

# Wrangling categorical data in R

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## ABSTRACT

Data wrangling is a critical foundation of data science, and wrangling of categorical data is an important component of this process. However, categorical data can introduce unique issues in data wrangling, particularly in real-world settings with collaborators and periodically-updated dynamic data. This paper discusses common problems arising from categorical variable transformations in R, demonstrates the use of factors, and suggests approaches to address data wrangling challenges. For each problem, we present at least two strategies for management, one in base R and the other from the ‘tidyverse.’ We consider several motivating examples, suggest defensive coding strategies, and outline principles for data wrangling to help ensure data quality and sound analysis.

Keywords: statistical computing; data derivation; data science; data management

## INTRODUCTION

Wrangling skills provide an intellectual and practical foundation for data science. Careless data cleaning operations can lead to errors or inconsistencies in analysis (Hermans and Murphy-Hill, 2015; FitzJohn et al., 2014). The wrangling of categorical data presents particular challenges and is highly relevant because many variables are categorical (e.g., gender, income bracket, U.S. state) but coded with numerical values. It is easy to break the relationship between category numbers and category labels without realizing it, thus losing the information encoded in a variable. If data sources change upstream (for example, if a domain expert is providing spreadsheet data at regular intervals), code that worked on the initial data may not generate an error message, but could silently produce incorrect results.

Statistical and data science tools need to foster good practice and provide a robust environment for data wrangling and data management. This paper focuses on how R deals with categorical data, and showcases best practices for categorical data manipulation in R to produce reproducible workflows. We consider a number of common idioms related to categorical data that arise frequently in data cleaning and preparation, propose some guidelines for defensive coding, and discuss settings where analysts often get tripped up when working with categorical data.

For example, data ingested into R from spreadsheets can lead to problems with categorical data because of the different storage methods possible in both R and the spreadsheets themselves (Wilson et al., 2016). The examples below will help flag when these issues arise or avoid them altogether.

To ground our work, we will compare and contrast how categorical data are treated in **base R** versus the tidyverse (Wickham, 2014, 2016). Tools from the tidyverse, discussed in another paper in this special issue (see <https://github.com/dsscollection/tidyflow>), are designed to make analysis purer, more predictable, and pipeable. Key components of the tidyverse that we will address in this paper include **ggplot2**, **dplyr**, **tidyr**, **forcats**, and **readr**. This suite of packages helps facilitate a reproducible workflow where a new version of the data could be supplied in the code with updated results produced (Broman, 2015). While R code written in **base** can also have this quality, a common tendency is to use row or column numbers in code, which makes the result less reproducible. Wrangling of categorical data can make this task even more complex (e.g., if a new level of a categorical variable is added in an updated dataset or inadvertently introduced by a careless error in a spreadsheet to be ingested into R).

Our goal is to make the case that it is better to work with categorical data using tidyverse packages than with **base R**. Tidyverse code is more human readable, which can help reduce errors from the start, and the functions we highlight have been designed to make it harder to accidentally remove relationships implicit in categorical data. Because these issues are even more salient for new users, we recommend that

47 instructors should teach tidyverse approaches from the start.

## 48 CATEGORICAL DATA IN R: FACTORS AND STRINGS

49 Consider a variable describing gender including categories `male`, `female` and `non-conforming`. In  
50 R, there are two ways to store this information. One is to use a series of *character strings*, and the other is  
51 to store it as a *factor*.

52 In early versions of R, storing categorical data as a factor variable was considerably more efficient  
53 than storing the same data as strings, because factor variables only store the factor labels once (Peng,  
54 2015; Lumley, 2015). However, R uses a global string pool, so each unique string is only stored once, so  
55 the storage is now less of an issue (Peng, 2015). For historical (or possibly anachronistic) reasons, many  
56 functions store variables by default as factors.

57 While factors are important when including categorical variables in regression models and when  
58 plotting data, they can be tricky to deal with, since many operations applied to them return different values  
59 than when applied to character vectors. As an example, consider a set of decades,

```
x1 <- c(10, 10, 20, 20, 40)
x1f <- factor(x1)
ds <- data.frame(x1, x1f)
library(dplyr)
ds <- ds %>%
  mutate(x1recover = as.numeric(x1f))
ds

##   x1 x1f x1recover
## 1 10  10          1
## 2 10  10          1
## 3 20  20          2
## 4 20  20          2
## 5 40  40          3
```

60 Instead of creating a new variable with a numeric version of the value of the factor variable `x1f`, the  
61 variable is created with a factor number (i.e., 10 is mapped to 1, 20 is mapped to 2, and 40 is mapped to 3).  
62 This result is unexpected because `base::as.numeric()` is intended to recover numeric information  
63 by coercing a character variable. Compare the following:

```
as.numeric(c("hello"))

## [1] NA

as.numeric(factor(c("hello")))

## [1] 1
```

64 The factor function has other behavior that feels unexpected. For example, the following code silently  
65 makes a missing value, because the values in the data and the levels do not match.

```
factor("a", levels="c")

## [1] <NA>
## Levels: c
```

66 The unfortunate behavior of factors in R has led to an online movement against the default behavior of  
67 many data import functions to make factors out of any variable composed as strings (Peng, 2015; Wickham  
68 et al., 2017). The tidyverse is part of this movement, with functions from the **readr** package defaulting to  
69 leaving strings as-is. (Others have chosen to add `options(stringAsFactors=FALSE)` into their  
70 startup commands.)

71 Although the storage issues have been solved, and there are problems with defaulting strings to factors,  
72 factors are still necessary for some data analytic tasks. The most salient case is in modeling. When  
73 you pass a factor variable into `lm()` or `glm()`, R automatically creates indicator (or more colloquially  
74 ‘dummy’) variables for each of the levels and picks one as a reference group.

