

6. Describe the differences between a parametric and a non-parametric statistical learning approach. What are the advantages of a parametric approach to regression or classification (as opposed to a non-parametric approach)? What are its disadvantages?
7. The table below provides a training data set containing six observations, three predictors, and one qualitative response variable.

Obs.	X_1	X_2	X_3	Y
1	0	3	0	Red
2	2	0	0	Red
3	0	1	3	Red
4	0	1	2	Green
5	-1	0	1	Green
6	1	1	1	Red

Suppose we wish to use this data set to make a prediction for Y when $X_1 = X_2 = X_3 = 0$ using K -nearest neighbors.

- (a) Compute the Euclidean distance between each observation and the test point, $X_1 = X_2 = X_3 = 0$.
- (b) What is our prediction with $K = 1$? Why?
- (c) What is our prediction with $K = 3$? Why?
- (d) If the Bayes decision boundary in this problem is highly non-linear, then would we expect the *best* value for K to be large or small? Why?

Applied

8. This exercise relates to the **College** data set, which can be found in the file **College.csv** on the book website. It contains a number of variables for 777 different universities and colleges in the US. The variables are

- **Private** : Public/private indicator
- **Apps** : Number of applications received
- **Accept** : Number of applicants accepted
- **Enroll** : Number of new students enrolled
- **Top10perc** : New students from top 10 % of high school class
- **Top25perc** : New students from top 25 % of high school class
- **F.Undergrad** : Number of full-time undergraduates
- **P.Undergrad** : Number of part-time undergraduates

- **Outstate** : Out-of-state tuition
- **Room.Board** : Room and board costs
- **Books** : Estimated book costs
- **Personal** : Estimated personal spending
- **PhD** : Percent of faculty with Ph.D.'s
- **Terminal** : Percent of faculty with terminal degree
- **S.F.Ratio** : Student/faculty ratio
- **perc.alumni** : Percent of alumni who donate
- **Expend** : Instructional expenditure per student
- **Grad.Rate** : Graduation rate

Before reading the data into **R**, it can be viewed in Excel or a text editor.

- (a) Use the `read.csv()` function to read the data into **R**. Call the loaded data `college`. Make sure that you have the directory set to the correct location for the data.
- (b) Look at the data using the `View()` function. You should notice that the first column is just the name of each university. We don't really want **R** to treat this as data. However, it may be handy to have these names for later. Try the following commands:

```
> rownames(college) <- college[, 1]
> View(college)
```

You should see that there is now a `row.names` column with the name of each university recorded. This means that **R** has given each row a name corresponding to the appropriate university. **R** will not try to perform calculations on the row names. However, we still need to eliminate the first column in the data where the names are stored. Try

```
> college <- college[, -1]
> View(college)
```

Now you should see that the first data column is `Private`. Note that another column labeled `row.names` now appears before the `Private` column. However, this is not a data column but rather the name that **R** is giving to each row.

- (c)
 - i. Use the `summary()` function to produce a numerical summary of the variables in the data set.
 - ii. Use the `pairs()` function to produce a scatterplot matrix of the first ten columns or variables of the data. Recall that you can reference the first ten columns of a matrix **A** using `A[,1:10]`.