# **Exploring data 2**

# Regression models

## nepali example data

For the nepali dataset, each observation is a single measurement for a child; there can be multiple observations per child.

I'll limit it to the columns with the child's id, sex, weight, height, and age, and I'll limit to each child's first measurement.

### nepali example data

The data now looks like:

#### head(nepali)

```
## id sex wt ht age
## 1 120011 Male 12.8 91.2 41
## 2 120012 Female 14.9 103.9 57
## 3 120021 Female 7.7 70.1 8
## 4 120022 Female 12.1 86.4 35
## 5 120023 Male 14.2 99.4 49
## 6 120031 Male 13.9 96.4 46
```

#### Formula structure

Regression models can be used to estimate how the expected value of a dependent variable changes as independent variables change.

In R, regression formulas take this structure:

```
## Generic code
[response variable] ~ [indep. var. 1] + [indep. var. 2] + ...
```

Notice that ~ used to separate the independent and dependent variables and the + used to join independent variables. This format mimics the statistical notation:

$$Y_i \sim X_1 + X_2 + X_3$$

You will use this type of structure in R fo a lot of different function calls, including those for linear models (lm) and generalized linear models (glm).

#### Linear models

To fit a linear model, you can use the function lm(). Use the data option to specify the dataframe from which to get the vectors. You can save the model as an object.

This call fits the model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1,i} + \epsilon_i$$

where:

- *Y<sub>i</sub>* : weight of child *i*
- $X_{1,i}$ : height of child i

# Using model objects

Some functions you can use on model objects:

Function	Description
summary	Get a variety of information on the model, including coefficients and p-values for the coefficients
coef	Pull out just the coefficients for a model
fitted	Get the fitted values from the model (for the data used to fit the model)
plot	Create plots to help assess model assumptions
residuals	Get the model residuals

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For example, you can get the coefficients from the model we just fit:

```
coef(mod_a)

## (Intercept) ht
## -8.694768 0.235050
```

The estimated coefficient for the intercept is always given under the name "(Intercept)".

Estimated coefficients for independent variables are given based on their column names in the original data ("ht" here, for  $\beta_1$ , or the estimated increase in expected weight for a one unit increase in height).

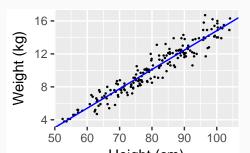
You can also pull out the residuals from the model fit:

```
head(residuals(mod_a))
```

```
## 1 2 3 4 5
## 0.05820415 -0.82693141 -0.08223993 0.48644436 -0.46920621 -
```

This is a vector the same length as the number of observations (rows) in the dataframe you used to fit the model. The residuals are in the same order as the observations in the original dataframe.

You can use the coef results to plot a regression line based on the model fit on top of points showing the original data:



The summary() function gives you a lot of information about the model:

summary(mod\_a)

(see next slide)

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = wt ~ ht, data = nepali)
##
## Residuals:
       Min 1Q Median 3Q
##
                                        Max
## -2.44736 -0.55708 0.01925 0.49941 2.73594
##
## Coefficients:
##
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -8.694768  0.427398 -20.34  <2e-16 ***
## ht 0.235050 0.005257 44.71 <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' '
##
## Residual standard error: 0.9017 on 183 degrees of freedom
##
    (15 observations deleted due to missingness)
## Multiple R-squared: 0.9161, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9157
                                                         13
## F-statistic: 1999 on 1 and 183 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

## summary for 1m objects

The object created when you use the summary() function on an 1m object has several different parts you can pull out using the \$ operator:

```
names(summary(mod_a))

## [1] "call" "terms" "residuals" "coeffic
## [5] "aliased" "sigma" "df" "r.squar
## [9] "adj.r.squared" "fstatistic" "cov.unscaled" "na.acti
```

```
summary(mod_a)$coefficients
```

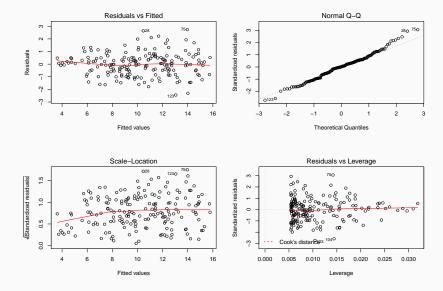
```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -8.694768 0.427397843 -20.34350 7.424640e-49
## ht 0.235050 0.005256822 44.71334 1.962647e-100
```

