Introduction to R Studio

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Introduction

This document is written in a Quarto Markdown (.qmd) file. It allows you to combine code with annotation and documentation that can be rendered to .pdf, .html, .doc, or even .ppt, for publishing.

{r} indicates a code block. This will be recognized by R Studio as executable code. The rest of the text is recognized as Markdown, a text editing language that allows you to use specific **syntax** (e.g., #, ##, *, **) to control how your words appear in the rendered document.

'#' Header 1

'##' Header 2

* italic *

** bold **

Whether these characters are visible or not depends on whether you are in Source or Visual Editing Mode.

Your first code block

The section below is a **code block**. This means that it contains code that will be recognized and executed by R if you run it. There are a few ways to run code contained within this document:

- 1. Click the green arrow in the top right of the code block to run the entire chunk at once.
- 2. Place your cursor anywhere on a single line you would like to run and type Ctrl / Cmd + Enter.

3. Copy and paste the content of the code block into your R console and type Enter.

```
# Welcome to your first code block!

# Within a code block, and generally anywhere else in R that is outside of a
# .qmd or .md file, '#' means something different.

# Everything following a '#' is a COMMENT. Comments will not be executed.
# Use comments for the humans reading your code - including future You!

# Comments are often helpful before a long code block, or after individual lines
# to clarify the functionality of that code.
```

Operators

Basic math in R

Operators are used to perform operations on variables and values. R uses the default arithmetic operators you already know: +, -, *, /, ^, %% (modulus), and %/% (integer division)

```
# To run these, either type into the Console and hit Enter, or, if working with a
# script in the Editor window, typing Ctrl/Cmd + Enter will run the line where
# your cursor is located.

1 + 1  # simple addition

[1] 2

4 / 3  # division

[1] 1.333333

4 %% 3  # remainder

[1] 1

4*2^2  # order of operations applies
```

```
[1] 16

1e3  # 1 * 10^3

[1] 1000

log10(1e3)  # log base 10

[1] 3

exp(3)  # e^3

[1] 20.08554

log(exp(3)) #ln(e^3)

[1] 3
```

R assignment operators assign values to variables

A variable is an object that will be saved to your R Environment that holds the values you assign it. While there are other ways to create a variable, it is best practice to use the left assignment operator, <-. You can see the values of your variables by looking in your Environment window, or by typing the variable name into the Console and hitting Enter.

```
x <- 2  # left assignment operator
y <- 4
z <- x*y^2
z <- x^2 * y^2
a <- 14

# Check your assignments
x</pre>
```

[1] 2

У

[1] 4

Z

[1] 64

Immediately print new variables to the console at creation by wrapping the assignment expression in parentheses ().

```
(z < - (x*y)^2)
```

[1] 64

You can check what variables exist in your environment with ls().

```
ls()
```

Use the rm() function to remove variables from your environment. Use rm(list = ls()) to remove all variables.

```
rm(a) # remove a single variable
```

R comparison and logical operators

Comparison operators aptly compare two values, giving an output of TRUE (numerically represented as 1) or FALSE (numerically represented as 0). They include: ==, !=, >, <, >=, and <=. Use & or | to combine multiple comparisons.

```
x == y # x is equal to y
```

[1] FALSE

```
x != y # x is not equal to y

[1] TRUE

x < y # x is less than y

[1] TRUE

(x < y) & (x < z) # x is less than y AND x is less than z

[1] TRUE

(x == z) | (x < z) # x equals z OR x is less than z

[1] TRUE

x <= z # more succinctly than above, x is less than or equal to z

[1] TRUE</pre>
```

Other useful operators

More often than not, you will be working with vectors, data frames, or lists, rather than variables containing a single value. A few useful operators for working with vectors are :, and %in%.

```
x <- 1:10  # creates a vector sequence
4 %in% x  # finds whether element is within vector - returns boolean</pre>
```

