# Introduction to Statistical Learning

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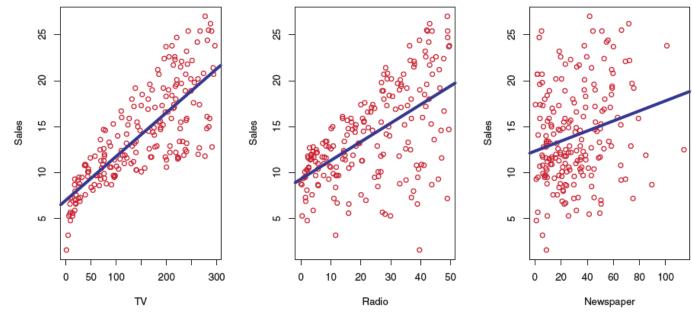
**School of Statistics** 

# What is Statistical Learning?

- Statistical learning refers to a vast set of tools for understanding data.
- These tools can be classified as supervised or unsupervised.

# Example

Suppose we are statistical consultants hired by a client to provide advice on how to improve sales of a particular product. We have sales data of the product in 200 different markets, along with advertising budgets for three different media: TV, radio, and newspaper.



# **Example**

- The advertising budgets are input variables while sales is an output variable. The input variables are typically denoted using the symbol X, a subscript to distinguish them.
- The inputs are also called as predictors, independent variables, features, or sometimes just variables.
- Output variables are also called response or dependent variable.

# **Example**

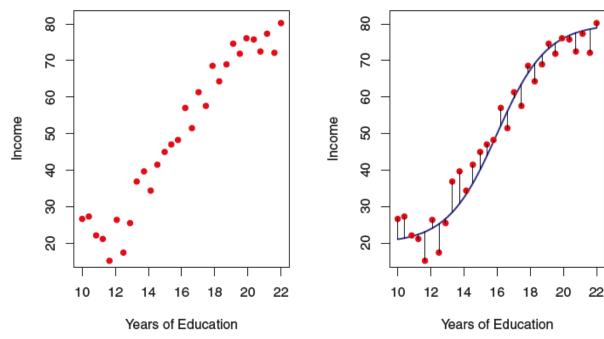
- In a general set-up, we have p different predictors,  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_p$ .
- We assume that there is a relationship between Y and  $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_p)$ , which can be written in a general form

$$Y = f(X) + \varepsilon$$

- f() is some unknown function that represents the systematic information that **X** provides about Y.
- $\varepsilon$  is a random error term.

# Example

- Below, we see the scatter plot between Income and Years od Education.
- We can view f as the systematic part, while the vertical lines are the error terms.



# What is Statistical Learning?

• In essence, statistical learning refers to a set of approaches for estimating f.

# Why estimate f?

 We estimate f for two main reasons: prediction and inference.

#### **Prediction**

• Using our estimate for f which we denote by  $\hat{f}$ , we obtain the predicted values of Y,

$$\widehat{Y} = \widehat{f}(\mathbf{X})$$

- $\hat{f}$  will not be a perfect estimate of f, and this inaccuracy will introduce some error. This error is reducible by choosing the most appropriate statistical learning technique.
- Prediction of Y will not be perfect because of the  $\varepsilon$  which we call the *irreducible error*.

#### Inference

- Here our goal is not much on predicting Y but on understanding how Y changes as a function of X.
- Here, we want to answer the following questions:
  - Which predictors are associated with the response?
  - What is the relationship between the response and each predictor?
  - Can the relationship between Y and each predictor be adequately summarized using a linear equation, or is the relationship more complicated?

# What is Supervised Statistical Learning?

- Supervised statistical learning involves building a statistical model for predicting, or estimating an output based on one or more inputs.
- Here we wish to fit a model that relates the response to the predictors, with the aim of making accurate predictions or understanding relationships between the response and the predictors.
- Examples: linear regression, logistic regression, GAM, boosting, support vector machines

# What is Unsupervised Statistical Learning?

- With unsupervised statistical learning, there are inputs but no supervising output; nevertheless we can learn relationships and structures from such data.
- Examples: cluster analysis (applied in market segmentation study)

# **Regression Versus Classification**

- We refer to problems with a quantitative response as regression problems.
- Problems involving a qualitative response are referred to as classification problems.
- We tend to select statistical learning methods on the basis of whether the response is quantitative or qualitative; i.e. we might use linear regression when quantitative and logistic regression when qualitative.