# Using plot() with 1m objects

You can use plot with an lm object to get a number of useful diagnostic plots to check regression assumptions:

```
plot(mod_a)
```

(See next slide)



# Fitting a model with a factor

You can also use binary variables or factors as independent variables in regression models:

```
mod_b <- lm(wt ~ sex, data = nepali)
summary(mod_b)$coefficients</pre>
```

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 10.497980 0.3110957 33.745177 1.704550e-80
## sexFemale -0.674724 0.4562792 -1.478752 1.409257e-01
```

This call fits the model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1,i} + \epsilon_i$$

where  $X_{1,i}$ : sex of child i, where 0 = male; 1 = female

#### Linear models versus GLMs

You can fit a variety of models, including linear models, logistic models, and Poisson models, using generalized linear models (GLMs).

For linear models, the only difference between lm and glm is how they're fitting the model (least squares versus maximum likelihood). You should get the same results regardless of which you pick.

#### Linear models versus GLMs

For example:

```
mod_c <- glm(wt ~ ht, data = nepali)
summary(mod_c)$coef</pre>
```

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -8.694768 0.427397843 -20.34350 7.424640e-49
## ht 0.235050 0.005256822 44.71334 1.962647e-100
```

```
summary(mod_a)$coef
```

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -8.694768 0.427397843 -20.34350 7.424640e-49
## ht 0.235050 0.005256822 44.71334 1.962647e-100
```

#### **GLMs**

You can fit other model types with glm() using the family option:

Model type	family option
Linear	<pre>family = gaussian(link = 'identity')</pre>
Logistic	<pre>family = binomial(link = 'logit')</pre>
Poisson	<pre>family = poisson(link = 'log')</pre>

# Logistic example

For example, say we wanted to fit a logistic regression for the nepali data of whether the probability that a child weighs more than 13 kg is associated with the child's height.

First, create a binary variable for wt\_over\_13:

```
nepali <- nepali %>%
  mutate(wt_over_13 = wt > 13)
head(nepali)
```

```
## id sex wt ht age wt_over_13
## 1 120011 Male 12.8 91.2 41 FALSE
## 2 120012 Female 14.9 103.9 57 TRUE
## 3 120021 Female 7.7 70.1 8 FALSE
## 4 120022 Female 12.1 86.4 35 FALSE
## 5 120023 Male 14.2 99.4 49 TRUE
## 6 120031 Male 13.9 96.4 46 TRUE
```

# Logistic example

Now you can fit a logistic regression:

```
## Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) -32.7016520 5.85196755 -5.588147 2.295060e-08
## ht 0.3495227 0.06331892 5.520036 3.389307e-08
```

Here, the model coefficient gives the **log odds** of having a weight higher than 13 kg associated with a unit increase in height.

#### Formula structure

There are some conventions that can be used in R formulas. Common ones include:

Convention	Meaning
I()	calculate the value inside before fitting (e.g., $I(x1 + x2)$ )
:	fit the interaction between two variables (e.g., x1:x2)
*	fit the main effects and interaction for both variables
	(e.g., x1*x2 equals x1 + x2 + x1:x2)
	fit all variables other than the response (e.g., y $\sim$ .)
_	do not include a variable (e.g., y ~ x1)
1	intercept (e.g., y ~ 1)

#### To find out more

A great (and free for CSU students) resource to find out more about using  ${\sf R}$  for basic statistics:

Introductory Statistics with R

If you want all the details about fitting linear models and GLMs in R, Faraway's books are fantastic:

- Linear Models with R (also freely available through our library)
- Extending the Linear Model with R

# **Parentheses**

#### **Parentheses**

If you put parentheses around an entire code statement, it will both run the code and print out the answer.

```
study_months <- c("Jan", "Feb", "Mar")
study_months

## [1] "Jan" "Feb" "Mar"

(study_months <- c("Jan", "Feb", "Mar"))

## [1] "Jan" "Feb" "Mar"</pre>
```

Loops allow you to "walk through" and repeat the same code for different values of an index.

For each run of the loop, R is told that, for **some index** in **some vector**, do **some code**.

## [1] 3

Note that this code is equivalent to:

```
i <- 1
print(i)
## [1] 1
i <- 2
print(i)
## [1] 2
i <- 3
print(i)
```

Often, the index will be set to a number for each cycle of the loop, and then the index will be used within the code to index vectors or data frames:

```
study_months <- c("Jan", "Feb", "Mar")
for(i in c(1, 3)){
        print(study_months[i])
}</pre>
```

```
## [1] "Jan"
## [1] "Mar"
```

Often, you want to set the index to sequential numbers (e.g., 1, 2, 3, 4). In this case, you can save time by using the : notation to create a vector of a sequence of numbers:

```
for(i in 1:3){
         print(i)
}

## [1] 1
## [1] 2
## [1] 3
```

With this notation, sometimes it may be helpful to use the length function to set the largest index value for the loop as the length of a vector (or nrow for indexing a data frame). For example:

```
study_months <- c("Jan", "Feb", "Mar")
for(i in 1:length(study_months)){
         print(study_months[i])
}</pre>
```

```
## [1] "Jan"
## [1] "Feb"
## [1] "Mar"
```

Sometimes, you want to set the index for each cycle of the loop to something that is not a number. You can set the index to any class of vector.

Remember that a loop works by saying for **some index** in **some vector**, do **some code**.

For example, you may want to run: for study\_month in study\_months, print(study\_month):

```
study_months <- c("Jan", "Feb", "Mar")
for(study_month in study_months){
    print(study_month)
}</pre>
```

```
## [1] "Jan"
## [1] "Feb"
## [1] "Mar"
```

Note that this is equivalent to:

## [1] "Mar"

```
study month <- "Jan"
print(study_month)
## [1] "Jan"
study_month <- "Feb"
print(study_month)
## [1] "Feb"
study_month <- "Mar"
print(study_month)
```

What would this loop do?

```
vars <- c("Time", "Shots", "Passes", "Tackles", "Saves")
for(i in 1:length(vars)){
     var_mean <- mean(worldcup[ , vars[i]])
     print(var_mean)
}</pre>
```

```
vars <- c("Time", "Shots", "Passes", "Tackles", "Saves")</pre>
for(i in 1:length(vars)){
        var_mean <- mean(worldcup[ , vars[i]])</pre>
        print(var_mean)
}
## [1] 208.8639
## [1] 2.304202
## [1] 84.52101
## [1] 4.191597
## [1] 0.6672269
```

What would this loop do?

```
vars <- c("Time", "Shots", "Passes", "Tackles", "Saves")
for(i in 1:length(vars)){
     var_mean <- mean(worldcup[ , vars[i]])
     var_mean <- round(var_mean, 1)
     out <- paste0("mean of ", vars[i], ": ", var_mean)
     print(out)
}</pre>
```

To figure out, you can set i  $\leftarrow$  1 and then walk through the loop:

```
i <- 1
(var_mean <- mean(worldcup[ , vars[i]]))</pre>
## [1] 208.8639
(var_mean <- round(var_mean, 1))</pre>
## [1] 208.9
(out <- paste0("mean of ", vars[i], ": ", var_mean))</pre>
## [1] "mean of Time: 208.9"
```

```
vars <- c("Time", "Shots", "Passes", "Tackles", "Saves")</pre>
for(i in 1:length(vars)){
        var mean <- mean(worldcup[ , vars[i]])</pre>
        var mean <- round(var mean, 1)</pre>
        out <- paste0("mean of ", vars[i], ": ", var_mean)</pre>
        print(out)
## [1] "mean of Time: 208.9"
## [1] "mean of Shots: 2.3"
  [1] "mean of Passes: 84.5"
## [1] "mean of Tackles: 4.2"
## [1] "mean of Saves: 0.7"
```

Often, it's convenient to create a data set to fill up as you loop through:

```
vars <- c("Time", "Shots", "Passes", "Tackles", "Saves")
my_df <- data.frame(variable = vars, mean = NA)
for(i in 1:nrow(my_df)){
        var_mean <- mean(worldcup[ , vars[i]])
        my_df[i , "mean"] <- round(var_mean, 1)
}</pre>
```

```
vars <- c("Time", "Shots", "Passes", "Tackles", "Saves")
(my_df <- data.frame(variable = vars, mean = NA))

## variable mean
## 1    Time    NA
## 2    Shots    NA
## 3    Passes    NA
## 4    Tackles    NA
## 5    Saves    NA</pre>
```

```
i <- 1
(var_mean <- mean(worldcup[ , vars[i]]))</pre>
## [1] 208.8639
my_df[i , "mean"] <- round(var_mean, 1)</pre>
my_df
## variable mean
## 1 Time 208.9
## 2 Shots NA
## 3 Passes NA
## 4 Tackles NA
## 5 Saves NA
```

