# Intro to R Statistics

#### Overview

We will cover how to use R to compute some of basic statistics and fit some basic statistical models.

- Correlation
- T-test
- Linear Regression
- Logistic Regression

**DISCLAIMER**: We will focus on how to use R software to do these. We will be glossing over the statistical theory and "formulas" for these tests. Moreover, we do not claim the data we use for demonstration meet assumptions of the methods.

There are plenty of resources online for learning more about these methods, as well as dedicated Biostatistics series (at different advancement levels) at the JHU School of Public Health.

# Correlation

#### Correlation

Function cor() computes correlation in R

```
cor(x, y = NULL, use = "everything",
  method = c("pearson", "kendall", "spearman"))
```

#### To use:

- · provide two numeric vectors (arguments x, y) to compute correlation between them, or
- provide matrix or data frame (argument x) that has at least 2 columns (must be numeric) to compute correlation between all pairs

By default, Pearson correlation coefficient is computed.

#### Correlation

https://jhudatascience.org/intro\_to\_R\_class/data/Charm\_City\_Circulator\_Ridership.csv

```
circ <- jhur::read circulator()</pre>
head(circ)
# A tibble: 6 x 15
  day date orangeBoardings orangeAlightings orangeAverage purpleBoarding
  <chr> <chr>
                             <dbl>
                                               <dbl>
                                                              <dbl>
                                                                               < dk
1 Monday 01/11/...
                               877
                                                               952
                                                1027
2 Tuesday 01/12/...
                              777
                                                 815
                                                               796
3 Wednes... 01/13/...
                              1203
                                                1220
                                                              1212.
4 Thursd... 01/14/...
                                                              1214.
                              1194
                                                1233
5 Friday 01/15/...
                              1645
                                                1643
                                                              1644
6 Saturd... 01/16/...
                              1457
                                                1524
                                                              1490.
 ... with 9 more variables: purpleAlightings <dbl>, purpleAverage <dbl>,
    greenBoardings <dbl>, greenAlightings <dbl>, greenAverage <dbl>,
   bannerBoardings <dbl>, bannerAlightings <dbl>, bannerAverage <dbl>,
    daily <dbl>
```

#### Correlation for two vectors

First, we compute correlation by providing two vectors.

Like other functions, if there are NAS, you get NA as the result. But if you specify use only the complete observations, then it will give you correlation using the non-missing data.

```
x <- pull(circ, orangeAverage)
y <- pull(circ, purpleAverage)

cor(x, y)

[1] NA

cor(x, y, use = "complete.obs")

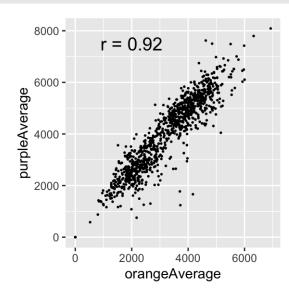
[1] 0.9195356</pre>
```

#### Correlation for two vectors with plot

Note that you can add the correlation value to a plot, via the annotate().

```
cor_val <- cor(x, y, use = "complete.obs")
cor_val_label <- paste0("r = ", round(cor_val, 3))

circ %>%
   ggplot(aes(x = orangeAverage, y = purpleAverage)) +
   geom_point(size = 0.3) +
   annotate("text", x = 2000, y = 7500, label = cor_val_label, size = 5)
```



#### Correlation for data frame columns

We can compute correlation for all pairs of columns of a data frame / matrix. We typically just say, "compute correlation matrix".

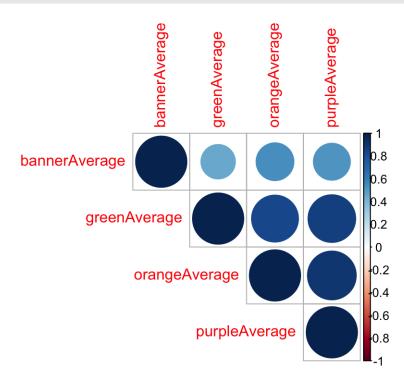
Columns must be all numeric!

```
circ subset Average <- circ %>% select(ends with("Average"))
dim(circ subset Average)
[1] 1146
           4
cor mat <- cor(circ subset Average, use = "complete.obs")</pre>
cor mat
             orangeAverage purpleAverage greenAverage bannerAverage
                                          0.8395806
                1.0000000
                          0.9078826
                                                       0.5447031
orangeAverage
purpleAverage
                0.9078826 1.0000000
                                          0.8665630
                                                       0.5213462
                0.8395806 0.8665630
                                          1.000000
greenAverage
                                                       0.4533421
                0.5447031
                          0.5213462
                                          0.4533421
                                                       1.0000000
bannerAverage
```

