## **STA130H1F**

Class #2

**Prof. Nathan Taback** 

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# Welcome back to STA130 4



## Today's class

Introduction to programming with R

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## Today's class

- Introduction to programming with R
- Numerical descriptions of the distribution of quantitative variable

# **Tutorial grading**

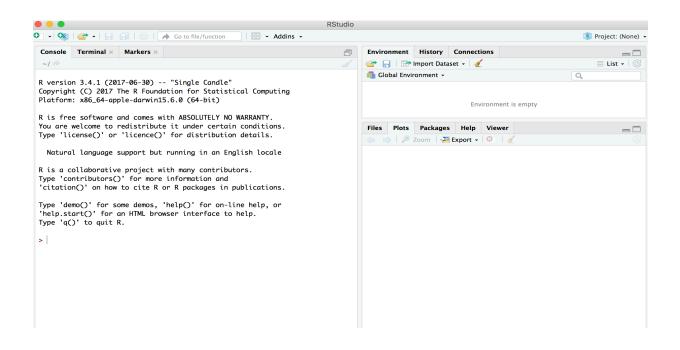
Tutorial grades will be assigned according to the following marking scheme.

|                                    | Mark |
|------------------------------------|------|
| Attendance for the entire tutorial | 1    |
| Assigned homework completion       | 1    |
| In-class exercises                 | 4    |
| Total                              | 6    |

# **Programming with R**

- RStudio user interface
- R Objects
- R Functions
- R Scripts
- R Packages
- R Lists
- R Notation
- R Missing Data

#### **RStudio User Interface**



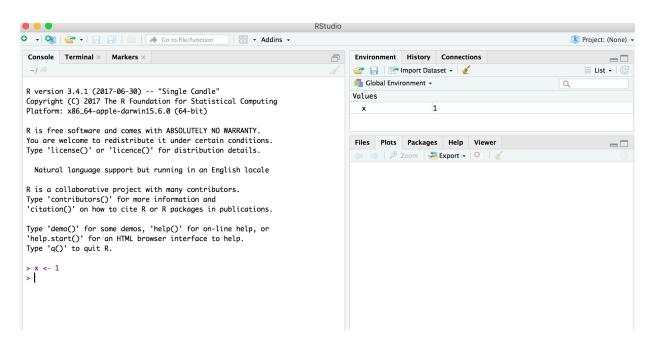
# **R** Objects

- R lets you save data by storing it inside an R object.
- What's an object? Just a name that you can use to call up stored data.

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

#### **Environment Pane in RStudio**

When you create an object, the object will appear in the environment pane of RStudio.



#### **Functions**

■ R comes with many functions that you can use to do sophisticated tasks like random sampling.

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## [1] 2.72

- R comes with many functions that you can use to do sophisticated tasks like random sampling.
- For example, you can round a number with the round function round(), or calculate its absolute value with abs().
- Write the name of the function and then the data you want the function to operate on in parentheses:

```
round(-2.718282, 2)

## [1] -2.72

abs(-5)

## [1] 5

abs(round(-2.718282, 2))
```

Every function in R has three basic parts: a name, a body of code, and a set of arguments.

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- To make your own function, you need to replicate these parts and store them in an R object, which you can do with the function function().
- To do this, call function() and follow it with a pair of braces, {}

```
my_function <- function() {
  add code here
}</pre>
```

Simulate rolling a pair of dice and adding the result with the code:

```
die <- 1:6
dice <- sample(die, size = 2, replace = TRUE)
sum(dice)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 2
```

We can create our own function with

```
roll <- function() {
  die <- 1:6
  dice <- sample(die, size = 2, replace = TRUE)
  sum(dice)
}</pre>
```

Call the function roll()

```
roll()
## [1] 5
```

NB: result will differ with every call

### **Function Arguments**

Instead of rolling one die consider rolling four or ten dice then adding the results of all the rolls together.

```
roll2 <- function(numrolls) {
  die <- 1:6
  dice <- sample(die, size = numrolls, replace = TRUE)
  sum(dice)
}</pre>
```

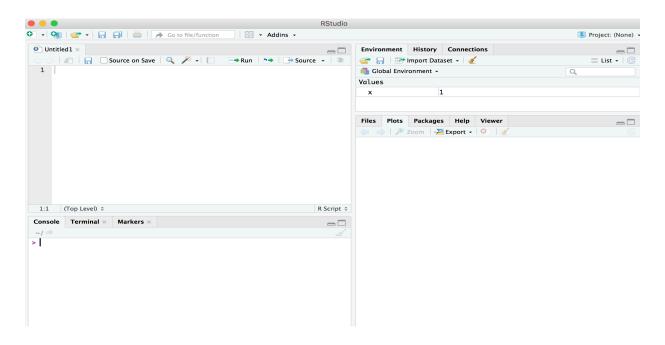
numrolls is called an *argument* of the function roll2().