```
for(i in 1:nrow(my_df)){
        var_mean <- mean(worldcup[ , vars[i]])</pre>
       my_df[i , "mean"] <- round(var_mean, 1)</pre>
my_df
## variable mean
## 1
    Time 208.9
## 2
       Shots 2.3
## 3 Passes 84.5
## 4 Tackles 4.2
       Saves 0.7
## 5
```

Note: This is a pretty simplistic example. There are some easier ways to have done this:

```
## var mean
## 1 Time 208.9
## 2 Passes 84.5
## 3 Shots 2.3
## 4 Tackles 4.2
## 5 Saves 0.7
```

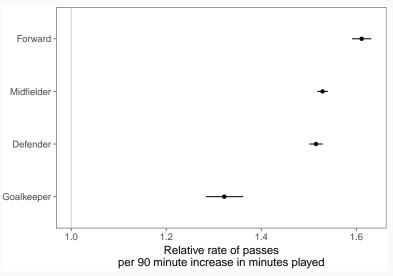
Note: This is a pretty simplistic example. There are some easier ways to have done this:

```
means <- apply(worldcup[ , vars], 2, mean)
(means <- round(means, 1))</pre>
```

```
## Time Shots Passes Tackles Saves
## 208.9 2.3 84.5 4.2 0.7
```

However, you can use this same looping process for much more complex tasks that you can't do as easily with apply or dplyr tools.

Loops can be very useful for more complex repeated tasks. For example:



### Creating this graph requires:

- Create a subset limited to each of the four positions
- Fit a Poisson regression of Passes on Time within each subset
- Pull the regression coefficient and standard error from each model
- Use those values to calculate 95% confidence intervals
- Convert everything from log relative rate to relative rate
- Plot everything

## 4 Goalkeeper NA NA

Create a vector with the names of all positions. Create an empty data frame to store regression results.

```
(positions <- unique(worldcup$Position))</pre>
## [1] Midfielder Defender Forward
                                       Goalkeeper
## Levels: Defender Forward Goalkeeper Midfielder
(pos est <- data.frame(position = positions,
                      est = NA, se = NA))
      position est se
##
## 1 Midfielder NA NA
## 2 Defender NA NA
## 3 Forward NA NA
```

##

Loop through and fit a Poisson regression model for each subset of data. Save regression coefficients in the empty data frame.

```
for(i in 1:nrow(pos est)){
        pos_df <- worldcup %>%
          filter(Position == positions[i])
        pos mod <- glm(Passes ~ Time,
                       data = pos_df,
                       family = poisson(link = "log"))
        pos coefs <- summary(pos mod)$coefficients[2, 1:2]
        pos est[i, c("est", "se")] <- pos_coefs</pre>
pos_est[1:2, ]
##
       position
                   est
                                       se
```

## 1 Midfielder 0.004716096 4.185925e-05

Defender 0.004616260 5.192736e-05

Calculate 95% confidence intervals for log relative risk values.

```
pos_est <- pos_est %>%
 mutate(lower ci = est - 1.96 * se,
        upper_ci = est + 1.96 * se)
pos est %>%
 select(position, est, lower_ci, upper_ci)
      position est lower ci upper ci
##
## 1 Midfielder 0.004716096 0.004634052 0.004798140
## 2
      Defender 0.004616260 0.004514483 0.004718038
## 3
       Forward 0.005299009 0.005158945 0.005439074
  4 Goalkeeper 0.003101124 0.002770562 0.003431687
```

Calculate relative risk per 90 minute increase in minutes played.

```
pos_est <- pos_est %>%
  mutate(rr est = exp(90 * est),
         rr_low = exp(90 * lower_ci),
         rr_high = exp(90 * upper_ci))
pos est %>%
  select(position, rr_est, rr_low, rr_high)
##
      position rr est rr low rr high
## 1 Midfielder 1.528747 1.517501 1.540077
## 2
      Defender 1.515073 1.501258 1.529015
## 3
       Forward 1.611090 1.590908 1.631527
## 4 Goalkeeper 1.321941 1.283192 1.361861
```

Re-level the position factor so the plot will be ordered from highest to lowest estimates.

