# Introduction to R

Marco Chiapello 06-07/07/2016

Center for Proteomics University of Cambridge mc983@cam.ac.uk

# **Overview**

Introduction

Basic concepts in R

Vector

R packages

Data structures

# **RULES**

- 1. EVERY time you do not understand... RAISE YOUR HAND
- 2. There are **NOT** stupid questions
- 3. Fill free to interrupt me every time you need

# Introduction

#### What R is?

# The R Project for Statistical Computing

- R is a free software environment for statistical computing and graphics
- Open source and cross platform (UNIX platforms, Windows and MacOS)
- Extensive graphics capabilities
- Diverse range of add-on packages
- Active community of developers
- Thorough documentation

# The R Project for Statistical Computing

You can find R here: https://www.r-project.org



#### Download

#### R Project

About R Logo Contributors What's New? Mailing Lists Bug Tracking Development Site Conferences Search

#### R Foundation

Foundation Members Donors Donate

#### Documentation Manuals FAQs

The R Journal Books Certification Other

#### The R Project for Statistical Computing

#### **Getting Started**

R is a free software environment for statistical computing and graphics. It compiles and runs on a wide variety of UNIX platforms, Windows and MacOS. To download R, please choose your preferred CRAN mirror.

If you have questions about R like how to download and install the software, or what the license terms are, please read our answers to frequently asked questions before you send an email

#### News

- R version 3.3.1 (Bug in Your Hair) prerelease versions will appear starting Saturday 2016-06-11. Final release is scheduled for Tuesday 2016-06-21.
- R version 3.3.0 (Supposedly Educational) has been released on 2016-05-03.
- . R version 3.2.5 (Very, Very Secure Dishes) has been released on 2016-04-14. This is a rebadging of the quick-fix release 3,2,4-revised.
- . Notice XQuartz users (Mac OS X) A security issue has been detected with the Sparkle update mechanism used by XQuartz. Avoid updating over insecure channels.
- . The R Logo is available for download in high-resolution PNG or SVG formats.
- . useRI 2016, will take place at Stanford University, CA, USA, June 27 June 30, 2016.
- . The R Journal Volume 7/2 is available.
- R version 3.2.3 (Wooden Christmas-Tree) has been released on 2015-12-10.
- R version 3.1.3 (Smooth Sidewalk) has been released on 2015-03-09.

# The R Project for Statistical Computing

- R version 3.3.1 (released 2016-06-21)
- Currently, the CRAN (Comprehensive R Archive Network) package repository features 8609 available packages
  - https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/available\_packages\_by\_name.html
- Currently, the Bioconductor repository features 1211 available packages
  - http://www.bioconductor.org
- Executed using command line, or a graphical user interface (GUI)
- On this course, we use the RStudio GUI
  - www.rstudio.com

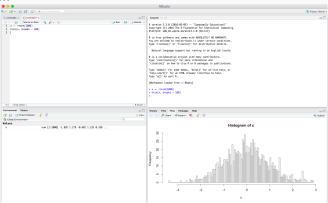
# **Getting started**

 R is a program which, once installed on your system, can be launched and is immediately ready to take input directly from the user

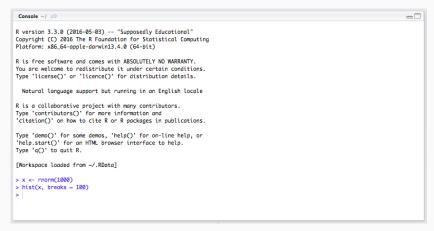
R can be launched in 2 ways:

- 1. From command line
  - To start R you need to enter the console (also called terminal or shell)
  - ullet To start R, at the prompt simply type: R
- 2. Using RStudio
  - To launch RStudio, find the RStudio icon and double-click

Since we will use RStudio in this course, let's have a look of the program

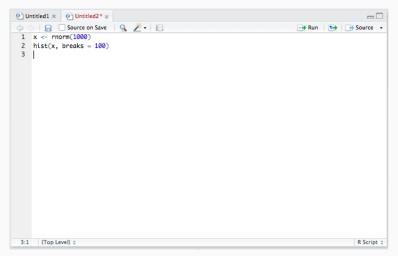


#### R console



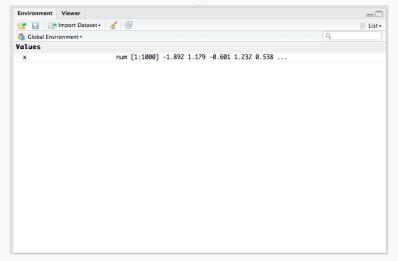
It is the place where you can interactively run R commands

# Source editor for R scripts



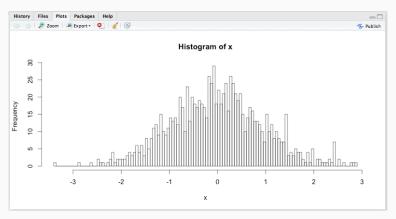
It is the place where you can write your scripts

# Workspace



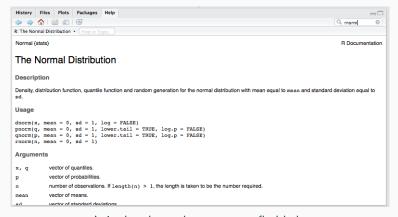
It is the place where you can view object in the global environment

