AMS 597: Statistical Computing

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Statistical Computing

- Computational statistics and statistical computing: computational, graphical, and numerical approaches to solving statistical problems.
- Monte Carlo methods refer to a diverse collection of methods in statistical inference and numerical analysis where simulation is used.

Introduction to R

- R is a system for statistical computation and graphics.
- Consists of a language plus a run-time environment with graphics, a debugger, access to certain system functions, and the ability to run programs stored in script files

Why R

- A language and software environment for statistical computing and graphics.
- R is free!
- It is open-source and involves many developers.
- The R system is developing rapidly.
- Straightforward simple calculations and analysis.
- Allows low level control for some tasks.

Why R

- Extensive graphical abilities.
- Sometimes R is slow.

• The way to obtain R is to download it from one of the CRAN (Comprehensive R Archive Network) sites. The main site is http://cran.r-project.org/.



• Alternatively, you can also download R studio which is an integrated development environment for R, a programming language for statistical computing and graphics https://rstudio.com/

- R packages can be obtained from CRAN (http://cran.r-project.org/) and Bioconductor (https://www.bioconductor.org/)
- Package installation: To work through the examples and exercises in this book, you should install the ISwR package, which contains the data sets.
- If you are connected to the Internet, you can start R and from the Windows and Macintosh versions using their convenient menu interfaces.

• On other platforms, you can type

```
install.packages("ISwR",
repos = 'http://cran.us.r-project.org')
```

- This will give off a harmless warning and install the package in the default location.
- If your R machine is not connected to the Internet, you can also download the package as a file via a different computer.

- Starting R is straightforward, but the method will depend on your computing platform.
- Then you may need to load the package you need for your work at the command prompt, e.g.,

library(ISwR)

- Command line interface that can be used interactively or in batch mode
- Example: evaluate the standard normal density at x=2

```
1/sqrt(2*pi)*exp(-2)

## [1] 0.05399097

dnorm(2)
```

```
## [1] 0.05399097
```

• Command prompt is >

• A command can be continued on the next line (+)

```
plot(cars, xlab="Speed", ylab="Distance to Stop",
main="Stopping Distance for Cars in 1920")
```

• Calculating an arithmetic expression: One of the simplest possible tasks in R is to enter an arithmetic expression and receive a result.

```
exp(-2)
```

[1] 0.1353353

- Exercise: Compute

 - **3**^2.81
 - \bullet sqrt(34.3)

- The [1] in front of the result is part of R's way of printing numbers and vectors. It is not useful here, but it becomes so when the result is a longer vector.
- The number in brackets is the index of the first number on that line. Consider the case of generating 20 random numbers from a normal distribution:

rnorm(20)

```
## [1] 1.64613825 -0.43248506 -0.07884087 -1.02264032 -2.708
## [7] 0.04279371 0.84667458 -0.65180540 -0.82056744 -0.604
## [13] 0.93743632 1.05891377 -0.79317272 -1.32214871 1.048
## [19] -0.34380640 0.29452628
```

• Assignments:

```
x <- 2
Х
## [1] 2
x+x
## [1] 4
x=2
3 -> x
Х
## [1] 3
x.1 < -2.3
```

[1] 2.3

x.1

• Vectorized arithmetic: The construct c() is used to define vectors.

```
weight <- c(60, 72, 57, 90, 95, 72)
weight
```

```
## [1] 60 72 57 90 95 72
```

• You can do calculations with vectors just like ordinary numbers, as long as they are of the same length.

```
height <- c(1.75, 1.80, 1.65, 1.90, 1.74, 1.91)
bmi <- weight/height^2
bmi
```

```
## [1] 19.59184 22.22222 20.93664 24.93075 31.37799 19.73630
```

[1] 23.13262

• It is in fact possible to perform arithmetic operations and calculate some basic statistics on vectors.

```
bmi<sup>2</sup>
## [1] 383.8401 493.8272 438.3429 621.5422 984.5782 389.5216
length(bmi)
## [1] 6
sum(bmi)
## [1] 138.7957
mean(bmi)
```

```
## [1] 4.493165
```

sd(bmi)

- Exercise:
 - Compute the (A) median and (B) variance of 'weight'
 - ② Compute the (A) covariance and (B) correlation of 'weight' and 'height'
 - **3** Implement the following operations:

