

Introduction to Open Data Science

The Ocean Health Index Team

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Chapter 1

Welcome

Welcome. This training program is under active development and testing.

This 2-day training workshop will introduce you to open data science so you can work with data in an open, reproducible, and collaborative way. Open data science means that methods, data, and code are available so that others can access, reuse, and build from it without much fuss. Here you will learn a workflow with R, RStudio, Git, and GitHub, as we describe in Lowndes *et al.* 2017: Our path to better science in less time using open data science tools.

This workshop is going to be fun, because learning these open data science tools and practices is empowering! This training book is written so you can use it as self-paced learning, or it can be used to teach an in-person workshop. Either way, you should do everything hands-on on your own computer as you learn.

Before you begin, be sure you are all set up: see Chapter 3.1: Overview and Prerequisites.

Suggested breakdown for a 2-day workshop:

| time | Day 1 | Day 2 |
|----------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 9-10:30 break | Motivation, R and RStudio | Wrangling (tidyverse) |
| 11-12:30 lunch | GitHub, scripting in R | Extended analysis |
| 13:30-15:00 break | Visualization (ggplot2) | Collaborating with GitHub |
| 15:30-17:00 | Wrangling (dplyr) | Extended analysis 2 |

License

Chapter 2

Overview

Welcome.

This is a 2-day training workshop to learn R, RStudio, Git, and GitHub, and it's going to be fun and empowering. You will learn a reproducible workflow that can be used in analyses of all kinds, including Ocean Health Index assessments. This is really powerful, cool stuff, and not just for data: I made and published this book using those four tools and workflow.

We will practice learning three main things all at the same time: coding with best practices (R/RStudio), collaborative version control (Git/GitHub), and communication/publishing (RMarkdown/GitHub). This training will teach these all together to reinforce skills and best practices, and get you comfortable with a workflow that you can use in your own projects.

2.1 What to expect

This is going to be a fun workshop.

The plan is to expose you to a lot of great tools that you can have confidence using in your research. You'll be working hands-on and doing the same things on your own computer as we do live on up on the screen. We're going to go through a lot in these two days and it's less important that you remember it all. More importantly, you'll have experience with it and confidence that you can do it. The main thing to take away is that there *are* good ways to approach your analyses; we will teach you to expect that so you can find what you need and use it! And, you can use these materials as a reference as you go forward with your analyses.

We'll be talking about :

- how to THINK about data. And not just any data; tidy data.
- how to increase reproducibility in your science
- how to more easily collaborate with others—including your future self!
- how the #rstats community is fantastic. The tools we're using are developed by real people. They are building great stuff and helping people of all skill-levels learn how to use it.

Everyone in this workshop is coming from a different place with different experiences and expectations. But everyone will learn something new here, because there is so much innovation in the data science world. Even instructors and helpers learn something new every time, from each other and from your questions. You are all welcome here and encouraged to help each other.

Here are some important themes throughout:

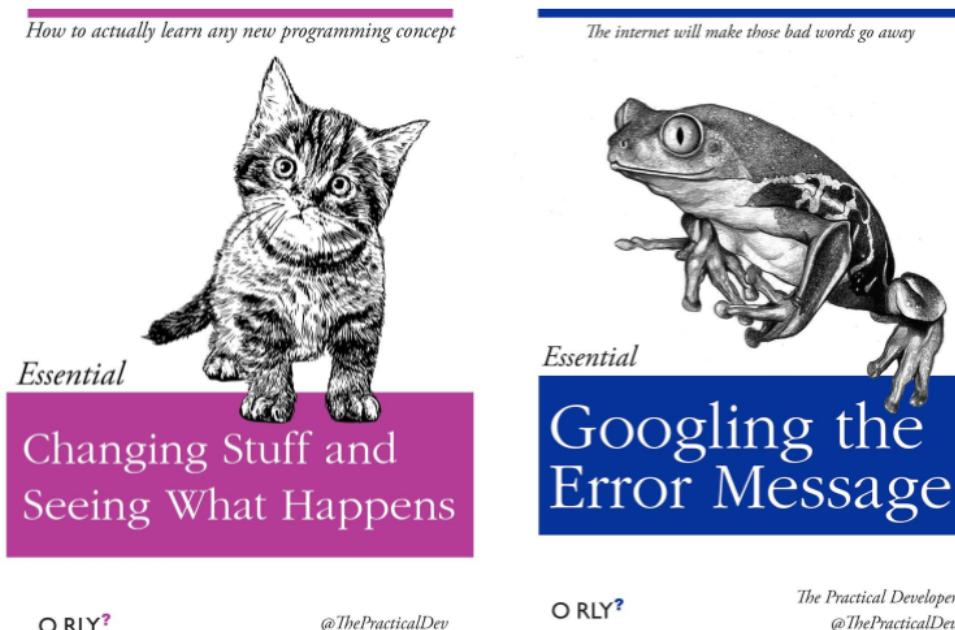


Figure 2.1:

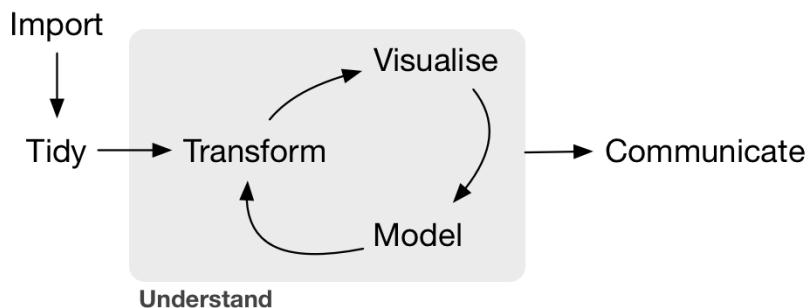


Figure 2.2:

2.1.1 Tidy data workflow

We will be learning about tidy data.

Hadley Wickham has developed a ton of the tools we'll use today. Here's an overview of techniques to be covered in Hadley Wickham and Garrett Grolemund of RStudio's book *R for Data Science*:

We will be focusing on:

- **Tidy:** `tidy` to organize rows of data into unique values
- **Transform:** `dplyr` to manipulate/wrangle data based on subsetting by rows or columns, sorting and joining
- **Visualise:**
 - `ggplot2` static plots, using grammar of graphics principles
- **Communicate**
 - online website with *Github Pages*
 - version with *git*

- dynamic documents with *Rmarkdown*

2.2 Gapminder data:

We'll be using the gapminder dataset pioneered by Hans Rosling. These data represent the health and wealth of every nation in the world.

While these data are not conservation or environmental oriented, it is a fantastically rich data set with many parallels to data you may have and wrangling you will need to do. It's important to be open to separate your science questions from data questions, and working with other people's data is a good way to do it. These data will be familiar to data that you're likely working with: there is information for many indicators for many study sites for many years.

2.3 By the end of the course...

By the end of the course you'll wrangle the gapminder data, make your own graphics that you'll publish on a webpage you've built with GitHub and RMarkdown. Woop!

I made this training book with GitHub and RStudio's RMarkdown, which is what we'll be learning in the workshop.

2.4 Prerequisites

Before the training, please make sure you have done the following:

1. Have up-to-date versions of R and RStudio and have RStudio configured with Git/GitHub
 - Download and install R: <https://cloud.r-project.org>
 - Download and install RStudio: <http://www.rstudio.com/download>
 - Create a GitHub account: <https://github.com> *Note! Shorter names that kind of identify you are better, and use your work email!*
2. Get comfortable: if you're not in a physical workshop, be set up with two screens if possible. You will be following along in RStudio on your own computer while also watching a virtual training or following this tutorial on your own.

2.5 Credit

This material builds from a lot of fantastic materials developed by others in the open data science community. In particular, it pulls from the following resources, which are highly recommended for further learning and as resources later on. Specific lessons will also cite more resources.

- R for Data Science by Hadley Wickham and Garrett Grolemund
- STAT 545 by Jenny Bryan
- Happy Git with R by Jenny Bryan
- Software Carpentry by the Carpentries

Chapter 3

R/RStudio Orientation, GitHub Setup

3.1 Overview

Objectives

In this lesson we will:

- get oriented to the RStudio interface
- work with R in the console
- be introduced to built-in R functions
- learn to use the help pages
- explore RMarkdown
- configure git on our computers

Resources

This lesson is a combination of excellent lessons by others (thank you Jenny Bryan and Data Carpentry!) that I have combined and modified for our workshop today. I definitely recommend reading through the original lessons and using them as reference:

Dr. Jenny Bryan's lectures from STAT545 at UBC

- R basics, workspace and working directory, RStudio projects
- Basic care and feeding of data in R

RStudio has great resources about its IDE (IDE stands for integrated development environment):

- webinars
- cheatsheets

3.2 Why learn R with RStudio

You are all here today to learn how to code. Coding made me a better scientist because I was able to think more clearly about analyses, and become more efficient in doing so. Data scientists are creating tools that make coding more intuitive for new coders like us, and there is a wealth of awesome instruction and resources available to learn more and get help.

Here is an analogy to start us off. **If you were a pilot, R is an airplane.** You can use R to go places! With practice you'll gain skills and confidence; you can fly further distances and get through tricky situations. You will become an awesome pilot and can fly your plane anywhere.

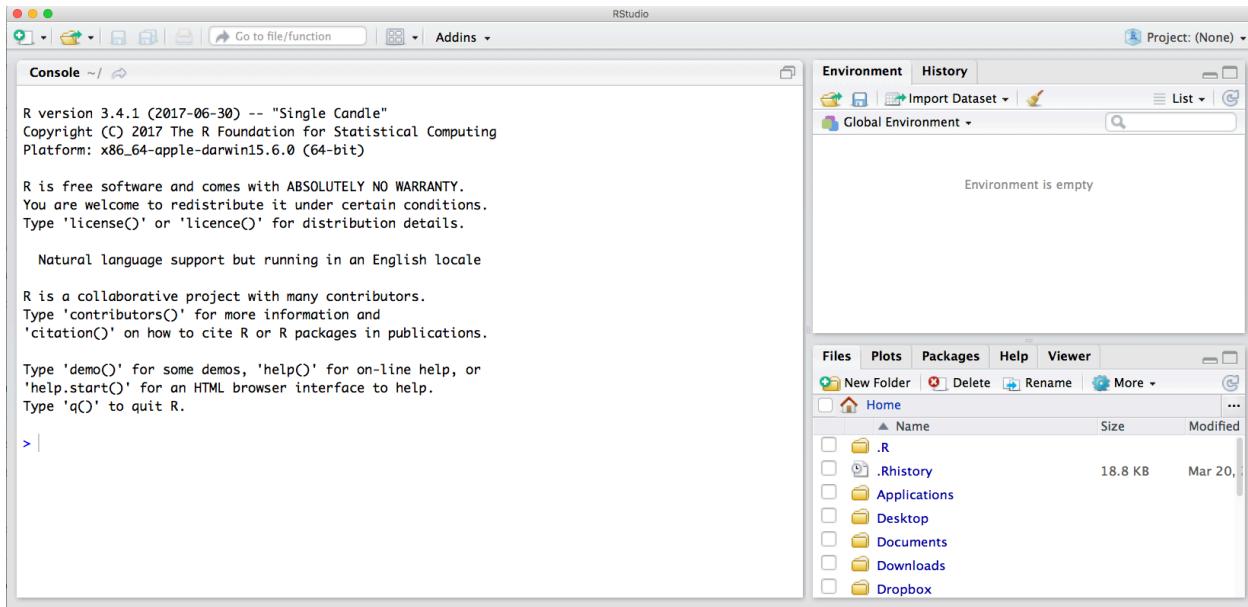


Figure 3.1:

And if **R** were an airplane, **RStudio** is the airport. RStudio provides support! Runways, communication, community, and other services, and just makes your overall life easier. So it's not just the infrastructure (the user interface or IDE), although it is a great way to learn and interact with your variables, files, and interact directly with GitHub. It's also data science philosophy, R packages, community, and more. So although you can fly your plane without an airport and we could learn R without RStudio, that's not what we're going to do.

We are learning R together with RStudio and its many supporting features.

Something else to start us off is to mention that you are learning a new language here. It's an ongoing process, it takes time, you'll make mistakes, it can be frustrating, but it will be overwhelmingly awesome in the long run. We all speak at least one language; it's a similar process, really. And no matter how fluent you are, you'll always be learning, you'll be trying things in new contexts, learning words that mean the same as others, etc, just like everybody else. And just like any form of communication, there will be miscommunications that can be frustrating, but hands down we are all better off because of it.

While language is a familiar concept, programming languages are in a different context from spoken languages, but you will get to know this context with time. For example: you have a concept that there is a first meal of the day, and there is a name for that: in English it's "breakfast". So if you're learning Spanish, you could expect there is a word for this concept of a first meal. (And you'd be right: 'desayuno'). **We will get you to expect that programming languages also have words (called functions in R) for concepts as well.** You'll soon expect that there is a way to order values numerically. Or alphabetically. Or search for patterns in text. Or calculate the median. Or reorganize columns to rows. Or subset exactly what you want. We will get you increase your expectations and learn to ask and find what you're looking for.

3.3 R at the console, RStudio goodies

Launch RStudio/R.

Notice the default panes:

- Console (entire left)
- Environment/History (tabbed in upper right)

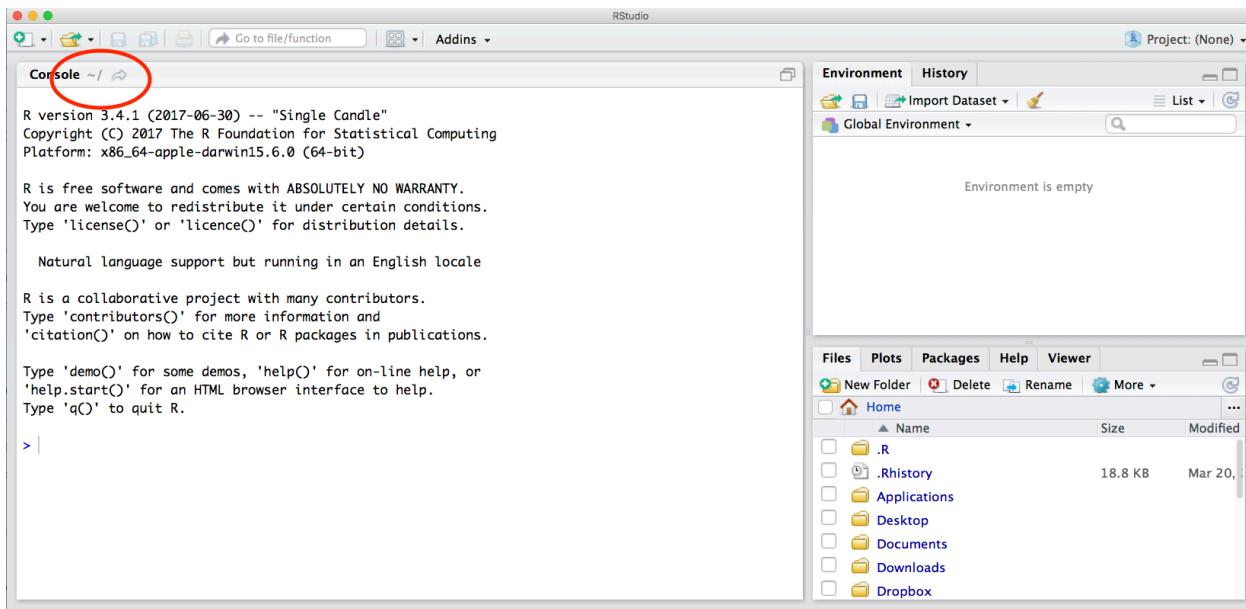


Figure 3.2:

- Files/Plots/Packages/Help (tabbed in lower right)

FYI: you can change the default location of the panes, among many other things: Customizing RStudio.

An important first question: **where are we?**

If you've just opened RStudio for the first time, you'll be in your Home directory. This is noted by the ~/ at the top of the console. You can see too that the Files pane in the lower right shows what is in the Home directory where you are. You can navigate around within that Files pane and explore, but note that you won't change where you are: even as you click through you'll still be Home: ~/.

OK let's go into the Console, where we interact with the live R process.

Make an assignment and then inspect the object you just created.

```
x <- 3 * 4
x
```

```
## [1] 12
```

In my head I hear, e.g., “x gets 12”.

All R statements where you create objects – “assignments” – have this form: `objectName <- value`.

I'll write it in the command line with a hashtag #, which is the way R comments so it won't be evaluated.

```
## objectName <- value

## This is also how you write notes in your code to explain what you are doing.
```

Object names cannot start with a digit and cannot contain certain other characters such as a comma or a space. You will be wise to adopt a convention for demarcating words in names.

```
# i_use_snake_case
# other.people.use.periods
# evenOthersUseCamelCase
```

Make an assignment

```
this_is_a_really_long_name <- 2.5
```

To inspect this variable, instead of typing it, we can press the up arrow key and call your command history, with the most recent commands first. Let's do that, and then delete the assignment:

```
this_is_a_really_long_name
```

```
## [1] 2.5
```

Another way to inspect this variable is to begin typing `this_`...and RStudio will automagically have suggested completions for you that you can select by hitting the tab key, then press return.

One more:

```
science_rocks <- 100
```

Let's try to inspect:

```
sciencerocks
# Error: object 'sciencerocks' not found
```

3.3.1 Error messages are your friends

Implicit contract with the computer / scripting language: Computer will do tedious computation for you. In return, you will be completely precise in your instructions. Typos matter. Case matters. Pay attention to how you type.

Remember that this is a language, not unsimilar to English! There are times you aren't understood – it's going to happen. There are different ways this can happen. Sometimes you'll get an error. This is like someone saying 'What?' or 'Pardon'? Error messages can also be more useful, like when they say 'I didn't understand this specific part of what you said, I was expecting something else'. That is a great type of error message. Error messages are your friend. Google them (copy-and-paste!) to figure out what they mean.

And also know that there are errors that can creep in more subtly, when you are giving information that is understood, but not in the way you meant. Like if I'm telling a story about tables and you're picturing where you eat breakfast and I'm talking about data. This can leave me thinking I've gotten something across that the listener (or R) interpreted very differently. And as I continue telling my story you get more and more confused... So write clean code and check your work as you go to minimize these circumstances!

3.3.2 Logical operators and expressions

A moment about **logical operators and expressions**. We can ask questions about the objects we just made.

- `==` means 'is equal to'
- `!=` means 'is not equal to'
- `<` means ' is less than'
- `>` means ' is greater than'
- `<=` means ' is less than or equal to'
- `>=` means ' is greater than or equal to'

```
science_rocks == 2
```

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

```
science_rocks <= 30
```

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

```
science_rocks != 5
```

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

Shortcuts You will make lots of assignments and the operator `<-` is a pain to type. Don't be lazy and use `=`, although it would work, because it will just sow confusion later. Instead, utilize RStudio's **keyboard shortcut**: **Alt + - (the minus sign)**. Notice that RStudio automatically surrounds `<-` with spaces, which demonstrates a useful code formatting practice. Code is miserable to read on a good day. Give your eyes a break and use spaces. RStudio offers many handy keyboard shortcuts. Also, Alt+Shift+K brings up a keyboard shortcut reference card.

My most common shortcuts include command-Z (undo), and combinations of arrow keys in combination with shift/option/command (moving quickly up, down, sideways, with or without highlighting).

When assigning a value to an object, R does not print anything. You can force R to print the value by using parentheses or by typing the object name:

```
weight_kg <- 55      # doesn't print anything
(weight_kg <- 55)   # but putting parenthesis around the call prints the value of `weight_kg`
```

```
## [1] 55
```

```
weight_kg           # and so does typing the name of the object
```

```
## [1] 55
```

Now that R has `weight_kg` in memory, we can do arithmetic with it. For instance, we may want to convert this weight into pounds (weight in pounds is 2.2 times the weight in kg):

```
2.2 * weight_kg
```

```
## [1] 121
```

We can also change a variable's value by assigning it a new one:

```
weight_kg <- 57.5
2.2 * weight_kg
```

```
## [1] 126.5
```

This means that assigning a value to one variable does not change the values of other variables. For example, let's store the animal's weight in pounds in a new variable, `weight_lb`:

```
weight_lb <- 2.2 * weight_kg
```

and then change `weight_kg` to 100.

```
weight_kg <- 100
```

What do you think is the current content of the object `weight_lb`? 126.5 or 220? Why?

3.4 R functions, help pages

R has a mind-blowing collection of built-in functions that are used with the same syntax: function name with parentheses around what the function needs in order to do what it was built to do. When you type a function like this, we say we are "calling the function". `verb(noun = something, adjective = something, etc)`. This example is from R for Data Science using a children's poem called Little Bunny Foo Foo.