[1] TRUE

Functions and Packages

Functions

A function is a preset command that automatically performs a specific process or task on inputs you designate (also known as arguments). To call a function, enter the function name followed by parentheses. Let's start with one that takes no arguments, getwd(). getwd() (for get working directory) tells you where your current R session is running within your file system.

```
getwd() # get current working directory

[1] "C:/Users/kaspe/R/Projects/Biostats_Workshop"

getwd # notice what happens when you forget the parentheses

function ()
.Internal(getwd())
<bytecode: 0x00000218d03255c0>
<environment: namespace:base>
```

You can change your working directory with setwd(), but we won't go into that too much just yet. Just know that it is important for you to explicitly tell R where to look for files.

```
my_directory <- "C:\\file\\path\\here"
setwd(my_directory)</pre>
```

Most functions require arguments, however. Let's learn another useful function c(), to combine values into a vector, then get some information about the vector with range(), length(), and summary().

```
my_vector <- c(4,15,9,3,4)
my_vector

[1] 4 15 9 3 4
length(my_vector)

[1] 5</pre>
```

```
range(my_vector)

[1] 3 15

summary(my_vector)

Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
3 4 4 7 9 15
```

R is very powerful in working with vectors. Most functions in R are optimally employed with vectors.

```
my_new_vector <- 4*my_vector
my_new_vector

[1] 16 60 36 12 16</pre>
```

Getting help

Getting help in R is easy. If you don't understand how a function works, or what its arguments and outputs are, simply enter ?function.

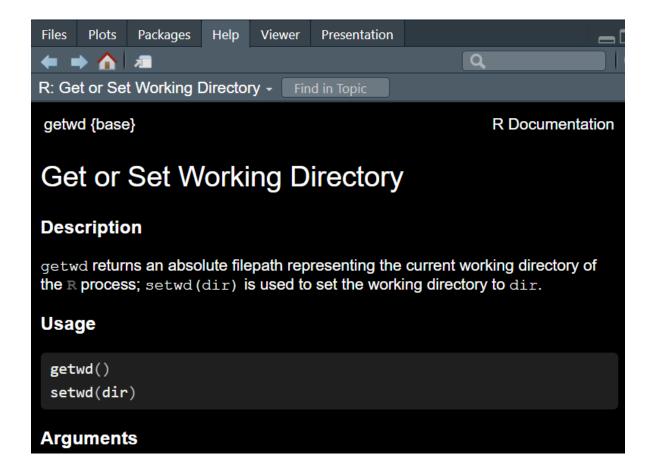
This will open the Help panel, where you can read the R Documentation.

```
?getwd()
```

Packages

Packages are a collection of functions that you can save to your device in a library. Packages increase the power of R by organizing and annotating base R functions that perform similar tasks. There are *thousands* of packages available (and more every day). Most packages are available through the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) here. Many packages (and their source code) are also published by their authors on GitHub.

Check which packages you already have with library(), or navigate to the Packages tab of the Help pane.. Load a specific package with library(package_name). Install a new package from CRAN with install.packages("package_name"). See where your packages are saved on your device with .libPaths().



```
library() # check your already installed packages
.libPaths() # check the file path(s) where your packages are installed
```

- [1] "C:/Users/kaspe/AppData/Local/R/win-library/4.2"
- [2] "C:/Program Files/R/R-4.2.2/library"

Let's install and load the tidyverse, a collection of packages that you will likely use heavily in your R journey. The Tidyverse is my personal favorite collection of functions, with excellent and intuitive functionality and thorough documentation.

Install packages with the install.packages() function.

