NOTES md - R lesson

These notes are for the tutors on the two-part R Software/Data Carpentry course, taught 30-31st May 2019 at the University of St Andrews.

- TITLE
- ETHERPAD
- LEARNING OBJECTIVES
- 01. Introduction to R and RStudio
- 02. Getting To Know RStudio
- 03. A First Analysis in RStudio
- 04. Data Structures in R
- 05. Dataframes
- 06. Packages
- 07. Creating Publication-Quality Graphics
- 08. Working with data frames in dplyr
- 09. Program Flow Control
- 10. Functions
- 11. Dynamic Reports

THINGS TO REMEMBER

To clear a console environment in R:

rm(list=ls())

Start the slides

TITLE

• Programming in R: Part One

ETHERPAD

• Please use the Etherpad for the course **DEMONSTRATE LINK**

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

- We're being QUITE AMBITIOUS, and covering a few things, but we HAVE TWO SESSIONS, so should be OK
- We'll be covering the fundamentals of R and RStudio how to GET AROUND R AND WHAT RStudio CAN DO

 You'll come away with fundamental knowledge applicable to PROGRAMMING IN ANY LANGUAGE

- We'll be learning some of the best practices for writing and organising your code
 (INCLUDING GIT IN PART 2) and for reproducible computing
- Finally, we'll be going through how to use these skills to be MORE EFFECTIVE WITH DATA ANALYSIS in R

01. Introduction to R and RStudio

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- We're going to talk in general terms about **WHAT** R and RSTUDIO are.
- We're also going to discuss WHAT MAKES THEM DIFFERENT FROM SOME OTHER TOOLS
 you might already use for similar tasks, like Excel

SLIDE: What is R?

- R is a **PROGRAMMING LANGUAGE**, and the **SOFTWARE** that runs programs written in that language.
- R is AVAILABLE ON ALL MAJOR OPERATING SYSTEMS
- This can sometimes be confusing IF AT ANY POINT I AM UNCLEAR, PLEASE ASK!
- HAS ANYONE IN THE ROOM USED R BEFORE? GREEN STICKY
 - If anyone has used R, please could you be available to help one of your neighbours who has not, if they have any questions. Look around you if there's someone nearby with a green sticky, say 'hi'!
- WHY USE OR TEACH R?
 - R is **FREE AS IN "FREE SAMPLES AT THE SUPERMARKET"**, and very **WIDELY-USED** across a range of disciplines.
 - There are MANY USEFUL PACKAGES or data analysis and statistics, written by experts at the cutting edge of their fields
 - It has excellent **GRAPHICS CAPABILITIES**
 - There is an international, friendly **COMMUNITY** across a range of disciplines, so it's easy to find local and online support

SLIDE: But I already know Excel

- I'm **NOT HERE TO CRITICISE EXCEL**. Excel is brilliant at what it's meant to do. It's **POWERFUL** and **INTUITIVE**.
- But R HAS MANY ADVANTAGES FOR REPRODUCIBLE AND COMPLEX ANALYSIS
- A key thing for reproducibility is that it **SEPARATES DATA FROM ANALYSIS**.

• In R, when you do anything to the original data, that original data remains unmodified (unless you overwrite the file).

- POINT OF GOOD PRACTICE: RAW DATA SHOULD BE READ-ONLY
- In Excel however it's easy to overwrite data with copy-and-paste (and many bad things have happened as a result) see Mike Croucher's talk for examples.
- Because **YOUR ANALYSIS IN R IS A PROGRAM**, every step is written down explicitly, and is transparent and understandable by someone else.
 - In Excel, there is no clear record of where you moved your mouse, or what you copied and pasted, and it's not immediately obvious how your formulas work.
- R code is **EASY TO SHARE AND ADAPT**, and to apply again to a different or a modified input dataset. It's easy to publish the analyses via online resources, such as GitHub.
- R code can also be **RUN ON EXTREMELY LARGE DATASETS**, quickly. That's much harder in Excel.

SLIDE: What is RStudio?

- RStudio is an INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT which is to say it's a very powerful tool for writing and using R and programs in the R language.
 - It's available on ALL MAJOR OPERATING SYSTEMS
 - It's available as a webserver, too.
- On the left is a screenshot **WHILE I WAS WRITING THIS PRESENTATION IN RSTUDIO** on a Mac
- On the right is the Windows version, with an **EXAMPLE ANALYSIS AND VISUALISATION**
- You can use it to INTERACT WITH R DIRECTLY TO EXPERIMENT WITH DATA
- It has a **CODE/SCRIPT EDITOR FOR WRITING PROGRAMS**
- It has tools for VISUALISING DATA
- It has built-in GIT INTEGRATION FOR MANAGING YOUR PROJECTS

02. Getting To Know RStudio

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- We need to get some FAMILIARITY WITH OUR WORKING ENVIRONMENT: the RStudio IDE
- Develop some **BEST PRACTICES FOR PROJECT MANAGEMENT** in general, and in RStudio
- We'll introduce R syntax, and SEE HOW R REPRESENTS DATA and how to PROGRAM IN R
- If we have time we'll deal with MANAGING SOME OF THE MANY USEFUL PACKAGES available in R

SLIDE: RStudio overview - Interactive Demo

- **START RStudio** (click icon/go into start menu and select RStudio/etc.)
 - CHECK EVERYONE CAN START RSTUDIO



Red sticky for a question or issue



Green sticky if complete

- REMIND PEOPLE THEY CAN USE RED/GREEN STICKIES AT ANY TIME
- You should see THREE PANELS
 - Interactive R console: you can type here and get instant feedback
 - Environment/History window
 - Files/Plots/Packages/Help/Viewer: interacting with files on the computer, and viewing help and some output
- REMEMBER THE WINDOWS ARE MOBILE AND PEOPLE COULD HAVE THEM IN ANY CONFIGURATION - THE EXACT ARRANGEMENT IS UNIMPORTANT
- We're going to use R in the interactive console to get used to some of the features of the language, and RStudio. **DEMO CODE: ASK PEOPLE TO TYPE ALONG**
 - THE RIGHT ANGLED BRACKET IS A PROMPT: R EXPECTS INPUT
 - TYPE THE CALCULATION, THEN PRESS RETURN

```
> 1 + 100
[1] 101
> 30 / 3
[1] 10
```

- RESULT IS INDICATED WITH A NUMBER [1] this indicates the line with output in it
- If you type an **INCOMPLETE COMMAND**, R will wait for you to complete it
 - DEMO CODE

```
> 1 +
+
```

- The PROMPT CHANGES TO + WHEN R EXPECTS MORE INPUT
- You can either complete the line, or use Esc (Ctrl-C) to exit

```
> 1 +
+ 6
[1] 7
> 1 +
```

```
+ >
```

- R obeys the usual **PRECEDENCE OPERATIONS** ((, **/^, /, *, +, -)
 - DEMO CODE: NOTE SPACES AROUND OPERATORS

```
> 3 + 5 * 2
[1] 13
> (3 + 5) * 2
[1] 16
> 3 + 5 * 2 ^ 2
[1] 23
> 3 + 5 * (2 ^ 2)
[1] 23
```

- ARROW KEYS RECOVER OLD COMMANDS
- THE HISTORY TAB SHOWS ALL COMMANDS USED
- R will report in **SCIENTIFIC NOTATION**
 - CHECK THAT EVERYONE KNOWS WHAT SCIENTIFIC NOTATION IS



Red sticky for a question or issue



Green sticky if complete

```
> 2 / 1000
[1] 0.002
> 2 / 10000
[1] 2e-04
> 5e3
[1] 5000
```

- R has many STANDARD MATHEMATICAL FUNCTIONS
- FUNCTION SYNTAX
 - type the function name
 - o open parentheses
 - o type input value
 - close parentheses
 - o press return
 - **DEMO CODE**

```
> sin(1)
[1] 0.841471
> log(1)
```

```
[1] 0
> log10(10)
[1] 1
> log(10)
[1] 2.302585
```

- How do we learn more about a function, or the difference between log() and log10()?
- USE R BUILT-IN HELP
 - Type? then the function name
 - Scroll to the bottom of the page to find example code

```
> ?log
```

- This brings up help in the HELP WINDOW
- You can also use the **SEARCH BOX** at the top of the help window (try sin())
- If you're not sure about spelling, the editor has **AUTOCOMPLETION** which will suggest all possible endings for something you type (try log) **USE TAB TO SEE AUTOCOMPLETIONS**
- We can do **COMPARISONS** in R
 - Comparisons return TRUE or FALSE. DEMO CODE
 - **NOTE:** when comparing numbers, it's better to use all.equal() (machine numeric tolerance) **ASK IF THERE'S ANYONE FROM MATHS/PHYSICS**

```
> 1 == 1
[1] TRUE
> 1 != 2
[1] TRUE
> 1 < 2
[1] TRUE
> 1 <= 1
[1] TRUE
> 1 > 0
[1] TRUE
> 1 >= -9
[1] TRUE
> all.equal(1.0, 1.0)
[1] TRUE
> all.equal(1.0, 1.1)
[1] "Mean relative difference: 0.1"
> all.equal(pi-1e-7, pi)
[1] "Mean relative difference: 3.183099e-08"
> all.equal(pi-1e-8, pi)
[1] TRUE
> pi-1e-8 == pi
[1] FALSE
```

• THE ORDER/CONSTRUCTION OF MATHEMATICAL OPERATIONS CAN MATTER

- Write somewhere if possible: $a = \{\log(0.01^{200}), b = 200 \}$
- These two mathematical expressions are exactly equal: \$a = b\$
- But computers are not mathematicians, they're machines. Numbers are susceptible to this *rounding error*, so what happens is this:

```
> log(0.01^200)
[1] -Inf
> 200 * log(0.01)
[1] -921.034
```

COMPUTERS DO WHAT YOU TELL THEM, NOT NECESSARILY WHAT YOU WANT

SLIDE: Variables

- VARIABLES are critical to programming in general, and also to working in R
- Variables are like NAMED BOXES
 - Like a box, they **HOLD THINGS**
 - When we make reference to a box's name, we MEAN THE THING THE BOX
 CONTAINS
- Here, the box is called Name, and it contains the word Samia
- When we refer to the box, we call it Name, and we might ask questions like:
 - "What is the length of Name?", meaning "What is the length of the word in the box called Name?" (answer: 5)

SLIDE: Variables - Interactive Demo

- This is a very important concept, so we're going to go through some practical examples, to reinforce it
 - In R, variables are assigned with the ASSIGNMENT OPERATOR <--
 - We will assign the value 1/40 to the variable x
 - DEMO CODE

```
> x <- 1 / 40
```

• At first, nothing seems to happen, but we can see that the variable x now exists, and contains the value 0.025 - a **DECIMAL APPROXMATION** of the fraction 1/40

```
> x
[1] 0.025
```

CLICK ON THE ENVIRONMENT WINDOW

- You should see that x is defined, there
- The *Environment* window in RStudio tells you the name and content of every variable currently active in your R session.
- This VARIABLE CAN BE USED ANYWHERE THAT EXPECTS A NUMBER

such as an argument to a function

```
> log(x)
[1] -3.688879
> sin(x)
[1] 0.0249974
> x + x
[1] 0.05
> 2 * x
[1] 0.05
> x ^ 2
[1] 0.00625
```

- We can REASSIGN VALUES TO VARIABLES
 - MONITOR THE VALUE OF x IN THE ENVIRONMENT WINDOW
 - We can also assign a variable to itself, to modify the variable

```
> x <- 100
> x <- x + 5
```

- We can assign **ANY KIND OF VALUE** to a variable
 - Including **STRINGS** i.e. sets of characters

```
> name <- "Samia"
> name
[1] "Samia"
```

- But **BE CAREFUL** R is not always intuitive
 - Strings in particular may not work the way you expect

```
> length(name)
[1] 1
> nchar(name)
[1] 5
```

SLIDE: Functions

• You've already used some **functions** (log(), sin(), etc.). These are like "canned scripts"

- Functions have THREE MAIN PURPOSES
 - They **ENCAPSULATE COMPLEX TASKS** you don't need to worry about how a sine is calculated, just that you give the function a value, and it tells you what the sine is.
 - They MAKE CODE MORE READABLE by dividing code into logical operations, represented by short names that describe an action, the code is easier to read
 - They also MAKE CODE MORE REUSABLE you don't need to write the routine for finding a square root every time you want one, you just need to call the sqrt() function
- ALL THE FUNCTIONS YOU'VE SEEN SO FAR ARE BUILT-IN, the so-called base functions
- YOU CAN WRITE YOUR OWN FUNCTIONS
- OTHER FUNCTIONS FOR SPECIFIC TASKS CAN BE BROUGHT IN, THROUGH libraries
- Functions usually **TAKE ARGUMENTS** (input), e.g. sqrt(4) the 4 is an argument
- Functions often **RETURN** values (output), e.g. sqrt(4) returns the value 2

SLIDE: Getting Help for Functions

DEMO IN CONSOLE

SLIDE: Removing Variables

- To remove ONE OR MORE SPECIFIED VARIABLES, use rm()
 - ls() IS A FUNCTION THAT LISTS VARIABLES (like the Environment tab)
 - DEMO CODE

```
> x <- 1
> y <- 2
```

```
> z <- 3
> ls()
[1] "x" "y" "z"
> rm(x)
> ls()
[1] "y" "z"
> rm(y, z)
> ls()
character(0)
```

SLIDE: Challenge

Solution:

mass <- 47.5 This will give a value of 47.5 for the variable mass

age <- 122 This will give a value of 122 for the variable age

mass \leftarrow mass * 2.3 This will multiply the existing value of 47.5 by 2.3 to give a new value of 109.25 to the variable mass.

age < age - 20 This will subtract 20 from the existing value of 122 to give a new value of 102 to the variable age.