We can call a function without passing it anything (nothing inside the closed parentheses), and assign it to a variable called `foo_foo`.

```
## foo_foo <- little_bunny()
```

And since `foo_foo` is an object, you can pass it to other functions:

```
## hop(foo_foo, through = forest)
## scoop(foo_foo, up = field_mice)
## bop(foo_foo, on = head)
```

What would happen if I tried to run one of those lines above? I would get an error because they aren't real functions, and R tells me so:

```
foo_foo <- little_bunny()
# Error in little_bunny() : could not find function "little_bunny"
```

And that's great, this error message is helpful: R doesn't know what the `little_bunny` function is, and to be honest, neither do we. We didn't expect that it would know what to do. OK, so now let's look at a real function.

Let's try using `seq()` which makes regular sequences of numbers and, while we're at it, demo more helpful features of RStudio.

Type `se` and hit TAB. A pop up shows you possible completions. Specify `seq()` by typing more to disambiguate or using the up/down arrows to select. Notice the floating tool-tip-type help that pops up, reminding you of a function's arguments. If you want even more help, press F1 as directed to get the full documentation in the help tab of the lower right pane.

Type the arguments `1, 10` and hit return.

```
seq(1, 10)
```

```
## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
```

We could probably infer that the `seq()` function makes a sequence, but let's learn for sure. Type (and you can autocomplete) and let's explore the help page:

```
?seq
help(seq) # same as ?seq

seq(from = 1, to = 10) # same as seq(1, 10); R assumes by position

## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
seq(from = 1, to = 10, by = 2)

## [1] 1 3 5 7 9
```

The above also demonstrates something about how R resolves function arguments. You can always specify `in name = value` form. But if you do not, R attempts to resolve by position. So above, it is assumed that we want a sequence `from = 1` that goes `to = 10`. Since we didn't specify step size, the default value of `by` in the function definition is used, which ends up being 1 in this case. For functions I call often, I might use this resolve by position for the first argument or maybe the first two. After that, I always use `name = value`.

The help page tells the name of the package in the top left, and broken down into sections:

- Description: An extended description of what the function does.
- Usage: The arguments of the function and their default values.
- Arguments: An explanation of the data each argument is expecting.
- Details: Any important details to be aware of.
- Value: The data the function returns.
- See Also: Any related functions you might find useful.
- Examples: Some examples for how to use the function.

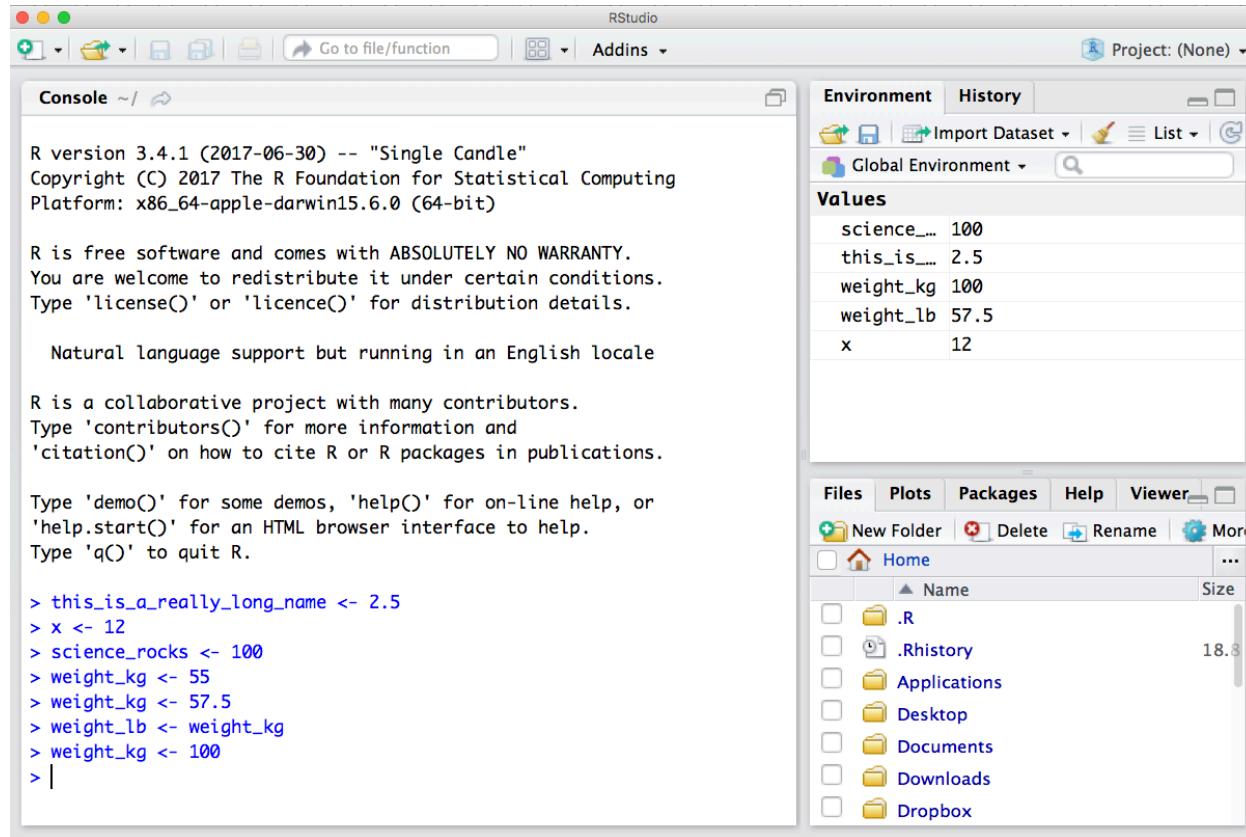


Figure 3.3:

The examples can be copy-pasted into the console for you to understand what's going on. Remember we were talking about expecting there to be a function for something you want to do? Let's try it.

3.4.1 Your turn

Exercise: Talk to your neighbor(s) and look up the help file for a function that you know or expect to exist. Here are some ideas: `?getwd()`, `?plot()`, `min()`, `max()`, `?mean()`, `?log()`.

And there's also help for when you only sort of remember the function name: double-questionmark:
`??install`

As we saw with creating the `foo_foo` variable above, not all functions have (or require) arguments:

```
date()
```

```
## [1] "Tue Nov 21 22:26:01 2017"
```

3.5 Clearing the environment

Now look at the objects in your environment (workspace) – in the upper right pane. The workspace is where user-defined objects accumulate.

You can also get a listing of these objects with a few different R commands:

```
objects()

## [1] "science_rocks"           "this_is_a_really_long_name"
## [3] "weight_kg"               "weight_lb"
## [5] "x"

ls()

## [1] "science_rocks"           "this_is_a_really_long_name"
## [3] "weight_kg"               "weight_lb"
## [5] "x"
```

If you want to remove the object named `weight_kg`, you can do this:

```
rm(weight_kg)
```

To remove everything:

```
rm(list = ls())
```

or click the broom in RStudio's Environment pane.

3.5.1 Your turn

Exercise: Clear your workspace, then create a few new variables. Create a variable that is the mean of a sequence of 1-20. What's a good name for your variable? Does it matter what your 'by' argument is? Why?

3.6 RMarkdown

Now we are going to also introduce RMarkdown. This is really key for collaborative research, so we're going to get started with it early and then use it for the rest of the day.

An Rmarkdown file will allow us to weave markdown text with chunks of R code to be evaluated and output content like tables and plots.

File -> New File -> Rmarkdown... -> Document of output format HTML, OK.

You can give it a Title like "My Project". Then click OK.

OK, first off: by opening a file, we are seeing the 4th pane of the RStudio console, which is essentially a text editor. This lets us organize our files within RStudio instead of having a bunch of different windows open.

Let's have a look at this file — it's not blank; there is some initial text is already provided for you. Notice a few things about it:

- There are white and grey sections. R code is in grey sections, and other text is in white.

Let's go ahead and "Knit HTML".

What do you notice between the two?

Notice how the grey **R code chunks** are surrounded by 3 backticks and `{r LABEL}`. These are evaluated and return the output text in the case of `summary(cars)` and the output plot in the case of `plot(pressure)`.

Notice how the code `plot(pressure)` is not shown in the HTML output because of the R code chunk option `echo=FALSE`.

More details...

This RMarkdown file has 2 different languages within it: **R** and **Markdown**.

```

1 ---  

2 title: "My Project"  

3 author: "Julie"  

4 date: "11/21/2017"  

5 output: html_document  

---  

8 ````{r setup, include=FALSE}  

9 knitr::opts_chunk$set(echo = TRUE)  

```  

11

12 ## R Markdown

13

14 This is an R Markdown document. Markdown is a simple formatting syntax for authoring HTML, PDF, and MS Word documents. For more details on using R Markdown see <http://rmarkdown.rstudio.com>.

15

16 When you click the **Knit** button a document will be generated that includes both content as well as the output of any embedded R code chunks within the document. You can embed an R code chunk like this:

17

18 ````{r cars}

19 summary(cars)

```  

21  

22 ## Including Plots  

23  

24 You can also embed plots, for example:  

25  

26 ````{r pressure, echo=FALSE}  

27 plot(pressure)  

```  

29

30 Note that the `echo = FALSE` parameter was added to the code chunk to prevent printing of the R code that generated the plot.

31

```

Figure 3.4:



My Project  
 Date: 11/21/2017  
 This is an R Markdown document. Markdown is a simple formatting syntax for authoring HTML, PDF, and MS Word documents. For more details on using R Markdown see <<http://rmarkdown.rstudio.com>>.  
 When you click the Knit button a document will be generated that includes both content as well as the output of any embedded R code chunks within the document. You can embed an R code chunk like this:  
 summary(cars)  
 #> #> #> speed dist  
#> #> Min. :10.0 0  
#> 1st Qu.:12.0 20.00  
#> Median :15.0 36.90  
#> Mean. :17.8 43.90  
#> 3rd Qu.:20.0 56.90  
#> Max. :29.0 120.00  
  
 Including Plots  
 You can also embed plots, for example:  
 plot(pressure)  
 Note that the echo = FALSE parameter was added to the code chunk to prevent printing of the R code that generated the plot.

Figure 3.5:

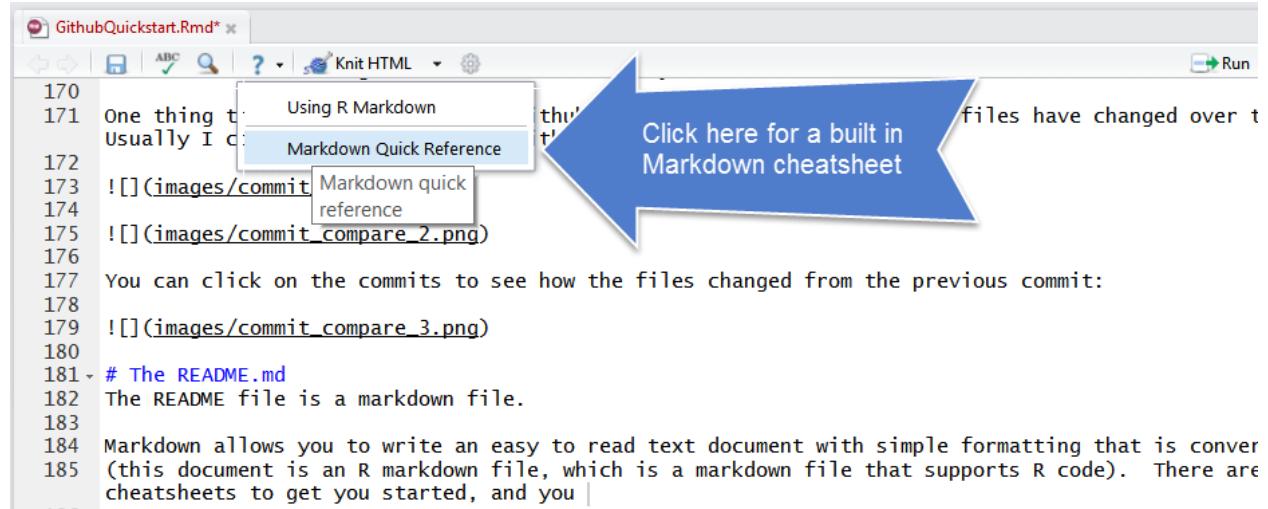
We don't know that much R yet, but you can see that we are taking a summary of some data called 'cars', and then plotting. There's a lot more to learn about R, and we'll get into it for the next few days.

The second language is Markdown. This is a formatting language for plain text, and there are only about 15 rules to know.

Notice the syntax for:

- **headers** get rendered at multiple levels: #, ##
- **bold**: \*\*word\*\*

There are some good cheatsheets to get you started, and here is one built into RStudio:



**Important:** note that the hashtag # is used differently in Markdown and in R:

- in R, a hashtag indicates a comment that will not be evaluated. You can use as many as you want: # is equivalent to #####. It's just a matter of style. I use two ## to indicate a comment so that it's clearer what is a comment versus what I don't want to run at the moment.
- in Markdown, a hashtag indicates a level of a header. And the number you use matters: # is a "level one header", meaning the biggest font and the top of the hierarchy. ### is a level three header, and will show up nested below the # and ## headers.

Learn more: <http://rmarkdown.rstudio.com/>

### 3.6.1 Your Turn

1. In Markdown, Write some italic text, and make a numbered list. And add a few subheaders. Use the Markdown Quick Reference (in the menu bar: Help > Markdown Quick Reference).
2. Reknit your html file.

## 3.7 Setup Git & GitHub

We're going to switch gears from R for a moment and set up Git and GitHub, which we will be using along with R and RStudio for the rest of the workshop. This set up is a one-time thing! You will only have to do this once per computer. We'll walk through this together.

1. Create **GitHub** account at <http://github.com>, if you don't already have one. For username, I recommend all lower-case letters, short as you can. I recommend using your *.edu email*, since you can request free private repositories via GitHub Education discount.

2. Configure `git` with global commands, which means it will apply ‘globally’ to all files on your computer, rather than to a specific folder. Open the Git Bash program (Windows) or the Terminal (Mac) and type the following:

```
display your version of git
git --version

replace USER with your Github user account
git config --global user.name USER

replace NAME@EMAIL.EDU with the email you used to register with Github
git config --global user.email NAME@EMAIL.EDU

list your config to confirm user.* variables set
git config --list
```

Not only have you just set up git as a one-time-only thing, you have just used the command line. We don’t have time to learn much of the command line today, but you just successfully used it following explicit instructions, which is huge! There are great resources for learning the command line, check out this tutorial from SWC at UCSB.

## 3.8 Troubleshooting

Here are some additional things we didn’t have time to discuss:

### 3.8.1 I just entered a command and nothing’s happening

It may be because you didn’t complete a command: is there a little + in your console? R is saying that it is waiting for you to finish. In the example below, I need to close that parenthesis.