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

This command downloads and saves all of the functions within the Tidyverse collection of packages into your R package library. In order to use a certain package's functions during your R session, you have to tell R explicitly to load them with the library() function, with the name of the package as an argument.

```
library(tidyverse) # load tidyverse
Warning: package 'tidyverse' was built under R version 4.2.3
Warning: package 'ggplot2' was built under R version 4.2.3
Warning: package 'tibble' was built under R version 4.2.3
Warning: package 'dplyr' was built under R version 4.2.3
-- Attaching core tidyverse packages ----- tidyverse 2.0.0 --
v dplyr
           1.1.1
                     v readr
                                 2.1.4
v forcats
           1.0.0
                                 1.5.0
                     v stringr
                     v tibble
v ggplot2 3.4.2
                                 3.2.1
                     v tidyr
                                 1.3.0
v lubridate 1.9.2
v purrr
           1.0.1
-- Conflicts ----- tidyverse_conflicts() --
x dplyr::filter() masks stats::filter()
x dplyr::lag()
                 masks stats::lag()
i Use the conflicted package (<a href="http://conflicted.r-lib.org/">http://conflicted.r-lib.org/</a>) to force all conflicts to become
```

R prints some helpful information in the console that confirms you have loaded the package, and warnings (under **Conflicts**) about altered functionality that may occur. This is usually due to *shared function names* between base R and a loaded package. **The most recently loaded function will supersede ("mask") a previously loaded function.**

When you begin writing your own functions, it is best practice to give your functions unique names to avoid conflicts.

You now have access to the hundreds of useful functions within the tidyverse collection of packages. A good place to find what functions you have is in the Packages > Library tab. Alternatively, you can find these in the console with lsf.str("package:your-package-here"), but this output is less readable. You can generally rely on finding helpful documentation for most packages online.

Working with Data

Now that we've learned some of the basics of working in R, let's talk about how to work with data. There are 5 main data types in R:

Data types

Variables can contain different types of data. These include:

- Numeric: 14.5, 11.97
- Integer: 1L, 4L, 17L, where the letter L indicates an integer
- Complex: 1 + 4i, where i indicates the imaginary component
- Character / string: "Hello, world", "This is a string", "So is this."
- Logical: Boolean, TRUE or FALSE

You can check what data type a variable is using the class() function.

```
a <- 14.94
class(a)

[1] "numeric"

a <- 14L # include L to coerce integer type
class(a)</pre>
```

```
[1] "integer"

a <- "14"
  class(a)

[1] "character"

a <- 14+1i # 1i gives i (sqrt(-1)); i alone will not be recognized class(a)

[1] "complex"

a <- TRUE class(a)

[1] "logical"</pre>
```

Data Structures

Next, let's go over a few ways to enter data directly into R. It's very useful to learn how to run analyses on smaller (simulated or real) datasets before applying methods to your larger dataset.

Vectors

A **vector** is a one-dimensional data structure that contains a single data type. As you learned already, you can create vectors with **c()** or with the : operator.

```
my_vector <- 1:10
class(my_vector)

[1] "integer"

(my_vector2 <- c("string1","string2",4))</pre>
```

```
[1] "string1" "string2" "4"
```

Notice that if you check the class of my_vector2, it is "character". Because vectors can only contain one data type, the 3rd item is coerced to being a character vector. If you want to store multiple data types in one R object, lists serve that purpose (see below).

Matrices

A matrix is a two-dimensional data structure for a single data type. Let's create an empty 3x4 matrix with the matrix() function.

```
matrix(nrow = 3, ncol = 4)
     [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,]
       NA
             NA
                  NA
                        NA
[2,]
       NA
             NA
                  NA
                        NA
[3,]
       NA
             NA
                  NA
                        NA
```

This first matrix is empty, as indicated by the NAs - R's shorthand for missing ("Not Available") values. If you read the R documentation on matrices, you'll notice that we skipped over the first argument, data, that accepts a data vector. Let's use the data argument to make a matrix with values from my_vector.

```
matrix(my_vector,nrow=2,ncol=5)

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

[1,] 1 3 5 7 9

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

Note that the values are distributed column-wise by default. Use the byrow argument to fill values row-wise.

