

Chapter 2: Exploring Data

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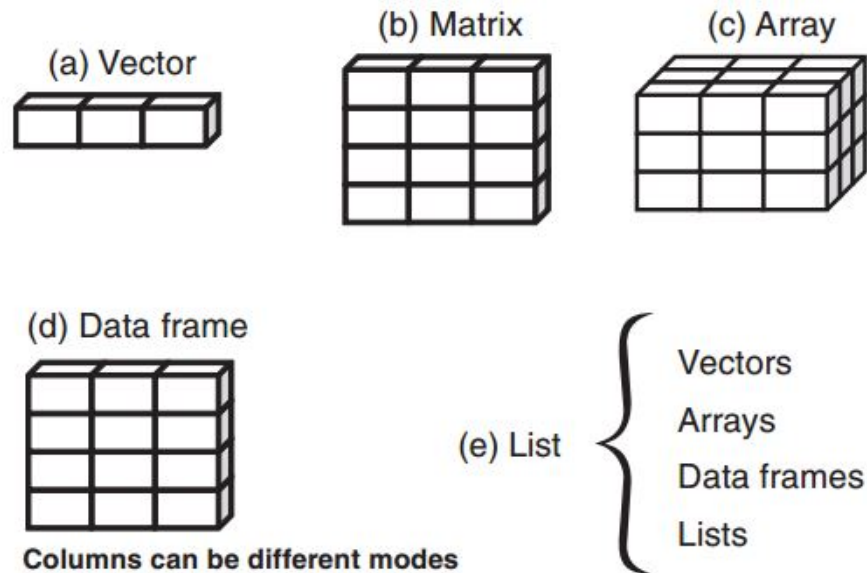
Overview

The main objective in this chapter is to introduce data science toolbox using *tidyverse* packages.

- ▷ Section 1: Structures of data in R (Kabacoff 2015)
- ▷ Section 2: Visualizing data via the ggplot2 package (Wickham and Grolemund 2016)
- ▷ Section 3: Wrangling data via the dplyr package (Wickham and Grolemund 2016)
- ▷ Section 4: How to tidy your data (Wickham and Grolemund 2016)
 - Understanding the concept of “tidy” data as a standardized data input format for all packages in the tidyverse.
 - Import Data with readr
 - Convert data to a tibble
 - Tidy data with tidyr
- ▷ Finally, we introduce the basic descriptive statistics in Section 5 (Ugarte, Militino, and Arnholt 2016).

1 Data Structure

Objects for holding data



1.1 Vectors

Vectors

Vectors are one-dimensional arrays that can hold numeric data, character data, or logical data

▷ The combine function `c()` is used to form the vector

```
> a<-c(1, 2, 5, 3, 4) # numeric vector
> b<-c("one","two","three") # character vector
> c<-c(TRUE,TRUE,FALSE) # logical vector
> a

[1] 1 2 5 3 4

> b[2]

[1] "two"
```

1.2 Matrices

Matrices

A **matrix** is a two-dimensional array in which each element has the *same mode* (numeric, character, or logical).

```

mymatrix <- matrix(vector, nrow=m, ncol=n,
                    byrow=logical_value, dimnames=list(
                        char_vector_rownames, char_vector_colnames))

```

```

> y<-matrix(0:9, nrow=2, ncol=5);y

      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
[1,]    0    2    4    6    8
[2,]    1    3    5    7    9

> y[,1]; y[2,]

[1] 0 1
[1] 1 3 5 7 9

```

Matrices

```

> cells<-c(1,26,24,68)
> rnames<-c("R1", "R2")
> cnames<-c("C1", "C2")
> mymatrix<-matrix(cells,nrow=2,ncol=2,byrow=TRUE,
+                  dimnames=list(rnames, cnames))
> mymatrix

      C1 C2
R1    1 26
R2   24 68

```

1.3 Arrays

Arrays

Arrays are similar to matrices but can have more than two dimensions

```

myarray <- array(vector, dimensions, dimnames)

```

```

> dim1<-c("A1","A2")
> dim2<-c("B1","B2","B3")
> dim3<-c("C1","C2","C3","C4")
> z<-array(1:24,c(2,3,4),dimnames=list(dim1,dim2,dim3))

```

Arrays

```

> z

, , C1

      B1 B2 B3
A1    1  3  5
A2    2  4  6

```

```
, , C2

      B1 B2 B3
A1   7  9 11
A2   8 10 12

, , C3

      B1 B2 B3
A1  13 15 17
A2  14 16 18

, , C4

      B1 B2 B3
A1  19 21 23
A2  20 22 24
```

1.4 Data Frame

Data Frame: Most used structure in Statistics

A **data frame** is more general than a matrix in that different columns can contain *different modes* of data (numeric, character, and so on)

```
mydata <- data.frame(col1, col2, col3,...)
```

where col1, col2, col3, and so on are column vectors of any type .

Example

```
> patientID<-c(1, 2, 3, 4)
> age<-c(25,34,28,52)
> diabetes<-c("Type1","Type2","Type1","Type1")
> status<-c("Poor","Improved","Excellent","Poor")
> patientdata<-data.frame(patientID,age,diabetes,status)
> patientdata
```

	patientID	age	diabetes	status
1	1	25	Type1	Poor
2	2	34	Type2	Improved
3	3	28	Type1	Excellent
4	4	52	Type1	Poor

Frequently used: str() and summary()

str(object) gives the structure of an object

```
> str(patientdata)

'data.frame': 4 obs. of 4 variables:
 $ patientID: num 1 2 3 4
 $ age : num 25 34 28 52
 $ diabetes : Factor w/ 2 levels "Type1","Type2": 1 2 1 1
 $ status : Factor w/ 3 levels "Excellent","Improved",...: 3 2 1 3
```

```
> summary(patientdata)

  patientID      age      diabetes      status
Min.   :1.00  Min.   :25.00  Type1:3  Excellent:1
1st Qu.:1.75  1st Qu.:27.25  Type2:1  Improved :1
Median :2.50  Median :31.00              Poor    :2
Mean   :2.50  Mean   :34.75
3rd Qu.:3.25  3rd Qu.:38.50
Max.   :4.00  Max.   :52.00
```

Frequently used: head() and tail()

head(object) lists the first part of an object. tail(object) lists the last part of an object. They are useful for quickly scanning large datasets.

```
> head(patientdata)

  patientID age diabetes      status
1          1  25   Type1      Poor
2          2  34   Type2  Improved
3          3  28   Type1  Excellent
4          4  52   Type1      Poor
```

Specifying elements of a data frame

```
> patientdata$age #variable age from patientdata

[1] 25 34 28 52

> patientdata[1:2]

  patientID age
1          1  25
2          2  34
3          3  28
4          4  52

> patientdata[c("diabetes", "status")]

  diabetes      status
1   Type1      Poor
2   Type2  Improved
3   Type1  Excellent
4   Type1      Poor
```

1.5 Factors

Types of variables

▷ Nominal variables

- are categorical, without an implied order. e.g. Diabetes (Type1, Type2)

▷ Ordinal variables

- categorical, imply order but not amount. e.g. Status (poor, improved, excellent)

▷ Continuous variables

- can take on any value within some range, and both order and amount are implied

▷ *Categorical* (nominal) and *ordered categorical* (ordinal) variables in R are called factors

The use of factor()

```
> diabetes<-c("Type1","Type2","Type1","Type1")
> diabetes

[1] "Type1" "Type2" "Type1" "Type1"

> diabetes<-factor(diabetes)
> diabetes

[1] Type1 Type2 Type1 Type1
Levels: Type1 Type2

> levels(diabetes)

[1] "Type1" "Type2"

> class(diabetes)

[1] "factor"
```

Ordered factor

```
> status<-c("Poor","Improved","Excellent","Poor")
> status1<-factor(status,order=TRUE)
> status1

[1] Poor      Improved  Excellent Poor
Levels: Excellent < Improved < Poor

> status2<-factor(status,order=TRUE,levels=c("Poor","Improved","Excellent"))
> status2

[1] Poor      Improved  Excellent Poor
Levels: Poor < Improved < Excellent

> status3<-ordered(status)
> status3

[1] Poor      Improved  Excellent Poor
Levels: Excellent < Improved < Poor
```

1.6 Lists

List: the most flexible and richest structure in R

Basically, a **list** is an ordered collection of objects (components).

A **list** allows you to gather a variety of (possibly unrelated) objects under one name.

`list()`

```
mylist<-list(object1,object2,...)
```

or

```
mylist<-list(name1=object1,name2=object2,...)
```

Example of a list

```
> g<-"My First List"
> h<-c(25, 26, 18, 39)
> j<-matrix(1:10,nrow=2)
> k<-c("one", "two", "three")
> mylist<-list(title=g,ages=h,j,k)
> mylist

$title
[1] "My First List"

$ages
[1] 25 26 18 39

[[3]]
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
[1,]    1    3    5    7    9
[2,]    2    4    6    8   10

[[4]]
[1] "one"  "two"  "three"
```

```
> mylist[[2]]

[1] 25 26 18 39

> mylist[["ages"]]

[1] 25 26 18 39
```

Data types summary

What type is your data?

Data structure	Instruction in R	Description
vector	<code>c()</code>	Sequence of elements of the same nature .
matrix	<code>matrix()</code>	Two-dimensional table of elements of the same nature .
multidimensional table	<code>array()</code>	More general than a matrix; table with several dimensions.
list	<code>list()</code>	Sequence of R structures of any (and possibly different) nature.
individual×variable table	<code>data.frame()</code>	Two-dimensional table. The columns can be of different natures, but must have the same length.
factor	<code>factor()</code> , <code>ordered()</code>	Vector of character strings associated with a modality table.
dates	<code>as.Date()</code>	Vector of dates.
time series	<code>ts()</code>	Values of a variable observed at several time points.

Type	Description
<code>class()</code>	Class from which object inherits (vector, matrix, function, logical, list, ...)
<code>mode()</code>	Numeric, character, logical, ...
<code>storage.mode()</code>	Mode used by R to store object (double, integer, character, logical, ...)
<code>is.function()</code>	Logical (TRUE if function)
<code>is.na()</code>	Logical (TRUE if missing)
<code>names()</code>	Names associated with object
<code>dimnames()</code>	Names for each dim of array
<code>attributes()</code>	Names, class, etc.

2 Data visualisation with ggplot2

2.1 Data and Aesthetics mapping

Introduction to ggplot2

ggplot2 is a powerful and a flexible R package, implemented by *Hadley Wickham*, for producing elegant graphics.

The *gg* means *Grammar of Graphics*:

“Plot = data + Aesthetics + Geometry”

data is a data frame

Aesthetics is used to indicate x and y variables. It can be also used to control the color, the size or the shape of points, the height of bars, etc....