#### The R Environment

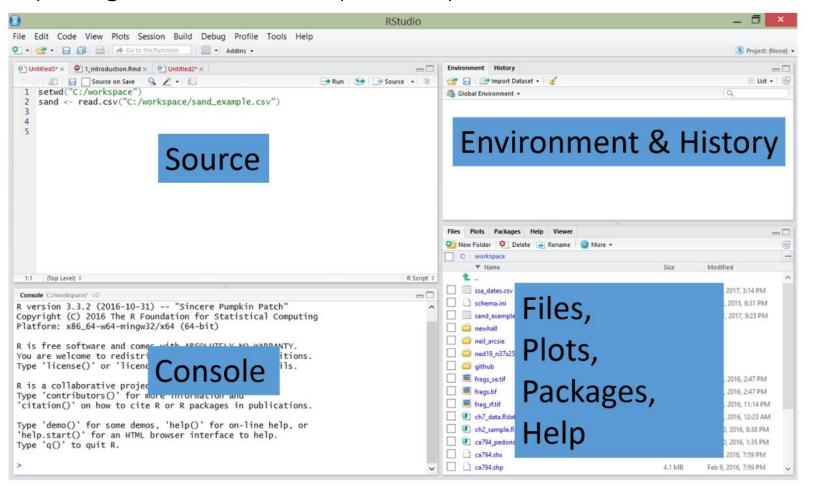
- **R** is an integrated suite of software facilities for data manipulation, calculation and graphical display.
- It is an open-source software environment for statistical computing and graphics.
- It is an environment within which many classical and modern statistical techniques have been implemented.
- A few of these techniques are built into the base R environment, but many are supplied as packages.

#### The R Environment

- **R** is an expression language with a very simple syntax. It is case sensitive.
- The entities that R creates and manipulates are known as objects. These may be variables, arrays of numbers, character strings, functions, or more general structures built from such components.

#### **RStudio**

• R Studio provides a graphical interface for R. The components of the environment are all nicely integrated into a four-panel layout.



#### **RStudio**

- The Rstudio provides most of the desired features for in Integrated Development Environment (IDE).
- The **console** provides the command-line interface for interactive use of R. This is where users issue commands for R to evaluate.
- The source tab is a built-in text editor.
- The Environment tab is an interactive list of R objects.
- The **Files** tab displays the files and subdirectories of a given directory.
- Display of graphics is rendered in the **Plots** tab.

#### **RStudio**

- Rstudio keeps a stack of past commands and allows one to scroll through them easily. This can be done using the up or down keys. In addition, the **History** browser allows one to scroll through past commands.
- The Packages browser allows users to effortlessly load, install, update, and/or delete packages in the library of packages.
- The Help tab is an output location for help commands and help search window.
- The Viewer tab is an advanced tab for local web content.

#### **Basic Commands**

• **R** uses functions to perform operations. To run a function called **funcname**, we type

funcname(input1, input2)

# Example

We use the function c() to create a vector of numbers

```
> x <- c(1,3,2,5)
> x
[1] 1 3 2 5
```

#### **Basic Commands**

- Note that the > is not part of the command; rather, it is printed by R to indicate that it is ready for another command to be entered.
- We can also save things using = rather than <-.</li>

```
 > x = c(1,6,2) 
 > x 
 [1] 1 6 2 
 > y = c(1,4,3)
```

#### **Basic Commands**

- Hitting the *up* arrow multiple times will display the previous commands, which then be edited.
- Typing ?funcname will cause R to open a new help file window with additional information about the function funcname.

# Data Type and Objects

- Scalars atomic quantity and can hold only one value at a time.
   Examples: number, logical value, character(string)
- Vector a sequence of data elements of the same basic type.
- Matrix a collection of data elements in a rectangular layout.
- Data Frame more general than a matrix, in that different columns can have different basic types.
- List a generic vector containing other objects.

#### **Basic Commands**

We can check the length of a vector using the length() function.

```
> length(x)
[1] 3
> length(y)
[1] 3
> x+y
[1] 2 10 5
```

#### **Basic Commands**

• The 1s() function allows us to look at a list of all of the objects, such as data and functions, that we have saved so far. The rm() function can be used to delete any that we don't want

```
> ls()
[1] "x" "y"
> rm(x,y)
> ls()
character(0)
> rm(list=ls())
```

#### **Basic Commands**

- The matrix() can be used to create a matrix of numbers.
- The basic inputs for the function are: the entries, number of rows, and number of columns.

#### **Basic Commands**

 The byrow=TRUE option can be used to populate the matrix in order of the rows.

```
> matrix(c(1,2,3,4),2,2,byrow=TRUE)
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]     1      2
[2,]     3      4
```

 Notice that in the above command, we did not assign the matrix to a value such as x. In this case, the matrix is printed to the screen but is not saved for future calculations.

#### **Basic Commands**

- The sqrt() function returns the square root of each element of a vector or matrix.
- The command  $x^2$  raises each element of x to the power of 2.

```
> sqrt(x)
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1.00 1.73
[2,] 1.41 2.00
> x^2
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 9
[2,] 4 16
```

#### **Basic Commands**

• The rnorm() function generates a vector of random standard normal variables, with first argument n the sample size. Each time we call this function, we will get a different answer. We use the set.seed() function to reproduce the exact same set of random numbers.

```
> set.seed(1303)
> rnorm(50)
[1] -1.1440 1.3421 2.1854 0.5364 0.0632 0.5022 -0.0004
. . .
```

 The mean and standard deviation can be altered using the mean and sd arguments.

