Un'intRoduzione

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- PeRché?
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- **Graphics**
- R for statistical computing
- Classical hypothesis testing in R
- Generalized Linear Models (GLMs)

Materiale del corso



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Le cose belle

- Open-source: R è gratuito, RStudio (la IDE di R) no, ma la versione free è più che sufficiente
- ullet Permette la replicabilità dei risultati ightarrow è gratis
- R community is the beast feature of R
- Aiuto online e gratuito

Le cose un po' meno belle

- Difficile da imparare all'inizio
- Non è intuitivo (all'inizio) \rightarrow se non si ha già una vaga idea di dove partire non si riesce a fare nulla

Le cose cose belle nelle cose brutte

- Più dimestichezza nell'analisi dei dati, più conoscenza del dato, modelli più complessi
- Permette di addentrarsi sempre di più nei linguaggi di programmazione
- Imparare un altro linguaggio di programmazione dopo aver imparato
 R è (quasi) una passeggiata

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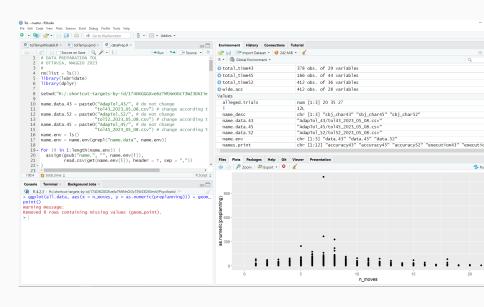


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La gestione delle working directory è una delle cose meno intuitive di R

Rischiate di perdere dei pezzi e di non avere tutto ordinato nelle cartelle

Per risolvere questo problema \rightarrow si possono usare gli R project (progetti R)

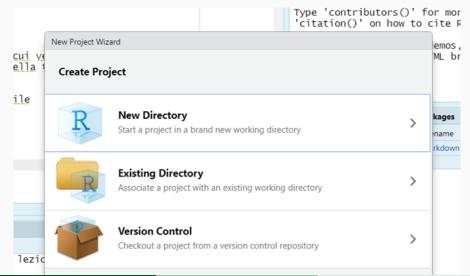
Un progetto R crea una sua directory, tutti i file che vengono salvati al suo interno sono sempre accessibile senza bisogno di settare *a mano* tutte le volte la directory

Sono molto comodi perché:

- 2 Tenendo tutti i file ordinati vi permettono di poter risalire a cosa avete fatto mesi prima (utile quando vi arrivano le revisioni di un paper)

Creare un progetto R

File \rightarrow New project:



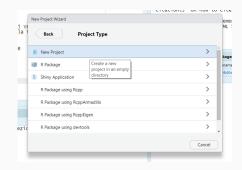




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Simboli, variabili, funzioni

Simboli variabili funzioni

Simboli

Operatori:

```
3 + 2  # più

3 - 2  # meno

3 * 2  # per

3 / 2  # diviso

5 > 2  # maggiore di

2 < 5  # minore di

5 == 3 + 2  # uguale

5 != 3  # diverso

Parentesi e altri simboli
```

() [] {} "":;,

Operatori e parentesi si possono combinare insieme per risolvere equazioni:

$$(15 + 22)/(13 * 4)$$

[1] 0.7115385

Variabili

La varaibile (in senso statistico) viene registrata in una variabile (in senso informatico)

Variabile (Informatica)

è un oggetto che contiene informazione

Si distinguono in base al tipo di informazione che contengono, che in R può essere:

- 'int': numeriche (discrete, 1, 2, 3)
- 'num': numeriche (continue, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, ...)
- 'logi': logiche (TRUE, FALSE)
- 'chr': caratteri ("a", "B", "c", ...)
- 'factor': fattori distinti da diversi livelli

Nomi delle variabili

Alle variabili si può dare il nome che si vuole ightarrow non può iniziare con un numero

$${\tt modello_1} \qquad \rightarrow \, \mathsf{S} \mathfrak{i} \quad \ \, \mathsf{,} \quad \, \mathsf{1Modello} \qquad \rightarrow \, \mathsf{No}$$

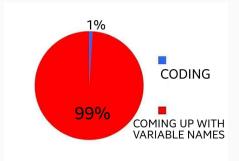
Warning!

Attenzione perché R è case sensitive:

$$A \neq a$$

Altro vincolo: Non si possono usare nomi che possono essere confusi con funzioni/oggetti interni di R:

'FALSE' è un oggetto logico di R, non possiamo usarlo come nome di una nostra variabile.