Geometry corresponds to the *type of graphics* (histogram, box plot, line plot, density plot, dot plot,)

Dataset mpg

Contains observations collected by the US Environment Protection Agency on 38 models of cars.

```
> head(mpg)

# A tibble: 6 x 11
  manufacturer model displ  year  cyl trans  drv    cty   hwy fl    class
  <chr>         <chr> <dbl> <int> <int> <chr>  <chr> <int> <int> <chr> <chr>
1 audi         a4      1.8  1999    4 auto(~ f      18    29 p    comp~
2 audi         a4      1.8  1999    4 manua~ f      21    29 p    comp~
3 audi         a4      2    2008    4 manua~ f      20    31 p    comp~
4 audi         a4      2    2008    4 auto(~ f      21    30 p    comp~
5 audi         a4      2.8  1999    6 auto(~ f      16    26 p    comp~
6 audi         a4      2.8  1999    6 manua~ f      18    26 p    comp~
```

Variables involved in mpg

hwy Fuel efficiency on the highway, in miles per gallon

year year of manufacture

displ Engine size, in liters

model model name

drv f = front-wheel drive, r = rear wheel drive, 4 = 4wd

trans type of transmission

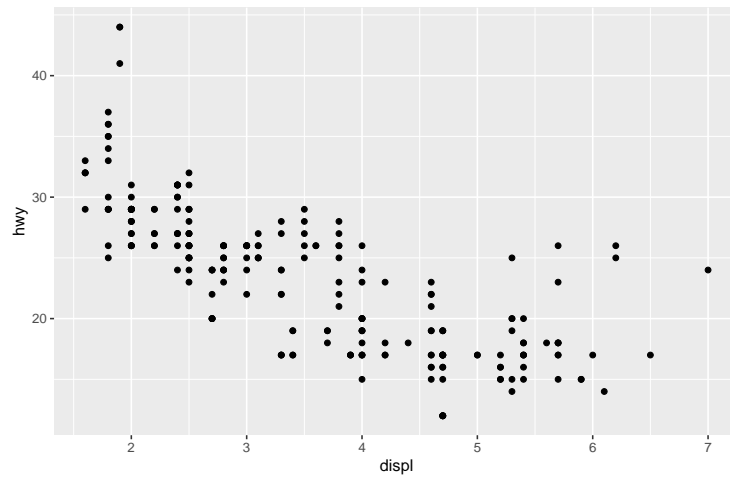
cyl number of cylinders

cty city miles per gallon

class "type" of car

Creating a ggplot

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +
+   geom_point(mapping = aes(x = displ, y = hwy))
```



Save ggplots

Print the plot to a *pdf* file

```
pdf("myplot.pdf")
myplot <- ggplot(...)
print(myplot)
dev.off()
```

Print the plot to a *png* file

```
png("myplot.png")
print(myplot)
dev.off()
```

Save the plot to a pdf

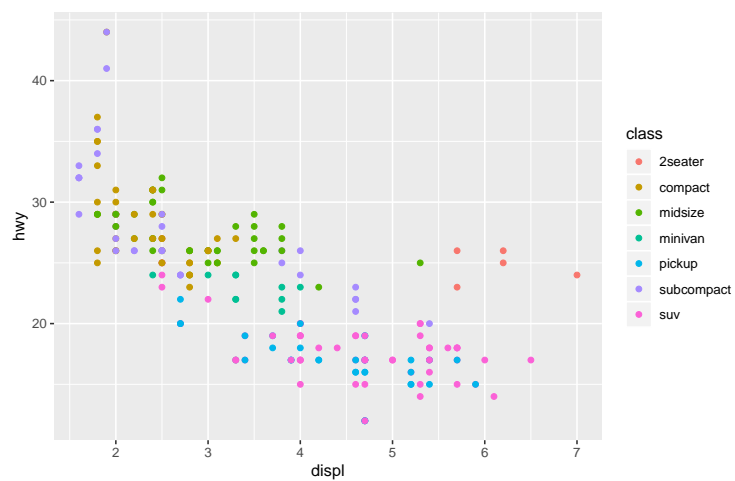
```
ggsave("myplot.pdf")
```

OR save it to png file

```
ggsave("myplot.png")
```

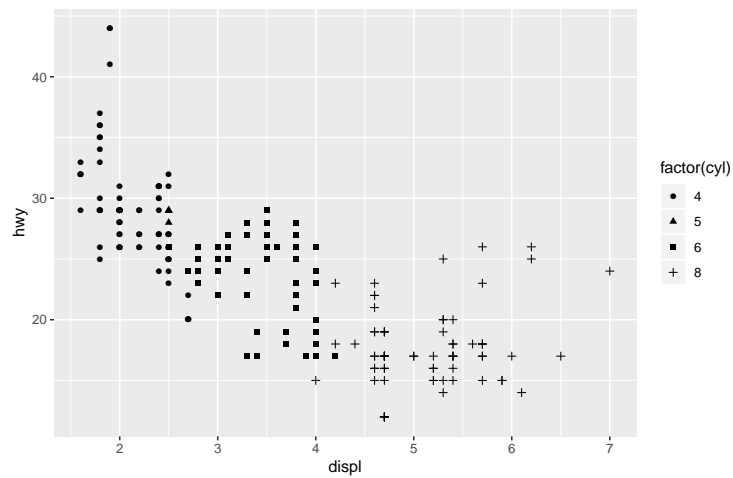
with colors

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +
+   geom_point(mapping = aes(x = displ, y = hwy, color = class))
```



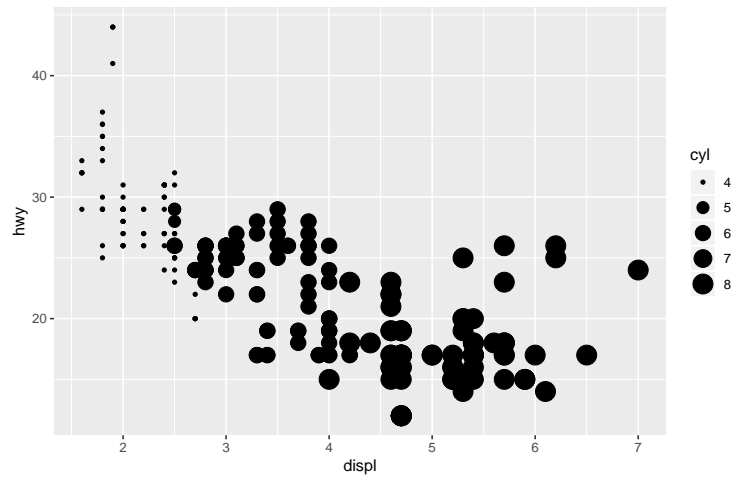
Shape of the points

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +
+   geom_point(mapping = aes(x = displ, y = hwy, shape = factor(cyl)))
```



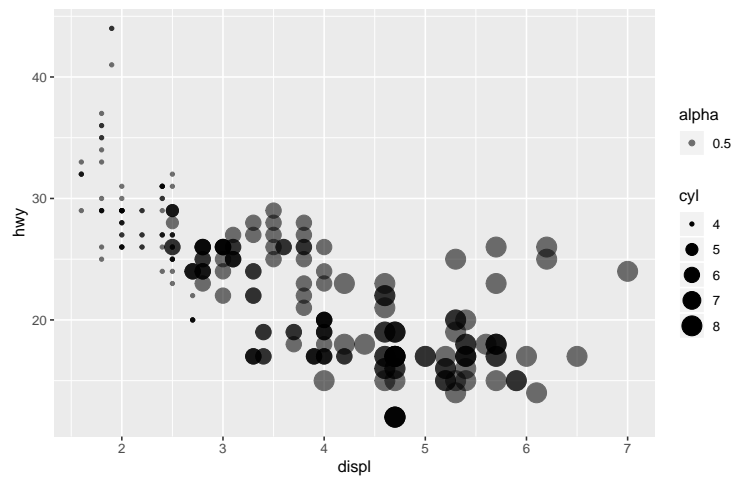
Variable size of points

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +
+   geom_point(mapping = aes(x = displ, y = hwy, size = cyl))
```



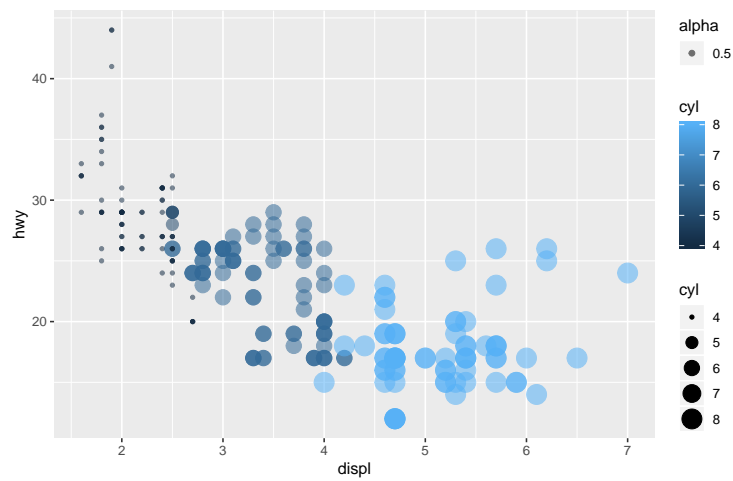
Variable points: size and transparency

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +
+   geom_point(mapping = aes(x = displ, y = hwy,
+                             size = cyl, alpha = 0.5))
```



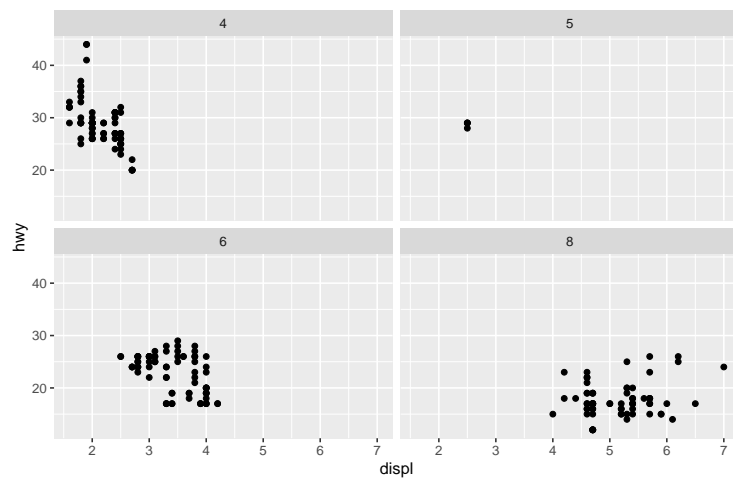
Variable points: size, colors and transparency

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +
+   geom_point(mapping = aes(x = displ, y = hwy,
+                             size = cyl, color = cyl, alpha = 0.5))
```



