Data from R packages Plots to explore data Simple statistics to explore data A bit more on logical statements Using regression mo

# EXPLORING DATA #1

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# Data from R packages

So far we've covered three ways to get data into R:

- From flat files (either on your computer or online)
- From files like SAS and Excel
- From R objects (i.e., using load())

Many R packages come with their own data, which is very easy to load and use.

For example, the faraway package has a dataset called worldcup that you'll use today. To load it, use the data() function once you've loaded the package with the name of the dataset as its argument:

```
library(faraway)
data("worldcup")
```

Unlike most data objects you'll work with, the data that comes with an R package will often have its own help file. You can access this using the ? operator:

?worldcup

To find out all the datasets that are available in the packages you currently have loaded, run data() without an option inside the parentheses:

```
data()
```

To find out all of the datasets available within a certain package, run data with the argument package:

```
data(package = "faraway")
```

As a note, you can similarly use library(), without the name of a package, to list all of the packages you have installed that you could call with library():

```
library()
```

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# PLOTS TO EXPLORE DATA

### PLOTS TO EXPLORE DATA

Plots can be invaluable in exploring your data.

This week, we will focus on **useful**, rather than **attractive** graphs, since we are focusing on exploring rather than presenting data.

Next week, we will talk more about customization, to help you make more attractive plots that would go into final reports.

#### **GGPLOT** CONVENTIONS

Here, we'll be using functions from the ggplot2 library, so you'll need to install that package:

#### library(ggplot2)

The basic steps behind creating a plot with ggplot2 are:

- You'll create an object of the ggplot class, typically specifying the aesthetics;
- You'll add on geoms and other elements to create and customize the plot, using +.

Note: To avoid errors, end lines with +, don't start lines with it.

### INITIALIZING THE OBJECT

Use the following conventions to initialize a ggplot object:

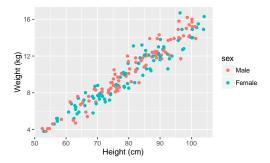
```
## Generic code
object <- ggplot(dataframe, aes(x = column_1, y = column_2))</pre>
```

Notice that you first specify the dataframe with the data you want to plot and then you might specify either **mappings** or constant values for some or all of the aesthetics (aes).

### PLOT AESTHETICS

**Aesthetics** are elements that can show certain elements of the data.

For example, color might show gender, x-position might show height, and y-position might show weight.



In this graph, the mapped aesthetics are color, x, and y.

*Note*: Any of these aesthetics could also be given a constant value, instead of being mapped to an element of the data. For example, all the points could be red, instead of showing gender.

## PLOT AESTHETICS

Here are some common plot aesthetics you might want to specify:

Code	Description
x	Position on x-axis
У	Position on y-axis
shape	Shape
color	Color of border of elements
fill	Color of inside of elements
size	Size
alpha	Transparency (1: opaque; 0: transparent)
linetype	Type of line (e.g., solid, dashed)

## PLOT AESTHETICS

Which aesthetics you must specify depend on which geoms (more on those in a second) you're adding to the plot.

You can find out the aesthetics you can use for a geom in the "Aesthetics" section of the geom's help file (e.g., ?geom\_point).

Required aesthetics are in bold in this section of the help file and optional ones are not.

## Adding geoms

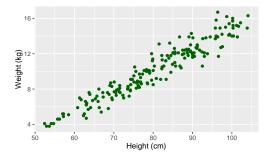
Next, you'll want to add one or more geoms to create the plot. You can add these with + after the ggplot statement to initialize the ggplot object.

Some of the most common geoms are:

Plot type	ggplot2 function
Histogram (1 numeric variable) Scatterplot (2 numeric variables) Boxplot (1 numeric variable, possibly 1 factor variable) Line graph (2 numeric variables)	<pre>geom_histogram geom_point geom_boxplot geom_line</pre>

## CONSTANT AESTHETICS

Instead of mapping an aesthetic to an element of your data, you can use a constant value for it. For example, you may want to make all the points green, rather than having color map to gender:



In this case, you'll define that aesthetic when you add the geom, outside of an aes statement.