# Plot pannel



It is the place where you can view your plots

# R help



It is the place where you can find help

The GUI is divided into 4 main sub-windows
These sub-windows are customizable



# Basic concepts in R

 $Based\ on\ https://github.com/lgatto/Teaching {\tt Material/tree/master/\_basicr}$ 

# The R syntax

```
1 ### This function checks that all the plot IDs (listed in the 'plots.csv' file)
 2 ### occur in the survey file ('surveys.csv'). If all the plots are found, the
 3 ### function shows a message and returns `TRUE`, otherwise the function emits a
 4 ### warning, and returns 'FALSE'
    check plots <- function(survey file="data/surveys.csv",
 6 +
                             plot file="data/plots.csv") {
 7
 8
        ## load files
 9
        srvv <- read.csv(file=survev file. stringsAsFactors=FALSE)</pre>
10
        plts <- read.csv(file=plot file, stringsAsFactors=FALSE)
11
12
        ## Get unique plot_id
        unique srvv plots <- unique(srvvsplot id)
13
14
15 +
        if (all(unique_srvy_plots %in% plts$plot_id)) {
16
          message("Everything looks good.")
17
          return(TRUE)
18 -
        } else {
          warning("Something is wrong.")
19
20
          return(FALSE)
21
22
23
24
    check_plots()
25
    surveys <- read.csv(file="data/surveys.csv", stringsAsFactors=FALSE)
27
    plots <- read.csv(file="data/plots.csv", stringsAsFactors=FALSE)</pre>
28
29
    nrow(surveys)
    ncol(survevs)
31
    dim(plots)
32
33
34 unique(survevs\(\frac{1}{2}\)species)
```

#### **Numbers**

#### Element to notice:

- functions
- the assignment operator <-
- the = for arguments
- the comments # and how they are used to document function and its content
- the \$ operator
- Point to indentation and consistency in spacing to improve clarity

### Numbers

The command line can be used as a calculator

```
> 5 + 7
[1] 12
> 5 - 7
[1] -2
> 5 * 7
[1] 35
> 5 / 7
[1] 0.7142857
```

Note: The number in the square brackets is an indicator of the position in the output

### **Numbers**

You can solve simple or complex calculations

But, of course, R is not a calculator

### **Variables**

A **variable** is a letter or word which takes (or contains) a value. We use the assignment 'operator', <-

- We can assign a number to a variable
- > x <- 5
- > x
- [1] 5
- We can assign the result of an operation to a variable
- > y <- 5 + 7
- > y
- [1] 12

# **Variables**

- We can assign use the variables to perform calculation

- We can assign the change the content of the variable

```
> x
[1] 5
> x <- x - y
> x
[1] -7
```

### **Function**

**Functions** in R perform operations on arguments (the input(s) to the function).

Arguments are always contained in parentheses, i.e. curved brackets (), separated by commas.

```
> sum(3, 4, 5, 6)
[1] 18
> max(3, 4, 5, 6)
[1] 6
> min(3, 4, 5, 6)
[1] 3
```

### **Function extention**

R contains a lot of pre-builtin functions, but through the so called packages is possible extend the R functionalities enormously. Alternatevely, you can write your own function

```
> summ <- function(a,b){ a + b }
> summ(1,2)
[1] 3
```

The basic data structure in R is a **vector**, an ordered collection of values. R even treats single values as 1-element vectors.

The simplest way to create a **vector** in R is by using the c()

operator:

The simplest way to create a **sequence of numbers** is by using the ':' operator:

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

That gave us every integer between (and including) 1 and 10.

What happens if we do 15:1? Give it a try to find out.

What happens if we do 15:1? Give it a try to find out.

```
> 15:1
[1] 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
```

It counted backwards in increments of 1!

Remember that if you have questions about a particular R function, you can access its documentation with a question mark followed by the function name:

$$? function name here$$
 (1)

However, in the case of an operator like the colon used above, you must enclose the symbol in backticks like this:

Often, we'll desire more control over a sequence we're creating than what the ':' operator gives us. The seq() function serves this purpose.

Try it: Remember what we said about the function arguments

Often, we'll desire more control over a sequence we're creating than what the ':' operator gives us. The seq() function serves this purpose.

Try it: Remember what we said about the function arguments

```
> seq(1,10)
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
```

This gives us the same output as 1:10. However, let's say that instead we want a vector of numbers ranging from 0 to 4, incremented by 0.5. seq(0, 4,by=0.5) does just that. Try it out.

This gives us the same output as 1:10. However, let's say that instead we want a vector of numbers ranging from 0 to 4, incremented by 0.5. seq(0, 4,by=0.5) does just that. Try it out.

> seq(0, 4, by = 0.5)[1] 0.0 0.5 1.0 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0

Or maybe we don't care what the increment is and we just want a sequence of 10 numbers between 5 and 10. seq(5, 10, length=10) does the trick. Give it a shot now and store the result in a new variable called mySeq.

Try it out.

Or maybe we don't care what the increment is and we just want a sequence of 10 numbers between 5 and 10. seq(5, 10, length=10)does the trick. Give it a shot now and store the result in a new variable called mySeq.

