Programming day 1: summer review, three tools (logical statements, control flow, for loops), and dplyr

Methods camp instructors

September 5th, 2018

- ▶ Programming Overview: Philosophies, Practices and Practicalities
- ► Indexing and manipulation of four main data structures: vectors, lists, matrices, and data.frames

- ▶ Programming Overview: Philosophies, Practices and Practicalities
- Indexing and manipulation of four main data structures: vectors, lists, matrices, and data.frames
- ▶ Three tools in base R useful for data manipulation

- Programming Overview: Philosophies, Practices and Practicalities
- Indexing and manipulation of four main data structures: vectors, lists, matrices, and data.frames
- ▶ Three tools in base R useful for data manipulation
 - ► Logical statements

- Programming Overview: Philosophies, Practices and Practicalities
- Indexing and manipulation of four main data structures: vectors, lists, matrices, and data.frames
- ▶ Three tools in base R useful for data manipulation
 - Logical statements
 - Control flow

- Programming Overview: Philosophies, Practices and Practicalities
- Indexing and manipulation of four main data structures: vectors, lists, matrices, and data.frames
- ▶ Three tools in base R useful for data manipulation
 - Logical statements
 - Control flow
 - For loops

- Programming Overview: Philosophies, Practices and Practicalities
- Indexing and manipulation of four main data structures: vectors, lists, matrices, and data.frames
- ▶ Three tools in base R useful for data manipulation
 - Logical statements
 - Control flow
 - ► For loops
- dplyr as a tool for data manipulation

▶ R originated from statisticians: maximize statistical performance.

- ▶ R originated from statisticians: maximize statistical performance.
- Most recently R is used by a much wider group, including computer scientists and social scientists.

- ▶ R originated from statisticians: maximize statistical performance.
- Most recently R is used by a much wider group, including computer scientists and social scientists.
- ► There is a distinct movement to push towards reproducible and readable code with a certain bent:

- ▶ R originated from statisticians: maximize statistical performance.
- Most recently R is used by a much wider group, including computer scientists and social scientists.
- ► There is a distinct movement to push towards reproducible and readable code with a certain bent:
 - Consistency between readability across languages

- ▶ R originated from statisticians: maximize statistical performance.
- Most recently R is used by a much wider group, including computer scientists and social scientists.
- ► There is a distinct movement to push towards reproducible and readable code with a certain bent:
 - Consistency between readability across languages
 - Reproducibility and Version Control (write code for humans, write data for computers), working with Git right away, commenting extensively, making use of logical names (no spaces), avoid duplicate/incremental files, produce markdown documents with all reproducible steps included etc.

Tidyverse

All of this culminates in Tidyverse (a philosophy and a collection of packages).



R packages for data science

The tidyverse is an opinionated collection of R packages designed for data science. All packages share an underlying philosophy and common APIs.

Install the complete tidyverse with:

install.packages("tidyverse")

▶ Much of this philosophy culminates in teaching R in a particular fashion, for example, don't teach \$ and [], loops and conditionals, data types, or *apply* family functions until much later, but instead start with dplyr, %>% from magrittr, and *ggplot2* immediately. Read more here¹.

¹http://varianceexplained.org/r/teach-tidyverse/

- ▶ Much of this philosophy culminates in teaching R in a particular fashion, for example, don't teach \$ and [], loops and conditionals, data types, or apply family functions until much later, but instead start with dplyr, %>% from magrittr, and ggplot2 immediately. Read more here¹.
- ▶ A "classic" R course teaches much more base R solutions, with a focus on data types, loops and conditional statements right away.

¹http://varianceexplained.org/r/teach-tidyverse/

- ▶ Much of this philosophy culminates in teaching R in a particular fashion, for example, don't teach \$ and [], loops and conditionals, data types, or apply family functions until much later, but instead start with dplyr, %>% from magrittr, and ggplot2 immediately. Read more here¹.
- ▶ A "classic" R course teaches much more base R solutions, with a focus on data types, loops and conditional statements right away.
- While we are philosophically all in on Tidyverse, we are going to teach you a combination.

¹http://varianceexplained.org/r/teach-tidyverse/

- ▶ Much of this philosophy culminates in teaching R in a particular fashion, for example, don't teach \$ and [], loops and conditionals, data types, or apply family functions until much later, but instead start with dplyr, %>% from magrittr, and ggplot2 immediately. Read more here¹.
- ▶ A "classic" R course teaches much more base R solutions, with a focus on data types, loops and conditional statements right away.
- While we are philosophically all in on Tidyverse, we are going to teach you a combination.
 - You will encounter base R code and should know how to read this code.

¹http://varianceexplained.org/r/teach-tidyverse/

- ▶ Much of this philosophy culminates in teaching R in a particular fashion, for example, don't teach \$ and [], loops and conditionals, data types, or apply family functions until much later, but instead start with dplyr, %>% from magrittr, and ggplot2 immediately. Read more here¹.
- ▶ A "classic" R course teaches much more base R solutions, with a focus on data types, loops and conditional statements right away.
- While we are philosophically all in on Tidyverse, we are going to teach you a combination.
 - ▶ You will encounter base R code and should know how to read this code.
 - ▶ While it's great that Tidyverse developers have poured so much time into making excellent wrappers for many base R functions, it is nonetheless useful to know the base R functions that they draw upon and be able to know why and how it is much more efficient.

¹http://varianceexplained.org/r/teach-tidyverse/

- ▶ Much of this philosophy culminates in teaching R in a particular fashion, for example, don't teach \$ and [], loops and conditionals, data types, or apply family functions until much later, but instead start with dplyr, %>% from magrittr, and ggplot2 immediately. Read more here¹.
- ▶ A "classic" R course teaches much more base R solutions, with a focus on data types, loops and conditional statements right away.
- While we are philosophically all in on Tidyverse, we are going to teach you a combination.
 - ▶ You will encounter base R code and should know how to read this code.
 - While it's great that Tidyverse developers have poured so much time into making excellent wrappers for many base R functions, it is nonetheless useful to know the base R functions that they draw upon and be able to know why and how it is much more efficient.
 - ► Social science is really still more much base R than on the forefront of computational best practices (but that doesn't mean we shouldn't be the ones pushing for it!)

¹http://varianceexplained.org/r/teach-tidyverse/

Schematic to understand matrices versus dataframes

	Homogeneous elements	Heterogeneous elements	
1-dimensional	Vector	List	
2-dimensional	Matrix	Data.frame	

Source: Hadley Wickham's Advanced R

A slightly more complete way to look at it

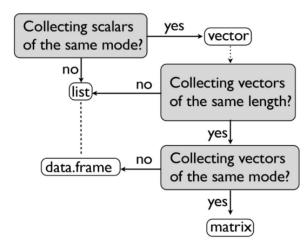
Simple objects and why we use class.

a simple view of simple R objects that will get you pretty far

Simple view	Technically correct R view		
	mode	class	typeof
character	character	character	character
logical	logical	logical	logical
numeric	numeric	integer or numeric	integer or double
factor	numeric	factor	integer

Complex Objects

a simple view of less simple objects that will get you pretty far



Source: Jenny

Data we'll be working with

In-class lecture example: data from 3rd wave of AddHealth containing people's ratings of how important the respondent believes the following are for a "successful marriage or serious committed relationship":

- love
- no cheating
- money

Data we'll be working with

In-class lecture example: data from 3rd wave of AddHealth on how demographic characteristics relate to how important the respondent believes the following are for a "successful marriage or serious committed relationship":