Facets

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +
+   geom_point(mapping = aes(x = displ, y = hwy)) +
+   facet_wrap(~ cyl, nrow = 2)
```



2.2 Geometric Objects

Plot one variable

▷ For one continuous variable:

`geom_histogram()` for histogram plot

`geom_area()` for area plot

`geom_density()` for density plot

`geom_dotplot()` for dot plot
`geom_freqpoly()` for frequency polygon
`stat_ecdf()` for empirical cumulative density function
`stat_qq()` for quantile - quantile plotting

▷ For one discrete variable:

`geom_bar()` for bar plot

Plot two variables

`geom_point()` for scatter plot

`geom_smooth()` for adding smoothed line such as regression line

`geom_boxplot()` for comparison of continuous y and discrete x

`geom_quantile()` for adding quantile lines

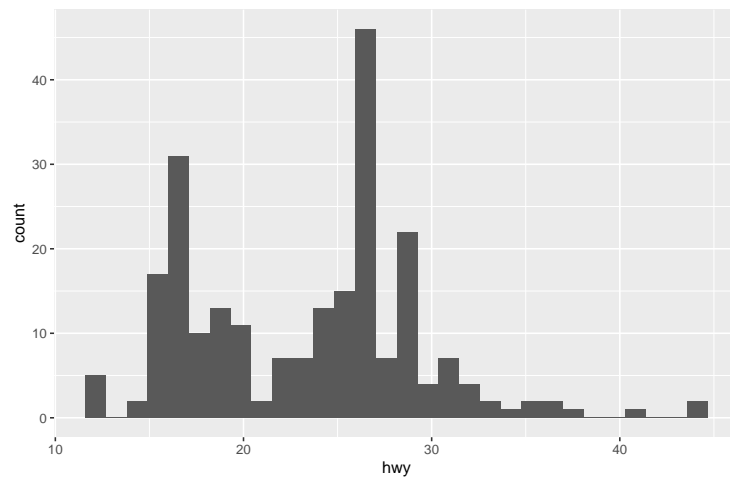
`geom_rug()` for adding a marginal rug

`geom_jitter()` for avoiding overplotting

`geom_text()` for adding textual annotations

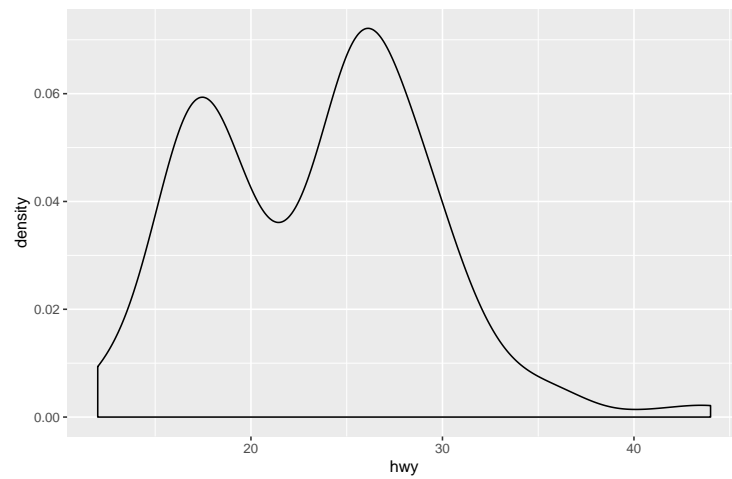
Plot of hwy: histogram

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +  
+   geom_histogram(aes(x = hwy))
```



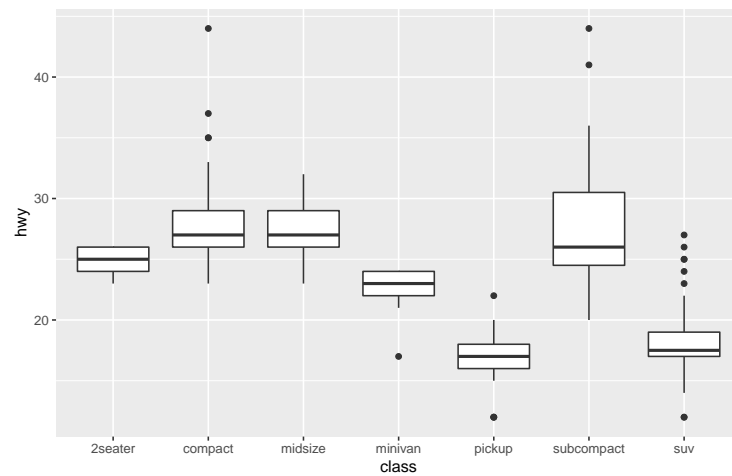
Plot of hwy: density

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +  
+   geom_density(aes(x = hwy))
```



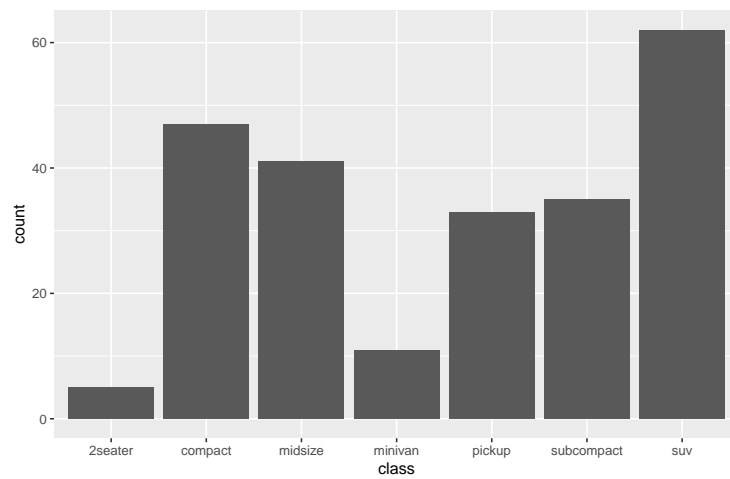
Plot of hwy: box plot for comparison

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +  
+   geom_boxplot(aes(x = class, y = hwy))
```



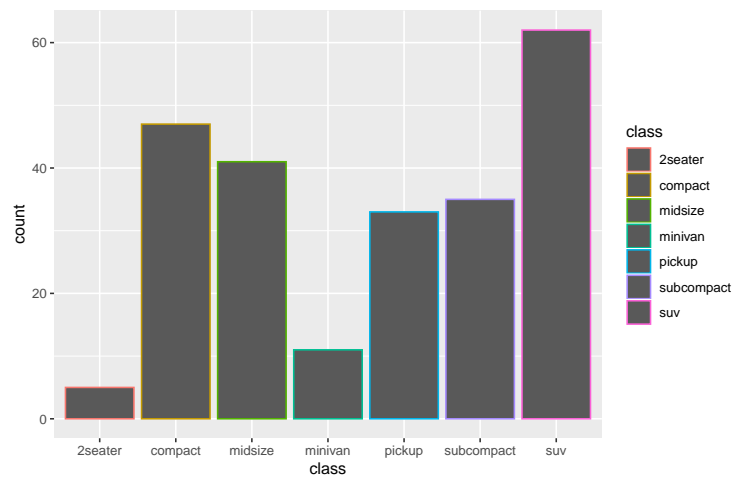
Plot of class: bar chart

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +  
+   geom_bar(aes(x = class))
```

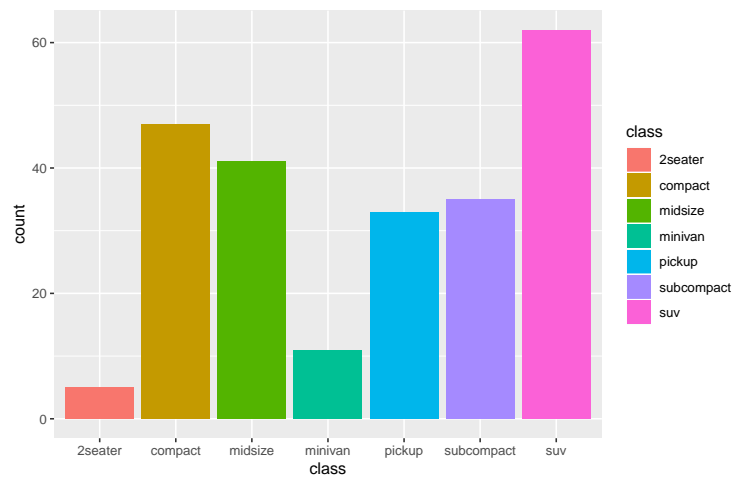
Plot of class: bar chart with colors

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +  
+   geom_bar(aes(x = class, color = class))
```



Plot of class: fill in colors into bars

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +  
+   geom_bar(aes(x = class, fill = class))
```



Plot two variables: scatter plot

Scatter Plots:

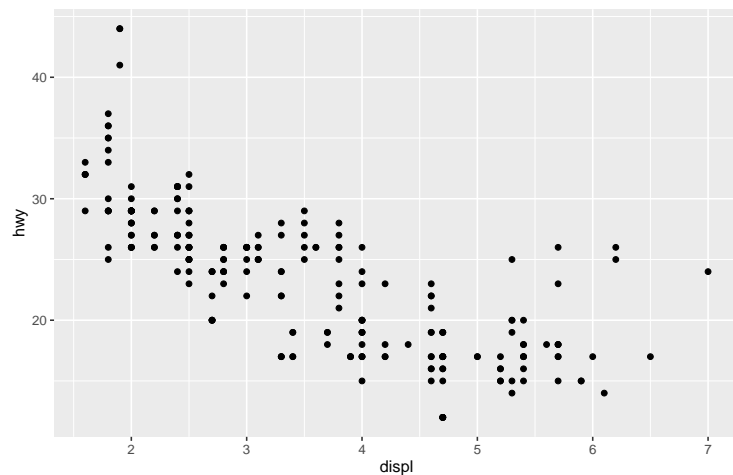
- ▷ Key function: `geom_point()`
- ▷ Key arguments to customize the plot: `alpha`, `color`, `fill`, `shape` and `size`

Add regression line or smoothed conditional mean:

- ▷ Key functions: `geom_smooth()` and `geom_abline()`
- ▷ Key arguments to customize the plot: `alpha`, `color`, `fill`, `shape`, `linetype` and `size`

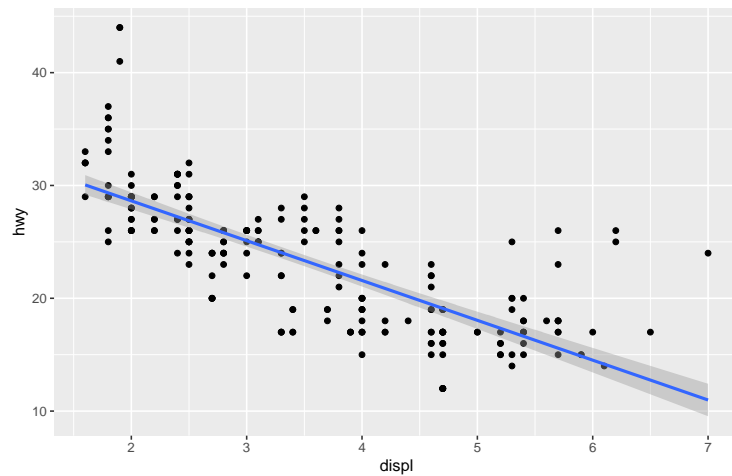
Scatter plot

```
> b <- ggplot(mpg, aes(x = displ, y = hwy))
> b + geom_point()
```



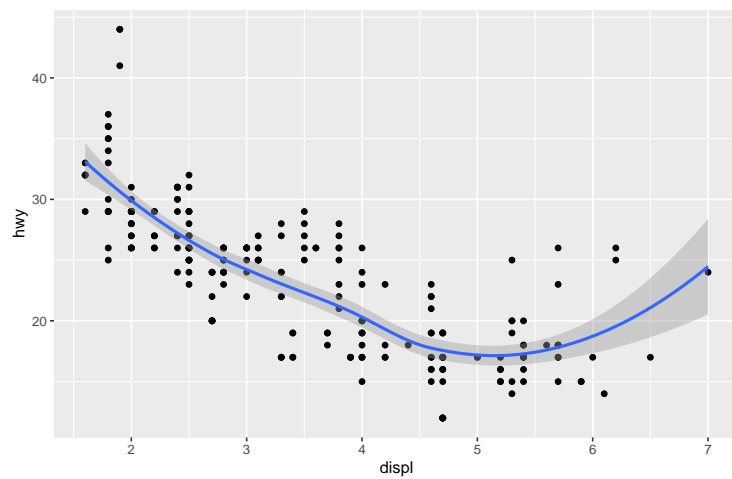
Scatter plot with regression line

