## Introduction to Statistical Programming

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# Introduction

## What is the R language?

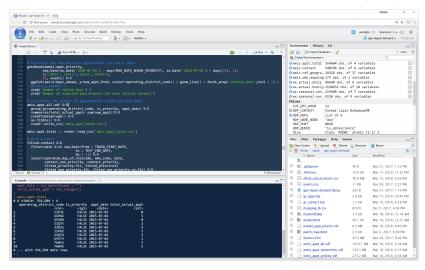
- Offers modern and sophisticated statistical algorithms
- Used by millions of analysts and researchers worldwide
- Has a thriving open-source community
- Enables big data analytics

## Easy to Use

- ► PROC REG = lm() or glm()
- ► PROC SQL = %>%
- PROC SORT = arrange()
- PROC MEANS = mean(), sd()
- ▶ PROC GPLOT = plot(), ggplot(), autoplot()

#### RStudio Server Pro

RStudio is your integrated development environment (IDE)



## **Packages**

- **CRAN** is the Comprehensive R Archive Network.
- User-contributed packages: source code, binaries, documentation.

```
# Install a new package with all its dependencies
install.packages("ggplot2", dependencies = TRUE)
# Load an installed package
# (both lines are identical)
library(ggplot2)
library("ggplot2")
```

## **Packages**

- ► CRAN Task View is a curated list of packages.
- https://cran.r-project.org/web/views/

```
library(ctv)
# Install a CRAN Task View
install.views("Econometrics")
# Update a CRAN Task View
update.views("Econometrics")
```

#### Vectors

- R is a vectorised programming language.
- Vector contains objects of the same data type.

```
# Create a vector of integers one to ten
myVec1 <- 1:10
# Find out the length of vector
length(myVec1)
## [1] 10
# Reverse the vector
rev(myVec1)
## [1] 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
# Create a custom vector of 10, 15, 20, 25, 30
myVec2 <- c(10, 15, 20, 25, 30)
myVec2
## [1] 10 15 20 25 30
# Create a vector of sequential numbers
myVec3 \leftarrow seq(from = -10, to = 10, by = 0.5)
mvVec3
## [1] -10.0 -9.5 -9.0 -8.5 -8.0 -7.5 -7.0 -6.5 -6.0 -5.5 -5.0
  [12] -4.5 -4.0 -3.5 -3.0 -2.5 -2.0 -1.5 -1.0 -0.5
                                                          0.0 0.5
##
## [23] 1.0 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 4.5
                                                     5.0
                                                          5.5 6.0
## [34] 6.5 7.0 7.5 8.0 8.5 9.0 9.5 10.0
```

## Subsetting a Vector

You can subset members from a vector.

```
# Select the second member of the vector
myVec1[2]
## [1] 2
# Subset a range from the vector
myVec1[2:4]
## [1] 2 3 4
# Subset specified elements
myVec1[c(4,2,3)]
## [1] 4 2 3
```

## **Vectorised Operations**

Operations in R are vectorised.

```
# Arithmetic operations
myVec1 + 10
## [1] 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
myVec1 - 10
## [1] -9 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0
myVec1 * 2
## [1] 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20
myVec1 / 2
## [1] 0.5 1.0 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 4.5 5.0
myVec1 ^ 2
## [1] 1 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81 100
log(myVec1)
## [1] 0.0000000 0.6931472 1.0986123 1.3862944 1.6094379 1.7917595 1.9459101
    [8] 2.0794415 2.1972246 2.3025851
```

### Looping

- Looping can be slow.
- Always try to vectorise your code.

```
# Vectorised operation is fast
system.time({
 myResult <- 1:100000 * 2
     user system elapsed
##
##
        0
                0
# Looping is quite slow
system.time({
 myResult <- sapply(1:100000, function(x){ x * 2 })
     user system elapsed
##
     0.08 0.00 0.08
# Appending to vector is much slower
system.time({
 myResult <- c()
 for(i in 1:100000){
   myResult <- c(myResult, i * 2)
##
     user system elapsed
     20.95
           0.19
```

#### **Functions**

Functions are vectorised.

```
# Defines a custom function
myFunc <- function(x) {</pre>
  x * 2
# Execute the function with one input
myFunc(5)
## [1] 10
# Execute the function with an integer vector
myFunc(1:10)
## [1] 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20
```