# Correlation for data frame columns with plot

Google, "r correlation matrix plot"

```
library(corrplot)
corrplot(cor_mat, type = "upper", order = "hclust")
```



# Lab Part 1

Website

# T-test

#### T-test

The commonly used are:

- one-sample t-test used to test mean of a variable in one group
- two-sample t-test used to test difference in means of a variable between two groups (if the "two groups" are data of the same individuals collected at 2 time points, we say it is two-sample paired t-test)

The t.test() function in R is one to address the above.

```
t.test(x, y = NULL,
    alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
    mu = 0, paired = FALSE, var.equal = FALSE,
    conf.level = 0.95, ...)
```

#### Running one-sample t-test

It tests mean of a variable in one group. By default (i.e., without us explicitly specifying values of other arguments):

- tests whether a mean of a variable is equal to 0 (mu=0)
- uses "two sided" alternative (alternative = "two.sided")
- returns result assuming confidence level 0.95 (conf.level = 0.95)

```
x <- pull(circ, orangeAverage)
t.test(x)

One Sample t-test

data: x
t = 83.279, df = 1135, p-value < 0.00000000000000022
alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
    2961.700 3104.622
sample estimates:
mean of x
    3033.161</pre>
```

#### Running two-sample t-test

It tests test difference in means of a variable between two groups. By default:

- tests whether difference in means of a variable is equal to 0 (mu=0)
- uses "two sided" alternative (alternative = "two.sided")
- returns result assuming confidence level 0.95 (conf.level = 0.95)
- assumes data are not paired (paired = FALSE)
- assumes true variance in the two groups is not equal (var.equal = FALSE)

```
x <- pull(circ, orangeAverage)
y <- pull(circ, purpleAverage)
t.test(x, y)

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: x and y
t = -17.076, df = 1984, p-value < 0.00000000000000022
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
    -1096.7602   -870.7867
sample estimates:
mean of x mean of y
    3033.161   4016.935</pre>
```

#### T-test: retrieving information from the result

Object returned from t.test() function is a named list. We can use it to access test result elements. The easiest way to do this is to use base R (\$ notation).

```
result <- t.test(x, y)
is.list(result)
[1] TRUE
names (result)
 [1] "statistic" "parameter"
                              "p.value" "conf.int"
                                                          "estimate"
 [6] "null.value" "stderr"
                               "alternative" "method"
                                                          "data.name"
result$statistic
-17.07579
result$p.value
```

#### T-test: retrieving information from the result with **broom** package

The broom package has a tidy() function that can organize results into a data frame so that they are easily manipulated (or nicely printed)

#### Some other statistical tests

- wilcox.test() Wilcoxon signed rank test, Wilcoxon rank sum test
- shapiro.test() Shapiro test
- ks.test() Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
- var.test() Fisher's F-Test
- chisq.test() Chi-squared test

# Lab Part 2

Website

# Regression

#### Linear regression

Linear regression is a method to model the relationship between a response and one or more explanatory variables.

We provide a little notation here so some of the commands are easier to put in the proper context.

$$y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

#### where:

- $y_i$  is the outcome for person i
- $\alpha$  is the intercept
- $\beta$  is the slope
- ·  $x_i$  is the predictor for person i
- ·  $arepsilon_i$  is the residual variation for person i

# Linear regression

Linear regression is a method to model the relationship between a response and one or more explanatory variables.

We provide a little notation here so some of the commands are easier to put in the proper context.

$$y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$$

#### where:

- $y_i$  is the outcome for person i
- $\alpha$  is the intercept
- $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_2$  are the slopes for variables  $x_{i1}$ ,  $x_{i2}$ ,  $x_{i3}$
- $x_{i1}$ ,  $x_{i2}$ ,  $x_{i3}$  are the predictors for person i
- ·  $arepsilon_i$  is the residual variation for person i

# Linear regression fit in R

To fit linear models in R, we use function lm().

```
lm(formula, data, subset, weights, na.action,
  method = "qr", model = TRUE, x = FALSE, y = FALSE, qr = TRUE,
  singular.ok = TRUE, contrasts = NULL, offset, ...)
```

We typically provide two arguments:

- formula model formula written using names of columns in our data
- · data our data frame

# Linear regression fit in R: model formula

Model formula

$$y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

translates to  $y \sim x$  in R formula for this example.