Let's simulate rolling ten dice and adding the results together.

```
roll2(10)
## [1] 38
```

## **Scripts**

- If we want to edit the function roll2() then we will want to save it in a script.
- To do this in RStudio File > New File > R script in the menu bar.



■ You're not the only person writing your own functions with R.

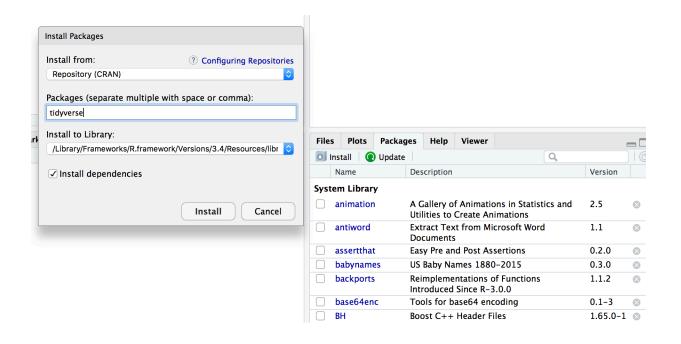
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- Many professors, programmers, and statisticians use R to design tools that can help people analyze data.
- They then make these tools free for anyone to use.
- To use these tools, you just have to download them. They come as preassembled collections of functions and objects called packages.
- We have already used two packages ggplot2 and dplyr.

To install the package tidyverse in RStudio go to the Packages tab in RStudio and click Install.

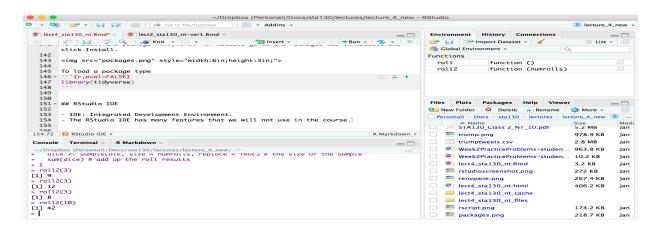


To load a package type

library(tidyverse)

#### **RStudio IDE**

- IDE: Integrated Development Environment.
- The RStudio IDE has many features that we will not use in the course.



- The console is where you can type an R command at the prompt and the result is returned.
- Write code in an R script, R Markdown document, or R Notebook.
- Run a script or R chunks from an R Markdown or R Notebook by pushing the run button in the chunk.

# **R** Objects

- R stores data in objects such as vectors, arrays, and matricies.
- In most applications we will ususally load data from an external file.

## **R Objects - Atomic Vectors**

You can make an atomic vector by grouping some values of data together with c():

```
die <- c(1,2,3,4,5,6)
die

## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6

is.vector(die)

## [1] TRUE

length(die)

## [1] 6</pre>
```

## **R Objects - Atomic Vectors**

You can also make an atomic vector with just one value. R saves single values as an atomic vector of length 1:

```
two <- 2
two
## [1] 2
```

■ Each atomic vector can only store one type of data. You can save different types of data in R by using different types of atomic vectors.

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- R recognizes six basic types of atomic vectors: doubles, integers, characters, logicals, complex, and raw.
- We will not be using complex or raw types in STA130.
- Integer vectors included a capital L with input, and character vectors have input surounded by quotation marks.

```
mynums \leftarrow c(2L,3L)
courses <- "STA130"
courses <- c("STA130", "MAT137")</pre>
sum(mynums)
## [1] 5
sum(courses)
## Error in sum(courses): invalid 'type' (character) of argument
sum(courses == "STA130")
## [1] 1
```

# **R Objects - Double Vectors**

 A double vector stores real numbers. Doubles are often called numerics.

```
die <- c(1,2,3,4,5,6)
typeof(die)</pre>
```

```
## [1] "double"
```

## **R Objects - Logical Vectors**

■ Logical vectors store TRUEs and FALSEs, R's form of Boolean data. Logicals are very helpful for doing things like comparisons:

```
3 > 4
## [1] FALSE
```

■ TRUE or FALSE in capital letters (without quotation marks) will be treated as logical data. R also assumes that T and F are shorthand for TRUE and FALSE.

```
logic <- c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
logic</pre>
```

## R Objects - Atomic Vectors: dim()

You can transform an atomic vector into an n-dimensional array by giving it a dimensions attribute with dim().

```
die \langle -c(1,2,3,4,5,6) \rangle
dim(die) \leftarrow c(2,3) \# a 2x3 matrix
die
##
   [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,] 1 3 5
## [2,] 2 4 6
die \langle -c(1,2,3,4,5,6) \rangle
dim(die) \leftarrow c(3,2) \# a 3x2 matrix
die
##
   [,1] [,2]
## [1,] 1 4
## [2,] 2 5
## [3,] 3 6
```

R always fills up each matrix by columns, instead of by rows unless you use matrix() or array().