Molto bene media_maschi, modello1, statistiche_descrittive Molto male

x3, x2, x1

Assign

Le variabili vengono create "assegnando" loro i risultati delle operazioni

Esistono fondamentalmente due comandi di assegnazione

- $x = \exp(2^2) = (\text{ non piace molto ai puristi di R ma è ugaule a})$ Python
- ② X <- log(2^2) =) Fate contenti i puristi di R

La logica è che l'oggetto a destro (l'operazione e quindi il risultato che se ne ottiene) viene assegnato (= oppure <-) viene assegnato alla variabile (o oggetto) a destra

Attenzione! Siccome R è case sensitive: x e X sono due oggetti differenti!

Le funzioni

my.function(arg1, arg2, arg3 = default)

Aiuto

'R' community is the best feature of 'R'

Copia & Incolla l'errore su google

Se non si sa fare qualcosa "how to [something] in r"

Chiedere a R: Nella consolle si può scrivere ?nome.funzione() per accedere alla documentazione sulla funzione:

?mean()

Apre la documentazione sulla funzione mean()

coRso

Funzioni

Take out the trash

The R environment should be always tidy

If it feels like you're losing it, just clean it up:

```
ls() # list objects in the envrinoment
rm(A) # remove object A from the environment
rm(list=ls()) # remove everything from the environment
```

Save the environment

It might be useful to save all the computations you have done:

save.image("my-computations.RData")

Then you can upload the environment back:

load("my-Computations.RData")

When to save the environment

The computations are slow and you need them to be always and easily accessible

The best practice is to save the script and document it in an RMarkdown file \rightarrow Reproducibilty!

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If you choose not to use the R projects (what a bad, bad, bad idea), you need to know your directories:

 $\verb"getwd"() # the working directory in which you are right now$

dir() # list of what's inside the current working directory

Change your working directory:

setwd("C:/Users/huawei/OneDrive/Documenti/GitHub/RcouRse")

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Functions and arguments (pt. I)

Almost everything in R is done with functions, consisting of:

- a name: mean
- a pair of brackets: ()
- some arguments: na.rm = TRUE

```
mean(1:5, trim = 0, na.rm = TRUE)
```

[1] 3

Arguments may be set to default values; what they are is documented in ?mean()

Functions and arguments (pt. II)

Arguments can be passed

- without name (in the defined order)
- ullet with name (in arbitrary order) o keyword matching

No arguments? No problems, just brackets:

Want to see the code of a function? Just type its name in the console without brackets:

chisq.test

Vectors

Vectors are created by **c**ombining together different objects

Vectors are created by using the c() function.

All elements inside the c() function **must** be separated by a comma

Different types of objects \rightarrow types of vectors:

• int: numeric integers

num: numberslogi: logical

chr: characters

• factor: factor with different levels

int and num

```
int: refers to integer: -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3 months = c(5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 16) [1] 5 6 8 10 12 16 num: refers to all numbers from -\infty to \infty: 1.0840991, 0.8431089, 0.494389, -0.7730161, 2.9038161, 0.9088839 weight = seq(3, 11, by = 1.5) [1] 3.0 4.5 6.0 7.5 9.0 10.5
```

logi

Logical values can be TRUE (T) or FALSE (F)

v_logi = c(TRUE, TRUE, FALSE, FALSE, TRUE)

[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE TRUE

logical vectors are often obtained from a comparison:

months > 12

[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE

chr and factor

```
chr: characters: a. b. c. D. E. F.
v_chr = c(letters[1:3], LETTERS[4:6])
[1] "a" "b" "c" "D" "E" "F"
factor: use numbers or characters to identify the variable levels
ses = factor(c(rep(c("low", "medium", "high"), each = 2)))
[1] low low medium medium high high
Levels: high low medium
Change order of the levels:
ses1 = factor(ses, levels = c("medium", "high", "low"))
[1] low low medium medium high high
Levels: medium high low
```

Create vectors

Concatenate elements with c(): vec = c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

Sequences:

$$-5:5$$
 # vector of 11 numbers from -5 to 5

$$seq(-2.5, 2.5, by = 0.5)$$
 # sequence in steps of 0.5

Repeating elements:

[1] 1 2 3 1 2 3 1 2 3 1 2 3

Create vectors II

```
rep(c("condA", "condB"), each = 3)
[1] "condA" "condA" "condA" "condB" "condB"
rep(c("on", "off"), c(3, 2))
[1] "on" "on" "off" "off"
pasteO("item", 1:4)
[1] "item1" "item2" "item3" "item4"
```

Don't mix them up unless you truly want to

```
\verb"int+ num 	o num" \\ \verb"int/num + logi 	o int/num" \\ \verb"int/num + factor 	o int/num" \\ \verb"int/num + chr 	o chr \\ \verb"chr + logi 	o chr"
```