In practice, y and x are replaced with the names of columns from our data set.

 For example, if we want to fit a regression model where outcome is income and predictor is years of education, our formula would be:

```
income ~ years_of_education
```

# Linear regression fit in R: model formula

Model formula

$$y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3} + \varepsilon_i$$

translates to  $y \sim x1 + x2 + x3$  in R formula for this example.

In practice, y and x1, x2, x3 are replaced with the names of columns from our data set.

 For example, if we want to fit a regression model where outcome is income and predictors are years\_of\_education, age, location then our formula would be:

```
income ~ years of education + age + location
```

#### Linear regression

We will use kaggleCarAuction.csv dataset from one of the Kaggle competitions.

https://jhudatascience.org/intro\_to\_R\_class/data/kaggleCarAuction.csv

```
cars <- jhur::read kaggle()</pre>
head(cars)
# A tibble: 6 x 34
 RefId IsBadBuy PurchDate Auction VehYear VehicleAge Make Model Trim
                                                                   SubMod
 <dbl>
          0 12/7/2009 ADESA 2006
                                                 3 MAZDA MAZD... i
                                                                   4D SEI
              0 12/7/2009 ADESA 2004
                                                 5 DODGE 1500... ST
                                                                   QUAD (
             0 12/7/2009 ADESA 2005
0 12/7/2009 ADESA 2004
3
                                                4 DODGE STRA... SXT
                                                                   4D SEI
4
                                                 5 DODGE NEON SXT
                                                                   4D SEI
5
              0 12/7/2009 ADESA 2005
                                                4 FORD FOCUS ZX3
                                                                   2D COU
              0 12/7/2009 ADESA 2004
                                                 5 MITS... GALA... ES
                                                                    4D SEI
   with 24 more variables: Color <chr>, Transmission <chr>, WheelTypeID <chr>
   WheelType <chr>, VehOdo <dbl>, Nationality <chr>, Size <chr>,
   TopThreeAmericanName <chr>, MMRAcquisitionAuctionAveragePrice <chr>,
   MMRAcquisitionAuctionCleanPrice <chr>,
   MMRAcquisitionRetailAveragePrice <chr>,
   MMRAcquisitonRetailCleanPrice <chr>, MMRCurrentAuctionAveragePrice <chr>,
   MMRCurrentAuctionCleanPrice <chr>, MMRCurrentRetailAveragePrice <chr>,
   MMRCurrentRetailCleanPrice <chr>, PRIMEUNIT <chr>, AUCGUART <chr>,
#
   BYRNO <dbl>, VNZIP1 <dbl>, VNST <chr>, VehBCost <dbl>, IsOnlineSale <dbl>,
#
   WarrantyCost <dbl>
```

# Linear regression: model fitting

We fit linear regression model with vehicles odometer (distance traveled by a vehicle; Vehodo) as an outcome and vehicle (VehicleAge) age as a predictor.

#### Linear regression: model summary

The summary () command returns a list that shows us some more detail

```
sfit <- summary(fit)</pre>
print(sfit)
Call:
lm(formula = VehOdo ~ VehicleAge, data = cars)
Residuals:
  Min 10 Median 30 Max
-71097 -9500 1383 10323 41037
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
VehicleAge 2722.94 29.86 91.18 < 0.000000000000000 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 13810 on 72981 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1023, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1023
F-statistic: 8314 on 1 and 72981 DF, p-value: < 0.000000000000022
```

# Linear regression: retrieving information with broom package

Use tidy to create a tibble with the coefficient estimates.