```
> x <- seq(1, 10
+
```

### 3.8.2 How do I update RStudio?

To see if you have the most current version of RStudio, go to the Help bar > Check for Updates. If there is an update available, you’ll have the option to Quit and Download, which will take you to <http://www.rstudio.com/download>. When you download and install, choose to replace the previous version.



# Chapter 4

## RStudio + GitHub

We will learn about version control using git and GitHub, and we will interface with this through RStudio. git will track and version your files, GitHub stores this online and enables you to collaborate with others (and yourself). Although git and GitHub are two different things, distinct from each other, I think of them as a bundle since I always use them together. It also helped me to think of GitHub like Dropbox: you make folders that are ‘tracked’ and can be synced to the cloud. GitHub does this too, but you have to be more deliberate about when syncs are made. This is because GitHub saves these as different versions, with information about who contributed when, line-by-line. This makes collaboration easier, and it allows you to roll-back to different versions or contribute to others’ work.

### 4.1 Objectives & Resources

#### 4.1.0.1 Objectives

Today, we’ll interface with GitHub from our local computers using RStudio. There are many other ways to interact with GitHub, including GitHub’s Desktop App or the command line (here is Jenny Bryan’s list of git clients), but today we are going to work from RStudio. You have the largest suite of options if you interface through the command line, but the most common things you’ll do can be done through one of these other applications (i.e. RStudio and the GitHub Desktop App).

Here’s what we’ll do (we already set up git on our local computer in the previous section):

1. create a repository on Github.com
2. clone locally using RStudio
3. learn the RStudio-GitHub workflow by syncing to Github.com: pull, stage, commit, push
4. explore github.com: files, commit history, file history
5. practice the RStudio-GitHub workflow by editing and adding files
6. practice R Markdown

#### 4.1.0.2 Resources

These materials borrow from:

- Jenny Bryan’s lectures from STAT545 at UBC: The Shell
- Jenny Bryan’s Happy git with R tutorial
- Melanie Frazier’s GitHub Quickstart
- Ben Best’s Software Carpentry at UCSB

Today, we'll only introduce the features and terminology that scientists need to learn to begin managing their projects.

## 4.2 Why should scientists use Github?

1. Ends (or, nearly ends) the horror of keeping track of versions. Basically, we get away from this:

| <input type="checkbox"/> Name | Date modified    | Type   |
|-------------------------------|------------------|--------|
| Rscript_4_21_2016.R           | 5/1/2016 3:03 PM | R File |
| Rscript_4_22_2016a.R          | 5/1/2016 3:03 PM | R File |
| Rscript_4_22_2016b.R          | 5/1/2016 3:03 PM | R File |
| Rscript_4_24_2016.R           | 5/1/2016 3:03 PM | R File |
| Rscript_final.R               | 5/1/2016 3:03 PM | R File |
| Rscript_final_final.R         | 5/1/2016 3:03 PM | R File |
| Rscript_really_final.R        | 5/1/2016 3:03 PM | R File |
| Rscript_really_really_final.R | 5/1/2016 3:03 PM | R File |

When you open your repository, you only see the most recent version. But, it's easy to compare versions, and you can easily revert to previous versions.

2. Improves collaborative efforts. Different researchers can work on the same files at the same time!
3. It is easy to share and distribute files through the Github website.
4. Your files are available anywhere, you just need internet connection!

### 4.2.1 What are Git and Github?

- **Git** is a version control system that lets you track changes to files over time. These files can be any kind of file (eg .doc, .pdf, .xls), but free text differences are most easily visible (eg txt, csv, md).
- **Github** is a website for storing your git versioned files remotely. It has many nice features to be able to visualize differences between images, rendering & diffing map data files, render text data files, and track changes in text.

If you are a student you can get the micro account which includes 5 private repositories for free (normally a \$7/month value). You can sign up for the student account here. Instructors can also request a free organization account, “Request a discount”.

Github was developed for social coding (i.e., sort of like an open source Wikipedia for programmers). Consequently, much of the functionality and terminology of Github (e.g., branches and pull requests) isn't necessary for a scientist getting started.

These concepts are more important for coders who want the entire coding community (and not just people working on the same project) to be able to suggest changes to their code. This isn't how most scientists will use Github.

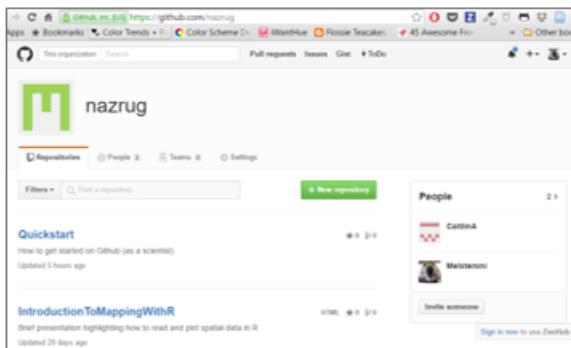
To get the full functionality of Github, you will eventually want to learn other concepts. But, this can wait.

### 4.2.2 Some Github terminology

- **User:** A Github account for you (e.g., jules32).

- **Organization:** The Github account for one or more user (e.g., datacarpentry).
- **Repository:** A folder within the organization that includes files dedicated to a project.
- **Local Github:** Copies of Github files located your computer.
- **Remote Github:** Github files located on the <https://github.com> website.
- **Clone:** Process of making a local copy of a remote Github repository. This only needs to be done once (unless you mess up your local copy).
- **Pull:** Copy changes on the remote Github repository to your local Github repository. This is useful if multiple people are making changes to a repository.
- **Push:** Save local changes to remote Github

## REMOTE (aka Github website)



**Clone** (i.e., copy)  
repository to your  
computer (a one  
time event)

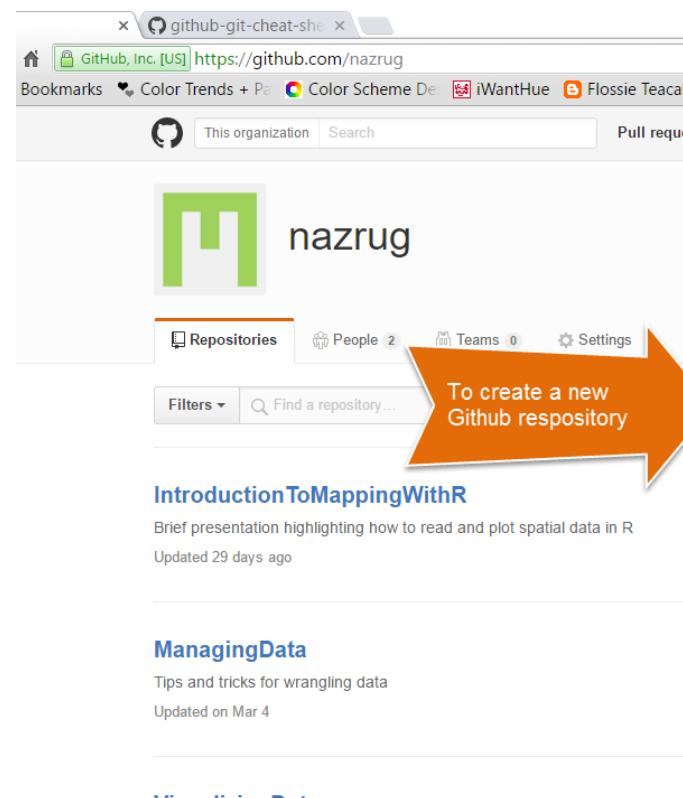
Pull remote  
changes

Push local  
changes



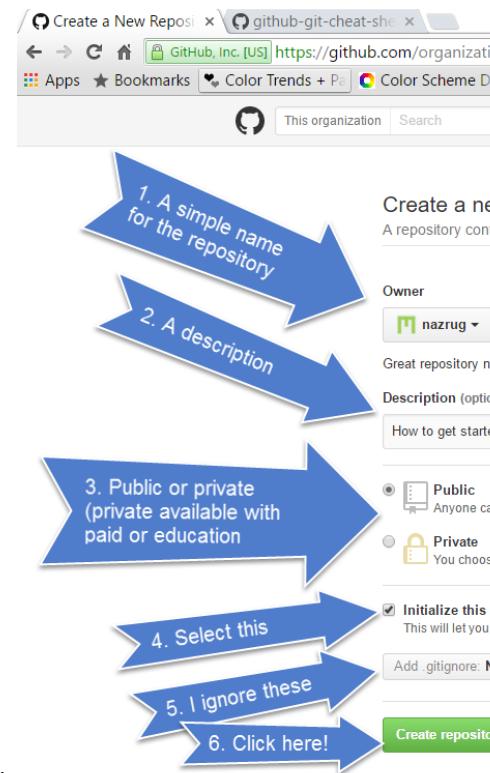
**LOCAL**  
(aka your computer)

### 4.3 Create a repository on Github.com



First, go to your account on [github.com](https://github.com) and click “New repository”.

Choose a name. Call it whatever you want (the shorter the better), or follow me for convenience. I will call mine `my-repo`.



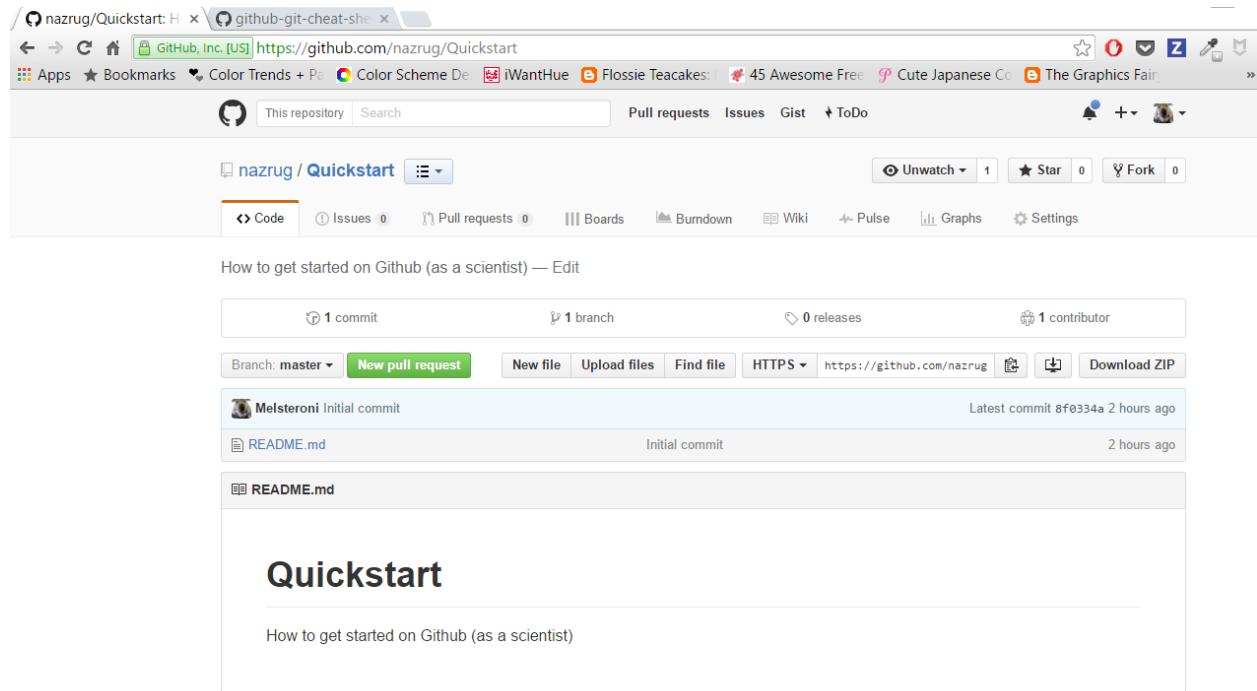
Also, add a description, make it public, create a README file, and create your repo!

The *Add gitignore* option adds a document where you can identify files or file-types you want Github to ignore. These files will stay in on the local Github folder (the one on your computer), but will not be uploaded onto the web version of Github.

The *Add a license* option adds a license that describes how other people can use your Github files (e.g., open source, but no one can profit from them, etc.). We won't worry about this today.

Check out our new repository!