```
## position est

## 1 Goalkeeper 0.003101124

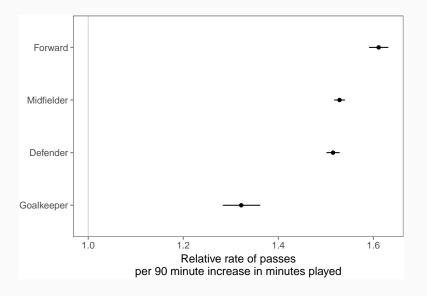
## 2 Defender 0.004616260

## 3 Midfielder 0.004716096

## 4 Forward 0.005299009
```

#### Create the plot:

```
ggplot(pos_est, aes(x = rr_low, y = position)) +
        geom_segment(aes(xend = rr_high, yend = position)) +
        geom point(aes(x = rr est, y = position)) +
        theme few() +
        vlab("") +
        scale x continuous(paste("Relative rate of",
                                 "passes\nper 90 minute",
                                 "increase in minutes played"),
                           limits = c(1.0.
                                      max(pos est$rr high))) +
        geom_vline(aes(xintercept = 1), color = "lightgray")
```



# Other control structures

There are other control structures you can use in your R code. Two that you will commonly use within R functions are if and ifelse statements.

An if statement tells R that, **if** a certain condition is true, **do** run some code. For example, if you wanted to print out only odd numbers between 1 and 5, one way to do that is with an if statement:

```
for(i in 1:5){
  if(i %% 2 == 1){
    print(i)
  }
}
```

```
## [1] 1
## [1] 3
## [1] 5
```

The if statement runs some code if a condition is true, but does nothing if it is false. If you'd like different code to run depending on whether the condition is true or false, you can us an if / else or an if / else if / else statement.

```
for(i in 1:5){
   if(i %% 2 == 1){
     print(i)
   } else {
     print(paste(i, "is even"))
   }
}
```

```
## [1] 1
## [1] "2 is even"
## [1] 3
## [1] "4 is even"
## [1] 5
```

What would this code do?

```
for(i in 1:100){
  if(i \%\% 3 == 0 \& i \%\% 5 == 0){
    print("FizzBuzz")
  } else if(i %% 3 == 0){
    print("Fizz")
  } else if(i \%\% 5 == 0){
    print("Buzz")
  } else {
    print(i)
```

If / else statements are extremely useful in functions.

In R, the if statement evaluates everything in the parentheses and, if that evaluates to TRUE, runs everything in the braces. This means that you can trigger code in an if statement with a single-value logical vector:

```
weekend <- TRUE
if(weekend){
  print("It's the weekend!")
}</pre>
```

```
## [1] "It's the weekend!"
```

This functionality can be useful with parameters you choose to include when writing your own functions (e.g., print = TRUE).

### **Control structures**

The control structures you are most likely to use in data analysis with R are "for" loops and "if / else" statements. However, there are a few other control structures you may occasionally find useful:

- next
- break
- while

You can use the next structure to skip to the next round of a loop when a certain condition is met. For example, we could have used this code to print out odd numbers between 1 and 5:

```
for(i in 1:5){
  if(i %% 2 == 0){
    next
  }
  print(i)
}
```

```
## [1] 1
## [1] 3
## [1] 5
```

#### break

You can use break to break out of a loop if a certain condition is met. For example, the final code will break out of the loop once i is over 3, so it will only print the numbers 1 through 3:

```
for(i in 1:5){
   if(i > 3){
     break
   }
   print(i)
}
```

```
## [1] 1
## [1] 2
## [1] 3
```

```
my_sum <- 1
while(my_sum < 10){
 my_sum <- my_sum * 2
 print(my_sum)
## [1] 2
## [1] 4
## [1] 8
## [1] 16
```

As you move to larger projects, you will find yourself using the same code a lot.

#### Examples include:

- Reading in data from a specific type of equipment (air pollution monitor, accelerometer)
- Running a specific type of analysis
- Creating a specific type of plot or map

If you find yourself cutting and pasting a lot, convert the code to a function.

### Advantages of writing functions include:

- Coding is more efficient
- Easier to change your code (if you've cut and paste code and you want to change something, you have to change it everywhere)
- Easier to share code with others

You can name a function anything you want (although try to avoid names of preexisting-existing functions). You then define any inputs (arguments; separate multiple arguments with commas) and put the code to run in braces:

```
## Note: this code will not run
[function name] <- function([any arguments]){
        [code to run]
}</pre>
```

## [1] 0

Here is an example of a very basic function. This function takes a number as input and adds 1 to that number.