Vectors and operations

Vectors can be summed/subtracted/divided and multiplied with one another

```
a = c(1:8)
а
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
b = c(4:1)
b
[1] 4 3 2 1
a - b
[1] -3 -1 1 3 1 3 5 7
```

If the vectors do not have the same length, you get a warning

Vectors and operations PT. II

The function is applied to each value of the vector:

```
sqrt(a)
```

[1] 1.000000 1.414214 1.732051 2.000000 2.236068 2.449490 2.6

The same operation can be applied to each element of the vector:

```
(a - mean(a))^2 # squared deviation
```

[1] 12.25 6.25 2.25 0.25 0.25 2.25 6.25 12.25

Matrices and arrays

```
Create a 3 \times 4 matrix:
A = matrix(1:12, nrow=3, ncol = 4, byrow = TRUE)
Label and transpose:
rownames(A) = c(paste("a", 1:3)) # colnames()
t(A) # transpose matrix
    a 1 a 2 a 3
[1,] 1 5 9
[2,] 2 6 10
[3,] 3 7 11
[4,] 4 8 12
```

Matrices and arrays

Matrix can be created by concatenating columns or rows:

```
cbind(a1 = 1:4, a2 = 5:8, a3 = 9:12) # column bind rbind(a1 = 1:4, a2 = 5.8, a3 = 9:12) # row bind
```

Matrices and arrays

```
array(data, c(nrow, ncol, ntab))
my_array = array(1:30, c(2, 5, 3)) # 2 x 5 x 3 array
, , 1
    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
[1,] 1 3 5 7 9
[2,] 2 4
              6 8 10
, , 2
    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
[1,] 11 13 15 17 19
[2,] 12 14 16 18 20
, , 3
```

Work with vectors, matrices, arrays

Index elements in vectors: vector_name[position]

```
weight[2]  # second element in vector weight
weight[6] = 15.2 # replace sixth element of weight
weight[seq(1, 6, by = 2)] # elements 1, 3, 5
weight[2:6]  # elements 2 to 6
weight[-2] # without element 2
```

Logic applies as well:

```
weight[weight > 7] # values greater than 7
weight[weight >= 4.5 & weight < 8] # values between 4.5
# and 8</pre>
```

String processing

```
substr(x, start, stop)  # extract substring
grep(pattern, x)  # match pattern (poistion)
grep(pattern, x)  # match pattern (TRUE/FALSE)
gsub(pattern, replacement, x) # replace pattern
pattern = regular expression (?regex):
foo  # match pattern foo
    .*  # match arbitrary character zero or more times
[a-z0-9] # match alphanumeric character
```

Example

Match string that starts with a or b and replace it by its starting letter.

Work with vectors, matrices, arrays II

Index elements in matrices: matrix name[row, column]

A[2, 3] # cell in row 2 column 3

A[2,] # second row

A[, 3] # third column

Work with vectors, matrices, arrays III

```
Index elements in arrays array_name[row, col, tab]
my_array[2, 1, 3] # cell in 2nd row 1st col of 3rd tab
my_array[, , 3] # 3rd tab
my_array[1, ,2] # 1st row in tab 2
```

Lists

Can store different objects (e.g., vectors, data frames, other lists):

The components of the list can be indexed with \$ or [[]] and the name (or position) of the component:

Extract months:

$$\label{eq:my_list} \verb|my_list[["m"]]| # my_list$m|$$

Extract weight:

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Data frames are lists that consist of vectors and factors of equal length. The rows in a data frame refer to one unit:

```
id = paste0("sbj", 1:6)
babies = data.frame(id, months, weight)
```

babies

	id	months	weight
1	sbj1	5	3.0
2	sbj2	6	4.5
3	sbj3	8	6.0
4	sbj4	10	7.5
5	sbj5	12	9.0
6	sbi6	16	10.5

Working with data frames

Index elements in a data frame:

```
babies$months # column months of babies
```

babies\$months[2] # second element of column months

```
babies[, "id"] # column id
```

```
babies[2, ] # second row of babies (obs on baby 2)
```

Logic applies:

```
babies[babies$weight > 7, ] # all obs above 7 kg
babies[babies$id %in% c("sbj1", "sbj6"), ] # obs of sbj1
# and sbj7
```

Working with data frames II

```
dim(babies) # show the dimensions of the data frame
[1] 6 3
names(babies) # variable names (= colnames(babies))
[1] "id"    "months" "weight"
View(babies) # open data viewer
plot(babies) # pariwise plot
```