Notice how the README.md file we created is automatically displayed at the bottom.



**From here, you will work locally (on your computer).**

## 4.4 Clone your repository using RStudio

We'll start off by cloning to our local computer using RStudio. We are going to be cloning a copy of our Remote repository on GitHub.com to our local computers. Unlike downloading, cloning keeps all the version control and user information bundled with the files.

**Step 0:** Create your `github` folder

This is really important! We need to be organized and deliberate about where we want to keep all of our GitHub repositories (since this is the first of many in your career).

Let's all make a folder called `github` (all lowercase!) in our home directories. So it will look like this:

- Windows: `Users\[User]\Documents\github\`
- Mac: `Users/[User]/github/`

This will let us take advantage of something that is really key about GitHub.com: you can easily navigate through folders within repositories and the urls reflect this navigation. The greatness of this will be evident soon. So let's set ourselves up for easily translating (and remembering) those navigation paths by having a folder called `github` that will serve as our 'github.com'.

So really. Make sure that you have an all-lowercase folder called `github` in your home directory!!

**Step 1:** Copy the web address of the repository you want to clone.

**Step 2:** from RStudio, go to New Project (also in the File menu).

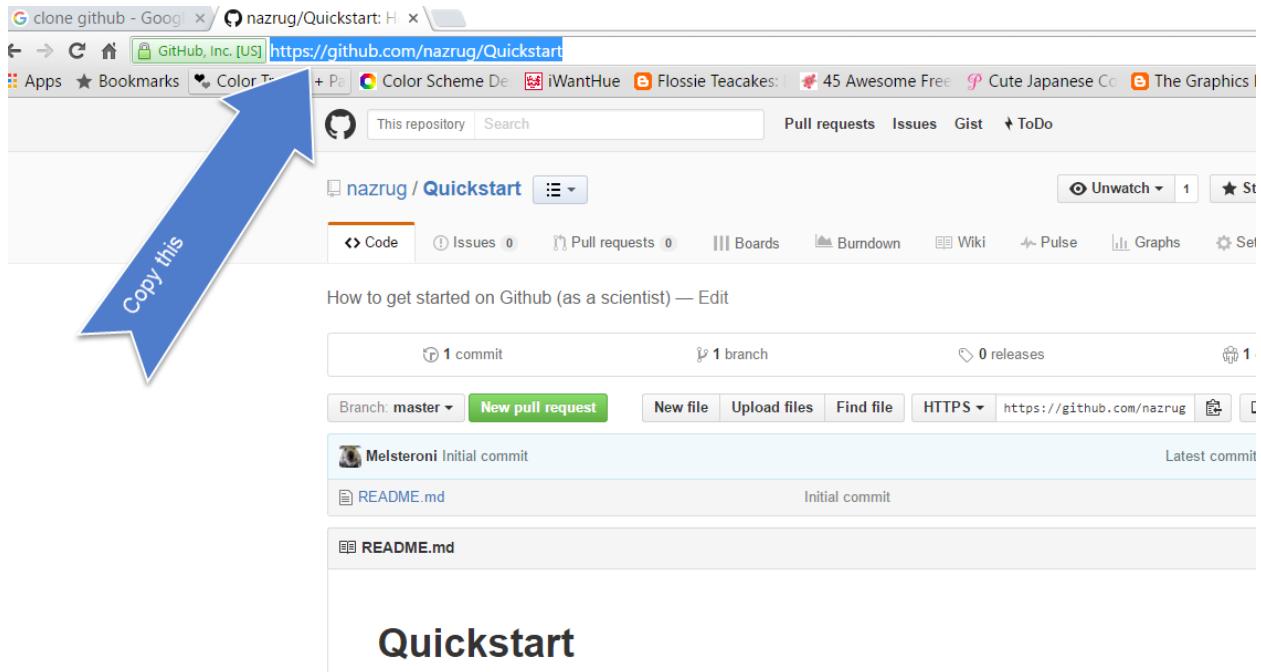
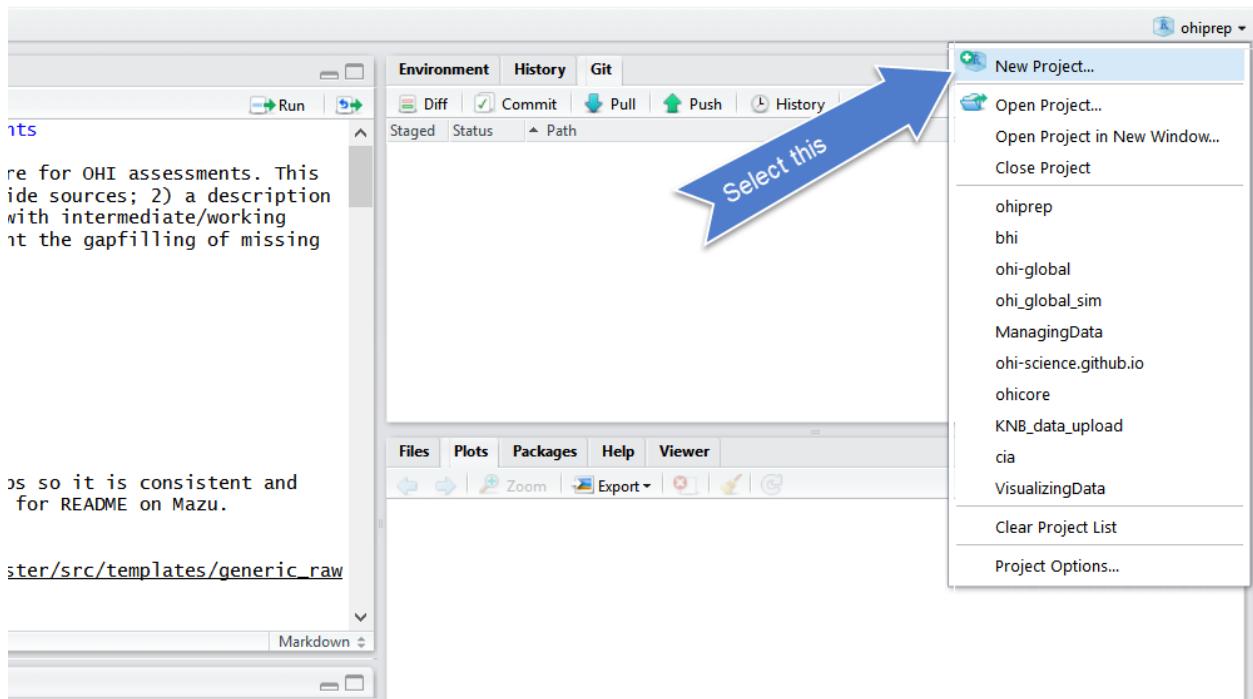
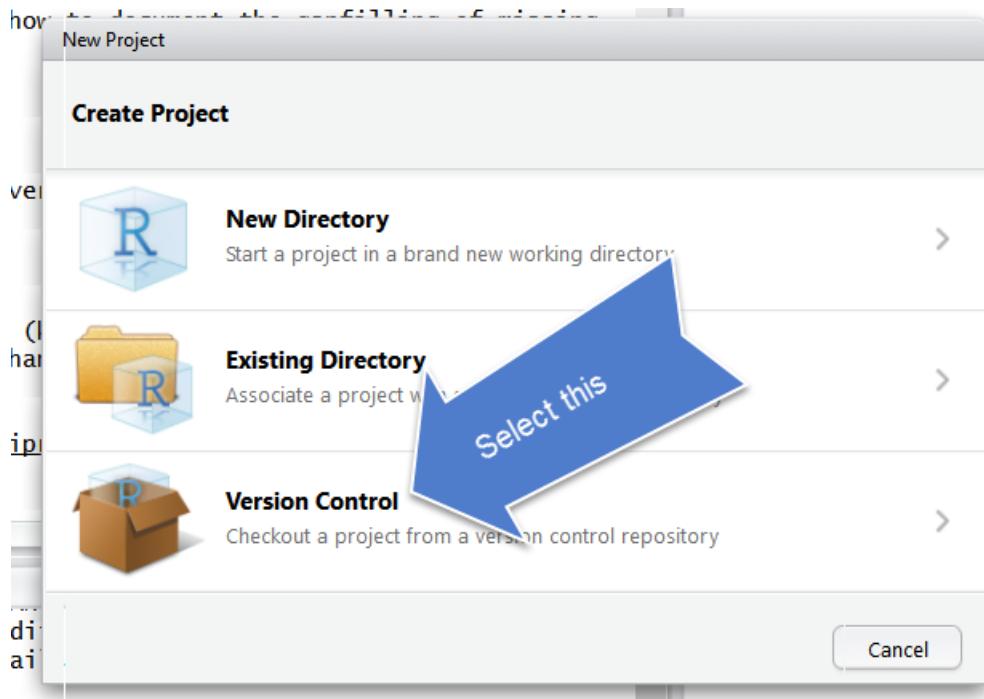
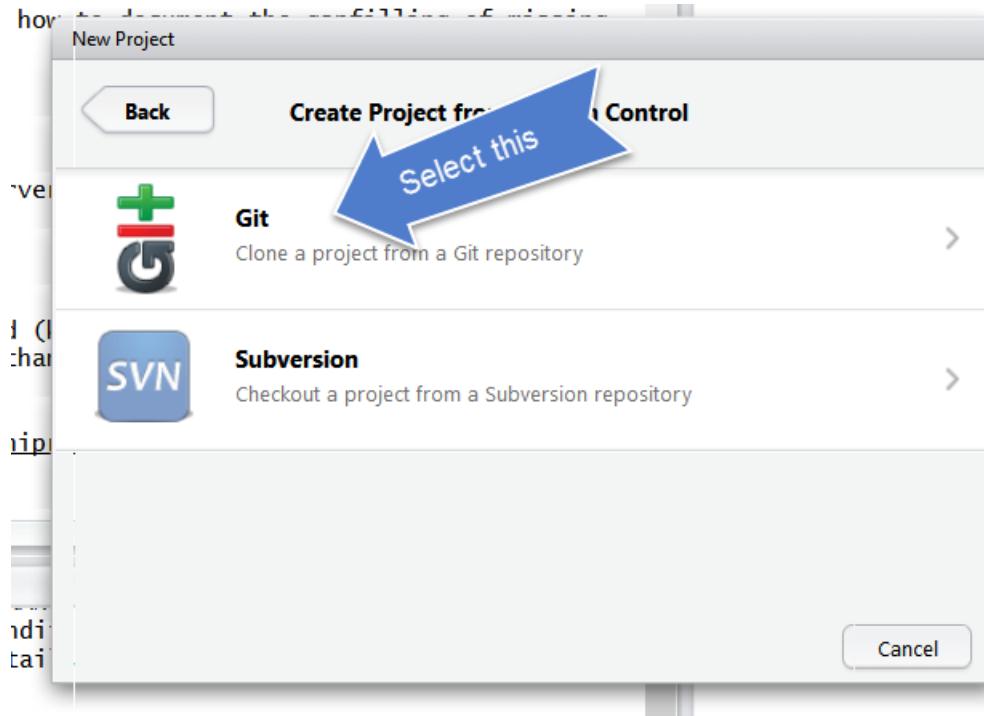


Figure 4.1:



**Step 3:** Select Version Control

**Step 4:** Select Git

**Step 5:** Paste it in the Repository URL field, and type tab to autofill the Project Directory name. Make sure you keep the Project Directory Name THE SAME as the repository name from the URL.

Save it in your github folder (click on Browse) to do this.

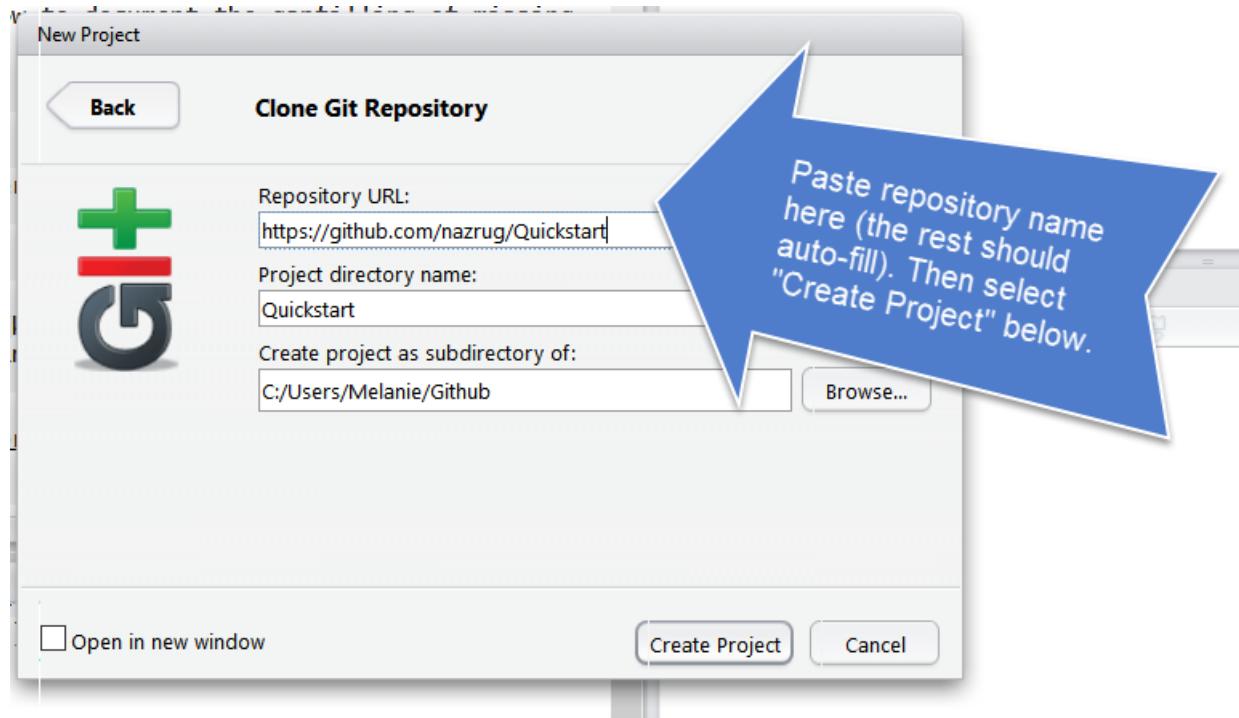
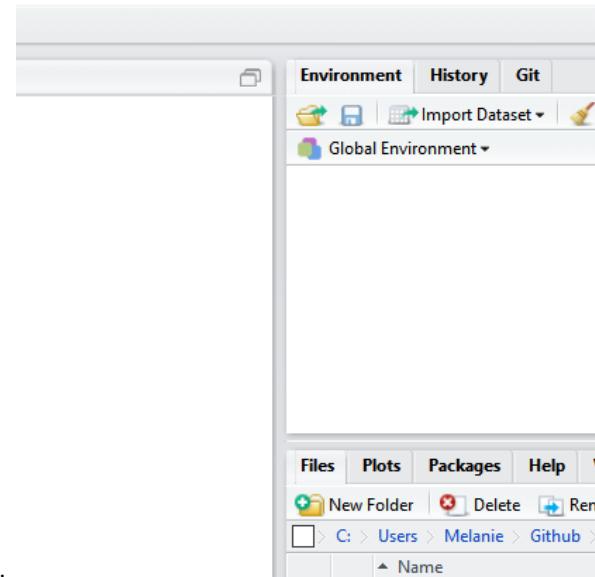
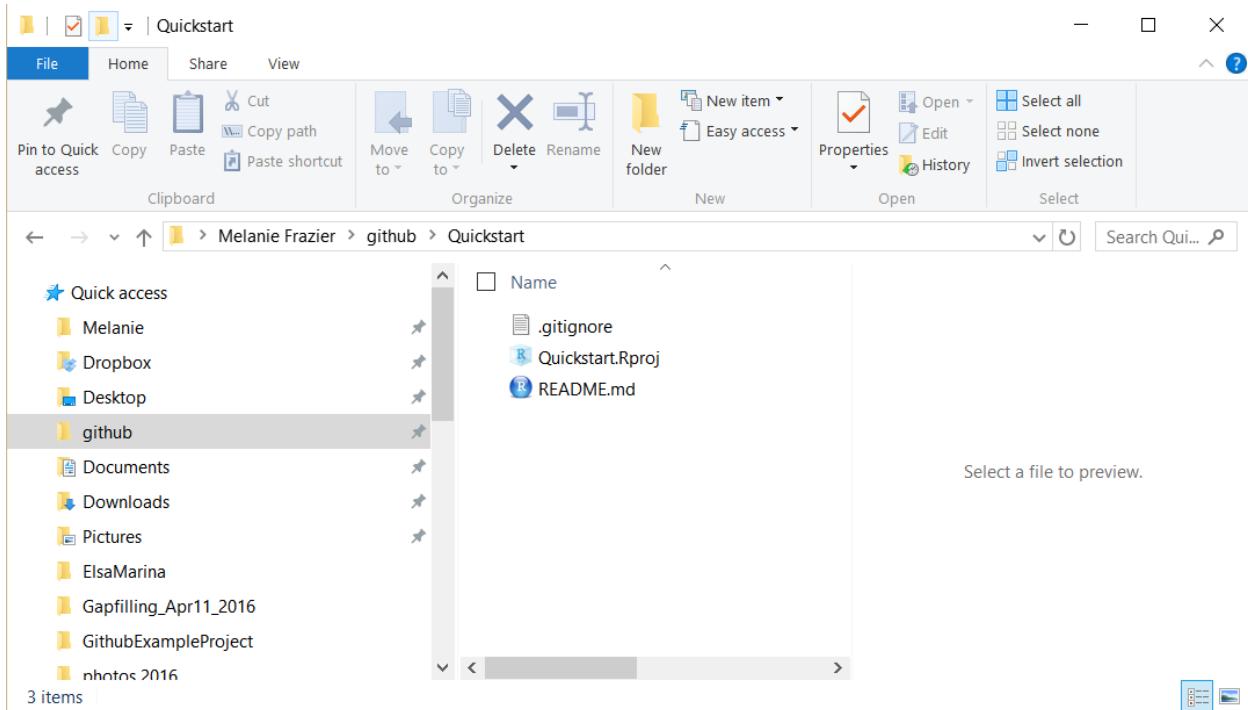


Figure 4.2:



If everything went well, the repository will be added to the list located here:

And the repository will be saved to the Github folder on your computer:



Ta da!!!! The folder doesn't contain much of interest, but we are going to change that.

## 4.5 Inspect your repository

Notice a few things in our repo here:

1. Our working directory is set to `~/github/my-repo`. This means that I can start working with the files I have in here without setting the filepath. This is that when we cloned this from RStudio, it created an RStudio project, which you can tell because:
  - `.RProj` file, which you can see in the Files pane.
  - The project is named in the top right hand corner
2. We have a git tab! This is how we will interface directly to Github.com

## 4.6 Add files to our local repo

The repository will contain:

- `.gitignore` file
- `README.md`
- `Rproj`

And, I typically create the following:

- folders for “data” and “figures”
- R scripts
- etc.

I'm going to copy-paste a small from my desktop into the folder.

To make changes to the repository, you will work from your computer (“local Github”).

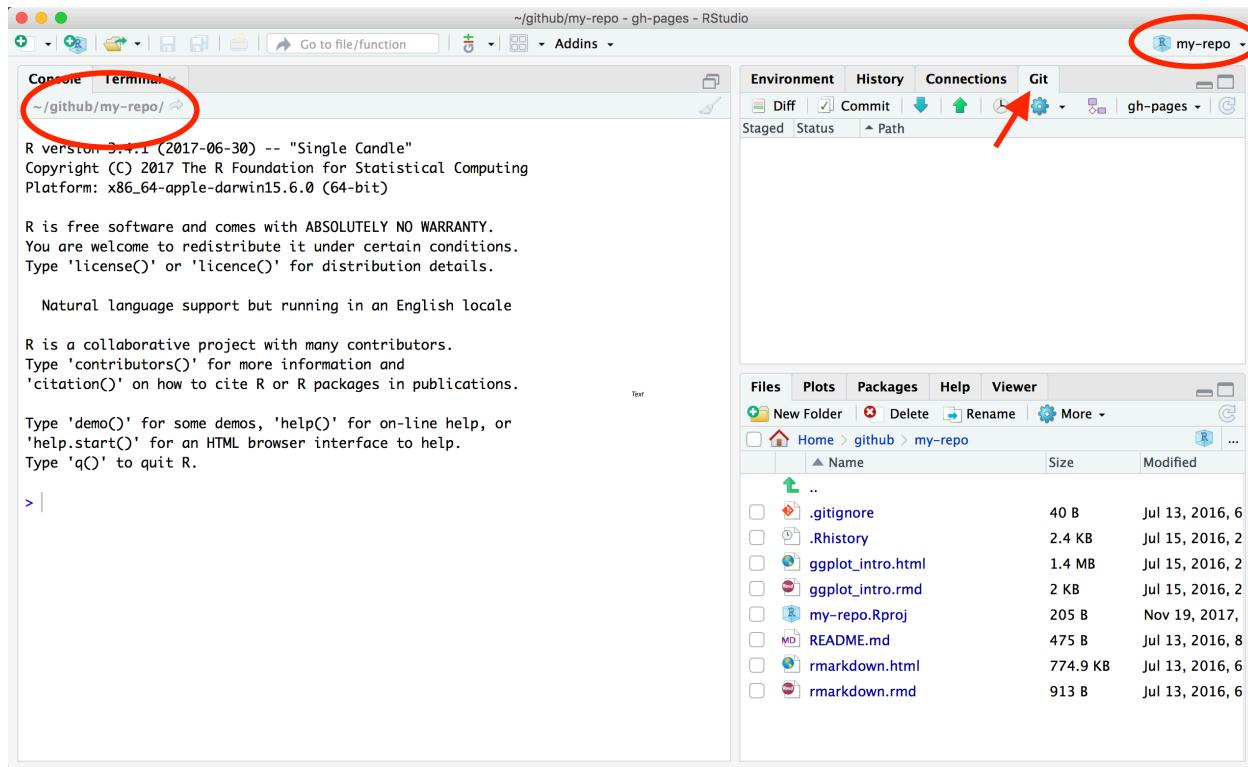
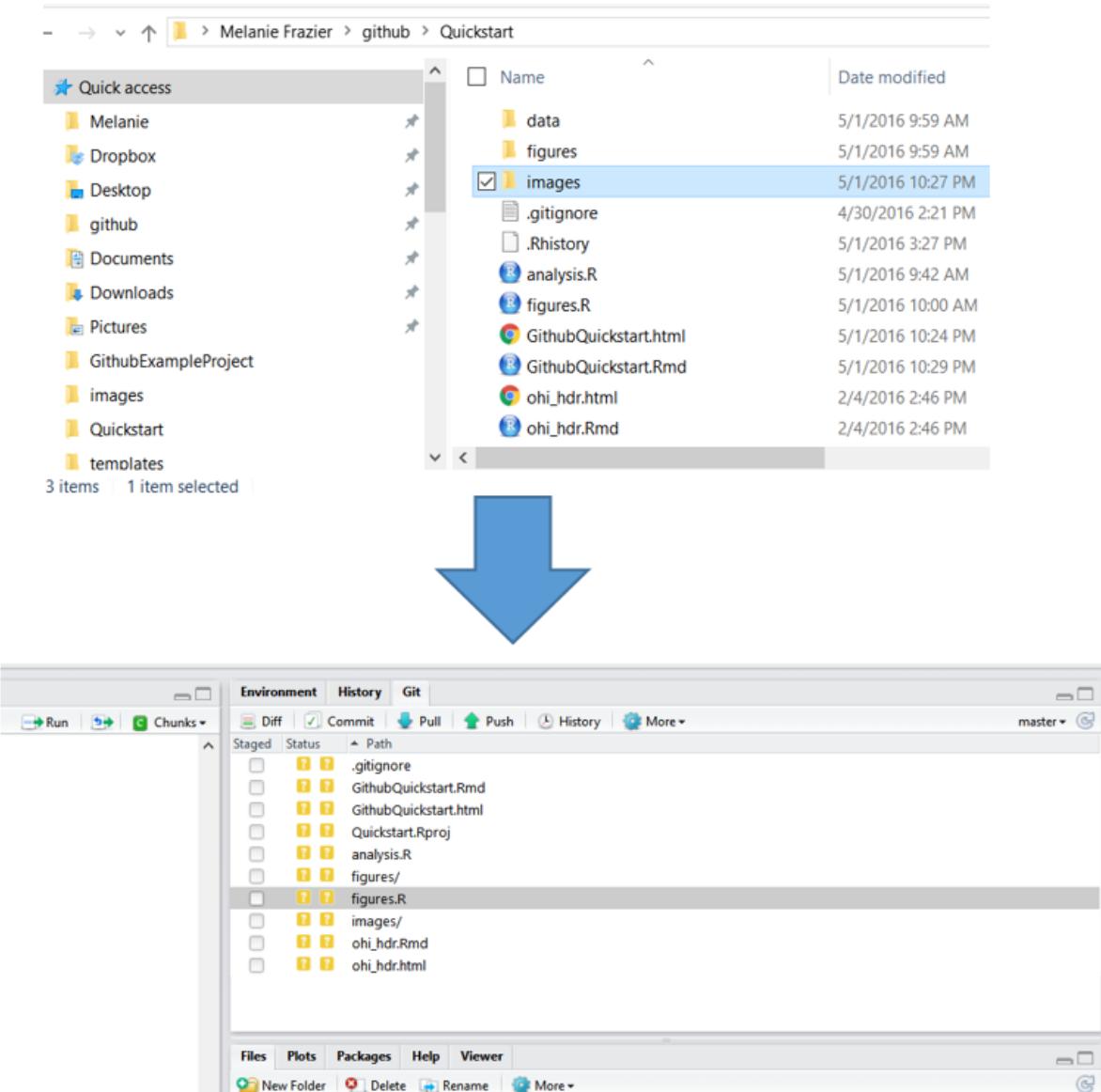


Figure 4.3:

When files are changed in the local repository, these changes will be reflected in the Git tab of RStudio:



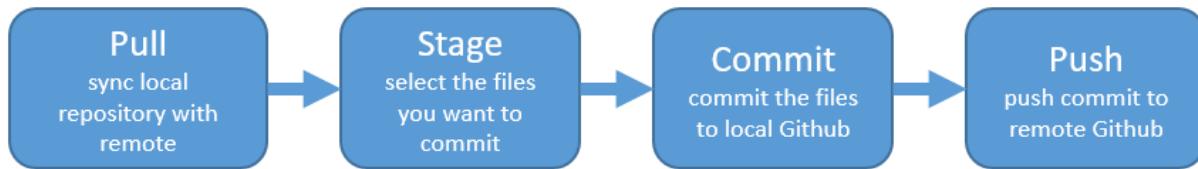
#### 4.6.1 Inspect what has changed

These are the codes RStudio uses to describe how the files are changed, (from the RStudio cheatsheet):

- A Added
- D Deleted
- M Modified
- R Renamed
- U Untracked

## 4.7 Sync from RStudio to GitHub

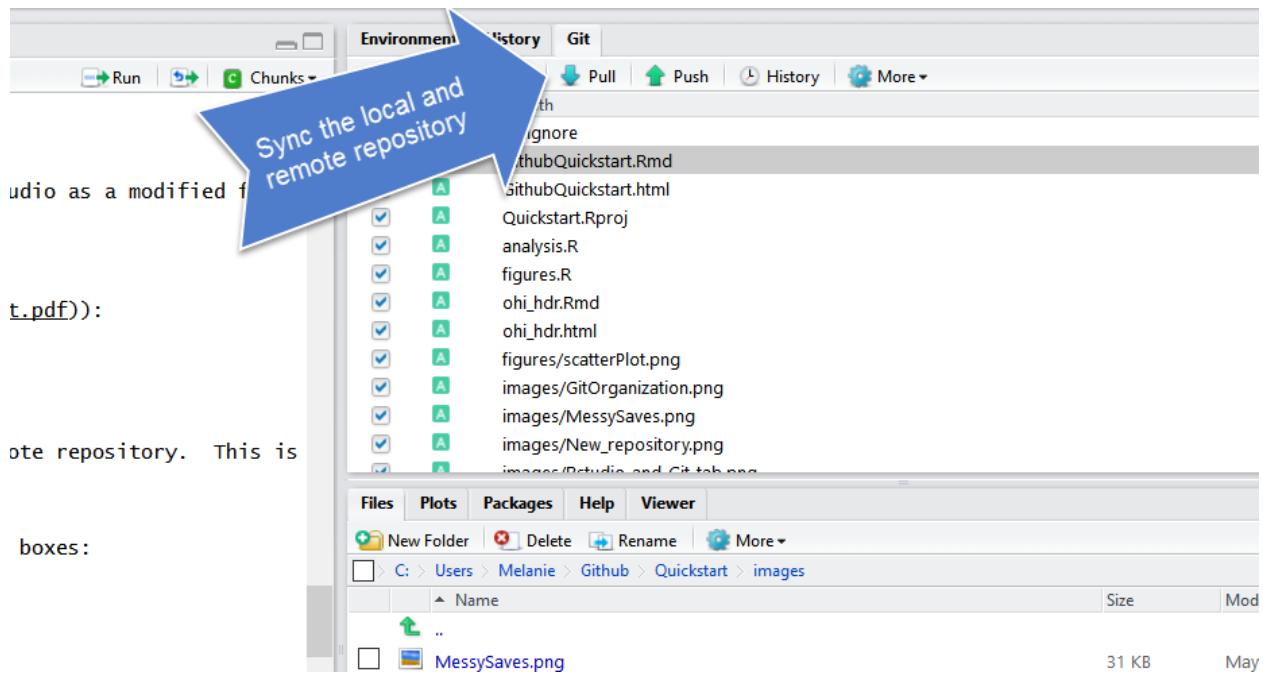
When you are ready to commit your changes, you follow these steps:



We walk through this process below:

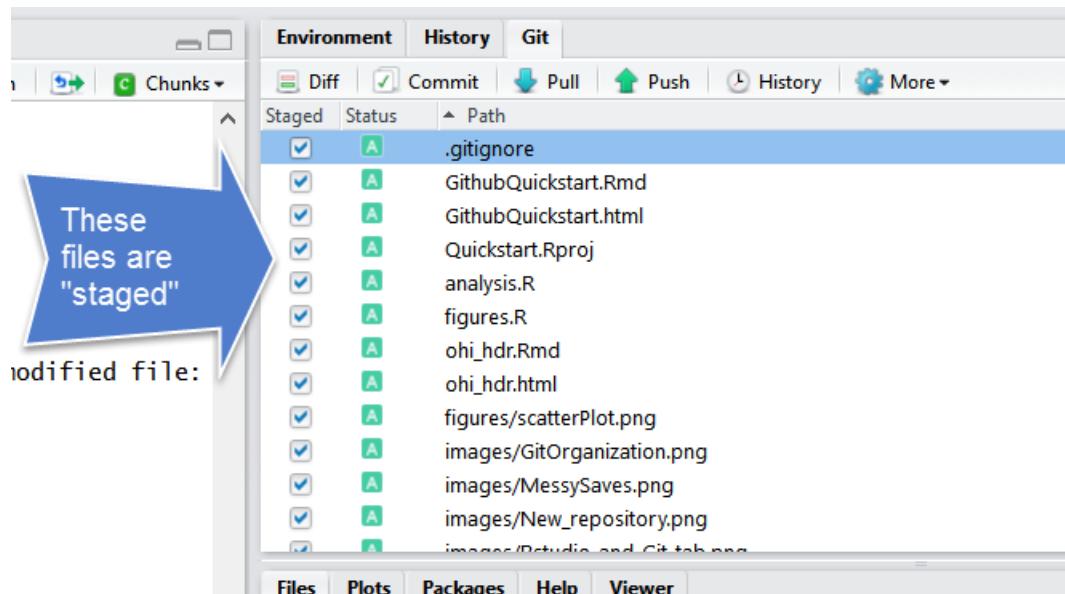
### 4.7.1 Pull

From the Git tab, “Pull” the repository. This makes sure your local repository is synced with the remote repository. This is very important if other people are making changes to the repository or if you are working from multiple computers.

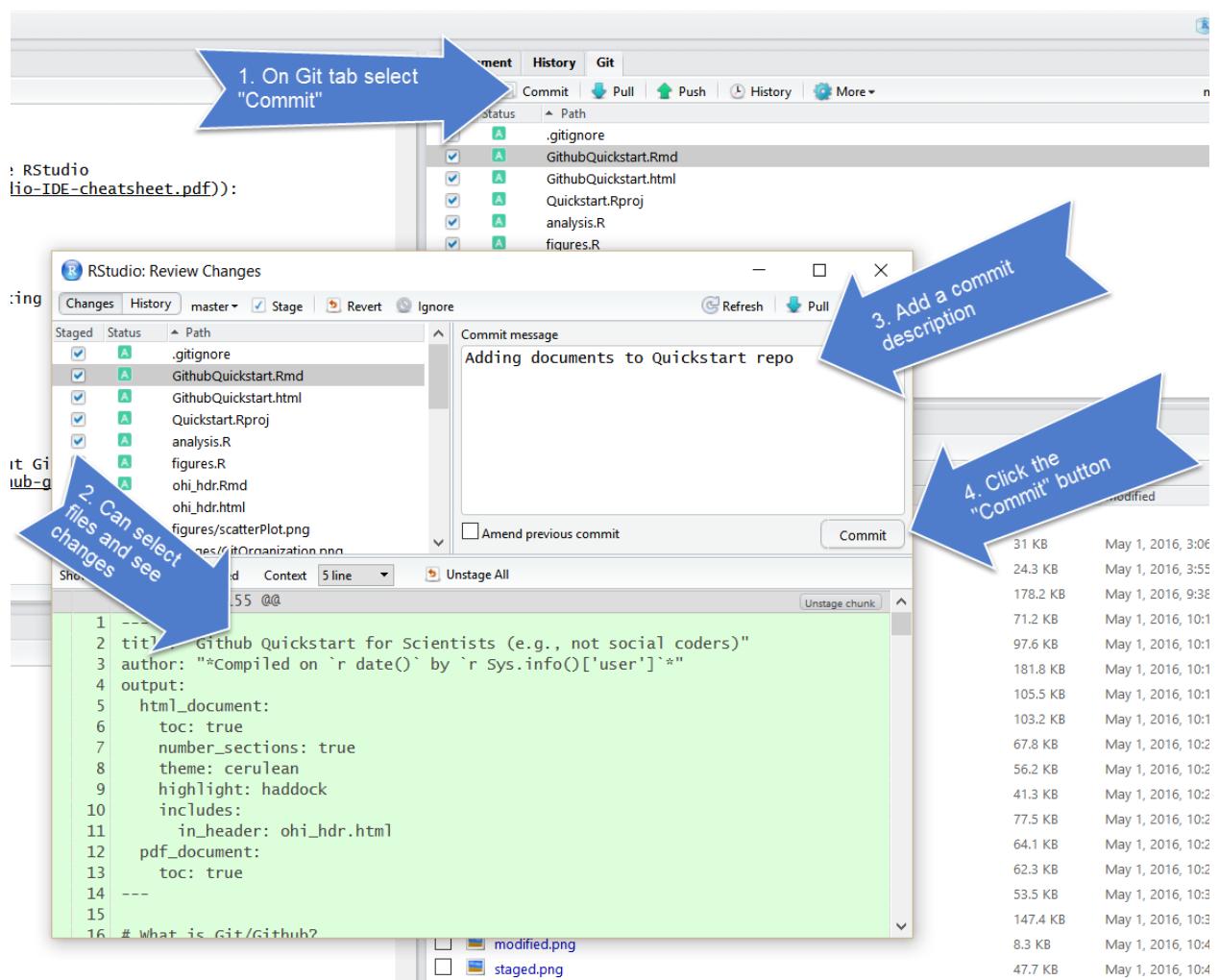


### 4.7.2 Stage

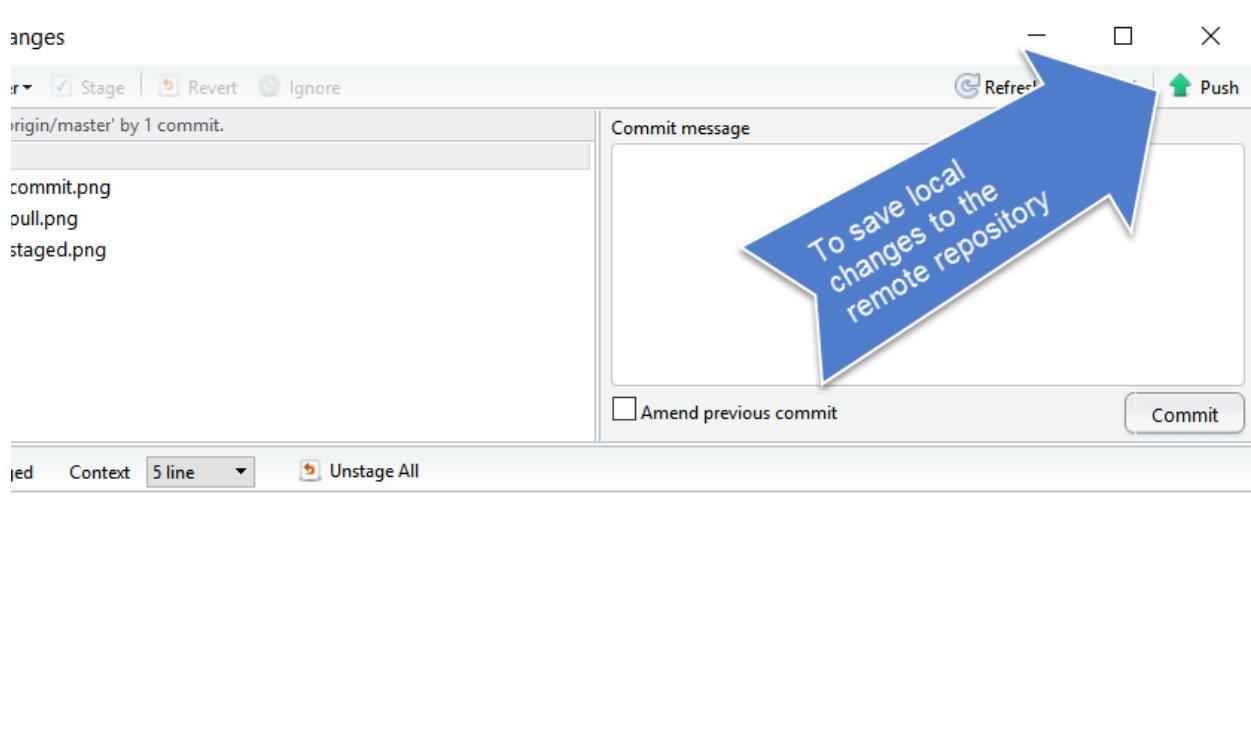
Stage the files you want to commit. In RStudio, this involves checking the “Staged” boxes:



### 4.7.3 Commit



#### 4.7.4 Push



## 4.8 Explore remote Github

The files you added should be on [github.com](https://github.com):

How to get started on Github (as a scientist) — Edit

Branch: master [New pull request](#)

2 commits 1 branch 0 releases 1 contributor

| File                  | Description             | Time           |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| figures               | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| images                | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| .gitignore            | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| GithubQuickstart.Rmd  | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| GithubQuickstart.html | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| Quickstart.Rproj      | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| README.md             | Initial commit          | 2 days ago     |
| analysis.R            | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| figures.R             | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| ohi_hdr.Rmd           | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |
| ohi_hdr.html          | Adding Quickstart files | 21 minutes ago |

Let's also explore commit history, file history.

#### 4.8.1 Your turn!

This time let's edit an existing file instead of adding something new. Open your README file by clicking on it in the Files pane (lower right corner). Write a few lines of text, save, and see what happens in your Git Tab. Sync it to your remote repository (Github.com).

Also, go to your Finder/Windows Explorer, and copy-paste something into your local GitHub repo. Then go back to RStudio and confirm that git tracked it. Remember, git will track anything within that folder (the way Dropbox does), it's not specific to RStudio!

## 4.9 Create a new R Markdown file

OK, now, let's go back to RStudio, and get ourselves back into learning R. We are going to use R Markdown so that you can write notes to yourself in Markdown, and have a record of all your R code. Writing R commands in the console like we did this morning is great, but limited; it's hard to keep track of and hard to efficiently share with others. Plus, as your analyses get more complicated, you need to be able to see them all in one place.

Go to File > New File > R Markdown ... (or click the green plus in the top left corner).

Let's set up this file so we can use it for the rest of the day. I'm going to delete all the text that is already there and write some new text.

Here's what I'm going to write in my R Markdown file to begin:

```

title: "My Project"
author: "Julie"
date: "11/21/2017"
output: html_document

Data wrangling with dplyr
```

We are going use "gapminder" data to learn `dplyr`. It's going to be amazing.

Now, let's save it. I'm going to call my file `wrangle-dplyr.Rmd`.

OK. Now let's practice with some of those commands that we were working on this morning.

Create a new chunk in your RMarkdown first in one of these ways:

- click "Insert > R" at the top of the editor pane
- type by hand “`{r}`”
- if you haven't deleted a chunk that came with the new file, edit that one

Now, let's write some R code.

```
x <- seq(1:15)
```

Now, hitting return does not execute this command; remember, it's just a text file. To execute it, we need to get what we typed in the the R chunk (the grey R code) down into the console. How do we do it? There are several ways (let's do each of them):

1. copy-paste this line into the console.
2. select the line (or simply put the cursor there), and click 'Run'. This is available from
  - a. the bar above the file (green arrow)
  - b. the menu bar: Code > Run Selected Line(s)
  - c. keyboard shortcut: command-return
3. click the green arrow at the right of the code chunk

### 4.9.1 Your turn

Add a few more commands to your file from this morning. Execute them by trying the three ways above.

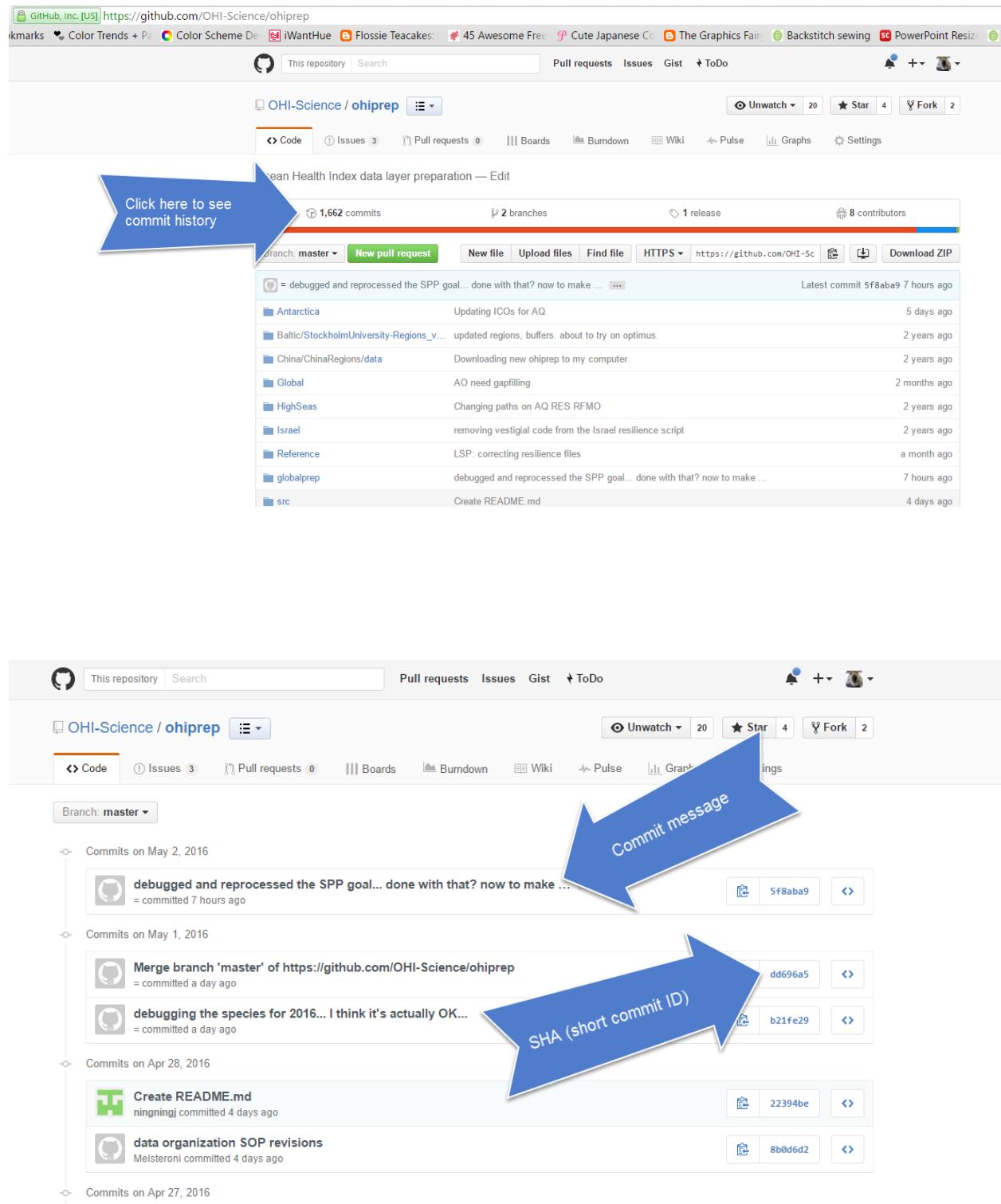
Then, sync your file to GitHub.

## 4.10 Committing - how often? Tracking changes in your files

Whenever you make changes to the files in Github, you will walk through the Pull -> Stage -> Commit -> Push steps.

I tend to do this every time I finish a task (basically when I start getting nervous that I will lose my work). Once something is committed, it is very difficult to lose it.

One thing that I love about about Github is that it is easy to see how files have changed over time. Usually I compare commits through [github.com](https://github.com):



The screenshot shows the GitHub repository page for `ohiprep`. A blue arrow points to the top of the commit list with the text "Click here to see commit history". Another blue arrow points to a specific commit message with the text "Commit message". A third blue arrow points to the short commit ID (SHA) next to the commit message with the text "SHA (short commit ID)".

**Commit History:**

- = debugged and reprocessed the SPP goal... done with that? now to make ... = committed 7 hours ago
- Antarctica Updating ICOs for AQ = committed 5 days ago
- Baltic/StockholmUniversity-Regions\_v... updated regions, buffers. about to try on optimus. = committed 2 years ago
- China/ChinaRegions/data Downloading new ohiprep to my computer = committed 2 years ago
- Global AO need gapfilling = committed 2 months ago
- HighSeas Changing paths on AQ RES RFMO = committed 2 years ago
- Israel removing vestigial code from the Israel resilience script = committed 2 years ago
- Reference LSP: correcting resilience files = committed a month ago
- globaliprep debugged and reprocessed the SPP goal... done with that? now to make ... = committed 7 hours ago
- src Create README.md = committed 4 days ago

**Commits on May 2, 2016:**

- Commit message:** = debugged and reprocessed the SPP goal... done with that? now to make ... = committed 7 hours ago
- SHA (short commit ID):** 5f8aba9

**Commits on May 1, 2016:**

- Merge branch 'master' of https://github.com/OHI-Science/ohiprep = committed a day ago
- Commit message:** debugging the species for 2016... I think it's actually OK... = committed a day ago
- SHA (short commit ID):** dd696a5
- Commit message:** b21fe29 = committed a day ago
- SHA (short commit ID):** b21fe29

**Commits on Apr 28, 2016:**

- Commit message:** Create README.md = committed 4 days ago
- SHA (short commit ID):** 22394be
- Commit message:** data organization SOP revisions = committed 4 days ago
- SHA (short commit ID):** 8b0d6d2

**Commits on Apr 27, 2016:**

You can click on the commits to see how the files changed from the previous commit:

debugging the species for 2016... I think it's actually OK...

master  
= committed a day ago 1 parent 7a8bc55 commit b21fe2946589b4b2ed7351bc68c154651aab7953

Showing 88 changed files with 2,432,873 additions and 426,265 deletions.

Sorry, we could not display the entire diff because it was too big.

```

77 globalprep/spp_ico/v2016/data_prep_SPP.Rmd
@@ -22,18 +22,18 @@ library(foreign)
 22 library(data.table)
 23 library(sp)
 24 library(rgdal)
 25 -library(raster)
 26 -library(maptools)
 25 +library(raster)
 26 +library(maptools)
 27 library(readr)
 28
 29 source('~/github/ohiprep/src/R/common.R')
 30
 31 goal <- 'globalprep/spp_ico'
 32 scenario <- 'v2016'
 33 dir_anx <- file.path(dir_M, 'git-annex', goal)
 34 -dir_data_am <- file.path(dir_M, 'git-annex/globalprep/_raw_data', 'aquamaps', str_replace(scenario, 'v', 'd'))
 35 -dir_data_iucn <- file.path(dir_M, 'git-annex/globalprep/_raw_data', 'iucn_spp')
 36 -dir_data_bird <- file.path(dir_M, 'git-annex/globalprep/_raw_data', 'birdlife_intl')
 34 +dir_data_am <- file.path(dir_M, 'git-annex/globalprep/_raw_data', 'aquamaps', 'd2015')
 35 +dir_data_iucn <- file.path(dir_M, 'git-annex/globalprep/_raw_data', 'iucn_spp', 'd2015')
 36 +dir_data_bird <- file.path(dir_M, 'git-annex/globalprep/_raw_data', 'birdlife_intl', 'd2015')
 37 dir_git <- file.path('~/github/ohiprep', goal)
 38
 39 source('~/git-annex/dif-git-annex.R')\n
```

## 4.11 Troubleshooting

If you have problems, we'll help you out using Jenny Bryan's HappyGitWithR, particularly the sections on Detect Git from RStudio and RStudio, Git, GitHub Hell (troubleshooting).



# Chapter 5

## Visualizing data

In development.

### 5.1 Objectives & Resources

#### 5.1.0.1 Objectives

- install our first package, `ggplot2`, by installing `tidyverse`
- learn `ggplot2` with `mpg` dataframe (important to play with other data than your own, you'll learn something.)
- practice writing a script (maybe call it `mpg_viz.R?`)
- practice rstudio-github workflow
- use and credit <http://r4ds.had.co.nz/data-visualisation.html>

Why do we start with data viz? Not only is data viz a big part of analysis, it's a way to SEE your progress as you learn to code. “`ggplot2` implements the grammar of graphics, a coherent system for describing and building graphs. With `ggplot2`, you can do more faster by learning one system and applying it in many places.” - R4DS

- Conceptual and building, cheatsheet images
- <http://r4ds.had.co.nz/data-visualisation.html>
- <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/d779/6f85dabccd18673f382c100fc06f55e8b501.pdf>

#### 5.1.0.2 Resources

Here are some resources that helped make this tutorial: - R for Data Science - `ggplot2-cheatsheet-2.0.pdf` - Interactive Plots and Maps - Environmental Informatics - Graphs with `ggplot2` - Cookbook for R - `ggplot2` Essentials - STHDA

D Robinson: - <http://varianceexplained.org/r/why-I-use-ggplot2/>; add screenshot of `ggplot2` cheatsheet - <http://varianceexplained.org/RData/>

### 5.2 Install our first package: `tidyverse`

Packages are bundles of functions, along with help pages and other goodies that make them easier for others to use, (ie. vignettes).

So far we've been using packages included in 'base R'; they are 'out-of-the-box' functions. You can also install packages from online created by the vast and growing R user community. The most traditional place to download packages is from CRAN, the Comprehensive R Archive Network. This is where you went to download R originally, and will go again to look for updates. You can also install packages directly from GitHub, which we'll do tomorrow.

You don't need to go to CRAN's website to install packages, we can do it from within R with the command `install.packages("package-name-in-quotes")`.

We are going to be using the package `ggplot2`, which is actually bundled into a huge package called `tidyverse`. We will install `tidyverse` now, and use a few functions from the packages within. Also, check out [tidyverse.org/](https://tidyverse.org/).

