Exploring data 2

Lists

Lists

Lists are the "kitchen sink" of R objects. They can be used to keep together a variety of different R objects of different classes, dimensions, and structures in a single R object.

Because there are often cases where an R operation results in output that doesn't have a simple structure, lists can be a very useful way to output complex output from an R function.

Most lists are not "tidy" data. However, we'll cover some ways that you can easily "tidy" some common list objects you might use a lot in your R code, including the output of fitting linear and generalized linear models.

Lists

```
example list <- list(a = sample(1:10, 5),
                   b = data_frame(letters = letters[1:3],
                                 number = 1:3)
example list
## $a
## [1] 5 1 9 8 10
##
## $b
## # A tibble: 3 x 2
## letters number
## <chr> <int>
## 1
          а
## 2
         b
## 3 c
                3
```

Indexing lists

To pull an element out of a list, you can either use \$ or [[]] indexing:

```
example_list$a

## [1] 5 1 9 8 10

example_list[[2]]
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 2
## letters number
## <chr> <int>
## 1 a 1
## 2 b 2
## 3 c 3
```

Exploring lists

If an R object is a list, running class on the object will return "list":

```
class(example_list)
```

```
## [1] "list"
```

Often, lists will have names for each element (similar to column names for a dataframe). You can get the names of all elements of a list using the names function:

```
names(example_list)
```

```
## [1] "a" "b"
```

Exploring lists

The str function is also useful for exploring the structure of a list object:

```
## List of 2
## $ a: int [1:5] 5 1 9 8 10
## $ b:Classes 'tbl_df', 'tbl' and 'data.frame': 3 obs. of 2
## ..$ letters: chr [1:3] "a" "b" "c"
## ..$ number : int [1:3] 1 2 3
```

Lists versus dataframes

As a note, a dataframe is actually just a very special type of list. It is a list where every element (column in the dataframe) is a vector of the same length, and the object has a special attribute specifying that it is a dataframe.

```
example_df <- data_frame(letters = letters[1:3],
                          number = 1:3)
class(example_df)
## [1] "tbl df"
                    "tbl"
                                  "data.frame"
is.list(example_df)
## [1] TRUE
```

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 for 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_i : weight of child i
- $X_{1,i}$: height of child i

Model objects

names(mod a)

##

[13] "model"

The output from fitting a model using 1m is a list object:

```
class(mod_a)
## [1] "lm"
```

This list object has a lot of different information from the model, including overall model summaries, estimated coefficients, fitted values, residuals, etc.

```
## [1] "coefficients" "residuals" "effects" "rank"
## [5] "fitted.values" "assign" "qr" "df.resi
## [9] "na.action" "xlevels" "call" "terms"
```

This list object is not in a "tidy" format. However, there is a package named broom that you can use to pull "tidy" dataframes from this model object.

For example, you can use the glance function to pull out a tidy dataframe with model summaries.

```
library(broom)
glance(mod_a)
```

```
## r.squared adj.r.squared sigma statistic p.value d
## 1 0.9161429 0.9156846 0.9016978 1999.283 1.962647e-100
## AIC BIC deviance df.residual
## 1 490.7103 500.3714 148.7898 183
```

If you want to get the estimated model coefficients (and some related summaries) instead, you can use the tidy function to do that:

```
tidy(mod_a)
```

```
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## 1 (Intercept) -8.694768 0.427397843 -20.34350 7.424640e-49
## 2 ht 0.235050 0.005256822 44.71334 1.962647e-100
```

This output includes, for each model term, the **estimated coefficient** (estimate), its **standard error** (std.error), the **test statistic** (for lm output, the statistic for a test with the null hypothesis that the model coefficient is zero), and the associated **p-value** for that test (p.value).