You can use these commands also on other R objects

Working with data frames III

```
str(babies) # show details on babies
'data.frame': 6 obs. of 3 variables:
$ id : chr "sbj1" "sbj2" "sbj3" "sbj4" ...
$ months: num 5 6 8 10 12 16
$ weight: num 3 4.5 6 7.5 9 10.5
summary(babies) # descriptive statistics
     id
                     months
                                   weight
                  Min. : 5.0 Min. : 3.000
Length:6
Class: character 1st Qu.: 6.5 1st Qu.: 4.875
Mode :character Median : 9.0 Median : 6.750
                  Mean : 9.5
                               Mean : 6.750
                  3rd Qu.:11.5
                                3rd Qu.: 8.625
                  Max. :16.0
                                Max. :10.500
```

Sorting

Multiple arguments in order:

babies[order(babies\$weight, babies\$months, decreasing = TRUE),]

Aggregating

Aggregate a response variable according to grouping variable(s) (e.g., averaging per experimental conditions):

```
# Single response variable, single grouping variable aggregate(y ~ x, data = data, FUN, ...)
```

```
# Multiple response variables, multiple grouping variables aggregate(cbind(y1, y2) ~ x1 + x2, data = data, FUN, ...)
```

Aggregating: Example

```
ToothGrowth # Vitamin C and tooth growth (Guinea Pigs)
   len supp dose
  4.2 VC 0.5
2 11.5 VC 0.5
3 7.3 VC 0.5
. . . .
aggregate(len ~ supp + dose, data = ToothGrowth, mean)
 supp dose len
   0.5 13.23
   VC 0.5 7.98
3
   OJ 1.0 22.70
4
  VC 1.0 16.77
5
   OJ 2.0 26.06
6
   VC 2.0 26.14
```

Reshaping: Long to wide

Data can be organized in wide format (i.e., one line for each statistical unit) or in long format (i.e., one line for each observation).

Indometh # Long format

Long to wide

```
# From long to wide
df.w <- reshape(Indometh, v.names = "conc", timevar = "time",</pre>
   idvar = "Subject", direction = "wide")
  Subject conc.0.25 conc.0.5 conc.0.75 conc.1 conc.1.25 conc.2 cor
1
               1.50
                        0.94
                                 0.78 0.48
                                                 0.37
                                                        0.19
12
               2.03
                       1.63
                                 0.71
                                        0.70
                                                 0.64
                                                        0.36
23
               2.72
                    1.49
                                 1.16 0.80
                                                 0.80
                                                        0.39
34
               1.85
                    1.39
                                 1.02 0.89
                                                 0.59
                                                        0.40
45
        5
               2.05
                    1.04
                                 0.81 0.39
                                                 0.30
                                                        0.23
56
               2.31
                       1.44
                                 1.03
                                        0.84
                                                 0.64
                                                        0.42
   conc.5 conc.6 conc.8
```

Reshaping: Wide to long

```
# From wide to long
df.l <- reshape(df.w, varying = list(2:12), v.names = "conc",</pre>
   idvar = "Subject", direction = "long", times = c(0.25, 0.5,
       0.75, 1, 1.25, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8)
      Subject time conc
1.0.25
         1 0.25 1.50
2.0.25 2 0.25 2.03
3.0.25 3 0.25 2.72
. . . .
df.1[order(df.1$Subject), ] # reorder by subject
      Subject time conc
1.0.25
         1 0.25 1.50
1.0.5
         1 0.50 0.94
1.0.75 1 0.75 0.78
```

. . . .

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Reading tabular txt files:

ASCII text files in tabular or spread sheet form (one line per observation, one column per variable) are read using read.table()

```
data = read.table("C:/RcouRse/file.txt", header = TRUE)
```

data is a data frame where the original numerical variables are converted in numeric vectors and character variables are converted in factors (not always).

Arguments:

- header: variable names in the first line? TRUE/FALSE
- sep: which separator between the columns (e.g., comma, \t)
- dec: 1.2 or 1,2?

Reading other files

Combine data frames

If they have the same number of columns/rows

```
all_data = rbind(data, data1, data2) # same columns
all_data = cbind(data, data1, data2) # same rows
```

If they have different rows/columns but they share at least one characteristic (e.g., ID):

If there are different IDs in the two datasets \rightarrow added in new rows

all_data contains all columns in data1 and data2. The columns of the IDs in data1 but not in data2 (and vice versa) will be filled with NAs accordingly

Export data

```
Writing text (or csv) file:
write.table(data, # what you want to write
            file = "mydata.txt", # its name + extension
            header = TRUE, # first row with col names?
            sep = "\t", # column separator
            ....) # other arguments
R environment (again):
save(dat, file = "exp1_data.rda") # save something specific
save(file = "the earth.rda")
                                   # save the environment
load("the earth.rda")
                                   # load it back
```

