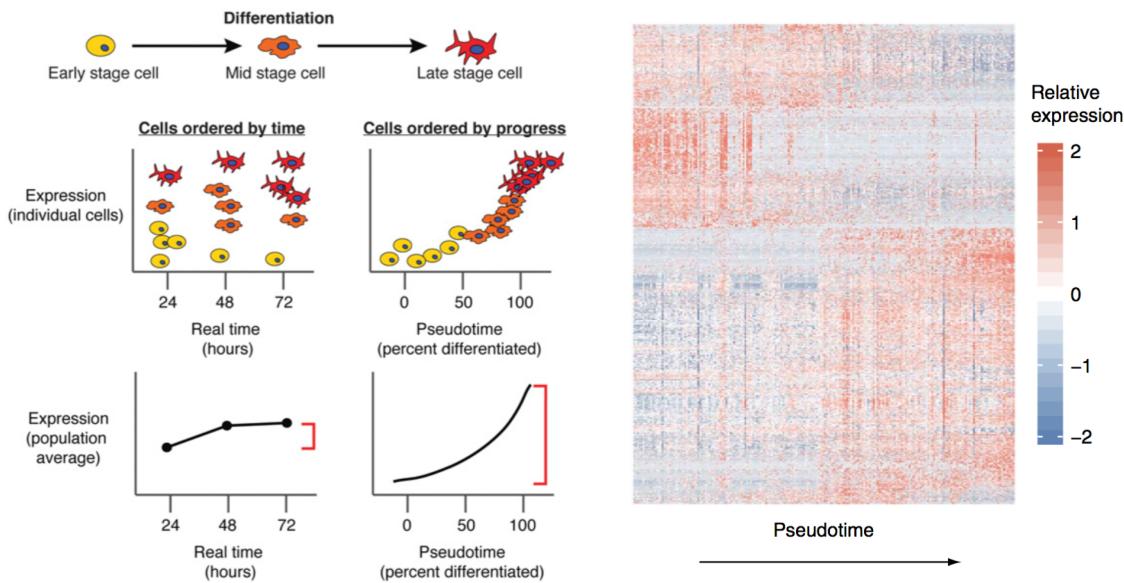
such that

$$\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{22,215} (X_{i,j} - X_{i,k})^2} \approx \sqrt{(Z_{1,j} - Z_{1,k})^2 + (Z_{2,j} - Z_{2,k})^2}$$

# Multidimensional scaling



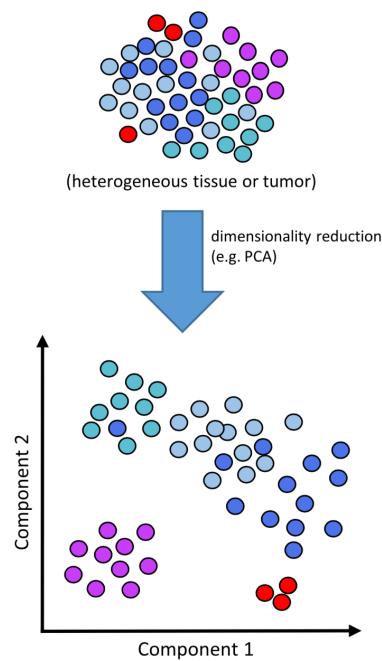
# Single cell RNAseq



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PMIDs 24658644, 26430159

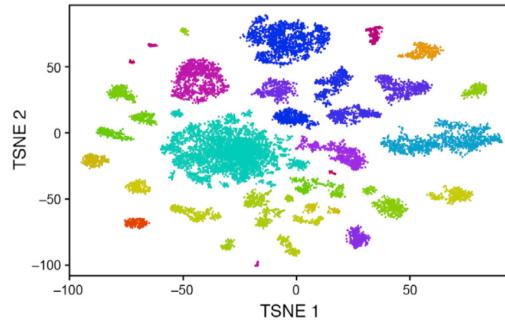
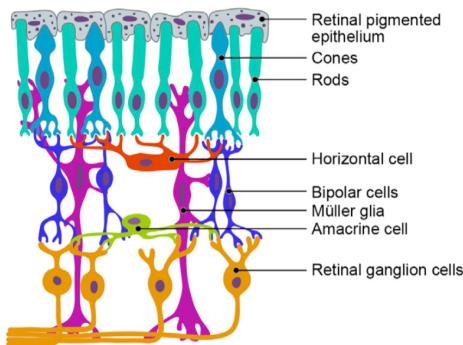
# Single cell RNAseq