#### Character Vectors

Vector can also contain character objects.

```
# Vector can contain character objects
myVec4 <- c("Bill", "Mark", "Steve", "Jeff", "Larry")
myVec4
## [1] "Bill" "Mark" "Steve" "Jeff" "Larry"
# Constant character vectors in R
LETTERS
## [1] "A" "B" "C" "D" "E" "F" "G" "H" "I" "J" "K" "L" "M" "N" "O" "P" "O"
## [18] "R" "S" "T" "U" "V" "W" "X" "Y" "Z"
letters
## [1] "a" "b" "c" "d" "e" "f" "g" "h" "i" "j" "k" "l" "m" "n" "o" "p" "q"
## [18] "r" "s" "t" "u" "v" "w" "x" "v" "z"
month.name
## [1] "January" "February" "March"
                                         "April" "May"
## [6] "June" "July"
                              "August"
                                         "September" "October"
## [11] "November" "December"
month.abb
## [1] "Jan" "Feb" "Mar" "Apr" "May" "Jun" "Jul" "Aug" "Sep" "Oct" "Nov"
## [12] "Dec"
```

## Vectors - Other Data Types

Vector can contain objects of any data type.

#### List

List is a generic container for objects of different data types

```
myFavBook <- list(title = "R for Data Science",</pre>
                   authors = c("Garrett Grolemund", "Hadley Wickham"),
                   publishDate = as.Date("2016-12-12"),
                   price = 18.17,
                   currency = "USD",
                   edition = 1,
                  isbn = 1491910399
myFavBook
## $title
## [1] "R for Data Science"
##
## $authors
## [1] "Garrett Grolemund" "Hadley Wickham"
##
## $publishDate
## [1] "2016-12-12"
##
## $price
## [1] 18.17
##
## $currency
## [1] "USD"
##
## $edition
## [1] 1
##
## $isbn
## [1] 1491910399
```

### Subsetting a List

You can subset a particular member from a list

```
# Select a named member of a list
# Using the dollar sign, followed by name without bracket
myFavBook$title
## [1] "R for Data Science"
# Using double squared brackets with member's name as string
myFavBook[["authors"]]
## [1] "Garrett Grolemund" "Hadley Wickham"
# Select the fourth member in the list
myFavBook[[4]]
## [1] 18.17
```

## Special Numbers in R

```
# Pi is constant 3.14159...
рi
## [1] 3.141593
# One divided by zero is infinity
1/0
## [1] Inf
# Negative number divided by zero is negative infinity
-1/0
## [1] -Inf
# Infinity divided by infinity is Not-a-Number (NaN)
Inf/Inf
## [1] NaN
# Not available (NA) plus one is still NA
NA + 1
## [1] NA
# Effects of different special numbers
c(5, 10, 15, NA, 25, 30, NaN, 35, 40, Inf, 50, -Inf, 60) / 5
                     3 NA
                                      NaN
                                                   8 Inf 10 -Inf
```

#### Data Frame

- Table with rows (observations) and columns (variables).
- Analogous to an Excel workbook.

```
myFavMovies1 <- data.frame(title = c("Dr. No",
                                      "Goldfinger",
                                      "Diamonds are Forever",
                                      "Moonraker",
                                      "The Living Daylights",
                                      "GoldenEye",
                                      "Casino Royale"),
                            year = c(1962, 1964, 1971, 1979,
                                     1987, 1995, 2006),
                            box = c(59.5, 125, 120, 210.3,
                                    191.2, 355, 599),
                            bondActor = c("Sean Connery",
                                          "Sean Connery",
                                          "Sean Connery",
                                          "Roger Moore",
                                          "Timothy Dalton".
                                          "Pierce Brosnan",
                                          "Daniel Craig"))
```

#### Data Frame

```
myFavMovies1
##
                   title year box
                                       bondActor
                  Dr. No 1962 59.5 Sean Connery
## 1
              Goldfinger 1964 125.0 Sean Connery
## 2
## 3 Diamonds are Forever 1971 120.0
                                     Sean Connery
               Moonraker 1979 210.3 Roger Moore
## 4
## 5 The Living Daylights 1987 191.2 Timothy Dalton
## 6
               GoldenEye 1995 355.0 Pierce Brosnan
           Casino Royale 2006 599.0 Daniel Craig
## 7
```