#### **Factors**

- Factors are R's way of storing categorical information, like ethnicity or eye color.
- A factor as something like sex since it can only have certain values.
- Factors very useful for recording the treatment levels of a categorical variable.

```
sex <- factor(c("male", "female", "female", "male"))
typeof(sex)

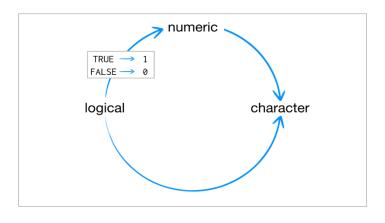
## [1] "integer"

unclass(sex) # shows how R is storing the factor vector

## [1] 2 1 1 2
## attr(,"levels")
## [1] "female" "male"</pre>
```

#### Coercion

R always follows the same rules when it coerces data types. Once you are familiar with these rules, you can use R's coercion behavior to do surprisingly useful things.



For example sum(c(TRUE,
FALSE)) will become sum(c(1,
0)).

```
sum(c(TRUE, FALSE))
```

## [1] 1

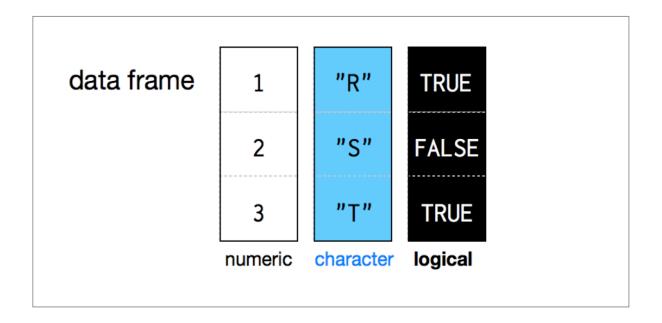
#### Lists

- Lists are like atomic vectors because they group data into a one-dimensional set.
- Lists do not group together individual values.
- Lists group together R objects, such as atomic vectors and other lists.
- For example, you can make a list that contains a numeric vector of length 10 in its first element, a character vector of length 1 in its second element, and a new list of length 2 in its third element.

```
list(1:10,
     "Prof. Taback",
     list(TRUE, FALSE))
  2
                  4 5 6
                                 9 10
##
  [[2]]
  [1] "Prof. Taback"
##
   [[3]]
   [[3]][[1]]
   [1] TRUE
##
   [[3]][[2]]
  [1] FALSE
##
```

- Data frames are the two-dimensional version of a list.
- They are the most useful storage structure for data analysis
- A data frame is R's equivalent to the Excel spreadsheet because it stores data in a similar format.

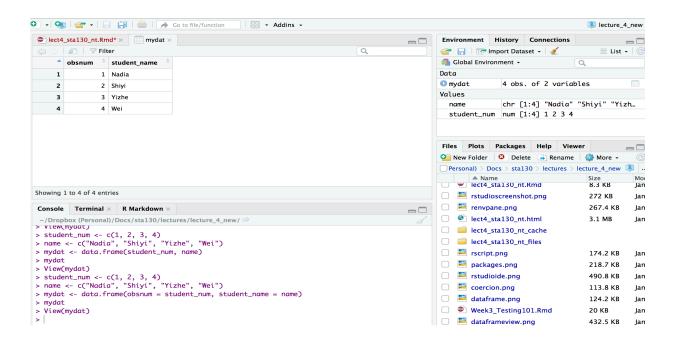
- Data frames group vectors together into a two-dimensional table.
- Each vector becomes a column in the table.
- As a result, each column of a data frame can contain a different type of data; but within a column, every cell must be the same type of data.



```
student_num <- c(1, 2, 3, 4)
name <- c("Nadia", "Shiyi", "Yizhe", "Wei")
mydat <- data.frame(obsnum = student_num, student_name = name)
mydat</pre>
```

- Creating a data frame by hand takes a lot of typing, but you can do it with the data.frame() function.
- Give data.frame() any number of vectors, each separated with a comma.
- Each vector should be set equal to a name that describes the vector.
- data.frame() will turn each vector into a column of the new data frame.