```
> b + geom_point() + geom_smooth(method = lm)
```



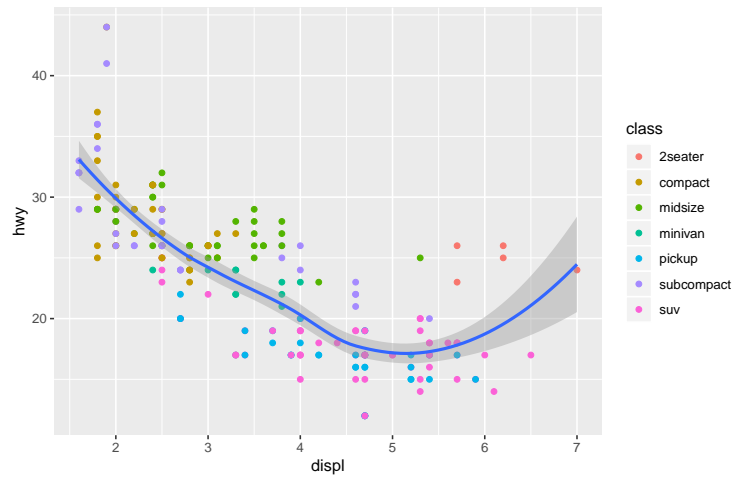
Loess method: local regression fitting

```
> b + geom_point() + geom_smooth()
```



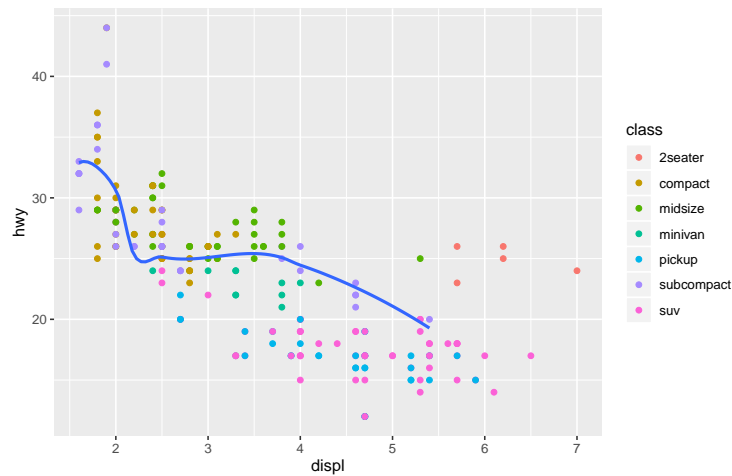
Local mappings for a layer

```
> b + geom_point(mapping = aes(color = class)) + geom_smooth()
```



Displays just a subset of the dataset

```
> b + geom_point(mapping = aes(color = class)) +
+   geom_smooth(data = filter(mpg, class == "subcompact"),
+   se = FALSE)
```



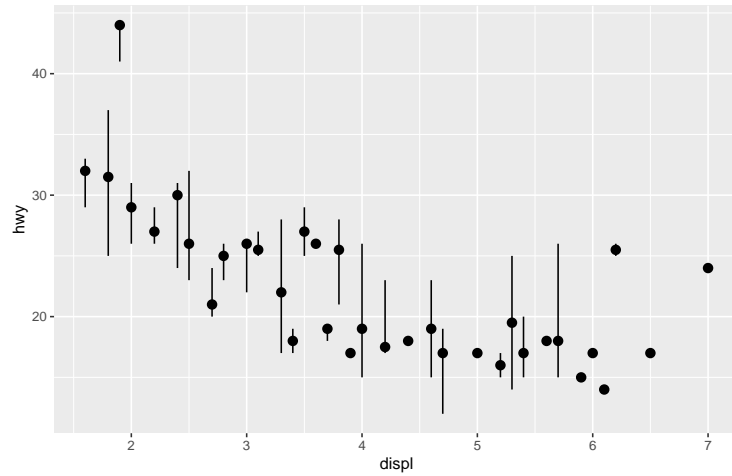
2.3 Statistical Transformations

stat

- ▷ The algorithm used to calculate new values for a graph is called a *stat*
- ▷ Some plots visualize a transformation of the original data set. In this case, an alternative way to build a layer is to use *stat_*()* functions.
- ▷ `geom_bar()` = `stat_count()`: *?geom_bar* shows the default value for *stat* is “count”

Statistical transformation in your code

```
> ggplot(data = mpg) +  
+ stat_summary( mapping = aes(x = displ, y = hwy),  
+ fun.ymin = min, fun.ymax = max, fun.y = median )
```



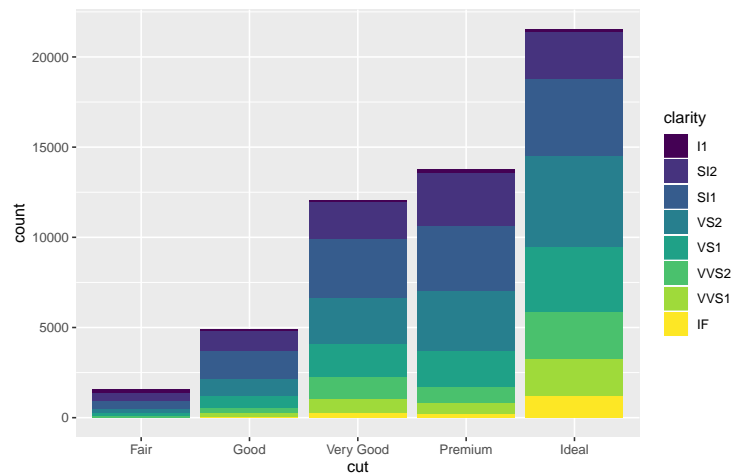
2.4 Position Adjustments

Position in bar chart

What will happen if you map the *fill* aesthetic to another variable, like *clarity*?

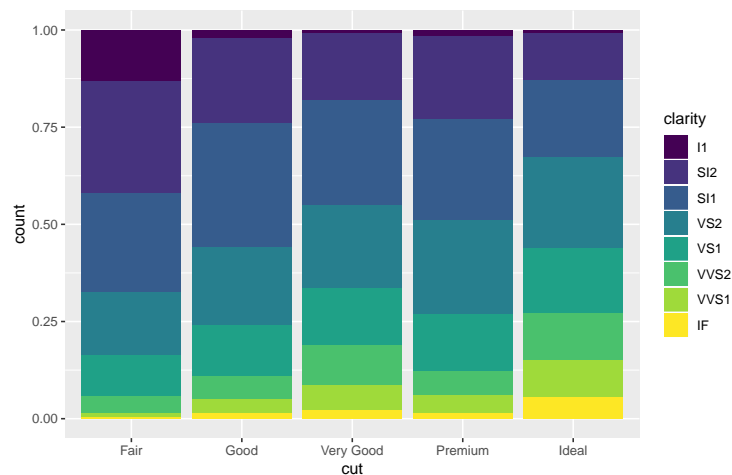
The stacking is performed automatically by the position adjustment specified by the *position* argument.

```
> ggplot(data = diamonds) + geom_bar(mapping = aes(x = cut, fill = clarity))
```



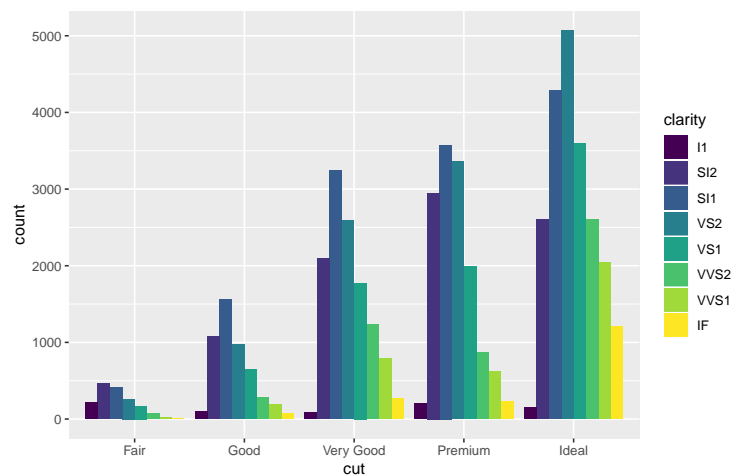
bar chart: position = "fill"

```
> ggplot(data = diamonds) +  
+ geom_bar( mapping = aes(x = cut, fill = clarity),  
+ position = "fill" )
```



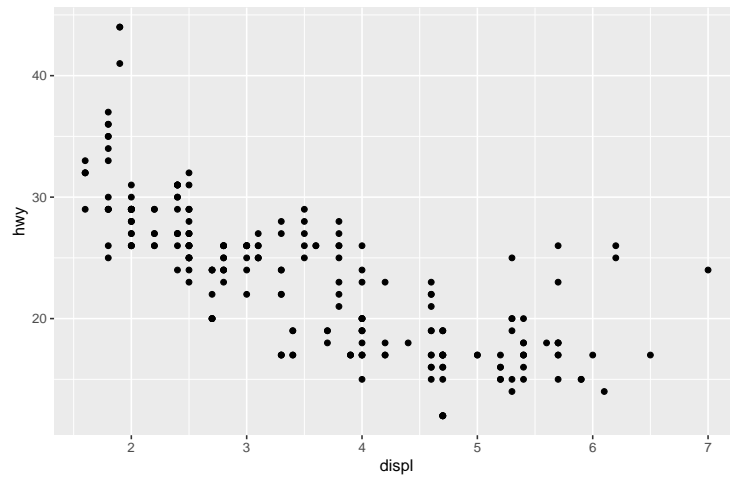
bar chart: position = "dodge"

```
> ggplot(data = diamonds) +  
+ geom_bar( mapping = aes(x = cut, fill = clarity),  
+ position = "dodge" )
```

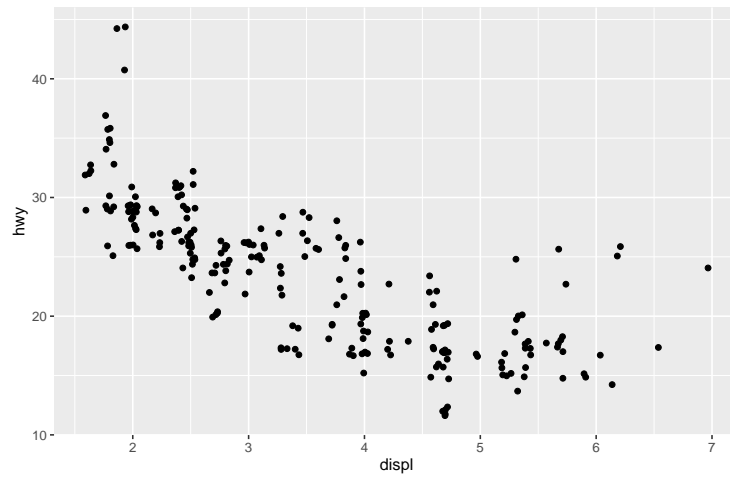


Position in scatter plots

Did you notice that the plot displays only 126 points, even though there are 234 observations in the dataset? This is known as *overplotting*.



scatter plots: position = "jitter"



3 Data transformation with dplyr

3.1 Introduction

Aims

In this section, we will learn about *data wrangling*, the art of getting your data into R for visualization and modeling.

- ▷ how to transform your data using the *dplyr* package
- ▷ a new dataset on flights departing New York City in 2013.

Prerequisites

This section and the next will explore the package library(tidyverse).

Core packages in *tidyverse* include:

dplyr for data manipulation.

tidyr for data tidying.

tibble for tibbles, a modern re-imagining of data frames

readr for data import.

nycflights13

This dataset contains all 336,776 flights that departed from New York City in 2013 (From the *US Bureau of Transportation Statistics*).