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PMID 26949524

# Single cell RNAseq

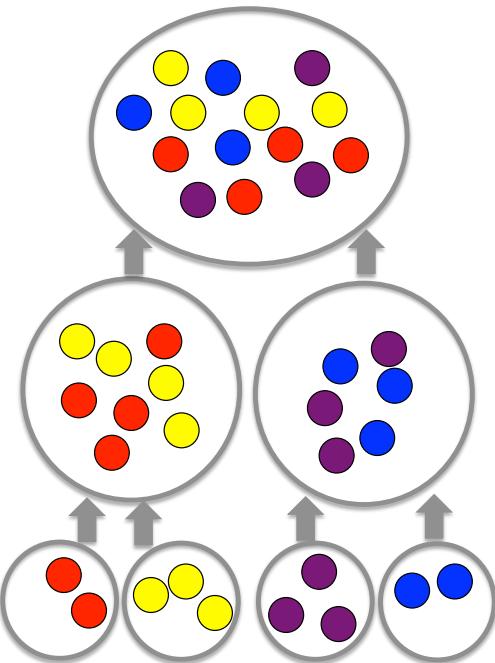


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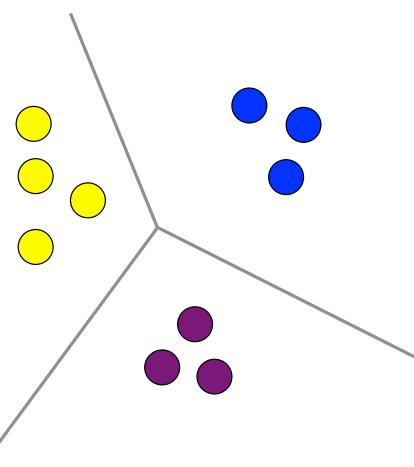
PMID 26000488

# Clustering

Hierarchical



Partitioning (K-means)

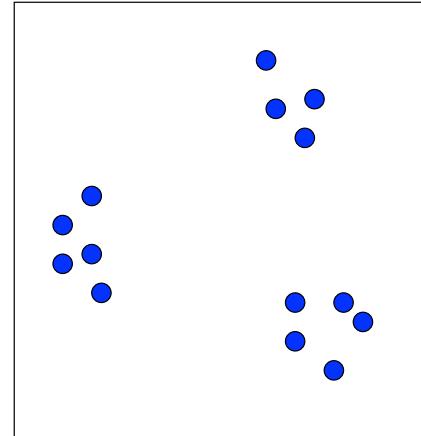


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[ 140.688 ]

## K-means

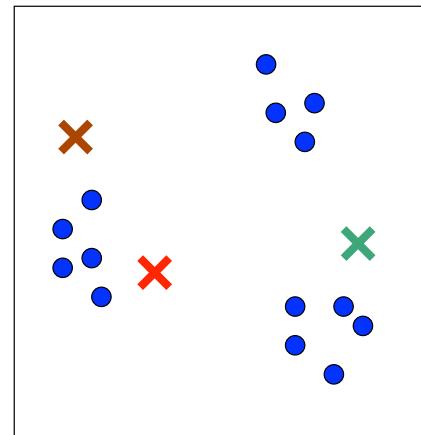
- We start with some data.
- For example:
  - We are showing expression for two samples for 14 genes.
  - We are showing expression for two genes for 14 samples.
- This is simplification.



Iteration = 0

## K-means

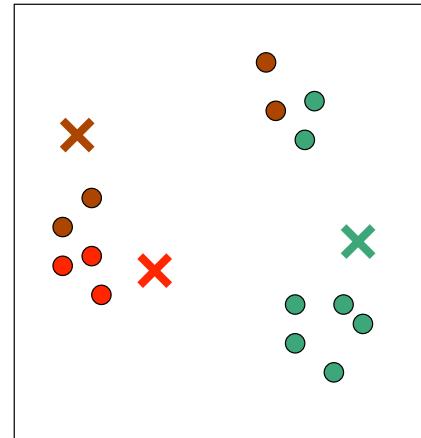
- Choose K *centroids*.
- These are starting values that the user picks.
- There are some data driven ways to do it.



Iteration = 0

## K-means

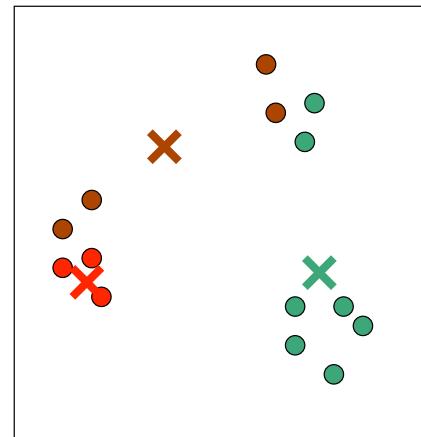
- Make first *partition* by finding the closest centroid for each point.
- This is where distance is used.