## CONSTANT AESTHETICS

If you're using a constant shape, you specify the shape with a number. Here are the shapes that correspond to the numbers 1 to 25:



### Constant aesthetics

If you are using a constant color,  $\mathsf{R}$  has character names for different colors. For example:

- blue
- blue4
- darkorchid
- deepskyblue2
- steelblue1
- dodgerblue3

Google "R colors" and search the images to find links to listings of different R colors.

## USEFUL PLOT ADDITIONS

There are also a number of elements that you can add onto a ggplot object using +. A few very frequently used ones are:

Element	Description
ggtitle	Plot title
xlab, ylab	x- and y-axis labels
xlim, ylim	Limits of x- and y-axis

### EXAMPLE PLOTS

For the example plots, I'll use a dataset in the faraway package called nepali. This gives data from a study of the health of a group of Nepalese children.

```
library(faraway)
data(nepali)
```

I'll be using functions from dplyr and ggplot2:

```
library(dplyr)
library(ggplot2)
```

### EXAMPLE PLOTS

Each observation is a single measurement for a child; there can be multiple observations per child.

I'll subset out child id, sex, weight, height, and age, and I'll limit to each child's first measurement.

#### NEPALI EXAMPLE DATA

The data now looks like:

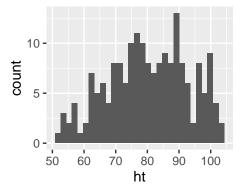
### head(nepali)

```
##
        id
              sex
                   wt
                         ht age
  1 120011
             Male 12.8
                       91.2 41
  2 120012 Female 14.9 103.9
                            57
## 3 120021 Female 7.7
                       70.1
                             8
## 4 120022 Female 12.1 86.4 35
## 5 120023 Male 14.2 99.4 49
## 6 120031 Male 13.9 96.4
                             46
```

## HISTOGRAM EXAMPLE

For hist(), the main aesthetic is x, the (numeric) vector for which you want to create a histogram:

```
ggplot(nepali, aes(x = ht)) +
  geom_histogram()
```

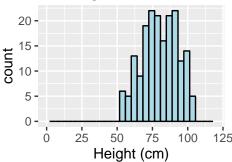


## HISTOGRAM EXAMPLE

You can try out some of the options on the histogram, like main, xlab, and xlim:

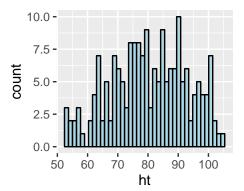
```
ggplot(nepali, aes(x = ht)) +
  geom_histogram(fill = "lightblue", color = "black") +
  ggtitle("Height of children") +
  xlab("Height (cm)") + xlim(c(0, 120))
```

# Height of children



## HISTOGRAM EXAMPLE

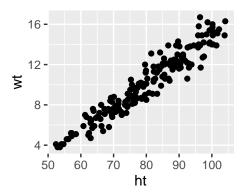
geom\_histogram also has its own special argument, bins. You can use
this to change the number of bins that are used to make the histogram:



### SCATTERPLOT EXAMPLE

You can use the geom\_point geom to create a scatterplot. For example, to create a scatterplot of height versus age for the Nepali data:

```
ggplot(nepali, aes(x = ht, y = wt)) +
  geom_point()
```

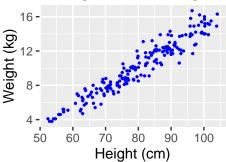


### SCATTERPLOT EXAMPLE

Again, you can use some of the options and additions to change the plot appearance:

```
ggplot(nepali, aes(x = ht, y = wt)) +
geom_point(color = "blue", size = 0.5) +
ggtitle("Weight versus Height") +
xlab("Height (cm)") + ylab("Weight (kg)")
```

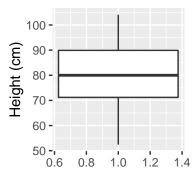
# Weight versus Height



## BOXPLOT EXAMPLE

To create a boxplot, use geom\_boxplot:

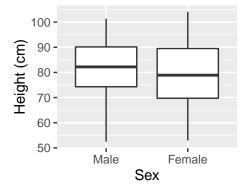
```
ggplot(nepali, aes(x = 1, y = ht)) +
  geom_boxplot() +
  xlab("")+ ylab("Height (cm)")
```



## BOXPLOT EXAMPLE

You can also do separate boxplots by a factor. In this case, you'll need to include two aesthetics (x and y) when you initialize the ggplot object.

```
ggplot(nepali, aes(x = sex, y = ht, group = sex)) +
  geom_boxplot() +
  xlab("Sex")+ ylab("Height (cm)")
```



## GGPAIRS() EXAMPLE

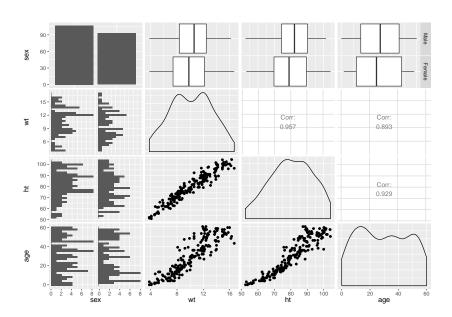
There are lots of R extensions for creating other interesting plots.

For example, you can use the ggpairs function from the GGally package to plot all pairs of scatterplots for several variables.

Notice how this output shows continuous and binary variables differently.

The next slide shows the output for:

```
library(GGally)
ggpairs(nepali[, c("sex", "wt", "ht", "age")])
```



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SIMPLE STATISTICS TO EXPLORE DATA

# SIMPLE STATISTICS FUNCTIONS

Here are some simple statistics functions you will likely use often:

Function	Description
range()	Range (minimum and maximum) of vector
min(), max()	Minimum or maximum of vector
<pre>mean(), median()</pre>	Mean or median of vector
table()	Number of observations per level for a factor vector
cor()	Determine correlation(s) between two or more vectors
summary()	Summary statistics, depends on class

## SIMPLE STATISTIC EXAMPLES

All of these take, as the main argument, the vector(s) for which you want the statistic. If there are missing values in the vector, you'll need to add an option to say what to do when them (e.g., na.rm or use="complete.obs").

```
mean(nepali$wt, na.rm = TRUE)

## [1] 10.18432

range(nepali$ht, na.rm = TRUE)

## [1] 52.4 104.1

table(nepali$sex)
```

```
##
## Male Female
## 107 93
```

## SIMPLE STATISTIC EXAMPLES

You can also perform most of these tasks using dplyr:

```
nepali %>%
   summarize(mean_wt = mean(wt, na.rm = TRUE))
### mean_wt
## 1 10.18432
```

### SIMPLE STATISTIC EXAMPLES

The cor function can take two or more vectors. If you give it multiple values, it will give the correlation matrix for all the vectors.

# SUMMARY(): A BIT OF OOP

R supports object-oriented programming. This shows up with summary(). R looks to see what type of object it's dealing with, and then uses a method specific to that object type.

```
summary(nepali$wt)
```

```
## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
## 3.80 7.90 10.10 10.18 12.40 16.70
## NA's
## 15
```

### summary(nepali\$sex)

```
## Male Female
## 107 93
```

We'll see more of this when we do regression models.

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# A BIT MORE ON LOGICAL STATEMENTS

#### LOGICAL STATEMENTS

Last week, you learned a lot about logical statements and how to use them with the subset() function.

You can also use logical vectors, created with these statements, for a lot of other things. For example, you can use them directly in the square bracket indexing  $([\ldots, \ldots])$ .