Red sticky for a question or issue



Green sticky if complete

SLIDE: Good Variable Names

- Good variable names SHOULD HELP YOU DESCRIBE WHAT'S GOING ON
 - Helpful FOR YOU AND FOR OTHERS
- It's better to avoid using names that already exist
- Use a **CONSISTENT NAMING STYLE**
- Rules for VARIABLE NAMES DIFFER BETWEEN LANGUAGES
- IN R
 - You can only use LETTERS, NUMBERS, UNDERSCORES, AND PERIODS
 - You can't start variable names with a number
 - You can't use whitespace in a variable name

SLIDE: Good Project Management Practices

There is NO SINGLE GOOD WAY TO ORGANISE A PROJECT

- It's important to find something that WORKS FOR YOU
- But it's ALSO IMPORTANT THAT IT WORKS FOR COLLABORATORS
- Some PRINCIPLES MAKE THINGS EASIER FOR EVERYONE

Using a SINGLE WORKING DIRECTORY PER PROJECT/ANALYSIS

- NAME IT AFTER THE PROJECT
- EASY TO PACKAGE UP the whole directory and move it around, or share it OR
 PUBLISH ALONGSIDE YOUR PAPER
- NO NEED TO HUNT AROUND THE WHOLE DISK to find relevant or important files.
- You can use **RELATIVE PATHS** that will always work, so long as you work within the project directory
- Treat your RAW DATA AS READ-ONLY
 - Establishes PROVENANCE and ENABLES REANALYSIS
 - Keep in **SEPARATE SUBFOLDER**
- CLEAN THE DATA PROGRAMMATICALLY (part of the analysis chain)
 - Remove/fill in null values, etc. whatever is appropriate
 - KEEP CLEANED DATA SEPARATE FROM RAW like food hygiene
- GENERATED OUTPUT IS DISPOSABLE
 - This means ANYTHING GENERATED AUTOMATICALLY BY YOUR CODE/ANALYSIS
 - If a file can be generated by scripts/code in your project, no need to put it under version control

SLIDE: Example Directory Structure

- This is ONE WAY TO STRUCTURE YOUR WORKING DIRECTORY
 - It's a good starting point, but something else might be more appropriate for your own work
- WORKING DIR/ is the *root* directory of the project.
 - Everything related to the project (subdirectories of data, scripts and figures; git files; configuration files; notes to yourself; whatever)
- data/ is a subdirectory for storing data
 - raw data only, or raw and intermediate data? YOUR DECISION
 - data/raw, data/intermediate USE SUBFOLDERS WHEN SENSIBLE
- data_output/ could be a place to write the analysis output (.csv files etc.)
- documents/ is a place where notes, drafts, and explanatory text could be stored
- fig_output/ could be a place to write graphical output of the analysis (keep separate from tables)

• scripts might be where you would choose to keep executable code that automates your analysis

• The important thing is that the structure is **SELF-EXPLANATORY WHERE POSSIBLE**

SLIDE: Project Management in RStudio

- RStudio TRIES TO BE HELPFUL and provides the 'Project' concept
 - Keeps ALL PROJECT FILES IN A SINGLE DIRECTORY
 - INTEGRATES WITH GIT
 - Enables switching between projects within RStudio
 - Keeps project histories
- INTERACTIVE DEMO
- CREATE PROJECT
- Click File -> New Project
 - Options for how we want to create a project: brand new in a new working directory; turn an existing directory into a project; or checkout a project from GitHub or some other repository
- Click New Directory
 - Options for various things we can do in RStudio. Here we want New Project
- Click New Project
 - We are asked for a directory name. **ENTER** swc-r-lesson
 - We are asked for a parent directory. PUT YOURS ON THE DESKTOP; STUDENTS CAN
 CHOOSE ANYWHERE SENSIBLE
- Click Create Project
- YOU SHOULD SEE AN EMPTY-ISH RSTUDIO WINDOW
- INSPECT PROJECT ENVIRONMENT
- First, **NOTE THE WINDOWS**: editor; environment; files
- **EDITOR** is empty
- ENVIRONMENT is empty
- FILES shows
 - CURRENT WORKING DIRECTORY (see breadcrumb trail)
 - ONE FILES: *.Rproj information about your project
- CREATE DIRECTORIES IN PROJECT

- Create directories called scripts and data
 - Click on New Folder
 - Enter directory name (scripts)
 - Note that the directory now exists in the Files tab
 - Do the same for data/
- NOTE THAT WE WILL NOW POPULATE THE DIRECTORY

SLIDE: Working in RStudio

- RStudio offers SEVERAL WAYS TO WRITE CODE
 - We'll not see all of them today
 - You've seen **DIRECT INTERACTION IN THE CONSOLE** (entering variables)
 - RStudio also has an editor for writing scripts, notebooks, markdown documents, and Shiny applications (EXPLAIN BRIEFLY)
 - It can also be used to write plain text
- INTERACTIVE DEMO OF R SCRIPT
- Click on File -> New File -> Text File. NOTE THAT THE EDITOR WINDOW OPENS
- Enter the following text, and EXPLAIN CSV
 - plain text file
 - one row per line
 - column entries separated by commas
 - first row is header data
 - NEEDS A BLANK LINE AT THE END
 - DATA DESCRIBES CATS

```
coat,weight,likes_string
calico,2.1,1
black,5.0,0
tabby,3.2,1
```

- SAVE THE FILE AS data/feline_data.csv
 - o Click on disk icon
 - Navigate to data/ subdirectory
 - Enter filename feline_data.csv
- CLOSE THE EDITOR FOR THAT FILE
- Click on File -> New File -> R Script.
- EXPLAIN COMMENTS while entering the code below
 - COMMENTS ANNOTATE YOUR CODE: reminders for you, and information for others

• EXPLAIN read.csv()

 read.csv() is a FUNCTION that reads data from a CSV-FORMAT FILE into a variable in R

```
# Script for exploring data structures
# Load cat data as a dataframe
cats <- read.csv(file = "data/feline_data.csv")</pre>
```

SAVE THE SCRIPT

- Click on File -> Save
- Navigate to the scripts/ subdirectory
- Enter filename data_structures (EXTENSION IS AUTOMATICALLY APPLIED)

DO YOU SEE THE VARIABLE IN THE ENVIRONMENT?

• NO - because the code hasn't been executed, only written.

RUN THE SCRIPT

- Click on Source and NOTE THIS RUNS THE WHOLE SCRIPT
- Go to the Environment tab
 - NOTE THE DATA WAS LOADED IN THE VARIABLE cats
 - Note that there is a description of the data (3 obs. of 3 variables)
 - CLICK ON THE VARIABLE AND NOTE THAT THE TABLE IS NOW VISIBLE this is helpful
 - YOU CANNOT EDIT THE DATA IN THIS TABLE you can sort and filter, but not modify the data. This ENFORCES GOOD PRACTICE (compare to Excel).



Red sticky for a question or issue



Green sticky if complete

03. A First Analysis in RStudio

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- We're going to cover some ways of loading data into an R project/analysis
- We'll EXPLORE SOME FUNCTIONS FOR SUMMARISING DATA
- Sometimes we want to use only a portion of our data, and we'll see some WAYS OF INDEXING DATASETS
- We'll also look at some ways to PLOT DATA IN R, using the built-in base graphics

SLIDE: Our Task

- We've got some medical data relating to a new treatment for arthritis
- There are some measurements of patient inflammation, taken over a period of days posttreatment for each patient
- We've been ASKED TO PRODUCE A SUMMARY AND SOME GRAPHS
- DOWNLOAD THE FILE FROM THE LINK TO data/
- EXPLAIN THE LINK IS ON THE ETHERPAD PAGE (no need to type!)
- DEMO THIS
 - NOTE: A new directory is created within data, called data. THIS IS UNTIDY, SO LET'S CLEAN
 - COPY ALL FILES BEGINNING WITH inflammation TO THE PARENT FOLDER
 - THEN DELETE THE SUBFOLDER AND ZIP FILE
 - ADD THE DATA FILES TO THE REPO (can shift-click, here)
- CHECK EVERYONE'S READY TO PROCEED



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SLIDE: Loading Data - Interactive Demo

 We've already created some cat data manually, but THIS IS UNUSUAL - most data comes in the form of plain text files

START DEMO

- INSPECT DATA IN FILES WINDOW
 - Click on filename, and select View File
 - Note: THERE IS NO HEADER and THERE ARE NO ROW NAMES
 - Ask: IS THIS WELL-FORMATTED DATA?
 - I happen to know that there is one row per patient, and the columns are days, in turn, post-treatment, and measurements are inflammation levels
- WHAT IS THE DATA TYPE
 - Tabular, with EACH COLUMN SEPARATED BY A COMMA, so CSV
 - IN THE CONSOLE use read.csv() to read the data in
 - Note: IF WE DON'T ASSIGN THE RESULT TO A VARIABLE WE JUST SEE THE DATA
- CREATE A NEW SCRIPT
 - Click the triangle next to the new document icon
 - Add the code and SAVE AS scripts/inflammation (RStudio adds the extension)
 - See that the file appears in Files window

```
# Preliminary analysis of inflammation in arthritis patients
# Load data (no headers, CSV)
data <- read.csv(file = "data/inflammation-01.csv", header = FALSE)</pre>
```

• INSPECT THE DATA

- Source the script
- Check the Environment window: 60 observations (patients) of 40 variables (days)
- CLICK ON data
- COLUMN HEADERS ARE PROVIDED: Vn for variable n
- o dim() dimensions of data: rows X columns
- length() number of columns in the table
- ncol() number of columns in the table
- o nrow() number of rows in the table

```
> head(data, n = 2)
 V1 V2 V3 V4 V5 V6 V7 V8 V9 V10 V11 V12 V13 V14 V15 V16 V17 V18 V19 V20
V21 V22 V23 V24 V25 V26
1 0 0 1 3 1 2 4 7 8 3 3 3 10
                                       5
                                         7
                                                  7 12 18
6 13 11 11 7
                7
2 0 1 2 1 2 1 3 2 2 6 10 11
                                  5
                                     9
                                        4 4 7 16
                                                         6
18 4 12 5 12
 V27 V28 V29 V30 V31 V32 V33 V34 V35 V36 V37 V38 V39 V40
1 4 6 8 8 4
                   4 5
                         7
                             3
                                 4
                                    2
     5 11 3 3 5
                       4 4 5
                                 5
                                   1
                                      1
                                             1
2 11
> dim(data)
[1] 60 40
> length(data)
[1] 40
> ncol(data)
[1] 40
> nrow(data)
[1] 60
```

SLIDE: Challenge

SOLUTION

```
read.csv(file='file.csv', sep=';', dec=',')
```



Red sticky for a question or issue



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SLIDE: Indexing Data

- HOW DO WE GET ACCESS TO A SUBSET OF THE DATA?
- We can refer to an element in our dataset by *indexing* it
 - We LOCATE A SINGLE ELEMENT as [row, column] in square brackets

```
> ncol(data)
[1] 40
> data[1,1]
[1] 0
> data[50,1]
[1] 0
> data[50,20]
[1] 16
> data[30,20]
[1] 16
```

• To get a **RANGE OF VALUES**, use the : separator to mean 'to':

```
> data[1:4, 1:4]  # rows 1 to 4; columns 1 to 4
    V1 V2 V3 V4
1    0    0    1    3
2    0    1    2    1
3    0    1    1    3
4    0    0    2    0
> data[30:32, 20:22]
    V20 V21 V22
30    16    14    15
31    16    13    7
32    9    19    15
```

• To get a WHOLE ROW OR COLUMN, leave that entry blank

```
> data[5,]
 V1 V2 V3 V4 V5 V6 V7 V8 V9 V10 V11 V12 V13 V14 V15 V16 V17 V18 V19 V20
V21 V22 V23 V24 V25 V26
5 0 1 1 3 3 1 3 5 2 4 4 7 6 5 3 10 8 10 6 17
9 14 9 7 13
 V27 V28 V29 V30 V31 V32 V33 V34 V35 V36 V37 V38 V39 V40
5 12 6
               9 6 3 2 2
                                4
                                    2 0
            7
> data[,16]
[1] 4 4 15 8 10 15 13 9 11 6 3 8 12 3 5 10 11 4 11 13 15 5 14
13 4 9 13 6 7 6 14
[32] 3 15 4 15 11 7 10 15 6 5 6 15 11 15 6 11 15 14 4 10 15 11 6
13 8 4 13 12 9
```

SLIDE: Summary Functions - Interactive Demo

• R was designed for data analysis, so has many built-in functions for analysing and describing data

TALK THROUGH CODE IN CONSOLE

```
> max(data)
[1] 20
> max(data[2,])
[1] 18
> max(data[,7])
[1] 6
> min(data[,7])
[1] 1
> mean(data[,7])
[1] 3.8
> median(data[,7])
[1] 4
> sd(data[,7])
[1] 1.725187
```

SLIDE: Challenge

```
> animal <- c('d', 'o', 'n', 'k', 'e', 'y')
> animal[1:3]
[1] "d" "o" "n"
> animal[4:6]
[1] "k" "e" "y"
> animal[3:1]
[1] "n" "o" "d"
> animal[-1]
[1] "o" "n" "k" "e" "y"
> animal[-4]
[1] "d" "o" "n" "e" "y"
> animal[-1:-4]
[1] "e" "y"
> animal[-1:4]
Error in animal[-1:4] : only 0's may be mixed with negative subscripts
```



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SLIDE: Repetitive Calculations - Interactive Demo

• We might want to **CALCULATE MEAN INFLAMMATION FOR EACH PATIENT**, but doing it the way we've just seen is tedious and slow.