75 For simple cases, this behavior can also be achieved with a character vector. However, to choose which  
76 level to use as a reference level or to order classes, factors must be used. For example, if a factor encodes

income levels as low, medium, high, it might make sense to use the lowest income level (low) as the reference class so that all the other coefficients can be interpreted in comparison to it. However, R would use high as the reference by default because 'h' comes before 'l' in the alphabet.

While ordering is particularly important when doing ordinal logistic regression and multinomial logistic regression, the use of alphabetic ordering by default means even simple linear regression can be affected.

In the context of visualizing data, factors are also relevant because they allow categorical variables to be mapped to aesthetic attributes.

While factors are important, they can often be hard to deal with. Because of the way the group numbers are stored separately from the factor labels, it can be easy to overwrite data in such a way that the original data are lost. They present a steep learning curve for new users. In this paper, we will suggest best practices for working with factor data.

To motivate this process, we will consider data from the General Social Survey (Smith et al., 2015). The General Social Survey is a product of the National Data Program for the Social Sciences, and the survey has been conducted since 1972 by NORC at the University of Chicago. It contains data on many factors of social life, and is widely used by social scientists. (In this paper we consider data from 2014.)

There are some import issues inherent to the data which are not particular to categorical data (see Supplementary Appendix A for details). We'll work with the data with slightly cleaned up variable names.

```
library(dplyr)
GSS <- read.csv("../data/GSScleaned.csv")
glimpse(GSS)

## Observations: 2,540
## Variables: 16
## $ Year                <int> 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, ...
## $ ID                  <int> 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 1...
## $ LaborStatus          <fctr> Working fulltime, Working fulltime,...
## $ OccupationalPrestigeScore <int> 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, ...
## $ MaritalStatus        <fctr> Divorced, Married, Divorced, Marrie...
## $ NumChildren          <int> 0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 2, 4, 3, 2, 0, ...
## $ Age                  <fctr> 53.000000, 26.000000, 59.000000, 56...
## $ HighestSchoolCompleted <int> 16, 16, 13, 16, 17, 17, 12, 17, 10, ...
## $ Sex                  <fctr> Male, Female, Male, Female, Female,...
## $ Race                  <fctr> White, White, White, White, White, ...
## $ ChildhoodFamilyIncome <fctr> Below average, Average, Below avera...
## $ TotalFamilyIncome     <fctr> $25000 or more, $25000 or more, $25...
## $ RespondentIncome      <fctr> $25000 or more, $25000 or more, Not...
## $ PoliticalParty        <fctr> Not str republican, Not str republi...
## $ OpinionOfIncome       <fctr> Above average, Above average, Below...
## $ SexualOrientation      <fctr> Heterosexual or straight, Heterosex...
```

The remainder of this paper is organized around case studies (examples) to carry out four specific and useful tasks:

1. Changing the labels of factor levels,
2. Reordering factor levels,
3. Combining several levels into one (both string-like labels and numeric, probably go together), and
4. Making derived factor variables.

Each case study begins with a problem, and presents several solutions. Typically, we contrast a method that uses the functionality of **base R** functions with an approach from the tidyverse along with some annotations of the code as needed. We will argue that while both approaches can solve the problem, the tidyverse solution tends to be simpler, easier to learn, and less fragile.

## CHANGING THE LABELS OF FACTOR LEVELS

In our first example, we will be considering the labor status variable. It is a categorical variable with 9 levels. Most of the labels are spelled out fully, but a few are strangely formatted. We want to change this.

108 This is a specific case of the more general problem of changing the text of factor labels, so they appear  
 109 more nicely formatted in a plot, for example.

110 There are two typical approaches in **base R**. One is more compact, but depends on the levels of the  
 111 factor not changing in the data being fed in, and the other is more robust, but extremely verbose. In  
 112 contrast, the **dplyr** package offers a more human readable method, while also supporting reproducibility.

### 113 Compact but fragile (base R)

114 To begin this example, we will create a new copy of the variable in question so as not to leave the original  
 115 data for comparison.

```
GSS$BaseLaborStatus <- GSS$LaborStatus
levels(GSS$BaseLaborStatus)

## [1] "Keeping house"      "No answer"          "Other"
## [4] "Retired"            "School"              "Temp not working"
## [7] "Unempl, laid off"   "Working fulltime"    "Working parttime"

summary(GSS$BaseLaborStatus)

##      Keeping house      No answer      Other      Retired
##           263           2           76           460
##      School Temp not working Unempl, laid off Working fulltime
##           90           40           104           1230
## Working parttime      NA's
##           273           2
```

116 Almost all of our code examples will start with some examination of the `levels()` and `summary()`  
 117 of the variable, in order to keep track of what the expected results will be. Now that we've seen the counts,  
 118 we want to rephrase the labels for a few categories.

```
levels(GSS$BaseLaborStatus) <- c(levels(GSS$BaseLaborStatus)[1:5],
  "Temporarily not working",
  "Unemployed, laid off",
  "Working full time",
  "Working part time")

summary(GSS$BaseLaborStatus)

##      Keeping house      No answer      Other
##           263           2           76
##      Retired      School Temporarily not working
##           460           90           40
## Unemployed, laid off Working full time Working part time
##           104           1230           273
##      NA's
##           2
```

119 This method is less than ideal, because it depends on the data coming in with the factor levels ordered  
 120 in a particular way. We leave the first five levels the same, then overwrite the last four. We call this  
 121 a *fragile* process since future datasets may cause a workflow to break (a related concept in computer  
 122 science is *software brittleness*, where a small change can lead to an error). Why is this fragile? By default,  
 123 R orders factor levels alphabetically. So, “Keeping house” is first not because it is the most common  
 124 response, but simply because ‘k’ comes first in the alphabet. If the data gets changed outside of R, for  
 125 example so responses currently labeled “Working full time” get labeled “Full time work”, the code above  
 126 will not generate an error message, but will mislabel all the data such that the `BaseLaborStatus`  
 127 variable is essentially meaningless.