```
matrix(my_vector,nrow=2,ncol=5,byrow=TRUE)

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

[1,] 1 2 3 4 5

[2,] 6 7 8 9 10
```

Another useful way to create matrices is by combining vectors together by row, with rbind() or by column, with cbind().

```
# First, let's clean up our Environment
  rm(list = ls())
  # Create a vector with random values from standard normal distribution
  a <- rnorm(10)
  b < -(a^2)/4
  # Combine row-wise
  (byrow <- rbind(a,b))
        [,1]
                   [,2]
                              [,3]
                                        [,4]
                                                   [,5]
                                                               [,6]
                                                                            [,7]
a -1.8286139 0.39775592 0.8296600 1.2587239 0.63018273 -0.7535539 0.0193204239
  0.8359572 0.03955244 0.1720839 0.3960965 0.09928257 0.1419609 0.0000933197
                  [,9]
                           [,10]
a 0.6581423 -1.7480467 0.6539880
b 0.1082878 0.7639168 0.1069251
  # Combine column-wise
  (bycol <- cbind(a,b))</pre>
                a
 [1,] -1.82861388 0.8359571819
 [2,] 0.39775592 0.0395524429
 [3,] 0.82965996 0.1720839124
 [4,] 1.25872395 0.3960964946
 [5,] 0.63018273 0.0992825678
 [6,] -0.75355388 0.1419608632
 [7,] 0.01932042 0.0000933197
 [8,] 0.65814227 0.1082878131
 [9,] -1.74804671 0.7639168244
[10,] 0.65398803 0.1069250873
```

Notice how the rows and columns are labeled. You can get this with the rownames() and colnames() functions. You can use these functions to change row and/or column names, as well.

```
rownames(byrow)

[1] "a" "b"
```

```
colnames(bycol)
[1] "a" "b"
  colnames(bycol) <- c("Variable1","Variable2")</pre>
  bycol
       Variable1
                     Variable2
[1,] -1.82861388 0.8359571819
 [2,] 0.39775592 0.0395524429
 [3,] 0.82965996 0.1720839124
 [4,] 1.25872395 0.3960964946
 [5,] 0.63018273 0.0992825678
 [6,] -0.75355388 0.1419608632
 [7,] 0.01932042 0.0000933197
 [8,] 0.65814227 0.1082878131
 [9,] -1.74804671 0.7639168244
[10,] 0.65398803 0.1069250873
```

Lists

Lists are a more flexible way to store data of multiple types and dimensions. Each element in a list can store any type of R object.

```
[4,] 1.25872395 0.3960964946
```

- [5,] 0.63018273 0.0992825678
- [6,] -0.75355388 0.1419608632
- [7,] 0.01932042 0.0000933197
- [8,] 0.65814227 0.1082878131
- [9,] -1.74804671 0.7639168244
- [10,] 0.65398803 0.1069250873

[[4]]

```
[,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7]
a -1.8286139 0.39775592 0.8296600 1.2587239 0.63018273 -0.7535539 0.0193204239
b 0.8359572 0.03955244 0.1720839 0.3960965 0.09928257 0.1419609 0.0000933197
[,8] [,9] [,10]
a 0.6581423 -1.7480467 0.6539880
b 0.1082878 0.7639168 0.1069251
```

The elements of your list can be named. Extract and replace names with the names() function.