- love
- no cheating
- money

Today's Homework: data from the American National Election Studies (ANES) on how a respondent's degree of opposition to free trade is related to their views about three presidential candidates (at the time): Trump, Sanders, and Clinton

Today's Homework



Figure 2:

11/93

Preliminary: loading data

addh <- read.csv("addhealthlec1.csv")

#addh2<- read csv("addhealthlec1.csv")

note here we would use readr and its read functions

▶ Set working directory (file path to folder in which data was stored) and load data; remember that this path is *local* to your computer so you will need to edit whatever pathname we used in any file we provide.

```
# install.packages(tidyverse)
library("tibble")
library("read")
library("gpolotz")
library("dplyr')
library('tidyr')
library('magrittr')
library('tidyre')
library('tidyrese")
setwd("-/Dropbox/MethodsCamp/2018/Programming Lectures/Day1Programming")
## Error in setwd("-/Dropbox/MethodsCamp/2018/Programming Lectures/Day1Programming"): cannot change working directory
```

12 / 93

Preliminary: loading data

addh <- read.csv("addhealthlec1.csv")

#addh2<- read csv("addhealthlec1.csv")

note here we would use readr and its read functions

- Set working directory (file path to folder in which data was stored) and load data; remember that this path is *local* to your computer so you will need to edit whatever pathname we used in any file we provide.
- ► Can use "session" to set wd but make sure to copy/paste the code that's pasted in the console so your script can run from beginning -> end

```
# install.packages(tidyverse)
library("tibble")
library("geglot2")
library('dplyr')
library('dplyr')
library('magrittr')
library('magrittr')
library("purr')
library("purr')
setwd("-/Dropbox/MethodsCamp/2018/Programming Lectures/DayiProgramming")
```

12 / 93

Error in setwd("~/Dropbox/MethodsCamp/2018/Programming Lectures/Dav1Programming"); cannot change working directory

Preliminary: loading data

note here we would use readr and its read functions

#addh2<- read csv("addhealthlec1.csv")

install.packages(tidyverse)

- ▶ Set working directory (file path to folder in which data was stored) and load data; remember that this path is *local* to your computer so you will need to edit whatever pathname we used in any file we provide.
- ► Can use "session" to set wd but make sure to copy/paste the code that's pasted in the console so your script can run from beginning -> end
- ▶ R's commands for reading in data are specific to the file type— the most common is read.csv for csv files, but on Thursday, we'll be discussing read commands specific to other file types (e.g., importing foreign data types like STATA .dta files)

```
library("tibble")
library("egplot2")
library('egplot2")
library('dplyr')
library('tidyr')
library('magrittr')
library('magrittr')
library('tidyrerse")
setud("-/Dropbox/MethodsCamp/2018/Programming Lectures/Day1Programming")

## Error in setwd("-/Dropbox/MethodsCamp/2018/Programming Lectures/Day1Programming"): cannot change working directory

addh <- read.csv("addhealthlec1.csv")
```

[1] "integer"

Before reviewing the main data structures, how do you discern what *class* a particular object you've stored is, which affects how functions will interpret the object?

```
##check what the data are stored as
class(addh)
## [1] "data.frame"
# in tidyverse, we should use tibble instead of dataframes
addh.tibble <- as tibble(addh)
class(addh.tibble)
## [1] "tbl df"
                   "t.b1 "
                               "data.frame"
num.data <- as.matrix(addh)
##check what the "money's importance to a relationship"
##is stored as: remember we can index variables
##using brackets or $variablename
class(addh$money)
```

In Tidyverse

'data.frame': 3050 obs. of 1 variable: ## \$ money: int 7 1 5 9 7 10 5 10 10 8 ...

```
# in tidyverse
str(select(addh.tibble, money))
## Classes 'tbl_df', 'tbl' and 'data.frame':
                                              3050 obs. of 1 variable:
## $ money: int 7 1 5 9 7 10 5 10 10 8 ...
# or
addh %>%
 select(money) %>% # equv. to addh$money
 # head %>%
  # optional pipe to show you how you can really
  # nest pipes as much as you want
  str
```

1. vector

- 1. vector
- 2. data.frame

- 1. vector
- 2. data.frame
- 3. matrix

- 1. vector
- 2. data.frame
- 3. matrix
- 4. list

vectors: examples and basic commands

▶ What is a vector?: sequence of data elements of the same type

- ▶ What is a vector?: sequence of data elements of the same type
- ► Common examples of vectors:

- ▶ What is a vector?: sequence of data elements of the same type
- Common examples of vectors:
 - Any individual row or column in a data.frame or matrix

- ▶ What is a vector?: sequence of data elements of the same type
- Common examples of vectors:
 - Any individual row or column in a data.frame or matrix
 - Variable names: colnames(data)

- ▶ What is a vector?: sequence of data elements of the same type
- Common examples of vectors:
 - Any individual row or column in a data.frame or matrix
 - Variable names: colnames(data)
 - Vector of numeric indices to subset data (e.g., vector of randomly sampled numbers)

vectors: creating a vector

1121 83.9 4.429626

▶ How to create a vector: use *c* to string together the elements

```
##create a vector with three id's
sampidvec <- c("1690", "1370", "1121")
sampidvec
## [1] "1690" "1370" "1121"
addh[sampidvec. ]
         id age gender income logincome debt love nocheating money
## 1690 2169 24 female 24000 10.085809
                                      nodebt.
                                              10
                                                        10
## 1370 1761 24 male 20000 9.903488 nodebt 10
## 1121 1439 23 female 24000 10.085809 yesdebt 10
                                                     10
                                                             10
       paypercent logpaypercent
## 1690 84.0 4.430817
## 1370 76.8 4.341205
```

vectors: shortcuts to create a vector

▶ Depending on what you want in the vector, there are shortcuts to help you create the vector more efficiently:

```
##set a seed so we sample same ids each time
set.seed(123)

##create a vector with three randomly sampled id's
sampids <- sample(rownames(addh), size = 3)
sampids</pre>
```

```
## [1] "878" "2404" "1247"
```

vectors: shortcuts to create a vector

- ▶ Depending on what you want in the vector, there are shortcuts to help you create the vector more efficiently:
- 1. sample: for vectors where we want to randomly sample from some larger pool

```
##set a seed so we sample same ids each time
set.seed(123)

##create a vector with three randomly sampled id's
sampids <- sample(rownames(addh), size = 3)
sampids</pre>
```

```
## [1] "878" "2404" "1247"
```

Breaking down the sample command (will review more in probability lecture)

 $\mbox{sample(vector to sample from, size of sample, replace or not? (default = no replacement))}$

In our use, we mixed feeding the sample function arguments by position (the vector argument) and arguments by name (will review more formally tomorrow) and we defaulted to sampling without replacement:

sample(rownames(addh), size = 3)

vectors: shortcuts to create a vector

2. seq for sequence patterns in numeric vectors

```
##create a sequence of the beginning of every decade
decades <- seq(from = 1900, to = 2000, by = 10)
decades</pre>
```

[1] 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000

vectors: shortcuts to create a vector

3. paste: for patterns in character vectors

```
## [1] "decade_1900" "birthday_1910" "decade_1920" "birthday_1930" "## [5] "decade_1940" "birthday_1950" "decade_1960" "birthday_1970" "## [9] "decade_1980" "birthday_1990" "decade_2000"
```

vectors: extracting elements from a vector

▶ How to extract elements from a vector:

```
##extract first, second, and third element from sample id vector
sampids[1:3]
## [1] "878" "2404" "1247"
##or...
sampids[c(1,2,3)]
## [1] "878" "2404" "1247"
##remove the first two elements
sampids[-1:-2]
## [1] "1247"
##remove the first and third elements
sampids[-c(1, 3)] # but remember this just prints it in the console, it doesn't overwrite sampid
## [1] "2404"
answers <- factor(c(1,2,3),
                  levels = c("yes", "no", "maybe"))
levels(answers)
                                                                                            22 / 93
```