128 The issue of alphabetic ordering becomes even more relevant when considering strings that include  
 129 non-ASCII characters, where the default of order levels may vary from locale to locale. This means that  
 130 code could create different results based on where it was run.

131 The workflow will also fail if additional factor levels are added after the fact. In our experience, both  
 132 with students and scientific collaborators, spreadsheet data can be easily changed in these ways. Others  
 133 have noted this concern (Leek, 2016).

### 134 Robust but verbose (base R)

135 Another (more robust method) to recode this variable in **base R** is to use subsetting to overwrite particular  
136 values in the data.

```
GSS$BaseLaborStatus <- GSS$LaborStatus
summary(GSS$BaseLaborStatus)

##      Keeping house      No answer      Other      Retired
##           263           2           76           460
##      School Temp not working Unempl, laid off Working fulltime
##           90           40           104           1230
## Working parttime      NA's
##           273           2

GSS$BaseLaborStatus <- as.character(GSS$BaseLaborStatus)
GSS$BaseLaborStatus[GSS$BaseLaborStatus == "Temp not working"] <-
  "Temporarily not working"
GSS$BaseLaborStatus[GSS$BaseLaborStatus == "Unempl, laid off"] <-
  "Unemployed, laid off"
GSS$BaseLaborStatus[GSS$BaseLaborStatus == "Working fulltime"] <-
  "Working full time"
GSS$BaseLaborStatus[GSS$BaseLaborStatus == "Working parttime"] <-
  "Working part time"
GSS$BaseLaborStatus <- factor(GSS$BaseLaborStatus)
summary(GSS$BaseLaborStatus)

##      Keeping house      No answer      Other
##           263           2           76
##      Retired      School Temporarily not working
##           460           90           40
## Unemployed, laid off Working full time Working part time
##           104           1230           273
##      NA's
##           2
```

137 This second approach is more robust, because if the labels or ordering of levels changes before this  
138 code is run it will not overwrite labels on the incorrect data. However, this approach has a number of  
139 limitations in addition to being tedious and error prone. It is possible to miss cases, and misspelling and  
140 cut-and-paste errors can mean pieces of the code do not actually do anything.

### 141 Direct and robust (dplyr)

142 The `recode()` function in the **dplyr** package is a vectorized function, which combines the robustness  
143 of the second base R approach while also reducing the verbosity. It still suffers from the problem of  
144 misspelling and cut-and-paste errors, because it will not generate an error message if you try to recode a  
145 non-existent level.

```
GSS <- GSS %>%
  mutate(tidyLaborStatus =
    recode(LaborStatus,
      `Temp not working` = "Temporarily not working",
      `Unempl, laid off` = "Unemployed, laid off",
      `Working fulltime` = "Working full time",
      `Working parttime` = "Working part time"))
summary(GSS$tidyLaborStatus)

##      Keeping house      No answer      Other
##           263           2           76
##      Retired      School Temporarily not working
##           460           90           40
## Unemployed, laid off Working full time Working parttime
##           104           1230           273
##      NA's
##           2
```

146 In the above example, notice the trailing space in ``Working parttime`` in the `recode()` call.  
147 Because of this typo (the original factor level is actually ``Working parttime``), the original factor  
148 level persists after the recode.

## 149 **Aside – Editing whitespace out of levels**

150 A more general problem sometimes arises due to extra spaces included when data are ingested. Such  
151 whitespace can be dealt with when data is read, or addressed later using string operations. This latter  
152 approach can be carried out using the `trimws()` function in **base R**.

```
gender <- factor(c("male ", "male ", "male ", "male"))
levels(gender)

## [1] "male"      "male "    "male "    "male "

gender <- factor(trimws(gender))
levels(gender)

## [1] "male"
```

## 153 **REORDERING FACTOR LEVELS**

154 Often, factor levels have a natural ordering to them. However, the default in **base R** is to order levels  
155 alphabetically. So, users must have a way to impose order on their factor variables.

156 Again, there is a fragile way to reorder the factor levels in base R, and a more robust method in the  
157 tidyverse.

### 158 **Fragile method (base R)**

159 One common way to make this sort of change is to pass an argument to `levels` within the `factor()`  
160 function. However, this is fragile with respect to spelling issues and trailing whitespace.

```
GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome <- GSS$OpinionOfIncome
summary(GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome )

##      Above average      Average      Below average      Don't know
##           483           1118           666           21
## Far above average Far below average      No answer      NA's
##           65           179           6           2

GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome <-
  factor(GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome,
    levels = c("Far above average", "Above average", "Average ", "Below Average",
              "Far below average", "Don't know", "No answer"))
summary(GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome )

## Far above average      Above average      Average      Below Average
##           65           483           0           0
## Far below average      Don't know      No answer      NA's
##           179           21           6           1786
```

161 Note that many of the category totals come through appropriately, but several totals get set to 0  
162 ('Average' because of the trailing whitespace and 'Below Average' because of the mistaken capitalization).  
163 These errors can be exceedingly frustrating to troubleshoot.

164 An approach that looks similar upon inspection but actually does not work is to overwrite the  
165 `levels()` of the factor outside the `factor()` command. It is tempting for new analysts to write code  
166 such as the following, which completely breaks the association between rows and factor labels the data  
167 set.

```
badApproach <- GSS$OpinionOfIncome
```

```
summary(badApproach)

##      Above average      Average      Below average      Don't know
##           483           1118           666           21
## Far above average Far below average      No answer      NA's
##           65           179           6           2

levels(badApproach) <- c("Far above average", "Above average",
                        "Average", "Below Average", "Far below average",
                        "Don't know", "No answer")

summary(badApproach)

## Far above average      Above average      Average      Below Average
##           483           1118           666           21
## Far below average      Don't know      No answer      NA's
##           65           179           6           2
```

168 Notice that no errors were generated, but the labels have been clobbered and the counts do not match  
 169 up anymore. Instead of Far above average having 65 observations, it has 483.

