Basics

R: language and basic data management

Krista Fischer

Statistical Practice in Epidemiology, Lyon, 2018 (initial slides by P. Dalgaard)

Language

- ▶ R is a programming language also on the command line
- (This means that there are syntax rules)

On the command line (or a line in a script) one could:

- Print an object by typing its name
- Evaluate an expression
- Call a function, giving the arguments in parentheses possibly empty
- ▶ Notice objects vs. objects()

Basics

```
x <- rnorm(10, mean=20, sd=5)
m <- mean(x)
sum((x - m)^2)</pre>
```

- Object names
- Explicit constants
- Arithmetic operators
- ► Function calls
- Assignment of results to names

```
x <- rnorm(10, mean=20, sd=5)
m <- mean(x)
sum((x - m)^2)</pre>
```

- Object names
- Explicit constants
- Arithmetic operators
- Function calls
- Assignment of results to names

```
x <- rnorm(10, mean=20, sd=5)
m <- mean(x)
sum((x - m)^2)</pre>
```

- Object names
- Explicit constants
- Arithmetic operators
- Function calls
- Assignment of results to names

```
x <- rnorm(10, mean=20, sd=5)
m <- mean(x)
sum((x - m)^2)</pre>
```

- Object names
- Explicit constants
- Arithmetic operators
- Function calls
- Assignment of results to names

```
x <- rnorm(10, mean=20, sd=5)
m <- mean(x)
sum((x - m)^2)</pre>
```

- Object names
- Explicit constants
- Arithmetic operators
- Function calls
- Assignment of results to names

```
x <- rnorm(10, mean=20, sd=5)
m <- mean(x)
sum((x - m)^2)</pre>
```

- Object names
- Explicit constants
- Arithmetic operators
- Function calls
- Assignment of results to names

Objects

- The simplest object type is vector
- Modes: numeric, character, factor, ...
- Operations are vectorized: you can add entire vectors with a + b
- Recycling of objects: If the lengths don't match, the shorter vector is reused

Example (numeric vectors)

```
> a < -c(2, 8, 3, 1, 0, 7)
> b < -c(3, 4, 1, 4, 5, 2)
> a+b
[1] 5 12 4 5 5 9
> mean(a)
[1] 3.5
> m <- mean(a)
> m
[11 \ 3.5]
> a - m # notice recycling
[1] -1.5 4.5 -0.5 -2.5 -3.5 3.5
> z < -c(1, 2, 3)
> a - z #recycling!
[1] 1 6 0 0 -2 4
```

Character vectors and factors

- The elements of character vectors are text strings that do not have any numeric value.
- Factors are used to describe groupings these are just integer codes plus a set of names, as labels for the levels
- In model specifications, a factor variable is treated as a classification rather than as a quantitative variable

Example:

Lists

- Lists are vectors where the elements can have different types – thus collections of any elements, gathered into one object
- Functions often return lists
- ▶ lst <- list(A=rnorm(5), B="hello")
- Special indexing:
- ► lst\$A
- lst[[1]] first element (NB: double brackets)
- Data frames are special type of lists

Matrices

A matrix is a rectangular collection of data. All columns of a matrix should be of the same type.

One can also construct a matrix from its columns using cbind, whereas joining two matrices with equal no of columns (with the same column names) can be done using rbind.

Data frames

- Usually a dataset in R is stored in a form of a data frame.
- While reading in data from text files (using read.table(), read.csv()), a data frame is created.
- A data frame is similar to a matrix, but can have columns (variables) of different types.
- A variable can be extracted using dataframe\$variable (as data frames are lists)

```
> D<- data.frame(a=c(8,3,5),b=c("X","Z","Y"))
> D
    a b
1 8 X
2 3 Z
3 5 Y
> D$a
[1] 8 3 5
```

Matrices or data frames?

- ► A (numeric or character) matrix can be converted to a data frame and vice versa (with as.data.frame (A) and as.matrix(B)).
- Most R functions for statistical analysis work with data frames, but in some cases it is useful to have a matrix (incl the occasions where you want to use some matrix algebra).
- If you need more dimensions than two, there is also array.

How to access variables in the data frame?

Different ways to tell R to use variable X from data frame D:

As mentioned, you can use the dataframe\$variable notation

```
summary(D$X)
```

- ▶ Use the with function with(D, summary(X))
- Use the data argument (works for some functions only) lm(Y~X, data=D)
- Attach the dataframe DISCOURAGED! (seems a convenient solution, but can actually make things more complicated, as it creates a temporary copy of the dataset)

```
attach(D)
summary(X)
detach()
```

Data manipulation

To create a new variable bmi in the existing data frame students, use either of the two:

(notice: you need an assignment, to save the transformed object)

Indexing – extracting elements from objects

Square brackets [] are used for indexing!