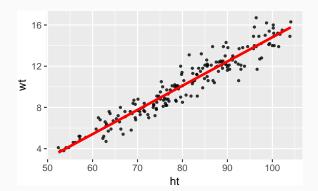
Some of the model output have a value for each original observation (e.g., fitted values, residuals). You can use the augment function to add those elements to the original data used to fit the model (note: at the moment, you might get a warning message if you run this—it looks fairly benign and I imagine will be fixed in later versions of the package):

```
augment(mod_a) %>% slice(1:2) %>% select(1:6)
```

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 6
## .rownames wt ht .fitted .se.fit .resid
## <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> ## 1 12.8 91.2 12.74180 0.08755808 0.05820415
## 2 2 14.9 103.9 15.72693 0.14057265 -0.82693141
```

One important use of this augment output is to create a plot with both the original data and a line showing the fit model (via the predictions):

```
augment(mod_a) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = ht, y = wt)) +
  geom_point(size = 0.8, alpha = 0.8) +
  geom_line(aes(y = .fitted), color = "red", size = 1.2)
```



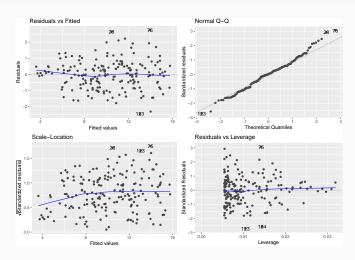
Model objects and autoplot

There is a function called autoplot in the ggplot2 package that will check the class of an object and then create a certain default plot for that class. Although the generic autoplot function is in the ggplot2 package, for lm and glm objects, you must have the ggfortify package installed and loaded to be able to access the methods of autoplot specifically for these object types.

If you have the package that includes an autoplot method for a specific object type, you can just run autoplot on the objects name and get a plot that is considered a useful default for that object type. For lm objects, autoplot gives small graphics with model diagnostic plots.

Model objects and autoplot

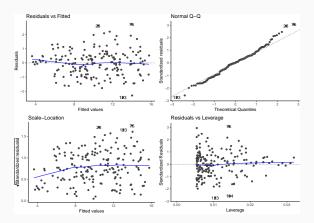
library(ggfortify)
autoplot(mod_a)



Model objects and autoplot

The output from autoplot is a ggplot object, so you can add elements to it as you would with other ggplot objects:

```
autoplot(mod_a) +
  theme_classic()
```



Model objects and base R "method" functions

Here, I've focused on a "tidy" approach to working with the output from fitting an ${\tt lm}$ model. However, you are certain to come across base R functions to work with this output in a similar way. Some base R 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

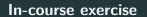
Examples of using a model object

One base R function you should definitely know is the summary function. 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
                                                         24
## F-statistic: 1999 on 1 and 183 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```



We'll take a break now to do part of the In-Course Exercise (Section 7.6.1).

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)
tidy(mod_b)</pre>
```

```
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## 1 (Intercept) 10.497980 0.3110957 33.745177 1.704550e-80
## 2 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)
tidy(mod_c)</pre>
```

```
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## 1 (Intercept) -8.694768 0.427397843 -20.34350 7.424640e-49
## 2 ht 0.235050 0.005256822 44.71334 1.962647e-100
```

```
tidy(mod_a)
```

```
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## 1 (Intercept) -8.694768 0.427397843 -20.34350 7.424640e-49
## 2 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:

```
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## 1 (Intercept) -32.7016520 5.85196755 -5.588147 2.295060e-08
## 2 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 \sim $x1$)
1	intercept (e.g., y ~ 1)

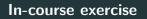
To find out more

Great resources to find out more about using R for basic statistics:

- Statistical Analysis with R for Dummies, Joseph Schmuller (free online through our library; Chapter 14 covers regression modeling)
- The R Book, Michael J. Crawley (free online through our library; Chapter 14 covers regression modeling, Chapters 10 and 13 cover linear and generalized linear regression modeling)
- R for Data Science (Section 4)

If you want all the details about fitting linear models and GLMs in R, Faraway's books are fantastic (more at level of Master's in Applied Statistics):

- Linear Models with R, Julian Faraway (also freely available online through our library)
- Extending the Linear Model with R, Julian Faraway (available in hardcopy through our library)



We'll take a break now to do part of the In-Course Exercise (Section 7.6.2).