- What we'd like to do is APPLY A FUNCTION TO EACH ROW
- Happily COMPUTERS WERE INVENTED TO SAVE US THE HASSLE
- We could automate this task in any of several ways available in R
 - R has an apply() function exactly for this
 - IN THE CONSOLE

```
> apply(X = data, MARGIN = 1, FUN = mean)
[1] 5.450 5.425 6.100 5.900 5.550 6.225 5.975 6.650 6.625 6.525 6.775
5.800 6.225 5.750 5.225
[16] 6.300 6.550 5.700 5.850 6.550 5.775 5.825 6.175 6.100 5.800 6.425
6.050 6.025 6.175 6.550
[31] 6.175 6.350 6.725 6.125 7.075 5.725 5.925 6.150 6.075 5.750 5.975
5.725 6.300 5.900 6.750
[46] 5.925 7.225 6.150 5.950 6.275 5.700 6.100 6.825 5.975 6.725 5.700
6.250 6.400 7.050 5.900
```

- IN OUR ANALYSIS SCRIPT we want to assign these values to a variable, and ALSO CALCULATE AVERAGE BY DAY
 - So long as we provide arguments in the correct order, WE DON'T NEED TO PROVIDE
 ARGUMENT NAMES true for most R functions

```
# Calculate average inflammation by patient and day
avg_inflammation_patient <- apply(X = data, MARGIN = 1, FUN = mean)
avg_inflammation_day <- apply(data, 2, mean)</pre>
```

- RUN THE LINES
 - Note that the values appear in the Environment tab
- Like many common operations, there's an R function that's a shortcut
 - IN THE CONSOLE

```
> rowMeans(data)
 [1] 5.450 5.425 6.100 5.900 5.550 6.225 5.975 6.650 6.625 6.525 6.775
5.800 6.225 5.750 5.225
[16] 6.300 6.550 5.700 5.850 6.550 5.775 5.825 6.175 6.100 5.800 6.425
6.050 6.025 6.175 6.550
[31] 6.175 6.350 6.725 6.125 7.075 5.725 5.925 6.150 6.075 5.750 5.975
5.725 6.300 5.900 6.750
[46] 5.925 7.225 6.150 5.950 6.275 5.700 6.100 6.825 5.975 6.725 5.700
6.250 6.400 7.050 5.900
> colMeans(data)
        ٧1
                   V2
                            ٧3
                                         V4
                                                    V5
                                                               V6
٧7
                      ۷9
           ٧8
0.0000000 0.4500000 1.1166667 1.7500000 2.4333333 3.1500000
3.8000000 3.8833333 5.2333333
```

V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15	
V16	V17	V18				
5.5166667	5.9500000	5.9000000	8.3500000	7.7333333	8.3666667	
9.5000000	9.5833333	10.6333333				
V19	V20	V21	V22	V23	V24	
V25	V26	V27				
11.5666667	12.3500000	13.2500000	11.9666667	11.0333333	10.1666667	
10.0000000	8.6666667	9.1500000				
V28	V29	V30	V31	V32	V33	
V34	V35	V36				
7.2500000	7.3333333	6.5833333	6.0666667	5.9500000	5.1166667	
3.6000000	3.3000000	3.5666667				
V37	V38	V39	V40			
2.4833333	1.5000000	1.1333333	0.5666667			

SLIDE: Base Graphics

- We're doing all this work to try to GAIN INSIGHT INTO OUR DATA
- VISUALISATION IS A KEY ROUTE TO INSIGHT
- R has many graphics packages some of which produce extremely beautiful images, or are tailored to a specific problem domain
- The built-in graphics are known as base graphics
- They may not be as pretty, or as immediately suited for all circumstances as some other packages, but they are still very powerful

SLIDE: Plotting - Interactive Demo

- IN THE SCRIPT
 - R's plot() FUNCTION IS GENERAL AND WORKS FOR MANY KINDS OF DATA
 - RUN EACH LINE IN TURN
 - **NOTE WHERE PLOTS SHOW** (Plot window)
 - Opportunity to note: VARIABLES HELP READABILITY
 - **USE ARROW BUTTONS** to cycle through plots

```
# Plot data summaries
# Average inflammation by patient
plot(avg_inflammation_patient)

# Average inflammation per day
plot(avg_inflammation_day)

# Maximum inflammation per day
max_inflammation_day <- apply(data, 2, max)
plot(max_inflammation_day)</pre>
```

```
# Minimum inflammation per day
plot(apply(data, 2, min))

# Show a histogram of average patient inflammation
hist(avg_inflammation_patient)
```

- THE hist() FUNCTION PLOTS A HISTOGRAM OF INPUT DATA FREQUENCY/COUNT
 - The choice of bin sizes/breaks could be improved
 - We need to PROVIDE THE BOUNDARIES BETWEEN BINS
 - IN THE CONSOLE

```
hist(avg_inflammation_patient, breaks=c(5, 6, 7, 8))
```

- We'd have to TYPE IN A LOT OF NUMBERS to get smaller breaks, which is SLOW
 - The seq() function generates a sequence of numbers for us

```
> seq(5, 8)
[1] 5 6 7 8
> hist(avg_inflammation_patient, breaks=seq(5, 8))
```

We can SET THE INTERVAL OF THE SEQUENCE

```
> seq(5, 8, by=0.2)
[1] 5.0 5.2 5.4 5.6 5.8 6.0 6.2 6.4 6.6 6.8 7.0 7.2 7.4 7.6 7.8 8.0
> hist(avg_inflammation_patient, breaks=seq(5, 8, by=0.2))
```

- IN THE SCRIPT
 - Add a line with the histogram for average patient inflammation

```
# Show a historgram of average patient inflammation
hist(avg_inflammation_patient, breaks=seq(5, 8, by=0.2))
```

- IN THE SCRIPT
 - Demonstrate changing the input file
 - CHANGING FILENAME IN A SCRIPT IS QUICKER THAN RETYPING ALL THE COMMANDS

SLIDE: Challenge

```
# Plot standard deviation by day
plot(apply(data, 2, sd))
```



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04. Data Structures in R

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- In this section, you'll be learning about the data types in R: WHAT DATA IS
- You'll also be learning about the data structures: WHAT DATA IS BUILT INTO HOW IT IS ARRANGED
- And you'll also learn how to find out what type/structure a particular piece of data has
- Putting it together, you'll see how R's data types and structures relate to the types of data that you work with, yourself.

SLIDE: Data Types and Structures in R

- R is MOSTLY USED FOR DATA ANALYSIS
- R is set up with key, core data types designed to help you work with your own data
- A lot of the time, R focuses on tabular data (like our cat example)
- INTERACTIVE DEMO
- **SWITCH TO THE CONSOLE** (Establish that cats is available as a variable)
- If you type cats, you get a nice tabular representation of your data

- THINK ABOUT THE DATA TYPES Are they all the same?
 - NO coat is text; weight is some real value (in kg or pounds, maybe), and likes string looks like it should be TRUE/FALSE
 - DOES IT MAKE SENSE TO WORK WITH THEM AS IF THEY'RE THE SAME THING?
 (No)
- EXTRACT A COLUMN FROM A TABLE
 - Use \$ notation in the console

• NOTE THE AUTOCOMPLETION

```
> cats$weight
[1] 2.1 5.0 3.2
```

WHAT DID R RETURN?

• A vector (1D ordered collection) of numbers

• WE CAN OPERATE ON THESE **VECTORS**

 Vectors are an important concept, and R is largely built so that operations on vectors are central to data analysis.

```
> cats$weight + 2
[1] 4.1 7.0 5.2
```

WHAT ABOUT OTHER COLUMNS?

```
> cats$coat
[1] calico black tabby
Levels: black calico tabby
```

WHAT DID R RETURN?

- A vector of levels
- We'll talk about these in more detail shortly, but the key point is that R DOESN'T
 THINK THEY'RE ONLY WORDS it THINKS THEY'RE NAMED CATEGORIES OF
 OBJECT. R is always assuming that you mean to import data
- We can operate on this vector, too (**EXPLAIN** paste())

```
> paste("My cat is", cats$coat)
[1] "My cat is calico" "My cat is black" "My cat is tabby"
```

WHAT HAPPENS NEXT?

```
> cats$weight + cats$coat
[1] NA NA NA
Warning message:
In Ops.factor(cats$weight, cats$coat) : '+' not meaningful for factors
```

- You probably already realised that wasn't going to work, because adding "calico" to "2.1" is nonsense.
- THESE DATA TYPES ARE NOT COMPATIBLE for addition
- R's data types reflect the ways in which data is expected to interact

UNDERSTANDING HOW YOUR DATA MAP TO R's DATA TYPES IS KEY

- It's very important to understand how R sees your data (you want R to see your data the same way you do)
- Many problems in R come down to incompatibilities between data and data types.

SLIDE: What Data Types Do You Expect?

- ASK THE STUDENTS
 - What data types would you expect to see?
 - What data types do you think you would **WANT OR NEED**, from your own experience?
- SPEND A COUPLE OF MINUTES ON THIS
 - The difference between a data type and a data structure

SLIDE: Data Types in R

- R's data types are atomic: they are FUNDAMENTAL AND EVERYTHING ELSE IS BUILT UP FROM THEM, like matter is built up from atoms
 - In particular, all the data *structures* are built up from data *types*
- There are only **FIVE DATA TYPES** in R (though one is split into two···)
 - **logical**: Boolean, True/False (also 1/0)
 - **numeric**: anything that's a number on the number line; two types of number are supported: **integer** and **double** (real)
 - o complex: complex numbers, defined on the 2D plane
 - character: text data readable symbols
 - **raw**: binary data (we'll not be dealing with this)
- LET'S LEARN A BIT MORE ABOUT THEM IN THE DEMO
- ENTER DEFINITIONS INTO THE SCRIPT
 - Covering the major data types

```
# Some variables of several data types
truth <- TRUE
lie <- FALSE
i <- 3L
d <- 3.0
c <- 3 + 0i
txt <- "TRUE"</pre>
```

EXECUTE THE VARIABLE DEFINITIONS

- Select the definition lines
- o Click on Run
- OBSERVE THAT THE LINES ARE RUN IN THE CONSOLE

- OBSERVE THAT THE VALUES ARE DEFINED IN THE ENVIRONMENT
- Note the difference between Data and Values in the environment
- USE typeof() TO FIND THE TYPE OF A VARIABLE

```
> typeof(i)
[1] "integer"
> typeof(c)
[1] "complex"
> typeof(d)
[1] "double"
```

• TO TEST IF A DATA ITEM HAS A TYPE, USE is.<type>()

```
> is.numeric(3)
[1] TRUE
> is.numeric(d)
[1] TRUE
> is.double(i)
[1] FALSE
> is.integer(d)
[1] FALSE
> is.numeric(txt)
[1] FALSE
> is.character(txt)
[1] TRUE
> is.character(truth)
[1] FALSE
> is.logical(truth)
[1] TRUE
```

- THE INTEGER, COMPLEX, AND DOUBLE ARE EQUAL even if they're not the same data type
 - o numbers are comparable, regardless of data type

```
> i == c
[1] TRUE
> i == d
[1] TRUE
> d == c
[1] TRUE
```

• INTEGER, COMPLEX AND DOUBLE ARE NOT ALL numeric though

```
> is.numeric(i)
[1] TRUE
```

```
> is.numeric(c)
[1] FALSE
```

SLIDE: Challenge

• Let the students work for a couple of minutes, then demonstrate.

SOLUTION

```
> answer = TRUE
> height = 183
> dog_name = "Spot"
> is.logical(answer)
[1] TRUE
> is.numeric(height)
[1] TRUE
> is.character(dog_name)
[1] TRUE
```



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SLIDE: FIVE COMMON R DATA STRUCTURES

- These are perhaps the five data structures you'll come across most often in R
- We'll deal with them through examples
- INTERACTIVE DEMO IN SCRIPT
- VECTORS
 - These are the MOST COMMON DATA STRUCTURE
 - Vectors can contain **ONLY A SINGLE DATA TYPE** (atomic vectors)
 - ADD CODE TO SCRIPT then use Run to run in console
 - To create a vector **USE THE c() FUNCTION** (c() is combine; use ?c)
 - First we define an ATOMIC VECTOR OF NUMBERS each element is an integer

```
# Define an integer vector
x <- c(10, 12, 45, 33)
```

- We can use some R functions to find out more about this variable
 - RUN CODE IN CONSOLE

```
> length(x)
[1] 4
> typeof(x)
[1] "double"
> str(x)
  num [1:4] 10 12 45 33
```

- The str() function REPORTS THE STRUCTURE OF A VARIABLE
 - Here, num means 'numeric'; [1:4] means there are four elements; the elements are listed
 - NOTE THAT THIS INFORMATION IS IN THE ENVIRONMENT TAB
- DEFINE A SECOND VECTOR IN THE SCRIPT

```
# Define a vector
xx <- c(1, 2, 'a')</pre>
```

In the Environment tab, you can see THIS IS A CHARACTER VECTOR

```
> length(xx)
[1] 3
> typeof(xx)
[1] "character"
> str(xx)
  chr [1:3] "1" "2" "a"
```

- IS THE TYPE OF THE VECTOR WHAT YOU EXPECTED?
 - This is one of the things that trips people up with R they think their data is of one type, but R thinks it makes more sense to have it as another type

SLIDE: Challenge

• Let the students work for a couple of minutes, then demonstrate.