Try it out.

```
> mySeq <- seq(5, 10, length=10)
```

> round(mySeq,1)

[1] 5.0 5.6 6.1 6.7 7.2 7.8 8.3 8.9 9.4 10.0

To confirm that mySeq has length 10, we can use the length() function.

Try it now

To confirm that mySeq has length 10, we can use the length() function.

Try it now

> length(mySeq)
[1] 10

- Let's pretend we don't know the length of mySeq, but we
  want to generate a sequence of integers from 1 to N, where N
  represents the length of the mySeq vector.
- We want a new vector (1, 2, 3, ...) that is the same length as mySeq.
- There are several ways we could do this.
- One possibility is to combine the ':' operator and the length() function.

Give that a try

- Let's pretend we don't know the length of mySeq, but we
  want to generate a sequence of integers from 1 to N, where N
  represents the length of the mySeq vector.
- We want a new vector (1, 2, 3, ...) that is the same length as mySeq.
- There are several ways we could do this.
- One possibility is to combine the ':' operator and the length() function.

Give that a try

> 1:length(mySeq)
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Another option is to use seq(along.with = mySeq). Give that a try.

```
> seq(along.with = mySeq)
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
```

R has a separate built-in function for this purpose

```
> seq_along(mySeq)
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
```

- There are often several approaches to solving the same problem in R
- Simple approaches that involve less typing are generally best
- It is also important for your code to be readable, so that you
  and others can figure out what's going on without too much
  hassle

- > # Create a sequence of 10 numbers
- > seq\_along(mySeq)

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

The comments in R begin with **hash**. You should have about 1/3 of your code commented.

One more function related to creating sequences of numbers is rep(), which stands for 'replicate'.

If we're interested in creating a vector that contains 1 and 0 five times, we can use rep(c(1,0), times = 5).

Try it out

One more function related to creating sequences of numbers is rep(), which stands for 'replicate'.

If we're interested in creating a vector that contains 1 and 0 five times, we can use rep(c(1,0), times = 5).

Try it out

- > # Create a sequence of 1 and 0
- > rep(c(1,0), times = 5)
  - [1] 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0

If we want our vector to contain 5 ones and then 5 zeros, we can do this with the 'each' argument instead of 'times' argument. Try it out

If we want our vector to contain 5 ones and then 5 zeros, we can do this with the 'each' argument instead of 'times' argument.

Try it out

```
> # Create a sequence of 1 and 0
```

$$> rep(c(1,0), each = 5)$$
[1] 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0

37

- We'll see, now, how to extract elements from a vector (subset)
- The square brackets [] indicate position within the vector
  - R even treats single values as 1-element vectors
  - The vector in R starts from position 1
- We can extract individual elements by using the [] notation

Try mySeq[1:3]

- We'll see, now, how to extract elements from a vector (subset)
- The square brackets [] indicate position within the vector
  - R even treats single values as 1-element vectors
  - The vector in R starts from position 1
- We can extract individual elements by using the [] notation

## Try mySeq[1:3]

```
> mySeq[1:3]
[1] 5.000000 5.555556 6.111111
```

If we want to 3th, 5th and 10th elements of the vector mySeq.  $\label{eq:Try} \mbox{Try it out}$ 

If we want to 3th, 5th and 10th elements of the vector mySeq. Try it out

```
> round(mySeq,1)
[1] 5.0 5.6 6.1 6.7 7.2 7.8 8.3 8.9 9.4 10.0
> round(mySeq[c(3,5,10)],1)
[1] 6.1 7.2 10.0
```

If we want all the elements bigger than 7.  $\label{eq:Try} \mbox{Try it out}$ 

If we want all the elements bigger than 7. Try it out

```
> round(mySeq,1)
[1] 5.0 5.6 6.1 6.7 7.2 7.8 8.3 8.9 9.4 10.0
> round(mySeq[mySeq > 7],1)
[1] 7.2 7.8 8.3 8.9 9.4 10.0
```

If we ask you to produce a vector of 1000 even numbers (from 2 to 2000), extract the 345th and the 987th elements and sum them, would you know how to do it?

Try it out

If we ask you to produce a vector of 1000 even numbers (from 2 to 2000), extract the 345th and the 987th elements and sum them, would you know how to do it?

Try it out

```
> a <- seq(2,2000,by=2)
> length(a)
[1] 1000
> a[345] + a[987]
[1] 2664
> # Short version
> sum(seq(2,2000,by=2)[c(345,987)])
[1] 2664
```

When applying all standard arithmetic operations to vectors, **application is element-wise**.

```
> x <- 1:10
> y <- x * 2
> y
[1] 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20
```

### Adding two vectors

```
> z <- x^2
> y + z
[1] 3 8 15 24 35 48 63 80 99 120
```

If vectors are not the same length, the shorter one will be recycled

```
> x
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
> x + 1:2
[1] 2 4 4 6 6 8 8 10 10 12
```

• All the vectors we have seen so far have contained numbers, but we can also store strings

```
> gene.names <- c("Pax6", "Beta-actin", "FoxP2", "Hox9")
> gene.names
[1] "Pax6" "Beta-actin" "FoxP2" "Hox9"
```

