### Data in/and R

EC 425/525, Lab 2

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# Prologue

### Schedule

#### Last time

Getting to know R—objects, functions, etc.

### **Today**

Working with data in R.

- The data.frame class
- The dplyr package

### **Upcoming**

**Due Monday** Step 1 of our research-project proposal.

### **Matrices**

### Quick review

- 1. mat ← matrix(data = 1:10, ncol = 2) creates a 5×2 matrix object containing the numbers 1 through 10 (filled by column).
- 2. mat[1,] grabs the first row of our matrix mat.
- 3. mat[3,2] ← NA assigns NA to row-3 column-2 element of mat.
- 4. head(mat, 3) returns up to the first three rows of mat.
- 5. matrix(data = rnorm(100), ncol = 10) creates a 10×10 matrix filled with random draws from  $N(\mu=0,\sigma^2=1)$ .
- 6.  $mat[3,2] \leftarrow "Carrots"$  assigns the character object "Carrots" to the [3,2] element of mat, forcing all elements of mat to character.

### **Matrices**

### Next steps

Matrices are convenient two-dimensional arrays on which math "works."

But matrices also require all elements to be of the same class.

Q What if we a datasets whose variables (columns) have different classes?

A We need a more flexible table-like object for our data.

Maybe a data.table? Or a data.frame?

We'll start with data.frame.

We will spend a good amount of time on data frames, as they make up a huge part of your workflow.

A data.frame is R's base, spreadsheet-like object that holds variables.

#>		id	first_name	<pre>fave_num</pre>	is_tired	loves_econ
#>	1	1	Karmin	68	TRUE	FALSE
#>	2	2	Raychelle	57	TRUE	TRUE
#>	3	3	Jemelle	10	TRUE	TRUE
#>	4	4	Yusif	90	TRUE	TRUE
#>	5	5	Catherine	24	TRUE	TRUE
#>	6	6	Glory	4	TRUE	TRUE
#>	7	7	Kaelah	33	FALSE	TRUE
#>	8	8	Lysette	96	TRUE	TRUE
#>	9	9	Cisco	89	TRUE	TRUE
#>	10	10	Harman	69	TRUE	TRUE
#>	11	11	Jennelle	64	TRUE	TRUE
#>	12	12	Crayton	100	TRUE	TRUE

A data.frame is R's base, spreadsheet-like object that holds variables.

#>		name	height	mass	gender	homeworld	species
#>	1	Luke Skywalker	172	77	male	Tatooine	Human
#>	2	C-3P0	167	75	<na></na>	Tatooine	Droid
#>	3	R2-D2	96	32	<na></na>	Naboo	Droid
#>	4	Darth Vader	202	136	male	Tatooine	Human
#>	5	Leia Organa	150	49	female	Alderaan	Human
#>	6	Owen Lars	178	120	male	Tatooine	Human
#>	7	Beru Whitesun lars	165	75	female	Tatooine	Human
#>	8	R5-D4	97	32	<na></na>	Tatooine	Droid
#>	9	Biggs Darklighter	183	84	male	Tatooine	Human
#>	10	Obi-Wan Kenobi	182	77	male	Stewjon	Human
#>	11	Anakin Skywalker	188	84	male	Tatooine	Human
#>	12	Wilhuff Tarkin	180	NA	male	Eriadu	Human

#### Creation

```
The data.frame() function creates... data.frame objects.
```

You'll generally define data frames by passing the function (1) column names and (2) values for the columns.

```
data.frame(var1 = 1:5, var2 = "apple", var3 = rnorm(5))
```

You can also assign the values using already-existing objects, e.g.,

```
# An object with value
tmp ← rnorm(5)
# Creating the data frame
data.frame(var1 = 1:5, var2 = "apple", var3 = tmp)
```

#### Creation

```
# Creating the data frame
data.frame(var1 = 1:5, var2 = "apple", var3 = rnorm(5))

#> var1 var2  var3
#> 1  1 apple -0.6250393
#> 2  2 apple -1.6866933
#> 3  apple  0.8377870
#> 4  4 apple  0.1533731
#> 5  5 apple -1.1381369
(What a beauty.)
```

Notice that R assumes we want to repeat "apple" for the entire column.

#### Creation

You can also create data frames from other objects (*e.g.*, matrices) using the function as.data.frame()<sup>†</sup>.

However, your data frame's columns will only have names if your matrix's columns had names.

### Indexing

Consider a data frame our\_df  $\leftarrow$  data.frame(x = 1:3, y = 4:6, z = 7:9).

Option 1 Index data frames just as you index matrices in R.

- our\_df[1,1] grabs the value in the first row of the first variable.
- our\_df[2,] returns the second row of our\_df (as a data frame).
- our\_df[,3] returns the third column (variable) of our\_df (as a vector).

Option 2 Reference values/variables using columns' names.