- ▶ Different element types contained within vector:
 - 1. numeric (encompasses integer and double)

- ▶ Different element types contained within vector:
 - 1. numeric (encompasses integer and double)
 - 2. character: when creating, use quotes around each element

- ▶ Different element types contained within vector:
 - 1. numeric (encompasses integer and double)
 - 2. character: when creating, use quotes around each element
 - 3. logical: TRUE/FALSE statements

- ▶ Different element types contained within vector:
 - 1. numeric (encompasses integer and double)
 - 2. character: when creating, use quotes around each element
 - 3. logical: TRUE/FALSE statements
 - 4. Non-"atomic" type- factor: R treats differently than numeric— e.g., can't calculate averages or other things that do not make sense for categories. Has a "levels" attribute that codes levels of the factor and that you might label

```
##check class of sample ids vector
as.character(sampids)
## [1] "878" "2404" "1247"
class(sampids)
## [1] "character"
##convert to numeric identifiers
numsampids <- as.numeric(sampids)
numsampids
## [1] 878 2404 1247
class(numsampids)
## [1] "numeric"
##convert back to string identifiers
stringsampids <- as.character(numsampids)
stringsampids
```

##how to use a vector to extract elements from another vector

[1] "878" "2404" "1247"

Combining vectors into two data structures: data.frames and matrices

Two methods of combination:

1. Stack rows one on top of the other -> becomes matrix or data.frame

Combining vectors into two data structures: data.frames and matrices

Two methods of combination:

- 1. Stack rows one on top of the other -> becomes matrix or data.frame
- 2. Stack columns side by side -> becomes matrix or data.frame

Combining vectors into data.frames and matrices: stacking rows

Binding rows: rbind and rbind.data.frame

```
##combine each observation's age with its id into
## 1 x 2 vector that has an id and age
obs1 <- c(numsampids[1], ages[1])
obs1
## [1] 878 24
obs2 <- c(numsampids[2], ages[2])
obs3 <- c(numsampids[3], ages[3])
##stack as rows in a matrix
obs1to3 <- rbind(obs1, obs2, obs3)
obs1to3
        [,1] [,2]
## obs1 878 24
## obs2 2404 21
## obs3 1247
class(obs1to3)
## [1] "matrix"
##stack as rows into a data.frame
obs1to3df <- as.data.frame(obs1to3)
obs1to3df
```

26 / 93

Combining vectors into data.frames and matrices: placing columns side by side

Binding columns: cbind and cbind.data.frame

```
##another way to arrive at same answer:
##(if they're in same order), putting id
##vector side by side with age vector by binding them as columns
obs1to3cols <- cbind(numsampids, ages)
obs1to3cols</pre>
```

```
## numsampids ages
## [1,] 878 24
## [2,] 2404 21
## [3,] 1247 20
```

```
##data.frame form
obs1to3colsdf <- as.data.frame(obs1to3cols)
obs1to3colsdf</pre>
```

```
## numsampids ages
## 1 878 24
## 2 2404 21
## 3 1247 20
```

matrices versus data.frames

The previous slides showed that you can combine rows/columns into *either* a matrix or a data frame

When might we use each and what are the advantages/ disadvantages of each as a way to store multiple vectors?

 Stores elements of the same type— e.g., a matrix of character elements or a matrix of numeric elements

- ► Stores elements of the *same type* e.g., a matrix of character elements or a matrix of numeric elements
- ▶ The above can cause problems for putting together vectors of different types, with R defaulting to turning all vectors into a character vector if any vectors contain a string (might have noticed in summer assignment when we converted the skin cancer dataset into a matrix, since state names were strings)

- Stores elements of the same type— e.g., a matrix of character elements or a matrix of numeric elements
- ▶ The above can cause problems for putting together vectors of different types, with R defaulting to turning all vectors into a character vector if any vectors contain a string (might have noticed in summer assignment when we converted the skin cancer dataset into a matrix, since state names were strings)
- ▶ On the plus side, matrices are needed for linear algebra operations like matrix multiplication (which is used in the context of linear regression) and take up less memory in R

mean(agestringmat[, 2])

Illustration of care needed when combining different types of vectors into a matrix

```
##print the two vectors
stringsampids; ages
## [1] "878" "2404" "1247"
## [1] 24 21 20
ages <-c(22, 10, 19)
##combine into a matrix
agestringmat <- cbind((stringsampids),
                      (ages))
agestringmat
       [,1] [,2]
  [1,] "878" "22"
## [2,] "2404" "10"
## [3,] "1247" "19"
class(agestringmat)
## [1] "matrix"
```

data.frames: advantages and disadvantages

► Can store elements of *different types*- e.g., a character vector; a factor vector; a numeric vector, and most data in social science are composed of heterogeneous types

data.frames: advantages and disadvantages

▶ The downside, because the elements are of different types, can't use for linear algebra operations so need to convert characters and factors into numeric type before changing a data.frame into a matrix (e.g., if have a variable, gender, coded as male and female, assign a numeric value to each level)

Where we're going next

We've reviewed:

 $1. \ \mbox{Vectors:} \ \mbox{how to create, how to extract elements, how to check/change their type }$

Where we're going next

We've reviewed:

- 1. Vectors: how to create, how to extract elements, how to check/change their type
- 2. How to stack row vectors (*rbind*) or place column vectors side by side (*cbind*) into a data frame or matrix

Where we're going next

We've reviewed:

- Vectors: how to create, how to extract elements, how to check/change their type
 How to stock row vectors (whind) or place solvers vectors side by side (chind)
- 2. How to stack row vectors (*rbind*) or place column vectors side by side (*cbind*) into a data.frame or matrix
- Rough sketch of differences between data.frame and matrix for storing two-dimensional data

- Review common operations performed on data.frames, since that's the form in which you'll keep the majority of your data for research— many of these operations can also be performed on matrices, and before concluding, we'll review some small differences that emerge when working with data.frames versus matrices
- 2. Discuss dplyr, a package that aims to simplify some of the data manipulation we review in the first part of the lecture

- Review common operations performed on data.frames, since that's the form in which you'll keep the majority of your data for research— many of these operations can also be performed on matrices, and before concluding, we'll review some small differences that emerge when working with data.frames versus matrices
- 2. Discuss dplyr, a package that aims to simplify some of the data manipulation we review in the first part of the lecture
- 3. Discuss three tools useful for manipulating data.frames and matrices:

- Review common operations performed on data.frames, since that's the form in which you'll keep the majority of your data for research—many of these operations can also be performed on matrices, and before concluding, we'll review some small differences that emerge when working with data.frames versus matrices
- 2. Discuss dplyr, a package that aims to simplify some of the data manipulation we review in the first part of the lecture
- 3. Discuss three tools useful for manipulating data.frames and matrices:
 - 3.1 Logical statements

- Review common operations performed on data.frames, since that's the form in which you'll keep the majority of your data for research—many of these operations can also be performed on matrices, and before concluding, we'll review some small differences that emerge when working with data.frames versus matrices
- 2. Discuss dplyr, a package that aims to simplify some of the data manipulation we review in the first part of the lecture
- 3. Discuss three tools useful for manipulating data.frames and matrices:
 - 3.1 Logical statements
 - 3.2 Control structures (if, ifelse, etc.)