SOLUTION

```
> xx <- c(1.7, "a")
> typeof(xx)
[1] "character"
> xx <- c(TRUE, 2)
> typeof(xx)
[1] "double"
> xx <- c("a", TRUE)</pre>
```

```
> typeof(xx)
[1] "character"
```



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SLIDE: Coercion

- Coercion is what happens when you COVERT ONE DATA TYPE INTO ANOTHER
- If R thinks it needs to, it will COERCE DATA IMPLICITLY without telling you
- There is a set order for coercion
 - logical can be coerced to integer, but integer cannot be coerced to logical
 - That's because integer can describe all logical values, but not vice versa
 - Everything can be represented as a character, so that's the fallback position for R
- IF THERE'S A FORMATTING PROBLEM IN YOUR DATA, R MIGHT CONVERT THE TYPE TO COPE
 - R will choose the simplest data type that can represent all items in the vector
- INTERACTIVE DEMO IN CONSOLE More useful things to do with vectors
- You can (usually) COERCE VECTORS MANUALLY with as type>()

```
> as.character(x)
[1] "10" "12" "45" "33"
> as.complex(x)
[1] 10+0i 12+0i 45+0i 33+0i
> as.logical(x)
[1] TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE
> xx
[1] "1" "2" "a"
> as.numeric(xx)
[1] 1 2 NA
Warning message:
NAs introduced by coercion
> as.logical(xx)
[1] NA NA NA
```

YOU CAN SKIP THE BITS BELOW FOR TIME AND MOVE ON TO FACTORS

- You can generate NUMBER SEQUENCES as vectors
 - The seq() function returns a vector
 - As does the : operator

```
> seq(10)
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
> seq(1, 10)
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
> seq(35, 40, by=0.5)
[1] 35.0 35.5 36.0 36.5 37.0 37.5 38.0 38.5 39.0 39.5 40.0
> 1:10
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
> 5:8
[1] 5 6 7 8
```

• You can **APPEND ELEMENTS TO A VECTOR WITH c()**

```
> x
[1] 10 12 45 33
> c(x, 57)
[1] 10 12 45 33 57
> x
[1] 10 12 45 33
> x <- c(x, 57)
> x
[1] 10 12 45 33 57
```

There are useful FUNCTIONS TO GET INFORMATION ABOUT A VECTOR

```
> x <- 0:10
> tail(x)
[1] 5 6 7 8 9 10
> head(x)
[1] 0 1 2 3 4 5
> head(x, n=2)
[1] 0 1
```

- You can GIVE VECTOR ELEMENTS NAMES
 - They're then referred to as named vectors

```
> x <- 1:4
> names(x)
NULL
> str(x)
  int [1:4] 1 2 3 4
> names(x) <- c("a", "b", "c", "d")
> x
a b c d
1 2 3 4
> str(x)
```

```
Named int [1:4] 1 2 3 4
- attr(*, "names")= chr [1:4] "a" "b" "c" "d"
```

SLIDE: Factors

- In general DATA COMES AS ONE OF TWO TYPES
 - Quantitative data represents measurable values. These are usually either
 CONTINUOUS (real values like a height in centimetres) or a COUNT (like number of beans in a tin).
 - Categorical data representing **DISCRETE GROUPS**, which can be **UNORDERED** (like "types of computer"; "educational establishments") or **ORDERED** (like floors of a building, or grades in school)
- THIS DISTINCTION IS CRITICAL IN MANY STATISTICAL/ANALYTICAL METHODS
- R WAS MADE FOR STATISTICS so has a special way of dealing with the difference
- FACTORS ARE SPECIAL VECTORS REPRESENTING CATEGORICAL DATA
 - Factors are stored as VECTORS OF LABELLED INTEGERS
 - Factors CANNOT BE TREATED AS TEXT
- CREATE FACTOR IN SCRIPT
 - We create a **FACTOR WITH THREE ELEMENTS**
 - Run the line

```
# Create a factor with three elements
> f <- factor(c("no", "yes", "no"))</pre>
```

- INSPECT THE FACTOR IN THE CONSOLE
 - When we look at the structure of the vector, it reports TWO LEVELS: "yes" and "no"
 - It also reports a list of values: 1 2 1
 - There is a mapping "no" -> 1 and "yes" -> 2
 - The VECTOR STORES INTEGERS 1 and 2, BUT THESE ARE LABELLED "no" and "yes"

```
> length(f)
[1] 3
> str(f)
  Factor w/ 2 levels "no","yes": 1 2 1
> levels(f)
[1] "no" "yes"
> f
[1] no yes no
Levels: no yes
```

- IN OUR cats DATA THE COAT WAS STORED AS A FACTOR
- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - The class() function IDENTIFIES DATA STRUCTURES
 - NOTE THAT BY DEFAULT FACTORS ARE NUMBERED IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER OF LABEL

```
> cats$coat
[1] calico black tabby
Levels: black calico tabby
> class(cats$coat)
[1] "factor"
> str(cats$coat)
Factor w/ 3 levels "black","calico",..: 2 1 3
```

SLIDE: Challenge

```
> f <- factor(c("case", "control", "case", "control", "case"))
> str(f)
Factor w/ 2 levels "case", "control": 1 2 1 2 1
> f <- factor(c("case", "control", "case", "control", "case"),
levels=c("control", "case"))
> str(f)
Factor w/ 2 levels "control", "case": 2 1 2 1 2
```



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SLIDE: Matrices

- Matrices may be the MOST IMPORTANT DATA STRUCTURE IN NUMERICAL ANALYSIS, central to pretty much any statistical operation
- THEY GET THEIR OWN SPECIAL DATA STRUCTURE IN R
- They are 2D vectors (so contain atomic values)
- CREATE MATRICES IN SCRIPT
 - Run the lines when done

```
# Create matrix of zeroes
m1 <- matrix(0, ncol = 6, nrow = 3)</pre>
```

```
# Create matrix of numbers 1 and 2
m2 <- matrix(c(1, 2), ncol = 3, nrow = 4)</pre>
```

• INSPECT THE RESULTS IN THE CONSOLE

- o ncol and nrow define the size of the matrix
- o providing a single value as the first argument fills the matrix with that value
- The length() of a matrix IS THE TOTAL NUMBER OF ELEMENTS

```
> class(m1)
[1] "matrix"
> m1
   [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6]
[1,] 0 0 0 0 0
                       0
                            0
[2,]
     0 0
              0
                   0
[3,]
                  0
                      0
                           0
          0
              0
> str(m1)
num [1:3, 1:6] 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ...
> length(m1)
[1] 18
```

- PROVIDING TWO VALUES TO THE FIRST ARGUMENT fills the matrix, too
 - So long as the LENGTH OF THE MATRIX IS A MULTIPLE OF THE INPUT LENGTH
 - We can **INDEX AND SLICE** just like before

SLIDE: Challenge (5min)

```
> m <- matrix(1:50, nrow = 5, ncol = 10)
> m
    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10]
[1,]
     1 6 11
                  16
                      21
                           26
                              31 36 41 46
[2,]
      2
           7
              12
                  17
                       22
                           27
                                32
                                    37
                                       42
                                              47
[3,]
      3
          8 13
                 18
                       23
                          28
                                33
                                   38 43
                                              48
                       24
                              34
             14
                  19
                           29
[4,]
                                   39
                                        44
                                              49
```

```
[5,] 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50
> ?matrix
> m <- matrix(1:50, nrow = 5, ncol = 10, byrow = TRUE)
    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10]
[1,]
     1 2 3 4 5
                        6
                          7
                               8
                                  9
                           17
                                        20
[2,]
    11
        12
           13
               14
                   15
                       16
                               18
                                   19
[3,]
   21 22 23 24 25
                          27
                                  29
                      26
                              28
                                        30
   31 32
           33 34 35 36 37
                              38 39
[4,]
                                        40
[5,] 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49
                                        50
```



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SLIDE: Lists

- lists are like vectors, EXCEPT THEY CAN HOLD ANY DATA TYPE
- CREATE NEW LIST IN SCRIPT
 - Run from script

```
# Create a list
l <- list(1, 'a', TRUE, matrix(0, nrow = 2, ncol = 2), f)

# Create a named list
l_named <- list(a = "SWC", b = 1:4)</pre>
```

- INSPECT THE LISTS IN THE CONSOLE
 - The elements are identified with **DOUBLE SQUARE BRACKETS** [[n]]
 - We use this LIKE ANY OTHER INDEX

```
> class(l)
[1] "list"
> class(l_named)
[1] "list"
> str(l)
List of 5
$ : num 1
$ : chr "a"
$ : logi TRUE
$ : num [1:2, 1:2] 0 0 0 0
$ : Factor w/ 2 levels "no","yes": 1 2 1
> str(l_named)
List of 2
$ a: chr "SWC"
```

```
$ b: int [1:4] 1 2 3 4
> l
[[1]]
[1] 1
[[2]]
[1] "a"
[[3]]
[1] TRUE
[[4]]
   [,1] [,2]
[1,] 0 0
[2,] 0 0
[[5]]
[1] no yes no
Levels: no yes
> l[[4]][1,1]
[1] 0
```

- THE NAMED LIST IS SLIGHTLY DIFFERENT
 - CAN STILL INDEX
 - But can also **NOW USE NAMES** with \$
 - INDICES CAN CHANGE IF DATA IS MODIFIED NAMES ARE MORE ROBUST
 - NAMES CAN ALSO BE MORE DESCRIPTIVE (HELPS UNDERSTANDING)

```
> l_named
$a
[1] "SWC"

$b
[1] 1 2 3 4
> l_named[[1]]
[1] "SWC"
> l_named[[2]]
[1] 1 2 3 4
> l_named$a
[1] "SWC"
> l_named$b
[1] 1 2 3 4
> names(l_named)
[1] "a" "b"
```

SLIDE: Logical Indexing

We've seen INDEXING and NAMES as ways to get elements from variables SO LONG AS
 WE KNOW WHICH ELEMENTS WE WANT

• LOGICAL INDEXING allows us to SPECIFY CONDITIONS FOR THE DATA WE WANT TO RECOVER

- For instance, we might want ALL VALUES OVER A THRESHOLD or ALL NAMES
 STARTING WITH 'S'
- **DEMO IN SCRIPT** (data_structures.R)
 - We create a vector of values as an example
 - We make a MASK OF TRUE/FALSE (i.e. logical) values
 - Run the lines

```
# Create a vector for logical indexing
v <- c(5.4, 6.2, 7.1, 4.8, 7.5)
mask <- c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)</pre>
```

- DEMO IN CONSOLE
- Now, when we USE THE MASK AS AN INDEX we only get THE ELEMENTS WHERE THE MASK IS TRUE

```
> v
[1] 5.4 6.2 7.1 4.8 7.5
> v[mask]
[1] 5.4 7.1 7.5
```

- COMPARATORS IN R RETURN VECTORS OF TRUE/FALSE VALUES
 - These can be USED AS LOGICAL MASKS FOR DATA
 - Comparators CAN BE COMBINED

```
> V
[1] 5.4 6.2 7.1 4.8 7.5
> v < 7
[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE
> v[v < 7]
[1] 5.4 6.2 4.8
> v < 7
[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE
> v > 5 \& v < 7
[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE
> v[v > 5 \& v < 7]
[1] 5.4 6.2
> v > 5 | v < 7
[1] TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE
> v[v > 5 | v < 7]
[1] 5.4 6.2 7.1 4.8 7.5
```

05. Dataframes

- Dataframes are probably the most important thing you will ever learn about, in R.
- Almost everything in R, on a practical day-to-day basis, involves dataframes

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- After this section YOU WILL UNDERSTAND WHAT A DATAFRAME IS AND HOW IT IS BUILT UP FROM R DATA STRUCTURES YOU ALREADY KNOW
- You'll also know HOW TO ACCESS ANY PART OF A DATA FRAME, INCLUDING CONDITIONAL ACCESS
- We'll also see how to read data in to, and write it out from, a data frame.