Examples:

- Elements of vectors: a[5] (5th element); a[5:7] (5th to 7th elements); a[-6] (all elements except the 6th)
- Logical index: a[a<3], a[b>2], a[is.na(b)] (elements of a corresponding to missing values of b)
- ► In a data frame or matrix two dimensions, two indexes: students[5, 7], students[1:10, c(2,5)], students[1,], students[,3] (entire row/column)

Examples of indexing

Basics

```
> x < -c(2,7,3,1,5,9,0)
> x[c(1,5,7)]
[1] 2 5 0
> x[x<3]
[1] 2 1 0
> NMRimp[1:2,1:4] #quick look at a large data
 sample.id XXL.VLDL.P XXL.VLDL.L XXL.VLDL.PL
  V18566 1.46e-04 0.0313 0.00331
  V36115 9.00e-05 0.0195 0.00178
> fqsa[is.na(fqsa$heiqht),"aqe"]
  [1] 18 69 52 41 52 44 73 28 66 20 73 63 26
# ages of those with missing height
# equivalent: fqsa$aqe[is.na(fqsa$height)]
```

Conditional assignment: ifelse

Syntax: ifelse (expression, A, B) Expression (with values TRUE or FALSE) is a vector, A and B are constants or vectors of the same length.

Examples:

Basics

```
> x<-c(1,2,7,3,NA)
> ifelse(x<3,1,2)
[1] 1 1 2 2 NA
> ifelse(is.na(x),0,x) #replace missing values by 0
[1] 1 2 7 3 0
> y<-c(3,6,1,7,8); z<-c(0,1,0,2,1)
> ifelse(z==0,x,y)
[1] 1 6 7 7 8
> ifelse(is.na(x),0,ifelse(x>3,3,x))
[1] 1 2 3 3 0
```

Naming

 Elements of vectors, rows and columns of matrices and data frames can have names

```
> x <- c(boys=1.2, girls=1.1)
> x
boys girls
   1.2   1.1
> x["boys"]
boys
   1.2
> D[,"a"]  # works for matrices and data frames
[1] 8 3 5
```

You can extract and set names with names (x); for matrices and data frames also colnames (x) and rownames (x);

Classes, generic functions

- R objects have classes
- Functions can behave differently depending on the class of an object
- ► E.g. summary (x) or print (x) does different things if x is numeric, a factor, or a linear model fit

Round brackets () are used for function calls!

Lots of things you do with R involve calling functions (you have seen that already!).

For instance

- The name of the function
- Arguments: input to the function
- Sometimes, we have named arguments

Round brackets () are used for function calls!

Lots of things you do with R involve calling functions (you have seen that already!).

For instance

- ► The name of the function
- Arguments: input to the function
- Sometimes, we have named arguments

Round brackets () are used for function calls!

Lots of things you do with R involve calling functions (you have seen that already!).

For instance

```
mean(x, na.rm=TRUE)
```

- The name of the function
- Arguments: input to the function
- Sometimes, we have named arguments

Round brackets () are used for function calls!

Lots of things you do with R involve calling functions (you have seen that already!).

For instance

```
mean(x, na.rm=TRUE)
```

- The name of the function
- Arguments: input to the function
- Sometimes, we have named arguments

Examples:

- Names of R objects
- Explicit constants
- Return values from another function call or expression
- Some arguments have their default values.
- Use help (function) or args (function) to see the arguments (and their order and default values) that can be given to any function.
- Quite often first argument is not named, but the others are named

Examples:

- Names of R objects
- Explicit constants
- Return values from another function call or expression
- Some arguments have their default values.
- Use help (function) or args (function) to see the arguments (and their order and default values) that can be given to any function.
- Quite often first argument is not named, but the others are named

Examples:

- Names of R objects
- Explicit constants
- Return values from another function call or expression
- Some arguments have their default values.
- Use help (function) or args (function) to see the arguments (and their order and default values) that can be given to any function.
- Quite often first argument is not named, but the others are named

Examples:

```
rnorm(10, mean=m, sd=s)
hist(x, main="My histogram")
    mean(log(x + 1))
```

- Names of R objects
- Explicit constants
- Return values from another function call or expression
- Some arguments have their default values.
- Use help (function) or args (function) to see the arguments (and their order and default values) that can be given to any function.
- Quite often first argument is not named, but the others are named

Examples:

- Names of R objects
- Explicit constants
- Return values from another function call or expression
- Some arguments have their default values.
- Use help (function) or args (function) to see the arguments (and their order and default values) that can be given to any function.
- Quite often first argument is not named, but the others are named

Examples:

```
rnorm(10, mean=m, sd=s)
hist(x, main="My histogram")
    mean(log(x + 1))
```

- Names of R objects
- Explicit constants
- Return values from another function call or expression
- Some arguments have their default values.
- Use help (function) or args (function) to see the arguments (and their order and default values) that can be given to any function.
- Quite often first argument is not named, but the others are named

Example

```
From R-help (help(t.test)):
```

```
t.test(x, y = NULL,
    alternative = c("two.sided","less","greater"),
    mu = 0, paired = FALSE, var.equal = FALSE,
    conf.level = 0.95, ...)
```

- The first argument (x) does not have a default you have to provide some data!
- The other arguments can be modified, if you need to.