Iteration = 1

## K-means

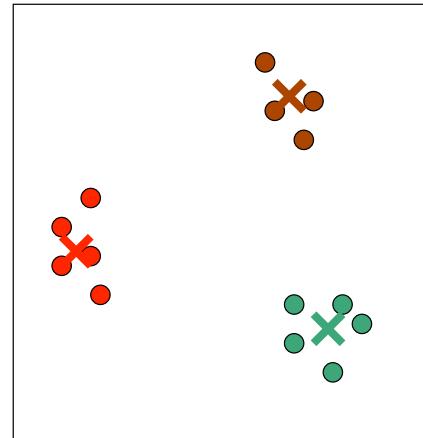
- Now re-compute the centroids by taking the *middle* of each cluster.



Iteration = 2

## K-means

- Repeat until the centroids stop moving or until you get tired of waiting.

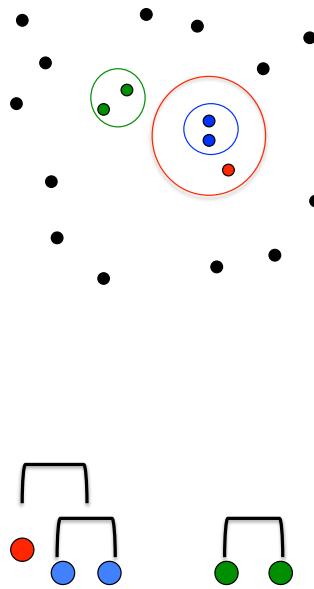


Iteration = 3

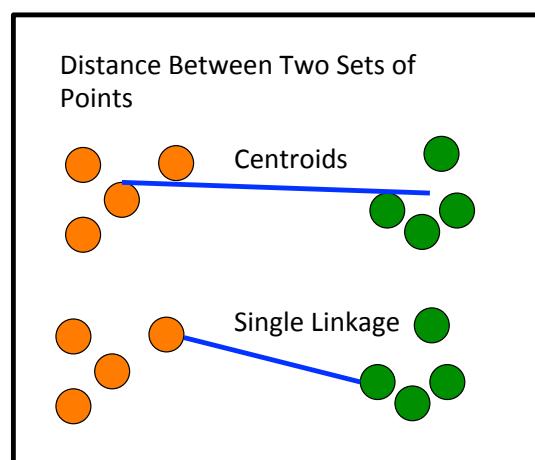
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[ 140.688 ]

## Hierarchical clustering algorithm



1. Say every point is its own cluster
2. Merge “closest” points
3. Repeat



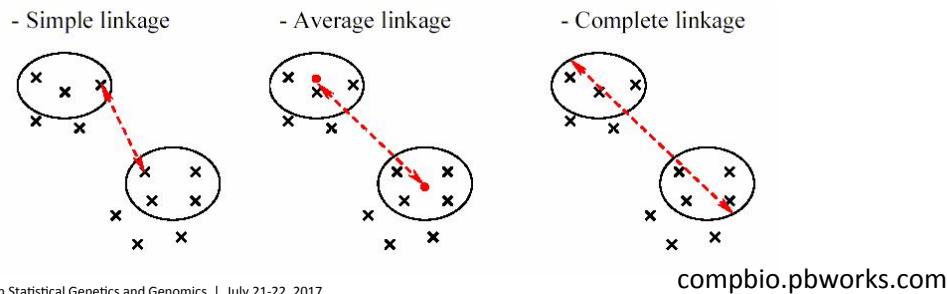
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# Linkage

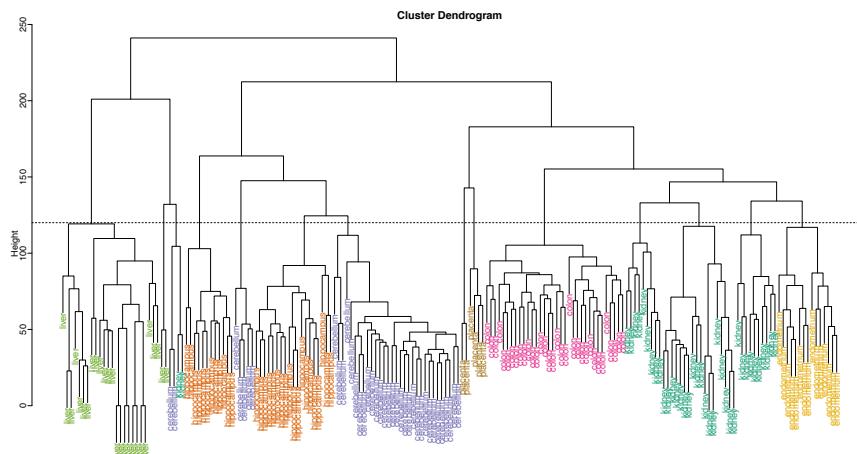
**Single linkage** defines the distance between clusters as the distance between the closest two points. Single linkage can lead to a lot of singleton clusters, and to clusters that look stringlike in high dimensions.