Functions

Functions

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 (e.g., fitting the same model format to many datasets)
- 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, as long as you follow the naming rules for all R objects (although try to avoid names of preexisting-existing functions). You then specify any inputs (arguments; separate multiple arguments with commas) and put the code to run in braces. You **define** a function as an R object just like you do with other R objects (<-).

Here is the basic structure of "where things go" in an R function definition.

```
## 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. An R function will only return one R object. By default, that object will be the last line of code in the function body.

```
add_one <- function(number){
         number + 1 # Value returned by the function
}
add_one(number = 1:3)
## [1] 2 3 4
add_one(number = -1)</pre>
```

```
add_one <- function(number){
      number + 1 # Value returned by the function
}</pre>
```

- I picked the name of the function (add_one) (just like you pick what name you want to use with any R object)
- The only input is a numeric vector. I pick the name I want to use for the vector that is input to the function. I picked number.
- Within the code inside the function, the number refers to the numeric vector object that the user passed into the function.

As another example, you could write a small function to fit a specific model to a dataframe you input and return the model object:

```
fit_ht_wt_mod <- function(df){
  lm(wt ~ ht + sex, data = df) # Returns result from this call
}</pre>
```

- I picked the name of the function (fit_ht_wt_mod) (just like you pick what name you want to use with any R object)
- The only input is a dataframe. I pick the name I want to use for the dataframe that is input to the function. I picked df (I often use this as a default parameter name for a dataframe).
- Within the code inside the function, the df refers to the dataframe object that the user passed into the function.

Now you can apply that function within a tidy pipeline, for example to fit the model to a specific subset of the data (all children with an age over 12 months):

```
nepali %>%
  filter(age > 12) %>%
  fit_ht_wt_mod() %>%
  tidy()
```

```
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## 1 (Intercept) -9.4434471 0.719494354 -13.125116 3.249112e-26
## 2 ht 0.2451880 0.008358455 29.334128 6.813073e-62
## 3 sexFemale -0.3473839 0.157770633 -2.201829 2.930270e-02
```

- 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
- However, functions can only output one R object. If you have complex things you want to output, a list might be a good choice for the output object type.
- Functions can have "side effects". Examples include printing something or drawing a plot. Any action that a function takes besides returning an R object is a "side effect".

Functions- parameter defaults

When defining a function, you can set default values for some of the parameters. For example, in the add_one function, you can set the default value of the number input to 0.

```
add_one <- function(number = 0){
     number + 1 # Value returned by the function
}</pre>
```

Now, if someone runs the function without providing a value for number, the function will use 0. If they do provide a value for number, the function will use that instead.

```
add_one() # Uses 0 for `number`

## [1] 1

add_one(number = 3:5) # Uses 5 for `number`
```

Functions- parameters

You could write a function with no parameters:

```
hello_world <- function(){
  print("Hello world!")
}
hello_world()</pre>
```

```
## [1] "Hello world!"
```

However, this will be pretty uncommon as you're first learning to write functions.

Functions – parameters

You can include multiple parameters, some with defaults and some without. For example, you could write a function that inputs two numbers and adds them. If you don't include a second value, 0 will be added as the second number:

```
add_two_numbers <- function(first_number, second_number = 0){</pre>
  first_number + second_number
add two numbers(first number = 5:7, second number = 0:2)
## [1] 5 7 9
add two numbers(first number = 5:7)
## [1] 5 6 7
```

Functions— the return function

You can explicitly specify the value to return from the function (use return function).