We can name elements of vectors using the names function

```
> gene.expression <- c(0,3.2,1.2,-2)
> gene.expression
[1] 0.0 3.2 1.2 -2.0
> names(gene.expression)<-gene.names
> gene.expression
    Pax6 Beta-actin FoxP2 Hox9
    0.0 3.2 1.2 -2.0
```

## Exercise: genes and genomes

 Let's try some vector arithmetic. Here are the genome lengths and number of protein coding genes for several model organisms:

Species	Genome size (Mb)	Protein coding genes
Homo sapiens	3,102	20,774
Mus musculus	2,731	23,139
Drosophila melanogaster	169	13,937
Caenorhabditis elegans	100	20,532
Saccharomyces cerevisiae	12	6,692

- Create genome.size and coding.genes vectors to hold the data in each column using the c function
- Create a species.name vector and use this vector to name the values in the other two vectors.

## Exercise: genes and genomes

- Let's assume a coding gene has an average length of 1.5 kilobases (1.5 kilobases is 0.0015 Megabases)
- On average, how many base pairs of each genome is made of coding genes?
- Create a new vector to record this called coding.bases
- What percentage of each genome is made up of protein coding genes?
- Use your **coding.bases** and **genome.size** vectors to calculate this
- How many times more bases are used for coding in the human genome compared to the yeast genome?
- How many times more bases are in the human genome in total compared to the yeast genome?
- Look up indices of your vectors to find out.

## Exercise: genes and genomes

Creating vectors:

```
> genome.size<-c(3102,2731,169,100,12)
> coding.genes<-c(20774,23139,13937,20532,6692)
> species.name<-c("H. sapiens","M. musculus","D. melanogaster","C.
+ cerevisiae")
> names(genome.size)<-species.name
> names(coding.genes)<-species.name</pre>
```

## Exercise: genes and genomes

Creating vectors:

```
> genome.size<-c(3102,2731,169,100,12)
> coding.genes<-c(20774,23139,13937,20532,6692)
> species.name<-c("H. sapiens","M. musculus","D. melanogaster","C.
+ cerevisiae")
> names(genome.size)<-species.name
> names(coding.genes)<-species.name</pre>
```

• To calculate the number of coding bases, we need to use the same scale as we used for genome size: 1.5 kilobases is 0.0015 Megabases

## Exercise: genes and genomes

• To calculate the percentage of coding bases in each genome:

## Exercise: genes and genomes

• To calculate the percentage of coding bases in each genome:

To compare human to yeast:

```
> coding.bases[1]/coding.bases[5]
H. sapiens
    3.104304
> genome.size[1]/genome.size[5]
H. sapiens
    258.5
```

## Exercise: genes and genomes

 Note that if a new vector is created using a named vector, the names are usually carried across to the new vector. Sometimes this is what we want (as for coding.pc) but sometimes it is not (when we are comparing human to yeast). We can remove names by setting them to the special NULL value:

```
> names(coding.pc) <-NULL
> coding.pc
[1] 1.004545 1.270908 12.370118 30.798000 83.650000
```

 R comes ready loaded with various libraries of functions called packages. e.g. the function sum() is in the base package and sd(), which calculates the standard deviation of a vector, is in the stats package

- R comes ready loaded with various libraries of functions called packages. e.g. the function sum() is in the base package and sd(), which calculates the standard deviation of a vector, is in the stats package
- There are 1000s of additional packages provided by third parties, and the packages can be found in numerous server locations on the web called repositories

- R comes ready loaded with various libraries of functions called packages. e.g. the function sum() is in the base package and sd(), which calculates the standard deviation of a vector, is in the stats package
- There are 1000s of additional packages provided by third parties, and the packages can be found in numerous server locations on the web called repositories
- The two repositories you will come across the most are
  - The Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN)
  - Bioconductor

- R comes ready loaded with various libraries of functions called packages. e.g. the function sum() is in the base package and sd(), which calculates the standard deviation of a vector, is in the stats package
- There are 1000s of additional packages provided by third parties, and the packages can be found in numerous server locations on the web called repositories
- The two repositories you will come across the most are
  - The Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN)
  - Bioconductor
- CRAN is mirrored in many locations. Set your local mirror in RStudio using Tools > Options, and choose a CRAN mirror

- R comes ready loaded with various libraries of functions called packages. e.g. the function sum() is in the base package and sd(), which calculates the standard deviation of a vector, is in the stats package
- There are 1000s of additional packages provided by third parties, and the packages can be found in numerous server locations on the web called repositories
- The two repositories you will come across the most are
  - The Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN)
  - Bioconductor
- CRAN is mirrored in many locations. Set your local mirror in RStudio using Tools > Options, and choose a CRAN mirror
- Bioconductor packages are then loaded with the biocLite() function
  - source("http://bioconductor.org/biocLite.R")
  - biocLite("PackageName")

## Exercise

- Matrix is a CRAN extras package
  - Use install.packages() function...
  - or in RStudio go to Tools > Install Packages...and type the package name
- aCGH is a BioConductor package (www.bioconductor.org)

- R needs to be told to use the new functions from the installed packages
- Use library(...) function to load the newly installed features
- library("Matrix"); loads matrix functions

PS: library(): Lists all the packages you've got installed locally

PS2: .libPaths(): to know where the libraries are installed

# DATA STRUCTURES

# R is designed to handle experimental data

- In this lesson, we'll cover matrices and data frames. Both represent 'rectangular' data types, meaning that they are used to store tabular data, with rows and columns
- The main difference, as you'll see, is that matrices can only contain
  a single class of data, while data frames can consist of many
  different classes of data

 A data frame is a set of observations of a set of variables in other words, the outcome of an experiment.