**Complete linkage** defines the distance between clusters as the distance between the farthest two points. Complete linkage tends to lead to more compact spherical structures.

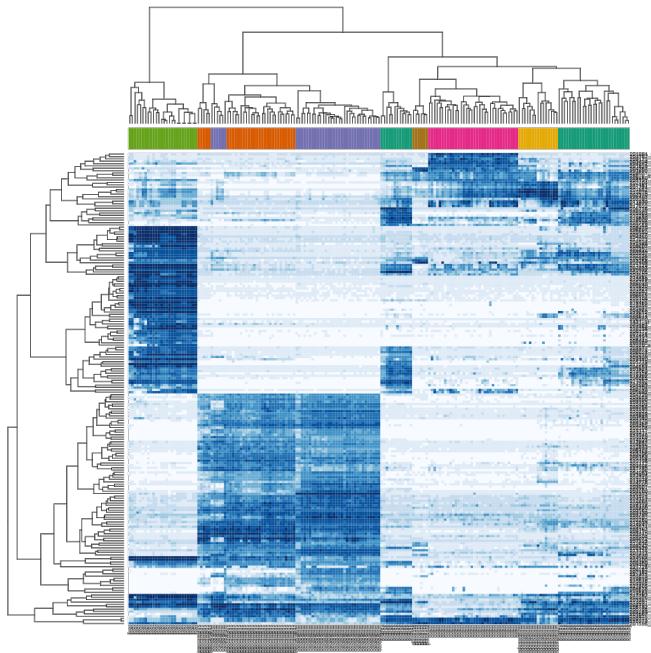
**Average linkage** is the average of all the pairwise distances between points in the two clusters. Average linkage is between single and complete linkage in terms of the type of clusters it outputs.



# A dendrogram



## A heatmap



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[ RI ]

### MACHINE LEARNING

## Clustering by fast search and find of density peaks

Alex Rodriguez and Alessandro Laio

Cluster analysis is aimed at classifying elements into categories on the basis of their similarity. Its applications range from astronomy to bioinformatics, bibliometrics, and pattern recognition. We propose an approach based on the idea that cluster centers are characterized by a higher density than their neighbors and by a relatively large distance from points with higher densities. This idea forms the basis of a clustering procedure in which the number of clusters arises intuitively, outliers are automatically spotted and excluded from the analysis, and clusters are recognized regardless of their shape and of the dimensionality of the space in which they are embedded. We demonstrate the power of the algorithm on several test cases.

The algorithm has its basis in the assumptions that cluster centers are surrounded by neighbors with lower local density and that they are at a relatively large distance from any points with a higher local density. For each data point  $i$ , we compute two quantities: its local density  $\rho_i$  and its distance  $\delta_i$  from points of higher density. Both these quantities depend only on the distances  $d_{ij}$  between data points, which are assumed to satisfy the triangular inequality. The local density  $\rho_i$  of data point  $i$  is defined as

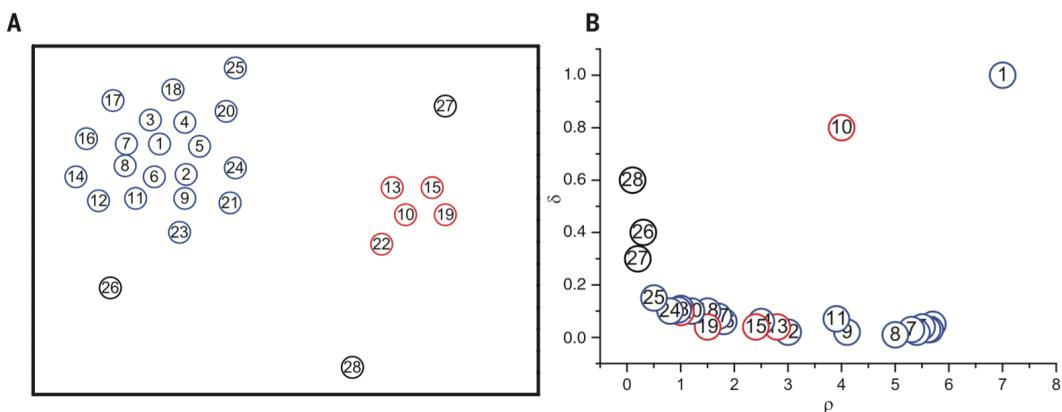
$$\rho_i = \sum_j \chi(d_{ij} - d_c) \quad (1)$$

where  $\chi(x) = 1$  if  $x < 0$  and  $\chi(x) = 0$  otherwise, and  $d_c$  is a cutoff distance. Basically,  $\rho_i$  is equal to the number of points that are closer than  $d_c$  to point  $i$ . The algorithm is sensitive only to the relative magnitude of  $\rho_i$  in different points, implying that, for large data sets, the results of the analysis are robust with respect to the choice of  $d_c$ .