```
add_one <- function(number = 0) {
    new_number <- number + 1
    return(new_number)
}</pre>
```

If using return helps you think about what's happening with the code in your function, you can use it. However, outside of a few exceptions, you usually won't need to do it.

Functions- Error checking

There are ways to check for errors in the arguments a user inputs to the function. One useful check is to see if user inputs are in the required class.

The assertive package has some functions that you can use for common checks of the inputs to a function. If someone inputs something of the wrong class, it will give a useful error message. For example, the assert_is_numeric function will check if an object is in a numeric class. If so, it will do nothing. If not, it will return an error message:

```
library(assertive)
assert_is_numeric(1:3)
assert_is_numeric(c("a", "b"))
```

```
## Error in eval(expr, envir, enclos): is_numeric : c("a", "b")
```

Functions- Error checking

add_one <- function(number){</pre>

You could add this in the code for the add_one function, so a useful error message will be returned if a user tries to input something besides a numeric vector for number:

```
assert is numeric(number)
  number + 1
add one(number = 1:3)
## [1] 2 3 4
add one(number = c("a", "b"))
```

Error in add one(number = c("a", "b")): is numeric : number i

Functions- Error checking

I would recommend that you not worry about this too much when you're learning to write functions for your own use.

However, once you have mastered the basics of writing functions and start writing them for others to use, you'll want to start incorporating this.

$\mathsf{if} \; / \; \mathsf{else}$

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:

```
tell_date <- function(){</pre>
  cat("Today's date is: ")
  cat(format(Sys.time(), "%b %d, %Y"))
  todays_wday <- lubridate::wday(Sys.time(),</pre>
                                   label = TRUE)
  if(todays_wday %in% c("Sat", "Sun")){
    cat("\n")
    cat("It's the weekend!")
```

if / else

```
tell_date()
```

Today's date is: Oct 04, 2017

if / else

You can add else if and else statements to tell R what to do if the condition in the if statement isn't met.

For example, in the tell_date function, we might want to add some code so it will print "It's almost the weekend!" on Fridays and how many days until Saturday on other weekdays.

```
tell date <- function(){</pre>
  # Print out today's date
  cat("Today's date is: ")
  cat(format(Sys.time(), "%b %d, %Y."), "\n")
  # Add something based on the weekday of today's date
  todays_wday <- lubridate::wday(Sys.time())</pre>
  if (todays_wday \%in\% c(1, 7)){
                                      # What to do on Sat / Sun
    cat("It's the weekend!")
  } else if (todays wday == c(6)) { # What to do on Friday
    cat("It's almost the weekend!")
  } else {
                                      # What to do other days
    cat("It's ", 7 - todays wday, "days until the weekend.")
```

if / else

```
tell_date()
```

```
## Today's date is: Oct 04, 2017.
## It's 3 days until the weekend.
```

Functional programming

One way that functions are really useful is that you can use the map family of functions from the purr package to apply that function to all elements in a vector of a list (remember, a list could hold lots of similar dataframes).

For example, you could use map to apply the add_one function separately to 1, 2, and 3 by using map on a vector with those values:

```
library(purrr)
my_list <- list(a = 1:2, b = 3:5)
map(my_list, add_one)</pre>
```

```
## $a
## [1] 2 3
##
## $b
## [1] 4 5 6
```

This can also be very useful if you have a dataframe for which you would like to apply the same function to subsets of the data. For example, for the nepali data you may want to apply the model of weight regressed on height and sex separately for children 12 months and younger versus older children.

First, we can add a factor variable that specifies whether the child is younger or older than 12 months:

```
nepali %>%
slice(1:3)
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 \times 7
##
        id
             sex wt ht
                              age wt_over_13
                                              young
##
   <fctr> <fctr> <dbl> <dbl> <int>
                                      <lgl> <fctr>
##
  1 120011
          Male 12.8 91.2
                               41
                                      FALSE
                                              older
  2 120012 Female 14.9 103.9 57
                                       TRUE
                                              older
## 3 120021 Female 7.7 70.1
                                8
                                      FALSE younger
```

Then, you can use the nest function to "nest" a dataframe by a factor variable. This function will create a column that actually stores its own dataframe:

```
nested_nepali <- nepali %>%
 group_by(young) %>%
 nest()
nested_nepali
## # A tibble: 2 x 2
##
                          data
      young
##
     <fctr>
                        st>
## 1 older <tibble [162 x 6]>
## 2 younger <tibble [38 x 6]>
```

Each element of the data column in the nested dataset is actually a full dataframe:

```
nested_nepali$data[[1]] %>% slice(1:3)
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 6
##
        id
             sex
                  wt
                         ht
                              age wt over 13
    <fctr> <fctr> <dbl> <dbl> <int>
##
                                       <lgl>
## 1 120011
            Male 12.8 91.2
                               41
                                       FALSE
## 2 120012 Female 14.9 103.9 57
                                       TRUF.
## 3 120022 Female 12.1 86.4
                               35
                                       FALSE
```

Now, you can use map to apply the modeling function to each of these subsets of the dataframe. Use mutate to add a column with the results. We can also add a column with the results of applying augment to each of the model results:

modeled nepali\$mod results[[1]]

-9.4638

##

Each element of the mod_results column is the output from an lm model:

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = wt ~ ht + sex, data = df)
##
## Coefficients:
## (Intercept) ht sexFemale
```

0.2452

-0.3095

We can apply tidy and glance to this output, just like we did with the output from fitting a single model:

```
tidy(modeled_nepali$mod_results[[1]])
```

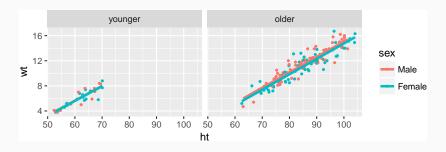
```
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## 1 (Intercept) -9.4637940 0.662450802 -14.286033 1.200446e-29
## 2 ht 0.2452427 0.007707689 31.817924 4.615549e-68
## 3 sexFemale -0.3095451 0.152599469 -2.028481 4.430458e-02
```

To get back to a regular dataframe, you can "unnest". Before you do this, you should limit the data to only columns that will "unnest" to the same number of rows (if you have multiple columns with dataframes or lists in them). For example, we could unnest the augmented_data column, so we can plot observed data versus the model fit:

```
modeled_nepali %>%
  select(young, augmented_data) %>%
  unnest() %>%
  slice(1:3) %>% select(1:7)
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 7
##
     young .rownames
                    wt ht sex .fitted .se.fit
    <fctr>
##
              <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <fctr>
                                        <dbl>
                                                 <dbl>
## 1 older
                  1
                    12.8 91.2 Male 12.90234 0.1131341
## 2 older
                  2 14.9 103.9 Female 15.70737 0.1916600
                  3
## 3 older
                    12.1 86.4 Female 11.41563 0.1147084
```

```
modeled_nepali %>%
  select(young, augmented_data) %>%
  unnest() %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = ht, y = wt, group = sex, color = sex)) +
  geom_point(size = 0.8) +
  geom_line(aes(y = .fitted), size = 1.2) +
  facet_wrap(~ young, ncol = 2)
```



The full pipe for creating this figure is:

```
nepali %>%
  group_by(young) %>% # Group by young and nest
 nest() %>%
                      # to model each group of "young"
  mutate(mod results = map(data, fit ht wt mod),
         augmented_data = map(mod_results, augment)) %>%
  select(young, augmented data) %>%
  unnest %>%
                       # Unnest `augmented data` (nested)
  ggplot(aes(x = ht, y = wt, group = sex, color = sex)) +
  geom\ point(size = 0.8) +
  geom\ line(aes(y = .fitted), size = 1.2) +
  facet_wrap(~ young, ncol = 2)
```

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
```

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:

```
titanic train %>%
  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)
```

```
## # 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)
```

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)
```

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)
```

78

Note that this pattern uses a special operator (1) 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"
```

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 str_match.

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
## 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)
```

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
```

```
## # A tibble: S 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