170 Another **base** approach that will not suffer from spelling mistakes is to use numeric indexing to  
 171 reorder the levels. Again, we need to make sure we're using the indexing within a `factor()` call.

```
GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome <- GSS$OpinionOfIncome
summary(GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome)

##      Above average      Average      Below average      Don't know
##           483           1118           666           21
## Far above average Far below average      No answer      NA's
##           65           179           6           2

GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome <-
  factor(GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome,
         levels=levels(GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome)[c(5,1:3,6,4,7)])
summary(GSS$BaseOpinionOfIncome)

## Far above average      Above average      Average      Below average
##           65           483           1118           666
## Far below average      Don't know      No answer      NA's
##           179           21           6           2
```

172 This is both verbose and depends on the number and order of the levels staying the same. If another  
 173 factor level is added to the dataset, the above code will generate an error message because the number of  
 174 levels differs. This example illustrates why it is sometimes dangerous to replace an old version of a data  
 175 frame with a new version.

176 Again, if you try this approach outside of a `factor()` call, no errors are generated but the levels get  
 177 clobbered.

```
badApproach <- GSS$OpinionOfIncome
summary(badApproach)

##      Above average      Average      Below average      Don't know
##           483           1118           666           21
## Far above average Far below average      No answer      NA's
##           65           179           6           2

levels(badApproach) <- levels(badApproach)[c(5,1:3,6,4,7)]
summary(badApproach)

## Far above average      Above average      Average      Below average
##           483           1118           666           21
## Far below average      Don't know      No answer      NA's
##           65           179           6           2
```

178 Notice that once again, Far above average has been given the wrong number of observations.  
 179 Here, **base** methods for reordering factor levels are very fragile. Approaches that appear functional and  
 180 do not generate error messages can easily lead to garbled data.

## 181 Robust method

182 Because of the fragility and potential for frustration and mistakes associated with reordering levels in base  
 183 R, we recommend the use of a tidyverse package. The package **forcats** (where the name is an anagram of  
 184 the word factors!) (Wickham, 2017). **forcats** is included in the tidyverse. It includes a `fct_relevel()`  
 185 function that does exactly what we want. It allows us to specify the order of our factor levels (either  
 186 completely or partially) and is robust to re-running code in an interactive session.

```
# devtools::install_github("hadley/forcats")
library(forcats)
summary(GSS$OpinionOfIncome)

##      Above average      Average      Below average      Don't know
##           483           1118           666           21
## Far above average Far below average      No answer      NA's
##           65           179           6           2

GSS <- GSS %>%
  mutate(tidyOpinionOfIncome =
    fct_relevel(OpinionOfIncome,
      "Far above average",
      "Above average",
      "Average",
      "Below average",
      "Far below average"))
summary(GSS$tidyOpinionOfIncome)

## Far above average      Above average      Average      Below average
##           65           483           1118           666
## Far below average      Don't know      No answer      NA's
##           179           21           6           2
```

187 Notice the levels we did not mention end up at the back end of the ordering.

## 188 COMBINING SEVERAL LEVELS INTO ONE

### 189 Combining discrete levels

190 This is another common task. Maybe you want fewer coefficients in your model, or the data-generating  
 191 process makes a finer distinction between categories than your research. For whatever the reason, you  
 192 want to group together levels that are currently separate.

### 193 Fragile method (base R)

194 This method overwrites the labels of factor levels with repeated labels in order to group levels together.

```
GSS$BaseMarital <- GSS$MaritalStatus
summary(GSS$BaseMarital)

##      Divorced      Married Never married      No answer      Separated
##           411           1158           675           4           81
##      Widowed      NA's
##           209           2

levels(GSS$BaseMarital) <- c("Not married", "Married",
  "Not married", "No answer",
  "Not married", "Not married", NA)
summary(GSS$BaseMarital)

## Not married      Married      No answer      NA's
##           1376           1158           4           2
```

195 As before, this is fragile because it depends on the order of the factor levels not changing, and on a  
 196 human accurately counting the indices of all the levels they wish to change.

### 197 Robust method

198 The `recode()` function does what we want.



```
summary(GSS$MaritalStatus)

##      Divorced      Married Never married      No answer      Separated
##           411           1158           675           4           81
##      Widowed      NA's
##           209           2

GSS <- GSS %>%
  mutate(tidyMaritalStatus = recode(MaritalStatus,
    Divorced = "Not married",
    `Never married` = "Not married",
    Widowed = "Not married",
    Separated = "Not married"))
summary(GSS$tidyMaritalStatus)

## Not married      Married      No answer      NA's
##           1376           1158           4           2
```

199 In contrast to the **base** approach, the tidyverse approach allows us to only mention the levels we want  
 200 to recode. We also don't need to put the levels in the order they originally appeared (note that Widowed  
 201 appears earlier in the list than it does in the `summary()`).

## 202 Combining numeric-type levels

203 Combining numeric-type levels is a frequently-occurring problem even when `stringsAsFactors = FALSE`.  
 204 Often variables like age or income are right-censored, so there is a final category that lumps the remainder  
 205 of people into one group. This means the data is necessarily at least a character string if not a factor.  
 206 However, it may be more natural to work with numeric expressions when recoding this data.

207 In this data, age is provided as an integer for respondents 18-88, but also includes the possible answer  
 208 "89 or older" as well as a possible "No answer" and NA values.

209 We might want to turn this into a factor variable with two levels: 18-65, and over 65. In this case, it  
 210 would be easier to deal with a conditional statement about the numeric values, rather than writing out  
 211 each of the numbers as a character vector.