```
names(my_first_list) <- c("Vector_a","Vector_b","bycol","byrow")
my_first_list</pre>
```

\$Vector a

- [7] 0.01932042 0.65814227 -1.74804671 0.65398803

\$Vector_b

- [1] 0.8359571819 0.0395524429 0.1720839124 0.3960964946 0.0992825678
- [6] 0.1419608632 0.0000933197 0.1082878131 0.7639168244 0.1069250873

\$bycol

```
Variable1 Variable2
```

- [1,] -1.82861388 0.8359571819
- [2,] 0.39775592 0.0395524429
- [3,] 0.82965996 0.1720839124
- [4,] 1.25872395 0.3960964946
- [5,] 0.63018273 0.0992825678
- [6,] -0.75355388 0.1419608632
- [7,] 0.01932042 0.0000933197
- [8,] 0.65814227 0.1082878131
- [9,] -1.74804671 0.7639168244
- [10,] 0.65398803 0.1069250873

```
$byrow
      [,1]      [,2]      [,3]      [,4]      [,5]      [,6]      [,7]
a -1.8286139 0.39775592 0.8296600 1.2587239 0.63018273 -0.7535539 0.0193204239
b 0.8359572 0.03955244 0.1720839 0.3960965 0.09928257 0.1419609 0.0000933197
      [,8]      [,9]      [,10]
a 0.6581423 -1.7480467 0.6539880
b 0.1082878      0.7639168 0.1069251
```

Notice how now, printing my_first_list to the console shows the new names next to the \$ operator. We'll get to what \$ does in the **Indexing** section below.

Data Frames

Data frames, created with the data.frame() function, is a specialized list that can hold multiple data types, but requires each element to have the same length.

```
x < -1:10
  y < - x^2
  (df <- data.frame(x,y))</pre>
    Х
         у
1
    1
         1
2
    2
         4
3
    3
         9
4
    4
       16
5
    5
       25
6
    6
       36
7
    7
       49
8
    8
       64
    9
       81
10 10 100
  # Data frames can hold multiple data types. Let's show this by adding another column to a
  z <- sample(LETTERS, 10, replace=TRUE)</pre>
  (df <- cbind(df,z))</pre>
         y z
1
    1
         1 A
```

```
2
    2
         4 U
3
    3
         9 U
    4
4
        16 C
5
    5
        25 X
6
    6
        36 M
7
    7
        49 V
8
    8
        64 D
    9
       81 V
10 10 100 W
```

Indexing

Indexing is a way to access or replace values contained in vectors, matrices, data tables, or lists. Remember the \$ operator we saw above? If you read the Extract documentation from running help('\$'), R gives you a long list of possible ways to use an extract operator, including x[i], x[i,j], x[[i,j,j]], and x-name.

The \$ operator allows us to select an element of a list or data frame by name. Type df\$ in your console window. You should see a list of available options (in alphabetical order) to auto complete this expression. You probably noticed that the options are all the column names of df. Hit Tab then Enter to execute the first one.

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

Whereas \$ selects elements by name, [] selects elements by position. With a one-dimensional vector, [i] gives the *i*th term. You can combine indexing with : or c() to select multiple values, or with the assignment operator <- to replace specific elements.

```
# Get the 4th element of vector a
a[4]
```

[1] 1.258724

```
# Select 1st, 8th, 9th values a[c(1,8,9)]
```

[1] -1.8286139 0.6581423 -1.7480467

```
# Select the 2nd to last value
  a[length(a)-1]
[1] -1.748047
  # Replace the 4th element with a new value
  a[4] <- 9
  a
 [1] -1.82861388 0.39775592 0.82965996 9.00000000 0.63018273 -0.75355388
 [7] 0.01932042 0.65814227 -1.74804671 0.65398803
With a two-dimensional matrix or data frame, [i,j] returns a vector containing the value in
row i, column j. If you leave i or j blank (e.g., [i,] or [,j]), R will return the entire ith row
or jth column. Let's use this to get some specific values from our data frame, df.
  df[,] # return all rows and all columns
    X
        y z
1
    1
        1 A
2
        4 U
3
    3
        9 U
       16 C
4
    4
5
       25 X
    6
       36 M
    7
       49 V
    8 64 D
    9 81 V
10 10 100 W
  df[2,] # return all columns in the second row
  хуг
2 2 4 U
  df[,3] # return all rows in the the third column
```

[1] "A" "U" "U" "C" "X" "M" "V" "D" "V" "W"