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Be ready to make mistakes (a lot of mistakes)

Coding is hard art

Eyes on the prize, but take your time (and the necessary steps) to get there

Remember: You're not alone \to stackoverflow (or Google in general) is your best friend

ifelse()

Conditional execution:

```
ifelse(weight > 7, "big boy", "small boy")
[1] "small boy" "small boy" "big boy" "big boy"
```

Pros

- Super easy to use
- Can embed multiple ifelse() cycles

Easy: ifelse(test, if true, if false)

Cons

- It works fine until you have simple tests

if () {} else {}

```
If you have only one condition:
if (test_1) {
   command_1
} else {
   command_2
}
```

if () {} else {}

```
Multiple conditions:
```

```
if (test 1) {
  command 1
} else if (test 2) {
  command_2
} else {
  command 3
}
test_1 (and test_2, if you have it) must evaluate in either TRUE or
FALSE.
if(!is.na(x)) y <- x^2 else stop("x is missing")</pre>
```

Loops

```
for() and while()
Repeat a command over and over again:
# Don't do this at home
x < - rnorm(10)
y <- numeric(10) # create an empty container
for(i in seq_along(x)) {
y[i] \leftarrow x[i] - mean(x)
The best solution would have been:
y = x - mean(x)
```

Avoiding loops

Avoiding loops

```
Don't loop, apply()!
apply()
X <- matrix(rnorm(20),</pre>
            nrow = 5, ncol = 4)
apply(X, 2, max) # maximum for each column
[1] 1.4203744 1.0716663 2.3329026 0.9084482
for()
y = NULL
for (i in 1:ncol(X)) {
  y[i] = max(X[, i])
```

Avoiding loops

```
Group-wise calculations: tapply()
tapply() (t for table) may be used to do group-wise calculations on
vectors. Frequently it is employed to calculate group-wise means.
with (ToothGrowth,
     tapply(len, list(supp, dose), mean))
     0.5 1 2
N.J 13.23 22.70 26.06
VC 7.98 16.77 26.14
(You could have done it with aggregate())
```

Writing functions

```
Compute Cohen's d:
dcohen = function(group1, group2) { # Arguments
  mean_1 = mean(group1) ; mean_2 = mean(group2)
  var 1 = var(group1) ; var 2 = var(group2) # body
  d = (mean 1 - mean 2)/sqrt(((var 1 + var 2)/2))
  return(d) # results
}
Use it:
dcohen(data$placebo, data$drug)
```

Named arguments

```
Take this function:
fun1 <- function(data, data.frame, graph, limit) { ... }
It can be called as:
fun1(d, df, TRUE, 20)
fun1(d, df, graph=TRUE, limit=20)
fun1(data=d, limit=20, graph=TRUE, data.frame=df)
Positional matching and keyword matching (as in built-in functions)</pre>
```

Defaults

Arguments can be given default values \rightarrow the arguments can be omitted!

It can be called as

```
ans <- fun1(d, df)
```

which is now equivalent to the three cases above, but:

```
ans <- fun1(d, df, limit=10)
```

which changes one of the defaults.

Methods and classes

The return value of a function may have a specified class \rightarrow determines how it will be treated by other functions.

For example, many classes have tailored print methods.

```
methods(print)
```

- [1] print.acf*
- [2] print.AES*
- [3] print.all_vars*
- [4] print.anova*
- [5] print.any_vars*
- [6] print.aov*
- [7] print.aovlist*

. . .

Define a print method!

... as another function: print.cohen <- function(obj){</pre> cat("\nMy Cohen's d\n\n") cat("Effect size: ", obj\$d, "\n") invisible(obj) # return the object } We have to change our dcohen function a bit: dcohen = function(group1, group2) { # Arguments dvalue = list(d = d)class(dvalue) = "cohend" return(dvalue) # results

Example

```
Compute the Cohen's d between a test group and a control group:
```

My Cohen's d

Effect size: 6.900794

Debugging

```
Use the traceback() function:
foo <- function(x) { print(1); bar(2) }
bar <- function(x) { x + a.variable.which.does.not.exist }
Call foo() and...
foo() #
[1] 1
Error: object 'a.variable.which.does.not.exist' not found</pre>
```

```
Use traceback():
```

traceback() # find out where the error occurred

2: bar(2)

1: foo()

Note: traceback() appears as default

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- Traditional graphics
- Grid graphics & ggplot2

For both:

- ullet High level functions o actually produce the plot
- Low level functions \rightarrow make it looks better =)