- Review common operations performed on data.frames, since that's the form in which you'll keep the majority of your data for research—many of these operations can also be performed on matrices, and before concluding, we'll review some small differences that emerge when working with data.frames versus matrices
- 2. Discuss dplyr, a package that aims to simplify some of the data manipulation we review in the first part of the lecture
- 3. Discuss three tools useful for manipulating data.frames and matrices:
 - 3.1 Logical statements
 - 3.2 Control structures (if, ifelse, etc.)
 - 3.3 Focus on for loops

data.frame: extracting columns

Indexing:

data.frame[row index, column index]

For most data structures, this will be:

data.frame[observations, variables]

How do we extract columns from the data.frame?

data.frame[observations, variables]

Ways to extract columns:

► Less recommended: use column index (less recommended because position might change as you add/remove columns from the data)

Ways to extract columns:

- ► Less recommended: use column index (less recommended because position might change as you add/remove columns from the data)
- ▶ More recommended: use name of columns

Ways to extract columns:

- ► Less recommended: use column index (less recommended because position might change as you add/remove columns from the data)
- ▶ More recommended: use name of columns
- ▶ If the columns of interest share a naming pattern, can use regular expressions (see Intermediate R module in DataCamp if want more info on regex)

Ways to extract columns:

- ► Less recommended: use column index (less recommended because position might change as you add/remove columns from the data)
- ▶ More recommended: use name of columns
- ▶ If the columns of interest share a naming pattern, can use regular expressions (see Intermediate R module in DataCamp if want more info on regex)
- ▶ If extracting a column to use in some operation, often use: data\$variable

Example: extract the age, gender, income, and three relationship-related columns from the data

```
## 1 20 male 15000 10 10 7
## 2 22 male 30000 10 5 1
## 3 19 female 1500 10 10 5
```

22 male 30000 10 5 1 0.00000

```
##way 3: illustration of indexing using data$variable
source("/Users/xvd/Desktop/IHS.R")
## Warning in file(filename, "r", encoding = encoding): cannot open file '/
## Users/xvd/Desktop/IHS.R': No such file or directory
## Error in file(filename, "r", encoding = encoding): cannot open the connection
IHS(addh2$monev)
## Error in IHS(addh2$monev): could not find function "IHS"
addh2$logmoney <- log(addh2$money)
head(addh2, 2)
    age gender income love nocheating money logmoney
     20
         male 15000
                        10
                                   10 7 1.94591
```

How do we extract rows from the data.frame?

data.frame[observations, variables]

Usually, relies on the main logical operators:

▶ equals: ==

How do we extract rows from the data.frame?

data.frame[observations, variables]

- ▶ equals: ==
- ▶ not equals: != (or ! in front of an identity statement)

How do we extract rows from the data.frame?

data.frame[observations, variables]

- ▶ equals: ==
- ▶ not equals: != (or ! in front of an identity statement)
- ightharpoonup comparison: <, \le , >, \ge

How do we extract rows from the data.frame?

data.frame[observations, variables]

- ▶ equals: ==
- not equals: != (or ! in front of an identity statement)
- ightharpoonup comparison: <, \le , >, \ge
- ▶ and: &

How do we extract rows from the data.frame?

data.frame[observations, variables]

- ▶ equals: ==
- not equals: != (or ! in front of an identity statement)
- ightharpoonup comparison: <, \le , >, \ge
- ▶ and: &
- or:

How are logical operators useful?

Example: you've been running your analyses including the full AddHealth sample, but your adviser tells you that you should only include those older than college years. You want to subset the data to include only persons aged 22 and older.

How might we do this without logical operators?

81 107 22 female 10000 9.210340 vesdebt

85 112

22

88 116 22 female

naunarcent lognaunarcent

83 110 22 female 28000 10.239960 nodebt 10

male 33000 10.404263 nodebt

3000 8.006368 vesdebt

```
#rank the respondents in order of age and manually look at which
#row forms the cutoff
#between 21 and 22, and then manually restrict to that row and higher
orderedaddh <- addh[order(addh$age), ]
#trying to find the 21/22 year old cutoff
orderedaddh[300:303.]
         id age gender income logincome debt love nocheating money
## 2945 3790 19 female 10000 9.210340 yesdebt 10
                                                        10
                                                        10
## 2946 3791 19 female 15000 9.615805 yesdebt 10
## 2956 3805 19
                 male 15000 9.615805 nodebt 10
                                                       10
## 2960 3810 19
                 male
                       4000 8.294050 nodebt 10
       paypercent logpaypercent
## 2945
            54.8
                     4.003690
## 2946 68.4 4.225373
## 2956 68.4 4.225373
## 2960 31.4 3.446808
#not high enough, try again:
orderedaddh[1300:1303, ]
      id age gender income logincome debt love nocheating money
```

10

10

10

10

10

10

10 10

6

8

Logical operators: advantages

Help us easily subset the data, and can also apply multiple criteria at once

```
##only want people 22 and over
head(addh[addh$age >= 22, ], 3)
    id age gender income logincome debt love nocheating money paypercent
##
            male 30000 10.308953 nodebt
## 2 4 22
                                         10
                                                                 90.8
## 4 6 22 female 12000 9.392662 nodebt
                                         10
                                                   10 9
                                                                 56.3
## 6 8 25
            male 30000 10.308953 nodebt 10
                                                   10 10
                                                                 90.8
##
    logpaypercent
## 2
         4.508659
## 4
    4.030695
## 6
    4.508659
##want people whose income < 20000 but have no debt
head(addh[addh$debt == "nodebt" &
         addh$income < 20000, ], 3)
```

```
id age gender income logincome debt love nocheating money paypercent
## 1
    2 20
            male 15000 9.615805 nodebt 10
                                                   10
                                                         7
                                                          5
## 3
     5 19 female 1500 7.313220 nodebt
                                        10
                                                  10
## 4
        22 female 12000 9.392662 nodebt
                                        10
                                                  10
##
    logpaypercent
## 1
        4.162003
## 3
        2.965273
    4.030695
## 4
```

64.2

19.4

56.3

```
##want people who either have income >= 80000 OR
##are over the age of 25
head(addh[addh$income >= 80000 |
         addh\$age > 25. 1. 3)
##
       id age gender income logincome debt love nocheating money
## 71
       95 27 male 3000 8.006368 nodebt.
## 87 114 26 female 26800 10.196157 nodebt 10
                                                10
## 104 138 26 male 14000 9.546813 nodebt 10
                                                   10 1
##
      paypercent logpaypercent
## 71
           25.1 3.222868
## 87 88.6 4.484132
## 104 62.4 4.133565
##no missing data in this particular cleaned data, but
##say there was, and want people not missing data
##for any of the relationship attitude variables
nomissrel <- addh[!is.na(addh$love) &
                 !is.na(addh$nocheating) &
                 !is.na(addh$money), ]
##more detail on what is.na(vector) is doing:
testvec \leftarrow c(NA, 5, NA, 6, 6)
is.na(testvec)
```

▶ We've reviewed how to create the different structures, how to extract elements (aka indexing), and how to manipulate in various other ways

- ▶ We've reviewed how to create the different structures, how to extract elements (aka indexing), and how to manipulate in various other ways
- ▶ All of the manipulation we've done thus far (with the exception of the ggplot graph) uses commands in base R (R's built-in functions)

- ▶ We've reviewed how to create the different structures, how to extract elements (aka indexing), and how to manipulate in various other ways
- ▶ All of the manipulation we've done thus far (with the exception of the ggplot graph) uses commands in base R (R's built-in functions)
- ► The Tidyverse way for manipulating data that can be more efficient/readable than base R in certain cases is to use the *dplyr* package

