Getting to know R

EC 425/525, Lab 1

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Prologue

Schedule

Today

Get to know R

- 1. Basic features of R
- 2. Fun with functions
- 3. OLS (canned and custom)
- 4. Simulations

Object types/classes

As we discussed in class, R revolves around objects, e.g., test <- 123.

Note You can also assign values to objects via = , e.g., test = 123.

Objects have types/classes.

- 1, 2/3, and are numeric.
- "Hello" and 'cruel world' are both character.
- TRUE, T, FALSE, and F are logical (as is the result of 3 > 2).

The class(x) function tells you the class of object x.

Object types/classes

```
class(1)
#> [1] 1
                                           #> [1] "numeric"
                                            class("Clever/funny example words?")
"Clever/funny example words?"
#> [1] "Clever/funny example words?"  #> [1] "character"
                                            class(3 < 2)
3 < 2
#> [1] FALSE
                                           #> [1] "logical"
 "Warriors" > "Bucks"
                                            class("Warriors" > "Bucks")
#> [1] TRUE
                                           #> [1] "logical"
```

Structure

In addition to having types/classes, objects have some type of structure.

- 1:3, c(1, 2), and seq(2, 8, 2) each produce a numeric-class vector.
- c("Alright", "already") produces a vector of character class.
- c(1, 3, T, "Hello") produces a vector of character class.
- matrix(data = 1:15, ncol = 5) creates a matrix with class from data.
- data.frame(x = 1:2, y = c("a", "b"), z = T) produces a data.frame
 with three columns and two rows. The first column (x) is numeric; the
 second column (y) is character, and the third column (z) is logical.

Object types

```
Our matrix
```

```
matrix(data = 1:15, ncol = 5)
#> [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
#> [1,] 1 4 7 10 13 #> 1 1 TRUE
#> [2,] 2 5 8 11 14 #> 2 2 TRUE
#> [3,] 3 6 9 12 15
```

Our first data.frame!

#> 3 3 TRUE

```
data.frame(x = 1:3, y = T)
#> x v
```

Notice how R helps 'fill' out the columns when lengths don't match.

Object types

R can help you check object's type.

```
class(matrix(1:9, ncol = 3))

#> [1] "matrix"

#> [1] "data.frame"

is.matrix(matrix(1:9, ncol = 3))

#> [1] TRUE

#> [1] FALSE

is.data.frame(matrix(1:9, ncol = 3))

#> [1] FALSE

#> [1] TRUE

#> [1] TRUE

#> [1] TRUE
```

Object types/classes

Q What happens when we mix classes, e.g., c(12, "B", F)?

A R applies the class that can apply to all objects.

```
c(12, "B")

c("B", F)

#> [1] "12" "B"

#> [1] "B" "FALSE"

c(12, F)

c(12, "B", F)

#> [1] 12 0 #> [1] "12" "B" "FALSE"
```

Changing types and classes

Change numbers to characters.

```
as.character(1:3)
#> [1] "1" "2" "3"
```

Change vector to matrix.

```
as.matrix(1:3)

#> [,1]
#> [1,] 1
#> [2,] 2
#> [3,] 3
```

Change logical to numeric.

```
as.numeric(c(T, F))
#> [1] 1 0
```

Packages

Straight out of the box, R has a ton of useful features, but it really gets its power from the additional packages (libraries) that users create.

- Open-source greatness Users find needs and create amazing solutions.
- *Caveat utilitor* There are a lot of packages, each with a lot of functions. Mistakes can happen.
- **Open-source greatness₂** Again, R is open source: Check the code! (Maybe. Sometimes it's very hard.)

Examples ggplot2 (plotting), dplyr (data work that can link with SQL), sf and raster (geospatial work), lfe (high-dimensional fixed-effect regression), data.table (fast and efficient data work)

Installing packages

Once you find a function/package that you need to install, you'll typically install it via install.packages("newAmazingPackage"). ††

We'll use the package dplyr throughout the course. Let's install it.

```
# Install 'dplyr' package
install.packages("dplyr")
```

Aside Notice the comment above the actual code (R uses # for comments). While not necessary for R to work, comments are necessary for research.

Using packages

Once you install a package, it is on your machine.

You don't need to install it again—though you probably should update them from time to time.

To **load a package**, use the library(package) function[†], e.g., to load dplyr

```
# Load 'dplyr'
library(dplyr)
```

Now all functions contained in dplyr are available (until you close R).

Package management

All of this installing, loading, updating, checking-for-existance-and-then-loading can get old.

```
As can typing library(pacakge1), library(package2), ...
```

[Enter] The pacman package... for package management, of course.