Export graphics file

```
postscript() # vector graphics
pdf()
png()
                 # bitmap graphics
tiff()
jpeg()
bmp()
Remember to run off the graphic device once you've saved the graph:
dev.off()
(You can do it also manually)
```

Traditional graphics I

High level functions

```
plot()
            # scatter plot, specialized plot methods
boxplot()
hist()
            # histogram
qqnorm()
            # quantile-quantile plot
barplot()
pie()
           # pie chart
pairs() # scatter plot matrix
persp()
        # 3d plot
contour() # contour plot
coplot() # conditional plot
interaction.plot()
demo(graphics) for a guided tour of base graphics!
```

Traditional graphics II

Low level functions

```
points()
                # add points
lines()
                # add lines
rect()
polygon()
abline()
                # add line with intercept a, slope b
arrows()
text()
                # add text in plotting region
mtext()
                # add text in margins region
axis()
                # customize axes
box()
                # box around plot
legend()
```

Plot layout

Each plot is composed of two regions:

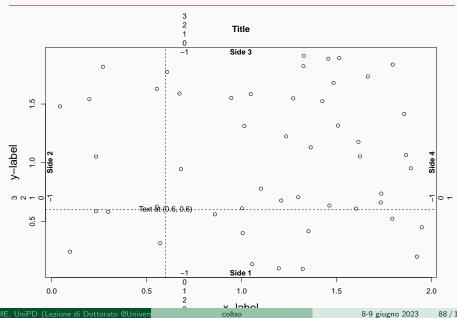
- The plotting regions (contains the actual plot)
- The margins region (contain axes and labels)

A scatter plot:

Now add some text:

```
text(0.6, 0.6, "Text at (0.6, 0.6)")
abline(h=.6, v=.6, lty=2) # horizont. and vertic.
# lines
```

Margins region



Rome wasn't built in a day and neither your graph

Display the interaction between the two factors of a two-factorial experiment:

```
dat <- read.table(header=TRUE, text="
A B rt
a1 b1 825
a1 b2 792
a1 b3 840
a2 b1 997
a2 b2 902
a2 b3 786
")
Force A and B to be factor:
```

```
dat[,1:2] = lapply(dat[,1:2], as.factor)
```

First: The plot

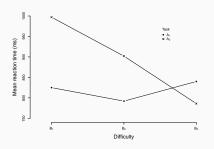
Mean reaction time (ms)

Populate the content

Plot the data points separately for each level of factor A.

Add axes and a legend.

Final result



- Error bars may be added using the arrows() function.
- Via par() many graphical parameters may be set (see ?par), for example par(mgp=c(2, .7, 0)) reduces the distance between labels and axes

Graphical parameters I

```
adj # justification of text
bty # box type for legend
cex # size of text or data symbols (multiplier)
col # color, see colors()
las # rotation of text in margins
lty # line type (solid, dashed, dotted, ...)
lwd # line width
mpg # placement of axis ticks and tick labels
pch # data symbol type
tck # length of axis ticks
type # type of plot (points, lines, both, none)
```

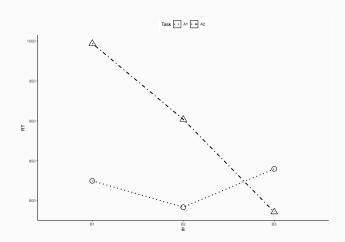
Graphical parameters II

ggplot2

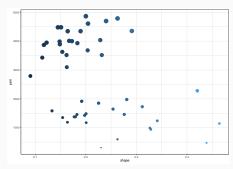
ggplot2 (Grammar of Graphics plot, Wickman, 2016) is one of the best packages for plotting raw data and results:

```
install.packages("ggplot2") ; library(ggplot2)
```

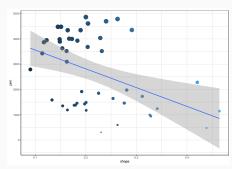
The code for the previous plot:



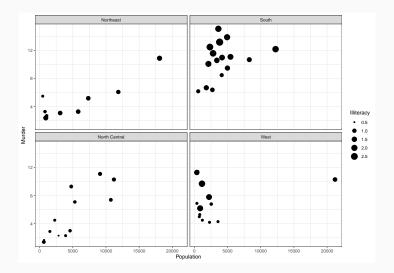
Raw data



Linear model



Multi Panel



Multi panel code

Different plots in the same panel

```
use grid.arrange() function from the gridExtra package:
install.packages("grideExtra") ; library(gridExtra)
murder_raw = ggplot(states, # raw data
               aes(x = Illiteracy, y = Murder)) +
murder_lm = ggplot(states, # lm
               aes(x = Illiteracy, y = Murder)) +
Combine the plots together:
grid.arrange(murder_raw, murder_lm,
             nrow=1) # plots forced to be the same row
```