Example (cont.)

The following lines of code are equivalent:

```
t.test(a, b, alternative="less", paired=TRUE)
t.test(a, b, paired=TRUE, alt="less")
t.test(a, b, p=T, a="l") #not a good style!
```

Order does not matter for named arguments!

Partial keyword matching is possible ("alternative" or "alt" or "a")
(partial matching is possible)

For a readable code, the use of explicit argument names is highly recommended!

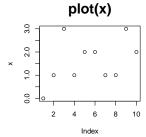
Basic graphics

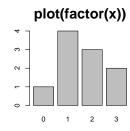
The plot () function is a generic function, producing different plots for different types of arguments. For instance, plot(x) produces:

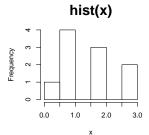
- a plot of observation index against the observations, when
 x is a numeric variable
- a bar plot of category frequencies, when x is a factor variable
- a time series plot (interconnected observations) when x is a time series
- a set of diagnostic plots, when x is a fitted regression model
- Similarly, the plot (x,y) produces a scatter plot, when x is a numeric variable and a bar plot of category frequencies, when x is a factor variable

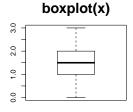
Some simple plots:

Basics









The workspace

- ► The global environment contains R objects created on the command line.
- There is an additional search path of loaded packages and attached data frames.
- When you request an object by name, R looks first in the global environment, and if it doesn't find it there, it continues along the search path.
- ➤ The search path is maintained by library(), attach(), and detach()
- Notice that objects in the global environment may mask objects in packages and attached data frames

More on factors: the cut Function

- The cut function converts a numerical variable into groups (a factor variable) according to a set of break points
- ➤ The intervals are left-open, right-closed by default (right=FALSE changes that)
- ...and that the lowest endpoint is not included by default (set include.lowest=TRUE if it bothers you)

Example

Basics

```
> age <- c(35,20,21,50,46,23,30)
> agegr < -cut(age, c(20,30,40,50))
> table(agegr)
agegr # the 20-year old is not included!
(20,30] (30,40] (40,50]
> agegr<-cut(age, c(20,30,40,50),right=FALSE)</pre>
> table(agegr)
agegr # the 50-year old is not included!
[20,30) [30,40) [40,50)
> agegr<-cut(age, c(20,30,40,50),</pre>
                              include.lowest=TRUE)
+
> table(agegr)
agegr
[20,30] (30,40] (40,50]
4 1 2
```

Basics

- Dates are usually read as character or factor variables
- Use the as.Date function to convert them to objects of class "Date"
- If data are not in the default format (YYYY-MM-DD) you need to supply a format specification

```
> as.Date("11/3-1959", format="%d/%m-%Y")[1] "1959-03-11"
```

► You can calculate differences between Date objects. The result is an object of class "difftime". To get the number of days between two dates, use

- Dates are usually read as character or factor variables
- Use the as.Date function to convert them to objects of class "Date"
- If data are not in the default format (YYYY-MM-DD) you need to supply a format specification

```
> as.Date("11/3-1959", format="%d/%m-%Y")
[1] "1959-03-11"
```

You can calculate differences between Date objects. The result is an object of class "difftime". To get the number of days between two dates, use

- Dates are usually read as character or factor variables
- Use the as.Date function to convert them to objects of class "Date"
- If data are not in the default format (YYYY-MM-DD) you need to supply a format specification

```
> as.Date("11/3-1959", format="%d/%m-%Y")
[1] "1959-03-11"
```

You can calculate differences between Date objects. The result is an object of class "difftime". To get the number of days between two dates, use

- Dates are usually read as character or factor variables
- Use the as.Date function to convert them to objects of class "Date"
- If data are not in the default format (YYYY-MM-DD) you need to supply a format specification

```
> as.Date("11/3-1959", format="%d/%m-%Y")
[1] "1959-03-11"
```

You can calculate differences between Date objects. The result is an object of class "difftime". To get the number of days between two dates, use

Creating your own functions

A very simple example:

Basics

```
logit \leftarrow function(p) log(p/(1-p))
```

The function logit requires one argument p and produces the logit of p. Try logit(0.5), or logit(0.25), ...

More complex (but still simple):

```
simpsum <- function(x, dec=5) {
m <- mean(x, na.rm=TRUE)
s <- sd(x, na.rm=TRUE)
round(c(mean=m, sd=s), dec) }</pre>
```

The function simpsum requires one argument x, but the second argument dec (no of decimal points in the output) has a default value 5. Try simpsum(a), or simpsum(a, dec=2).