- We've reviewed how to create the different structures, how to extract elements (aka indexing), and how to manipulate in various other ways
- ▶ All of the manipulation we've done thus far (with the exception of the ggplot graph) uses commands in base R (R's built-in functions)
- ► The Tidyverse way for manipulating data that can be more efficient/readable than base R in certain cases is to use the *dplyr* package
- ▶ We'll review basics of how to translate base R into dplyr, for the most part using examples from the previous slides, but to become more "fluent", can practice with DataCamp dplyr module

▶ dplyr "verbs":

- dplyr "verbs":
 - select

- dplyr "verbs":
 - select
 - filter

- dplyr "verbs":
 - select
 - filter
 - arrange

- dplyr "verbs":
 - select
 - filter
 - arrange
 - mutate

- dplyr "verbs":
 - select
 - ► filter
 - arrange
 - mutate
 - group_by

- dplyr "verbs":
 - select
 - ▶ filter
 - arrange
 - mutate
 - group_by
 - summarise

- dplyr "verbs":
 - select
 - ▶ filter
 - arrange
 - mutate
 - group_by
 - summarise
- rename

- dplyr "verbs":
 - select
 - filter
 - arrange
 - mutate
 - group_by
 - summarise
- rename
- \blacktriangleright chaining together verbs with pipe operator $\%{>}\%$

dplyr: basic structure of verbs

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} verb (name\ of\ data.frame\ or\ object,\ operation\ 1\ to\ perform,\ operation\ 2\ to\ perform...) \end{tabular}$

select: a way to extract columns

paycol <- addh[, c("paypercent", "logpaypercent")]</pre>

paypercent logpaypercent

64.2 4.162003

90.8 4.508659 19.4 2.965273

##base R.

##

1

2

3

Can be used in combination with other dplyr verbs such as: contains, starts_with, and ends_with

Example: extract any column with the word "pay": paypercent and logpaypercent

```
## paypercent logpaypercent
## 1 64.2 4.162003
## 2 90.8 4.508659
## 3 19.4 2.965273

##dplyr
paycold <- select(addh, dplyr::contains("pay"))
# note here I used namespace b/c of dyplr/purrr conflict
head(paycold, 3)</pre>
```

filter: a way to extract rows

[1] 1275

Can be used in combination with logical statements we learned earlier

Example: extract observations with an income <20,000 year but no debt

48 / 93

arrange: a way to arrange rows by the order of their column values

Example: find the two observations who think money is extremely important for a relationship (10 on money variable) but who pay for the fewest percentage of dates (paypercent)

```
##base R
moneyint <- addh[addh$money == 10, ]
moneyint[order(moneyint$paypercent), ][1:2, ]
         id age gender income logincome debt love nocheating money
## 2379 3058 21 female 1044 6.950815 yesdebt 10
                                                         10
                                                              10
## 390
        506
           24 female 1200 7.090077 nodebt 10
                                                         10
                                                              10
       paypercent logpaypercent
##
## 2379 18.7 2.928524
## 390 19.0
                     2.944439
##dplyr
arrange(filter(addh, money == 10), paypercent)[1:2, ]
```

```
## id age gender income logincome debt love nocheating money
## 1 3058 21 female 1044 6.950815 yesdebt 10 10 10 10

## 2 506 24 female 1200 7.090077 nodebt 10 10 10

## paypercent logpaypercent
## 1 18.7 2.928524

## 2 19.0 2.944439
```

mutate: a way to add new variables to the data.frame

Example: add a variable with the average rating for nocheating, money, and love's importance for a relationship (sum divided by 3) and another variable that logs that rating

```
##base R.
addh$rateavg <- rowSums(addh[, c("love", "money", "nocheating")])/3
addh$rateavglog <- log(addh$rateavg)
head(addh[, c("love", "money", "nocheating", "rateavg", "rateavglog")], 3)
##
    love money nocheating rateavg rateavglog
## 1
      10
                     10 9.000000 2.197225
## 2
     10 1
                     5 5.333333 1.673976
     10 5
                     10 8.333333 2.120264
## 3
##dplyr
addhd <- mutate(addh.
              rateavg = (love + money + nocheating)/3,
              rateavglog = log(rateavg))
head(select(addh, love, money, nocheating, rateavg, rateavglog), 3)
    love money nocheating rateavg rateavglog
##
## 1
      10 7
                   10 9.000000
                                   2,197225
## 2
      10
                     5 5.333333 1.673976
## 3
      10
                      10 8.333333 2.120264
```

group_by and summarise: a way to collapse data by category and generate summary statistics

Example:

- 1. Group by gender
- Generate a summary statistic of not cheating's importance on that grouped data

```
##base R- will learn apply family tomorrow
tapply(addh$nocheating, addh$gender, mean)
```

```
## female male
## 9.852698 9.612203
```

group_by and summarise: a way to collapse data by category and generate summary statistics

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 2
## gender meannocheat
## <fct> <dbl>
## 1 female 9.85
## 2 male 9.61
```

Summarise also has a number of verbs for creating summary statistics:

1. n(): count the elements in a group

Summarise also has a number of verbs for creating summary statistics:

- 1. n(): count the elements in a group
- 2. n_distinct(): count the distinct elements in a group

Summarise also has a number of verbs for creating summary statistics:

- 1. n(): count the elements in a group
- 2. n_distinct(): count the distinct elements in a group
- 3. first: list the first element (would usually use in combo with arrange)

Summarise also has a number of verbs for creating summary statistics:

- 1. n(): count the elements in a group
- 2. n_distinct(): count the distinct elements in a group
- 3. first: list the first element (would usually use in combo with arrange)
- 4. last: list the lest element (same as above)

group_by and summarise

Example: find: 1) the number of females and males by debt status, 2) the percentage in each debt x gender category as a fraction of all observations; 3) the number of distinct ratings of love's importance in each of these debt x gender categories

```
##base R.
table(addh$gender, addh$debt); prop.table(table(addh$gender, addh$debt))
##
##
            nodebt vesdebt
     female
               828
                       747
##
##
     male
               907
                       568
##
##
               nodebt
                        vesdebt
##
     female 0.2714754 0.2449180
     male 0.2973770 0.1862295
##
##distinct
tapply(addh$love, list(addh$gender, addh$debt),
                  function(x){length(unique(x))})
```

```
## nodebt yesdebt
## female 8 7
## male 10 8
```

Summary: base R versus dplyr

Goal	base R	dplyr
Extract columns	data[, c("col1", "col2")]	select(data, col1, col2)
Extract rows	data[variable == condition,]	filter(data, variable == condition)
Arrange by column value (default $=$ ascending)	data[order(variable),]	arrange(data, variable)
Add new variables to data.frame	data\$newvar <- log(data\$oldvar)	mutate(data, newvar = log(oldvar))
Grouped summary statistics	tapply(data\$outcomevar, list(data\$groupvar1, data\$groupvar2), function to perform)	summarise(group_by(data, groupvar1, groupvar2), stat1 = function 1 to perform, stat2 = function 2 to perform)

Rename

##

##

Mazda RX4

Datsun 710

Mazda RX4 Wag

Rename: you can use plyr::rename() as a function to modify names by name, not position.

Miles per Gallon cyl displacement hp drat wt qsec vs am

160 110 3.90 2.620 16.46 0 1

108 93 3.85 2.320 18.61 1 1

21.0 6 160 110 3.90 2.875 17.02 0 1

21.0 6

22.8 4

gear carb

Rename

- ► Rename: you can use plyr::rename() as a function to modify names by name, not position.
- ➤ You can rename numerous columns by using c() to produce a 1-D array to pass to the replace position

▶ You'll notice that the example on the previous slides combines multiple actions:

- ▶ You'll notice that the example on the previous slides combines multiple actions:
- ▶ Pipes provide a way to chain together multiple verbs in a specified order.

- ▶ You'll notice that the example on the previous slides combines multiple actions:
- ▶ Pipes provide a way to chain together multiple verbs in a specified order.
- ▶ Pipes (%>%) comes from the *magrittr* package with two aims: to decrease development time and to improve readability and maintainability of code.

- ▶ You'll notice that the example on the previous slides combines multiple actions:
- ▶ Pipes provide a way to chain together multiple verbs in a specified order.
- ▶ Pipes (%>%) comes from the *magrittr* package with two aims: to decrease development time and to improve readability and maintainability of code.
- ▶ This operator %>% allow you to pipe a value forward into an expression or function call; something along the lines of x %>% f, rather than f(x). It might be helpful to think of this as . . . then. . .

Piping Functional Sequence

The basic (pseudo) usage of the pipe operator goes something like this:

```
awesome_data <-
raw_interesting_data %>%
transform(somehow) %>%
filter(the_good_parts) %>%
finalize
```

This takes an input, an output, and a sequence transformations. That's suprisingly close to the definition of a function, so magrittr is really just a convenient way of of defining and applying a function. (Also try command + shift + m for a nice short cut!)

Example of combining multiple verbs with piping

Example: - Group the data by gender and debt status - Find the average rating of love, no cheating, and money's importance for a relationship in each group - Arrange the groups by their rating of money's importance to a relationship from the highest to rating to the lowest rating

What would this look like, still using dplyr, but without piping? A nested mess. . .

```
## # A tibble: 4 x 5
## # Groups: gender [2]
##
   gender debt nocheatavg loveavg moneyavg
   <fct> <fct>
                    <dbl>
                          <dbl>
                                  <dbl>
## 1 male nodebt 9.60
                         9.54
                                  6.40
## 2 female nodebt 9.84 9.76 6.40
                  9.87 9.83 6.38
## 3 female yesdebt
## 4 male vesdebt
                    9.62
                        9.60
                                  6.25
```

Piping: begin from the "most nested"/first operation and move to the last

- 1) Group the data by gender and debt status; 2) find the avg. rating of love, no cheating, and money's importance; 3) arrange the groups from rating money's importance the highest to rating it the lowest
 - ▶ Without piping:

```
arrange(summarise(group_by(addh, gender, debt),
nocheatavg = mean(nocheating), loveavg = mean(love), moneyavg =
mean(money)), desc(moneyavg))
```

```
addh %>%
group_by(gender, debt) %>%
summarise(nocheatavg = mean(nocheating), loveavg = mean(love), moneyavg =
mean(money)) %>%
arrange(desc(moneyavg))
```

Piping: begin from the "most nested"/first operation and move to the last

- 1) Group the data by gender and debt status; 2) find the avg. rating of love, no cheating, and money's importance; 3) arrange the groups from rating money's importance the highest to rating it the lowest
 - ▶ Without piping:

```
arrange(summarise(group_by(addh, gender, debt),
nocheatavg = mean(nocheating), loveavg = mean(love), moneyavg =
mean(money)), desc(moneyavg))
```

▶ With piping:

```
addh %>%
group_by(gender, debt) %>%
summarise(nocheatavg = mean(nocheating), loveavg = mean(love), moneyavg =
mean(money)) %>%
arrange(desc(moneyavg))
```

Implementing in R with pipes

4 male vesdebt

And as a bonus, rename the columns to be more elaborative

```
addh %>%
 group by (gender, debt) %>%
 summarise(nocheatavg = mean(nocheating),
          loveavg = mean(love),
          moneyavg = mean(money)) %>%
 arrange(desc(moneyavg)) %>%
 plyr::rename(c("nocheatavg" = "no cheating average", "loveavg" = "love average", "moneyavg" =
## # A tibble: 4 x 5
## # Groups: gender [2]
    gender debt `no cheating average` `love average` `money average`
## <fct> <fct>
                                 <dbl>
                                               <dbl>
                                                             <dbl>
## 1 male nodebt
                                 9.60
                                              9.54
                                                             6.40
                                 9.84
                                              9.76
## 2 female nodebt
                                                             6.40
## 3 female yesdebt
                                 9.87 9.83
                                                           6.38
```

9.60

6.25

9.62

Brief disclaimer: control structures are not specific to data.frames—usually, we use them to check vectors and we can also use them in the context of matrices. But here, we're lumping them in with data.frames because we often use these statements to construct new variables of interest to add to our data

How do we construct new variables based on more complicated sequences of logical operators?

Example Task: want to create a new variable, *loveormoney*, that takes on one of three values:

▶ Equally important: respondent ranked the two as equally important

How would we do the Example Task without the use of control structures?

How do we construct new variables based on more complicated sequences of logical operators?

Example Task: want to create a new variable, *loveormoney*, that takes on one of three values:

- ▶ Equally important: respondent ranked the two as equally important
- ▶ Love more important: respondent ranked love as more important than money

How would we do the Example Task without the use of control structures?

How do we construct new variables based on more complicated sequences of logical operators?

Example Task: want to create a new variable, *loveormoney*, that takes on one of three values:

- ▶ Equally important: respondent ranked the two as equally important
- ▶ Love more important: respondent ranked love as more important than money
- ▶ Money more important: respondent ranked money as more important than love

How would we do the Example Task without the use of control structures?

equal

5 10 moneymoreimport

6 8 10 10

9 11

Not really possible- imagine doing the following by hand for all 3050 observations

```
addhtest <- addh
#create a love or money variable filled with missing data
addhtest$loveormoney <- NA
#manually code a new variable based on comparing
#the ratinas
addhtest[c(1, 6, 9), c("id", "love", "money")] #obs to code
    id love money
         10
## 1 2
## 6 8 10 10
## 9 11 5 10
addhtest$loveormoney[1] <- "lovemoreimport"
addhtest$loveormoney[6] <- "equal"
addhtest$loveormoney[9] <- "moneymoreimport"
addhtest[c(1, 6, 9), c("id", "love", "money", "loveormoney")]
    id love monev
                      loveormonev
## 1 2 10 7
                   lovemoreimport
```

How would we do the example task without the use of control structures?

Rather than checking the condition by hand (whether a respondent's rating for the love variable exceeded, equaled, or was less than their rating for the money's importance variable), use R to check conditions by combining the logical operators we previously reviewed with "control structures"

If Else: common control structures for variable construction:

ifelse(logical test, what to do if true, what to do if false)

if(logical test, what to do if true), else(what to do if false)

if(logical test, what to do if true), else(logical test, what to do if true), else(...)...

```
##truncated ifelse for use with one logical statement
##here, coding 1 = money more important, 0 = equal or less
addh2$moneymoreimport <- ifelse(addh2$money >
                                addh2$love, 1, 0)
head(addh2[, c("love", "money", "moneymoreimport")], 3)
##
    love money moneymoreimport
## 1
      10
## 2 10
## 3
     10
##can combine multiple into a nested ifelse
addh2$loveormoney <- ifelse(addh2$money >
                            addh2$love, "moneymoreimport",
                            ifelse(addh2$money ==
                                  addh2$love.
                                   "moneyequal",
                                  "lovemoreimport"))
head(addh2[, c("love", "money", "loveormoney")], 3)
```

```
## love money loveormoney
## 1 10 7 lovemoreimport
## 2 10 1 lovemoreimport
## 3 10 5 lovemoreimport
```

▶ What happens if the sequence of conditionals within the "ifelse" statement gets too long and complicated?

- ▶ What happens if the sequence of conditionals within the "ifelse" statement gets too long and complicated?
- ▶ Then, can chain together the following:

▶ What happens if the sequence of conditionals within the "ifelse" statement gets too long and complicated?