[Wickham, H. (2014). Tidy Data. Journal of Statistical Software, 59(10), 1 - 23]

 A data frame is a set of observations of a set of variables in other words, the outcome of an experiment.

```
[Wickham, H. (2014). Tidy Data. Journal of Statistical Software, 59(10), 1 - 23]
```

 Tidy datasets provide a standardized way to link the structure of a dataset (its physical layout) with its semantics (its meaning)

	treatmenta	treatmentb
John Smith	_	2
Jane Doe	16	11
Mary Johnson	3	1

Table 1: Typical presentation dataset.

	John Smith	Jane Doe	Mary Johnson
treatmenta	_	16	3
treatmentb	2	11	1

Table 2: The same data as in Table 1 but structured differently.

• A dataset is a collection of values

- A dataset is a collection of values
- Every value belongs to a variable and an observation

- A dataset is a collection of values
- Every value belongs to a variable and an observation
- A <u>variable</u> contains all values that measure the same underlying attribute (like height, temperature, duration) across units

- A dataset is a collection of values
- Every value belongs to a variable and an observation
- A <u>variable</u> contains all values that measure the same underlying attribute (like height, temperature, duration) across units
- An <u>observation</u> contains all values measured on the same unit (like a person, or a day, or a race) across attributes

	treatmenta	treatmentb
John Smith		2
Jane Doe	16	11
Mary Johnson	3	1

Table 1: Typical presentation dataset.

	John Smith	Jane Doe	Mary Johnson
treatmenta	_	16	3
treatmentb	2	11	1

Table 2: The same data as in Table 1 but structured differently.

- Table 3 reorganizes Table 1 to make the values, variables and observations more clear
- The dataset contains 18 values representing three variables and six observations; the variables are:
  - person, with three possible values (John Smith, Mary Johnson, and Jane Doe)
  - 2. **Treatment**, with two possible values (a and b)
  - 3. **Result**, with five or six values depending on how you think of the missing value (NA, 16, 3, 2, 11, 1)

person	treatment	result
John Smith	a	_
Jane Doe	a	16
Mary Johnson	a	3
John Smith	b	2
Jane Doe	b	11
Mary Johnson	b	1

Table 3: The same data as in Table 1 but with variables in columns and observations in rows.

- A dataset is messy or tidy depending on how rows, columns and tables are matched up with observations, variables and types
- In tidy data:

- A dataset is messy or tidy depending on how rows, columns and tables are matched up with observations, variables and types
- In tidy data:
  - 1. Each variable forms a column

- A dataset is messy or tidy depending on how rows, columns and tables are matched up with observations, variables and types
- In tidy data:
  - 1. Each variable forms a column
  - 2. Each observation forms a row

- A dataset is messy or tidy depending on how rows, columns and tables are matched up with observations, variables and types
- In tidy data:
  - 1. Each variable forms a column
  - 2. Each observation forms a row
  - 3. Each type of observational unit forms a table

- A dataset is messy or tidy depending on how rows, columns and tables are matched up with observations, variables and types
- In tidy data:
  - 1. Each variable forms a column
  - 2. Each observation forms a row
  - 3. Each type of observational unit forms a table
- Three common problems with messy datasets are:

# Column headers are values, not variable names

religion	<\$10k	\$10-20k	\$20-30k	\$30-40k	\$40-50k	\$50-75k
Agnostic	27	34	60	81	76	137
Atheist	12	27	37	52	35	70
Buddhist	27	21	30	34	33	58
Catholic	418	617	732	670	638	1116
Don't know/refused	15	14	15	11	10	35
Evangelical Prot	575	869	1064	982	881	1486
Hindu	1	9	7	9	11	34
Historically Black Prot	228	244	236	238	197	223
Jehovah's Witness	20	27	24	24	21	30
Jewish	19	19	25	25	30	95

Table 4: The first ten rows of data on income and religion from the Pew Forum. Three columns, \$75-100k, \$100-150k and >150k, have been omitted.