```
df[1,3] # return the third values of the first row [1] "A"
```

Double brackets [[]] are a slightly more complicated way to index and are most useful when working with lists. Let's learn by example by indexing the first element of my_first_list:

```
my_first_list[1]

$Vector_a
[1] -1.82861388   0.39775592   0.82965996   1.25872395   0.63018273 -0.75355388
[7]   0.01932042   0.65814227 -1.74804671   0.65398803

my_first_list[[1]]

[1] -1.82861388   0.39775592   0.82965996   1.25872395   0.63018273 -0.75355388
[7]   0.01932042   0.65814227 -1.74804671   0.65398803
```

Can you see the difference in the console output? Hint: try checking the class() and length() of these outputs:

```
class(my_first_list[1])

[1] "list"

length(my_first_list[1])

[1] 1

class(my_first_list[[1]])

[1] "numeric"

length(my_first_list[[1]])
```

my_first_list[1] returns the 1st list item of my_first_list, but my_first_list[[1]] returns the *contents* of that list item. This is a very important distinction, so be sure you know which behavior is appropriate for your indexing goals.

Data Exploration

Using built-in datasets

As a beginneR, it's very useful to learn how to work with data using some of R's many built-in datasets for practice. Get a list of built-in datasets with data().

Let's learn more about data frames by playing with the built-in mtcars dataset. Print it out in your console to view the contents of this data frame. (You can also see a more full view with the View() function.)

mtcars

	mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat	wt	qsec	٧s	\mathtt{am}	gear	carb
Mazda RX4	21.0	6	160.0	110	3.90	2.620	16.46	0	1	4	4
Mazda RX4 Wag	21.0	6	160.0	110	3.90	2.875	17.02	0	1	4	4
Datsun 710	22.8	4	108.0	93	3.85	2.320	18.61	1	1	4	1
Hornet 4 Drive	21.4	6	258.0	110	3.08	3.215	19.44	1	0	3	1
Hornet Sportabout	18.7	8	360.0	175	3.15	3.440	17.02	0	0	3	2
Valiant	18.1	6	225.0	105	2.76	3.460	20.22	1	0	3	1
Duster 360	14.3	8	360.0	245	3.21	3.570	15.84	0	0	3	4
Merc 240D	24.4	4	146.7	62	3.69	3.190	20.00	1	0	4	2
Merc 230	22.8	4	140.8	95	3.92	3.150	22.90	1	0	4	2
Merc 280	19.2	6	167.6	123	3.92	3.440	18.30	1	0	4	4
Merc 280C	17.8	6	167.6	123	3.92	3.440	18.90	1	0	4	4
Merc 450SE	16.4	8	275.8	180	3.07	4.070	17.40	0	0	3	3
Merc 450SL	17.3	8	275.8	180	3.07	3.730	17.60	0	0	3	3
Merc 450SLC	15.2	8	275.8	180	3.07	3.780	18.00	0	0	3	3
Cadillac Fleetwood	10.4	8	472.0	205	2.93	5.250	17.98	0	0	3	4
Lincoln Continental	10.4	8	460.0	215	3.00	5.424	17.82	0	0	3	4
Chrysler Imperial	14.7	8	440.0	230	3.23	5.345	17.42	0	0	3	4
Fiat 128	32.4	4	78.7	66	4.08	2.200	19.47	1	1	4	1
Honda Civic	30.4	4	75.7	52	4.93	1.615	18.52	1	1	4	2
Toyota Corolla	33.9	4	71.1	65	4.22	1.835	19.90	1	1	4	1
Toyota Corona	21.5	4	120.1	97	3.70	2.465	20.01	1	0	3	1

Dodge Challenger	15.5	8	318.0	150	2.76	3.520	16.87	0	0	3	2
AMC Javelin	15.2	8	304.0	150	3.15	3.435	17.30	0	0	3	2
Camaro Z28	13.3	8	350.0	245	3.73	3.840	15.41	0	0	3	4
Pontiac Firebird	19.2	8	400.0	175	3.08	3.845	17.05	0	0	3	2
Fiat X1-9	27.3	4	79.0	66	4.08	1.935	18.90	1	1	4	1
Porsche 914-2	26.0	4	120.3	91	4.43	2.140	16.70	0	1	5	2
Lotus Europa	30.4	4	95.1	113	3.77	1.513	16.90	1	1	5	2
Ford Pantera L	15.8	8	351.0	264	4.22	3.170	14.50	0	1	5	4
Ferrari Dino	19.7	6	145.0	175	3.62	2.770	15.50	0	1	5	6
Maserati Bora	15.0	8	301.0	335	3.54	3.570	14.60	0	1	5	8
Volvo 142E	21.4	4	121.0	109	4.11	2.780	18.60	1	1	4	2

Let's get some more information on the mtcars dataset by using the ? operator to get help.

?mtcars

R: Motor Trend Car Road Tests - Find in Topic

Motor Trend Car Road Tests

Description

The data was extracted from the 1974 Motor Trend US magazine, and comprises fuel consumption and 10 aspects of automobile design and performance for 32 automobiles (1973-74 models).

Usage

mtcars

Format

A data frame with 32 observations on 11 (numeric) variables.

- [, 1] mpg Miles/(US) gallon
- [, 2] cyl Number of cylinders
- [, 3] disp Displacement (cu.in.)
- [, 4] hp Gross horsepower
- [, 5] drat Rear axle ratio
- [, 6] wt Weight (1000 lbs)
- [, 7] qsec 1/4 mile time
- [, 8] vs Engine (0 = V-shaped, 1 = straight)
- [, 9] am Transmission (0 = automatic, 1 = manual)
- [,10] gear Number of forward gears
- [,11] carb Number of carburetors

How else can we get information about the structure and content of data frames? A few useful functions to know are: str(), for getting the structure of an R object, head() and tail() for getting the first and last n (default 6) rows, names(), for getting names of an R object (column names, list item names), and dim(), for getting row x column dimensions of an R matrix, array, or data frame.

Let's try each of these below:

class(mtcars)

[1] "data.frame"

head(mtcars)