2 VehicleAge 2723. 29.9 91.2

# Linear regression: model summary

Model summary is a named list and we can access its specific elements. Again, we should use base R (\$ notation).

```
names(sfit)

[1] "call" "terms" "residuals" "coefficients" "df" "r.squared" "r.squared" "sigma" "cov.unscaled" "r.squared" "sfit$r.squared "cov.unscaled" "1] 0.1022682
```

# Linear regression: multiple predictors

Let's try adding another explanatory variable to our model, Warranty price (WarrantyCost)

```
fit 2 <- lm(VehOdo ~ VehicleAge + WarrantyCost, data = cars)
summary(fit 2)
Call:
lm(formula = VehOdo ~ VehicleAge + WarrantyCost, data = cars)
Residuals:
  Min 1Q Median 3Q
                      Max
-67895 -8673 940 9305 45765
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value
                                          Pr(>|t|)
WarrantyCost 8.58147 0.08251 104.01 < 0.000000000000000 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 12890 on 72980 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.2182, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2181
F-statistic: 1.018e+04 on 2 and 72980 DF, p-value: < 0.0000000000000022
```

#### Linear regression: factors

Factors get special treatment in regression models - lowest level of the factor is the comparison group, and all other factors are relative to its values.

TopThreeAmericanName states if the manufacturer is one of the top three American manufacturers.

```
top_3 <- pull(cars, TopThreeAmericanName)
table(top_3)

top_3
CHRYSLER FORD GM NULL OTHER
23399 12315 25314 5 11950</pre>
```

#### Linear regression: factors

```
fit 3 <- lm(VehOdo ~ factor(TopThreeAmericanName), data = cars)</pre>
summary(fit 3)
Call:
lm(formula = VehOdo ~ factor(TopThreeAmericanName), data = cars)
Residuals:
  Min 10 Median 30
                            Max
-71947 -9634 1532 10472 45936
Coefficients:
                               Estimate Std. Error t value
                               68248.48
                                          92.98 733.984
(Intercept)
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)FORD 8523.49 158.35 53.828
                              4952.18 128.99 38.393
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)GM
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)NULL -2004.68 6361.60 -0.315
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)OTHER 584.87 159.92 3.657
                                          Pr(>|t|)
                               < 0.0000000000000000002 ***
(Intercept)
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)GM
                             < 0.00000000000000000002 ***
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)NULL
                                          0.752670
factor (TopThreeAmericanName) OTHER
                                          0.000255 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 14220 on 72978 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.04822, Adjusted R-squared: 0.04817
F-statistic: 924.3 on 4 and 72978 DF, p-value: < 0.0000000000000022
```

# Linear regression: retrieving information with broom package

tidy(fit 3)

```
# A tibble: 5 \times 5
                               estimate std.error statistic p.value
 term
                                                            <dbl>
 <chr>
                                  <dbl>
                                           <dbl> <dbl>
                                          93.0 734.
                                 68248.
1 (Intercept)
                                 8523. 158. 53.8
2 factor (TopThreeAmericanName) FORD
                                4952. 129. 38.4 2.74e-319
3 factor (TopThreeAmericanName) GM
4 factor (TopThreeAmericanName) NULL -2005. 6362. -0.315 7.53e- 1
5 factor(TopThreeAmericanName)OTHER
                                585. 160. 3.66 2.55e- 4
```

#### Generalized Linear Models (GLMs)

Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) allow for fitting regressions for non-continuous/normal outcomes. Examples include: logistic regression, Poisson regression.

We fit GLM with a glm() function that has a very similar syntax to the lm() function.

The primary difference is in glm(), we additionally specify the family argument – a description of the error distribution and link function to be used in the model. These include:

- binomial(link = "logit")
- poisson(link = "log"), and other.

See ?family documentation for details of family functions.

#### Logistic regression

IsBadBuy is a 0/1-valued variable stating "if the kicked vehicle was an avoidable purchase".

```
glm fit <- glm(IsBadBuy ~ VehOdo + VehicleAge, data = cars, family = binomial())</pre>
summary(glm fit)
Call:
glm(formula = IsBadBuy ~ VehOdo + VehicleAge, family = binomial(),
   data = cars)
Deviance Residuals:
   Min 10 Median 30
                                    Max
-0.9943 \quad -0.5481 \quad -0.4534 \quad -0.3783 \quad 2.6318
Coefficients:
               Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -3.7782285193  0.0638091954 -59.211 <0.0000000000000000 ***
VehOdo 0.0000083410 0.0000008526 9.783 <0.000000000000000 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 54421 on 72982 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 52346 on 72980 degrees of freedom
AIC: 52352
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

#### Final note

#### Some final notes:

- Researcher's responsibility to understand the statistical method they use underlying assumptions, correct interpretation of method results
- Researcher's responsibility to understand the R software they use meaning of function's arguments and meaning of function's output elements

# Lab Part 3

Website