# Column headers are values, not variable names

religion	income	freq
Agnostic	<\$10k	27
Agnostic	\$10-20k	34
Agnostic	\$20-30k	60
Agnostic	\$30-40k	81
Agnostic	\$40-50k	76
Agnostic	\$50-75k	137
Agnostic	\$75–100k	122
Agnostic	\$100–150k	109
Agnostic	>150k	84
Agnostic	Don't know/refused	96

# Multiple variables stored in one column

country	year	column	cases	_	country	year	sex	age	cases
AD	2000	m014	0	_	AD	2000	m	0–14	0
AD	2000	m1524	0		$^{\mathrm{AD}}$	2000	m	15-24	0
AD	2000	m2534	1		AD	2000	m	25 - 34	1
AD	2000	m3544	0		$^{\mathrm{AD}}$	2000	m	35 - 44	0
AD	2000	m4554	0		AD	2000	m	45 - 54	0
AD	2000	m5564	0		$^{\mathrm{AD}}$	2000	m	55-64	0
AD	2000	m65	0		$^{\mathrm{AD}}$	2000	m	65 +	0
$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m014	2		$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m	0-14	2
$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m1524	4		$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m	15-24	4
$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m2534	4		$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m	25 - 34	4
AE	2000	m3544	6		$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m	35 - 44	6
$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m4554	5		$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m	45 - 54	5
$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m5564	12		$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m	55-64	12
$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m65	10		$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	m	65 +	10
$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	f014	3		$\mathbf{AE}$	2000	f	0-14	3
	(a) Molt	en data				(b) T	idy da	ita	

# Variables are stored in both rows and columns

id	date	element	value	id	date	tmax	tmin
MX17004	2010-01-30	tmax	27.8	MX17004	2010-01-30	27.8	14.5
MX17004	2010-01-30	$_{ m tmin}$	14.5	MX17004	2010-02-02	27.3	14.4
MX17004	2010-02-02	tmax	27.3	MX17004	2010-02-03	24.1	14.4
MX17004	2010-02-02	tmin	14.4	MX17004	2010-02-11	29.7	13.4
MX17004	2010-02-03	tmax	24.1	MX17004	2010-02-23	29.9	10.7
MX17004	2010-02-03	tmin	14.4	MX17004	2010-03-05	32.1	14.2
MX17004	2010-02-11	tmax	29.7	MX17004	2010-03-10	34.5	16.8
MX17004	2010-02-11	tmin	13.4	MX17004	2010-03-16	31.1	17.6
MX17004	2010-02-23	tmax	29.9	MX17004	2010-04-27	36.3	16.7
MX17004	2010-02-23	tmin	10.7	MX17004	2010-05-27	33.2	18.2
	(a) Molten d	ata			(b) Tidy data	1	

For example, we might want to analyse information about a
 set of patients. To start with, let's say we have ten patients and for
 each one we know their name, sex, age, weight and whether
 they give consent for their data to be made public

- For example, we might want to analyse information about a
   set of patients. To start with, let's say we have ten patients and for
   each one we know their name, sex, age, weight and whether
   they give consent for their data to be made public
- We are going to create a data frame called 'patients', which will have ten rows (observations) and seven columns (variables).
- The columns must all be equal lengths

# The patients data frame

```
> patients
   firstName secondName paste.firstName..secondName.
                                                       sex age weight consent
       Adam
                 Jones
                                         Adam Jones
                                                      Male 50
                                                                 70.8
                                                                         TRUE
        Eve
                Parker
                                         Eve Parker Female 21
                                                                 67.9
                                                                        TRUE
3
       John
                 Evans
                                         John Evans
                                                     Male 35 75.3
                                                                        FALSE
       Mary
                Davis
                                        Mary Davis Female
                                                                61.9
                                                                        TRUE
      Peter
                 Baker
                                        Peter Baker
                                                      Male
                                                                72.4
                                                                        FALSE
       Paul
               Daniels
                                       Paul Daniels
                                                      Male
                                                                 69.9
                                                                        FALSE
7
      Joanna
               Edwards
                                     Joanna Edwards Female 42
                                                                63.5
                                                                        FALSE
    Matthew
                 Smith
                                      Matthew Smith Male
                                                           33 71.5
                                                                        TRUE
      David
               Roberts
                                      David Roberts
                                                      Male
                                                                73.2
                                                                        FALSE
10
      Sallv
                Wilson
                                       Sally Wilson Female
                                                                 64.8
                                                                         TRUE
```

• Each column is a vector, like previous vectors we have seen, for example:

```
> age<-c(50, 21, 35, 45, 28, 31, 42, 33, 57, 62)
> weight<-c(70.8, 67.9, 75.3, 61.9, 72.4, 69.9, 63.5, 71.5, 73.2, 64.8)
```

 Each column is a vector, like previous vectors we have seen, for example:

```
> age<-c(50, 21, 35, 45, 28, 31, 42, 33, 57, 62)
> weight<-c(70.8, 67.9, 75.3, 61.9, 72.4, 69.9, 63.5, 71.5, 73.2, 64.8)
```

• We can define the names using character vectors:

 Each column is a vector, like previous vectors we have seen, for example:

```
> age<-c(50, 21, 35, 45, 28, 31, 42, 33, 57, 62)
> weight<-c(70.8, 67.9, 75.3, 61.9, 72.4, 69.9, 63.5, 71.5, 73.2, 64.8)
```

• We can define the names using character vectors:

 We also have a new type of vector, the logical vector, which only contains the values TRUE and FALSE:

```
> consent<-c(TRUE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, FALSE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
```

- Vectors can only contain one type of data; we cannot mix numbers, characters and logical values in the same vector
- If we try this, R will convert everything to characters:

We can see the type of a particular vector using the mode function

```
> mode(firstName)
[1] "character"
> mode(age)
[1] "numeric"
> mode(weight)
[1] "numeric"
> mode(consent)
[1] "logical"
```

