

# Lab 000

## Data cleaning and workflow [1/N]

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# Admin

# Admin

Basic **workflow** (best) practices (*i.e., Projects*)

- RStudio and projects
- Naming conventions
- Pipes (`%>%`)
- Data cleaning with `dplyr`

*Reminders*

**Reminder:** Readings for next week

- ISL Ch1–Ch2
- **Prediction Policy Problems** by Kleinberg *et al.* (2015)

# Improving your workflow

# Improving your workflow

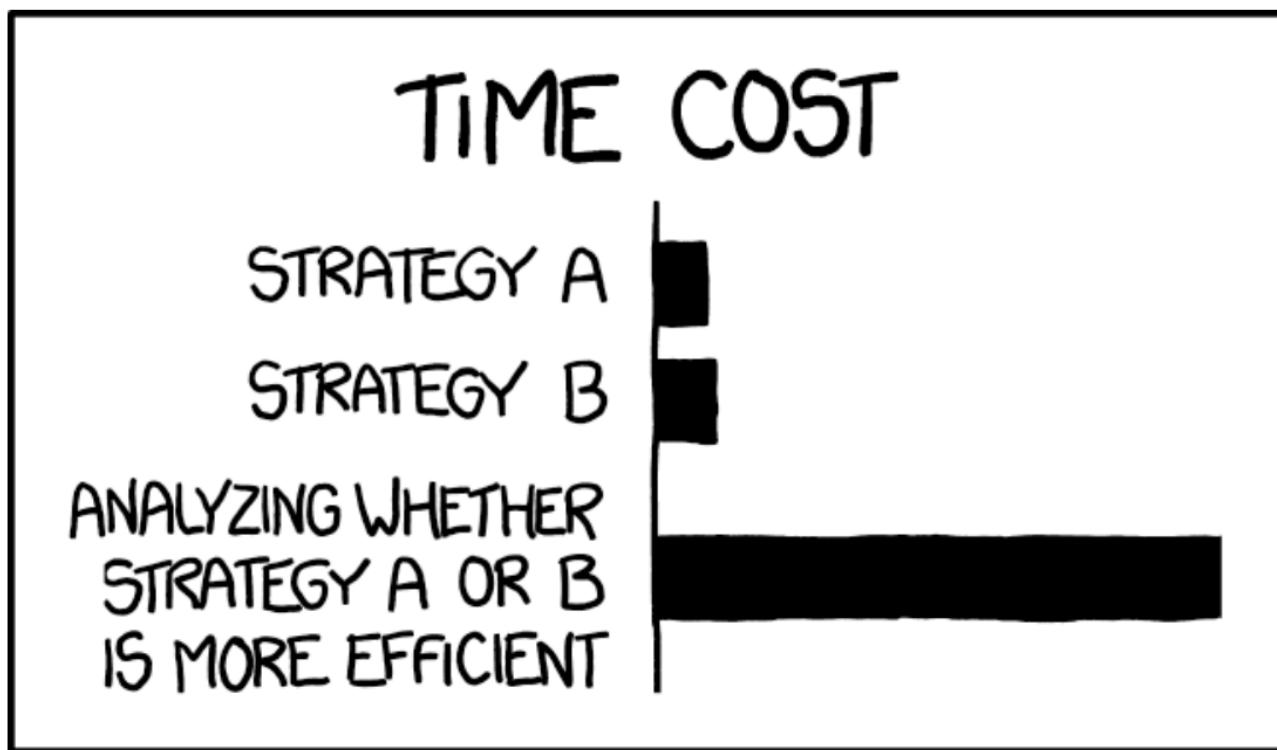
Data cleaning, manipulation, and analysis can be grueling, but optimizing your workflow can speed things along and make them less painful.<sup>†</sup>

## A few dimensions that can help

- Understand how to interact with RStudio
- Use R projects
- Follow reasonable naming conventions
- `dplyr` and pipes
- Write your own functions (future lab)
- Use loops and parallelization (future lab)
- Hire an intern/assistant to do your work for you

<sup>†</sup> Notice that I said *less* painful.