SLIDE: Let's look at a data. frame

- The cats data is a small data.frame
- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - NOTE: TABULAR
 - NOTE: 9 elements but length 3?
 - ∘ Try list indexes… **IT'S A LIST**
 - Try names () ··· IT'S A NAMED LIST
 - What are the classes of each list element? THEY'RE VECTORS

```
> class(cats)
[1] "data.frame"
> cats
    coat weight likes_string
1 calico 2.1
2 black
           5.0
3 tabby
          3.2
                          1
> length(cats)
[1] 3
> cats[[1]]
[1] calico black tabby
Levels: black calico tabby
> typeof(cats)
[1] "list"
> names(cats)
[1] "coat"
                  "weight"
                                "likes_string"
> class(cats$coat)
[1] "factor"
> class(cats$weight)
[1] "numeric"
> class(cats$likes_string)
[1] "integer"
```

SLIDE: What is a data.frame

- This structure is THE MOST IMPORTANT THING IN R
 - It's the standard structure for storing any king of tabular, 'rectangular' data
- We've seen that it's a **NAMED LIST** where each element is a **VECTOR**
 - All the vectors have the same length
- This is **VERY SIMILAR TO A SPREADSHEET**, but it's more finicky:
 - We require every element in a column to be the same data type
 - We need all the columns to be the same length
 - In spreadsheets, neither of these conditions are enforced
 - This makes R a bit more data-safe

SLIDE: Creating a data.frame

DEMO IN SCRIPT

- Run when done
- Commit to repo

DEMO IN CONSOLE

- !!!!STRINGS ARE INTERPRETED AS FACTORS!!!!
- The summary() function SUMMARISES PROPERTIES OF EACH COLUMN
- The summary depends on the column type

```
> str(df)
'data.frame': 3 obs. of 3 variables:
 $ a: num 1 2 3
 $ b: Factor w/ 3 levels "eeny", "meeny", ...: 1 2 3
 $ c: logi TRUE FALSE TRUE
> df$c
[1] TRUE FALSE TRUE
> length(df)
[1] 3
> dim(df)
[1] 3 3
> summary(df)
                  b
      а
                           С
Min. :1.0 eeny :1 Mode :logical
 1st Qu.:1.5 meeny:1 FALSE:1
Median :2.0 miney:1 TRUE :2
Mean :2.0
 3rd Qu.:2.5
 Max. :3.0
```

SLIDE: Challenge



Red sticky for a question or issue



Green sticky if complete

SLIDE: Challenge (OPTIONAL)

```
> country_climate <- data.frame(country=c("Canada", "Panama",</pre>
                                         "South Africa", "Australia"),
                                climate=c("cold", "hot",
                                          "temperate", "hot/temperate"),
                                temperature=c(10, 30, 18, "15"),
                                northern_hemisphere=c(TRUE, TRUE,
                                                     FALSE, "FALSE"),
                                has_kangaroo=c(FALSE, FALSE,
                                              FALSE, 1))
> str(country_climate)
'data.frame': 4 obs. of 5 variables:
 $ country
                 : Factor w/ 4 levels "Australia", "Canada", ...: 2 3 4
1
                     : Factor w/ 4 levels
 $ climate
"cold", "hot", "hot/temperate", ..: 1 2 4 3
 $ temperature : Factor w/ 4 levels "10","15","18",..: 1 4 3 2
 $ northern_hemisphere: Factor w/ 2 levels "FALSE", "TRUE": 2 2 1 1
 $ has_kangaroo : num 0 0 0 1
```



Red sticky for a question or issue



Green sticky if complete

SLIDE: Challenge (OPTIONAL)

```
$ b: chr "eeny" "meeny" "miney"
$ c: logi TRUE FALSE TRUE
```



Red sticky for a question or issue



Green sticky if complete

. 3

SLIDE: Writing data. frame to file

- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - The write.table() function WRITES A DATAFRAME TO A FILE
 - We pass: the dataframe, the filename, the column separator, and whether the header should be written
 - \t means 'tab' it puts a gap between columns

```
write.table(df, "data/df_example.tab", sep="\t")
```

INSPECT THE FILE

- Navigate there in the Files tab
- View the file in RStudio
- **NOTE:** row and column names are written automatically
- Using \t has given spaces as column separators

SLIDE: Reading into a data.frame

- DEMO IN SCRIPT
- DOWNLOAD DATA
 - Use the link from the Etherpad document
 - Place the file in data/

CREATE A NEW SCRIPT

- Call it gapminder
- Add the code
- We need to provide a data source (**here, a file**), the separator character, and whether there's a header row

```
# Load gapminder data from a URL
gapminder <- read.table("data/gapminder-FiveYearData.csv", sep=",",
header=TRUE)</pre>
```

- ADD AND COMMIT TO REPO
- CHECK THE DATA IN THE Environment TAB
 - Click on gapminder in Evironment tab.
 - NOTE COLUMNS

• DEMO IN CONSOLE

SLIDE: Investigating gapminder

- Now we've loaded our data, let's take a look at it
- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - o 1704 rows, 6 columns
 - Investigate types of columns
 - POINT OUT THAT THE TYPE OF A COLUMN IS INTEGER IF IT'S A FACTOR
 - LENGTH OF A DATAFRAME IS THE NUMBER OF COLUMNS

```
> str(gapminder)
'data.frame': 1704 obs. of 6 variables:
 $ country : Factor w/ 142 levels "Afghanistan",..: 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
           : int 1952 1957 1962 1967 1972 1977 1982 1987 1992 1997 ...
 $ year
           : num 8425333 9240934 10267083 11537966 13079460 ...
 $ continent: Factor w/ 5 levels "Africa", "Americas", ..: 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3
3 ...
 $ lifeExp : num 28.8 30.3 32 34 36.1 ...
 $ qdpPercap: num 779 821 853 836 740 ...
> typeof(gapminder$year)
[1] "integer"
> typeof(gapminder$country)
[1] "integer"
> str(gapminder$country)
Factor w/ 142 levels "Afghanistan",..: 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 ...
> length(gapminder)
[1] 6
> nrow(gapminder)
[1] 1704
> ncol(gapminder)
[1] 6
> dim(gapminder)
[1] 1704
> colnames(gapminder)
[1] "country" "year" "pop" "continent" "lifeExp"
"qdpPercap"
> head(gapminder)
     country year
                       pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
1 Afghanistan 1952 8425333
                               Asia 28.801 779.4453
2 Afghanistan 1957 9240934
                               Asia 30.332 820.8530
3 Afghanistan 1962 10267083
                               Asia 31.997 853.1007
4 Afghanistan 1967 11537966
                              Asia 34.020 836.1971
5 Afghanistan 1972 13079460
                               Asia 36.088 739.9811
6 Afghanistan 1977 14880372
                              Asia 38.438 786.1134
> summary(gapminder)
       country
                       year
                                      pop
                                                        continent
lifeExp
Afghanistan: 12 Min. :1952 Min. :6.001e+04 Africa :624
                                                                   Min.
:23.60
```

```
Albania : 12 1st Qu.:1966 1st Qu.:2.794e+06 Americas:300
                                                            1st
0u.:48.20
Algeria : 12 Median : 1980 Median : 7.024e+06 Asia
                                                     :396
Median :60.71
Angola : 12
                 Mean :1980 Mean :2.960e+07 Europe :360
                                                            Mean
:59.47
Argentina : 12 3rd Qu.:1993 3rd Qu.:1.959e+07 Oceania : 24
                                                            3rd
Qu.:70.85
Australia : 12 Max. :2007 Max. :1.319e+09
                                                            Max.
82.60
 (Other) :1632
  gdpPercap
Min. : 241.2
 1st Qu.: 1202.1
Median : 3531.8
Mean : 7215.3
 3rd Qu.: 9325.5
 Max. :113523.1
```

SLIDE: Subsets of data.frames

- DATAFRAMES ARE LISTS so subset like lists
- DATAFRAMES ARE ALSO 2D DATA so subset like matrices
- DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
# Extract a single column, get a dataframe
> head(gapminder[3])
       pop
1 8425333
2 9240934
3 10267083
4 11537966
5 13079460
6 14880372
> class(head(gapminder[3]))
[1] "data.frame"
# Extract a single named column, get a vector/factor
> head(gapminder[["lifeExp"]])
[1] 28.801 30.332 31.997 34.020 36.088 38.438
> class(head(gapminder[["lifeExp"]]))
[1] "numeric"
> head(gapminder$year)
[1] 1952 1957 1962 1967 1972 1977
> class(head(gapminder$year))
[1] "integer"
# Slice rows like a matrix, get a dataframe
> gapminder[1:3,]
      country year
                      pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
```

```
1 Afghanistan 1952 8425333
                                Asia 28.801 779.4453
2 Afghanistan 1957 9240934
                                Asia 30.332 820.8530
3 Afghanistan 1962 10267083
                                Asia 31.997 853.1007
> class(gapminder[1:3,])
[1] "data.frame"
> gapminder[3,]
      country year
                    pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
3 Afghanistan 1962 10267083 Asia 31.997 853.1007
> class(gapminder[3, ])
[1] "data.frame"
# Slice columns like a matrix, get vector/factor
> head(gapminder[, 3])
[1] 8425333 9240934 10267083 11537966 13079460 14880372
> class(head(gapminder[, 3]))
[1] "numeric"
# Slice columns like a matrix get dataframe
> head(gapminder[, 3, drop=FALSE])
       pop
1 8425333
2 9240934
3 10267083
4 11537966
5 13079460
6 14880372
> class(head(gapminder[, 3, drop=FALSE]))
[1] "data.frame"
```

SLIDE: Challenge

```
# Extract observations collected for the year 1957
> head(gapminder[gapminder$year == 1957,])
      country year
                       pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
2 Afghanistan 1957 9240934
                                Asia 30.332 820.853
14
      Albania 1957 1476505
                              Europe 59.280 1942.284
      Algeria 1957 10270856
                            Africa 45.685 3013.976
26
38
       Angola 1957 4561361 Africa 31.999 3827.940
50 Argentina 1957 19610538 Americas 64.399 6856.856
62 Australia 1957 9712569 Oceania 70.330 10949.650
# Extract all columns except 1 through 4
> head(gapminder[, -(1:4)])
  lifeExp gdpPercap
1 28.801 779.4453
2 30.332 820.8530
3 31.997 853.1007
4 34.020 836.1971
5 36.088 739.9811
6 38.438 786.1134
> head(gapminder[, -1:-4])
```

```
lifeExp gdpPercap
  28.801 779.4453
2
  30.332
         820.8530
  31.997
3
          853.1007
4 34.020
         836.1971
5 36.088
          739.9811
  38.438
         786.1134
# Extract all rows where life expectancy is greater than 80 years
> head(gapminder[gapminder$lifeExp > 80,])
            country year
                             pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
71
         Australia 2002 19546792
                                   Oceania 80.370
                                                   30687.75
         Australia 2007 20434176
72
                                   Oceania 81.235
                                                    34435.37
252
            Canada 2007 33390141 Americas 80.653 36319.24
540
            France 2007 61083916
                                                    30470.02
                                    Europe 80.657
671 Hong Kong China 2002 6762476
                                      Asia 81.495
                                                    30209.02
672 Hong Kong China 2007
                         6980412
                                      Asia 82.208
                                                   39724.98
# ADVANCED: Extract rows for years 2002 and 2007
> head(gapminder[gapminder$year == 2002 | gapminder$year == 2007,])
       country year
                        pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
11 Afghanistan 2002 25268405
                                 Asia 42,129 726,7341
12 Afghanistan 2007 31889923
                                 Asia 43.828 974.5803
23
      Albania 2002 3508512
                               Europe 75.651 4604.2117
24
      Albania 2007 3600523
                               Europe 76.423 5937.0295
35
      Algeria 2002 31287142
                               Africa 70.994 5288.0404
36
      Algeria 2007 33333216 Africa 72.301 6223.3675
> head(gapminder[gapminder$year %in% c(2002, 2007),])
       country year
                        pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
11 Afghanistan 2002 25268405
                                 Asia 42.129 726.7341
12 Afghanistan 2007 31889923
                                 Asia 43.828 974.5803
                               Europe 75.651 4604.2117
23
      Albania 2002 3508512
24
      Albania 2007 3600523
                               Europe 76.423 5937.0295
35
      Algeria 2002 31287142
                               Africa 70.994 5288.0404
      Algeria 2007 33333216
                               Africa 72.301 6223.3675
36
# The %in% operator
> 1 \% in\% c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
[1] TRUE
> 6 %in% c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
[1] FALSE
```



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06. Packages

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- In this short section, we'll learn
 - what packages are
 - how to install them
 - how to use them in your code

SLIDE: Packages

- Packages are THE FUNDAMENTAL UNIT OF REUSABLE CODE IN R
- People write code, and **DISTRIBUTE IT IN PACKAGES**
- Packages exist for many SPECIALIST AND USEFUL TOOLS
- Over 10,000 packages can be found at CRAN the Comprehensive R Archive Network
- When you write your own code, you can distribute it as a package
- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - You can SEE INSTALLED PACKAGES with the function installed.packages()
 - To install a new package, use install.packages("packagename") as a string
 EXPLAIN DEPENDENCIES
 - DEMO INSTALLATION IN RStudio: Tools \$\frac{4}{2}rightarrow\$ Install packages...
 - DEMO PACKAGE UPDATES IN RStudio
 - You can update your installed packages to the newest version in the console with update.packages() DON'T DO THIS - CAN TAKE TIME!