- Character vectors are fine for some variables, like names
- But sometimes we have categorical data and we want R to recognize this
- A factor is R's data structure for categorical data

```
> sex
[1] "Male" "Female" "Male" "Female" "Male" "Female" "Male"
[9] "Male" "Female"
> factor(sex)
[1] Male Female Male Female Male Female Male Female
Levels: Female Male
```

- R has converted the strings of the sex character vector into two levels, which are the categories in the data
- Note the values of this factor are not character strings, but levels
- We can use this factor to compare data for males and females

# Creating a data frame

We can construct a data frame from other objects

```
> patients <- data.frame(firstName, secondName, paste(firstName, secondName),
                      sex, age, weight, consent)
> patients
   firstName secondName paste.firstName..secondName.
                                                      sex age weight consent
                                                       Male 50
        Adam
                  Jones
                                          Adam Jones
                                                                  70.8
                                                                          TRUE
         Eve
                 Parker
                                          Eve Parker Female 21
                                                                  67.9
                                                                          TRUE
        John
                  Evans
                                          John Evans
                                                       Male 35
                                                                  75.3
                                                                         FALSE
                                                                         TRUE
4
       Mary
                  Davis
                                          Mary Davis Female 45
                                                                  61.9
                                                                         FALSE
       Peter
                  Baker
                                         Peter Baker
                                                       Male
                                                                  72.4
6
        Paul
                Daniels
                                        Paul Daniels
                                                       Male
                                                            31
                                                                  69.9
                                                                         FALSE
7
                Edwards
                                      Joanna Edwards Female 42
                                                                  63.5
                                                                         FALSE
      Joanna
                                                      Male 33
8
     Matthew
                  Smith
                                       Matthew Smith
                                                                  71.5
                                                                         TRUE
9
       David
                Roberts
                                       David Roberts
                                                       Male
                                                            57
                                                                  73.2
                                                                         FALSE
       Sallv
                 Wilson
                                        Sally Wilson Female 62
                                                                  64.8
10
                                                                          TRUE
```

- The paste function joins character vectors together
- We can access particular variables using the dollar operator

```
> patients$age
[1] 50 21 35 45 28 31 42 33 57 62
```

# Naming data frame variables

- R has inferred the names of our data frame variables from the names of the vectors or the commands (eg the paste command)
- We can name the variables after we have created a data frame using the names function, and we can use the same function to see the names

• Or we can name the variables when we define the data frame

```
> patients<-data.frame(First_Name=firstName, Second_Name=secondName,
+ Full_Name=paste(firstName, secondName), Sex=sex,
+ Age=age, Weight=weight, Consent=consent)
> names(patients)
[1] "First_Name" "Second_Name" "Full_Name" "Sex" "Age"
[6] "Weight" "Consent"
```

# **Matrices**

• Data frames are R speciality, but R also handles matrices

```
> e <- matrix(1:10, nrow=5, ncol=2)

> e

[,1] [,2]

[1,] 1 6

[2,] 2 7

[3,] 3 8

[4,] 4 9

[5,] 5 10

> f <- matrix(1:10, nrow=2, ncol=5)

> f [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]

[1,] 1 3 5 7 9

[2,] 2 4 6 8 10
```

# Lists

- We have seen that vectors can only hold data of one type.
- How can we store data of multiple types?
- Or vectors of different lengths in one object?
- We can use lists; a list can contain objects of any type

# Indexing data frames and matrices

- object [ rows , columns ]
- If you don't provide an index for either rows or columns, all of the rows or columns will be returned

```
> patients[1,2]
[1] Jones
10 Levels: Baker Daniels Davis Edwards Evans Jones Parker Roberts ... Wilson
> patients[1,]
 First_Name Second_Name Full_Name Sex Age Weight Consent
       Adam
                  Jones Adam Jones Male 50 70.8
                                                    TRUE
> patients[patients$Age>50, ]
  First_Name Second_Name Full_Name Sex Age Weight Consent
       David
                 Roberts David Roberts
                                        Male 57 73.2
9
                                                         FALSE
       Sally Wilson Sally Wilson Female 62 64.8
                                                          TRUE
```

# Indexing data frames and matrices

- There is a simpler way to refer to variables by name in a data frame
- Namely separating the data frame name from the name of the variable with a dollar sign (\$)

```
> patients$Age
[1] 50 21 35 45 28 31 42 33 57 62
> patients$Age < 30
[1] FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE</pre>
```

# Advanced indexing

 As values in R are really vectors, so indices are actually vectors, and can be numeric or logical

```
> s <- letters[1:5]
> s
[1] "a" "b" "c" "d" "e"
> s[c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, FALSE)]
[1] "a" "c"
> a<-1:5
> a<3
[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE
> s[a<3]
[1] "a" "b"
> s[a>1 & a<3]
[1] "b"
> s[a==2]
[1] "b"
```

# Operators

- arithmetic^ ,/ ,\* ,- , +
- comparison
  =! ,== ,=> ,<= ,> ,<
- logical !, &, |