```
> library(nycflights13)
> flights

# A tibble: 336,776 x 19
   year month   day dep_time sched_dep_time dep_delay arr_time
<int> <int> <int>   <int>         <int>         <dbl>   <int>
1  2013     1     1     517           515           2     830
2  2013     1     1     533           529           4     850
3  2013     1     1     542           540           2     923
4  2013     1     1     544           545          -1    1004
5  2013     1     1     554           600           -6     812
6  2013     1     1     554           558           -4     740
7  2013     1     1     555           600           -5     913
8  2013     1     1     557           600           -3     709
9  2013     1     1     557           600           -3     838
10 2013     1     1     558           600           -2     753
# ... with 336,766 more rows, and 12 more variables: sched_arr_time <int>,
#   arr_delay <dbl>, carrier <chr>, flight <int>, tailnum <chr>,
#   origin <chr>, dest <chr>, air_time <dbl>, distance <dbl>, hour <dbl>,
#   minute <dbl>, time_hour <dtm>
```

Tibble is a new format of data frame

- ▷ Tibbles are a modern take on data frames.
- ▷ They keep the features that have stood the test of time, and drop the features that used to be convenient but are now frustrating (i.e. converting character vectors to factors).

Type:

int stands for integers.

dbl stands for doubles, or real numbers.

chr stands for character vectors, or strings.

dtm stands for date-times (a date + a time)

dplyr Basics

filter() Pick observations by their values.

arrange() Reorder the rows.

select() Pick variables by their names.

mutate() Create new variables with functions of existing variables.

summarize() Collapse many values down to a single summary.

group_by() Group rows.

3.2 Filter Rows with filter()

filter() allows you to subset observations

All dplyr work similarly:

1. The first argument is a data frame.
2. The subsequent arguments describe what to do with the data frame, using the variable names (without quotes).
3. The result is a new data frame.

Display filtered results

```
> filter(flights, month == 1, day == 1)

# A tibble: 842 x 19
  year month   day dep_time sched_dep_time dep_delay arr_time
  <int> <int> <int>   <int>         <int>         <dbl>   <int>
1  2013     1     1     517             515           2     830
2  2013     1     1     533             529           4     850
3  2013     1     1     542             540           2     923
4  2013     1     1     544             545          -1    1004
5  2013     1     1     554             600          -6     812
6  2013     1     1     554             558          -4     740
7  2013     1     1     555             600          -5     913
8  2013     1     1     557             600          -3     709
9  2013     1     1     557             600          -3     838
10 2013     1     1     558             600          -2     753
# ... with 832 more rows, and 12 more variables: sched_arr_time <int>,
#   arr_delay <dbl>, carrier <chr>, flight <int>, tailnum <chr>,
#   origin <chr>, dest <chr>, air_time <dbl>, distance <dbl>, hour <dbl>,
#   minute <dbl>, time_hour <dtm>
```

Display and save results

```
> (dec25 <- filter(flights, month == 12, day == 25))
```

```
# A tibble: 719 x 19
  year month   day dep_time sched_dep_time dep_delay arr_time
<int> <int> <int>   <int>         <int>         <dbl>   <int>
1  2013    12    25     456           500          -4     649
2  2013    12    25     524           515           9     805
3  2013    12    25     542           540           2     832
4  2013    12    25     546           550          -4    1022
5  2013    12    25     556           600          -4     730
6  2013    12    25     557           600          -3     743
7  2013    12    25     557           600          -3     818
8  2013    12    25     559           600          -1     855
9  2013    12    25     559           600          -1     849
10 2013    12    25     600           600           0     850
# ... with 709 more rows, and 12 more variables: sched_arr_time <int>,
#   arr_delay <dbl>, carrier <chr>, flight <int>, tailnum <chr>,
#   origin <chr>, dest <chr>, air_time <dbl>, distance <dbl>, hour <dbl>,
#   minute <dbl>, time_hour <dtm>
```

Logical operators

Boolean operators:

- ▷ “&” is “and,”
- ▷ “|” is “or,”
- ▷ “!” is “not,”
- ▷ “!=” is “not equal,”
- ▷ “==” is “equal,”
- ▷ “x %in% y” select every row where x is one of the values in y.

```
filter(flights, month == 11 | month == 12)
nov_dec <- filter(flights, month %in% c(11, 12))
```

Missing values

One important feature of R that can make comparison tricky is missing values, or NAs (“not availables”).

```
> df <- tibble(x = c(1, NA, 3))
> filter(df, x > 1)

# A tibble: 1 x 1
  x
<dbl>
1    3

> filter(df, is.na(x) | x > 1)

# A tibble: 2 x 1
  x
<dbl>
1  NA
2    3
```

3.3 Arrange Rows with arrange()

arrange()

- ▷ `arrange()` works similarly to `filter()` except that instead of selecting rows, it *changes their order*.
- ▷ It takes a data frame and a set of column names (or more complicated expressions) to order by.

Arrange by a set of column names

```
> arrange(flights, year, month, day)

# A tibble: 336,776 x 19
   year month   day dep_time sched_dep_time dep_delay arr_time
<int> <int> <int>   <int>         <int>         <dbl>   <int>
1  2013     1     1     517             515           2     830
2  2013     1     1     533             529           4     850
3  2013     1     1     542             540           2     923
4  2013     1     1     544             545          -1    1004
5  2013     1     1     554             600          -6     812
6  2013     1     1     554             558          -4     740
7  2013     1     1     555             600          -5     913
8  2013     1     1     557             600          -3     709
9  2013     1     1     557             600          -3     838
10 2013     1     1     558             600          -2     753
# ... with 336,766 more rows, and 12 more variables: sched_arr_time <int>,
#   arr_delay <dbl>, carrier <chr>, flight <int>, tailnum <chr>,
#   origin <chr>, dest <chr>, air_time <dbl>, distance <dbl>, hour <dbl>,
#   minute <dbl>, time_hour <dtm>
```

Use desc() to reorder by a column in descending order

```
> arrange(flights, desc(dep_delay))

# A tibble: 336,776 x 19
   year month   day dep_time sched_dep_time dep_delay arr_time
<int> <int> <int>   <int>         <int>         <dbl>   <int>
1  2013     1     9     641             900        1301    1242
2  2013     6    15    1432            1935        1137    1607
3  2013     1    10    1121            1635        1126    1239
4  2013     9    20    1139            1845        1014    1457
5  2013     7    22     845            1600        1005    1044
6  2013     4    10    1100            1900         960    1342
7  2013     3    17    2321             810         911     135
8  2013     6    27     959            1900         899    1236
9  2013     7    22    2257             759         898     121
10 2013    12     5     756            1700         896    1058
# ... with 336,766 more rows, and 12 more variables: sched_arr_time <int>,
#   arr_delay <dbl>, carrier <chr>, flight <int>, tailnum <chr>,
#   origin <chr>, dest <chr>, air_time <dbl>, distance <dbl>, hour <dbl>,
#   minute <dbl>, time_hour <dtm>
```

3.4 Select Columns with select()

select()

select() allows you to rapidly zoom in on a useful subset using operations based on the names of the variables.

```
> # Select columns by name
> select(flights, year, month, day)

# A tibble: 336,776 x 3
  year month   day
  <int> <int> <int>
1  2013     1     1
2  2013     1     1
3  2013     1     1
4  2013     1     1
5  2013     1     1
6  2013     1     1
7  2013     1     1
8  2013     1     1
9  2013     1     1
10 2013     1     1
# ... with 336,766 more rows
```

Select all columns between year and day

```
> select(flights, year:day)

# A tibble: 336,776 x 3
  year month   day
  <int> <int> <int>
1  2013     1     1
2  2013     1     1
3  2013     1     1
4  2013     1     1
5  2013     1     1
6  2013     1     1
7  2013     1     1
8  2013     1     1
9  2013     1     1
10 2013     1     1
# ... with 336,766 more rows
```

Select all columns except those from year to day

```
> select(flights, -(year:day))

# A tibble: 336,776 x 16
  dep_time sched_dep_time dep_delay arr_time sched_arr_time arr_delay
  <int>         <int>         <dbl>   <int>         <int>         <dbl>
1     517           515           2     830           819           11
2     533           529           4     850           830           20
3     542           540           2     923           850           33
```

```

4      544      545      -1    1004      1022      -18
5      554      600      -6     812       837      -25
6      554      558      -4     740       728       12
7      555      600      -5     913       854       19
8      557      600      -3     709       723      -14
9      557      600      -3     838       846       -8
10     558      600      -2     753       745        8
# ... with 336,766 more rows, and 10 more variables: carrier <chr>,
#   flight <int>, tailnum <chr>, origin <chr>, dest <chr>, air_time <dbl>,
#   distance <dbl>, hour <dbl>, minute <dbl>, time_hour <dtm>

```

Select anything that starts with "d"

```

> select(flights, starts_with("d"))

# A tibble: 336,776 x 5
   day dep_time dep_delay dest distance
  <int>   <int>    <dbl> <chr>    <dbl>
1     1     517     -2 IAH      1400
2     1     533     -4 IAH      1416
3     1     542     -2 MIA      1089
4     1     544    -1 BQN      1576
5     1     554    -6 ATL       762
6     1     554    -4 ORD       719
7     1     555    -5 FLL      1065
8     1     557    -3 IAD       229
9     1     557    -3 MCO       944
10    1     558    -2 ORD       733
# ... with 336,766 more rows

```

Select anything related to delays

```

> select(flights, ends_with("delay"))

# A tibble: 336,776 x 2
   dep_delay arr_delay
   <dbl>      <dbl>
1         2         11
2         4         20
3         2         33
4        -1        -18
5        -6        -25
6        -4         12
7        -5         19
8        -3        -14
9        -3         -8
10       -2          8
# ... with 336,766 more rows

```

3.5 Add New Variables with mutate()

Add new variables *gain* (think about why?)