```
from CRAN:
install.packages("tidyverse") ## do this once only to install the package on your computer.

library(tidyverse) ## do this every time you restart R and need it
```

When you do this, it will tell you which packages are inside of `tidyverse` that have also been installed. Note that there are a few name conflicts; it is alerting you that we'll be using two functions from `dplyr` instead of the built-in `stats` package.

What's the difference between `install.packages()` and `library()`? Why do you need both? Here's my analogy:

- `install.packages()` is setting up electricity for your house. Just need to do this once (let's ignore monthly bills).
- `library()` is turning on the lights. You only turn them on when you need them, otherwise it wouldn't be efficient. And when you quit R, it turns the lights off, but the electricity lines are still there. So when you come back, you'll have to turn them on again with `library()`, but you already have your electricity set up.

You can also install packages by going to the Packages tab in the bottom right pane. You can see the packages that you have installed (listed) and loaded (checkbox). You can also install packages using the install button, or check to see if any of your installed packages have updates available (update button). You can also click on the name of the package to see all the functions inside it — this is a super helpful feature that I use all the time.

## 5.3 Aesthetic mappings

## 5.4 push to GitHub

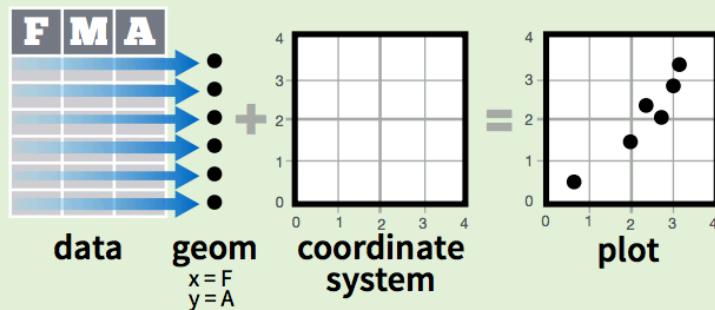
### 5.4.1 Your turn

## 5.5 Common problems

...

# Basics

**ggplot2** is based on the **grammar of graphics**, the idea that you can build every graph from the same few components: a **data** set, a set of **geoms**—visual marks that represent data points, and a **coordinate system**.



To display data values, map variables in the data set to aesthetic properties of the geom like **size**, **color**, and **x** and **y** locations.

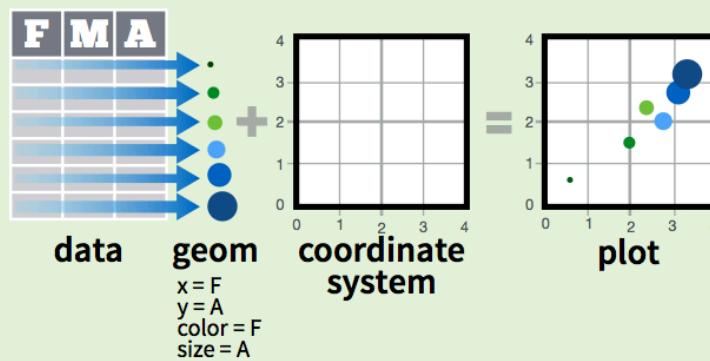


Figure 5.1:

### 5.5.1 Your turn

## 5.6 The Layered Grammar of Graphics

### 5.7 push to GitHub

Explore GitHub; show that your fig has a URL you could share with someone

### 5.8 end of the day: intro to Markdown (README)?

so they can post a figure on a readme?

### 5.9 Troubleshooting

# Chapter 6

## Wrangling (`dplyr`)

Data scientists, according to interviews and expert estimates, spend from 50 percent to 80 percent of their time mired in the mundane labor of collecting and preparing data, before it can be explored for useful information. - NYTimes (2014)

### 6.1 Overview of `dplyr`

We are going to introduce you to data wrangling in R first with the tidyverse. The tidyverse is a new suite of packages that match a philosophy of data science developed by Hadley Wickham and the RStudio team. I find it to be a more straight-forward way to learn R. We will also show you by comparison what code will look like in “Base R”, which means, in R without any additional packages (like the “tidyverse” package) installed. I like David Robinson’s blog post on the topic of teaching the tidyverse first.

For some things, base-R is more straight forward, and we’ll show you that too. Whenever we use a function that is from the tidyverse, we will prefix it so you’ll know for sure.

#### Objectives

- learn about tidy data
- learn `dplyr` with `gapminder` data
- practice RStudio-GitHub workflow

#### Resources

Today’s materials are again borrowing from some excellent sources, including:

- Jenny Bryan’s lectures from STAT545 at UBC: Introduction to `dplyr`
- Hadley Wickham and Garrett Grolemund’s R for Data Science
- Software Carpentry’s R for reproducible scientific analysis materials: Dataframe manipulation with `dplyr`
- First developed for Software Carpentry at UCSB
- RStudio’s data wrangling cheatsheet
- RStudio’s data wrangling webinar

### 6.2 Prerequisites

**R Skill Level:** Beginner - you’ve got basics of R down and are ready to wrangle your data.

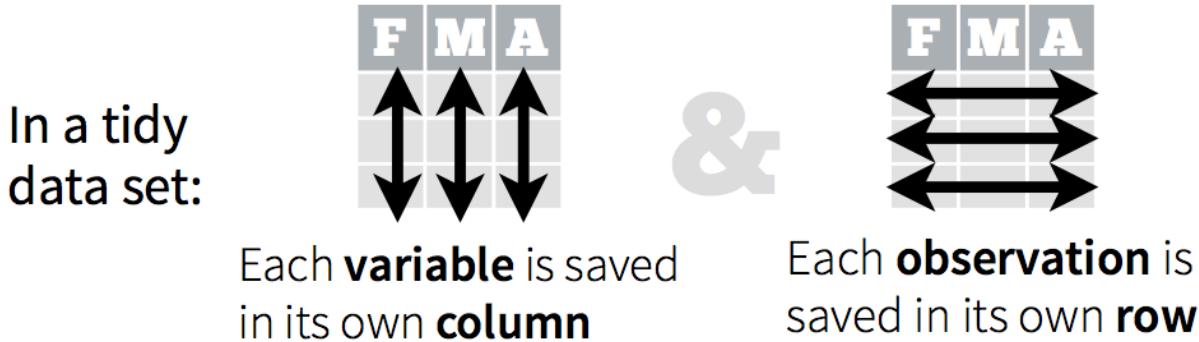
We will use the `dplyr` package, which will have been installed with:

```
install.packages('tidyverse')
```

## 6.3 Tidy Data

Hadley Wickham, RStudio's Chief Scientist, has been building R packages for data wrangling and visualization based on the idea of **tidy data**.

Tidy data has a simple convention: put variables in the columns and observations in the rows.



The mpg dataset we were working with this morning was an example of tidy data. When data are tidy, you are

| manufacturer | model      | displ |
|--------------|------------|-------|
| audi         | a4         | 1.6   |
| audi         | a4         | 1.8   |
| audi         | a4         | 2.0   |
| audi         | a4         | 2.2   |
| audi         | a4         | 2.2   |
| audi         | a4         | 2.2   |
| audi         | a4         | 2.3   |
| audi         | a4 quattro | 1.8   |
| audi         | a4 quattro | 1.8   |
| audi         | a4 quattro | 2.0   |
| audi         | a4 quattro | 2.0   |

set up to work with it for your analyses, plots, etc.

Right now we are going to use `dplyr` to wrangle this tidyish data set (the transform part of the cycle), and then come back to tidying messy data using `tidyr` once we've had some fun wrangling. These are both part of the `tidyverse` package that we've already installed:

And actually, Hadley Wickham and RStudio have created a ton of packages that help you at every step of the way here. This is from one of Hadley's recent presentations:

### 6.3.1 Setup

We'll do this in a new RMarkdown file.

**Here's what to do:**

1. Clear your workspace (Session > Restart R)
2. New File > R Markdown...
3. Save as `gapminder-wrangle.Rmd`

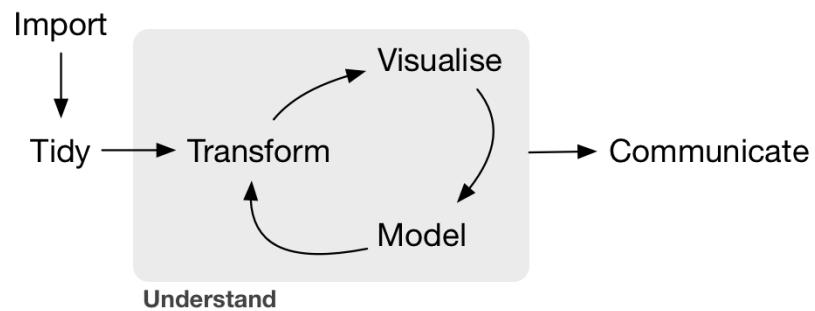


Figure 6.1:

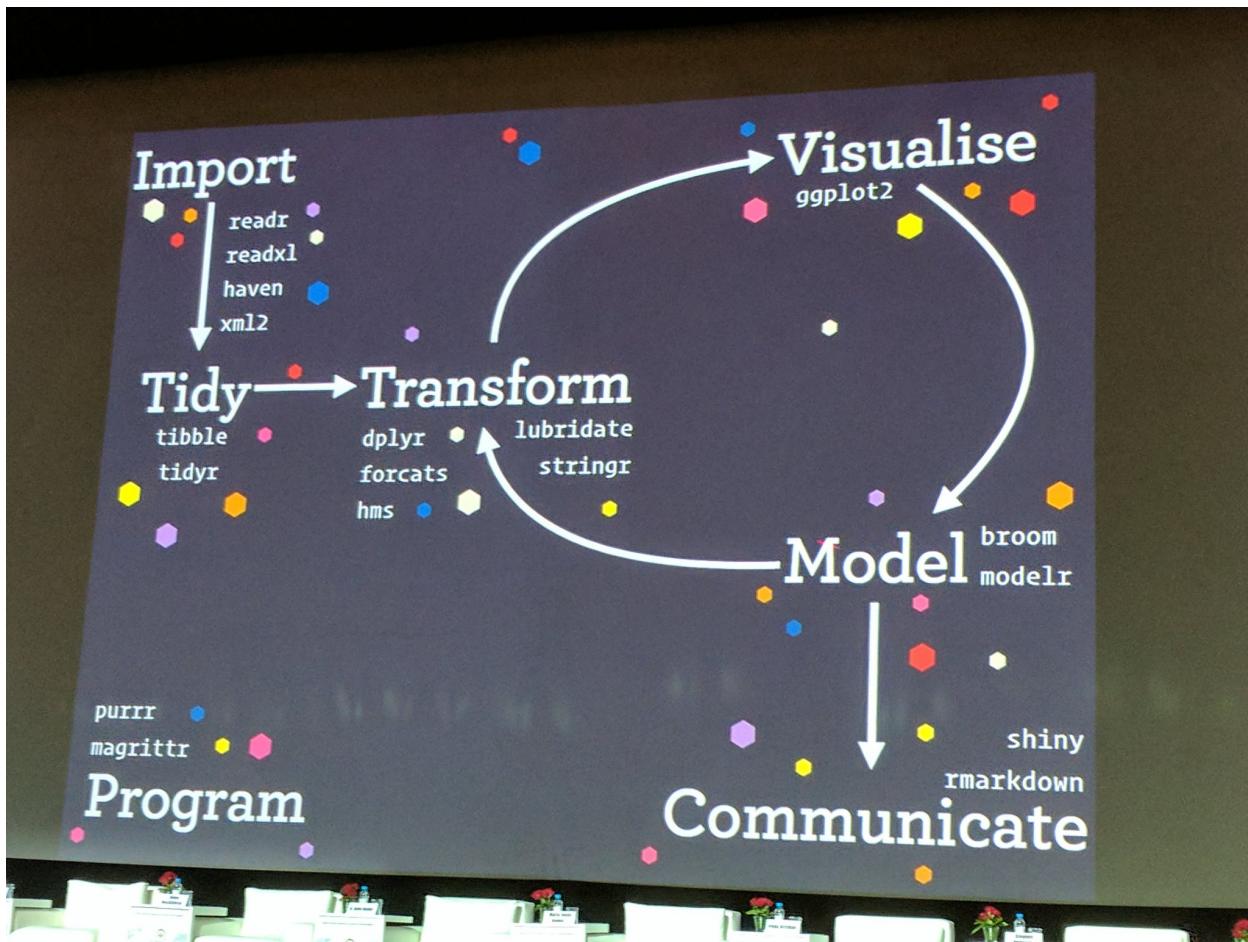


Figure 6.2:

| country     | year | pop      | continent | lifeExp | gdpPercap   |
|-------------|------|----------|-----------|---------|-------------|
| Afghanistan | 1952 | 8425333  | Asia      | 28.801  | 779.4453145 |
| Afghanistan | 1957 | 9240934  | Asia      | 30.332  | 820.8530296 |
| Afghanistan | 1962 | 10267083 | Asia      | 31.997  | 853.10071   |
| Afghanistan | 1967 | 11537966 | Asia      | 34.02   | 836.1971382 |
| Afghanistan | 1972 | 13079460 | Asia      | 36.088  | 739.9811058 |
| Afghanistan | 1977 | 14880372 | Asia      | 38.438  | 786.11336   |
| Afghanistan | 1982 | 12881816 | Asia      | 39.854  | 978.0114388 |
| Afghanistan | 1987 | 13867957 | Asia      | 40.822  | 852.3959448 |
| Afghanistan | 1992 | 16317921 | Asia      | 41.674  | 649.3413952 |
| Afghanistan | 1997 | 22227415 | Asia      | 41.763  | 635.341351  |
| Afghanistan | 2002 | 25268405 | Asia      | 42.129  | 726.7340548 |

Figure 6.3:

- Delete the irrelevant text and write a little note to yourself about how we'll be wrangling gapminder data using dplyr. You can edit the title too if you need to.

### 6.3.2 load tidyverse (which has dplyr inside)

In your R Markdown file, let's make sure we've got our libraries loaded. Write the following:

```
library(tidyverse) ## install.packages("tidyverse")
```

This is becoming standard practice for how to load a library in a file, and if you get an error that the library doesn't exist, you can install the package easily by running the code within the comment (highlight `install.packages("tidyverse")` and run it).

## 6.4 Explore the gapminder data.frame

We will work with some of the data from the Gapminder project.

The data are on GitHub. Navigate there by going to:

[github.com > ohi-science > data-science-training > data > gapminder.csv](https://github.com/ohi-science/data-science-training/tree/master/data/gapminder.csv)

or by copy-pasting this in the browser: <https://github.com/OHI-Science/data-science-training/blob/master/data/gapminder.csv>

Have a look at the data. It's a .csv file, which you've probably encountered before, but GitHub has formatted it nicely so it's easy to look at. You can see that for every country and year, there are several columns with data in them.

### 6.4.1 read data with `readr::read_csv()`

We can read this data into R directly from GitHub, without downloading it. We can do that by clicking on the Raw button on the top-right of the data. This displays it as the raw csv file, without formatting. Copy the url:

<https://raw.githubusercontent.com/jules32/2017-11-30-MBARI/gh-pages/data/gapminder.csv>

Now, let's go back to RStudio. In our R Markdown, let's read this csv file and name the variable "gapminder". We will use the `read_csv()` function from the `readr` package (part of the tidyverse, so it's already installed!).

```
read gapminder csv. Note the readr:: prefix identifies which package it's in
gapminder <- readr::read_csv('https://raw.githubusercontent.com/jules32/2017-11-30-MBARI/gh-pages/data/')


```

Let's inspect:

```
explore the gapminder dataset
gapminder # this is super long! Let's inspect in different ways
```

Let's use `head` and `tail`:

```
head(gapminder) # shows first 6
tail(gapminder) # shows last 6

head(gapminder, 10) # shows first X that you indicate
tail(gapminder, 12) # guess what this does!
```

`str()` will provide a sensible description of almost anything: when in doubt, just `str()` some of the recently created objects to get some ideas about what to do next.

```
str(gapminder) # ?str - displays the structure of an object
```

`gapminder` is a `data.frame`. We aren't going to get into the other types of data receptacles today ('arrays', 'matrices'), because working with `data.frames` is what you should primarily use. Why?

- `data.frames` package related variables neatly together, great for analysis
- most functions, including the latest and greatest packages actually `require` that your data be in a `data.frame`
- `data.frames` can hold variables of different flavors such as
  - character data (country or continent names; “Characters (chr)”)
  - quantitative data (years, population; “Integers (int)” or “Numeric (num)”)
  - categorical information (male vs. female)

We can also see the `gapminder` variable in RStudio's Environment pane (top right)

More ways to learn basic info on a `data.frame`.

```
names(gapminder)
dim(gapminder) # ?dim dimension
ncol(gapminder) # ?ncol number of columns
nrow(gapminder) # ?nrow number of rows
```

We can combine using `c()` to reverse-engineer `dim()`! Just a side-note here, but I wanted to introduce you to `c()`: we'll use it later.

```
c(nrow(gapminder), ncol(gapminder)) # ?c combines values into a vector or list.
```

A statistical overview can be obtained with `summary()`

```
summary(gapminder)
```

#### 6.4.2 Look at the variables inside a `data.frame`

To specify a single variable from a `data.frame`, use the dollar sign `$`. The `$` operator is a way to extract or replace parts of an object—check out the help menu for `$`. It's a common operator you'll see in R.

```
gapminder$lifeExp # very long! hard to make sense of...
head(gapminder$lifeExp) # can do the same tests we tried before
```

```
str(gapminder$lifeExp) # it is a single numeric vector
summary(gapminder$lifeExp) # same information, just formatted slightly differently
```

## 6.5 dplyr basics

OK, so let's start wrangling with dplyr.

There are five `dplyr` functions that you will use to do the vast majority of data manipulations:

- `filter()`: pick observations by their values
- `select()`: pick variables by their names
- `mutate()`: create new variables with functions of existing variables
- `summarise()`: collapse many values down to a single summary
- `arrange()`: reorder the rows

These can all be used in conjunction with `group_by()` which changes the scope of each function from operating on the entire dataset to operating on it group-by-group. These six functions provide the verbs for a language of data manipulation.

All verbs work similarly:

1. The first argument is a data frame.
2. The subsequent arguments describe what to do with the data frame. You can refer to columns in the data frame directly without using `$`.
3. The result is a new data frame.

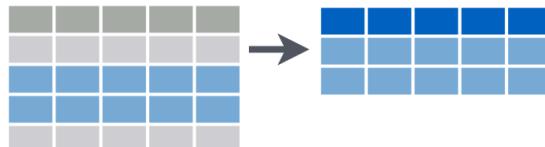
Together these properties make it easy to chain together multiple simple steps to achieve a complex result.

## 6.6 `filter()` subsets data row-wise (observations).

You will want to isolate bits of your data; maybe you want to just look at a single country or a few years. R calls this subsetting.

`filter()` is a function in `dplyr` that takes logical expressions and returns the rows for which all are TRUE. Visually, we are doing this (thanks RStudio for your cheatsheet):

### Subset Observations (Rows)



Remember your logical expressions from this morning? We'll use `<` and `==` here.

```
filter(gapminder, lifeExp < 29)
```

You can say this out loud: "Filter the gapminder data for life expectancy less than 29". Notice that when we do this, all the columns are returned, but just the rows that have the life expectancy less than 29. We've subsetted by row.

Let's try another: "Filter the gapminder data for the country Mexico".

```
filter(gapminder, country == "Mexico")
```

How about if we want two country names? We can't use the `==` operator here, because it can only operate on one thing at a time. We will use the `%in%` operator:

```
filter(gapminder, country %in% c("Mexico", "Peru"))
```

How about if we want Mexico in 2002? You can pass filter different criteria:

```
filter(gapminder, country == "Mexico", year == 2002)
```

## 6.7 Your turn

What is the mean life expectancy of Sweden? Hint: do this in 2 steps by assigning a variable and then using the `mean()` function.

Then, sync to Github.com (pull, stage, commit, push).

### 6.7.1 Answer

```
x <- filter(gapminder, country == "Sweden")
mean(x$lifeExp)
```

## 6.8 Meet the new pipe `%>%` operator

Before we go any further, we should exploit the new pipe operator that `dplyr` imports from the `magrittr` package by Stefan Bache. **This is going to change your data analytical life.** You no longer need to enact multi-operation commands by nesting them inside each other. And we won't need to make temporary variables like we did in the Sweden example above. This new syntax leads to code that is much easier to write and to read: it actually tells the story of your analysis.

Here's what it looks like: `%>%`. The RStudio keyboard shortcut: Ctrl + Shift + M (Windows), Cmd + Shift + M (Mac).

Let's demo then I'll explain:

```
gapminder %>% head()
```

This is equivalent to `head(gapminder)`. This pipe operator takes the thing on the left-hand-side and **pipes** it into the function call on the right-hand-side – literally, drops it in as the first argument.

Never fear, you can still specify other arguments to this function! To see the first 3 rows of Gapminder, we could say `head(gapminder, 3)` or this:

```
gapminder %>% head(3)
```

**I've advised you to think “gets” whenever you see the assignment operator, `<-`. Similary, you should think “and then” whenever you see the pipe operator, `%>%`.**

You are probably not impressed yet, but the magic will soon happen.

Fun break: check out this gif about `%>%` from Twitter.

# Subset Variables (Columns)

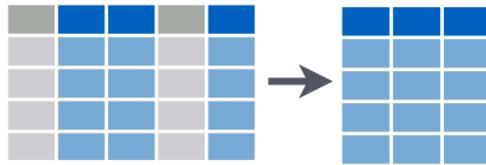


Figure 6.4:

## 6.9 `select()` subsets data column-wise (variables)

Back to `dplyr` ...

Use `select()` to subset the data on variables or columns.

Visually, we are doing this (thanks RStudio for your cheatsheet):

Here's a conventional call. Again, see that we can select multiple columns just with a comma, after we specify the data frame (`gapminder`).

```
select(gapminder, year, lifeExp)
```

But using what we just learned, with a pipe, we can do this:

```
gapminder %>% select(year, lifeExp)
```

Let's write it again but using multiple lines so it's nicer to read. And let's add a second pipe operator to pipe through `head`:

```
gapminder %>%
 select(year, lifeExp) %>%
 head(4)
```

Think: "Take `gapminder`, then select the variables `year` and `lifeExp`, then show the first 4 rows."

Being able to read a story out of code like this is really game-changing.

### 6.9.1 Revel in the convenience

Let's take the `gapminder` data and filter for the country Cambodia, and select 4 of the columns: `country`, `year`, `pop`, `gdpPercap`.

```
gapminder %>%
 filter(country == "Cambodia") %>%
 select(country, year, pop, gdpPercap)
```

But entering each column by hand can be tedious, especially since there are fewer columns we *don't* want. So instead, we can do:

```
gapminder %>%
 filter(country == "Cambodia") %>%
 select(-continent, -lifeExp) # you can use - to deselect columns
```

# Make New Variables

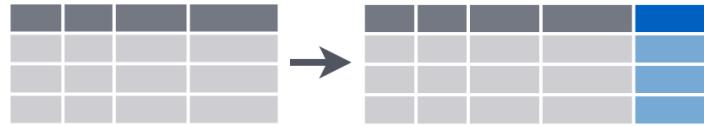


Figure 6.5:

## 6.10 mutate() adds new variables

Alright, let's keep going.

Let's say we needed to add an index column so we know which order these data came in. Let's not make a new variable, let's add a column to our gapminder data frame. How do we do that? With the `mutate()` function.

Visually, we are doing this (thanks RStudio for your cheatsheet):

We will name our new column index. We will name the new column 'index'; and we assign it with a single `=`. Notice that we can use the `nrow` function *within* our `mutate` call:

```
gapminder %>%
 mutate(index = 1:nrow(gapminder))
```

OK, let's do another example. Imagine we wanted to recover each country's GDP. After all, the Gapminder data has a variable for population and GDP per capita.