# Exercise

- Create a data.frame using the following vectors
  - n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
  - sex = male, female, male, female, male, female, male, female
  - age = 23, 22, 21, 22, 24, 30, 23, 29, 19, 29
  - weight = 72, 90, 120, 80, 75, 65, 91, 58, 78, 50
  - height = 171, 185, 210, 170, 189, 150, 168, 165, 188, 143

# Exercise

- Which is the average age? [use the function mean]
- Which is the maximum female weight? [Subset the data frame and use the function max]
- Which is the minimum male weight? [Subset the data frame and use the function min]
- How many are the male over 180cm? [Subset the data frame]
- Which is their average age?
- Who is the younger and lighter female? [this has to be done in 2 steps; use the function order]
- Who is the person with the minimum BMI [weight/height<sup>2</sup>; this also has to be done in 2 steps; use the function which.min]

#### NOTE:

- 1. To know how to use a function use '?'; e.g. ?mean
- 2. In R there are several ways to achieve the same result

Create a data.frame using the following vectors

```
> n <- 1:10
> sex <- rep(c('male', 'female'), 5)
> age <- c(23, 22, 21, 22, 24, 30, 23, 29, 19, 29)
> weight <- c(72, 90, 120, 80, 75, 65, 91, 58, 78, 50)
> height <- c(171, 185, 210, 170, 189, 150, 168, 165, 188, 143)
> df <- data.frame(n = n, sex = sex, age = age, weight = weight, height = height)
> df
      sex age weight height
   n
 1 male 23 72 171
2 2 female 22
                   90
                        185
3 3 male 21
                120
                        210
 4 female 22
                   80
                        170
5 5 male 24
                75
                        189
6 6 female 30
                   65
                        150
7 7 male 23
                   91
                        168
8 8 female 29
                   58
                        165
   9 male 19
                   78
                        188
10 10 female 29
                   50
                        143
```

# Exercise

• Which is the average age?

# Exercise

• Which is the average age?

```
> mean(df$age)
[1] 24.2
```

## Exercise

• Which is the average age?

```
> mean(df$age)
[1] 24.2
```

• Which is the maximum female weight?

Which is the average age?

```
> mean(df$age)
[1] 24.2
```

• Which is the maximum female weight?

```
> ind <- df$sex == 'female'
> ind
[1] FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE
> tmp <- df[ind,]
> tmp
       sex age weight height
2 2 female 22
                       185
4 4 female 22
                       170
6 6 female 30
                  65 150
8 8 female 29
                  58 165
10 10 female 29
                  50 143
> max(tmp$weight)
[1] 90
```

Which is the average age?

```
> mean(df$age)
[1] 24.2
```

Which is the maximum female weight?

```
> ind <- df$sex == 'female'
> ind
[1] FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE
> tmp <- df[ind.]
> tmp
       sex age weight height
2 2 female 22
                        185
4 4 female 22
                   80
                        170
6 6 female 30
                   65
                        150
8 8 female 29
                  58 165
10 10 female 29
                  50 143
> max(tmp$weight)
[1] 90
> max(df[df$sex == 'female',]$weight)
Γ17 90
> max(df[df$sex == 'female',4])
Γ17 90
> max(subset(df, sex == 'female')$weight)
[1] 90
```

# Exercise

• Which is the minimum male weight?

## Exercise

• Which is the minimum male weight?

```
> min(df[df$sex == 'male',]$weight)
[1] 72
```

## Exercise

• Which is the minimum male weight?

```
> min(df[df$sex == 'male',]$weight)
[1] 72
```

• How many are the male over 180cm?

## Exercise

• Which is the minimum male weight?

```
> min(df[df$sex == 'male',]$weight)
[1] 72
```

How many are the male over 180cm?

```
> df[(df$sex == 'male' & df$height > 180),]
n sex age weight height
3 3 male 21   120   210
5 5 male 24   75   189
9 9 male 19   78   188
```

### Exercise

Which is the minimum male weight?

```
> min(df[df$sex == 'male',]$weight)
[1] 72
```

• How many are the male over 180cm?

```
> df[(df$sex == 'male' & df$height > 180),]
n sex age weight height
3 3 male 21 120 210
5 5 male 24 75 189
9 9 male 19 78 188
```

• Which is their average age?

### Exercise

Which is the minimum male weight?

```
> min(df[df$sex == 'male',]$weight)
[1] 72
```

• How many are the male over 180cm?

```
> df[(df$sex == 'male' & df$height > 180),]

n sex age weight height

3 3 male 21 120 210

5 5 male 24 75 189

9 9 male 19 78 188
```

• Which is their average age?

```
> mean(df[(df$sex == 'male' & df$height > 180),]$age)
[1] 21.33333
```

## Exercise

• Who is the younger and lighter female?

## Exercise

• Who is the younger and lighter female?

```
> df1 <- df[df$sex == 'female',]
> df1[order(df1$age,df1$weight),][1,]
n sex age weight height
4 4 female 22 80 170
```

## Exercise

Who is the younger and lighter female?

```
> df1 <- df[df$sex == 'female',]
> df1[order(df1$age,df1$weight),][1,]
n      sex age weight height
4 4 female 22  80  170
```

 $\bullet$  Who is the person with the minimum BMI  $[{\sf weight/height^2}]$ 

Who is the younger and lighter female?

Who is the person with the minimum BMI [weight/height²]