```
mpg cyl disp hp drat
                                        wt qsec vs am gear carb
                        6 160 110 3.90 2.620 16.46 0
Mazda RX4
                 21.0
Mazda RX4 Wag
                 21.0
                        6 160 110 3.90 2.875 17.02 0
                                                      1
Datsun 710
                 22.8
                       4 108 93 3.85 2.320 18.61
                                                                1
Hornet 4 Drive
                 21.4
                       6 258 110 3.08 3.215 19.44
                                                               1
Hornet Sportabout 18.7
                       8 360 175 3.15 3.440 17.02 0 0
                                                           3
                                                                2
                       6 225 105 2.76 3.460 20.22 1 0
Valiant
                 18.1
                                                           3
                                                                1
```

tail(mtcars)

```
        mpg cyl
        disp
        hp drat
        wt qsec
        vs am gear
        carb

        Porsche 914-2
        26.0
        4 120.3
        91 4.43
        2.140 16.7
        0 1 5
        2

        Lotus Europa
        30.4
        4 95.1
        113 3.77
        1.513 16.9
        1 1 5
        2

        Ford Pantera L
        15.8
        8 351.0
        264 4.22
        3.170 14.5
        0 1 5
        4

        Ferrari Dino
        19.7
        6 145.0
        175 3.62
        2.770 15.5
        0 1 5
        6

        Maserati Bora
        15.0
        8 301.0
        335 3.54
        3.570 14.6
        0 1 5
        8

        Volvo 142E
        21.4
        4 121.0
        109 4.11
        2.780 18.6
        1 1 4
        2
```

str(mtcars)