# Efficiency

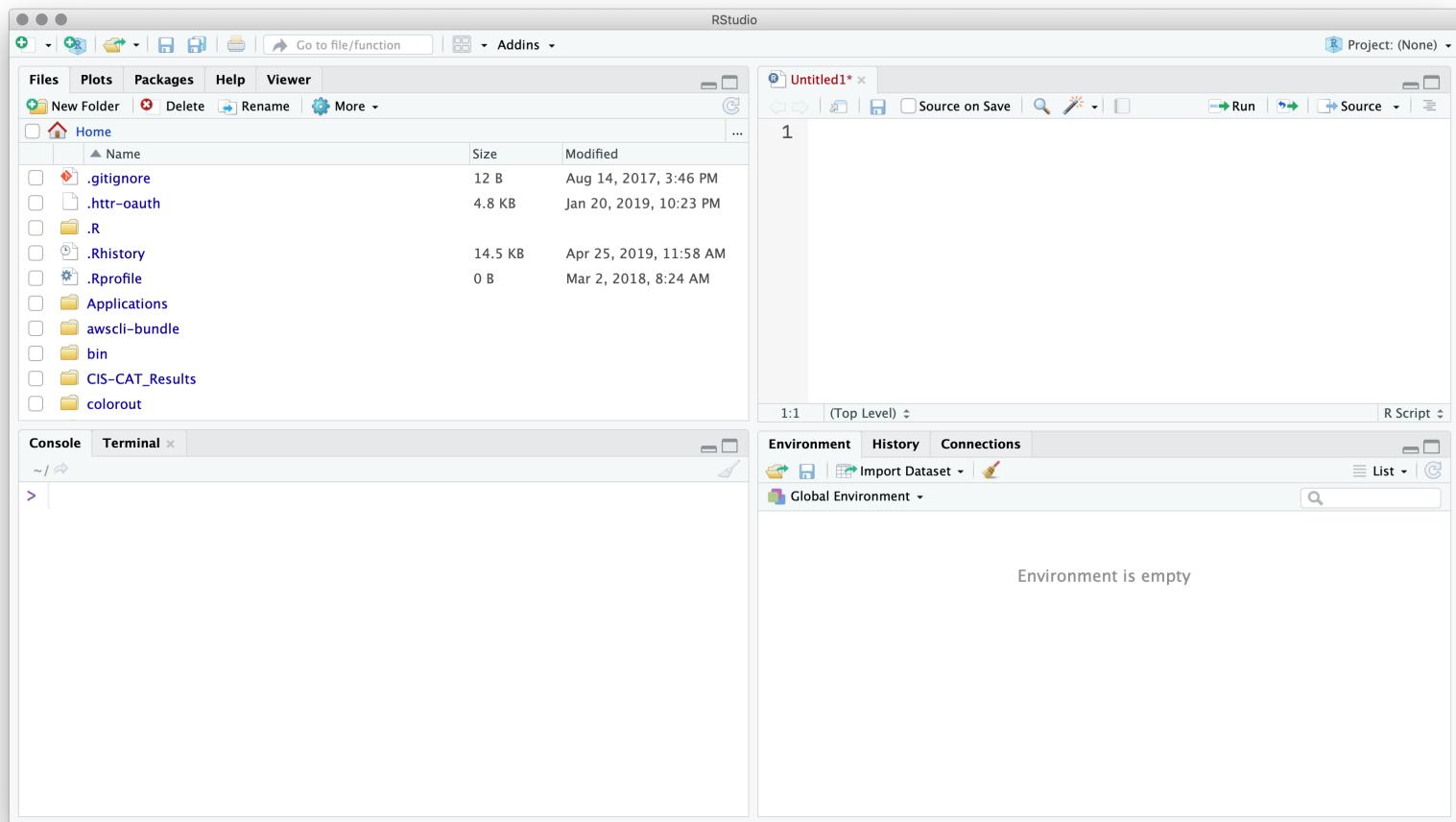


THE REASON I AM SO INEFFICIENT