#### **Tibble**

- Similar to traditional data frame.
- tibble is the modern standard in R.

```
library(dplyr)
myFavMovies2 <- tibble(title = c("Dr. No",</pre>
                                   "Goldfinger",
                                   "Diamonds are Forever",
                                   "Moonraker".
                                   "The Living Daylights",
                                   "GoldenEve".
                                   "Casino Royale"),
                        year = c(1962, 1964, 1971, 1979,
                                 1987, 1995, 2006),
                        box = c(59.5, 125, 120, 210.3,
                                191.2, 355, 599),
                        bondActor = c("Sean Connery",
                                       "Sean Connery",
                                       "Sean Connery",
                                       "Roger Moore".
                                       "Timothy Dalton",
                                       "Pierce Brosnan",
                                       "Daniel Craig"))
```

#### **Tibble**

```
myFavMovies2
## # A tibble: 7 x 4
## title
                          year box bondActor
## <chr>
                         <dbl> <dbl> <chr>
## 1 Dr. No
                          1962 59.5 Sean Connery
## 2 Goldfinger
                          1964 125 Sean Connery
## 3 Diamonds are Forever 1971 120
                                    Sean Connery
## 4 Moonraker
                          1979 210. Roger Moore
  5 The Living Daylights 1987 191. Timothy Dalton
  6 GoldenEye
                          1995 355 Pierce Brosnan
                          2006 599 Daniel Craig
## 7 Casino Royale
```

## Subsetting a Tibble

```
# Get one column by name
myFavMovies2[["title"]]
myFavMovies2$title
# Get a range of columns by position ID
myFavMovies2[, 1:2]
myFavMovies2[1:2]
# Get rows 1 to 3
myFavMovies2[1:3, ]
# Get the "year" variable of row 1-3
myFavMovies2[1:3, "year"]
# Get the "title" and "year" variables of row 4-7
myFavMovies2[4:7, c("title", "year")]
```

## Introduction to

Data Analysis

# Regression Models

## Simple Regression

Univariate linear regression model

$$\hat{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$$

- Analogous to a straight line y = mx + c
- Can be chained with M dependent variables (Multivariate)

$$\hat{y}_i = \beta_0 + \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m x_{m,i}$$

▶ Residual term  $\epsilon_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$  assumed to be Gaussian

$$\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

Also known as ordinary least squared (OLS) regression

## Linear Regression in R

```
# Build a univariate linear model
# These two lines are equivalent
myModel1 <- lm(mpg ~ wt, mtcars)
myModel1 <- lm(formula = mpg ~ wt, data = mtcars)
# Read the model summary
summary(myModel1)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = mpg ~ wt, data = mtcars)
##
## Residuals:
##
      Min 10 Median 30
                                     Max
## -4.5432 -2.3647 -0.1252 1.4096 6.8727
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 37.2851 1.8776 19.858 < 2e-16 ***
## wt.
           -5.3445 0.5591 -9.559 1.29e-10 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 3.046 on 30 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.7528, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7446
## F-statistic: 91.38 on 1 and 30 DF, p-value: 1.294e-10
```

## More Linear Regression Models

Multivariate linear model Additional independent variables can be chained using the + symbol. Categorical variables can be encoded as dummy on-the-fly using factor().

```
\label{eq:myModel2} \verb| myModel2 <- lm(mpg ~ wt + hp + qsec + factor(am), mtcars) |
```

Polynomial term Model can become more flexible when an independent variable is converted into polynomial terms. Use the poly() function.

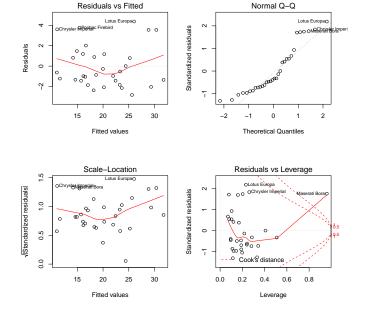
Interaction term Two variables can be combined to create synergy effect. The \* symbol is used to combine variables together.

```
\label{eq:myModel4} $$ $$ - \lim(mpg ~ wt * hp + qsec + factor(am), mtcars)$
```

## Regression Diagnostics

- Residuals vs Fitted Checks for non-linear relationship. Look for a near horizontal line.
- Normal Quantile-Quantile It aligns model residuals against a theoretical normal distribution. If the residuals spread along a straight diagonal line on the Q-Q plot, it suggests that the residuals are normally distributed.
- Scale-Location Checks for homoscedasticity and heteroscedasticity. It is homoscedastic if observations scatter without any observable pattern.
- Residual vs Leverage (Cook's Distance) Identifies observations having strong influence to the model.