- our\_df\$x returns the column named x (as a vector). New: \$
- our\_df[,"x"] returns the column named x (as a vector).
- our\_df["x"] returns the column named x (as a data frame).
- our\_df[,c("x","y")] returns a data frame with variables "x" and "y".

### Names (of columns)

The columns (variables) in your data frame have names.<sup>†</sup>

- Q What if you want to see/know those names?
- A You've got a few options.
  - 1. The names() function returns the names of an object.
  - 1. head(your\_df) will show you the first 6 rows of your\_df.

    Note: May provide too much output if you have a lot of columns.
  - 1. In RStudio: View(your\_df) or look in your Environment tab.

### Naming

The names() function will also help you rename any/all variables.

Change the names of **all variables** (include a name for each variable):

```
# Set new names
names(our_df) ← c("name1", "name2", "name3")
```

Change the name of **the second variable** (only):

```
# Set new names
names(our_df)[2] ← "name2"
```

### Adding variables

Just as we referenced existing variables using \$var\_name, we can create new varirables using \$new\_var, e.g.,

```
# Add a variable to our_df
our_df$new_var ← 1:100
```

If you want to use existing columns to create a new variable

```
# Create interaction: xy = x * y
our_df$xy ← our_df$x * our_df$y
```

Q Isn't there a better/faster/less-typing way?

A Yes. Enter dplyr (also: data.table, which we'll leave for the future).

#### Intro

It's a package. dplyr is not installed by default, so you'll need to install it.†

dplyr is part of the tidyverse (Hadleyverse), and it follows a grammar-based approach to programming/data work.

- data compose the subjects of your stories
- dplyr provides the verbs (action words):
   filter(), mutate(), select(), group\_by(), summarize(), arrange()

**Bonus** dplyr is pretty fast and able to interact with SQL databases.

### Manipulating variables: mutate()

dplyr streamlines adding/manipulating variables in your data frame.

```
Function mutate(.data, ...)
```

- Required argument .data, an existing data frame
- Additional arguments Names and values of the new variables
- Output An updated data frame

```
mutate(.data = our_df, new1 = 7, new2 = x * y)
```

#### mutate()

Example Take the data frame

```
my_df \leftarrow data.frame(x = 1:4, y = 5:8)
```

mutate() allows us to create many new variables with one call.

```
mutate(.data = my_df,
    xy = x * y,
    x2 = x^2,
    y2 = y^2,
    xy2 = xy^2,
    is_x_max = x = max(x)
)
```

```
#> x y xy x2 y2 xy2 is_x_max
#> 1 1 5 5 1 25 25 FALSE
#> 2 2 6 12 4 36 144 FALSE
#> 3 3 7 21 9 49 441 FALSE
#> 4 4 8 32 16 64 1024 TRUE
```

Notice mutate() returns the original and new columns.

```
mutate() VS. transmute()
```

As their names imply, mutate() and transmute() are very similar functions.

- mutate() returns the original and new columns (variables).
- transmute() returns only the new columns (variables).

Note Both functions return a new object as output—they do not update the object in R's memory. (This is the case for all functions in dplyr.)

### **Pipes**

We can't go much deeper into the land of dplyr without mentioning pipes.

A *pipe* in programming allows you to take the output of one function and plug it into another function as an argument/input.

In dplyr, the expression for a pipe is %>%.

R's pipe specifically plugs the returned object to the left of the pipe into the first argument of the function on the right fo the pipe, e.g.,

```
rnorm(10) %>% mean()
```

```
#> [1] 0.4854731
```

### **Pipes**

Pipes help avoid lots of nested functions, prevent excessive writing to your disc, and increase the readability of our R scripts.

Example Three ways to draw 100 N(0,1) observations and calculate the interquartile range (IQR: difference between the 75<sup>th</sup> and 25<sup>th</sup> percentiles).

### **Pipes**

By default, R pipes the output from the LHS of the pipe into the **first** argument of the function on the RHS of the pipe.

```
E.g., a %>% fun(3) is equivalent to fun(arg1 = a, arg2 = 3).
```

If you want to pipe output into a different argument, you use a period (.).

- b %>% fun(arg1 = 3, .) is equivalent to fun(arg1 = 3, arg2 = b).
- b %>% fun(3, .) is also equivalent to fun(arg1 = 3, arg2 = b).
- b %>% fun(., .) is equivalent to fun(arg1 = b, arg2 = b).

The magrittr package contains even more piping power. †

```
† magrittr = Magritte (of this is not a pipe fame) plus R.
```

#### %>% and dplyr

Each dplyr function begins with a .data argument so that you can easily pipe in data frames (recall: mutate(.data, ...)).

The common workflow in dplyr will look something like

```
new_df ← old_df %>% mutate(cool stuff here)
```

which takes old\_df, does some cool stuff with mutate(), and then saves the output of mutate() as new\_df.