```
gapminder %>%
 mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPercap)
```

### 6.10.1 Your turn

Find the maximum `gdpPercap` of Egypt and Vietnam Create a new column.

Then, sync to Github.com (pull, stage, commit, push).

#### 6.10.1.1 Answer

```
gapminder %>%
 select(-continent, -lifeExp) %>% # not super necessary but to simplify
 filter(country == "Egypt") %>%
 mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPercap) %>%
 mutate(max_gdp = max(gdp))

you can also create multiple variables within the same mutate(), and line them up so they are easier
gapminder %>%
 select(-continent, -lifeExp) %>% # not super necessary but to simplify
 filter(country == "Vietnam") %>%
```

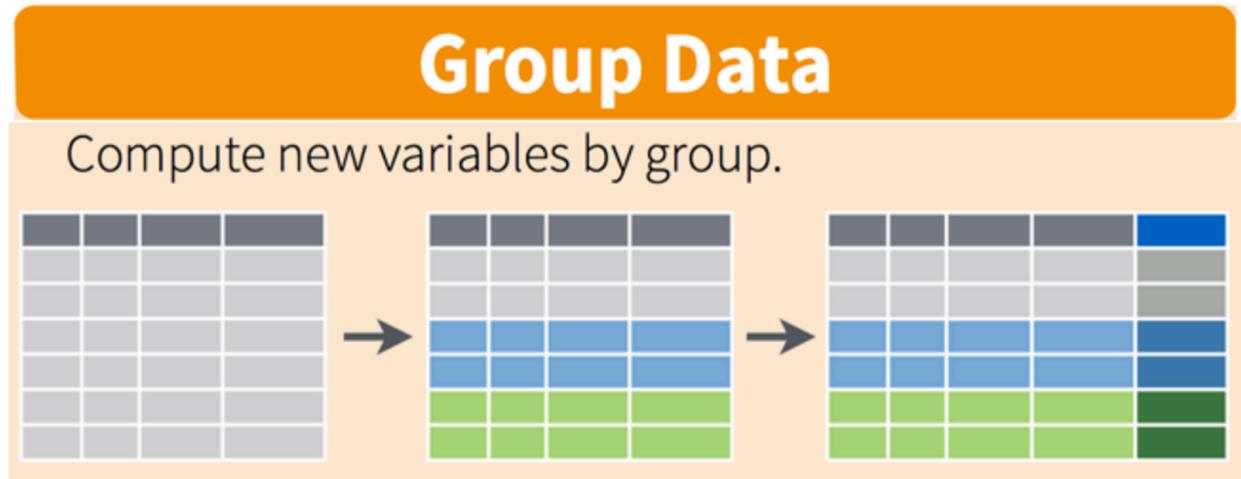


Figure 6.6:

```
mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPercap,
 max_gdp = max(gdp))
```

With the things we know so far, the answers you have are maybe a bit limiting. First, We had to act on Egypt and Vietnam separately, and repeat the same code. Copy-pasting like this is also super error prone.

And second, this `max_gdp` column is pretty redundant, because it's a repeated value a ton of times. Sometimes this is exactly what you want! You are now set up nicely to maybe take a proportion of `gdpPercap/max_gdp` for each year or something. But maybe you just wanted that `max_gdp` for something else. Let's keep going...

## 6.11 `group_by()` operates on groups

Let's tackle that first issue first. So how do we less painfully calculate the max `gdpPercap` for all countries?

Visually, we are doing this (thanks RStudio for your cheatsheet):

```
gapminder %>%
 group_by(country) %>%
 mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPercap,
 max_gdp = max(gdp)) %>%
 ungroup() # if you use group_by, also use ungroup() to save heartache later
```

So instead of filtering for a specific country, we've grouped by country, and then done the same operations. It's hard to see; let's look at a bunch at the tail:

```
gapminder %>%
 group_by(country) %>%
 mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPercap,
 max_gdp = max(gdp)) %>%
 ungroup() %>%
 tail(30)
```

OK, this is great. But what if this what we needed, a `max_gdp` value for each country. We don't need that kind of repeated value for each of the `max_gdp` values. Here's the next function:

### 6.11.1 `summarize()` with `group_by()`

We want to operate on a group, but actually collapse or distill the output from that group. The `summarize()` function will do that for us.

Visually, we are doing this (thanks RStudio for your cheatsheet):



Here we go:

```
gapminder %>%
 group_by(country) %>%
 mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPercap) %>%
 summarize(max_gdp = max(gdp)) %>%
 ungroup()
```

How cool is that! `summarize()` will actually only keep the columns that are grouped\_by or summarized. So if we wanted to keep other columns, we'd have to do it another way (we'll get into it tomorrow).

## 6.12 `arrange()` orders columns

This is ordered alphabetically, which is cool. But let's say we wanted to order it in ascending order for `max_gdp`. The dplyr function is `arrange()`.

```
gapminder %>%
 group_by(country) %>%
 mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPercap) %>%
 summarize(max_gdp = max(gdp)) %>%
 ungroup() %>%
 arrange(max_gdp)
```

### 6.12.1 Your turn

1. arrange your data frame in descending order (opposite of what we've done). Expect that this is possible:  
    `?arrange`
2. save your data frame as a variable
3. find the maximum life expectancy for countries in Asia. What is the earliest year you encounter? The latest? Hint: you can use `or base::max` and `dplyr::arrange()`...
4. Knit your RMarkdown file, and sync it to GitHub (pull, stage, commit, push)

### 6.12.1.1 Answer (no peeking!)

```
gapminder %>%
 filter(continent == 'Asia') %>%
 group_by(country) %>%
 filter(lifeExp == max(lifeExp)) %>%
 arrange(year)
```

## 6.13 All together now

We have done a pretty incredible amount of work in a few lines. Our whole analysis is this. Imagine the possibilities from here. It's very readable: you see the data as the first thing, it's not nested. Then, you can read the verbs. This is the whole thing, with explicit package calls from `readr::` and `dplyr::`:

```
gapminder-wrangle.R
J. Lowndes lowndes@nceas.ucsb.edu

load libraries
library(tidyverse) ## install.packages('tidyverse')

read in data
gapminder <- readr::read_csv('https://raw.githubusercontent.com/jules32/2017-11-30-MBARI/gh-pages/data/gapminder.csv')

summarize
max_gdp <- gapminder %>%
 dplyr::select(-continent, -lifeExp) %>% # or select(country, year, pop, gdpPerCap)
 dplyr::group_by(country) %>%
 dplyr::mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPerCap) %>%
 dplyr::summarize(max_gdp = max(gdp)) %>%
 dplyr::ungroup()
```

I actually am borrowing this “All together now” from Tony Fischetti’s blog post How `dplyr` replaced my most common R idioms). With that as inspiration, this is how what we have just done would look like in Base R.

### 6.13.1 Compare to base R

Let’s compare with some base R code to accomplish the same things. Base R requires subsetting with the `[rows, columns]` notation. This notation is something you’ll see a lot in base R. the brackets `[ ]` allow you to extract parts of an object. Within the brackets, the comma separates rows from columns.

If we don’t write anything after the comma, that means “all columns”. And if we don’t write anything before the comma, that means “all rows”.

Also, the `$` operator is how you access specific columns of your dataframe. You can also add new columns like we do with `mex$gdp`.

Here we will just calculate the max for one country, Mexico. Tomorrow we will learn how to do it for all the countries, like we did with `dplyr::group_by()`.

```
gapminder-wrangle.R --- baseR
J. Lowndes lowndes@nceas.ucsb.edu
```

```
Note the stringAsFactors = FALSE variable to avoid factors!
gapminder <- read.csv('https://raw.githubusercontent.com/jules32/2017-11-30-MBARI/gh-pages/data/gapminder.csv')

subsetting columns. Compare to `dplyr::select()`
x1 <- gapminder[, c('country', 'year', 'pop', 'gdpPercap')]

subsetting rows. Compare to `dplyr::filter()`
mex <- x1[x1$country == "Mexico",]

adding new columns. Compare to `dplyr::mutate()`.
mex$gdp <- mex$pop * mex$gdpPercap
mex$max_gdp <- max(mex$gdp)
```

Note too that the chain operator `%>%` that we used with the `tidyverse` lets us get away from the temporary variable `x1`.

### 6.13.2 Your Turn

Get your RMarkdown file cleaned up and sync it for the last time today!

#### 6.13.2.1 Answers

...

## 6.14 Key Points

- Data manipulation functions in `dplyr` allow you to `filter()` by rows and `select()` by columns, create new columns with `mutate()`, and `group_by()` unique column values to apply `summarize()` for new columns that define aggregate values across groupings.
- The “then” operator `%>%` allows you to chain successive operations without needing to define intermediary variables for creating the most parsimonious, easily read analysis.



# Chapter 7

## Wrangling (`tidyverse`)

### 7.1 Overview

Now you have some experience wrangling and working with tidy data. But we all know that not all data that you have are tidy. So how do we make data more tidy? With `tidyverse`.

#### Objectives

- learn `tidyverse` with gapminder package
- other wrangling: joins, binding
- practice RStudio-GitHub workflow
- your turn: use the data wrangling cheat sheet to explore window functions

#### Resources

These materials borrow heavily from:

- R for Data Science: Relational Data
- R for Data Science: Tidy Data

### 7.2 `tidyverse` basics

Often, data must be reshaped for it to become tidy data. What does that mean? There are four main verbs we'll use, which are essentially pairs of opposites:

- turn columns into rows (`gather()`),
- turn rows into columns (`spread()`),
- turn a character column into multiple columns (`separate()`),
- turn multiple character columns into a single column (`unite()`)

You use `spread()` and `gather()` to transform or reshape data between ‘wide’ to ‘long’ formats. ‘long’ format is the tidy data we are after, where:

- each column is a variable
- each row is an observation

In the ‘long’ format, you usually have 1 column for the observed variable and the other columns are ID variables.

For the ‘wide’ format each row is often a site/subject/patient and you have multiple observation variables containing the same type of data. These can be either repeated observations over time, or observation of multiple variables (or a mix of both). Data input may be simpler or some other applications may prefer the ‘wide’ format. However, many of R’s functions have been designed assuming you have ‘long’ format data.

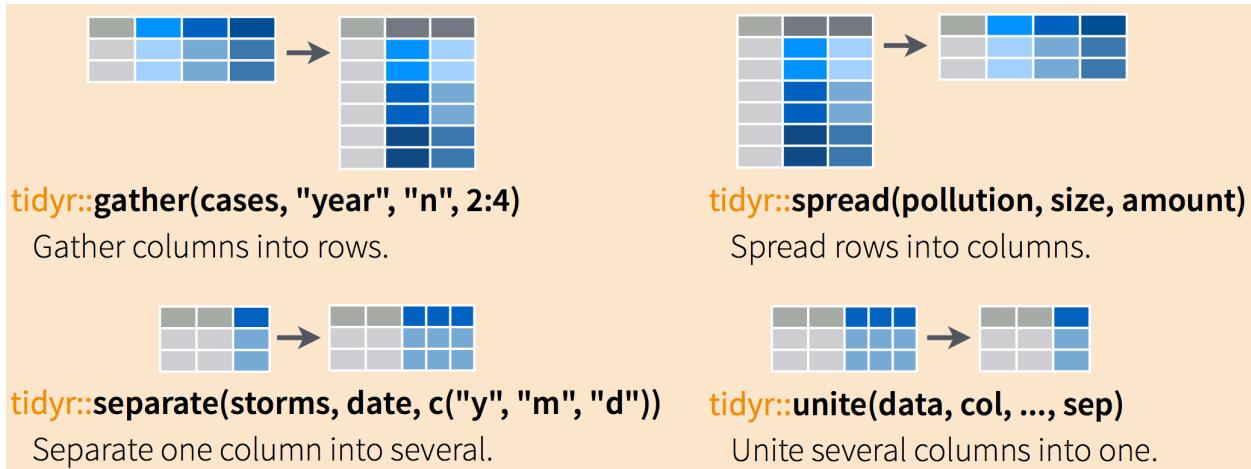


Figure 7.1:

These data formats mainly affect readability. For humans, the wide format is often more intuitive since we can often see more of the data on the screen due to its shape. However, the long format is more machine readable and is closer to the formatting of databases. The ID variables in our dataframes are similar to the fields in a database and observed variables are like the database values.

Question: Is gapminder a purely long, purely wide, or some intermediate format?

Sometimes, as with the gapminder dataset, we have multiple types of observed data. It is somewhere in between the purely ‘long’ and ‘wide’ data formats:

- 3 “ID variables” (`continent, country, year`)
- 3 “Observation variables” (`pop,lifeExp,gdpPercap`).

It’s pretty common to have data in this intermediate format in most cases despite not having ALL observations in 1 column, since all 3 observation variables have different units. But we can play with switching it to long format and wide to show what that means (i.e. long would be 4 ID variables and 1 observation variable).

**Note:** Generally, mathematical operations are better in long format, although some plotting functions actually work better with wide format.

### 7.2.1 Setup

We’ll work today in RMarkdown. You can either continue from the same RMarkdown as yesterday, or begin a new one.

#### Here’s what to do:

1. Clear your workspace (Session > Restart R)
2. New File > R Markdown..., save as something other than `gapminder-wrangle.Rmd` and delete irrelevant info, or just continue using `gapminder-wrangle.Rmd`

I’m going to write this in my R Markdown file:

Data wrangling with `tidyverse`, which is part of the tidyverse. We are going to tidy some data!

| continent | country                  | gdpPercap_1952 | gdpPercap_1957 | gdpPercap_1962 | gdpPercap_1967 | gdpPercap_1972 | gdpPercap_1977 |
|-----------|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Africa    | Algeria                  | 2449.008185    | 3013.976023    | 2550.81688     | 3246.991771    | 4182.663766    | 4910.416756    |
| Africa    | Angola                   | 3520.610273    | 3827.940465    | 4269.276742    | 5522.776375    | 5473.288005    | 3008.647355    |
| Africa    | Benin                    | 1062.7522      | 959.6010805    | 949.4990641    | 1035.831411    | 1085.796879    | 1029.161251    |
| Africa    | Botswana                 | 851.2411407    | 918.2325349    | 983.6539764    | 1214.709294    | 2263.611114    | 3214.857818    |
| Africa    | Burkina Faso             | 543.2552413    | 617.1834648    | 722.5120206    | 794.8265597    | 854.7359763    | 743.3870368    |
| Africa    | Burundi                  | 339.2964587    | 379.5646281    | 355.2032273    | 412.9775136    | 464.0995039    | 556.1032651    |
| Africa    | Cameroon                 | 1172.667655    | 1313.048099    | 1399.607441    | 1508.453148    | 1684.146528    | 1783.432873    |
| Africa    | Central African Republic | 1071.310713    | 1190.844328    | 1193.068753    | 1136.056615    | 1070.013275    | 1109.374338    |
| Africa    | Chad                     | 1178.665927    | 1308.495577    | 1389.817618    | 1196.810565    | 1104.103987    | 1133.98495     |
| Africa    | Comoros                  | 1102.990936    | 1211.148548    | 1406.648278    | 1876.029643    | 1937.577675    | 1172.603047    |
| Africa    | Congo Dem. Rep.          | 780.5423257    | 905.8602303    | 896.3146335    | 861.5932424    | 904.8960685    | 795.757282     |
| Africa    | Congo Rep.               | 2125.621418    | 2315.056572    | 2464.783157    | 2677.939642    | 3213.152683    | 3259.178978    |
| Africa    | Cote d'Ivoire            | 1388.594732    | 1500.895925    | 1728.869428    | 2052.050473    | 2378.201111    | 2517.736547    |

Figure 7.2:

### 7.2.2 load tidyverse (which has tidyr inside)

First load `tidyverse` in an R chunk. You already have installed the tidyverse, so you should be able to just load it like this (using the comment so you can run `install.packages("tidyverse")` easily if need be):

```
library(tidyverse) # install.packages("tidyverse")
```

## 7.3 Explore gapminder data — wide format.

Yesterday we started off with the gapminder data in a format that was already tidy. But what if it weren't? Let's look at a different version of those data.

The data are on GitHub. Navigate there by going to:

[github.com > ohi-science > data-science-training > data > gapminder\\_wide.csv](https://github.com/ohi-science/data-science-training/tree/main/data/gapminder_wide.csv)

or by copy-pasting this in the browser: [https://github.com/OHI-Science/data-science-training/blob/master/data/gapminder\\_wide.csv](https://github.com/OHI-Science/data-science-training/blob/master/data/gapminder_wide.csv)

Have a look at the data. You can see there are a lot more columns than the version we looked at before. This format is pretty common, because it can be a lot more intuitive to *enter* data in this way.

But we want it to be in a tidy way so that we can work with it more easily. So here we go.

## 7.4 gather() data from wide to long format

Read in the data from GitHub. Remember, you need to click on the 'Raw' button first so you can read it directly. Let's also read in the gapminder data from yesterday so that we can use it to compare later on.

```
wide format
gap_wide <- read.csv('https://raw.githubusercontent.com/OHI-Science/data-science-training/main/data/gapminder_wide.csv')
```

```
yesterday's format (intermediate)
gapminder <- read.csv('https://raw.githubusercontent.com/OHI-Science/data-science-training/master/data/gapminder.csv')
```

Let's have a look:

```
head(gap_wide)
str(gap_wide)
```

While wide format is nice for data entry, it's not nice for calculations. Some of the columns are a mix of variable (e.g. "gdpPercap") and data ("1952"). What if you were asked for the mean population after 1990 in Algeria? Possible, but ugly. But we know it doesn't need to be so ugly. Let's tidy it back to the format we've been using.

Question: let's talk this through together. If we're trying to turn the `gap_wide` format into `gapminder` format, what structure does it have that we like? And that we want to change?

- We like the continent and country columns. We won't want to change those.
- For long format, we'd want just 1 column identifying the variable name (`tidyR` calls this a '**key**'), and 1 column for the data (`tidyR` calls this the '**value**').
- For intermediate format, we'd want 3 columns for `gdpPercap`, `lifeExp`, and `pop`.
- We would like year as a separate column.

Let's get it to long format. We'll have to do this in 2 steps. The first step is to take all of those column names (e.g. `lifeExp_1970`) and make them a variable in a new column, and transfer the values into another column. Let's learn by doing:

Let's have a look at `gather()`'s help:

```
?gather
```

Question: What is our **key-value pair**?

We need to name two new variables in the key-value pair, one for the key, one for the value. It can be hard to wrap your mind around this, so let's give it a try. Let's name them `obstype_year` and `obs_value`.

Here's the start of what we'll do:

```
gap_long <- gap_wide %>%
 gather(key = obstype_year,
 value = obs_values)
```

We got a warning message. This means that `gather()` worked, but maybe not how we wanted it to do.

Although we were already planning to inspect our work, let's definitely do it now:

```
str(gap_long)
head(gap_long)
tail(gap_long)
```

So we have successfully reshaped our dataframe, but really not how we wanted. Very important to check, and listen to that warning message—dropping attributes seems very suspicious.

What went wrong? Notice that it didn't know that we wanted to keep `continent` and `country` untouched; we need to give it more information about which columns we want reshaped. We can do this in several ways.

A good way: identify the columns by name. Listing them out by explicit name can be a good approach if there are a few. But there's a lot here: over 30. But I'm not going to list them out here, and way too much potential for error if you tried `gdpPercap_1952`, `gdpPercap_1957`, `gdpPercap_1962...`. But we could use some of `dplyr`'s awesome helper functions — because we expect that there is a better way to do this!

```
gap_long <- gap_wide %>%
 gather(key = obstype_year,
 value = obs_values,
```

```
dplyr::starts_with('pop'),
dplyr::starts_with('lifeExp'),
dplyr::starts_with('gdpPercap'))

str(gap_long)
head(gap_long)
tail(gap_long)
```

Success! And there is another way that is nice to use if your columns don't follow such a structured pattern: you can exclude the columns you *don't* want.