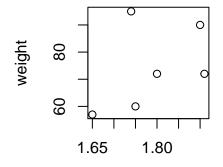
```
xbar <- sum(weight)/length(weight)
weight-xbar
sqrt(sum((weight - xbar)^2)/(length(weight) - 1))</pre>
```

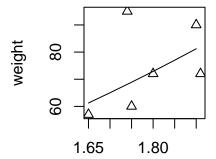
• Standard statistical procedures: You could run standard T-test to assess whether the six persons' BMI can be assumed to have mean 22.5 given that they come from a normal distribution.

```
t.test(bmi, mu=22.5)
##
##
    One Sample t-test
##
## data: bmi
## t = 0.34488, df = 5, p-value = 0.7442
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 22.5
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 18.41734 27.84791
## sample estimates:
## mean of x
## 23.13262
```

• Graphics:

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(height, weight)
plot(height, weight, pch=2)
hh <- c(1.65, 1.70, 1.75, 1.80, 1.85, 1.90)
lines(hh, 22.5*hh^2)</pre>
```





height height

- Expressions and objects: The basic interaction mode in R is one of expression evaluation.
- The user enters an expression; the system evaluates it and prints the result.
- All R expressions return a value (possibly NULL), but sometimes it is "invisible" and not printed.

- Functions and arguments: Many things in R are done using function calls, commands that look like an application of a mathematical function of one or several variables; for example, log(x).
- Vectors: We have already seen numeric vectors. There are two further types, character vectors and logical vectors. A character vector is a vector of text strings, whose elements are specified and printed in quotes.

• It does not matter whether you use single- or double-quote symbols, as long as the left quote is the same as the right quote.

```
c("Huey","Dewey","Louie")
## [1] "Huey" "Dewey" "Louie"
c('Huey','Dewey','Louie')
## [1] "Huey" "Dewey" "Louie"
```

 \bullet Logical vectors are constructed using the c function just like the other vector types

[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE TRUE

• Exercise: Try the following R script:

```
a <- c(2, 3, exp(3.2), sin(8))
a>3
as.logical(c(1,1,0,1))
as.numeric(c(T,T,F,T))
```

• Quoting and escape sequences

```
cat("Huey","Dewey","Louie", "\n")
## Huey Dewey Louie
cat("What is \"R\"?\n")
```

What is "R"?

• Missing values: R allows vectors to contain a special NA value as missing values.

```
a <- NA
a
## [1] NA
```

```
is.na(a)
```

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

• What about a <- "NA"

```
• Coersion into string: as.character()
  • String length: nchar()
a <- 12345
b <- as.character(a)</pre>
nchar(a)
## [1] 5
nchar(12)
## [1] 2
nchar(1234)
## [1] 4
```

```
nchar(a)
## [1] 0
a <- NA
nchar(a)
## [1] NA
a <- NULL
nchar(a)
## integer(0)
```

• Convert to upper/lower case

```
a <- "UPPERlower"
toupper(a)
## [1] "UPPERLOWER"
tolower(a)
## [1] "upperlower"
a <- "UPPERlower3.14159_)({:;"</pre>
toupper(a)
## [1] "UPPERLOWER3.14159 )({:;"
```

• Character translation

[1] "GUNNER"

```
a <- "butter"
chartr("u", "e", a)
## [1] "better"
a <- "BUTTER"
chartr("u","e", a)
## [1] "BUTTER"
old <- c("BT")
new <- c("GN")
chartr(old, new, a)
```

```
chartr("T", "GN", a)

## [1] "BUGGER"

chartr("TR", "N", a)
```

Error in chartr("TR", "N", a): 'old' is longer than 'new'

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Substrings

```
a <- "12345678"
substr(a,2,2)

## [1] "2"
substr(a,2,4)

## [1] "234"
substr(a,2)</pre>
```

Error in substr(a, 2): argument "stop" is missing, with no

```
substring(a,2)
## [1] "2345678"
substr(a, 3, 4) <- "Toyota"</pre>
a
## [1] "12To5678"
a <- "12345678"
substring(a, 3) = "Toyota"
а
## [1] "12Toyota"
```

• String Concatenation