```
> installed.packages()
                  Package
BiocInstaller
                  "BiocInstaller"
                  "bit"
bit
bit64
                  "bit64"
data.table
                  "data.table"
[...]
> install.packages("dplyr")
Installing package into '/Users/lpritc/Library/R/3.4/library'
(as 'lib' is unspecified)
also installing the dependencies 'bindrcpp', 'glue', 'rlang'
[...]
> update.packages(ask=FALSE)
> library(dplyr)
```

SLIDE: Challenge



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07. Creating Publication-Quality Graphics

SLIDE: Visualisation is Critical

- Visualisation HELPS US UNDERSTAND OUR DATA
- But IT'S NOT FOOLPROOF people can interpret the same visualisation differently
- Good visualisation is MORE THAN JUST USING A PLOTTING TOOL

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- After this section, you should understand the Grammar of Graphics
 - You'll be able to produce INFORMATIVE, BEAUTIFUL GRAPHS THAT EXPLAIN
 YOUR DATA
- You'll also be able to use ggplot2 to generate those plots

SLIDE: The Grammar of Graphics

- We'll be using the ggplot2 package, which is part of the **TIDYVERSE**, created initially by Hadley Wickham.
 - The Tidyverse provides OTHER USEFUL PACKAGES but you can use ggplot2 on its own
- ggplot2 implements A SET OF CONCEPTS CALLED THE GRAMMAR OF GRAPHICS
 - This SEPARATES DATA FROM THE WAY IT'S REPRESENTED and we'll discuss it in detail
 - It's not the usual way you might have seen to create plots, but it's highly effective for generating powerful visualisations

SLIDE: A Basic Scatterplot

- You can use ggplot2 in the SAME WAY YOU'D USE BASE GRAPHICS
 - This is not the best way to use all the power of the package
- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - IMPORT LIBRARY
 - ggplot2 has qplot() the equivalent to plot() in base graphics
 - plot() takes x and y values, and will assign colours to factor columns
 - qplot() takes the name of x and y columns, plus the name of the source data.frame, and will assign colours to factor columns
- > library(ggplot2)
- > plot(gapminder\$lifeExp, gapminder\$gdpPercap, col=gapminder\$continent)
- > qplot(lifeExp, gdpPercap, data=gapminder, colour=continent)

COMPARE THE GRAPHS

- Clearly, both graphs show the same data
- The **FORMATTING IS QUITE DIFFERENT**
- Your preference is your preference both methods can be heavily restyled
- My view is that ggplot2 has nicer default styles
- ggplot2 provides gridlines and legends by default, and the labelling is clearer (no gapminder\$ prefix)
- THIS ISN'T WHAT'S POWERFUL ABOUT ggplot2!

SLIDE: What is a Plot? aesthetics

- TALK THROUGH THE POINTS
- Each observation in the data is a *point*
- The aesthetics of a point determine how it is rendered in the plot
 - o co-ordinates (x, y values) ON THE IMAGE
 - o size
 - shape
 - colour
 - transparency
- *aesthetics* can be
 - constant (e.g. all points the same colour)
 - *mapped to variables* (e.g. colour mapped to continent)

SLIDE: What is a Plot? aesthetics

- The aesthetics of a plot define a new dataset for each point
- THIS SHOULD REMIND YOU STRONGLY OF A data.frame

SLIDE: What is a Plot? geoms

- So far we've only defined the data and aesthetics
 - THIS ONLY TELLS US HOW DATA POINTS ARE REPRESENTED, NOT THE TYPE OF PLOT
- geoms (short for geometries) DEFINE THE KIND OF PLOT WE PRODUCE
 - Showing the data as points is a scatterplot
 - Showing the data **as lines** is a *line plot*
 - Showing the data as bars is a barchart
- We can use different geoms with the same data and aesthetics

SLIDE: What is a Plot? geoms

- DEMO IN SCRIPT (gapminder_R)
 - We create a plot with the ggplot() function.
 - We define the data as data, and aesthetics with aes
 - WE PUT THE RESULT IN A VARIABLE FOR CONVENIENCE

- Data and aesthetics aren't enough to define a plot. WE NEED A geom
- Use geom_point()

```
# Generate plot of GDP per capita against life Expectancy
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=lifeExp, y=gdpPercap, color=continent))
p + geom_point()</pre>
```

- WE'VE RECREATED THE SCATTERPLOT WE SAW EARLIER
- COMMIT CHANGES TO SCRIPT
- What happens if we change the geom?
- DEMO IN THE SCRIPT

```
p + geom_line()
```

This looks terrible. CHANGE IT BACK

SLIDE: Challenge

```
# Plot life expectancy against time
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=year, y=lifeExp, colour=continent))
p + geom_point()</pre>
```



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SLIDE: What is a Plot? layers

- Without knowing it, WE'VE JUST BEEN USING THE LAYERS CONCEPT
 - all ggplot2 plots are built as layers
- ALL LAYERS HAVE TWO COMPONENTS
 - data to be shown, and aesthetics for showing them
 - o a geom defining the type of plot
- The ggplot object describes a base layer, and can contain data and aesthetics
 - THESE ARE INHERITED BY THE OTHER LAYERS IN THE PLOT
 - The values can also be overridden in specified layers

SLIDE: What is a Plot? layers

- In our first plot we defined a base with:
 - data from gapminder
 - aesthetics with x and y coordinates, and colouring by continent
- We defined a layer that:
 - had a geom point geom
 - inherited data and aesthetics from the base

LAYERS ARE ADDED WITH THE + OPERATOR

SLIDE: What is a Plot? layers

- Now we will **override the base layer** *aesthetics*
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - We'll change the geom to geom_line
 - We'll extend the aesthetics to group datapoints by country

```
# Generate plot of GDP per capita against life expectancy
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=lifeExp, y=gdpPercap, color=continent))
p + geom_line(aes(group=country))</pre>
```

RENDER THE PLOT

SLIDE: What is a Plot? *layers*

- We can **BUILD UP LAYERS OF geomS** to produce a more complex plot
- We ADD A NEW geom_point() LAYER WITH +
 - We use the layer's alpha argument to control transparency
- DEMO IN SCRIPT

```
# Generate plot of GDP per capita against life expectancy
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=lifeExp, y=gdpPercap, color=continent))
p + geom_line(aes(group=country)) + geom_point(alpha=0.4)</pre>
```

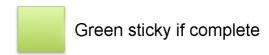
RENDER THE PLOT

SLIDE: Challenge

```
# Generate plot of life expectancy against time
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=year, y=lifeExp, color=continent))
p + geom_line(aes(group=country)) + geom_point(alpha=0.35)</pre>
```



Red sticky for a question or issue



SLIDE: Transformations and scales

- Another kind of layer is a transformation handled with scale layers
- These map data to new aesthetics on the plot
 - o new axis scales, e.g. log scale, reverse scale, time scale
 - colour scaling (changing palettes)
 - shape and size scaling
- **DEMO IN SCRIPT** (gapminder.R)
 - Rescale the plot first
 - Then change the colours

```
# Generate plot of GDP per capita against life expectancy
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=lifeExp, y=gdpPercap, color=continent))
p <- p + geom_line(aes(group=country)) + geom_point(alpha=0.4)
p + scale_y_log10() + scale_color_grey()</pre>
```

SLIDE: Statistics layers

- Some geom layers transform the dataset
 - Usually this is a data summary (e.g. smoothing or binning)
 - The layer may provide a new summary visual object

DEMO IN SCRIPT

- This is working towards an informative figure
- Start with a new basic scatterplot
- NOTE: setting opacity helps see density in the data looks like two main points of density
- NOTE: looks like a general trend of GDP and life expectancy correlating

```
# Generate summary plot of GDP per capita against life expectancy
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=lifeExp, y=gdpPercap))
p + geom_point(alpha=0.4) + scale_y_log10()</pre>
```

ADD A SMOOTHED FIT

• **NOTE:** The correlation is made quite clear

```
# Generate summary plot of GDP per capita against life expectancy
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=lifeExp, y=gdpPercap))
p <- p + geom_point(alpha=0.4) + scale_y_log10()
p + geom_smooth()</pre>
```

ADD A CONTOUR PLOT OF DENSITY

- NOTE: Two populations are clear
- We might speculate that there is a difference in wealth/life expectancy across continents

```
# Generate summary plot of GDP per capita against life expectancy
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=lifeExp, y=gdpPercap))
p <- p + geom_point(alpha=0.4) + scale_y_log10()
p + geom_density_2d(color="purple")</pre>
```

ADD CONTINENT COLOURING

• **NOTE:** It's now clear that the two populations are centred on Europe (wealthy, long-lived) and Africa (poor, short-lived), respectively.

```
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=lifeExp, y=gdpPercap))
p <- p + geom_point(alpha=0.4, aes(color=continent)) + scale_y_log10()
p + geom_density_2d(color="purple")</pre>
```

SLIDE: Multi-panel figures

- All our plots so far have been single figures, but **multi-panel plots can give clearer comparisons**
- The facet_wrap() layer allows us to make grids of plots, SPLIT BY A FACTOR
- DEMO IN THE SCRIPT
 - We set a default aesthetic grouping by country
 - We generate a line plot, with log y axis
 - The result is a bit messy.

```
# Compare life expectancy over time by country
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=year, y=lifeExp, colour=continent,
group=country))
p + geom_line() + scale_y_log10()</pre>
```

- using facet_wrap() to split by continent is clearer
 - **NOTE:** the axes are consistent across facets

```
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=year, y=lifeExp, colour=continent,
group=country))
p <- p + geom_line() + scale_y_log10()
p + facet_wrap(~continent)</pre>
```

SLIDE: Challenge (10min)

```
# Contrast GDP per capita against population
p <- ggplot(data=gapminder, aes(x=pop, y=gdpPercap))
p <- p + geom_point(alpha=0.8, aes(color=continent))
p <- p + scale_y_log10() + scale_x_log10()
p + geom_density_2d(alpha=0.5) + facet_wrap(~year)</pre>
```



Red sticky for a question or issue



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08. Working with data frames in dplyr

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- You're going to learn to manipulate data.frames with the six verbs of dplyr
- select()
- filter()
- group_by()
- summarize()
- mutate()
- %>% (pipe)

SLIDE: What and Why is dplyr?

- dplyr is a package in the TIDYVERSE; it exists to enable rapid analysis of data by groups
 - For example, if we wanted numerical (rather than graphical) analysis of the gapminder data by continent, we'd use dplyr
- So far, we know how to subset, but repetitive application is tedious
 - WE MIGHT MANAGE TO REPEAT BY CONTINENT, LIKE HERE BUT BY COUNTRY?

AVOIDING REPETITION IMPROVES YOUR CODE

- More robust
- More readable
- More reproducible

SLIDE: Split-Apply-Combine

- The general principle dplyr supports is SPLIT-APPLY-COMBINE
- We have a dataset with several groups (column x)
- We want to perform the same operation on each group, independently take a mean of y for each group, for example
 - So we **SPLIT** the data into groups, on x
 - Then we **APPLY** the operation (take the mean for each group)
 - Then we **COMBINE** the results into a new table

SLIDE: select() - Interactive Demo

- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - Import dplyr

```
> library(dplyr)
```

- The select() verb SELECTS COLUMNS
 - DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - If we wanted to select only year, country and GDP data from gapminder
 - Specify: data, then columns

- Here, we applied a function, but we can also 'PIPE' DATA FROM ONE VERB TO ANOTHER
 - These work like pipes in the shell
 - SPECIAL PIPE SYMBOL: *>*
 - Specify only columns

```
> head(gapminder %>% select(year, country, gdpPercap))
year country gdpPercap
1 1952 Afghanistan 779.4453
2 1957 Afghanistan 820.8530
3 1962 Afghanistan 853.1007
4 1967 Afghanistan 836.1971
5 1972 Afghanistan 739.9811
6 1977 Afghanistan 786.1134
```

SLIDE: filter()

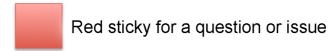
- filter() selects rows on the basis of some condition, or combination of conditions
 - We can use it as a function, with pipes
- DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
> head(filter(gapminder, continent=="Europe"))
  country year         pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
1 Albania 1952 1282697         Europe         55.23         1601.056
2 Albania 1957 1476505         Europe         59.28         1942.284
3 Albania 1962 1728137         Europe         64.82         2312.889
4 Albania 1967 1984060         Europe         66.22         2760.197
5 Albania 1972 2263554         Europe         67.69         3313.422
6 Albania 1977 2509048         Europe         68.93         3533.004
```

- **DEMO IN SCRIPT** (gapminder R)
 - One advantage of pipes is that they make chaining verbs together MORE READABLE
 - END THE LINES WITH THE PIPE SYMBOL so R knows that there's a continuation
 - Run the lines and check the output in Environment

SLIDE: Challenge

```
# Select life expectancy by country and year, only for Africa
afrodata <- gapminder %>%
  filter(continent == "Africa") %>%
  select(year, country, lifeExp)
```





SLIDE: group_by()

- The group_by() verb SPLITS data.frames INTO GROUPS ON A COLUMN PROPERTY
- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - It returns a tibble a table with extra metadata describing the groups in the table

```
> group_by(gapminder, continent)
# A tibble: 1,704 x 6
# Groups:
           continent [5]
                        pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
      country year
       <fctr> <int>
                               <fctr>
                                        <dbl>
                                                  <dbl>
                       <dbl>
 1 Afghanistan 1952 8425333
                                 Asia 28.801 779.4453
 2 Afghanistan 1957 9240934
                                 Asia 30.332 820.8530
 3 Afghanistan 1962 10267083
                                 Asia 31.997 853.1007
 4 Afghanistan 1967 11537966
                                 Asia 34.020 836.1971
 5 Afghanistan 1972 13079460
                                 Asia 36.088 739.9811
 6 Afghanistan 1977 14880372
                                 Asia 38.438 786.1134
 7 Afghanistan 1982 12881816
                                 Asia 39.854 978.0114
 8 Afghanistan 1987 13867957
                                 Asia 40.822 852.3959
 9 Afghanistan 1992 16317921
                                 Asia 41.674 649.3414
10 Afghanistan 1997 22227415
                                 Asia 41.763 635.3414
# ... with 1,694 more rows
```