## **Diagnostics Plots**

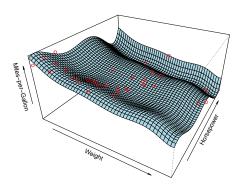


## Overfitting

- ► Flexible models are prone to overfitting.
- Overfitting makes the model less generalisable.
- Solution
  - Use less flexible methods.
  - Impose regularisation.

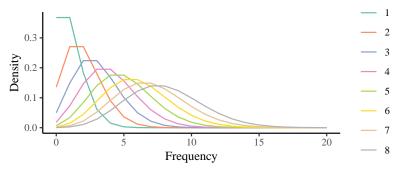
## Overfitting: Visual Explaination

$$\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{8} \beta_{wtj} x_{wt}^j + \sum_{k=1}^{5} \beta_{hp_k} x_{hp}^k$$



#### Poisson Distribution

- Count of distinct events are drawn from Poisson distribution.
  - Always positive.
  - ▶ In most cases they are integers.
- e.g. Number of people in a room, number of flights delayed per day... etc.



## Testing for Poisson Distribution

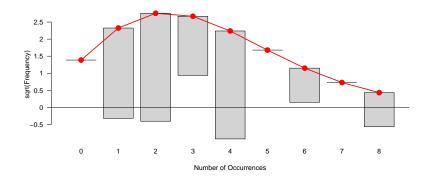
- Chi-square goodness of fit test.
- Fits the data against theoretical Poisson distribution.
- Look for statistical significance.

```
# Performs the Chi-squared goodness-of-fit test.
# It checks whether the variable is drawn from a Poisson distribution.
library(vcd)
gf <- goodfit(mtcars$carb, type= "poisson", method= "ML")
# Checks the statistical p-value of the goodness-of-fit test.
# If p<=0.05 then it is safe to say that the variable is Poisson.
summary(gf)

##
## Goodness-of-fit test for poisson distribution
##
## X^2 df P(> X^2)
## Likelihood Ratio 20.53973 4 0.0003906369
```

#### Goodness of Fit Plot

# Plots the observed frequency vs theoretical Poisson distribution. # The hanging bars should fill the space if it is perfectly Poisson. plot(gf)