```
a = "12345"
b = "6789"
paste(a, b)
## [1] "12345 6789"
paste(a, b, sep = "")
## [1] "123456789"
paste(a, b, sep = "honda")
## [1] "12345honda6789"
```

String manipulations

```
a = c("who", "what", "why", "where", "how")
paste(a)
## [1] "who" "what" "why" "where" "how"
paste(a, "?", sep = "")
## [1] "who?" "what?" "why?" "where?" "how?"
paste(a, "am i?", sep = " ")
## [1] "who am i?" "what am i?" "why am i?" "where am i?'
paste(a, "am i?", sep = " ", collapse = "###")
```

[1] "who am i?###what am i?###why am i?###where am i?###ho

String manipulations

• String Splitting

```
a \leftarrow "1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9"
b <- strsplit(a, split =",")</pre>
b
## [[1]]
## [1] "1" "2" "3" "4" "5" "6" "7" "8" "9"
class(b)
## [1] "list"
strsplit(a, split = "")
   \lceil \lceil 1 \rceil \rceil
##
   [1] "1" "," "2" "," "3" "," "4" "," "5" "," "6" "," "7" "
##
```

String manipulations

[1] ""

```
a \leftarrow c("1,2,3", "4,5,6", "7,8,9", "a,b,c", ",,asdf,,,")
strsplit(a,",")
## [[1]]
## [1] "1" "2" "3"
##
  [[2]]
##
## [1] "4" "5" "6"
##
   [[3]]
##
## [1] "7" "8" "9"
##
## [[4]]
## [1] "a" "b" "c"
##
## [[5]]
```

"asdf" ""

11 11

11 11

- String matching involves searching a string for substrings: grep(), grepl(), regexpr() and gregexpr()
- \bullet It is recommended to set perl=TRUE to use regular expressions with R
- By default, all matching are case sensitive. You can bypass this by setting ignore.case=TRUE
- For grep(), if value=TRUE then it returns the actual elements satisfying the matching criteria

```
a <- c("asdf", "asbf", "dfdf", "12365)")
grep("d", a, perl=TRUE)
## [1] 1 3
grep("d", a, perl=TRUE, value=TRUE)
## [1] "asdf" "dfdf"
grep("9", a)
## integer(0)
grep("df", a, value=TRUE)
## [1] "asdf" "dfdf"
```

- grep1() is almost similar to grep(), except that value argument is not supported
- grepl() returns a logical vector with the same length as the input vector.

```
grepl("df", a)
```

Г17 TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE

attr(,"useBytes")

[1] TRUE

- regexpr() returns an integer vector with the same length as the input vector
- Each element in the returned vector indicates the character position in each corresponding string element in the input vector at which the (first) regular expression match was found

```
regexpr("df", a, perl=TRUE)

## [1] 3 -1 1 -1

## attr(,"match.length")

## [1] 2 -1 2 -1

## attr(,"index.type")

## [1] "chars"
```

- gregexpr() returns a list with the same length as the input vector
- Each element is another vector, with one element for each match found in the string indicating the character position at which that match was found

```
gregexpr("df", a, perl=TRUE)
## [[1]]
## [1] 3
## attr(,"match.length")
## [1] 2
## attr(,"index.type")
## [1] "chars"
## attr(,"useBytes")
## [1] TRUE
##
   [[2]]
##
## [1] -1
```

• Some commonly used matching patterns

match 1 or more times
match 0 or more times
match exactly n times
match at least n times
match at least n times but not more than m times
match at the beginning of the line
match at the end of the line
match any character
match any lower case letters
match any lower case letters
match any digits between 0 and 9
match any digits between 0 and 9
match to a space

- Some commonly used matching patterns
- "\w": match a word character (letter, digit, or underscore)
- "\W": match a non-word character
- "\s": match a whitespace character
- "\S": match a non-whitespace character
- "\d": match a digit character
- \bullet "\D": match a non-digit character

[1] "acccb"

```
x <- "ab"
grep("^ac{3}b$", x, perl=TRUE, value=TRUE)

## character(0)
x <- "acccb"
grep("^ac{3}b$", x, perl=TRUE, value=TRUE)</pre>
```

- Replacing regular expression matches in string vectors can be done using gsub()
- Place the entire regular expression in a capturing group () and then use "\1" to insert the whole regular expression match