Combine the plots together

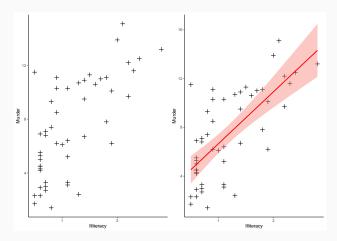


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The stats package (built-in package in ${\tt R}$) contains function for statistical calculations and random number generator

see library(help=stats)

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Nominal data:

- binom.test(): exact test of a simple null hypothesis about the probability of success in a Bernoulli experiment
- ullet chisq.test(): contingency table χ^2 tests

Metric response variable:

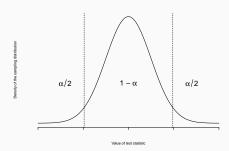
- cor.test(): association between paired samples
- t.test(): one- and two-sample t tests (also for paired data)
- var.test(): F for testing the homogeneity of variances

What is the p-value?

p-value:

conditional probability of obtaining a test stastic that is at least as extreme as the one observed, given that the null hyphothesis is true

If $p < \alpha$ (i.e., the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true) \to the null hypothesis is rejected



Binomial test

Observations X_i must be independent

Hypotheses:

- **1** H_0 : $p = p_0$ H_1 : $p \neq p_0$
- ② H_0 : $p = p_0$ H_1 : $p < p_0$
- **3** H_0 : $p = p_0$ H_1 : $p > p_0$

Test statistic:

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i, \ T \sim \mathcal{B}(n, p_0)$$

In R:

binom.test(5, 10, p = 0.25)

χ^2 test

Independence of observations

Hypothesis:

•
$$H_0$$
: $P(X_{ij} = k) = p_k$ for all $i = 1, ..., r$ and $j = 1, ..., c$

•
$$H_0$$
: $P(X_{ij} = k) \neq P(X_{i'j} = k)$ for at least one $i \in \{1, ..., r\}$ and $j \in \{1, ..., c\}$

Test statistic:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_{ij} - \hat{x}_{ij})^2}{\hat{x}_{ij}}, \ \chi^2 \sim \chi^2(r-1)(c-1)$$

In R:

tab <- xtabs(~ education + induced, infert)
chisq.test(tab)</pre>

Correlation test

Hypothesis:

- H_0 : $\rho_{XY} = 0$, H_1 : $\rho_{XY} \neq 0$
- H_0 : $\rho_{XY} = 0$, H_1 : $\rho_{xy} < 0$
- H_0 : $\rho_{XY} = 0$, H_1 : $\rho_{xy} > 0$

Test statistic:

$$T = \frac{r_{xy}}{\sqrt{1 - r_{xy}^2}} \sqrt{n - 2}, \ T \sim t(n - 2)$$

In R:

Two (indepdent) sample t test

Independent samples from normally distributions where σ^2 are unknown but homogeneous

- H_0 : $\mu_{x_1-x_2} = 0$, H_1 : $\mu_{x_1-x_2} \neq 0$
- H_0 : $\mu_{x_1-x_2} = 0$, H_1 : $\mu_{x_1-x_2} < 0$
- H_0 : $\mu_{x_1-x_2}=0$, H_1 : $\mu_{x_1-x_2}>0$

Test statistic:

$$T = rac{ar{x_1} - ar{x_2}}{\sigma_{ar{x_1} - ar{y_2}}}, \ T \sim t(n_1 + n_2 - 2)$$

R function:

Two (depedent) sample t test

Observations on the same sample

Hypothesis:

- H_0 : $\mu_D = 0$, H_1 : $\mu_D \neq 0$
- H_0 : $\mu_D = 0$, H_1 : $\mu_D < 0$
- H_0 : $\mu_D = 0$, H_1 : $\mu_D > 0$

Test statistic:

$$T=rac{d}{\sigma_d}, \ T\sim t(m-1)$$

R function:

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Formulae

Statistical models are represented by formulae which are extremely close to the actual statistical notation:

in R	Model
y ~ x y ~ 0 + x	$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$ (same but short) $y_i = \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$ $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_j + (\beta_1 \beta_2) x_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$

Linear models

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k + \varepsilon$$

In R:

$$lm(y \sim x1 + x2 + ... + xk, data)$$

Extractor functions I

Extractor functions II

```
vcov()
          # Return the variance-covariance matrix of the
          # main parameters of a fitted model object
predict() # A new data frame must be supplied having the
          # same variables specified with the same labels
          # as the original. The value is a vector or
          # matrix of predicted values corresponding to
          # the determining variable values in data frame
step()
          # Select a suitable model by adding or dropping
          # terms and preserving hierarchies. The model
          # with the smallest value of AIC (Akaike's
          # Information Criterion) discovered in the
          # stepwise search is returned
```

Generalized linear models

$$g(\mu) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k + \varepsilon$$

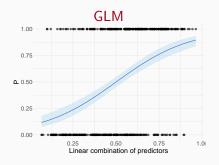
g() is the link functions that connects the mean to the linear combination of predictors.