#### **Basic Commands**

# **Example**

 Let us create two correlated sets of numbers x and y, and use the cor() function to compute the correlation between them.

```
> x=rnorm(50)
> y=x+rnorm(50,mean=50,sd=.1)
> cor(x,y)
[1] 0.995
```

#### **Basic Commands**

 The mean() and var() functions can be used to compute the mean and variance of a vector of numbers.
 Applying the sqrt() to the out of var() will give the standard deviation.

```
> set.seed(3)
> y=rnorm(100)
> mean(y)
[1] 0.0110
> var(y)
[1] 0.7329
> sqrt(var(y))
[1] 0.8561
> sd(y)
[1] 0.8561
```

#### **Basic Commands**

- The function getwd() is used to get the working directory.
- To set to working directory, we use the function setwd()

#### **Basic Commands**

The plot() function is the primary way to plot data in R.
 For instance plot(x,y) produces a scatterplot of the numbers in x versus the numbers in y.

#### **Basic Commands**

 To save the output of plot(), we use pdf() to create a pdf and use jpeg() to create a jpeg.

```
> pdf("Figure.pdf")
> plot(x,y,col="green")
```

• When you're done with plotting your commands, enter the dev.off() command. Otherwise, you'll get a partial plot or nothing at all.

#### **Basic Commands**

• The function seq() can be used to create a sequence of numbers. For instance, seq(a,b) makes a vector of integers between a and b. seq(0,1,length=10) makes a sequence of 10 numbers that are equally spaced between 0 and 1. Typing 3:11 is a shorthand for seq(3:11) for integer arguments.

```
> x = seq(1,10)
> x
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
> x = 1:10
> x
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
> x = seq(-pi,pi,length=50)
```

#### **Basic Commands**

Supposing we have the following data:

 To get the element in the second row and third column we type

```
> A[2,3]
[1] 10
```

#### **Basic Commands**

We can also select multiple columns and rows at a time:

```
> A[c(1,3),c(2,4)]
    [,1] [,2]
[1,] 5 13
[2,] 7 15
> A[1:3,2:4]
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 5 9 13
[2,] 6 10 14
[3,] 7 11 15
> A[1:2,]
    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,] 1 5 9
               13
[2,] 2 6 10 14
```

#### **Basic Commands**

R treats a single row or column of a matrix as a vector.

```
> A[1,]
[1] 1 5 9 13
```

 The use of a negative sign will keep all rows or columns except those indicated in the index.

```
> A[-c(1,3),]
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,] 2 6 10 14
[2,] 4 8 12 16
> A[-c(1,3),-c(1,3,4)]
[1] 6 8
> dim(A)
[1] 4 4
```

#### **Basic Commands**

• To install a package in R, we use the install.packages(" ") function in R.

# Example

> install.packages("ISLR")

The datasets we will use are available in the ISLR package.

To load or attach a package, we use the library() function.

#### **Basic Commands**

- We use the function write.table() or write.csv() to export data.
- To import data into R, the read.table() function is one of the primary ways to do this.
- An easy way to load an Excel data into R is to save it as a csv file and then using the read.csv() function to load it in.

```
> Auto=read.csv("Auto.csv",header=T,na.strings="?")
> fix(Auto)
> dim(Auto)
[1] 397 9
> Auto[1:4,]
```

#### **Basic Commands**

- The dim() functions tells us the number of observations (rows) and variables (columns) in the data.
- We can use names() to check the variable names.

```
> names(Auto)
[1] "mpg" "cylinders" "displacement" "horsepower"
[5] "weight" "acceleration" "year" "origin"
[9] "name"
```

#### **Basic Commands**

• To refer to a variable, we must type the data set and the variable named joined with a \$ symbol. For instance, to get the scatterplot between cylinders and mpg, we have:

```
> plot(Auto$cylinders, Auto$mpg)
```

• Alternatively, we can use the attach() function:

```
> attach(Auto)
> plot(cylinders, mpg)
```

#### **Basic Commands**

• The as.factor() function converts quantitative variables into qualitative variables.

```
> cylinders=as.factor(cylinders)
```

 If the variable plotted on the x-axis is categorical, then boxplots will automatically be produced by the plot() function.

```
> plot(cylinders, mpg)
> plot(cylinders, mpg, col="red")
> plot(cylinders, mpg, col="red", varwidth=T)
> plot(cylinders, mpg, col="red", varwidth=T, horizontal=T)
> plot(cylinders, mpg, col="red", varwidth=T, xlab="cylinders", ylab="MPG")
```

#### **Basic Commands**

• The hist() function can be used to plot a histogram.

```
> hist(mpg)
> hist(mpg,col=2)
> hist(mpg,col=2,breaks=15)
```

• The pairs() function produces a scatterplot matrix.

```
> pairs(Auto)
> pairs(\sim mpg + displacement + horsepower + weight + acceleration, Auto)
```

#### **Basic Commands**

- The summary() function produces a numerical summary of each variable in a particular data set.
- We use q() in order to quit R.
- We use savehistory() function to save a record of all the commands that we typed in the most recent session.
- We use loadhistory() to load the history of commands.