```
if(logical statement){
  what to do
}
```

- ▶ What happens if the sequence of conditionals within the "ifelse" statement gets too long and complicated?
- ▶ Then, can chain together the following:

```
if(logical statement){
  what to do
}
```

- ▶ What happens if the sequence of conditionals within the "ifelse" statement gets too long and complicated?
- ▶ Then, can chain together the following:

```
if(logical statement){
  what to do
} else if (logical statement){
  what to do
}
```

- ▶ What happens if the sequence of conditionals within the "ifelse" statement gets too long and complicated?
- ▶ Then, can chain together the following:

```
if(logical statement){
   what to do
} else if (logical statement){
   what to do
} else if (logical statement){
   what to do
}
```

- ▶ What happens if the sequence of conditionals within the "ifelse" statement gets too long and complicated?
- ▶ Then, can chain together the following:

```
if(logical statement){
  what to do
} else if (logical statement){
  what to do
} else if (logical statement){
  what to do
} else {
  what to do with values that didn't meet any of the above conditions
```

Example: create a variable, *loveormoney2*, that takes on the following values:

"extreme" if person either codes love or money as 9 or 10

Example: create a variable, *loveormoney2*, that takes on the following values:

- "extreme" if person either codes love or money as 9 or 10
- ► lovegreater if love > money

Example: create a variable, *loveormoney2*, that takes on the following values:

- "extreme" if person either codes love or money as 9 or 10
- ▶ lovegreater if love > money
- ▶ same if love == money

Example: create a variable, *loveormoney2*, that takes on the following values:

- "extreme" if person either codes love or money as 9 or 10
- ▶ lovegreater if love > money
- ► same if love == money
- moneygreater if money > love

data.frame: using control structures for variable construction

If we were doing this using the *ifelse* command, we would feed that command the love and money vectors and it would perform the logical check/operation on *all elements of those vectors*. So in our example:

► The above command is looking through each and every observation's love and money values, seeing whether money is greater, and then coding the new variable appropriately

data.frame: using control structures for variable construction

If we were doing this using the *ifelse* command, we would feed that command the love and money vectors and it would perform the logical check/operation on *all elements of those vectors*. So in our example:

- ► The above command is looking through each and every observation's love and money values, seeing whether money is greater, and then coding the new variable appropriately
- In contrast, if, else if, else sequences only look at the FIRST element of a vector, so in order to do this sort of checking for every observation they need to be embedded in what's called a for loop

data.frame: using control structures for variable construction

If we were doing this using the *ifelse* command, we would feed that command the love and money vectors and it would perform the logical check/operation on *all elements of those vectors*. So in our example:

- ► The above command is looking through each and every observation's love and money values, seeing whether money is greater, and then coding the new variable appropriately
- ▶ In contrast, if, else if, else sequences only look at the FIRST element of a vector, so in order to do this sort of checking for every observation they need to be embedded in what's called a *for loop*
- How we'll proceed: 1) show how the if, else if, else sequence works outside the loop for one element/one observation; 2) generalize it into a for loop so that it checks every observation in the data

data.frame: using control structures for variable construction- logical with one observation

```
##choose an observation to test
participant1 <- addh2[1, ]
participant1[, c("age", "gender", "income", "love", "money")]
     age gender income love money
## 1 20 male 15000 10
##run logical sequence
part1result <- c()
if(participant1$love >= 9 | participant1$money >= 9){
  part1result <- "extreme"
} else if (participant1$love > participant1$monev){
  part1result <- "lovegreater"
} else if (participant1$love == participant1$money){
  part1result <- "same"
} else {
  part1result <- "monevgreater"
part1result
```

[1] "extreme"

To generalize so that it goes through all observations (all elements of the love and money vectors), we can embed the logical sequence inside another control structure, a *for loop*, which helps us iterate through elements of a vector, matrix, data.frame, or list

Tomorrow, we'll learn how to replicate most of the things that a for loop does using functions and the "apply" family (which have many advantages), but for now, we'll review *for* loops

Two main ways to construct:

1. Go through every element of a vector:
 for(i in vector){
 what to do
 }

Two main ways to construct:

1. Go through every element of a vector:

```
for(i in vector){
  what to do
}
```

2. Iterate through a set number of elements:

Two main ways to construct:

1. Go through every element of a vector:

```
for(i in vector){
  what to do
}
```

- 2. Iterate through a set number of elements:
 - 2.1 Another way of writing the for loop from number 1:

```
for(i in 1:length(vector)){
   what to do
}
```

Two main ways to construct:

1. Go through every element of a vector:

```
for(i in vector){
  what to do
}
```

- 2. Iterate through a set number of elements:
 - 2.1 Another way of writing the for loop from number 1:

```
for(i in 1:length(vector)){
  what to do
}
```

2.2 A for loop that iterates starting at the second element:
 for(i in 2:length(vector)){
 what to do

Using the 2.1 way of for loop construction, how do we generalize the expression that we applied to one observation? Here's what the for loop will do with i=1 and i=2

```
part1result <- c()
##run logical sequence
if(participant1$love >= 9 | participant1$money >= 9){
 part1result <- "extreme"
} else if (participant1$love > participant1$money){
  part1result <- "lovegreater"
} else if (participant1$love == participant1$money){
  part1result <- "same"
} else f
  part1result <- "moneygreater"
##what if we wanted to repeat with participant 2?
participant2 <- addh2[2, ]
##run sequence with participant 2
part2result <- c()
if(participant2$love >= 9 | participant2$money >= 9){
  part2result <- "extreme"
} else if (participant2$love > participant2$money){
  part2result <- "lovegreater"
} else if (participant2$love == participant2$money){
  part2result <- "same"
} else f
  part2result <- "moneygreater"
##combine the two answers
part1andpart2 <- c(part1result, part2result)
part1andpart2
```

[1] "extreme" "extreme"

Now copy and paste that code, altering where appropriate, 3048 more times (the number of remaining observations in the data)

Now copy and paste that code, altering where appropriate, 3048 more times (the number of remaining observations in the data)...just kidding

Steps to turn into a for loop:

1. Initialize a vector to store results- this time it will store an entire vector of results rather than one result. Can either do:

- 1. Initialize a vector to store results- this time it will store an entire vector of results rather than one result. Can either do:
 - 1.1 Initialize a vector of a certain length: $vec <- vector(length = desired \ length)$

- 1. Initialize a vector to store results- this time it will store an entire vector of results rather than one result. Can either do:
 - 1.1 Initialize a vector of a certain length: $vec \leftarrow vector(length = desired \ length)$
 - 1.2 Initialize an empty vector: vec <- c()

- 1. Initialize a vector to store results- this time it will store an entire vector of results rather than one result. Can either do:
 - 1.1 Initialize a vector of a certain length: $vec <- vector(length = desired \ length)$
 - 1.2 Initialize an empty vector: vec <- c()
- 2. Use the for statement to tell the loop what to iterate through- in this case, we're iterating through $i=1,\ i=2...i=3050$ (the number of observations in the data), pulling out each observation one by one and testing it via the logical sequence

- 1. Initialize a vector to store results- this time it will store an entire vector of results rather than one result. Can either do:
 - 1.1 Initialize a vector of a certain length: $vec <- vector(length = desired \ length)$
 - 1.2 Initialize an empty vector: vec <- c()
- 2. Use the for statement to tell the loop what to iterate through- in this case, we're iterating through $i=1,\ i=2...i=3050$ (the number of observations in the data), pulling out each observation one by one and testing it via the logical sequence
- 3. Copy and paste the code from the single-observation case into the "meat" part of the *for* loop sandwich

- 1. Initialize a vector to store results- this time it will store an entire vector of results rather than one result. Can either do:
 - 1.1 Initialize a vector of a certain length: $vec <- vector(length = desired \ length)$
 - 1.2 Initialize an empty vector: vec <- c()
- 2. Use the for statement to tell the loop what to iterate through- in this case, we're iterating through $i=1,\ i=2...i=3050$ (the number of observations in the data), pulling out each observation one by one and testing it via the logical sequence
- 3. Copy and paste the code from the single-observation case into the "meat" part of the *for* loop sandwich
- 4. For step three, make sure to add indexing where appropriate