### filter()

The filter() function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

### filter()

The filter() function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
    x = 1:10,
    y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Only keep rows where x is 3
some_df %>% filter(x = 3)

#> x y
#> 1 3 13
```

### filter()

The filter() function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
    x = 1:10,
    y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Only keep rows where x > 7
some_df %>% filter(x > 7)
```

```
#> x y
#> 1 8 18
#> 2 9 19
#> 3 10 20
```

### filter()

The filter() function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
    x = 1:10,
    y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Keep rows where y/x > 3
some_df %>% filter(y/x > 3)

#> x y
#> 1 1 11
#> 2 2 12
#> 3 3 13
#> 4 4 14
```

### filter()

The filter() function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
    x = 1:10,
    y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Keep rows where x>7 OR y<12
some_df %>%
filter(x > 7 | y < 12)</pre>
```

```
#> x y
#> 1 1 11
#> 2 8 18
#> 3 9 19
#> 4 10 20
```

### filter()

The filter() function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
    x = 1:10,
    y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Keep rows where 15 \le y \le 18 some_df %>% filter(between(y, 15, 18))
```

```
#> x y
#> 1 5 15
#> 2 6 16
#> 3 7 17
#> 4 8 18
```

### filter()

The filter() function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

Example

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
    x = 1:10,
    y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Keep rows where y > 20
some_df %>% filter(y > 20)

#> [1] x y
#> <0 rows> (or 0-length row.names)
```

If you filter your data frame down to nothing, R returns a 0-row data frame with the names/number of columns from the original data frame.

```
select()
Just as filter() grabs row-based subsets of your data frame,
select() grabs column-based subsets.
You can select columns using their names
    our df %>% select(var10, var100)
you can select columns using their numbers
    our df %>% select(10, 100)
or you can select columns using helper fuctions
    our df %>% select(starts with("var10"))
select() helps you narrow down a dataset to its necessary features.
```

#### summarize()

Hopefully you're starting to see that functions' names in dplyr tell you what the function does.

summarize() † summarizes variables—you choose the variables and the summaries (e.g., mean() or min()).

```
the_df %>% summarize(
  mean(x), mean(y), mean(z),
  min(x), max(x),
)
```

would return a 1×5 data frame with the means of x, y, and z; the minimum of x; and the maximum of x.

### summarize() and group\_by()

While sample-wide summarizes are certainly interesting, dplyr has one last gem for us: group\_by().

group\_by() groups your observations by the variable(s) that you name.

Specifically, group\_by() returns a grouped data frame that you can then feed to summarize(), mutate(), or transmuate to perform grouped calculations, e.g., each group's mean.

### **Example: Grouped summaries**

```
# Create a new data frame
our_df ← data.frame(
    x = 1:6,
    y = c(0, 1),
    grp = rep(c("A", "B"), each = 3)
)
```

```
#> x y grp
#> 1 1 0 A
#> 2 2 1 A
#> 3 3 0 A
#> 4 4 1 B
#> 5 5 0 B
#> 6 6 1 B
```

```
# For dataset 'our_df'...
our_df %>%
  # Group by 'grp'
  group_by(grp) %>%
  # Take means of 'x' and 'y'
  summarize(mean(x), mean(y))
```

### **Example: Grouped mutation**

```
# Create a new data frame
our_df ← data.frame(
    x = 1:6,
    y = c(0, 1),
    grp = rep(c("A", "B"), each = 3)
)
```

```
#> x y grp
#> 1 1 0 A
#> 2 2 1 A
#> 3 3 0 A
#> 4 4 1 B
#> 5 5 0 B
#> 6 6 1 B
```

```
# Add grp means for x and y
our_df %>%
  group_by(grp) %>%
  mutate(
    x_m = mean(x), y_m = mean(y)
)
```

```
#> # A tibble: 6 x 5
#> # Groups: grp [2]
#>
    x y grp x_m y_m
#> <int> <dbl> <fct> <dbl> <dbl>
#> 1
    1
       0 A 2 0.333
5 0.667
5 0.667
    6
       1 B
            5 0.667
#> 6
```

#### arrange()

arrange() will sorts the rows of a data frame using the inputted columns.

R defaults to starting with the "lowest" (smallest) at the top of the data frame. Use a - in front of the variable's name to reverse sort.

```
# As is
our df
```

```
# Arrang by y, grp, then -x
our df %>% arrange(y, grp, -x)
```

```
\#> x y grp
#> 1 1 0 A
#> 2 2 1 A
#> 3 3 0 A
#> 4 4 1 B
#> 5 5 0 B
#> 6 6 1
```

```
#>
  x y grp
#> 1 3 0
#> 2 1 0 A
#> 3 5 0
         В
#> 4 2 1 A
#> 5 6 1
#> 6 4 1
         В
```

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