A logical statement run on a vector will create a logical vector the same length as the original vector:

```
is_male <- nepali$sex == "Male"
length(nepali$sex)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 200
```

```
length(is_male)
```

```
## [1] 200
```

The logical vector will have the value TRUE at any position where the original vector met the logical condition you tested, and FALSE anywhere else:

```
head(nepali$sex)
```

```
## [1] Male Female Female Female Male
## Levels: Male Female
```

```
head(is_male)
```

```
## [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE
```

You can "flip" this logical vector (i.e., change every TRUE to FALSE and vice-versa) using !:

```
head(is_male)
```

## [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE

```
head(!is_male)
```

## [1] FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE

You can do a few cool things now with this vector. For example, you can use it with indexing to pull out just the rows where is\_male is TRUE:

```
head(nepali[is_male, ])
```

```
##
          id
                         ht age
              sex wt
      120011 Male 12.8 91.2 41
## 1
      120023 Male 14.2 99.4
##
  5
                             49
##
      120031 Male 13.9 96.4
                             46
## 7
     120051 Male 8.3 69.5
      120053 Male 15.8 96.0
                            54
## 9
## 11 120062 Male 12.1 89.9
                             57
```

Or, with !, just the rows where is\_male is FALSE:

```
head(nepali[!is_male, ])
```

```
##
         id
               sex
                   wt
                          ht age
## 2
     120012 Female 14.9 103.9
                              57
## 3
     120021 Female 7.7 70.1
                              8
## 4 120022 Female 12.1
                        86.4 35
## 8
     120052 Female 11.8 83.6
                              32
## 10 120061 Female 8.7 78.5
                              26
## 15 120082 Female 11.2
                        79.8
                              36
```

You can also use sum() and table() to find out how many males and females are in the dataset:

```
sum(is_male); sum(!is_male)
## [1] 107
## [1] 93
table(is_male)
## is male
## FALSE
          TRUF.
##
      93
           107
```

DATA FROM R PACKAGES PLOTS TO EXPLORE DATA SIMPLE STATISTICS TO EXPLORE DATA A BIT MORE ON LOGICAL STATEMENTS USING REGRESSION MC

# Using regression models to explore data

#### FORMULA STRUCTURE

In R, formulas take this structure:

```
[response variable] ~ [indep. var. 1] + [indep. var. 2] + ...
```

Notice that ~ used to separate the independent and dependent variables and the + used to join independent variables.

You will use this type of structure in a lot of different function calls, including those for linear models (lm) and generalized linear models (glm).

#### LINEAR MODELS

To fit a linear model, you can use the function lm(). Use the data option to specify the dataframe from which to get the vectors. You can save the model as an object.

This call fits the model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1,i} + \epsilon_i$$

where:

- $Y_i$ : weight of child i
- $X_{1,i}$ : height of child i

# USING MODEL OBJECTS

Some functions you can use on model objects:

Function	Description
summary()	Get a variety of information on the model, including coefficients and p-values for the coefficients
coef()	Pull out just the coefficients for a model
residuals()	Get the model residuals
fitted()	Get the fitted values from the model (for the data used to fit

#### Examples of using a model object

For example, you can get the coefficients from the model we just fit:

```
coef(mod_a)

## (Intercept) ht
## -8.694768 0.235050
```

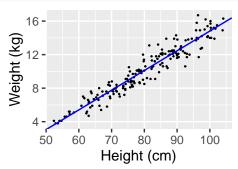
You can also pull out the residuals:

head(residuals(mod\_a))

```
## 1 2 3 4
## 0.05820415 -0.82693141 -0.08223993 0.48644436
## 5 6
## -0.46920621 -0.06405608
```

#### Examples of using a model object

You can also plot the data you used to fit the model and add a regression based on the model fit, using abline():



#### Examples of using a model object

The summary() function gives you a lot of information about the model:

summary(mod\_a)

(see next slide)

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = wt ~ ht, data = nepali)
##
## Residuals:
##
       Min
              1Q Median
                               3Q
                                          Max
## -2.44736 -0.55708 0.01925 0.49941 2.73594
##
## Coefficients:
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) -8.694768 0.427398 -20.34
                                            <2e-16
## ht.
        0.235050 0.005257 44.71 <2e-16
##
## (Intercept) ***
## ht.
## ---
## Signif. codes:
## 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.9017 on 183 degrees of freedom
##
     (15 observations deleted due to missingness)
```

#### SUMMARY FOR LM OBJECTS

The object created when you use the summary() function on an 1m object has several different parts you can pull out using the \$ operator:

```
names(summary(mod_a))
## [1] "call" "terms"
```

```
## [3] "residuals" "coefficients"
## [5] "aliased" "sigma"
## [7] "df" "r.squared"
## [9] "adj.r.squared" "fstatistic"
## [11] "cov.unscaled" "na.action"
```

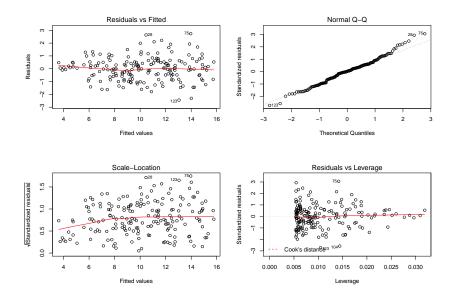
#### summary(mod\_a)\$coefficients

# USING PLOT() WITH LM OBJECTS

You can use plot with an lm object to get a number of useful diagnostic plots to check regression assumptions:

```
plot(mod_a)
```

(See next slide)



## FITTING A MODEL WITH A FACTOR

You can also use binary variables or factors as independent variables in regression models:

```
mod_b <- lm(wt ~ sex, data = nepali)
summary(mod_b)$coefficients</pre>
```

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value
## (Intercept) 10.497980 0.3110957 33.745177
## sexFemale -0.674724 0.4562792 -1.478752
## Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 1.704550e-80
## sexFemale 1.409257e-01
```

This call fits the model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1,i} + \epsilon_i$$

where  $X_{1,i}$ : sex of child i, where 0 = male; 1 = female

#### LINEAR MODELS VERSUS GLMS

You can fit a variety of models, including linear models, logistic models, and Poisson models, using generalized linear models (GLMs).

For linear models, the only difference between lm and glm is how they're fitting the model (least squares versus maximum likelihood). You should get the same results regardless of which you pick.

# LINEAR MODELS VERSUS GLMS

For example:

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value
## (Intercept) -8.694768 0.427397843 -20.34350
## ht 0.235050 0.005256822 44.71334
## Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 7.424640e-49
## ht 1.962647e-100
```

# **GLMs**

You can fit other model types with glm() using the family option:

Model type	family option
Linear Logistic Poisson	<pre>family = gaussian(link = "identity") family = binomial(link = "logit") family = poisson(link = "log")</pre>

#### LOGISTIC EXAMPLE

For example, say we wanted to fit a logistic regression for the nepali data of whether the probability that a child weighs more than 13 kg is associated with the child's height.

First, create a binary variable for wt\_over\_13:

```
nepali <- nepali %>%
  mutate(wt_over_13 = wt > 13)
head(nepali)
```

```
##
        id
                         ht age wt_over_13
              sex
                   wt
## 1 120011
             Male 12.8 91.2 41
                                     FALSE
  2 120012 Female 14.9 103.9 57
                                      TRUE
  3 120021 Female 7.7 70.1 8
                                     FALSE
  4 120022 Female 12.1 86.4 35
                                     FALSE
## 5 120023 Male 14.2 99.4 49
                                      TRUE
## 6 120031 Male 13.9 96.4 46
                                      TRUE.
```

#### LOGISTIC EXAMPLE

Now you can fit a logistic regression:

Here, the model coefficient gives the **log odds** of having a weight higher than 13 kg associated with a unit increase in height.

# FORMULA STRUCTURE

Here are some conventions used in R formulas:

Convention	
	Meaning
I()	calculate the value inside before fitting (e.g., $I(x1 + x2)$ )
:	fit the interaction between two variables (e.g., $x1:x2$ )
*	fit the main effects and interaction for both variables (e.g.,
	x1*x2 equals $x1 + x2 + x1:x2$ )
	fit all variables other than the response (e.g., $y \sim .$ )
_	do not include a variable (e.g., y ~ x1)
1	intercept (e.g., y ~ 1)

#### TO FIND OUT MORE

A great (and free-to-you) resource to find out more about using R for basic statistics:

Introductory Statistics with R

- Linear Models with R
- Extending the Linear Model with R