# A minimalist introduction to R

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#### **Contents**

1	Trash your calculator		
	1.1	Operators	4
	1.2	Assignment	4
2	Containers		
		Vectors	
	2.2	Matrix	(
	2.3	Data-frame	7
3	Loops and if statements		
	3.1	for loops	8
	3.2	if statements	8
4	Sim	ple Graphics	{

There are many ways to achieve the same goal in R, and we do not claim to teach you the most efficient way to use R. You may find more elegant ways!

Do try to understand exactly what the code and the functions we use do. The best way to learn how functions work is by either using the R-manual (type ?functionname or use the RStudio Help tab by clicking on it or pressing F1) or by creating dummy data (just make up a small amount of data yourself, using R if possible!) and analyse what the function does to this data.

# How this document works

R code and output is generally contained within boxes with a gray background. Comments within the R code start with a # symbol; lines with R-outputs start with ##.

All the files necessary to go through the workshop are (or should be!) in the folder of a github repository. We recommend you copy these files, or fork the repository if you are a git user.

Now, let's the fun begin.

## 1 Trash your calculator

### 1.1 Operators

R can be used as a calculator, and a far more powerful one that any physical calculator. If you use your calculator to enter numbers in R, you are being inefficient.

Below we demonstrate the use of some basic mathematical operators:

```
1+3 #addition

## [1] 4

5-2 #substraction

## [1] 3

6*4 #multiplication

## [1] 24

14/2 #division

## [1] 7

2^3 #exponent

## [1] 8

2**3 #or equivalently

## [1] 8
```

There are many mathematical functions already present in R:

```
exp(3) #exponential
## [1] 20.08554

log(2.71) #logarithm
## [1] 0.9969486

sqrt(9) #square root, which of course you can also write as:
## [1] 3

9 ^ (1/2)
## [1] 3

sin(pi/2); cos(1); tan(pi/3) #trigonometric functions
## [1] 1
## [1] 0.5403023
## [1] 1.732051
```

#### Small exercise

Use R to compute

$$y = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{\frac{-1}{2}(\frac{3-\pi}{2})^2}$$

Logical operators are very important for programming and scripting. You can test whether two things are equal with double = signs:

```
3 == 6/2 #is 3 equal to 6/2? TRUE!
## [1] TRUE
3 == pi # FALSE!
## [1] FALSE
```

You can also test if they are NOT equal with the operator !=:

```
2 != 3

## [1] TRUE

2 != 2

## [1] FALSE
```

The AND operator is &

```
2 == 2 & 3==3

## [1] TRUE

2 == 2 & 3==2

## [1] FALSE
```

The OR operator is |

```
2 == 2 | 3==2

## [1] TRUE

2 == 4 | 3==2

## [1] FALSE
```

#### Small exercise

Try and guess the result of these logical tests before running them:

```
! 1==2
(1!=2 | 3==4) & (2==4/2)
"abc" != "bc"
```

### 1.2 Assignment

Values can be assigned to objects to store them and make your code flexible. You assign a value to an object using the operator  $\leftarrow$  (or =, but be careful not to confuse this with the == used in tests).

```
#You can use objects in calculation
a <- 12
a + 2

## [1] 14

# you can assign an object value to another object
b <- a
c <- a*b</pre>
```

```
# you can re-assign an object
a <- "c"
b <- "c"
a == b

## [1] TRUE

c <- a == "b"
c</pre>
```

# 2 Containers

A container is some kind of object that can contain several values.

#### 2.1 Vectors

The simplest container is a vector. A flexible way to create a vector by *concatenating* several values with the syntax c(x,y,...).

```
a <- c(3,9,3,5)
a
## [1] 3 9 3 5
```

You can now do calculations on your vector:

```
a * 2
## [1] 6 18 6 10
```

You can access one or several elements in the vector using squared brackets

```
#access one value
a[1]
## [1] 3
a[2]
## [1] 9
```

```
#access multiple values by concatenating locations
a[c(1,3)]

## [1] 3 3

#access mutiple successive values
a[2:4] #the syntax x:y means "all integers between x and y"

## [1] 9 3 5

#modify a value
a[3] <- -5
a

## [1] 3 9 -5 5

#modify mutiple values
a[1:2] <- 1
a

## [1] 1 1 -5 5</pre>
```

#### 2.2 Matrix

A matrix is similar to a vector, but in two dimensions. You can create one with the function matrix().