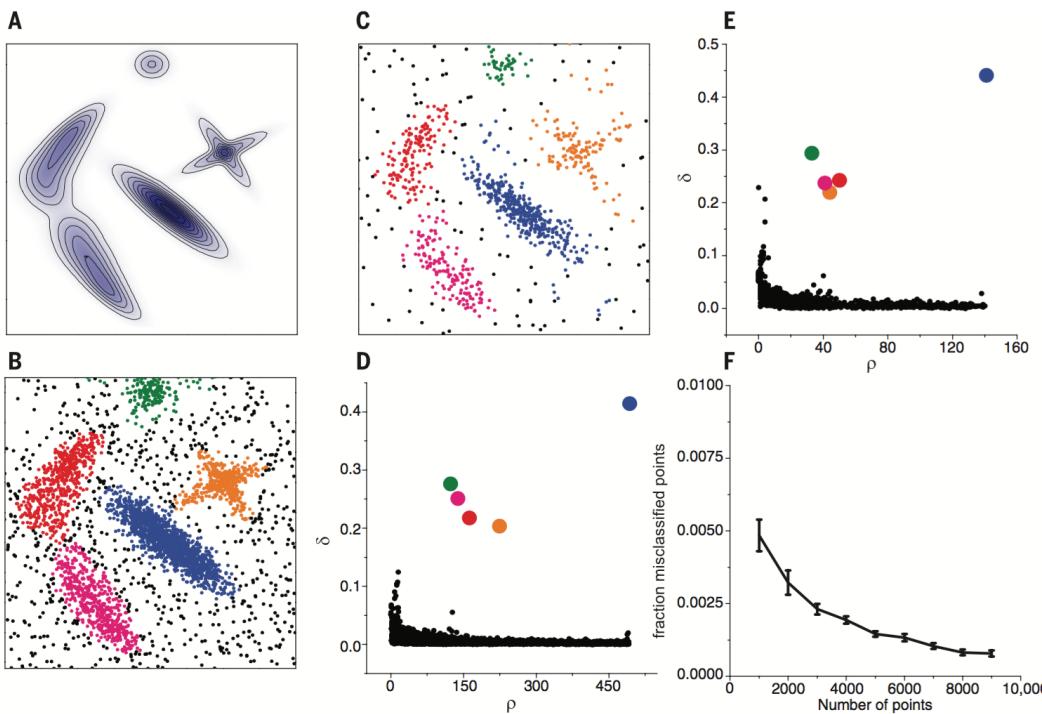
$\delta_i$  is measured by computing the minimum distance between the point  $i$  and any other point with higher density:

$$\delta_i = \min_{j: \rho_j > \rho_i} (d_{ij}) \quad (2)$$

For the point with highest density, we conventionally take  $\delta_i = \max_j (d_{ij})$ . Note that  $\delta_i$  is much larger than the typical nearest neighbor distance only for points that are local or global maxima in the density. Thus, cluster centers are recognized as points for which the value of  $\delta_i$  is anomalously large.