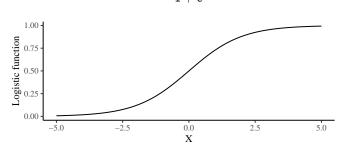
## Poisson Regression

```
# Build a Poisson model to predict the number of carburetors in a car.
mvPoissonModel <- glm(carb ~ hp + wt + factor(am).
                    family="poisson",
                    data=mtcars)
# Read the model summary
summary(myPoissonModel)
##
## Call:
## glm(formula = carb ~ hp + wt + factor(am), family = "poisson",
      data = mtcars)
##
## Deviance Residuals:
       Min
            1Q Median 3Q
                                            Max
## -0.91420 -0.48423 -0.07246 0.19252 1.26155
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
##
## (Intercept) -0.418081 0.604211 -0.692 0.4890
## hp
      0.004316 0.001880 2.296 0.0217 *
      0.179583 0.191352 0.938 0.3480
## wt.
## factor(am)1 0.393750 0.324978 1.212 0.2257
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## (Dispersion parameter for poisson family taken to be 1)
##
##
      Null deviance: 27.043 on 31 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 10.798 on 28 degrees of freedom
## AIC: 108.16
##
## Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

#### Binomial Distribution

- ▶ There are only two possible outcomes  $\{Y, \neg Y\}$ .
  - Toss a coin (Head or tail)
  - ► Taking an examination (Pass or fail)
  - ► Selling a product (Sold or unsold)
- Likelihood of event Y and  $\neg Y$  expressed as probablity  $P(Y) + P(\neg Y) = 1$ .
- Logistic function squeezes real value range X into (0,1) to express probability.

$$P(Y) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-X}}$$



## Logistic Regression

Equation for logistic regression

$$P(Y) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_M x_M)}}$$

► Coefficients  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, ..., \beta_M$  can be converted into odds ratios  $OR(x_1), OR(x_2), OR(x_3), ..., OR(x_M)$ .

$$OR(x_1) = \frac{odds(x_1 + 1)}{odds(x_1)} = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1(x_1 + 1) + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_M x_M}}{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_M x_M}} = e^{\beta_1}$$

 $\triangleright$   $OR(x_1)$  Represents the change in probability when  $x_1$  increases by 1 unit.

## Training a Logistic Regression Model

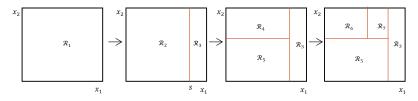
▶ Build a logistic regression model to predict the dependent variable am. (1=manual; 0=auto)

#### Calculate the odds ratios for this model.

## Tree-based Methods

## Recursive Partitioning

- Cut off point is denoted as s.
- ▶ Divides data into regions (leaves)  $\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{R}_2, \mathcal{R}_3, ...$  recursively.
- ▶ Works with real values as well as categorical variables.
- ► Large tree risks overfitting
  - ► Removes weaker leaves.
  - Regularisation.



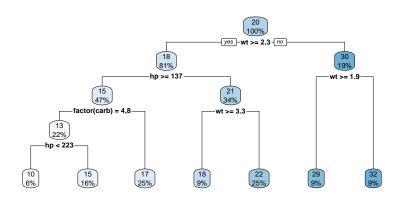
#### **Decision Tree**

Trees can be trained with a formula and optional control parameters.

```
# Load the rpart package for recursive partitioning
library(rpart)
# Build a decision tree to predict mpg
myTree <- rpart(formula = mpg ~ wt + hp +
                  factor(carb) +
                  factor(am),
                data = mtcars,
                control = rpart.control(minsplit=5))
# Read the detailed summary of the tree
summary(myTree)
```

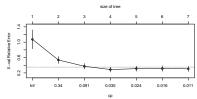
### Decision Tree: Visualisation