SLIDE: summarize()

- The combination of group_by() and summarize() is very powerful
 - We can **CREATE NEW VARIABLES** using functions that repeat for each group
- Here, we've split the original table into three groups, and now CREATE A NEW VARIABLE
 mean b THAT IS FILLED BY CALCULATING THE MEAN OF b
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - We use the same principle to calculate mean GDP per continent

```
2 Americas 7136.110
3 Asia 7902.150
4 Europe 14469.476
5 Oceania 18621.609
```

SLIDE: Challenge

• IN THE SCRIPT

```
# Find average life expectancy by nation
avg_lifexp_country <- gapminder %>%
  group_by(country) %>%
  summarize(meanlifeExp=mean(lifeExp))
```

• IN THE CONSOLE



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SLIDE: count() and n()

- Two other useful functions are related to summarize()
 - count() reports a new table of counts by group
 - n() is used to represent the count of rows, when calculating new values in summarize()

DEMO IN CONSOLE

• **NOTE:** standard error is (std dev)/sqrt(n)

```
> gapminder %>% filter(year == 2002) %>% count(continent, sort = TRUE)
# A tibble: 5 x 2
  continent
    <fctr> <int>
    Africa 52
2
     Asia
             33
3
    Europe 30
4 Americas
             25
  Oceania
> gapminder %>% group_by(continent) %>% summarize(se_lifeExp =
sd(lifeExp)/sqrt(n()))
# A tibble: 5 x 2
  continent se_lifeExp
    <fctr>
               <dbl>
    Africa 0.3663016
1
2 Americas 0.5395389
3
    Asia 0.5962151
   Europe 0.2863536
4
5 Oceania 0.7747759
```

SLIDE: mutate()

- mutate() CALCULATES NEW VARIABLES (COLUMNS) ON THE BASIS OF EXISTING COLUMNS
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - Say we want to calculate the total GDP of each nation, each year, in \$bn
 - We'd multiply the GDP per capita by the total population, and divide by 1bn
- INSPECT THE OUTPUT
 - We have a new data table, which is the gapminder data, plus an extra column

```
# Calculate GDP in $billion
gdp_bill <- gapminder %>%
  mutate(gdp_billion = gdpPercap * pop / 10^9)
```

- WE CAN CHAIN ALL THESE OPERATIONS TOGETHER WITH PIPES
- We can calculate several summaries in a single summarize() command
- We can use the output of mutate() in the summarize() command
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - We're going to calculate the total (and standard deviation) of GDP per continent, per year
 - Calculate total GDP first
 - Group by continent and year
 - Summarise mean and sd of GDP per capita, and total GDP

INSPECT THE OUTPUT

09. Program Flow Control

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

- In this short section, you'll learn how to perform actions depending on values of data in R
- You'll also learn how to repeat operations, using for() loops
- These are very important general concepts, that recur in many programming languages
- Much of the time, you can avoid using them in R data analyses, because dplyr exists, and because R is vectorised

SLIDE: if() ··· else

- We often want to run a piece of code, or take an action, dependent on whether some data has a particular value (is true or false, say
- When this is the case, we can use the general if() ··· else structure, which is common to most programming languages
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
- CREATE NEW SCRIPT (flow_control.R)
 - Let's say that we want to print a message if some value is greater than 10
 - NOTE AUTOCOMPLETION/BRACKETS ETC.
 - THE CODE TO BE RUN GOES IN CURLY BRACES
 - Source the file
 - NOTHING HAPPENS (x > 10 is FALSE)
 - The if() block executes if the value in the parentheses evaluates to TRUE

```
# A data point
x <- 8

# Example if statement
if (x > 10) {
```

```
print("x is greater than 10")
}
```

- MODIFY THE SCRIPT
 - Add the else block
 - Source the code: we get a message
 - BUT IS THE MESSAGE TRUE?

```
# Example if statement
if (x > 10) {
  print("x is greater than 10")
} else {
  print("x is less than 10")
}
```

- SET x <- 10 AND TRY AGAIN
- MODIFY THE SCRIPT WITH else if() STATEMENT
 - Source the script: NO OUTPUT

```
# A data point
x <- 10

# Example if statement
if (x > 10) {
  print("x is greater than 10")
} else if (x < 10) {
  print("x is less than 10")
}</pre>
```

- MODIFY THE SCRIPT WITH A FINAL else STATEMENT
 - Source the script: **EQUALS** output

```
# A data point
x <- 9

# Example if statement
if (x > 10) {
  print("x is greater than 10")
} else if (x < 10) {
  print("x is less than 10")
} else {
  print("x is equal to 10")
}</pre>
```

SLIDE: Challenge

```
# Are there any records for a year
year <- 2002
if(any(gapminder$year == year)){
   print("Record(s) for this year found.")
}</pre>
```



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SLIDE: for() loops

- If you want to iterate over a set of values, then for() loops can be used
- for() loops are a very common programming construct
- They express the idea: FOR EACH ITEM IN A GROUP, DO SOMETHING (WITH THAT ITEM)
- **DEMO IN SCRIPT** (flow_control.R)
 - Say we have a vector c(1,2,3), and we want to print each item
 - We can **loop over all the items** and print them
- The loop structure is
 - for(), where the argument names a variable (i) the iterator, and a set of values:
 for(i in c('a', 'b', 'c'))
 - A **CODE BLOCK** defined by curly braces (**note automated completion)
 - The contents of the code block are executed for each value of the iterator

```
# Basic for loop
for(i in c('a', 'b', 'c')){
   print(i)
}
```

- Loops can (but shouldn't always) be nested
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - The outer loop is executed and, for each value in the outer loop, the inner loop is executed to completion

```
# Nested loop example
for (i in 1:5) {
  for (j in c('a', 'b', 'c')) {
```

```
print(paste(i, j))
}
}
```

• The simplest way to capture output is to add a new item to a vector each iteration of the loop

DEMO IN SCRIPT

• **REMIND:** using c() to append to a vector

```
# Capture loop output
output <- c()
for (i in 1:5) {
   for (j in c('a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e')) {
      output <- c(output, paste(i, j))
    }
}
(output)</pre>
```

- GROWING OUTPUT FROM LOOPS IS COMPUTATIONALLY VERY EXPENSIVE
 - Better to define the empty output container first (**if you know the dimensions**)
- MODIFY IN SCRIPT

```
# Capture loop output
output_matrix <- matrix(nrow=5, ncol=5)
j_letters <- c('a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e')
for (i in 1:5) {
  for (j in 1:5) {
    output_matrix[i, j] <-paste(i, j_letters[j])
   }
}
(output_matrix)</pre>
```

SLIDE: while() loops

- Sometimes you need to perform some action WHILE A CONDITION IS TRUE
 - This isn't as common as a for() loop
 - It's a general programming construct
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - We'll generate random numbers until one falls below a threshold
 - runif() generates random numbers from a uniform distribution
 - We print random numbers until one is less than 0.1
- run a couple of times to show the output is random

```
# Example while loop
z <- 1
while(z > 0.1){
   z <- runif(1)
   print(z)
}</pre>
```

SLIDE: Challenge

```
# Challenge solution
for (l in letters) {
   if (l %in% c('a', 'e', 'i', 'o', 'u')) {
     value <- TRUE
   } else {
     value <- FALSE
   }
   print(paste(l, value))
}</pre>
```



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SLIDE: Vectorisation

- Although for() and while() loops can be useful, they are rarely the most efficient way to work in R
- MOST FUNCTIONS IN R ARE VECTORISED
 - When applied to a vector, they work on all elements in the vector
 - So no need to use a loop.
- DEMO IN CONSOLE
 - Operators are vectorised

```
> x <- 1:4
> x
[1] 1 2 3 4
> x * 2
[1] 2 4 6 8
```

You can operate on vectors together

```
> y <- 6:9
> y
[1] 6 7 8 9
> x + y
[1] 7 9 11 13
> x * y
[1] 6 14 24 36
```

Comparison operators are vectorised

```
> x > 2
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE
> y < 7
[1] TRUE FALSE FALSE
> any(y < 7)
[1] TRUE
> all(y < 7)
[1] FALSE</pre>
```

Functions working on vectors

```
> log(x)
[1] 0.0000000 0.6931472 1.0986123 1.3862944
> x^2
[1] 1 4 9 16
> sin(x)
[1] 0.8414710 0.9092974 0.1411200 -0.7568025
```

• MATRICES

- The * multiplication operator is a vectorised/elementwise multiplication
- To perform the matrix multiplication you might expect, use the ** operator

SLIDE: Challenge

```
> v = 1:10000
> v <- 1/(v^2)
> sum(v)
[1] 1.644834
```



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10. Functions

- SLIDE: Learning objectives
- YOU'VE ALREADY BEEN USING FUNCTIONS (e.g. log()) and, I hope, have found them
 useful
- Functions let us run a complex series of commands in one go
 - You wouldn't want to have to repeat the calculations for log() each time
 - They keep the operation under a memorable or descriptive name, which makes the code readable and understandable, and they are invoked with that name
 - There are a defined set of inputs and outputs for a function, so WE KNOW WHAT BEHAVIOUR TO EXPECT
- SLIDE: Why Functions?
- Functions let us **run a complex series of logically- or functionally-RELATED commands** in one go
- It helps when functions have **descriptive and memorable names**, as this makes code **READABLE AND UNDERSTANDABLE**
- We invoke functions with their name
- We **expect functions to have A DEFINED SET OF INPUTS AND OUTPUTS** aids clarity and understanding
- FUNCTIONS ARE THE BUILDING BLOCKS OF PROGRAMMING
- As a **rule of thumb** it is good to write small functions with one obvious, clearly-defined task.
 - As you will see we can chain smaller functions together to manage complexity

- SLIDE: Defining a Function
- Functions have a STANDARD FORM
 - We declare a <function_name>
 - We use the function function/keyword to assign the function to <function_name>
 - Inputs (arguments) to a function are defined in parentheses: These are defined as variables for use within the function AND DO NOT EXIST OUTSIDE THE FUNCTION
 - The code block (**curly braces**) encloses the function code, the *function body*.
 - NOTE THE INDENTATION Easier to read, but does not affect execution
 - o The code <does something>
 - The return() function returns the value, when the function is called

DEMO IN SCRIPT

- Create new script functions.R
- Write and Source

```
# Example function
my_sum <- function(a, b) {
  the_sum <- a + b
  return(the_sum)
}</pre>
```

• DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
> my_sum(3, 7)
[1] 10
> a
Error: object 'a' not found
> b
Error: object 'b' not found
```

DEMO IN SCRIPT

• Let's define another function: convert temperature from fahrenheit to Kelvin

```
# Fahrenheit to Kelvin
fahr_to_kelvin <- function(temp) {
   kelvin <- ((temp - 32) * (5 / 9)) + 273.15
   return(kelvin)
}</pre>
```

DEMO IN SCRIPT

```
> fahr_to_kelvin(32)
[1] 273.15
> fahr_to_kelvin(-40)
[1] 233.15
> fahr_to_kelvin(212)
[1] 373.15
> temp
Error: object 'temp' not found
```

- LET'S MAKE ANOTHER FUNCTION CONVERTING KELVIN TO CELSIUS
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - Source the script

```
# Kelvin to Celsius
kelvin_to_celsius <- function(temp) {
  celsius <- temp - 273.15
  return(celsius)
}</pre>
```

• DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
> kelvin_to_celsius(273.15)
[1] 0
> kelvin_to_celsius(233.15)
[1] -40
> kelvin_to_celsius(373.15)
[1] 100
```

- WE COULD DEFINE A NEW FUNCTION TO CONVERT FAHRENHEIT TO CELSIUS
 - But it's easier to combine the two functions we've already written
- DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
> fahr_to_kelvin(212)
[1] 373.15
> kelvin_to_celsius(fahr_to_kelvin(212))
[1] 100
```

DEMO IN SCRIPT

```
# Fahrenheit to Celsius
fahr_to_celsius <- function(temp) {
  celsius <- kelvin_to_celsius(fahr_to_kelvin(temp))</pre>
```

```
return(celsius)
}
```

• DEMO IN CONSOLE

• NOTE: AUTOMATICALLY TAKES ADVANTAGE OF R's VECTORISATION

```
> fahr_to_celsius(212)
[1] 100
> fahr_to_celsius(32)
[1] 0
> fahr_to_celsius(-40)
[1] -40
> fahr_to_celsius(c(-40, 32, 212))
[1] -40 0 100
```

SLIDE: Documentation

- It's important to have well-named functions (this is itself a form of documentation)
- But it's **not a detailed explanation**
- You've found R's help useful, but it doesn't exist for your functions until you write it
- YOUR FUTURE SELF WILL THANK YOU FOR DOING IT!
- SOME GOOD PRINCIPLES TO FOLLOW WHEN WRITING DOCUMENTATION ARE:
 - Say what the code does (and why) *more important than how *
 - Define your inputs and outputs
 - Provide an example
- DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
> ?fahr_to_celsius
No documentation for 'fahr_to_celsius' in specified packages and
libraries:
you could try '??fahr_to_celsius'
> ??fahr_to_celsius
```