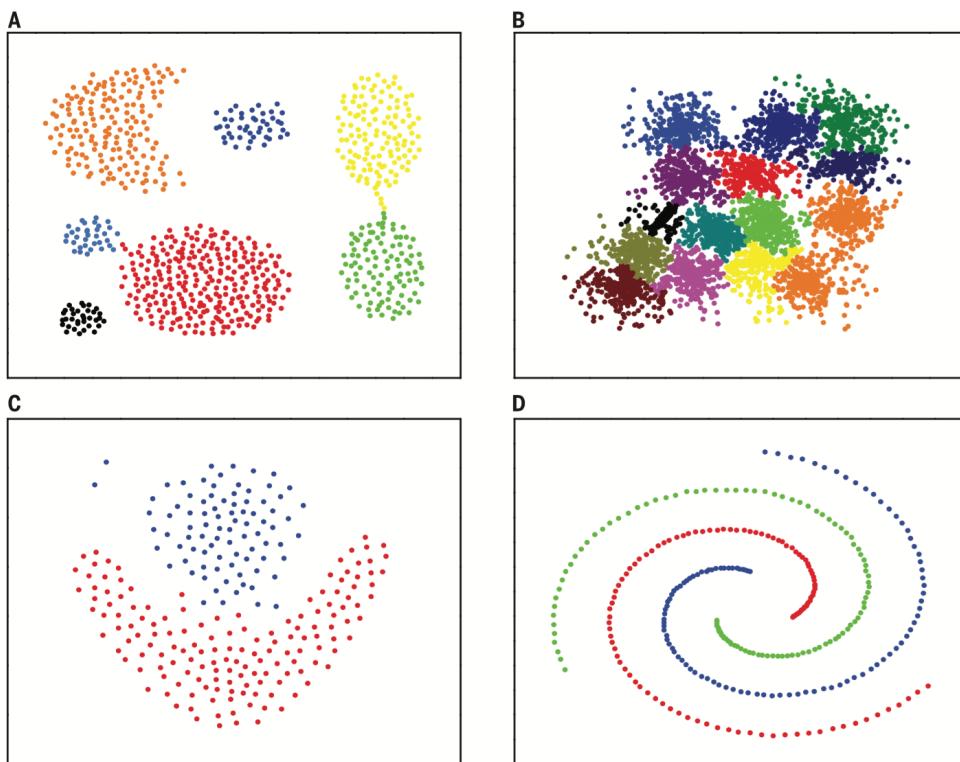
**Fig. 1. The algorithm in two dimensions.** (A) Point distribution. Data points are ranked in order of decreasing density. (B) Decision graph for the data in (A). Different colors correspond to different clusters.



**Fig. 2. Results for synthetic point distributions.** (A) The probability distribution from which point distributions are drawn. The regions with lowest intensity correspond to a background uniform probability of 20%. (B and C) Point distributions for samples of 4000 and 1000 points, respectively. Points are colored according to the cluster to which they are assigned. Black points belong to the cluster halos. (D and E) The corresponding decision graphs, with the centers colored by cluster. (F) The fraction of points assigned to the incorrect cluster as a function of the sample dimension. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

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PMID 24970081



**Fig. 3. Results for test cases in the literature.** Synthetic point distributions from (12) (A), (13) (B), (14) (C), and (15) (D).

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## Result 1

The distance is equivalent to the correlation when the data are standardized.

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \left( \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{s_X} - \frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{s_Y} \right)^2 =$$

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \left( \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{s_X} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \left( \frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{s_Y} \right)^2 - \frac{2}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \left( \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{s_X} \right) \left( \frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{s_Y} \right) =$$

$$2(1 - r)$$

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[ RI ]

## Result 2

The difference in the averages can drive the distance.

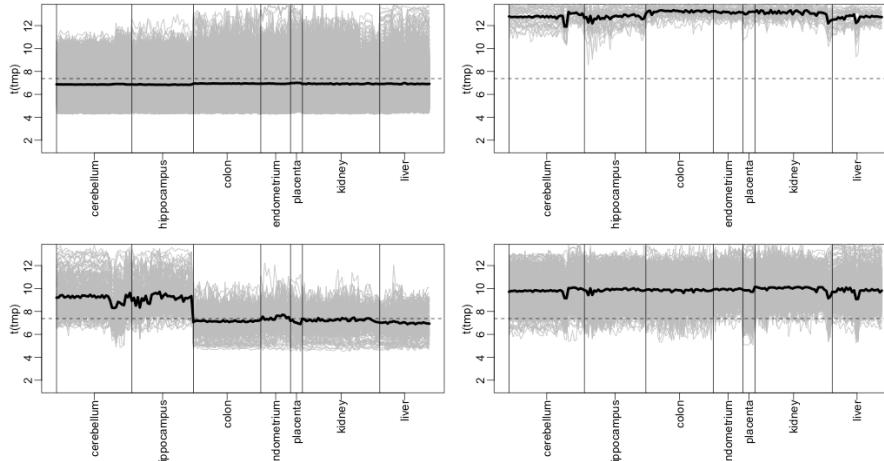
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M (X_i - Y_i)^2 &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \{(X_i - \bar{X}) - (Y_i - \bar{Y}) + (\bar{X} - \bar{Y})\}^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \{(X_i - \bar{X}) - (Y_i - \bar{Y})\}^2 + 2(\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \{(X_i - \bar{X}) - (Y_i - \bar{Y})\} + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M (\bar{X} - \bar{Y})^2 \\ &= 2(1 - r) + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M (\bar{X} - \bar{Y})^2 \\ &= 2(1 - r) + (\bar{X} - \bar{Y})^2 \end{aligned}$$

(assuming  $\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 1$ )

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[ RI ]