```
##initalize an empty vector
loveormoney2 <- c()
##for loop iterating through
##obs 1, obs 2...obs 3050
for(i in 1:nrow(addh2)){
  # index i^th element of addh2$love, check if statement is true
 if(addh2$love[i] >= 9 | addh2$monev[i] >= 9){
  # if true, then in our empty vector, put "extreme"
 loveormoney2[i] <- "extreme"</pre>
  # else, if not true, then check if i^th love is greater than i^th money
} else if (addh2$love[i] > addh2$money[i]){
  # if that is true, then put "lovegreater"
 loveormoney2[i] <- "lovegreater"</pre>
} else if (addh2$love[i] == addh2$money[i]){
 loveormonev2[i] <- "same"
  # else for all other cases, money is greater
} else {
 loveormoney2[i] <- "moneygreater"</pre>
}
##append vector to data as new variable
addh2$loveormoney2 <- loveormoney2
##view some selected results
addh2[2505:2507, c("love", "money", "loveormoney2")]
```

2505 6 8 moneygreater ## 2506 10 10 extreme

love money loveormoney2

What comes up next in schematic...

	Homogeneous elements	Heterogeneous elements
1-dimensional	Vector	
2-dimensional	Matrix	Data.frame

Will review more after linear algebra lecture, for now, will just discuss as a container for the results of for loops

For now, review matrices as a container for the outcomes of for loops

▶ In previous example, each iteration of the for loop generated a *single element*. The result was a vector of length *i*

For now, review matrices as a container for the outcomes of for loops

- ▶ In previous example, each iteration of the for loop generated a *single element*. The result was a vector of length *i*
- ▶ What happens when we want each iteration to generate a *vector*, with the result being a matrix of dimensions: *iterations* × *length of vector*?

For now, review matrices as a container for the outcomes of for loops

- ▶ In previous example, each iteration of the for loop generated a *single element*. The result was a vector of length *i*
- ▶ What happens when we want each iteration to generate a *vector*, with the result being a matrix of dimensions: *iterations* × *length of vector*?
- ▶ Can use a matrix to use store for loop results

Example: want to calculate distribution around mean rating of money's importance. To do that, we want to:

1. Draw 1000 samples of size 3050 (number of observations in data) with replacement and store the samples in a matrix where each row is a draw and each column is an element of that draw (so the matrix will be 1000×3050) inside the loop

Example: want to calculate distribution around mean rating of money's importance. To do that, we want to:

- 1. Draw 1000 samples of size 3050 (number of observations in data) with replacement and store the samples in a matrix where each row is a draw and each column is an element of that draw (so the matrix will be 1000×3050) inside the loop
- 2. Find mean of each of the 1000 samples outside the loop

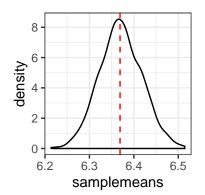
Example: want to calculate distribution around mean rating of money's importance. To do that, we want to:

- 1. Draw 1000 samples of size 3050 (number of observations in data) with replacement and store the samples in a matrix where each row is a draw and each column is an element of that draw (so the matrix will be 1000×3050) inside the loop
- 2. Find mean of each of the 1000 samples outside the loop
- 3. Plot the distribution of that mean outside the loop

initialize empty matrix, good to preallocate space

```
set. seed (1234)
sampmat \leftarrow matrix(NA, nrow = 1000, ncol = 3050)
# iterate through each row of the matrix
for(i in 2:nrow(sampmat)){
  # and fill it with a sample of size 10 from the data
 draws <- sample(addh$money, size = 3050, replace= TRUE)
  # note that because each i-th sample is filling a row.
  # we add that sample to the matrix by indexing the i-th row
  sampmat[i, ] <- draws
# this is basically bootstrapping!
# check to make sure the for loop properly populated the matrix
sampmat[1:2, 1:10]
       [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10]
## [1.] NA NA NA
                         NΑ
                             NΑ
                                   NΑ
                                                        NΑ
## [2,] 5 2
                  7 5 7
                                                        10
# find mean of each 1000 samples
samplemeans <- rowMeans(sampmat)</pre>
```

Warning: Removed 1 rows containing non-finite values (stat_density).



Briefly: lists

► Like data.frames but unlike matrices/vectors, can handle elements of different types (e.g., character and numeric)

Briefly: lists

- Like data.frames but unlike matrices/vectors, can handle elements of different types (e.g., character and numeric)
- ▶ Unlike matrices and data.frames, can handle elements of different-lengths (e.g., you can't have a data.frame where one column is 1×49 and the other column is 1×10)

Lists: how to create a list

Just a general tip that a lot of R package outputs, including the standard output from regression lm, are in forms of lists, so this may be helpful for you to learn how to extract elements from those outputs.

```
##basic way to create a list
listofthree <- list("one", c(1, 2), FALSE)</pre>
```

lists: how to extract elements

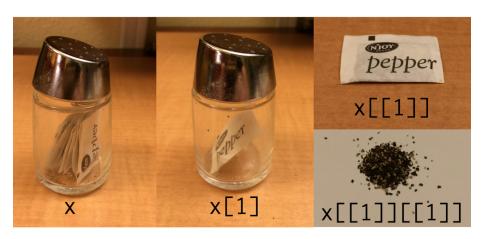


Figure 3:

Source: Hadley Wickham 90 / 93

lists: how to extract elements

how might we extract list 2, from the list of 3

listofthree[2]

[1] 2

[[1]] ## [1] 1 2 # what is this extraction? str(listofthree[2]) ## List of 1 ## \$: num [1:2] 1 2 # what if we want to extract the numeric element listofthree[[2]] ## [1] 1 2 # what is this extraction str(listofthree[[2]]) ## num [1:2] 1 2 # what is we want to extract the number 2 from the second list listofthree[[2]][2]

Summing up

In this lecture, we've reviewed: - Indexing and manipulation of four main data structures: vectors, lists, matrices, and data.frames - Three tools in base R useful for data manipulation - Logical statements - Control structures - Focus on for loops - dplyr and pipes as a tool for data manipulation. Tidyverse overview.

Now: we'll practice integrating these concepts with the homework assignment looking at opposition to free trade and support for presidential candidates. We'll now draw pairs for the homework. Only one of you needs to submit the assignment via Piazza by the start of tomorrow's day (9 AM)

P.S. Many of you will encounter latex/knitting errors (the worst kind!), please try this guide².

²(https://www.eng.famu.fsu.edu/~dommelen/l2h/errors.html#misdol)

Drawing groups

For homework, optional