```

> flights_sml <- select(flights, year:day, ends_with("delay"),
+   distance, air_time)
> mutate(flights_sml,
+   gain = arr_delay - dep_delay,
+   speed = distance / air_time * 60)

# A tibble: 336,776 x 9
   year month   day dep_delay arr_delay distance air_time gain speed
   <int> <int> <int>   <dbl>   <dbl>   <dbl>   <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
1  2013     1     1         2        11    1400    227     9  370.
2  2013     1     1         4        20    1416    227    16  374.
3  2013     1     1         2        33    1089    160    31  408.
4  2013     1     1        -1       -18    1576    183   -17  517.
5  2013     1     1        -6       -25     762    116   -19  394.
6  2013     1     1        -4        12     719    150    16  288.
7  2013     1     1        -5        19    1065    158    24  404.
8  2013     1     1        -3       -14     229     53   -11  259.
9  2013     1     1        -3        -8     944    140    -5  405.
10 2013     1     1        -2         8     733    138    10  319.
# ... with 336,766 more rows

```

New added variable can be used

```

> mutate(flights_sml,
+   gain = arr_delay - dep_delay,
+   hours = air_time / 60,
+   gain_per_hour = gain / hours )

# A tibble: 336,776 x 10
   year month   day dep_delay arr_delay distance air_time gain hours
   <int> <int> <int>   <dbl>   <dbl>   <dbl>   <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
1  2013     1     1         2        11    1400    227     9  3.78
2  2013     1     1         4        20    1416    227    16  3.78
3  2013     1     1         2        33    1089    160    31  2.67
4  2013     1     1        -1       -18    1576    183   -17  3.05
5  2013     1     1        -6       -25     762    116   -19  1.93
6  2013     1     1        -4        12     719    150    16  2.5
7  2013     1     1        -5        19    1065    158    24  2.63
8  2013     1     1        -3       -14     229     53   -11  0.883
9  2013     1     1        -3        -8     944    140    -5  2.33
10 2013     1     1        -2         8     733    138    10  2.3
# ... with 336,766 more rows, and 1 more variable: gain_per_hour <dbl>

```

3.6 Summarize variables with summarize()

This and the next subsections will cover

1. Summarize data via summarize()
2. summarize() together with group_by()
3. Combining multiple operations with the pipe: %>%
4. Treating of missing values

5. Grouping by multiple variables

summarize() collapses a data frame to a single row

```
> summarize(flights, delay = mean(dep_delay, na.rm = TRUE))

# A tibble: 1 x 1
  delay
<dbl>
1  12.6

> summarize(flights, delay.sd = sd(dep_delay, na.rm = TRUE))

# A tibble: 1 x 1
  delay.sd
<dbl>
1    40.2
```

summarize() is useful together with **group_by()**

```
> by_day <- group_by(flights, year, month, day)
> summarize(by_day, delay = mean(dep_delay, na.rm = TRUE))

# A tibble: 365 x 4
# Groups:   year, month [12]
   year month   day delay
<int> <int> <int> <dbl>
1  2013     1     1  11.5
2  2013     1     2  13.9
3  2013     1     3  11.0
4  2013     1     4   8.95
5  2013     1     5   5.73
6  2013     1     6   7.15
7  2013     1     7   5.42
8  2013     1     8   2.55
9  2013     1     9   2.28
10 2013     1    10   2.84
# ... with 355 more rows
```

3.7 Operations with the pipe %>%

Combining multiple operations with the pipe: %>%

Imagine that we want to *explore the relationship between the distance and average delay for each location*. you might write code like this:

```
> by_dest <- group_by(flights, dest)
> delay <- summarize(by_dest,
+   count = n(),
+   dist = mean(distance, na.rm = TRUE),
+   delay = mean(arr_delay, na.rm = TRUE) )
> delay <- filter(delay, count > 20, dest != "HNL")
```

There are three steps to prepare this data:

1. Group flights by destination.
2. Summarize to compute distance, average delay, and number of flights.
3. Filter to remove noisy points and Honolulu airport, which is almost twice as far away as the next closest airport.

It is frustrating, because we have to give each intermediate data frame a name, even though we don't care about it.

The pipe operator: %>%

The pipe operator (%>%) allows us to chain together *dplyr* data wrangling functions.

The pipe operator can be read as “then” :

```
group_by(dest) then > summarize then > filter
```

And then you can employ *delays* to display or model.

```
> delays <- flights %>%
+   group_by(dest) %>%
+   summarize(
+     count = n(),
+     dist = mean(distance, na.rm = TRUE),
+     delay = mean(arr_delay, na.rm = TRUE)
+   ) %>%
+   filter(count > 20, dest != "HNL")
```

Missing values?

Too much NA, missing values!

```
> flights %>%
+   group_by(year, month, day) %>%
+   summarize(mean = mean(dep_delay))

# A tibble: 365 x 4
# Groups:   year, month [12]
   year month   day mean
  <int> <int> <int> <dbl>
1  2013     1     1    NA
2  2013     1     2    NA
3  2013     1     3    NA
4  2013     1     4    NA
5  2013     1     5    NA
6  2013     1     6    NA
7  2013     1     7    NA
8  2013     1     8    NA
9  2013     1     9    NA
10 2013     1    10    NA
# ... with 355 more rows
```


Missing values? add “na.rm = TRUE”

```
> flights %>%
+   group_by(year, month, day) %>%
+   summarize(mean = mean(dep_delay, na.rm = TRUE))

# A tibble: 365 x 4
# Groups:   year, month [12]
   year month   day mean
  <int> <int> <int> <dbl>
1  2013     1     1  11.5
2  2013     1     2  13.9
3  2013     1     3  11.0
4  2013     1     4   8.95
5  2013     1     5   5.73
6  2013     1     6   7.15
7  2013     1     7   5.42
8  2013     1     8   2.55
9  2013     1     9   2.28
10 2013     1    10   2.84
# ... with 355 more rows
```

Removing the cancelled flights

You can remove the cancelled flights by first, and save this dataset so we can reuse it.

```
> not_cancelled <- flights %>%
+   filter(!is.na(dep_delay), !is.na(arr_delay))
```

Summarize the *not_cancelled* data.

```
> not_cancelled %>%
+   group_by(year, month, day) %>%
+   summarize(mean = mean(dep_delay))

# A tibble: 365 x 4
# Groups:   year, month [12]
   year month   day mean
  <int> <int> <int> <dbl>
1  2013     1     1  11.4
2  2013     1     2  13.7
3  2013     1     3  10.9
4  2013     1     4   8.97
5  2013     1     5   5.73
6  2013     1     6   7.15
7  2013     1     7   5.42
8  2013     1     8   2.56
9  2013     1     9   2.30
10 2013     1    10   2.84
# ... with 355 more rows
```

How many flights left before 5am?

These usually indicate delayed flights from the previous day.

```

> not_cancelled %>%
+   group_by(year, month, day) %>%
+   summarize(n_early = sum(dep_time < 500))

# A tibble: 365 x 4
# Groups:   year, month [12]
   year month   day n_early
  <int> <int> <int>   <int>
1  2013     1     1       0
2  2013     1     2       3
3  2013     1     3       4
4  2013     1     4       3
5  2013     1     5       3
6  2013     1     6       2
7  2013     1     7       2
8  2013     1     8       1
9  2013     1     9       3
10 2013     1    10       3
# ... with 355 more rows

```

What proportion are delayed by more than an hour?

```

> not_cancelled %>%
+   group_by(year, month, day) %>%
+   summarize(hour_perc = mean(arr_delay > 60))

# A tibble: 365 x 4
# Groups:   year, month [12]
   year month   day hour_perc
  <int> <int> <int>   <dbl>
1  2013     1     1  0.0722
2  2013     1     2  0.0851
3  2013     1     3  0.0567
4  2013     1     4  0.0396
5  2013     1     5  0.0349
6  2013     1     6  0.0470
7  2013     1     7  0.0333
8  2013     1     8  0.0213
9  2013     1     9  0.0202
10 2013     1    10  0.0183
# ... with 355 more rows

```

Grouping by Multiple Variables: per_day

```

> daily <- group_by(flights, year, month, day)
> (per_day <- summarize(daily, flights = n()))

# A tibble: 365 x 4
# Groups:   year, month [12]
   year month   day flights
  <int> <int> <int>   <int>
1  2013     1     1    842
2  2013     1     2    943
3  2013     1     3    914

```

```

4 2013 1 4 915
5 2013 1 5 720
6 2013 1 6 832
7 2013 1 7 933
8 2013 1 8 899
9 2013 1 9 902
10 2013 1 10 932
# ... with 355 more rows

```

Grouping by Multiple Variables: per_month

```

> daily <- group_by(flights, year, month, day)
> (per_month <- summarize(per_day, flights = sum(flights)))

# A tibble: 12 x 3
# Groups:   year [1]
   year month flights
  <int> <int>   <int>
1  2013     1  27004
2  2013     2  24951
3  2013     3  28834
4  2013     4  28330
5  2013     5  28796
6  2013     6  28243
7  2013     7  29425
8  2013     8  29327
9  2013     9  27574
10 2013    10  28889
11 2013    11  27268
12 2013    12  28135

```

Grouped Mutates and Filters

Grouping is most useful in conjunction with *summarize()*, but you can also do convenient operations with *mutate()* and *filter()*.

```

> # Find the worst members of each group
> flights_sml %>%
+   group_by(year, month, day) %>%
+   filter(rank(desc(arr_delay)) < 10)

# A tibble: 3,306 x 7
# Groups:   year, month, day [365]
   year month day dep_delay arr_delay distance air_time
  <int> <int> <int>   <dbl>   <dbl>   <dbl>   <dbl>
1  2013     1   1     853     851     184     41
2  2013     1   1     290     338    1134     213
3  2013     1   1     260     263     266     46
4  2013     1   1     157     174     213     60
5  2013     1   1     216     222     708    121
6  2013     1   1     255     250     589    115
7  2013     1   1     285     246    1085    146
8  2013     1   1     192     191     199     44
9  2013     1   1     379     456    1092    222
10 2013     1   2     224     207     550     94
# ... with 3,296 more rows

```

Find all groups bigger than a threshold

```
> popular_dests <- flights %>%
+   group_by(dest) %>%
+   filter(n() > 365)
> popular_dests

# A tibble: 332,577 x 19
# Groups:   dest [77]
   year month   day dep_time sched_dep_time dep_delay arr_time
   <int> <int> <int>   <int>         <int>        <dbl>   <int>
1  2013     1     1     517             515          2     830
2  2013     1     1     533             529          4     850
3  2013     1     1     542             540          2     923
4  2013     1     1     544             545         -1    1004
5  2013     1     1     554             600         -6     812
6  2013     1     1     554             558         -4     740
7  2013     1     1     555             600         -5     913
8  2013     1     1     557             600         -3     709
9  2013     1     1     557             600         -3     838
10 2013     1     1     558             600         -2     753
# ... with 332,567 more rows, and 12 more variables: sched_arr_time <int>,
#   arr_delay <dbl>, carrier <chr>, flight <int>, tailnum <chr>,
#   origin <chr>, dest <chr>, air_time <dbl>, distance <dbl>, hour <dbl>,
#   minute <dbl>, time_hour <dtm>
```

Standardize to compute per group metrics

```
> popular_dests %>%
+   filter(arr_delay > 0) %>%
+   mutate(prop_delay = arr_delay / sum(arr_delay)) %>%
+   select(year:day, dest, arr_delay, prop_delay)

# A tibble: 131,106 x 6
# Groups:   dest [77]
   year month   day dest   arr_delay prop_delay
   <int> <int> <int> <chr>    <dbl>    <dbl>
1  2013     1     1 IAH        11  0.000111
2  2013     1     1 IAH        20  0.000201
3  2013     1     1 MIA        33  0.000235
4  2013     1     1 ORD        12  0.0000424
5  2013     1     1 FLL        19  0.0000938
6  2013     1     1 ORD         8  0.0000283
7  2013     1     1 LAX         7  0.0000344
8  2013     1     1 DFW        31  0.000282
9  2013     1     1 ATL        12  0.0000400
10 2013     1     1 DTW        16  0.000116
# ... with 131,096 more rows
```

4 Data Tidy with tidyr

Aims

This section will cover:

1. Tibbles with tibble
2. Import Data with readr
3. Tidy data with tidyr
 - (a) What is tidy data?
 - (b) A modern data frame of *tibble*
 - (c) Tidy data with tidyr

4.1 Tibbles with tibble

Creating Tibbles

Tibbles are data frames, but they tweak some older behaviors to make life a little easier.

as_tibble(): change a data frame to a tibble, e.g. `as_tibble(iris)`

tibble(): create a new tibble from individual vectors

tribble(): is customized for data entry in code: column headings are defined by formulas (i.e., they start with `~`), and entries are separated by commas.

tibble()

```
> tibble(
+ x = 1:5,
+ y = 1,
+ z = x ^ 2 + y
+ )