```
gsub("(df)", "8\\18", a, perl=TRUE)

## [1] "as8df8" "asbf" "8df88df8" "12365)"
```

• Use "\U" and "\L" to change the text inserted to uppercase or lowercase

```
gsub("(df)", "8\\U\\18", a, perl=TRUE)
## [1] "as8DF8" "asbf" "8DF88DF8" "12365)"
```

- Easy to use regular expression wrapper functions are implemented in stringr package
- Check str_subset(), str_detect(), str_extract(),
 str_match(), str_locate(), str_locate_all(),
 str_replace(), str_replace_all()

Exercise: How do you check if a string is a palindrome?

• Functions that create vectors: We introduce three functions, c, seq, and rep, that are used to create vectors in various situations.

```
c(42,57,12,39,1,3,4)

## [1] 42 57 12 39 1 3 4

x <- c(1, 2, 3)
y <- c(10, 20)
c(x, y, 5)
```

[1] 1 2 3 10 20 5

```
x <- c(red="Huey", blue="Dewey", green="Louie")
x

## red blue green
## "Huey" "Dewey" "Louie"
names(x)

## [1] "red" "blue" "green"</pre>
```

```
c(FALSE,3)
## [1] 0 3
c(pi,"abc")
## [1] "3.14159265358979" "abc"
c(FALSE,"abc")
## [1] "FALSE" "abc"
```

```
seq(4,9)
## [1] 4 5 6 7 8 9
seq(4,10,2)
## [1] 4 6 8 10
4:9
## [1] 4 5 6 7 8 9
```

```
oops \leftarrow c(7,9,13)
rep(oops,3)
## [1]
      7 9 13 7 9 13 7 9 13
rep(oops, 1:3)
## [1] 7 9 9 13 13 13
rep(oops,each=3)
## [1] 7 7 7 9 9 9 13 13 13
```

• Matrices and arrays

```
x < -1:12
dim(x) \leftarrow c(3,4)
X
##
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
## [1,] 1
                     10
## [2,] 2 5 8 11
## [3,] 3 6
                 9
                     12
matrix(1:12,nrow=3,byrow=T)
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
##
## [1,]
      1 2 3
## [2,] 5 6 7
## [3,] 9
            10
                11
                     12
```

[2,] 2 6 10 ## [3,] 3 7 11 ## [4,] 4 8 12

```
x <- matrix(1:12,nrow=3,byrow=T)
rownames(x) <- LETTERS[1:3]
t(x)
## A B C
## [1,] 1 5 9</pre>
```

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
## A 1 2 3 4
## B 5 6 7 8
## C 9 10 11 12
```

• Inverse solve() and matrix multiplication %*%

- Factors: It is common in statistical data to have categorical variables, indicating some subdivision of data.
- Such variables should be specified as factors in R. The terminology is that a factor has a set of levels.

```
pain \leftarrow c(0,3,2,2,1)
fpain <- factor(pain,levels=0:3)</pre>
levels(fpain) <- c("none", "mild", "medium", "severe")</pre>
fpain
## [1] none severe medium medium mild
## Levels: none mild medium severe
as.numeric(fpain)
## [1] 1 4 3 3 2
levels(fpain)
## [1] "none" "mild" "medium" "severe"
```

```
fpain2 <- factor(fpain, levels= c("medium", "none", "mild", "seve
fpain2

## [1] none severe medium medium mild
## Levels: medium none mild severe

fpain3 <- relevel(fpain, "medium")
fpain3</pre>
```

[1] none severe medium medium mild
Levels: medium none mild severe

• Lists: It is sometimes useful to combine a collection of objects into a larger composite object. This can be done using lists.

```
intake.pre <- c(5260, 5470, 5640, 6180, 6390, 6515,
      6805, 7515, 7515, 8230, 8770)
intake.post <- c(3910, 4220, 3885, 5160, 5645, 4680,
      5265, 5975, 6790, 6900, 7335)
mylist <- list(before = intake.pre, after = intake.post)
mylist</pre>
```

```
## $before

## [1] 5260 5470 5640 6180 6390 6515 6805 7515 7515 8230 8770

##

## $after

## [1] 3910 4220 3885 5160 5645 4680 5265 5975 6790 6900 7335
```

```
mylist$before

## [1] 5260 5470 5640 6180 6390 6515 6805 7515 7515 8230 8770

mylist$after
```