```
add one <- function(number){</pre>
        out <- number + 1
        return(out)
add_one(number = 3)
## [1] 4
add one(number = -1)
```

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- Functions can input any type of R object (for example, vectors, data frames, even other functions and ggplot objects)
- Similarly, functions can output any type of R object
- When defining a function, you can set default values for some of the parameters
- You can explicitly specify the value to return from the function
- There are ways to check for errors in the arguments a user inputs to the function

For example, the following function inputs a data frame (datafr) and a one-element vector (child\_id) and returns only rows in the data frame where it's id column matches child\_id. It includes a default value for datafr, but not for child\_id.

```
subset_nepali <- function(datafr = nepali, child_id){
  datafr <- datafr %>%
    filter(id == child_id)
  return(datafr)
}
```

If an argument is not given for a parameter with a default, the function will run using the default value for that parameter. For example:

```
subset_nepali(child_id = "120011")
```

```
## id sex wt ht age wt_over_13
## 1 120011 Male 12.8 91.2 41 FALSE
```

If an argument is not given for a parameter without a default, the function call will result in an error. For example:

```
subset_nepali(datafr = nepali)
```

```
## Error in filter_impl(.data, quo): Evaluation error: argument
```

By default, the function will return the last defined object, although the choice of using return can affect printing behavior when you run the function. For example, I could have written the subset\_nepali function like this:

```
subset_nepali <- function(datafr = nepali, child_id){
  datafr <- datafr %>%
    filter(id == child_id)
}
```

In this case, the output will not automatically print out when you call the function without assigning it to an R object:

```
subset_nepali(child_id = "120011")
```

However, the output can be assigned to an R object in the same way as when the function was defined without return:

```
first_childs_data <- subset_nepali(child_id = "120011")
first_childs_data</pre>
```

```
## id sex wt ht age wt_over_13
## 1 120011 Male 12.8 91.2 41 FALSE
```

## [1] "Test output"

The return function can also be used to return an object other than the last defined object (although doesn't tend to be something you need to do very often). For example, if you did not use return in the following code, it will output "Test output":

```
subset_nepali <- function(datafr = nepali, child_id){
  datafr <- datafr %>%
    filter(id == child_id)
  a <- "Test output"
}
(subset_nepali(child_id = "120011"))</pre>
```

Conversely, you can use return to output datafr, even though it's not the last object defined:

```
subset_nepali <- function(datafr = nepali, child_id){
  datafr <- datafr %>%
    filter(id == child_id)
  a <- "Test output"
  return(datafr)
}
subset_nepali(child_id = "120011")</pre>
```

```
## id sex wt ht age wt_over_13
## 1 120011 Male 12.8 91.2 41 FALSE
```

You can use stop to stop execution of the function and give the user an error message. For example, the subset\_nepali function will fail if the user inputs a data frame that does not have a column named "id":

```
Error: comparison (1) is possible only for atomic and list types
```

You can rewrite the function to stop if the input datafr does not have a column named "id":

```
subset nepali <- function(datafr = nepali, child id){</pre>
  if(!("id" %in% colnames(datafr))){
    stop("`datafr` must include a column named `id`")
  }
  datafr <- datafr %>%
    filter(id == child_id)
  return(datafr)
subset_nepali(datafr = data.frame(wt = rnorm(10)),
              child id = "12011")
```

```
Error in subset_nepali(datafr = data.frame(wt = rnorm(10)),
child_id = "12011") :
  `datafr` must include a column named `id`
```

The stop function is particularly important if the function would keep running with the wrong input, but would result in the wrong output.

You can also output warnings and messages using the functions warning and message.

For these examples, we'll use some data on passengers of the Titanic. You can load this data using:

```
# install.packages("titanic")
library(titanic)
data("titanic_train")
```

We will be using the stringr package:

```
library(stringr)
```

This data includes a column called "Name" with passenger names. This column is somewhat messy and includes several elements that we might want to separate (last name, first name, title). Here are the first few values of "Name":

titanic train %>% select(Name) %>% slice(1:3)

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 1
##

## Name

*chr>
## 1 Braund, Mr. Owen Harris
## 2 Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Thayer)
## 3 Heikkinen, Miss. Laina
```

titanic train %>%

We've already done some things to manipulate strings. For example, if we wanted to separate "Name" into last name and first name (including title), we could actually do that with the separate function:

```
select(Name) %>%
  slice(1:3) %>%
  separate(Name, c("last name", "first name"), sep = ", ")
## # A tibble: 3 x 2
##
     last_name
                                                first_name
## *
         <chr>>
                                                     <chr>>
## 1
        Braund
                                           Mr. Owen Harris
       Cumings Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Thayer)
## 2
## 3 Heikkinen
                                               Miss. Laina
```

Notice that separate is looking for a regular pattern (",") and then doing something based on the location of that pattern in each string (splitting the string).