You can view a data frame in RStudio by clicking on the data frame name in the Environment tab



## R Notation - [,]

To extract a value or set of values from a data frame, write the data frame's name followed by a pair of square brackets with a comma [ , ].

```
mydat[ , ]
```

### R Notation - [,]

```
mydat
    obsnum student_name
##
## 1
                  Nadia
         1
                  Shiyi
## 2 2
## 3 3
                 Yizhe
## 4 4
                   Wei
mydat[1,2] # the value in row 1 and column 2
## [1] Nadia
## Levels: Nadia Shiyi Wei Yizhe
mydat[c(1,2),2] # all values in rows 1 and 2 in second column
## [1] Nadia Shiyi
## Levels: Nadia Shiyi Wei Yizhe
```

#### R Notation - \$

The \$ tells R to return all of the values in a column as a vector.

```
mydat$student_name
## [1] Nadia Shiyi Yizhe Wei
## Levels: Nadia Shiyi Wei Yizhe
vec <- mydat$student_name # assign it to vec</pre>
attributes(vec) # info associated with object vec
## $levels
## [1] "Nadia" "Shiyi" "Wei" "Yizhe"
##
## $class
## [1] "factor"
vec[2] # get second element of vector
## [1] Shiyi
## Levels: Nadia Shiyi Wei Yizhe
```

#### R Notation - combine [,] and \$

```
mydat
```

```
mydat[mydat$obsnum == 1,]
##
     obsnum student_name
## 1
                   Nadia
mydat[mydat$obsnum == 1 |
         mydat$obsnum == 4,]
##
     obsnum student_name
## 1
                   Nadia
          1
## 4
          4
                     Wei
mydat[mydat$obsnum != 1,]
##
     obsnum student_name
## 2
                   Shiyi
## 3
                   Yizhe
## 4
                     Wei
```

## **Missing Data - NA**

- Missing information problems happen frequently in data science.
- For example a value is mising because the measurement was lost, corrupted, or never recorded.
- The NA character is a special symbol in R. It stands for "not available" and can be used as a placeholder for missing information.

```
1 + NA
```

```
## [1] NA
```

## Missing Data - na.rm()

 Suppose you collected the ages of five students, but you forgot to record the fifth students age.

```
age <- c(19, 20, 17, 20, NA)
mean(age) # mean will be NA

## [1] NA

age <- c(19, 20, 17, 20, NA)
mean(age, na.rm = TRUE) # R will ignore missing values

## [1] 19</pre>
```

# Identify and Set Missing Data is.na()

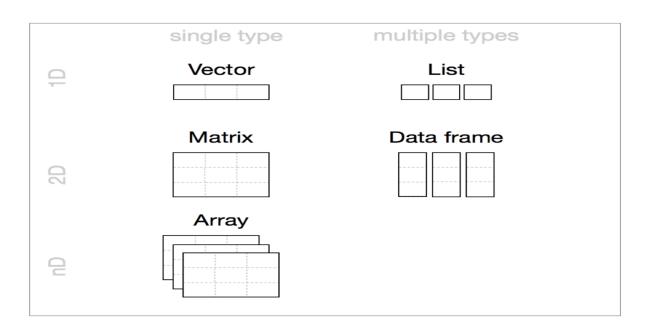
## [1] NA 20 17 20 NA

```
age <- c(19, 20, 17, 20, NA)
is.na(age) # check which elements of age are missing

## [1] FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE

age[1] <- NA # set the first element of age to NA
age</pre>
```

# **Summary of R Data Structures**



## **Tidyverse**



https://www.tidyverse.org

The provincial rates for the week ending January 6, 2018 are in the file fludat\_prov.csv and the size of the population in each province is in the file populat.csv. The code below reads the files into R data frames.

```
library(tidyverse)
fludat_prov <- read_csv("fludat_prov.csv")
popdat <- read_csv("popdat.csv")</pre>
```

```
head(fludat_prov, n = 5)
## # A tibble: 5 x 3
##
   prov
                        testpop_size fluA
## <chr>
                               <int> <int>
## 1 Newfoundland
                                  96
                                       12
## 2 Prince Edward Island
                                  64
                                       11
## 3 Nova Scotia
                                 144 23
## 4 New Brunswick
                                       80
                                 347
## 5 Province of Québec
                                6361 1190
head(popdat, n = 5)
## # A tibble: 5 x 3
##
    prov prov_pop_size region
                        <int> <chr>
   <chr>
## 1 Nunavut
                        35944 Territories
                     4067175 <NA>
## 2 Alberta
## 3 Saskatchewan 1098352 West
## 4 Yukon
                        35874 Territories
## 5 Manitoba
                      1278365 West
```