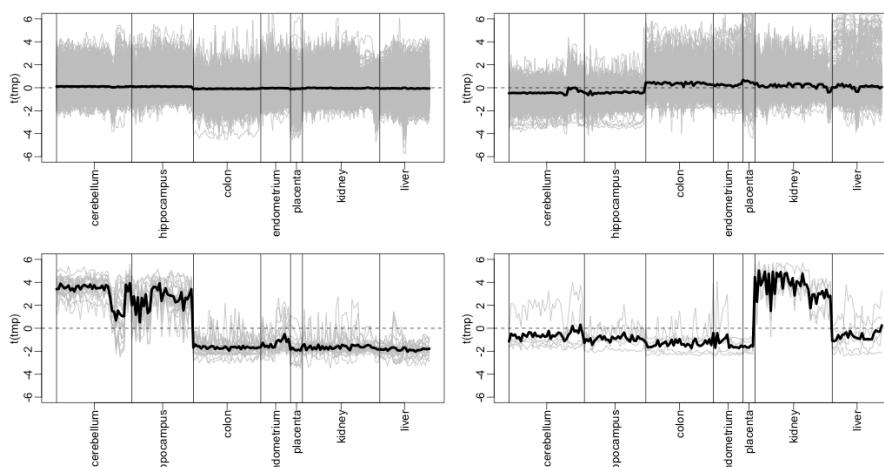
## Four gene cluster no mean removal



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[ RI ]

## Four gene cluster after mean removal

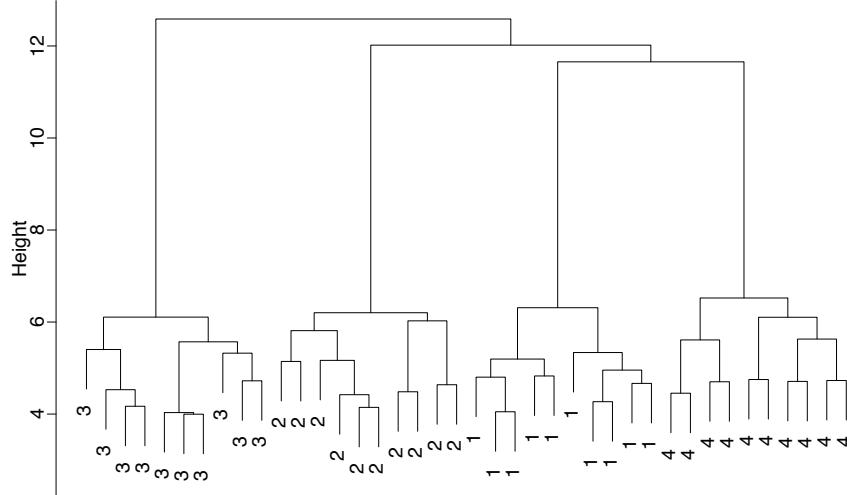


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[ RI ]

## Simulation

only differentially expressed genes

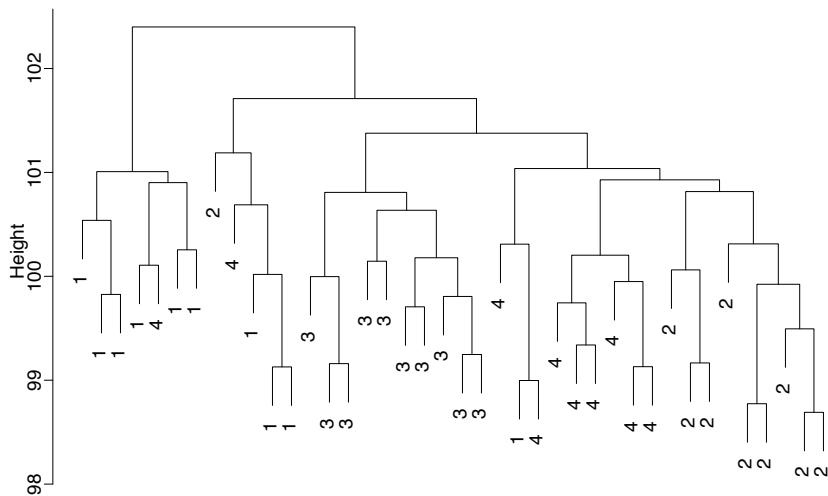


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[ RI ]