```
gap_long <- gap_wide %>%
 gather(key = obstype_year,
 value = obs_values,
 -continent, -country)

str(gap_long)
head(gap_long)
tail(gap_long)
```

To recap:

Inside `gather()` we first name the new column for the new ID variable (`obstype_year`), the name for the new amalgamated observation variable (`obs_value`), then the names of the old observation variable. We could have typed out all the observation variables, but as in the `select()` function (see `dplyr` lesson), we can use the `starts_with()` argument to select all variables that starts with the desired character string. Gather also allows the alternative syntax of using the `-` symbol to identify which variables are not to be gathered (i.e. ID variables).

OK, but we're not done yet. `obstype_year` actually contains two pieces of information, the observation type (pop, lifeExp, or gdpPercap) and the year. We can use the `separate()` function to split the character strings into multiple variables.

?`separate` -> the main arguments are `separate(data, col, into, sep ...)`. So we need to specify which column we want separated, name the new columns that we want to create, and specify what we want it to separate by. Since the `obstype_year` variable has observation types and years separated by a `_`, we'll use that.

```
gap_long <- gap_wide %>%
 gather(key = obstype_year,
 value = obs_values,
 -continent, -country) %>%
 separate(obstype_year,
 into = c('obs_type', 'year'),
 sep = "_")
```

No warning messages...still we inspect:

```
str(gap_long)
head(gap_long)
tail(gap_long)
```

Excellent. This is long format: every row is a unique observation. Yay!

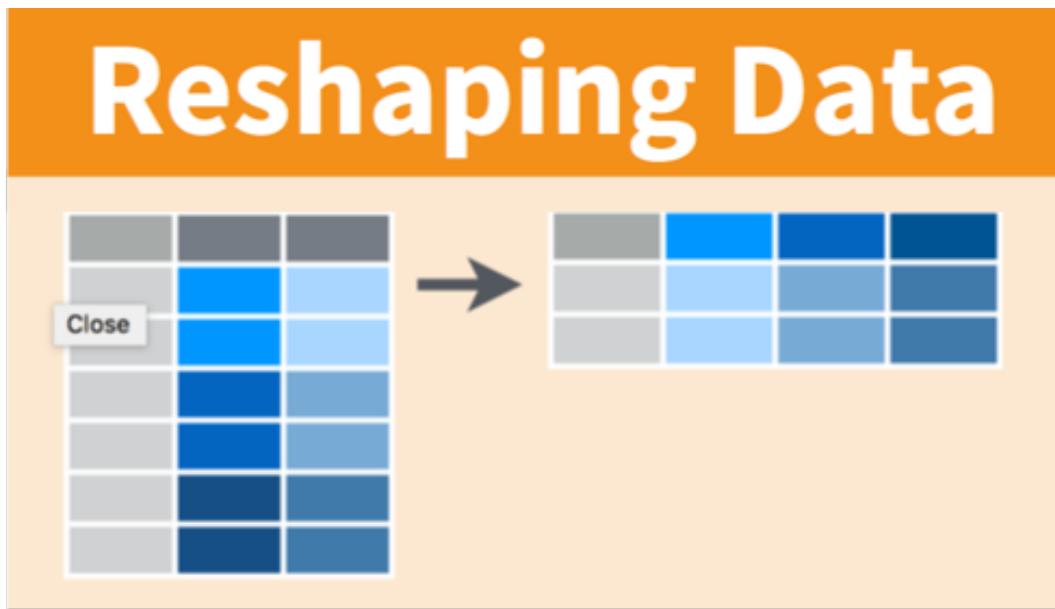


Figure 7.3:

#### 7.4.1 Your turn

1. Using `gap_long`, calculate the mean life expectancy, population, and gdpPercap for each continent.  
**Hint:** use the `dplyr::group_by()` and `dplyr::summarize()` functions
2. What other helper functions can you use with `dplyr::select()`? Would any be useful in our example above? Why or why not?
3. Knit the R Markdown file and sync to Github (pull, stage, commit, push)

```
solution (no peeking!)
gap_long %>%
 group_by(continent, obs_type) %>%
 summarize(means = mean(obs_values))
```

## 7.5 `spread()` data from long to intermediate format

Alright! Now just to double-check our work, let's use the opposite of `gather()` to spread our observation variables back to the original format with the aptly named `spread()`. You pass `spread()` the key and value pair, which is now `obs_type` and `obs_values`.

```
gap_normal <- gap_long %>%
 spread(obs_type, obs_values)
```

No warning messages is good...but still let's check:

```
dim(gap_normal)
dim(gapminder)
names(gap_normal)
names(gapminder)
```

Now we've got an intermediate dataframe `gap_normal` with the same dimensions as the original `gapminder`, but the order of the variables is different. Let's fix that before checking if they are `all.equal()`.

### 7.5.1 Your turn

Reorder the columns in “`gap_normal`” to match “`gapminder`”.

#### 7.5.1.1 Answer (no peeking!)

```
one way with dplyr and %>%
gap_normal <- gap_normal %>%
 select(country, continent, year, lifeExp, pop, gdpPercap)

another way with base R
gap_normal <- gap_normal[,names(gapminder)]
```

Now let's check if they are `all.equal` (?`all.equal`) is a handy test

```
all.equal(gap_normal, gapminder)
```

Hmm. Our `all.equal()` test didn't pass. Let's try to figure out why:

```
head(gap_normal)
head(gapminder)
```

Ah, they are ordered differently. We're almost there, the original was ordered by `country`, `continent`, then `year`.

```
gap_normal <- gap_normal %>%
 arrange(country, continent, year)

all.equal(gap_normal, gapminder)
```

Better...

```
str(gap_normal)
str(gapminder)
```

Mine currently shows that the in `gapminder`, “`year`” is an integer (`int`), but in `gap_normal`, “`year`” is a character. So let's change that and see if that helps:

```
gap_normal <- gap_normal %>%
 mutate(year = as.integer(year))

all.equal(gap_normal, gapminder)
```

Hooray!

```
str(gap_normal)
str(gapminder)
```

(In the past, mine has shown a slight difference because one is a `data.frame` and one is a `tbl_df`, which is similar to a `data.frame`. We won't get into this difference now, I'm feeling good about these data sets! We've gone from the longest format back to the intermediate and we didn't introduce any errors in our code.)

## 7.6 Your turn

1. Convert “gap\_long” all the way back to gap\_wide. Hint: you’ll need to create appropriate labels for all our new variables (time\*metric combinations) with the opposite of separate: `tidy::unite()`.
2. Knit the R Markdown file and sync to Github (pull, stage, commit, push)

### 7.6.1 Answer (no peeking)

```
head(gap_long) # remember the columns

gap_wide_new <- gap_long %>%
 # first unite obs_type and year into a new column called var_names. Separate by -
 unite(col = var_names, obs_type, year, sep = "_") %>%
 # then spread var_names out by key-value pair.
 spread(key = var_names, value = obs_values)
str(gap_wide_new)
```

### 7.6.2 clean up and save your .Rmd

Spend some time cleaning up and saving `gapminder-wrangle.Rmd`. Restart R. In RStudio, use *Session > Restart R*. Otherwise, quit R with `q()` and re-launch it.

This morning’s .Rmd could look something like this:

```
load tidyverse
library(tidyverse) # install.packages("tidyverse")

load wide data
gap_wide <- read.csv('https://raw.githubusercontent.com/OHI-Science/data-science-training/master/data/gapminder_wide.csv')

head(gap_wide)
str(gap_wide)

practice tidyr::gather() wide to long
gap_long <- gap_wide %>%
 gather(key = obstype_year,
 value = obs_values,
 -continent, -country)
or
gap_long <- gap_wide %>%
 gather(key = obstype_year,
 value = obs_values,
 dplyr::starts_with('pop'),
 dplyr::starts_with('lifeExp'),
 dplyr::starts_with('gdpPercap'))

gather() and separate() to create our original gapminder
gap_long <- gap_wide %>%
 gather(key = obstype_year,
 value = obs_values,
 -continent, -country) %>%
 separate(obstype_year,
```

```

 into = c('obs_type', 'year'),
 sep = "_")

practice: can still do calculations in long format
gap_long %>%
 group_by(continent, obs_type) %>%
 summarize(means = mean(obs_values))

spread() from normal to wide
gap_normal <- gap_long %>%
 spread(obs_type, obs_values) %>%
 select(country, continent, year, lifeExp, pop, gdpPercap)

check that all.equal()
all.equal(gap_normal, gapminder)

unite() and spread(): convert gap_long to gap_wide
head(gap_long) # remember the columns

gap_wide_new <- gap_long %>%
 # first unite obs_type and year into a new column called var_names. Separate by _
 unite(col = var_names, obs_type, year, sep = "_") %>%
 # then spread var_names out by key-value pair.
 spread(key = var_names, value = obs_values)
str(gap_wide_new)

```

### 7.6.3 complete: other tidyverse awesomeness

- `complete()` For this, let's look at Jarrett Byrnes' blog on the topic:  
<http://www.imachordata.com/you-complete-me/>
- 

## 7.7 Other links

- Tidying up Data - Env Info - Rmd
- Data wrangling with dplyr and tidyverse - Tyler Clavelle & Dan Ovando - Rmd



# Chapter 8

## Extended analysis

### 8.1 Objectives and Resources

#### Objectives

exposure and lots of practice:

Do a little analysis: for a continent, loop through and make figs, save them each.

- importing and writing data
  - write a local copy of gapminder data to data/ folder
- strings and filenames:
  - Jenny Bryan pres, list.files(), file.path()
  - stringr() <http://r4ds.had.co.nz/strings.html>
- for loops introduce R Script
  - save ggplot figs (also using stringr, paste()) <http://r4ds.had.co.nz/iteration.html>
- if statements (conditionals)
  - write message() to yourself
- installing packages from github
- also mention: lubridate, purrr (don't get into them)
- end with a ton of resources: <https://peerj.com/collections/50-practicaldatascistats/>

FINISH: organization and workflows source, set up a folder for figs, intermediate analyses, final outputs (could even do an R package, etc).

#### Resources

When trying to see if a number or text is equal to some *single* value, use `==`. To check it against *multiple* values, use `%in%`. mine's “%!in%” <- Negate(“%in%”)

`list.files` `file.path()` `message()` (with an if statement maybe) get file extensions <https://stat.ethz.ch/R-manual/R-devel/library/tools/html/fileutils.html>

- installing packages from github
- `left_join`

You'll soon have questions that are outside the scope of this workshop, how do you find answers?

## 8.2 Create an R script

OK, now, let's go back to RStudio, and get ourselves back into learning R. We are going to create an R script. What is an R script? It's a text file with a .R extension. Writing R commands in the console like we did this morning is great, but limited; it's hard to keep track of and hard to efficiently share with others. Plus, as your analyses get more complicated, you need to be able to see them all in one place.

Go to File > New File > R Script (or click the green plus in the top left corner).

Let's set up this script for the rest of the day. Let's start off with a few comments so that we know what it is for, and save it.

By creating a script, we are seeing the 4th pane of the RStudio console, which is essentially a text editor.

```
swc-mbari.R
learning R
J Lowndes lowndes@nceas.uscb.edu
```

Now, let's save it. I'm going to call my file `swc-mbari.R`.

OK. Now let's practice with some of those commands that we were working on this morning.

Below your comments, type:

```
x <- seq(1:15)
```

Now, hitting return does not execute this command; remember, it's just a text file. To execute it, we need to get what we typed in the script down into the console. How do we do it? There are several ways (let's do each of them):

1. copy-paste this line into the console.
2. select the line (or simply put the cursor there), and click 'Run'. This is available from
  - a. the bar above the script (green arrow)
  - b. the menu bar: Code > Run Selected Line(s)
  - c. keyboard shortcut: command-return
3. source the script, which means running the whole thing. This is also great for to see if there are any typos in your code that you've missed. You can do this by:
  - a. clicking Source (blue arrow in the bar above the script).
  - b. typing `source('swc-mbari.R')` in the console (or from another R file!!!).

## 8.3 Importing data

TODO

Remember you'll use `install.packages("package-name-in-quotes")` and then `library(package-name)`, and then you can explore the help or vignettes. And also, of course, Google to see how to use them!

- `readr` to read in .csv files
- `readxl` to read in Excel files
- `stringr` to work with strings
- `lubridate` to work with dates

`purrr::` LOVE LISTS - more efficient than for loops - plays nicely with pipes repurrsive

Show how piping can be used in normal model fitting too (get away from nested stuff)

## 8.4 Repeating operations with for loops

Let's say we want to subset a few countries and plot pop through time. We could do it the way above, which would look like the following:

```
plot population of some countries
mexico <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == "Mexico")
plot(mexico$year, mexico$pop)
dev.print(pdf, "mexico.pdf")

panama <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == "Panama")
plot(panama$year, panama$pop)
dev.print(pdf, "panama.pdf")

ecuador <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == "Ecuador")
plot(ecuador$year, ecuador$pop)
dev.print(pdf, "ecuador")
```

But you can see already it's a lot of text, which means typo-prone and hard to read. Even if you copy-paste each one, there's a lot of copy-paste, and is very typo-prone. Plus, what if you wanted to instead plot lifeExp? You'd have to remember to change it each time...it gets messy quick. And we're just doing it with 3 countries here; what if we wanted to do it to all 142 countries? Eek.

Better with a for loop. This will let us cycle through and do what we want to each thing in turn. If you want to iterate over a set of values, and perform the same operation on each, a `for` loop will do the job.

The basic structure of a `for` loop is:

```
for(iterator in set of values){
 do a thing
}
```

Let's paste from what we had before, and modify it. Also, the `set of values` is the list of countries (`country_list`), and we want to iterate through each country (let's spell it `cntry` so it's distinctive).

```
for (cntry in country_list) {
 mexico <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == "Mexico")
 plot(mexico$year, mexico$pop)
}
```

We can't call it `mexico` anymore, but we could call it something more general. And let's comment the `plot()` line out while we build this, and add a `print` statement to see if it's behaving like we think it is.

```
for (cntry in country_list) {
 cntry_subset <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == cntry)
 # plot(mexico$year, mexico$pop)
 print(cntry_subset)
}
```

Question: what is the variable `cntry_subset` right now, after running the for loop?

Is this doing what we think it's doing? Let's create the country list and print the results each time to test our progress:

```
country_list <- c("Mexico", "Panama", "Ecuador") # identify the thing to loop through
for (cntry in country_list) {
 cntry_subset <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == cntry)
 # plot(mexico$year, mexico$pop)
 print(cntry_subset)
```

```
}
```

Excellent. Let's move on with the plot.

```
country_list <- c("Mexico", "Panama", "Ecuador")
for (cntry in country_list) {
 cntry_subset <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == cntry)
 plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$pop)
 dev.print(pdf, paste0(cntry, ".pdf")) # ?paste0() will paste a string
}
```

Great! And it doesn't matter if we just use these three countries or all the countries—let's try it.

First let's create a figure directory and make sure it saves there since it's going to get out of hand quickly:

```
dir.create('figures') # this will be: software-carpentry/figures

country_list <- unique(gapminder$country) # ?unique() returns the unique values
for (cntry in country_list) {
 cntry_subset <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == cntry)
 plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$pop)
 dev.print(pdf, paste0("figures/", cntry, ".pdf")) # don't forget the `/`: it's a path!
}
```

So that took a little longer than just the 3, but still super fast. For loops are sometimes just the thing you need to iterate over many things in your analyses.

Now let's say we also want to record the mean population of each country. We'd add a line to the for loop, and comment out all the plotting for now (to save time, you could also just leave it):

```
dir.create('figures') # this will be: software-carpentry/figures

country_list <- unique(gapminder$country)
for (cntry in country_list) {
 cntry_subset <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == cntry)
 # plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$pop)
 # dev.print(pdf, paste0("figures/", cntry, ".pdf"))

 pop_mean <- mean(cntry_subset$pop)
 print(paste('mean pop for', cntry, 'is', pop_mean))
}
```

We know it worked since it printed correctly. But we didn't capture it: `cntry_subset` is just Zimbabwe. Let's create an object outside the loop and add to it each time.

```
dir.create('figures') # this will be: software-carpentry/figures

country_list <- unique(gapminder$country) # ?unique() returns the unique values
country_pop_mean <- data.frame()

for (cntry in country_list) {
 cntry_subset <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == cntry)
 # plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$pop)
 # dev.print(pdf, paste0("figures/", cntry, ".pdf"))

 pop_mean <- mean(cntry_subset$pop)
 # print(paste('mean pop for', cntry, 'is', pop_mean))
 country_pop_mean <- rbind(country_pop_mean, data.frame(cntry, pop_mean))
```

```
}
```

This approach can be useful, but ‘growing your results’ (building the result object incrementally) is computationally inefficient, so avoid it when you are iterating through a lot of values.

For loops can also lead to temporary variables that you don’t need. But they can be really useful at times.

## 8.5 conditional statements with if and else

Often when we’re coding we want to control the flow of our actions. This can be done by setting actions to occur only if a condition or a set of conditions are met.

```
if
if (condition is true) {
 do something
}

if ... else
if (condition is true) {
 do something
} else { # that is, if the condition is false,
 do something different
}
```

Say, for example, that in addition to saving population figures for all countries, we want to save life expectancy figures for countries in Asia only.

```
dir.create('figures') # this will be: software-carpentry/figures

country_list <- unique(gapminder$country) # ?unique() returns the unique values
country_pop_mean <- data.frame()
for (cntry in country_list) {
 cntry_subset <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == cntry)
 # plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$pop)
 # dev.print(pdf, paste0("figures/", cntry, ".pdf"))

 pop_mean <- mean(cntry_subset$pop)
 # print(paste('mean pop for', cntry, 'is', pop_mean))
 country_pop_mean <- rbind(country_pop_mean, data.frame(cntry, pop_mean))

 ## if Asia, calculate mean(lifeExp)
 if (unique(cntry_subset$continent) == "Asia") { # read: if (the continent is Asia) {then}
 plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$lifeExp)
 dev.print(pdf, paste0("figures/", cntry, "_lifeExp.pdf")) # change the filename
 }
}
```

And if the country is in Africa, let’s plot the mean GDP.

```
dir.create('figures') # this will be: software-carpentry/figures

country_list <- unique(gapminder$country) # ?unique() returns the unique values
country_pop_mean <- data.frame()
for (cntry in country_list) {
 cntry_subset <- subset(gapminder, subset = country == cntry)
```

```
plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$pop)
dev.print(pdf, paste0("figures/", cntry, ".pdf"))

pop_mean <- mean(cntry_subset$pop)
print(paste('mean pop for', cntry, 'is', pop_mean))
country_pop_mean <- rbind(country_pop_mean, data.frame(cntry, pop_mean))

if Asia, calculate mean(lifeExp)
if (unique(cntry_subset$continent) == "Asia") { # read: if (the continent is Asia) {then}
 plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$lifeExp)
 dev.print(pdf, paste0("figures/", cntry, "_lifeExp.pdf"))
} else if (unique(cntry_subset$continent) == "Africa") {
 plot(cntry_subset$year, cntry_subset$gdpPercap)
 dev.print(pdf, paste0("figures/", cntry, "_gdpPercap.pdf")) # change the filename
}
}
```

### 8.5.1 TODO: variable classes?

Let's explore a numeric variable: life expectancy.

```
explore numeric variable
summary(gapminder$lifeExp)
hist(gapminder$lifeExp)
```

Let's explore a categorical variable (stored as a *factor* in R): continent.

```
explore factor variable
summary(gapminder$continent)
levels(gapminder$continent)
nlevels(gapminder$continent)
hist(gapminder$continent) # whaaaa!?
```

This error is because of what factors are ‘under the hood’: R is really storing integer codes 1, 2, 3 here, but represent them as text to us. Factors can be problematic to us because of this, but you can learn to navigate with them. There are resources to learn how to properly care and feed for factors.

One thing you'll learn is how to visualize factors with which functions/packages.

```
class(gapminder$continent) # ?class returns the class type of the object
table(gapminder$continent) # ?table builds a table based on factor levels
class(table(gapminder$continent)) # this has morphed the factor...
hist(table(gapminder$continent)) # so we can plot!
```

I don't want us to get too bogged down with what's going on with `table()` and plotting factors, but I want to expose you to these situations because you will encounter them. Googling the error messages you get, and knowing how to look for good responses is a critical skill. (I tend to look for responses from stackoverflow.com that are recent and have green checks, and ignore snarky comments).

Exercise with your neighbor: Explore `gapminder$gdpPercap`. What kind of data is it? So which commands do you use?

# Chapter 9

## Collaborate with GitHub

### 9.1 Overview

#### Objectives

- contribute to a repo that you don't own
  - give permission to a collaborator
  - open as a new RStudio project!
  - collaborate with a partner, explore github.com blame, history
  - practice more ggplot2 collab
1. add their neighbor as a collaborator to their repo
  2. practice more; make changes to their repo, and to their neighbor's.

#### Resources

### 9.2 pull request to your friend's repo

### 9.3 create gh-pages repo and give someone permission

- Rmd analysis