DEMO IN SCRIPT

- We add documentation as comment strings in the function
- SOURCE the script

```
# Fahrenheit to Celsius
fahr_to_celsius <- function(temp) {
    # Convert input temperature from fahrenheit to celsius scale</pre>
```

```
#
# temp - numeric
#
# Example:
# > fahr_to_celsius(c(-40, 32, 212))
# [1] -40     0  100
celsius <- kelvin_to_celsius(fahr_to_kelvin(temp))
return(celsius)
}</pre>
```

• DEMO IN CONSOLE

• We read the documentation by providing the function name **only**

- SLIDE: Function Arguments
- DEMO IN SCRIPT (functions.R)
 - Source script

• DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
> calcGDP(gapminder)
Error in gapminder %>% mutate(gdp = pop * gdpPercap) :
   could not find function "%>%"
```

• WHAT HAPPENED?

- The code in the functions.R file doesn't know about dplyr
- We need to import the module in our script
- Use the require() function
- DEMO IN SCRIPT (functions.R)
 - Place require() calls at the top of your script
 - Source script

```
require(dplyr)
```

DEMO IN CONSOLE

The new column has been added

```
> head(calcGDP(gapminder))
     country year
                      pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
                                                           qdp
1 Afghanistan 1952 8425333
                              Asia 28.801 779.4453 6567086330
2 Afghanistan 1957 9240934
                              Asia 30.332 820.8530 7585448670
3 Afghanistan 1962 10267083
                             Asia 31.997 853.1007 8758855797
                              Asia 34.020 836.1971 9648014150
4 Afghanistan 1967 11537966
5 Afghanistan 1972 13079460
                              Asia 36.088 739.9811 9678553274
6 Afghanistan 1977 14880372
                              Asia 38.438 786.1134 11697659231
```

- So, that's all the gapminder data but what if we want to get the data by year?
- DEMO IN SCRIPT (functions.R)
 - Source script

```
> source('~/Desktop/swc-r-lesson/scripts/functions.R')
> head(calcGDP(gapminder, 2002))
     country year pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
                                                         gdp
1 Afghanistan 2002 25268405 Asia 42.129 726.7341
                                                 18363410424
                          Europe 75.651 4604.2117
     Albania 2002 3508512
2
                                                 16153932130
3
     Algeria 2002 31287142
                         Africa 70.994 5288.0404 165447670333
     4
5
   Argentina 2002 38331121 Americas 74.340 8797.6407 337223430800
   Australia 2002 19546792 Oceania 80.370 30687.7547 599847158654
> head(calcGDP(gapminder, c(1997, 2002)))
     country year pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
                                                        gdp
1 Afghanistan 1997 22227415 Asia 41.763 635.3414 14121995875
2 Afghanistan 2002 25268405
                            Asia 42.129 726.7341 18363410424
```

Now we have an issue - NO YEAR PROVIDED MEANS NO OUTPUT

- We need to handle this
- 1 PROVIDE A DEFAULT VALUE (NULL)
- 2 TEST FOR VALUE AND TAKE ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - Source script

```
# Calculate total GDP in gapminder data
calcGDP <- function(data, year_in=NULL) {</pre>
  # Returns the gapminder data with additional column of total GDP
 #
 # data

    gapminder dataframe

 # year_in - year(s) to report data
 #
 # Example:
  # gapminderGDP <- calcGDP(gapminder)</pre>
  gdp <- gapminder %>% mutate(gdp=(pop * gdpPercap))
  if (!is.null(year in)) {
    gdp <- gdp %>% filter(year %in% year_in)
  }
  return(gdp)
}
```

DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
> source('~/Desktop/swc-r-lesson/scripts/functions.R')
> head(calcGDP(gapminder))
[1] country year
                             continent lifeExp gdpPercap gdp
<0 rows> (or 0-length row names)
> head(calcGDP(gapminder))
     country year
                      pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
                                                            qdp
                             Asia 28.801 779.4453 6567086330
1 Afghanistan 1952 8425333
2 Afghanistan 1957 9240934
                               Asia 30.332 820.8530 7585448670
3 Afghanistan 1962 10267083
                              Asia 31.997 853.1007 8758855797
                               Asia 34.020 836.1971 9648014150
4 Afghanistan 1967 11537966
5 Afghanistan 1972 13079460
                              Asia 36.088 739.9811 9678553274
                               Asia 38.438 786.1134 11697659231
6 Afghanistan 1977 14880372
> head(calcGDP(gapminder, year_in=2002))
```

```
country year pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
                                                              gdp
1 Afghanistan 2002 25268405
                              Asia 42.129 726.7341 18363410424
2
     Albania 2002 3508512
                             Europe 75.651 4604.2117 16153932130
3
     Algeria 2002 31287142
                            Africa 70.994 5288.0404 165447670333
4
      Angola 2002 10866106
                            Africa 41.003 2773.2873 30134833901
5
  Argentina 2002 38331121 Americas 74.340 8797.6407 337223430800
   Australia 2002 19546792
6
                            Oceania 80.370 30687.7547 599847158654
```

- Now let's do the same for country
- DEMO IN SCRIPT
 - Source script

```
# Calculate total GDP in gapminder data
calcGDP <- function(data, year in=NULL, country in=NULL) {</pre>
  # Returns the gapminder data with additional column of total GDP
 #
  # data

    gapminder dataframe

  # year_in
                    - year(s) to report data
  #
  # Example:
  # gapminderGDP <- calcGDP(gapminder)</pre>
  gdp <- gapminder %>% mutate(gdp=(pop * gdpPercap))
  if (!is.null(year_in)) {
    qdp <- qdp %>% filter(year %in% year in)
  }
  if (!is.null(country_in)) {
    gdp <- gdp %>% filter(country %in% country in)
  }
  return(gdp)
}
```

• DEMO IN CONSOLE

```
> source('~/Desktop/swc-r-lesson/scripts/functions.R')
> head(calcGDP(gapminder))
     country year
                      pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
                                                             qdp
                               Asia 28.801 779.4453 6567086330
1 Afghanistan 1952 8425333
2 Afghanistan 1957 9240934
                               Asia 30.332 820.8530 7585448670
3 Afghanistan 1962 10267083
                               Asia 31.997 853.1007 8758855797
4 Afghanistan 1967 11537966
                               Asia 34.020 836.1971 9648014150
5 Afghanistan 1972 13079460
                               Asia 36.088 739.9811 9678553274
6 Afghanistan 1977 14880372
                               Asia 38.438 786.1134 11697659231
> head(calcGDP(gapminder, 1957))
     country year
                      pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
                                                              gdp
1 Afghanistan 1957 9240934
                               Asia 30.332 820.853
                                                       7585448670
2
                             Europe 59.280 1942.284
     Albania 1957 1476505
                                                       2867792398
3
     Algeria 1957 10270856
                             Africa 45.685 3013.976 30956113720
4
                             Africa 31.999 3827.940 17460618347
      Angola 1957 4561361
   Argentina 1957 19610538 Americas 64.399 6856.856 134466639306
```

```
Australia 1957 9712569 Oceania 70.330 10949.650 106349227169
> head(calcGDP(gapminder, 1957, "Egypt"))
 country year pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
   Egypt 1957 25009741
                        Africa 44.444 1458.915 36487093094
> head(calcGDP(gapminder, "Egypt"))
[1] country year
                              continent lifeExp qdpPercap qdp
                      pop
<0 rows> (or 0-length row names)
> head(calcGDP(gapminder, country_in="Egypt"))
                  pop continent lifeExp gdpPercap
  country year
                                                        qdp
   Egypt 1952 22223309 Africa 41.893 1418.822 31530929611
  Egypt 1957 25009741 Africa 44.444 1458.915 36487093094
2
3 Egypt 1962 28173309 Africa 46.992 1693.336 47706874227
4 Egypt 1967 31681188 Africa 49.293 1814.881 57497577541
5 Egypt 1972 34807417 Africa 51.137 2024.008 70450495584
6 Egypt 1977 38783863 Africa 53.319 2785.494 108032201472
```

• SLIDE: Challenge

```
# Plot grid of country life expectancy
plotLifeExp <- function(data, letter=letters, wrap=FALSE) {</pre>
  # Return ggplot2 chart of life expectancy against year

    gapminder dataframe

  # data
  # letter

    start letters for countries

  # wrap

    logical: wrap graphs by country

  # Example:
  # > plotLifeExp(gapminder, c('A', 'Z'), wrap=TRUE)
  starts.with <- substr(data$country, start = 1, stop = 1)</pre>
  az.countries <- data[starts.with %in% letter, ]</pre>
  p <- ggplot(az.countries, aes(x=year, y=lifeExp, colour=country))</pre>
  p <- p + geom_line()</pre>
  if (wrap) {
    p <- p + facet_wrap(~country)</pre>
  }
  return(p)
}
```



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11. Dynamic Reports

SLIDE: Learning Objectives

• In this final section, we'll be learning how to **create reproducible, attractive, dynamic** reports

- To do so, we'll learn some markdown syntax, and how to put working R code into a
 document
- We'll also look at **generating the report in a number of file formats**, for sharing.

SLIDE: Literate Programming

- What we're about to do is an example of Literate Programming, a concept introduced by Donald Knuth
- The idea of Literate Programming is that
 - The program or analysis is explained in natural language
 - The code needed to run the program/analysis is embedded in the document
 - The whole document is executable
- We can produce these documents in RStudio

SLIDE: Create an R Markdown file

- In R, literate programming is **implemented in R Markdown files
- To create one: File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{New File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{New File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{New File \$\frac{\text{File \$\fit} {\frac{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\fit} {\fit}}}}{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\fit}{\text{File \$\fit} {\fit} {\fit}}}{\text{File \$\fit}}}}}{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\fit}{\text{File \$\fit}{\text{File \$\fit}{\text{File \$\fit}{\text{File \$\fit}}{\text{File \$\fit}}}}}{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\fit}}}{\text{File \$\fit}}}}}{\text{File \$\frac{\text{File \$\
 - There is a dialog box **enter a title** (Literate Programming)
 - Save the file (Ctrl-S) create new subdirectory (markdown) literate_programming.Rmd
- The file gets the extension .Rmd
 - The file is autopopulated with example text

SLIDE: Components of an R Markdown file

- The HEADER REGION IS FENCED BY ----
 - **Metadata** (author, title, date)
 - Requested output format

```
---
title: "Literate Programming"
author: "Leighton Pritchard"
date: "04/12/2017"
output: html_document
---
```

- Natural language is written as plain text, with some extra characters to define formatting
 - NOTE THE HASHES #, ASTERISKS * AND ANGLED BRACKETS <>
- R code runs in the document, and is fenced by backticks

- CLICK ON KNIT
 - A new (pretty) document is produced in a new window

CROSS REFERENCE MARKDOWN TO DOCUMENT

- Title, Author, Date
- Header
- Link
- Bold
- R code and output
- Plots
- CLICK ON KNIT TO PDF
 - A new pdf document opens in a new window
- CROSS REFERENCE MARKDOWN TO DOCUMENT
 - **NOTE:** The formatting isn't identical
- CLICK ON KNIT TO WORD
 - A new Word document opens up
- CROSS REFERENCE MARKDOWN TO DOCUMENT
 - **NOTE:** The formatting isn't identical
- NOTE THE LOCATION OF THE OUTPUT FILES ALL IN THE SOURCE DIRECTORY
 - **OUTPUT**

SLIDE: Creating a Report

- We'll create a report on the gapminder data
- DELETE THE EXISTING TEXT/CODE CHUNKS (literate_programming.Rmd)
 - Change the title (Life Expectancies)
 - Define the input data location in the setup section
 - Code in the setup section is run, but not shown (knit to demo)
 - include = FALSE
 - Write introduction and KNIT
 - Header notation with the hash #
 - Inline R to name the data used
 - We can define the location of the data in one place, and reuse the variable/have it propagate when we update the data
 - Import the data in setup
 - Write next section (Life expectancy in countries)
 - Source the functions.R file to get our solution to Challenge (plotLifeExp)
 - Use the imported function

■ {r echo=FALSE} shows output but not the code

- Change the letters
 - Change the letters to something else
 - Re-run the document
- Add Numbered Table of Contents (where possible)
 - Make the required changes in the header

```
title: "Life Expectancies"
author: "Leighton Pritchard"
date: "04/12/2017"
output:
  pdf_document:
   toc: true
    number_sections: true
 html document:
   toc: true
    toc_float: true
    number_sections: true
 word document:
   toc: true
```{r setup, include=FALSE}
knitr::opts_chunk$set(echo = TRUE)
Path to gapminder data
datapath <- "../data/gapminder-FiveYearData.csv"</pre>
Letters to report on
az <- c('G', 'Y', 'R')
Load gapminder data
gapminder <- read.csv(datapath, sep=",", header=TRUE)</pre>
Source functions from earlier lesson
source("../scripts/functions.R")
```

## Introduction

We will present the life expectancies over time in a set of countries, using the gapminder data in the file r datapath.

We will specifically focus on countries beginning with the letters: r az.

# Life expectancy in r az countries

In countries starting with these letters, the life expectancy is as plotted below.

### We use the code from our earlier challenge solution

plotLifeExp
<pre>plotLifeExp(gapminder, az, wrap=TRUE)</pre>