## 212 Fragile method (base R)

213 In order to break this data apart as simply as possible, we need to make it numeric. To start, we recode the  
 214 label for "89 or older" to read "89". Already, we are doing something fragile.

```
GSS$BaseAge <- GSS$Age
levels(GSS$BaseAge)

## [1] "18.000000" "19.000000" "20.000000" "21.000000" "22.000000"
## [6] "23.000000" "24.000000" "25.000000" "26.000000" "27.000000"
## [11] "28.000000" "29.000000" "30.000000" "31.000000" "32.000000"
## [16] "33.000000" "34.000000" "35.000000" "36.000000" "37.000000"
## [21] "38.000000" "39.000000" "40.000000" "41.000000" "42.000000"
## [26] "43.000000" "44.000000" "45.000000" "46.000000" "47.000000"
## [31] "48.000000" "49.000000" "50.000000" "51.000000" "52.000000"
## [36] "53.000000" "54.000000" "55.000000" "56.000000" "57.000000"
## [41] "58.000000" "59.000000" "60.000000" "61.000000" "62.000000"
## [46] "63.000000" "64.000000" "65.000000" "66.000000" "67.000000"
## [51] "68.000000" "69.000000" "70.000000" "71.000000" "72.000000"
## [56] "73.000000" "74.000000" "75.000000" "76.000000" "77.000000"
## [61] "78.000000" "79.000000" "80.000000" "81.000000" "82.000000"
## [66] "83.000000" "84.000000" "85.000000" "86.000000" "87.000000"
## [71] "88.000000" "89 or older" "No answer"

levels(GSS$BaseAge) <- c(levels(GSS$BaseAge)[1:71], "89", "No answer")
```

215 When we look at the levels, we can see the first 71 levels correspond to the ages 18-88, and are  
 216 in the order we would expect, so we are leaving those as-is. Then we are overwriting the data where  
 217 `BaseAge == "89 or older"` with simply 89. Finally, we can convert the factor to a character  
 218 vector and then to a numeric one.

```
GSS$BaseAge <- as.numeric(as.character(GSS$BaseAge))
summary(GSS$BaseAge)
```

```
##      Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.   NA's
##      18.00   34.00   49.00   49.01  62.00   89.00    11
```

219 We're avoiding the pitfall from the introduction here by not simply using `as.numeric()` on the  
 220 factor variables (this would convert 18 to 1, 19 to 2, etc.). And of course, we're cheating a little bit here—  
 221 if we were going to use this as a numeric variable in an analysis, we wouldn't necessarily want to turn all  
 222 the "89 or older" cases into the number "89". But, we're on our way to a two-level factor, so those cases  
 223 would have gone to the "65 and up" category one way or the other.  
 224 Now, we can write some conditional logic

```
summary(GSS$BaseAge)
```

```
##      Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.   NA's
##      18.00   34.00   49.00   49.01  62.00   89.00    11
```

```
GSS$BaseAge <- ifelse(GSS$BaseAge < 65, "18-64", "65 and up")
GSS$BaseAge <- factor(GSS$BaseAge)
summary(GSS$BaseAge)
```

```
##      18-64 65 and up    NA's
##      2011     518      11
```

## 225 **Robust method**

226 The **dplyr** method follows similar logic. However, instead of explicitly overwriting 89 or older  
 227 with the number 89, we use the **readr** `parse_number()` function to remove the numbers from the  
 228 factor labels. This works for the labels that already look numeric, like "18.000000" as well as for  
 229 "89 or older". Then, we can include the conditional logic for splitting the variable within a mutate  
 230 command.

```
library(readr)
GSS <- GSS %>%
  mutate(tidyAge = parse_number(Age)) %>%
  mutate(tidyAge = ifelse(tidyAge < 65, "18-65", "65 and up"),
         tidyAge = factor(tidyAge))
summary(GSS$tidyAge)
```

```
##      18-65 65 and up    NA's
##      2011     518      11
```

231 Note that you need to be very sure that the strings including a number have a relevant number. If one  
 232 of the levels was labeled '2 or more people in household' it would be converted to the number 2. This  
 233 would accidentally add a number that is not meaningful.

## 234 **CREATING DERIVED CATEGORICAL VARIABLES**

235 Challenges often arise when data scientists need to create derived categorical variables. As an exam-  
 236 ple, consider an indicator of moderate drinking status. The National Institutes of Alcohol Abuse and  
 237 Alcoholism have published guidelines for moderate drinking (NIAAA, 2016). These guidelines state  
 238 that women (or men aged 65 or older) should drink no more than one drink per day on average and no  
 239 more than three drinks on any single day or at a sitting. Men under age 65 should drink no more than  
 240 two drinks per day on average and no more than four drinks on any single day. The **HELPmiss** dataset  
 241 from the **mosaicData** package includes baseline data from randomized Health Evaluation and Linkage  
 242 to Primary Care (HELP) clinical trial (Samet et al., 2003). These subjects for the study were recruited  
 243 from a detoxification center, hence those that reported alcohol as their primary substance of abuse have  
 244 extremely high rates of drinking.

	variable	description
	sex	gender of subject female or male
245	i1	average number of drinks per day (in last 30 days)
	i2	maximum number of drinks per day (in past 30 days)
	age	age (in years)

246 These guidelines can be used to create a new variable called `abstinent` for those reporting no  
247 drinking based on the value of their `i1` variable and `moderate` for those that do not exceed the NIAAA  
248 guidelines, with all other non-missing values coded as `highrisk`.

```
library(mosaic)
library(mosaicData)
library(dplyr)
library(readr)
```

249 Because missing values can become especially problematic in more complex derivations, we will  
250 make one value missing so we can ensure our data wrangling accounts for the missing value.

```
data(HELPmiss)
HELPsmall <- HELPmiss %>%
  mutate(i1 = ifelse(id == 1, NA, i1)) %>% # make one value missing
  select(sex, i1, i2, age)
head(HELPsmall, 2)

##      sex i1 i2 age
## 1 male NA 26 37
## 2 male 56 62 37
```