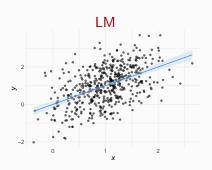
A GLM is composed of three elements: The response distribution, the link function, and the linear combination of predictors

In R:

$$glm(y \sim x1 + x2 + ... + xk, family(link), data)$$

LM vs GLM





Families

A special link function to each response variable. In ${\tt R}$ some different link functions are available by default:

Link functions

	_ · · · · · J · · · · · · · · ·
binomial	logit, probit, log, cloglog
gaussian	identity, log, inverse
Gamma	identity, inverse, log
inverse.gaussian	1/mu^2, identity, inverse, log
poisson	log, identity, sqrt
quasi	logit, probit, cloglog, identity, inverse,
	log. 1/mu^2. sart

Family name

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Random numbers generation

Use a random monster:







but its better with R

Random numbers drawn from a statistical distribution \rightarrow the distribution name (see ??Distributions for an exhaustive list of distribution) prefixed by r (random)

Sampling (with or without replacement) from a vector:

```
sample(1:5, size = 10, replace = T)
[1] 5 1 1 2 5 4 4 1 2 5
```

Make the simulations replicable by seeding them:

```
set.seed(999)
rpois(4, 5)
```

Bootstrap by resampling

- Compute the sample statistics on multiple bootstrap samples Bs drawn with replacement from the original data
- Assess the variability of the statistics via the distribution of the bootstrap replicates (i.e., the statics computed on the bootstrap samples)

Bootstrap confidence intervals

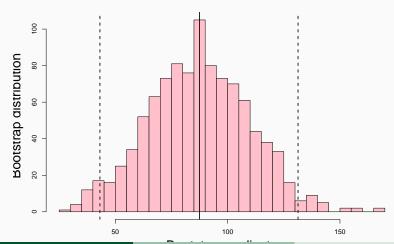
Percentile intervals are the $1-\alpha$ confidence intervals for the sample statistics with limits given by the quantiles of the bootstrap distribution

In R

```
# example taken from Prof. Wickelmaier
mouse <- data.frame(
   grp = rep(c("trt", "ctl"), c(7, 9)),
   surv = c(94, 197, 16, 38, 99, 141, 23, # trt
            52, 104, 146, 10, 50, 31, 40, 27, 46) # ctl
mean(mouse$surv[mouse$grp == "trt"]) #
[1] 86.85714
## Resampling
sam1 <- numeric(1000) # 1000 bootstrap replicates</pre>
for(i in seq along(sam1)){
 trt <- sample(mouse$surv[mouse$grp == "trt"], 7, replace=T)</pre>
 sam1[i] <- mean(trt)</pre>
```

quantile(sam1, c(.025, .975))

2.5% 97.5% 43.14286 131.33929



Parametric bootstrap

For the likelihood ratio test:

- Fit a general (M_1) and a restricted model (M_0) to the original data x. Compute the original likelihood ratio s(x) between M_1 and M_0
- Simulate B bootstrap samples based on the stochastic part of the restricted model: These are observations for which H_0 is true
- For each sample, fit M_1 and M_0 and compute the bootstrap replicate of the likelihood ratio between them
- Assess the significance of the original likelihood ratio via the sampling distribution of bootstrap replicates

```
## Model fit to original data
lm0 <- lm(surv ~ 1, mouse) # HO: no difference between gr</pre>
lm1 <- lm(surv ~ grp, mouse) # H1: group effect</pre>
anova(lm0. lm1)
                             # original likelihood ratio
[1] 1.257516
 ## Parametric bootstrap
sim1 <- numeric(1000)
for(i in seq_along(sim1)){
  surv0 <- simulate(lm0)$sim_1 # simulate from null model</pre>
  m0 <- lm(surv0 ~ 1, mouse)
                                 # fit null model
  m1 <- lm(surv0 ~ grp, mouse) # fit alternative model
  sim1[i] <- anova(m0, m1)$F[2] # bootstrap likeli. ratio</pre>
```

The bootstrap p-value is the proportion of bootstrap replicates that exceed the original likelihood ratio:

```
mean(sim1 > anova(lm0, lm1)$F[2])
[1] 0.304
```