## Simulation

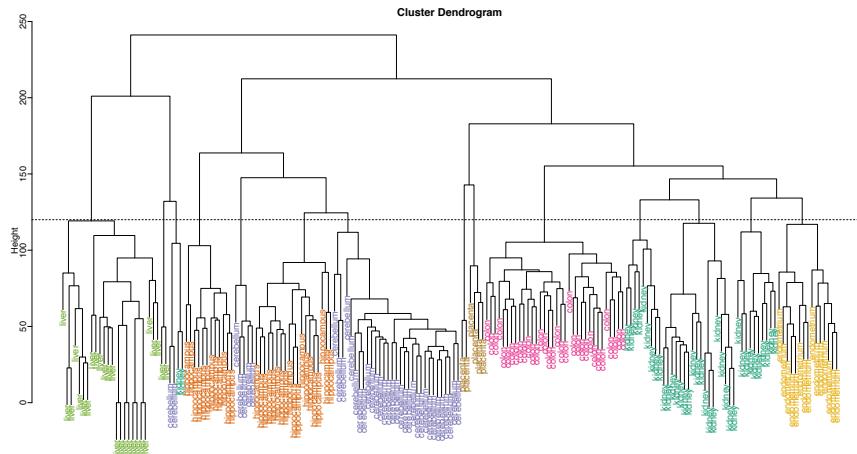
all genes



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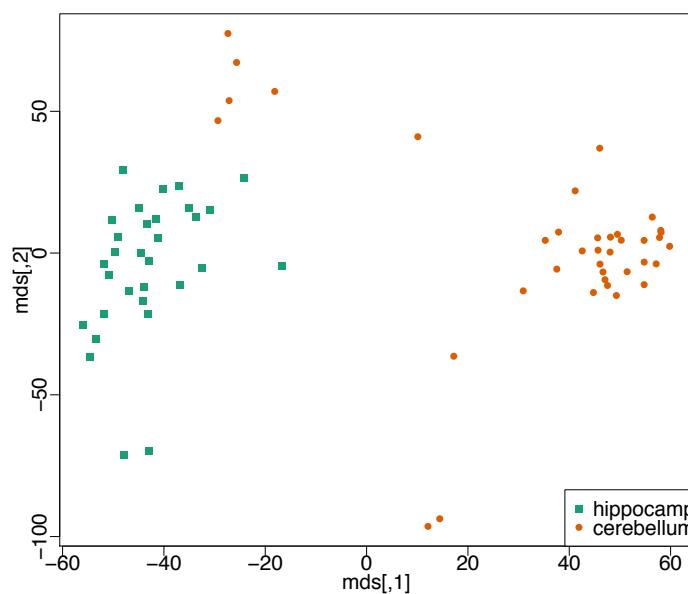
## Batch effects



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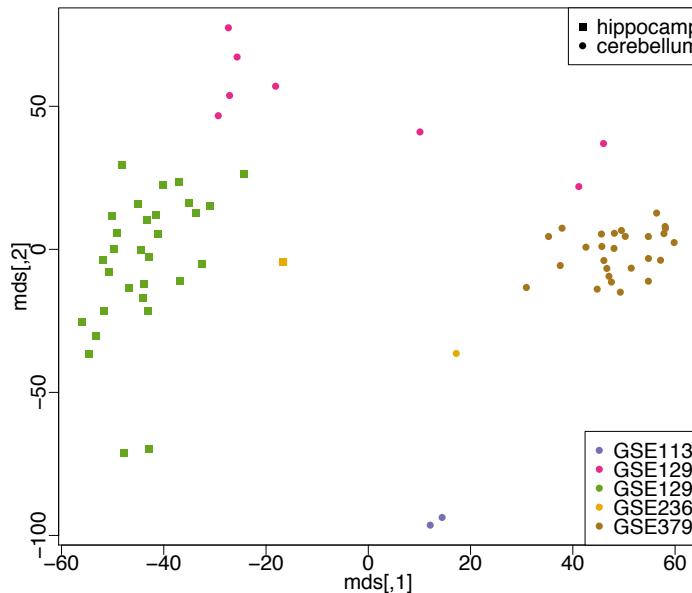
## Color represents tissue



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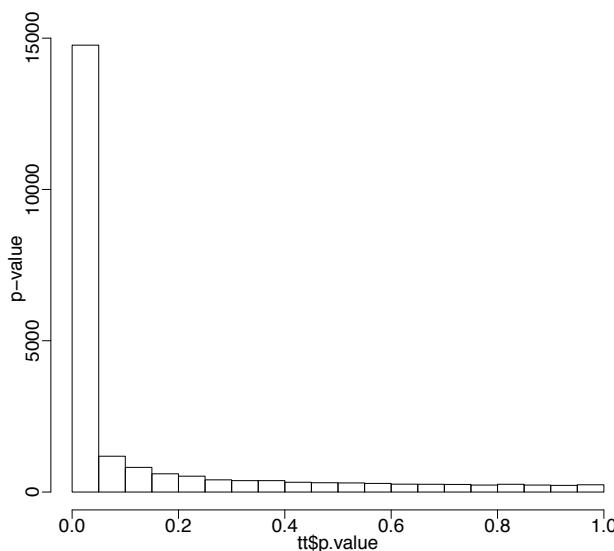
## Color represents study



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## Null distribution of p-values cerebellum only



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