## 251 Fragile method (base R)

```
# create empty vector for new variable
drinkstat <- character(length(HELPsmall$i1))
# create abstinent group
drinkstat[HELPsmall$i1 == 0] = "abstinent"
# create moderate group
drinkstat[(HELPsmall$i1 > 0 & HELPsmall$i1 <= 1 & # find those with moderate levels
  HELPsmall$i2 <= 3 & HELPsmall$sex == "female") |
  (HELPsmall$i1 > 0 & HELPsmall$i1 <= 2 &
  HELPsmall$i2 <= 4 & HELPsmall$sex == "male")] = "moderate"
# create highrisk group
drinkstat[((HELPsmall$i1 > 1 | HELPsmall$i2 > 3) & HELPsmall$sex == "female") |
  ((HELPsmall$i1 > 2 | HELPsmall$i2 > 4) & HELPsmall$sex == "male")] = "highrisk"
# account for missing values
is.na(drinkstat) <- is.na(HELPsmall$i1) | is.na(HELPsmall$i2) |
  is.na(HELPsmall$sex)
drinkstat <- factor(drinkstat)
table(drinkstat, useNA = "always")

## drinkstat
## abstinent highrisk moderate <NA>
##          69       372       28        1
```

252 While this approach works, it is hard to follow, check, or debug. The logical conditions are all  
253 correctly coded, but require many repetitions of `HELPsmall$variable`, and the missing value was  
254 not handled by default (without the `is.na()` call, the missing value would default to be "highrisk"  
255 because of the extreme value for `i2` for that subject).

## 256 Robust method (dplyr)

```
HELPsmall <- HELPsmall %>%
```

```

mutate(drink_stat = case_when(
  i1 == 0 ~ "abstinent",
  i1 <= 1 & i2 <= 3 & sex == 'female' ~ "moderate",
  i1 <= 1 & i2 <= 3 & sex == 'male' & age >= 65 ~ "moderate",
  i1 <= 2 & i2 <= 4 & sex == 'male' ~ "moderate",
  is.na(i1) ~ "missing", # can't put NA in place of "missing"
  TRUE ~ "highrisk"
))

## Error in mutate_impl(.data, dots): object 'i1' not found

tally(~ drink_stat, exclude=NULL, data = HELPsmall)

## Error in eval(x, data, env): object 'drink_stat' not found

HELPsmall %>%
  dplyr::count()

## # A tibble: 1 × 1
##       n
##   <int>
## 1    470

```

257 In the robust tidyverse method, the same logic is used, but the conditions are clearer and more  
 258 comprehensible. Instead of one complex Boolean condition for `moderate`, three separate lines can be  
 259 used to match the different options. While the end result is the same, this code is more human readable  
 260 and it is harder to miss special cases.

261 An additional example is provided in Supplementary Appendix B.

## 262 DEFENSIVE CODING

263 It is always good practice to code in a defensive manner. Investing a little time up front can help avoid  
 264 painful errors later. For the setting we are considering, defensive coding might involve adding conditional  
 265 testing statements into code creating or modifying factors. These testing statements (such as those  
 266 implemented in the **testthat** and **assertthat** packages) can help ensure the data have not changed from  
 267 one session to another, or as the result of changes to the raw data.

268 As an example, we might want to check there are exactly three levels for the drinking status variable  
 269 in the `HELP` dataset. If there were fewer or more than three levels, something would have gone wrong  
 270 with our code. We can use the **assertthat** package to help with this.

```

library(assertthat)
levels(drinkstat)

## [1] "abstinent" "highrisk" "moderate"

assert_that(length(levels(drinkstat)) == 3)

## [1] TRUE

```

271 We also might want to ensure the factor labels are exactly what we were expecting. Perhaps we want to  
 272 make sure our `Sex` variable has two categories, with particular levels. We can use `expect_equivalent()`  
 273 from the **testthat** package to make this check.

```

library(testthat)
levels(GSS$Sex)

## [1] "Female" "Male"

expect_equivalent(levels(GSS$Sex), c("Female", "Male"))

```

274 This check will only work if the levels are exactly the same as the strings provided, and are in the  
 275 same order. Ideally, `expect_equivalent()` would do level checking without relying on order, but  
 276 that is not the current functionality.

277 While assertions of this sort are most commonly used to provide error-checking within functions, we  
278 believe that they can and should be incorporated into working code. In this manner they may serve as the  
279 basis for a function at some point in the future.

## 280 CONCLUSION

281 Categorical variables arise commonly in most datasets. Aspects of data wrangling in R involving  
282 categorical variables can be problematic and error-prone, particularly when using **base R**. In this paper  
283 we have outlined some example case studies where analytic tasks can be simplified and made more robust  
284 through use of new tools available in the tidyverse. However, these are only some of the issues categorical  
285 data presents.

286 For example, many analysts use testing and training data when working with models, but without  
287 careful thought toward levels of categorical, there can be mismatch between the levels present in the  
288 training data and those present in the testing data. If a particular level was not present in the training data,  
289 the model will not be able to make predictions for the observations in the testing data with that level. Even  
290 worse, if the two sets have the same number of levels, the model will produce predictions by matching the  
291 order of the levels rather than the labels.

292 We believe further work is needed to continue to make it easier to undertake analyses requiring  
293 data wrangling (particularly with respect to categorical data). New tools and an increased emphasis on  
294 defensive coding may help improve the quality of data science moving forward.

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## 298 SUPPLEMENTARY APPENDIX A: LOADING THE DATA

299 Since this is a reproducible special issue, we want to make sure our data ingestion process is as  
300 reproducible as possible. We are using the General Social Survey (GSS) data, which includes many years  
301 of data (1972-2014) and many possible variables (150-800 variables, depending on the year) (Smith et al.,  
302 2015). However, the GSS data has some idiosyncrasies. So, we are attempting good-enough practices for  
303 data ingest (Wilson et al., 2016).