For instance:

```
a <- matrix(data = c(1,2,3,4), nrow = 2)
a

## [,1] [,2]
## [1,] 1 3
## [2,] 2 4</pre>
```

You can access the cell in the row i of the column j using squared brackets like for vectors, but since there are two dimensions rather than one, you may give two numbers: a[i,j].

```
#extracting the element in the first row of the second column:
a[1,2]
## [1] 3
```

```
# extracting all of the second row:
a[2,]

## [1] 2 4

# changing all of the first column:
a[,1] <- 29
a

## [,1] [,2]
## [1,] 29 3
## [2,] 29 4</pre>
```

That is all for now. If you want to learn more, check the help for this function, using:

```
?matrix
```

#### 2.3 Data-frame

Data-frames are similar to matrices, but are much more flexible: they can store different data types and their elements can be accessed in more efficient ways.

R is probably most efficient and user-friendly when analyses rely on dataframes.

You can access and modify elements in the same way as for matrices:

```
plant_data[3,2]

## [1] 39

plant_data[3,]

## plant number danger

## 3 carrot 39 FALSE
```

But you can also use column names, which are more human-friendly than numbers:

```
plant_data[1,"plant"]

## [1] potatoes

## Levels: carrot potatoes water hemlock

plant_data[,"danger"]

## [1] FALSE TRUE FALSE
```

In some case it is easier to work with a different syntax using the dollar sign. Below, we access the same elements using this alternative syntax:

```
plant_data$plant[1]

## [1] potatoes
## Levels: carrot potatoes water hemlock

plant_data$danger

## [1] FALSE TRUE FALSE
```

# 3 Loops and if statements

Loops allow you to

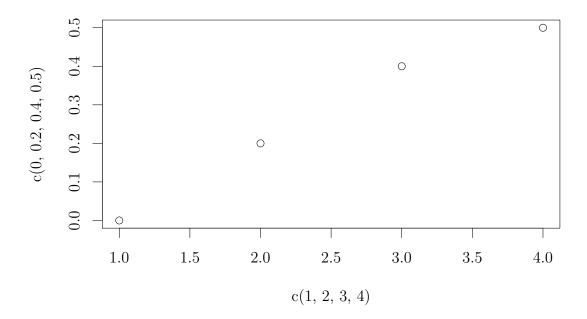
### 3.1 for loops

#### 3.2 if statements

### 4 Simple Graphics

You can create graphics with various functions, the most fundamental one being plot(). For instance:

```
plot(x = c(1,2,3,4), y=c(0,0.2,0.4,0.5))
```

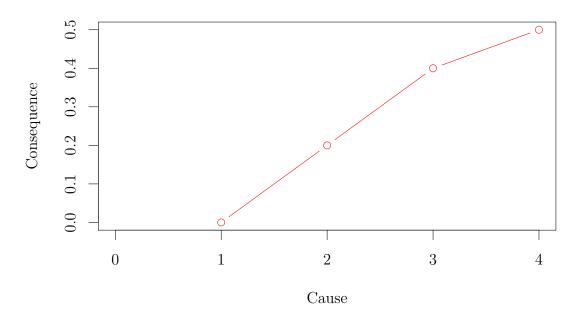


(the graph should appear when you run this line)

That's rather ugly, and we will learn how to make beautiful graphes in efficient ways. For now, let's just tweak a few things to demonstrate the use of options within the plot function:

```
plot(x = c(1,2,3,4), y=c(0,0.2,0.4,0.5), type = "b",
    main = "Important result", xlab = "Cause",
    ylab = "Consequence", xlim = c(0,4), col="red")
```

# Important result



#### Small exercise

Modify the code above to obtain a graph with a y-axis that goes up to 1 (maybe what we are measuring on the y-axis is a proportion, so it seem fair to show the axis from 0 to 1), with the data being represented by a line only (without the dots), plotted in blue instead of red.