```
# Load the rpart.plot package for tree visualisation
library(rpart.plot)
rpart.plot(myTree)
```



## Tree Pruning

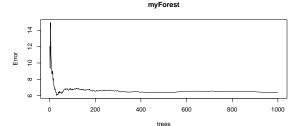
```
printcp(myTree)
##
## Regression tree:
## rpart(formula = mpg ~ wt + hp + factor(carb) + factor(am), data = mtcars,
      control = rpart.control(minsplit = 5))
##
##
## Variables actually used in tree construction:
## [1] factor(carb) hp
                                wt.
##
## Root node error: 1126/32 = 35.189
##
## n= 32
##
          CP nsplit rel error xerror
                                          xstd
## 1 0.652661
                  0 1.000000 1.07418 0.245782
## 2 0.178618
                  1 0.347339 0.53593 0.092826
## 3 0.046269
                  2 0.168721 0.37350 0.071636
## 4 0.026109
                  3 0.122453 0.28739 0.064465
## 5 0.022593
                4 0.096343 0.31045 0.067372
## 6 0.011989
                  5 0.073751 0.31308 0.071366
## 7 0.010000
                  6 0.061762 0.30626 0.071398
plotcp(myTree)
```



#### Random Forest

- Consists of many decision trees
  - Randomly selected variables will be used in each split
  - Usually no need to prune them (all trees are allowed to grow big)
- ► *M* trees in a random forest produces *M* predictions
  - Final prediction is calculated as mean value for regression problem
  - Classification problem will use most the common label (majority voting)

## Training a Random Forest



# Neural Networks

### **Artificial Neurons**

- Inspired by neurons in biological brain.
- ▶ McCulloch and Pitts described neuron as a logical process.
  - Neuron takes several inputs  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_M\}$
  - Fires (activates) if the combined weighted input  $\sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m x_m$  exceeds threshold.
  - Output can either be fire 1 or not fire 0.
- ► Rosenblatt's Mark I Perceptron



#### Modern Neural Networks

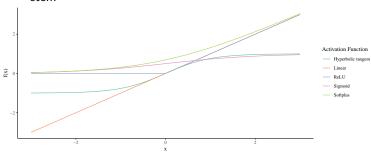
- ▶ Neural nets are based on non-linear processing power.
- Trained via gradient descent optimisers (backpropagation).
  - Network initialise randomly.
  - Requires differentiable loss function.
  - Requires strong gradient in order to improve.
  - Model weights improve iteratively.
  - Converge at local minimum.
- Neurons can be stacked as layers.
  - Can either be shallow (1 layer) or deep (many layers).
  - State-of-the art neural networks have highly bespoke topologies.

## Activation

Weighted inputs are combined linearly.

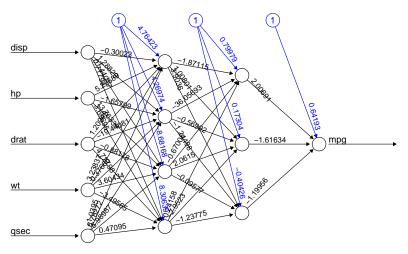
$$X = \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_m x_m$$

- Non-linear activation functions
  - Sigmoid
  - ► Hyperbolic tangent
  - ▶ etc...



## Multilayer Perceptron: Topology

- ► Layers are fully-interconnected.
- Usually having two or more layers.



Error: 0.572224 Steps: 966

## Time Series Analysis

#### Time Series Data

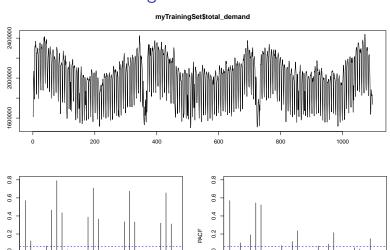
- Observations repeatedly taken at regular interval.
- Explore variable relationship across temporal space.

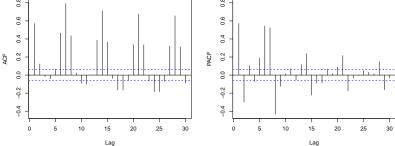
Auto-correlation Function (ACF) Measures the correlation of a single variable along the temporal dimension between  $x_t$  and  $x_{t+h}$ . It shows the correlation of the variable over different lag periods. For most time series variables, correlation is usually strong at lag h=1 and it gradually diminishes as lag period increases. Cyclic pattern in the correlogram suggests possible seasonality which you can analyse further.

Partial Auto-correlation Function (PACF) Also measures the correlation between different lag periods, but it controls the correlation across the temporal dimsnion so that only the contribution of an individual lag is reflected.

Cross Correlation Function (CCF) Analyses the temporal correlation between two variables.