# A tibble: 5 x 3
      x     y     z
<int> <dbl> <dbl>
1     1     1     2
2     2     1     5
3     3     1    10
4     4     1    17
5     5     1    26
```

tribble()

```
> tribble(
+ ~x, ~y, ~z,
+ #--/--/----
+ "a", 2, 3.6,
+ "b", 1, 8.5
+ )

# A tibble: 2 x 3
      x     y     z
<chr> <dbl> <dbl>
1 a         2   3.6
2 b         1   8.5
```

Main differences in *tibble* versus a classic *data.frame*

There are two main differences in the usage of a tibble versus a classic *data.frame*:

- ▷ printing: shows only the first 10 rows, and all the columns that fit on screen.
- ▷ and subsetting: to pull out a single variable, `$` and `[[“name”]]` or `[[position]]`.

Extract from tibble

```
> df <- tibble( x = runif(5), y = rnorm(5) )
> # Extract by name
> df$x

[1] 0.3830567 0.3180658 0.7901315 0.8191459 0.2007465

> df[["x"]]

[1] 0.3830567 0.3180658 0.7901315 0.8191459 0.2007465

> # Extract by position
> df[[1]]

[1] 0.3830567 0.3180658 0.7901315 0.8191459 0.2007465
```

4.2 Import Data with readr

readr's functions

- ▷ `read_csv()` reads comma-delimited files, `read_tsv()` reads tab-delimited files, and `read_delim()` reads in files with any delimiter.
- ▷ `read_fwf()` reads fixed-width files. You can specify fields either by their widths with `fwf_widths()` or their position with `fwf_positions()`.
- ▷ `read_table()` reads a common variation of fixed-width files where columns are separated by white space.

Compared to base R

why we prefer to use `read_csv()` rather than `read.csv()`?

- ▷ They are typically much faster (~10x) than their base equivalents.
- ▷ They produce tibbles, and they don't convert character vectors to factors, use row names, or munge the column names.
- ▷ They are more reproducible. Base R functions inherit some behavior from your operating system and environment variables.

Writing to a File

readr also comes with two useful functions for writing data back to disk:

- ▷ `write_csv()`
- ▷ `write_tsv()`

Export a CSV file to Excel: `write_excel_csv()`

4.3 Tidy Data with *tidyr*

What is tidy data?

What is a dataset?

- ▷ A *dataset* is a collection of values, usually either numbers (if quantitative) or strings AKA text data (if qualitative).
- ▷ *Values* are organised in two ways.
 - Every value belongs to a *variable* and an *observation*.
- ▷ A *variable* contains all values that measure the same underlying attribute (like height, temperature, duration) across units.
- ▷ An *observation* contains all values measured on the same unit (like a person, or a day, or a city) across attributes.

An example

A dataset includes the same values of four variables *country*, *year*, *population*, and *cases*, but organized in a different way:

- ▷ `table1`
- ▷ `table2`
- ▷ `table3`
- ▷ `table4a` (cases)
- ▷ `table4b` (population)

`table1`

```
> table1

# A tibble: 6 x 4
  country    year cases population
  <chr>    <int> <int>      <int>
1 Afghanistan 1999    745   19987071
2 Afghanistan 2000   2666  20595360
3 Brazil      1999  37737  172006362
4 Brazil      2000  80488  174504898
5 China       1999 212258 1272915272
6 China       2000 213766 1280428583
```

table2

```
> table2

# A tibble: 12 x 4
  country      year type      count
  <chr>      <int> <chr>    <int>
1 Afghanistan 1999 cases      745
2 Afghanistan 1999 population 19987071
3 Afghanistan 2000 cases     2666
4 Afghanistan 2000 population 20595360
5 Brazil       1999 cases     37737
6 Brazil       1999 population 172006362
7 Brazil       2000 cases     80488
8 Brazil       2000 population 174504898
9 China        1999 cases     212258
10 China       1999 population 1272915272
11 China       2000 cases     213766
12 China       2000 population 1280428583
```

table3

```
> table3

# A tibble: 6 x 3
  country      year rate
* <chr>      <int> <chr>
1 Afghanistan 1999 745/19987071
2 Afghanistan 2000 2666/20595360
3 Brazil       1999 37737/172006362
4 Brazil       2000 80488/174504898
5 China        1999 212258/1272915272
6 China        2000 213766/1280428583
```

table4a (cases)

```
> table4a # cases

# A tibble: 3 x 3
  country    `1999` `2000`
* <chr>      <int>  <int>
1 Afghanistan    745    2666
2 Brazil        37737  80488
3 China         212258 213766
```

table4b (population)

```
> table4b # population

# A tibble: 3 x 3
  country    `1999` `2000`
* <chr>      <int>  <int>
```


1	Afghanistan	19987071	20595360
2	Brazil	172006362	174504898
3	China	1272915272	1280428583

In this example, only “table1” is tidy.

What is tidy data?

There are three interrelated rules which make a dataset tidy:

1. Each variable must have its own column.
2. Each observation must have its own row.
3. Each value must have its own cell.

Practical instructions:

1. Put each dataset in a tibble.
2. Put each variable in a column.

Why ensure that your data is tidy?

There are two main advantages:

1. There’s a general advantage to picking one consistent way of storing data. If you have a consistent data structure, it’s easier to learn the tools that work with it because they have an underlying uniformity.
2. There’s a specific advantage to placing variables in columns because it allows R’s vectorised nature to shine.

dplyr, *ggplot2*, and all the other packages in the *tidyverse* are designed to work with tidy data.

Compute rate per 10,000

```
> table1 %>%
+   mutate(rate = cases / population * 10000)

# A tibble: 6 x 5
  country    year cases population  rate
<chr>    <int> <int>    <int> <dbl>
1 Afghanistan 1999    745  19987071 0.373
2 Afghanistan 2000   2666  20595360 1.29
3 Brazil      1999  37737  172006362 2.19
4 Brazil      2000  80488  174504898 4.61
5 China       1999 212258 1272915272 1.67
6 China       2000 213766 1280428583 1.67
```

Compute cases per year

```

> table1 %>%
+ count(year, wt = cases)

# A tibble: 2 x 2
  year      n
<int> <int>
1  1999 250740
2  2000 296920

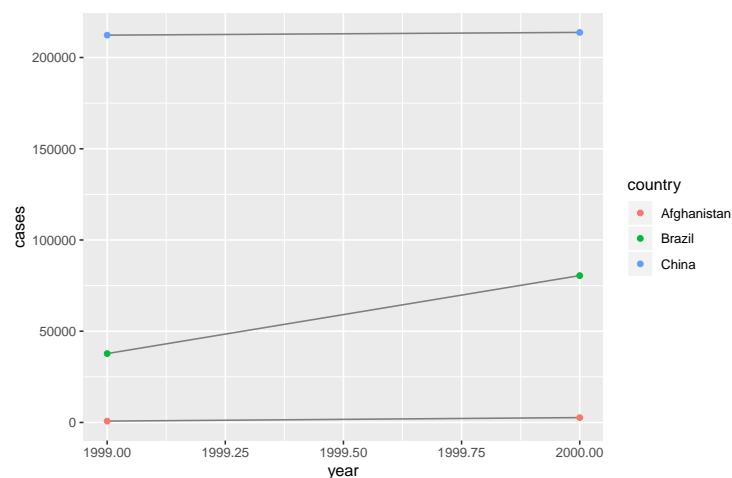
```

Visualise changes over time

```

> ggplot(table1, aes(year, cases)) +
+   geom_line(aes(group = country), colour = "grey50") +
+   geom_point(aes(colour = country))

```



Tidy data with tidyr

How to tidy a dataset?

- ▷ The first step is always to figure out what the variables and observations are.
- ▷ The second step is to resolve one of two common problems:
 - One variable might be spread across multiple columns.
 - One observation might be scattered across multiple rows.
- ▷ Most important functions in **tidyr**:
 - *gather()* and *spread()*
 - *separate()* and *unite()*

Untidy: column names are not names of variables

A common problem is a dataset where some of the column names are not names of variables, but values of a variable.

```
> table4a

# A tibble: 3 x 3
  country `1999` `2000`
* <chr>    <int> <int>
1 Afghanistan    745   2666
2 Brazil        37737  80488
3 China         212258 213766
```

To tidy a dataset like this, we need to *gather* those columns into a new pair of variables.

gather() to “year” and “cases”

```
> table4a %>%
+ gather(`1999`, `2000`, key = "year", value = "cases")

# A tibble: 6 x 3
  country   year  cases
  <chr>    <chr> <int>
1 Afghanistan 1999     745
2 Brazil      1999   37737
3 China       1999  212258
4 Afghanistan 2000     2666
5 Brazil      2000   80488
6 China       2000  213766
```

- ▷ The name of the variable whose values form the column names. It is called the **key**, here it is *year*.
- ▷ The name of the variable whose values are spread over the cells. It is called the **value**, here is the number of *cases*.

table4b: gather() to “year” and “population”

```
> table4b %>%
+ gather(`1999`, `2000`, key = "year", value = "population")

# A tibble: 6 x 3
  country   year population
  <chr>    <chr>    <int>
1 Afghanistan 1999   19987071
2 Brazil      1999  172006362
3 China       1999 1272915272
4 Afghanistan 2000   20595360
5 Brazil      2000  174504898
6 China       2000 1280428583
```

Combine two tidy table into one: `left_join()`

```
> tidy4a <- table4a %>%
+ gather(`1999`, `2000`, key = "year", value = "cases")
> tidy4b <- table4b %>%
+ gather(`1999`, `2000`, key = "year", value = "population")
> left_join(tidy4a, tidy4b)

# A tibble: 6 x 4
  country    year  cases population
  <chr>      <chr> <int>      <int>
1 Afghanistan 1999     745   19987071
2 Brazil      1999   37737  172006362
3 China       1999  212258  1272915272
4 Afghanistan 2000    2666   20595360
5 Brazil      2000   80488  174504898
6 China       2000  213766  1280428583
```

Spreading

Spreading is the opposite of gathering, used when an observation is scattered across multiple rows.

table2: an *observation* is a country in a year, but each observation is *spread across two rows*.

```
> table2

# A tibble: 12 x 4
  country    year type      count
  <chr>      <int> <chr>      <int>
1 Afghanistan 1999 cases        745
2 Afghanistan 1999 population 19987071
3 Afghanistan 2000 cases        2666
4 Afghanistan 2000 population 20595360
5 Brazil      1999 cases        37737
6 Brazil      1999 population 172006362
7 Brazil      2000 cases        80488
8 Brazil      2000 population 174504898
9 China       1999 cases       212258
10 China      1999 population 1272915272
11 China      2000 cases       213766
12 China      2000 population 1280428583
```

Tidy up using `spread()`

```
> spread(table2, key = type, value = count)

# A tibble: 6 x 4
  country    year  cases population
  <chr>      <int> <int>      <int>
1 Afghanistan 1999     745   19987071
2 Afghanistan 2000    2666   20595360
3 Brazil      1999   37737  172006362
4 Brazil      2000   80488  174504898
5 China       1999  212258  1272915272
6 China       2000  213766  1280428583
```

table3: the rate column contains two variables

```
> table3

# A tibble: 6 x 3
  country    year rate
* <chr>      <int> <chr>
1 Afghanistan 1999 745/19987071
2 Afghanistan 2000 2666/20595360
3 Brazil       1999 37737/172006362
4 Brazil       2000 80488/174504898
5 China        1999 212258/1272915272
6 China        2000 213766/1280428583
```

separate()

separate() pulls apart one column into multiple columns, by splitting wherever a separator character appears.