304 The major issue related to reproducibility is the fact that the dataset is not available through an API.  
305 For SPSS and Stata users, yearly data are available for direct download on the website. For more format  
306 possibilities, users must go through an online wizard to select variables and years for the data they wish  
307 to download (NORC at the University of Chicago, 2016). For this paper, we selected a subset of the  
308 demographic variables and the year 2014. The possible output options from the wizard are Excel (either  
309 data and metadata or metadata only), SPSS, SAS, Stata, DDI, or R script. We selected both the Excel and  
310 R formats to look at the differences.

311 The R format provided by the GSS is actually a Stata file and custom R script using the **foreign**  
312 package to do the translation for you. Here is the result of that process.

```
source(' ../data/GSS.r')
```

```
glimpse(GSS)

## Observations: 2,538
## Variables: 17
## $ YEAR      <int> 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, 2014, ...
## $ ID_       <int> 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16...
## $ WRKSTAT   <int> 1, 1, 4, 2, 5, 1, 9, 1, 8, 1, 7, 8, 5, 1, 6, 2, 2, 1, ...
## $ PRESTIGE  <int> 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, ...
## $ MARITAL   <int> 3, 1, 3, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 5, 1, 1, 5, 3, 1, 5, 1, 3, 5, ...
## $ CHILDS    <int> 0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 2, 4, 3, 2, 0, 5, 2, 0, 3, 3, 0, ...
## $ AGE       <int> 53, 26, 59, 56, 74, 56, 63, 34, 37, 30, 43, 56, 69, 4...
## $ EDUC      <int> 16, 16, 13, 16, 17, 17, 12, 17, 10, 15, 5, 11, 8, 11, ...
## $ SEX       <int> 1, 2, 1, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 2, 2, 1, 2, 1, ...
## $ RACE      <int> 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 3, 3, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 3, 1, ...
## $ INCOMI6   <int> 2, 3, 2, 2, 4, 4, 2, 3, 3, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 2, 3, ...
## $ INCOME    <int> 12, 12, 12, 12, 13, 12, 13, 12, 10, 12, 9, 9, 10, 11, ...
## $ RINCOME   <int> 12, 12, 0, 9, 0, 12, 13, 12, 0, 12, 0, 0, 0, 11, 12, ...
## $ INCOME72  <int> 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, ...
## $ PARTYID   <int> 5, 5, 6, 5, 3, 6, 6, 8, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 1, 3, 6, 1, 3, ...
## $ FINRELA   <int> 4, 4, 2, 4, 3, 4, 9, 3, 2, 3, 8, 5, 1, 1, 3, 3, 2, 3, ...
## $ SEXORNT   <int> 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 9, 0, 0, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 0, 3, 3, 0, 0, ...
```

313 Obviously, the result is less than ideal. All of the factor variables are encoded as integers, but their  
 314 level labels have been lost. We have to look at a codebook to determine if SEX == 1 indicates male or  
 315 female. We would rather preserve the integrated level labels. In order to do this, our best option is to use  
 316 the Excel file and use the **readxl** package to load it.

```
library(readxl)
GSS <- read_excel("../data/GSS.xls")
glimpse(GSS)

## Observations: 2,540
## Variables: 17
## $ Gss year for this respondent      <dbl> 2014, 2014...
## $ Respondent id number             <dbl> 1, 2, 3, 4...
## $ Labor force status               <chr> "Working f...
## $ Rs occupational prestige score   (1970) <dbl> 0, 0, 0, 0...
## $ Marital status                   <chr> "Divorced"...
## $ Number of children               <dbl> 0, 0, 1, 2...
## $ Age of respondent                <chr> "53.000000...
## $ Highest year of school completed <dbl> 16, 16, 13...
## $ Respondents sex                  <chr> "Male", "F...
## $ Race of respondent               <chr> "White", "...
## $ Rs family income when 16 yrs old <chr> "Below ave...
## $ Total family income              <chr> "$25000 or...
## $ Respondents income               <chr> "$25000 or...
## $ Total family income              <chr> "Not appli...
## $ Political party affiliation       <chr> "Not str r...
## $ Opinion of family income         <chr> "Above ave...
## $ Sexual orientation               <chr> "Heterosex..."
```

317 This is a little better. Now we have preserved the character strings. But, the data is not yet usable in  
 318 an analysis. One problem is some of the variable names include spaces, so they are hard to use. Also, one  
 319 variable name is repeated, perhaps because of an error in the data wizard. To fix these issues, we need to  
 320 rename the variables so all variables have unique names without spaces.

```
names(GSS) <- make.names(names(GSS), unique=TRUE)
```

```
names(GSS)

## [1] "Gss.year.for.this.respondent....."
## [2] "Respondent.id.number"
## [3] "Labor.force.status"
## [4] "Rs.occupational.prestige.score...1970."
## [5] "Marital.status"
## [6] "Number.of.children"
## [7] "Age.of.respondent"
## [8] "Highest.year.of.school.completed"
## [9] "Respondents.sex"
## [10] "Race.of.respondent"
## [11] "Rs.family.income.when.16.yrs.old"
## [12] "Total.family.income"
## [13] "Respondents.income"
## [14] "Total.family.income.1"
## [15] "Political.party.affiliation"
## [16] "Opinion.of.family.income"
## [17] "Sexual.orientation"
```