## ACF and PACF Correlograms

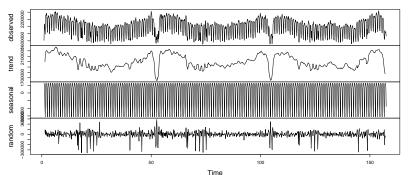




## Decomposition

- ▶ Time series can be decomposed into:
  - ightharpoonup Seasonal component  $S_t$
  - ightharpoonup Trend component  $T_t$
  - ightharpoonup Residual component  $\epsilon_t$
- ▶ Additive time series is expressed as  $X_t = S_t + T_t + \epsilon_t$
- ▶ Multiplicative time series is expressed as  $X_t = S_t \times T_t \times \epsilon_t$

#### Decomposition of additive time series



## Time Series Linear Regression Model

Decomposed components can be used as independent variable in linear regression:

$$X_t = \beta_0 + \beta_{trend} T_t + \beta_{seasonal} S_t + \sum_{m=1}^{M} (\beta_m x_{mt}) + \epsilon_t$$

Components can also form interaction terms with other independent variables.

## Auto-regressive Moving Average Model (ARMA)

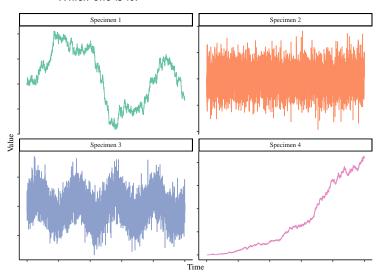
ightharpoonup ARMA(p,q) model

$$\underbrace{X_t}_{\text{Observation}} = \underbrace{\beta_0}_{\text{intercept}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=i}^{p} (\phi_i X_{t-1})}_{\text{AR(p)}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{q} (\theta_i \epsilon_{t-i})}_{\text{MA(q)}} + \underbrace{\epsilon_t}_{\text{residual}}$$

- ightharpoonup ARIMA(p, d, q) model
  - Auto-regressive Integrative Moving Average
  - $\triangleright$  I(d)  $d^{th}$  order integration can be added.
    - ▶ Integration refers to the difference from previous time step
    - First order differencing  $I(1): X_t' = X_t X_{t-1}$
    - To satisfy stationarity requirement.

## Stationarity

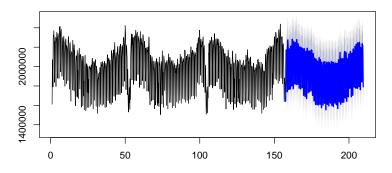
- ▶ Equal properties (mean and variance) across time.
  - ▶ Only one below is a stationary time series.
  - ▶ Which one is it?



## ARIMA with Seasonality (SARIMA)

- ightharpoonup ARIMA $(p, d, q)(P, D, Q)_m$ 
  - All parameter values can be automatically identified.
  - Simple models are always preferred
  - ▶ Intend to keep p + q + P + Q small.

#### Forecasts from Regression with ARIMA(2,0,0)(1,1,1)[7] errors



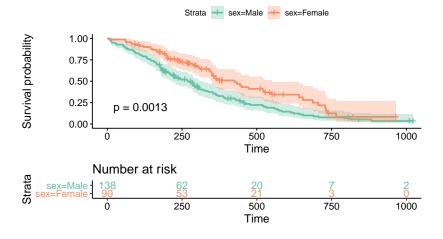
## Survival Analysis

## Survival Analysis

- Event occuring at irregular intervals.
  - e.g. Patients gets sick, machine failing... etc
- Also known as time-to-event analysis or event history analysis.

## Kaplan-Meier Estimator

- ▶ It is used to measure how many subjects survives in a clinical trial since treatment began.
- Categorical variables only.



## Cox Proportional Harzard Model

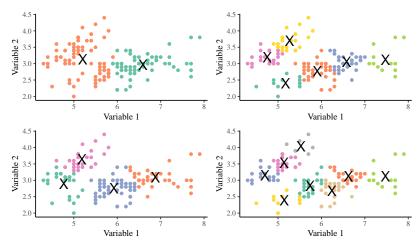
- ▶ It is a regression method which can take into account categorical and numeric variables.
- Assumes effects are time-independent (proportional harzard assumption).
- ▶ Harzard function  $h_t$  is defined as:

$$h_t = h_{0,t} \times e^{\beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \dots + \beta_M x_M}$$

# Unsupervised Learning

## K-means Clustering

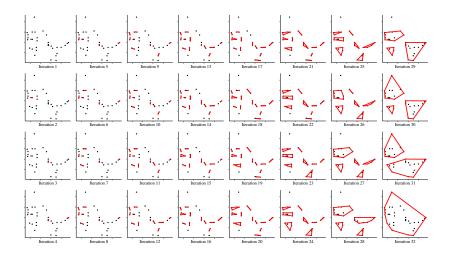
- Works with unlabelled data.
- Arrange objects into groups (clusters)
- ▶ Objective interpretation of results as *K* is arbitrarily selected.



## Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering

- N objects can form maximum N clusters, each having 1 member object.
- Identify distance between closest cluster pair.
- ► Merge them.
- Repeat until there are no more clusters left.

## Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering: Example



Closing

## **UK User Communities**

- ► LondonR LONDONR
- ► ManchesterR MANCHESTER R
- ► CaRdiff CaRdiff
- SheffieldR
- ► EdinbR EdinbR
  - CambR CambR
- CambR -
- NottinghamR
- ► BirminghamR -
- Oxford RUG -
- ► Bristol Data Scientists DATA SCIENTISTS

## International User Communities

► International R User Conference (useR!)



► Enterprise Application of the R Language (EARL)



European R User Meeting (ERUM)