```
> table3 %>%
+ separate(rate, into = c("cases", "population"))

# A tibble: 6 x 4
  country    year cases population
  <chr>      <int> <chr>    <chr>
1 Afghanistan 1999 745      19987071
2 Afghanistan 2000 2666      20595360
3 Brazil       1999 37737     172006362
4 Brazil       2000 80488     174504898
5 China        1999 212258    1272915272
6 China        2000 213766    1280428583
```

separate(), by sep argument

```
> table3 %>%
+ separate(rate, into = c("cases", "population"), sep = "/")

# A tibble: 6 x 4
  country    year cases population
  <chr>      <int> <chr>    <chr>
1 Afghanistan 1999 745      19987071
2 Afghanistan 2000 2666      20595360
3 Brazil       1999 37737     172006362
4 Brazil       2000 80488     174504898
5 China        1999 212258    1272915272
6 China        2000 213766    1280428583
```

It should be noticed that cases and population are *character*.

separate(): convert the variable type to numeric

```
> table3 %>%
+ separate( rate, into = c("cases", "population"),
+           convert = TRUE )

# A tibble: 6 x 4
  country    year cases population
  <chr>      <int> <int>      <int>
1 Afghanistan 1999    745   19987071
2 Afghanistan 2000   2666  20595360
3 Brazil       1999  37737  172006362
4 Brazil       2000  80488  174504898
5 China        1999 212258 1272915272
6 China        2000 213766 1280428583
```

How to unite the *century* and *year* columns?

```
> table5

# A tibble: 6 x 4
  country    century year    rate
  <chr>      <chr>   <chr> <chr>
1 Afghanistan 19      99    745/19987071
2 Afghanistan 20      00    2666/20595360
3 Brazil       19      99    37737/172006362
4 Brazil       20      00    80488/174504898
5 China        19      99    212258/1272915272
6 China        20      00    213766/1280428583
```

unite()...but with underscore (_)

unite() is the inverse of *separate()*: it combines multiple columns into a single column.

```
> table5 %>%
+ unite(new, century, year)

# A tibble: 6 x 3
  country    new    rate
  <chr>      <chr> <chr>
1 Afghanistan 19_99 745/19987071
2 Afghanistan 20_00 2666/20595360
3 Brazil       19_99 37737/172006362
4 Brazil       20_00 80488/174504898
5 China        19_99 212258/1272915272
6 China        20_00 213766/1280428583
```

We don't want the underscore (_)

```
> table5 %>%
+ unite(new, century, year, sep = "")

# A tibble: 6 x 3
  country    new    rate
  <chr>      <chr> <chr>
```

```

<chr>      <chr> <chr>
1 Afghanistan 1999 745/19987071
2 Afghanistan 2000 2666/20595360
3 Brazil      1999 37737/172006362
4 Brazil      2000 80488/174504898
5 China       1999 212258/1272915272
6 China       2000 213766/1280428583

```

Tidy missing values

Missing values

A value can be missing in one of two possible ways:

- ▷ Explicitly, i.e., flagged with NA.
- ▷ Implicitly, i.e., simply not present in the data.

```

> stocks <- tibble(
+   year = c(2015, 2015, 2015, 2015, 2016, 2016, 2016),
+   qtr  = c( 1,   2,   3,   4,   2,   3,   4),
+   return=c(1.88, 0.59, 0.35, NA, 0.92, 0.17, 2.66)
+ )

```

Tidy missing data with *complete()*

An important tool for making missing values explicit in tidy data is *complete()*.

```

> stocks %>%
+   complete(year, qtr)

# A tibble: 8 x 3
   year   qtr return
  <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
1  2015     1  1.88
2  2015     2  0.59
3  2015     3  0.35
4  2015     4  NA
5  2016     1  NA
6  2016     2  0.92
7  2016     3  0.17
8  2016     4  2.66

```

Make missing values explicit: change a represent way

The way that a dataset is represented can make implicit values explicit.

```

> stocks %>%
+   spread(year, return)

# A tibble: 4 x 3
   qtr `2015` `2016`
  <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>

```

1	1	1.88	NA
2	2	0.59	0.92
3	3	0.35	0.17
4	4	NA	2.66

Fill in missing values with fill()

```
> treatment <- tribble(
+ ~ person, ~ treatment, ~response,
+ "Derrick Whitmore", 1, 7,
+                       NA, 2, 10,
+                       NA, 3, 9,
+ "Katherine Burke", 1, 4
+ )
```

Fill in missing values with fill()

You can fill in these missing values with `fill()`. It takes a set of columns where you want missing values to be replaced by the most recent nonmissing value.

```
> treatment %>%
+ fill(person)

# A tibble: 4 x 3
  person      treatment response
<chr>      <dbl>     <dbl>
1 Derrick Whitmore      1         7
2 Derrick Whitmore      2        10
3 Derrick Whitmore      3         9
4 Katherine Burke       1         4
```

5 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

Numerical summaries of the *population* are called **parameters**, while numerical summaries of the *sample* are called **statistics**.

▷ Summary Measures of Location

- mean, median, mode, quantiles,

▷ Summary Measures of Spread

- range, interquartile-range(IQR), variance, standard-deviation(sd), The Median Absolute Deviation (MAD)

▷ Summary Measures of Shape

- skewness, kurtosis

5.1 Summary Measures of Location

R functions for location

- ▷ Population mean: μ
- ▷ Sample mean: \bar{x}
- ▷ R functions: `mean(x)`, `median(x)`, `mode(x)`
- ▷ Quantiles: the x_p is called a ***p*-quantile** of a distribution, if $P(X \leq x_p) \geq p$ and $P(X \geq x_p) \leq 1 - p$
 - for continuous r.v., $P(X \leq x_p) = p$
- ▷ `quantile(x, probs=c(0.25, 0.5, 0.75))`: Q_1, Q_2, Q_3

mpg data

```
> mean(mpg$hwy)
[1] 23.44017

> median(mpg$hwy)
[1] 24

> quantile(mpg$hwy, probs=c(0.25, 0.5, 0.75))

25% 50% 75%
18  24  27
```

flights data

```
> not_cancelled %>%
+   group_by(year, month, day) %>%
+   summarize(
+     # average delay:
+     avg_delay1 = mean(arr_delay),
+     # average positive delay:
+     avg_delay2 = mean(arr_delay[arr_delay > 0])
+ )

# A tibble: 365 x 5
# Groups:   year, month [12]
   year month   day avg_delay1 avg_delay2
  <int> <int> <int>     <dbl>     <dbl>
1  2013     1     1      12.7      32.5
2  2013     1     2      12.7      32.0
3  2013     1     3       5.73      27.7
4  2013     1     4      -1.93      28.3
5  2013     1     5      -1.53      22.6
6  2013     1     6       4.24      24.4
7  2013     1     7      -4.95      27.8
```

```

8  2013      1      8    -3.23    20.8
9  2013      1      9    -0.264   25.6
10 2013      1     10    -5.90    27.3
# ... with 355 more rows

```

5.2 Summary Measures of Spread

functions

- ▷ `range(x)`: returns the smallest and largest values in `x`
- ▷ `IQR(x)`: Interquartile Range, $IQR = Q3 - Q1$
- ▷ `var(x)`: $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$
- ▷ `sd(x)`: $s = \sqrt{s^2}$
- ▷ Sample Coefficient of Variation: $CV = S/\bar{X}$
- ▷ Relative Standard Deviation: $RSD = |S/\bar{X}| \times 100$
- ▷ The Median Absolute Deviation (MAD): is a robust measure of spread, often used when the median is reported to describe the center of a *skewed data set*.

$$MAD = \text{median}\{|x_i - m|\}$$

where m is the median of x .

mpg data

```

> IQR(mpg$hwy)

[1] 9

> var(mpg$hwy)

[1] 35.45778

> sd(mpg$hwy)

[1] 5.954643

> mad(mpg$hwy)

[1] 7.413

```

flights data

```

> not_cancelled %>%
+   group_by(dest) %>%
+   summarize(
+     distance_sd = sd(distance),
+     distance_var = var(distance)
+   ) %>%
+   arrange(desc(distance_sd))

# A tibble: 104 x 3
  dest distance_sd distance_var
  <chr>      <dbl>      <dbl>
1 EGE         10.5         111.
2 SAN         10.4         107.
3 SFO         10.2         104.
4 HNL         10.0         100.
5 SEA          9.98         99.6
6 LAS          9.91         98.2
7 PDX          9.87         97.5
8 PHX          9.86         97.3
9 LAX          9.66         93.3
10 IND          9.46         89.5
# ... with 94 more rows

```

5.3 Summary Measures of Shape

Skewness

The base R doesn't provide functions for skew and kurtosis.

Skewness is a measure of the asymmetry of the probability distribution of a real-valued random variable about its mean.

▷ Pearson's moment coefficient of skewness

$$\text{Skew}_p = E\left[\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^3\right]$$

▷ Sample skewness

$$\text{Skew}_S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s}\right)^3$$

Or

$$\text{Skew}_S = \frac{n^2}{(n-1)(n-2)} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s}\right)^3$$

where s^2 is the observed sample variance.

Kurtosis

- ▷ **Kurtosis** is a measure of the “tailedness” of the probability distribution of a real-valued random variable.

$$\text{Kurt}_p = E\left[\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^4\right]$$

- ▷ Sample Kurtosis

$$\text{Kurt}_S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s}\right)^4$$

- ▷ The *excess kurtosis* = $\text{Kurt} - 3$ (Kurt=3 for Normal)

mpg data

```
> library(moments)
> skewness(mpg$hwy, na.rm = TRUE)

[1] 0.366865

> kurtosis(mpg$hwy, na.rm = TRUE)

[1] 3.163929
```

Descriptive Statistics via *summarize()*

```
> library(moments)
> mpg %>%
+   summarize(
+     mean = mean(hwy),
+     sd = sd(hwy),
+     skew = skewness(hwy, na.rm = FALSE),
+     kurt = kurtosis(hwy, na.rm = FALSE)
+ )

# A tibble: 1 x 4
   mean    sd skew kurt
<dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
1  23.4   5.95 0.367  3.16
```

Descriptive Statistics via Own-written Function

```
> dec_stats<-function(x, na.omit=FALSE){
+   if(na.omit)
+     x<-x[!is.na(x)]
+   m<-mean(x)
+   n<-length(x)
+   s<-sd(x)
```

```

+   skew<-sum((x-m)^3/s^3)/n
+   kurt<-sum((x-m)^4/s^4)/n - 3
+   return(c(n=n,mean=m,stdev=s,skew=skew,kurtosis=kurt))
+ }
> round(dec_stats(mpg$hwy),3)

```

	n	mean	stdev	skew	kurtosis
	234.000	23.440	5.955	0.365	0.137

Recap

1. Data Structure
 - ▷ vector, matrix, array, data frame, factor, list
2. Data visualisation with ggplot2
3. Data Tranformation with dplyr
 - ▷ filter, arrange, select, mutate, summarize, group_by.
4. Data Wrangle
 - (a) Tibbles with tibble
 - (b) Import Data with readr
 - (c) Tidy data with tidyr
 - i. What is tidy data?
 - ii. Tidy data with tidyr
 - iii. Tidy missing values
5. Descriptive Statistics
 - ▷ Location, Spread, Shape

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