```
'data.frame':
               32 obs. of 11 variables:
$ mpg : num 21 21 22.8 21.4 18.7 18.1 14.3 24.4 22.8 19.2 ...
$ cyl : num
             6 6 4 6 8 6 8 4 4 6 ...
$ disp: num
             160 160 108 258 360 ...
$ hp : num
             110 110 93 110 175 105 245 62 95 123 ...
$ drat: num
             3.9 3.9 3.85 3.08 3.15 2.76 3.21 3.69 3.92 3.92 ...
$ wt : num
             2.62 2.88 2.32 3.21 3.44 ...
             16.5 17 18.6 19.4 17 ...
$ qsec: num
$ vs : num
            0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 ...
$ am : num
            1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ...
$ gear: num 4 4 4 3 3 3 3 4 4 4 ...
$ carb: num 4 4 1 1 2 1 4 2 2 4 ...
```

```
names(mtcars)

[1] "mpg" "cyl" "disp" "hp" "drat" "wt" "qsec" "vs" "am" "gear"
[11] "carb"

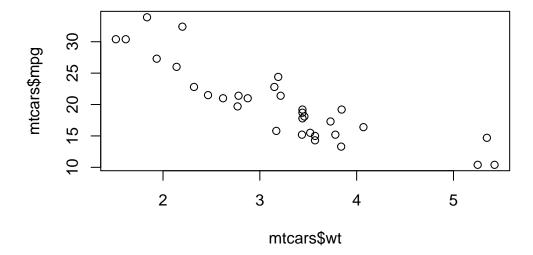
dim(mtcars)
```

[1] 32 11

You can get a quick view of the relationship between two variables by plotting. We don't have time to get into the nitty gritty of the many ways to generate plots in R, so I suggest reading up on the ggplot2 package (conveniently, part of your tidyverse installation). For very quick quality checks, the base plot() function is a convenient way to see relationships between x and y variables.

Let's plot vehicle weight (wt) against miles per gallon (mpg) in the mtcars dataset.

```
plot(x = mtcars$wt, y = mtcars$mpg)
```



Loading external data

Most data analysis requires working with data saved in a spreadsheet or text document. Loading your data into R is quick and easy - provided you tell R the correct location to look on your device!

If you downloaded this .Rproj and opened it in your R session, you should have an "example.csv" file saved in your project repository. You can confirm this in your file explorer, or within R by navigating to the Files tab of the help pane. You can also confirm you are in an active project folder with getwd(). Print the contents of your current directory with dir().

```
[1] "2024-05-03_Biostatistics-Workshop-Intro.pptx"
[2] "Biostats_Workshop.Rproj"
[3] "example.csv"
[4] "Figures"
[5] "Intro_to_R.html"
[6] "Intro_to_R.pdf"
```

- [7] "Intro_to_R.qmd"
- [8] "Intro_to_R.rmarkdown"
- [9] "Intro_to_R_files"
- [10] "README.md"

dir()

Let's clear our Environment then load the data in "example.csv" with the read.csv() function. (Note: the Tidyverse readr package provides an analogous function, readr::read_csv(), to load data as a tibble(), a tidyverse-specific type of data structure you can read about with ?tibble.

```
rm(list=ls())
df <- read.csv("example.csv")
str(df)

'data.frame': 20 obs. of 4 variables:
$ Date : chr "4/19/2024" "4/19/2024" "4/19/2024" "4/19/2024" ...
$ Subject : chr "sbj001" "sbj002" "sbj003" "sbj004" ...
$ Body_mass_g: int 23 24 20 20 20 25 24 24 21 21 ...
$ Treatment : chr "Control" "Control" "Control" ...</pre>
```

Other useful functions for loading data in .txt files are read.table() and readr::read_table(). Functions for loading data from Google Sheets are provided by the googlesheets4 package, and functions for .xls and .xlsx files by the readxl package.