321 These names are an improvement, but now some are full of periods. We'd like to rename the most  
 322 extreme cases to make the names more human readable. As with all the tasks in this paper, there is  
 323 a fragile way to do this in **base R**, but we'll use the more robust `rename()` function from the **dplyr**  
 324 package. `rename()`

```
library(dplyr)
GSS <- GSS %>%
  rename(Year = Gss.year.for.this.respondent.....,
         ID = Respondent.id.number,
         LaborStatus = Labor.force.status,
         OccupationalPrestigeScore = Rs.occupational.prestige.score...1970.,
         MaritalStatus = Marital.status,
         NumChildren = Number.of.children,
         Age = Age.of.respondent,
         Sex = Respondents.sex,
         HighestSchoolCompleted = Highest.year.of.school.completed,
         Race = Race.of.respondent,
         ChildhoodFamilyIncome = Rs.family.income.when.16.yrs.old,
         TotalFamilyIncome = Total.family.income,
         RespondentIncome = Respondents.income,
         PoliticalParty = Political.party.affiliation,
         OpinionOfIncome = Opinion.of.family.income,
         SexualOrientation = Sexual.orientation)

names(GSS)

## [1] "Year" "ID"
## [3] "LaborStatus" "OccupationalPrestigeScore"
## [5] "MaritalStatus" "NumChildren"
## [7] "Age" "HighestSchoolCompleted"
## [9] "Sex" "Race"
## [11] "ChildhoodFamilyIncome" "TotalFamilyIncome"
## [13] "RespondentIncome" "Total.family.income.1"
## [15] "PoliticalParty" "OpinionOfIncome"
## [17] "SexualOrientation"

GSS <- GSS %>%
  select(~Total.family.income.1)
```

325 With the data loaded and the names adjusted, we can write the data to a new file for use in the body of  
 326 the paper.

```
library(readr)
write_csv(GSS, path="../data/GSScleaned.csv")
```

327 A version of this file is used as our motivating example.

## 328 SUPPLEMENTARY APPENDIX B: CLOSING EXERCISE

329 We have included the following as a possible supplementary exercise.

330 Subjects in the HELP study were also categorized into categories of primary and secondary drug and  
331 alcohol involvement, as displayed in the following table.

```
HELPhbase <- HELPhfull %>%
  filter(TIME == 0)
tally(~ PRIM_SUB + SECD_SUB, data=HELPhbase)

##          SECD_SUB
## PRIM_SUB 0  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8
##      1 99  0 57 13  1  3 11  0  1
##      2 51 84  0  6  0  0 15  0  0
##      3 57 28 29  0  0  6  5  1  2
##      6  0  1  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
```

332 The following coding of substance use involvement was used in the study.

	value	description
	0	None
	1	Alcohol
	2	Cocaine
333	3	Heroin
	4	Barbituates
	5	Benzos
	6	Marijuana
	7	Methadone
	8	Opiates

334 Create a new variable called `primsub` combining the primary and secondary substances into  
335 a categorical variable with values corresponding to primary and secondary substances of the form:  
336 alcohol only, cocaine only, heroin only, alcohol-cocaine, cocaine-alcohol,  
337 or other. Code any group with fewer than 5 entries as alcohol-other, cocaine-other, or  
338 heroin-other. If `PRIM\_SUB == 6` make the `primsub` variable missing.

339 How many subjects are there in the alcohol-none group? How many subjects are there in the  
340 alcohol-other group? What are the three most common groups?

341 SOLUTION:

```
HELPhbase <- HELPhbase %>%
  mutate(
    primary= recode(PRIM_SUB,
      `1`="alcohol",
      `2`="cocaine",
      `3`="heroin",
      `4`="barbituates",
      `5`="benzos",
      `6`="marijuana",
      `7`="methadone",
      `8`="opiates"),
    second= recode(SECD_SUB,
      `0`="none",
      `1`="alcohol",
      `2`="cocaine",
      `3`="heroin",
      `4`="barbituates",
      `5`="benzos",
      `6`="marijuana",
      `7`="methadone",
      `8`="opiates"),
    title=paste0(primary, "-", second)
  )
```

```
tally(~ primary, data=HELPhbase)
```



```
##
##   alcohol   cocaine   heroin marijuana
##      185       156      128         1

tally(~ second, data=HELPbase)

##
##   alcohol barbituates      benzos   cocaine   heroin   marijuana
##      113         1         9       86       19         31
## methadone      none   opiates
##         1       207         3

counts <- HELPbase %>%
  group_by(primary, second) %>%
  summarise(observed=n())

merged <- left_join(HELPbase, counts, by=c("primary", "second"))
```

```
merged <- merged %>%
  mutate(
    title =
      case_when(
        observed < 5 & primary == "alcohol" ~ "alcohol-other",
        observed < 5 & primary == "cocaine" ~ "cocaine-other",
        observed < 5 & primary == "heroin" ~ "heroin-other",
        TRUE ~ title),
    title = ifelse(primary == "marijuana", NA, title))

## Error in mutate_impl(.data, dots): object 'observed' not found

tally(~ title + observed, data=merged)
```

```
##
## title observed
##   1 2 3 5 6 11 13 15 28 29 51 57 84 99
## alcohol-barbituates 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## alcohol-benzos 0 0 3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## alcohol-cocaine 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 57 0
## alcohol-heroin 0 0 0 0 0 0 13 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## alcohol-marijuana 0 0 0 0 0 11 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## alcohol-none 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 99
## alcohol-opiates 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## cocaine-alcohol 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 84 0
## cocaine-heroin 0 0 0 0 6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## cocaine-marijuana 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 15 0 0 0 0 0 0
## cocaine-none 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 51 0 0 0
## heroin-alcohol 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 28 0 0 0 0 0
## heroin-benzos 0 0 0 0 6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## heroin-cocaine 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 29 0 0 0 0
## heroin-marijuana 0 0 0 5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## heroin-methadone 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## heroin-none 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 57 0 0
## heroin-opiates 0 2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
## marijuana-alcohol 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
```

```
tally(~ title == "alcohol-none", data=merged)
```

```
##
## TRUE FALSE
## 99 371

tally(~ title == "alcohol-other", data=merged)

##
## TRUE FALSE
## 0 470

sort(tally(~ title, data=merged), decreasing=TRUE)[1:3]

##
## alcohol-none cocaine-alcohol alcohol-cocaine
## 99 84 57
```

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