There are a variety of functions in R that can perform manipulations based on finding regular patterns in character strings.

The str\_detect function will look through each element of a character vector for a designated pattern. If the pattern is there, it will return TRUE, and otherwise FALSE. The convention is:

For example, to create a logical vector specifying which of the Titanic passenger names include "Mrs.", you can call:

```
mrs <- str_detect(titanic_train$Name, "Mrs.")
head(mrs)</pre>
```

```
## [1] FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE
```

The result is a logical vector, so str\_detect can be used in filter to subset data to only rows where the passenger's name includes "Mrs.":

```
titanic_train %>%
  filter(str_detect(Name, "Mrs.")) %>%
  select(Name) %>%
  slice(1:3)
```

There is an older, base R function called grep1 that does something very similar (although note that the order of the arguments is reversed).

```
titanic_train %>%
  filter(grepl("Mrs.", Name)) %>%
  select(Name) %>%
  slice(1:3)
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 1
##

Name

<chr>
## 1 Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Thayer)
## 2
Futrelle, Mrs. Jacques Heath (Lily May Peel)
## 3 Johnson, Mrs. Oscar W (Elisabeth Vilhelmina Berg)
```

The str\_extract function can be used to extract a string (if it exists) from each value in a character vector. It follows similar conventions to str\_detect:

For example, you might want to extract "Mrs." if it exists in a passenger's name:

```
titanic_train %>%
  mutate(mrs = str_extract(Name, "Mrs.")) %>%
  select(Name, mrs) %>%
  slice(1:3)
```

Notice that now we're creating a new column (mrs) that either has "Mrs." (if there's a match) or is missing (NA) if there's not a match.

For this first example, we were looking for an exact string ("Mrs"). However, you can use patterns that match a particular pattern, but not an exact string. For example, we could expand the regular expression to find "Mr." or "Mrs.":

```
titanic_train %>%
  mutate(title = str_extract(Name, "Mr\\.|Mrs\\.")) %>%
  select(Name, title) %>%
  slice(1:3)
```

Note that this pattern uses a special operator (|) to find one pattern or

As a note, in regular expressions, all of the following characters are special characters that need to be escaped with backslashes if you want to use them literally:

```
. * + ^ ? $ \ | ( ) [ ] { }
```

Notice that "Mr." and "Mrs." both start with "Mr", end with ".", and may or may not have an "s" in between.

```
titanic_train %>%
  mutate(title = str_extract(Name, "Mr(s)*\\.")) %>%
  select(Name, title) %>%
  slice(1:3)
```

This pattern uses (s)\* to match zero or more "s"s at this spot in the pattern.

In the previous code, we found "Mr." and "Mrs.", but missed "Miss.". We could tweak the pattern again to try to capture that, as well. For all three, we have the pattern that it starts with "M", has some lowercase letters, and then ends with ".".

```
titanic_train %>%
  mutate(title = str_extract(Name, "M[a-z]+\\.")) %>%
  select(Name, title) %>%
  slice(1:3)
```

The last pattern used [a-z]+ to match one or more lowercase letters. The [a-z] is a **character class**.

You can also match digits ([0-9]), uppercase letters ([A-Z]), just some letters ([aeiou]), etc.

You can negate a character class by starting it with  $\hat{}$ . For example,  $[^0-9]$  will match anything that **isn't** a digit.

Sometimes, you want to match a pattern, but then only subset a part of it. For example, each passenger seems to have a title ("Mr.", "Mrs.", etc.) that comes after "," and before ".". We can use this pattern to find the title, but then we get some extra stuff with the match:

```
titanic_train %>%
 mutate(title = str extract(Name, ",\\s[A-Za-z]*\\.\\s")) %>%
 select(title) %>%
 slice(1:3)
## # A tibble: 3 x 1
##
     title
## <chr>
## 1 , Mr.
## 2 , Mrs.
## 3 , Miss.
```

As a note, in this pattern, \\s is used to match a space.