After installing (install.packages("pacman")), you can

- Install and load packages via p_load(package1, ..., packageN)
- Update packages via p_update()

The p_load paradigm is especially helpful for collaboarations or projects across multiple machines.

Math in R

Basic algebra: scalars a and b

```
# Addition
a + b
# Subtraction
a - b
# Multiplication
a * b
# Division
a / b
# Mod
a %% b
# Integer division
a %/% b
# Exponents
a^b
```

Matrix algebra: matrices A and B

```
# Addition
A + B
# Subtraction
A - B
# Multiplication
A %*% B
# Inverse
solve(A)
# Transpose
t(A)
# Diagonal
diag(A)
# Dimensions
dim(A); nrow(A); ncol(A)
```

Vectorization

One **great** feature in R: vectorization.

With vectorization, R automatically applies functions to each element of a vector—no iteration required.

Vectorization

```
# Multiply a scalar by a scalar
3 * 4
```

#> [1] 12

```
# Multiply a scalar by a vector
3 * c(4, 5, 6)
```

#> [1] 12 15 18

```
# Multiply a vector by a vector
1:3 * c(4, 5, 6)
```

#> [1] 4 10 18

Vectorization can be confusing.

```
c(0.5, 0.9) + c(1, 2, 3)
```

#> [1] 1.5 2.9 3.5

R will send you a warning, but it won't stop you.

Statistics in R

Summaries for samples x and y

```
# Mean
mean(x)
# Median
median(x)
# Std. dev. and variance
sd(x)
var(x)
# Min. and max.
min(x)
max(x)
# Correlation/covariance
cor(x, y)
cov(x, y)
# Quartiles and mean
summary(x)
```

Sampling

```
# Set the seed
set.seed(246)
# 4 random draws from N(3,5)
rnorm(n = 4, mean = 3, sd = sqrt(5))
# CDF for N(0,1) at z=1.96
pnorm(q = 1.96, mean = 0, sd = 1)
# Sample 5 draws from x w/ repl.
sample(
 X = X
 size = 5,
 replace = T
# First and last 3
head(x, 3)
tail(x, 3)
```

Indexing vectors

Because vectors are so central to R, being able to index your vectors is important. *Note:* Vectors have one dimension.

Take the vector x (e.g., x < -c(2, 4, 6, 9)).

- x[3] will give us the third element of the vector—i.e., 6.
- x[2:3] will give us the second and third elements—i.e., c(4, 6).
- x[-1] returns all elements except the first—i.e., c(4, 6, 9).
- $x[2] \leftarrow 0$ replaces the second element with 0-i.e., c(2, 0, 6, 9).

Lists, e.g., list(1, 2, 3), are similar but use double brackets, e.g., y[[3]].

Indexing matrices

Because matrices (and data frames) have two dimensions, we need to index both dimensions.

```
For matrix A (e.g., A <- matrix(1:9, ncol = 3))
```

- A[3,1] references the element in the 3rd row and 1st column.
- A[3,] references all elements in the 3rd row (across all columns).
- A[,1] references all elements in the 1st column (across all rows).
- A[-2,] returns all elements in A except for the 2nd row.
- A[2,3] <- 0 replaces the element A[2,3] with zero.

You can also name rows/columns in matrices—and can use these names for referencing.

Other

"Special" values

- Inf is ∞ , i.e., 1/0. -Inf is $-\infty$.
- NA is missing.
- NaN is not a number.
- NULL is null.

Standard logical operators

- == for equality
- != is not equal.
- >, >=, <, <=
- & is and; | is or.

R orders by number, lowercase, then uppercase.

```
# Ordering
1 < "a"</pre>
```

#> [1] TRUE

NA

Finally, NA contains no information in R

```
NA = NA

#> [1] NA

#> [1] NA

is.vector(NA)

#> [1] NA

#> [1] TRUE

NA > 0

#> [1] NA
```

Exercises

1. Using the tools we've covered, generate a dataset (n=50) such that

$$y_i = 12 + 1.5x_i + arepsilon_i$$

where $x_i \sim N(3,7)$ and $arepsilon_i \sim N(0,1)$.

2. Estimate the relationship via OLS using only matrix algebra. Recall

$${\hat eta}_{
m OLS} = \left(X'X
ight)^{-1} X'y$$

- 3. **Harder** Write a function that estimates OLS coefficients using matrix algebra. Compare your results with the canned function from R (lm).
- 4. **Hardest** Bring it all together: Use your DGP (1) and function (3) to run a simulation that illustrates the unbiasedness of OLS.