How many Provinces/Territories are in the fludat\_prov data frame? Use summarise() function in dplyr.

```
# n() counts the number of rows in the data frame
summarise(fludat_prov, numprov = n())

## # A tibble: 1 x 1

## numprov

## <int>
## 1 13
```

Do any variables in fludat or popdat have missing values?

```
filter(fludat_prov,
       is.na(prov) == TRUE |
         is.na(testpop size) == TRUE |
         is.na(fluA) == TRUE)
## # A tibble: 0 x 3
## # ... with 3 variables: prov <chr>, testpop_size <int>, fluA <int>
filter(popdat,
       is.na(prov) == TRUE |
         is.na(prov_pop_size) == TRUE |
         is.na(region) == TRUE)
## # A tibble: 2 x 3
## prov prov_pop_size region
## <chr>
             <int> <chr>
## 1 Alberta 4067175 <NA>
## 2 Quebec 8164361 <NA>
```

Recode specific values using R data frame notation [,] and \$.

```
#recode region value for Alberta
popdat$region[popdat$prov == "Alberta"] <- "West"
  #recode region value for Quebec
popdat$region[popdat$prov == "Quebec"] <- "East"
popdat$region

## [1] "Territories" "West" "West" "Territories" "West"
## [6] "West" "East" "East" "Atlantic" "Atlantic"</pre>
## [11] "Territories" "Atlantic" "Atlantic"
```

# Canadian Flu - Calculate Rate using mutate()

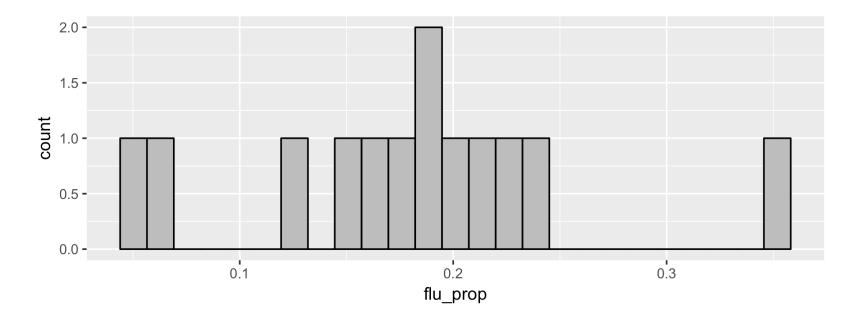
Transform existing variables to create a new variable using mutate(). The proportion of people testing positive in a province is [Math Processing Error]

```
fludat_prov1 <- mutate(fludat_prov, flu_prop = fluA/testpop_size)
head(fludat_prov1)</pre>
```

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 4
                          testpop_size fluA flu_prop
##
     prov
    <chr>
                                 <int> <int>
                                                <dbl>
##
## 1 Newfoundland
                                                0.125
                                    96
                                          12
## 2 Prince Edward Island
                                    64
                                                0.172
                                          11
## 3 Nova Scotia
                                                0.160
                                          23
                                   144
## 4 New Brunswick
                                   347
                                          80
                                                0.231
## 5 Province of Québec
                                  6361
                                        1190
                                                0.187
## 6 Province of Ontario
                                  2320
                                         344
                                                0.148
```

# Canadian Flu - Plot distribution of flu rate using ggplot()

```
ggplot(data = fludat_prov1) +
  aes(x = flu_prop) +
  geom_histogram(bins = 25, colour = "black", fill = "grey")
```



# Numerical Summaries of the Distribution of a Quantitative Variable - Mean

The **mean** is a common way to measure the **center** of a distribution of data.

If [Math Processing Error] represent the [Math Processing Error] observed values then the mean is

[Math Processing Error]

# Numerical Summaries of the Distribution of a Quantitative Variable - Variance

The **variance** is a common way to measure the **spread** of a distribution of data.

If [Math Processing Error] represent the [Math Processing Error] observed values, and [Math Processing Error] the mean then the variance is

[Math Processing Error] The **standard deviation** is defined as the [Math Processing Error]

The variance is roughly the average squared distance from the mean. The standard deviation is the square root of the variance and describes how close the data are to the mean.

# **Canadian Flu - Numerical Summary of flu rate distribution**