We are getting things like ", Mr.", when we really want "Mr". We can use the str\_match function to do this. We group what we want to extract from the pattern in parentheses, and then the function returns a matrix. The first column is the full pattern match, and each following column gives just what matches within the groups.

```
## [,1] [,2]
## [1,] ", Mr. " "Mr"
## [2,] ", Mrs. " "Mrs"
## [3,] ", Miss. " "Miss"
## [4,] ", Mrs. " "Mrs"
## [5,] ", Mr. " "Mr"
## [6,] ", Mr. " "Mr"
```

str match.

To get just the title, then, we can run:

```
titanic_train %>%
  mutate(title =
           str match(Name, ",\\s([A-Za-z]*)\\.\\s")[ , 2]) %>%
  select(Name, title) %>%
  slice(1:3)
## # A tibble: 3 x 2
##
                                                     Name title
##
                                                    <chr> <chr>
## 1
                                  Braund, Mr. Owen Harris
                                                             Mr
  2 Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Thayer)
                                                            Mrs
## 3
                                   Heikkinen, Miss. Laina Miss
```

The [ , 2] pulls out just the second column from the matrix returned by

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Here are some of the most common titles:

```
titanic_train %>%
 mutate(title =
          str_match(Name, ",\\s([A-Za-z]*)\\.\\s")[ , 2]) %>%
 group_by(title) %>% summarize(n = n()) %>%
 arrange(desc(n)) %>% slice(1:5)
## # A tibble: 5 x 2
##
     title n
## <chr> <int>
        Mr
            517
## 1
## 2 Miss 182
## 3 Mrs 125
## 4 Master 40
## 5
        Dr
              7
```

The following slides have a few other examples of regular expressions in action with this dataset.

Get just names that start with ("^") the letter "A":

```
titanic_train %>%
  filter(str_detect(Name, "^A")) %>%
  select(Name) %>%
  slice(1:3)
```

Get names with "II" or "III" ( $\{2,\}$  says to match at least two times):

```
titanic_train %>%
  filter(str_detect(Name, "I{2,}")) %>%
  select(Name) %>%
  slice(1:3)
## # A tibble: 2 x 1
```

```
## # R tibble. 2 X I
## Name
## <chr>
## 1 Carter, Master. William Thornton II
## 2 Roebling, Mr. Washington Augustus II
```

Get names with "Andersen" or "Anderson" (alternatives in square brackets):

```
titanic_train %>%
  filter(str_detect(Name, "Anders[eo]n")) %>%
  select(Name)
```

```
## Name
## 1 Andersen-Jensen, Miss. Carla Christine Nielsine
## 2 Anderson, Mr. Harry
## 3 Walker, Mr. William Anderson
## 4 Olsvigen, Mr. Thor Anderson
## 5 Soholt, Mr. Peter Andreas Lauritz Andersen
```

Get names that start with (" $^{"}$ " outside of brackets) the letters "A" and "B":

```
titanic_train %>%
  filter(str_detect(Name, "^[AB]")) %>%
  select(Name) %>%
  slice(1:3)
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 1
## Name
## <chr>
## 1 Braund, Mr. Owen Harris
## 2 Allen, Mr. William Henry
## 3 Bonnell, Miss. Elizabeth
```

Get names that end with ("\$") the letter "b" (either lowercase or uppercase):

```
titanic_train %>%
  filter(str_detect(Name, "[bB]$")) %>%
  select(Name)
```

```
## Name
## 1 Emir, Mr. Farred Chehab
## 2 Goldschmidt, Mr. George B
## 3 Cook, Mr. Jacob
## 4 Pasic, Mr. Jakob
```

Some useful regular expression operators include:

Operator	Meaning
	Any character
	Match 0 or more times (greedy)
?	Match 0 or more times (non-greedy)
+	Match 1 or more times (greedy)
+?	Match 1 or more times (non-greedy)
^	Starts with (in brackets, negates)
\$	Ends with
[]	Character classes

#### For more on these patterns, see:

- Help file for the stringi-search-regex function in the stringi package (which should install when you install stringr)
- Introduction to stringr by Hadley Wickham
- Handling and Processing Strings in R by Gaston Sanchez (seven chapter ebook)
- http://gskinner.com/RegExr and http://www.txt2re.com: Interactive tools for helping you build regular expression pattern strings