[1] 3910 4220 3885 5160 5645 4680 5265 5975 6790 6900 733

• Data frame: A data frame corresponds to what other statistical packages call a "data matrix" or a "data set". You can create data frames from pre-existing variables.

```
d <- data.frame(intake.pre, intake.post)
d</pre>
```

##	intake.pre	intake.post
## 1	5260	3910
## 2	5470	4220
## 3	5640	3885
## 4	6180	5160
## 5	6390	5645
## 6	6515	4680
## 7	6805	5265
## 8	7515	5975
## 9	7515	6790
## 10	8230	6900

##

```
d$intake.pre
```

[1] 5260 5470 5640 6180 6390 6515 6805 7515 7515 8230 8770 • Indexing: If you need a particular element in a vector, for instance

the pre-migraine supplement intake for person no. 5, you can do the following:

```
intake.pre[5]
## [1] 6390
intake.pre[c(3, 5, 7)]
```

[1] 5640 6390 6805

```
v \leftarrow c(3, 5, 7)
intake.pre[v]
## [1] 5640 6390 6805
intake.pre[1:5]
## [1] 5260 5470 5640 6180 6390
intake.pre[-c(3, 5, 7)]
  [1] 5260 5470 6180 6515 7515 7515 8230 8770
```

• Conditional selection:

```
intake.post[intake.pre > 7000]

## [1] 5975 6790 6900 7335
intake.post[intake.pre > 7000 & intake.pre <= 8000]

## [1] 5975 6790
intake.pre > 7000 & intake.pre <= 8000</pre>
```

[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE

```
d <- data.frame(intake.pre, intake.post)</pre>
d[5, 1]
## [1] 6390
d[5,]
##
     intake.pre intake.post
## 5
            6390
                         5645
d[d$intake.pre > 7000, ]
##
      intake.pre intake.post
## 8
             7515
                          5975
             7515
                          6790
## 9
## 10
             8230
                          6900
             8770
## 11
                          7335
```

```
sel <- d$intake.pre > 7000
sel
```

[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE

• match() and %in% operator

```
a <- c("a", "a", "c", "a", "c", "b")
match(a, c("a", "b"))
```

[1] 1 1 NA 1 NA 2

[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE

• Exercise: Subset the rows which correspond to 'f' in the following data.frame using match() and %in% operator

```
d1 <- data.frame(gender = c(rep(c("f", "m"), c(3, 8))),
   intake.pre, intake.post)</pre>
```

R: Commonly Used Operators

Description	R symbol	Example
Comment	#	#this is a comment
${ m Assignment}$	<-	x <- log2(2)
Concatenation operator	С	c(3,2,2)
Elementwise multiplication	*	a * b
Exponentiation	^	2^1.5
x mod y	х %% у	25 %% 3
Integer division	%/%	25 %/% 3
Sequence from a to b by h	seq	seq(a,b,h)
Sequence operator	:	0:20

R: Commonly Used Operators

Description	R symbol
Square root	sqrt
$\lfloor x \rfloor, \lceil x \rceil$	floor, ceiling
Natural logarithm	log
Exponential function e^x	exp
Factorial	factorial
Random Uniform numbers	runif
Random Normal numbers	rnorm
Normal distribution	pnorm, dnorm, qnorm
Rank, sort	${ t rank}, { t sort}$
Variance, covariance	var, cov
Std. dev., correlation	sd, cor
Frequency tables	table
Missing values	NA, is.na

R: Commonly Used Operators

Description	R symbol	Example
Zero vector	numeric(n)	x <- numeric(n)
	integer(n)	x < - integer(n)
	rep(0,n)	$x \leftarrow rep(0,n)$
Zero matrix	matrix(0,n,m)	$x \leftarrow matrix(0,n,m)$
i^{th} element of vector a	a[i]	a[i] <- 0
j^{th} column of a matrix A	A[,j]	<pre>sum(A[,j])</pre>
ij^{th} entry of matrix A	A[i,j]	x <- A[i,j]
Matrix multiplication	% * %	a %*% b
Elementwise multiplication	*	a * b
Matrix transpose	t	t(A)
Matrix inverse	solve	solve(A)