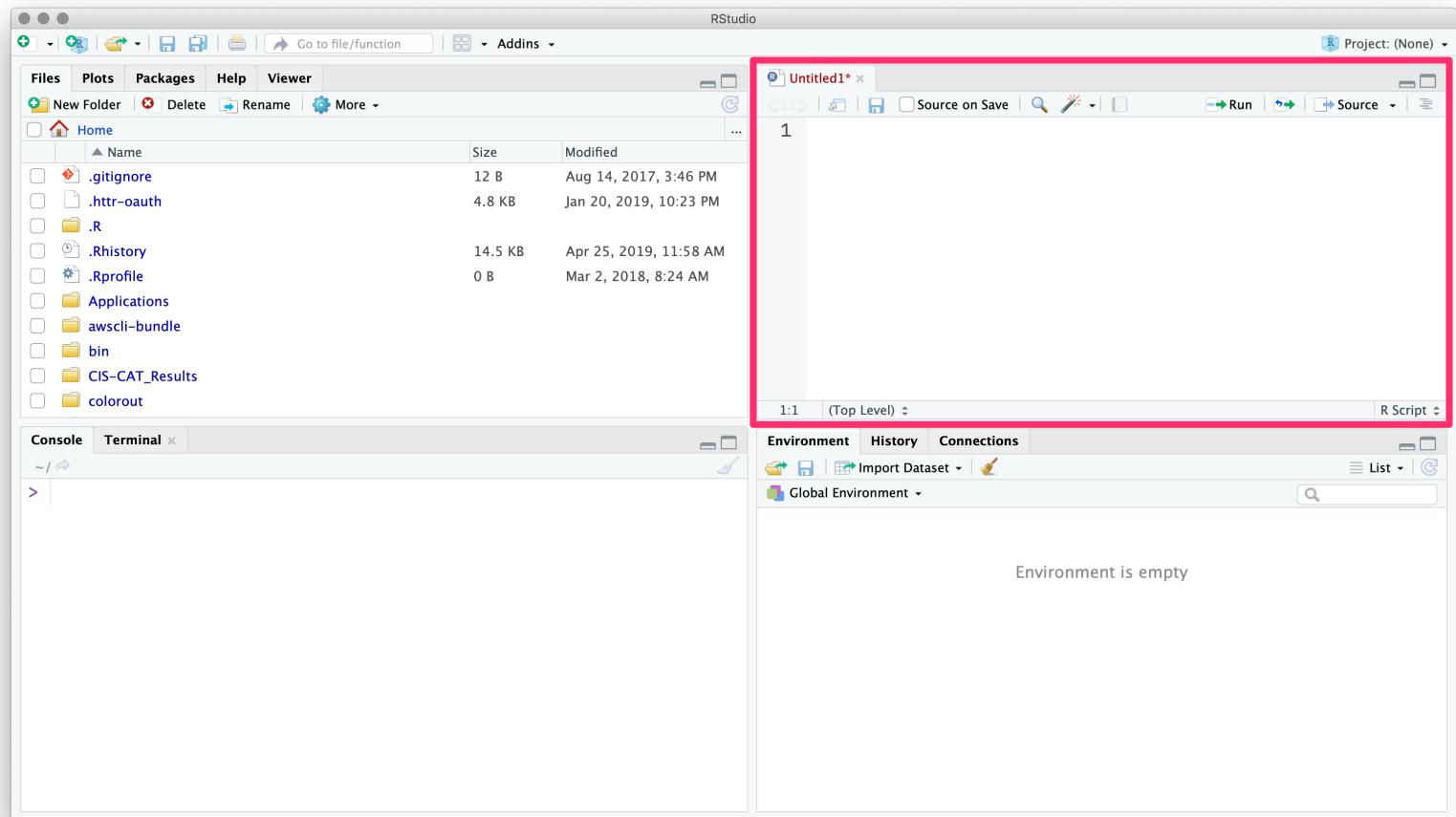
Source: [xkcd](#)

# RStudio

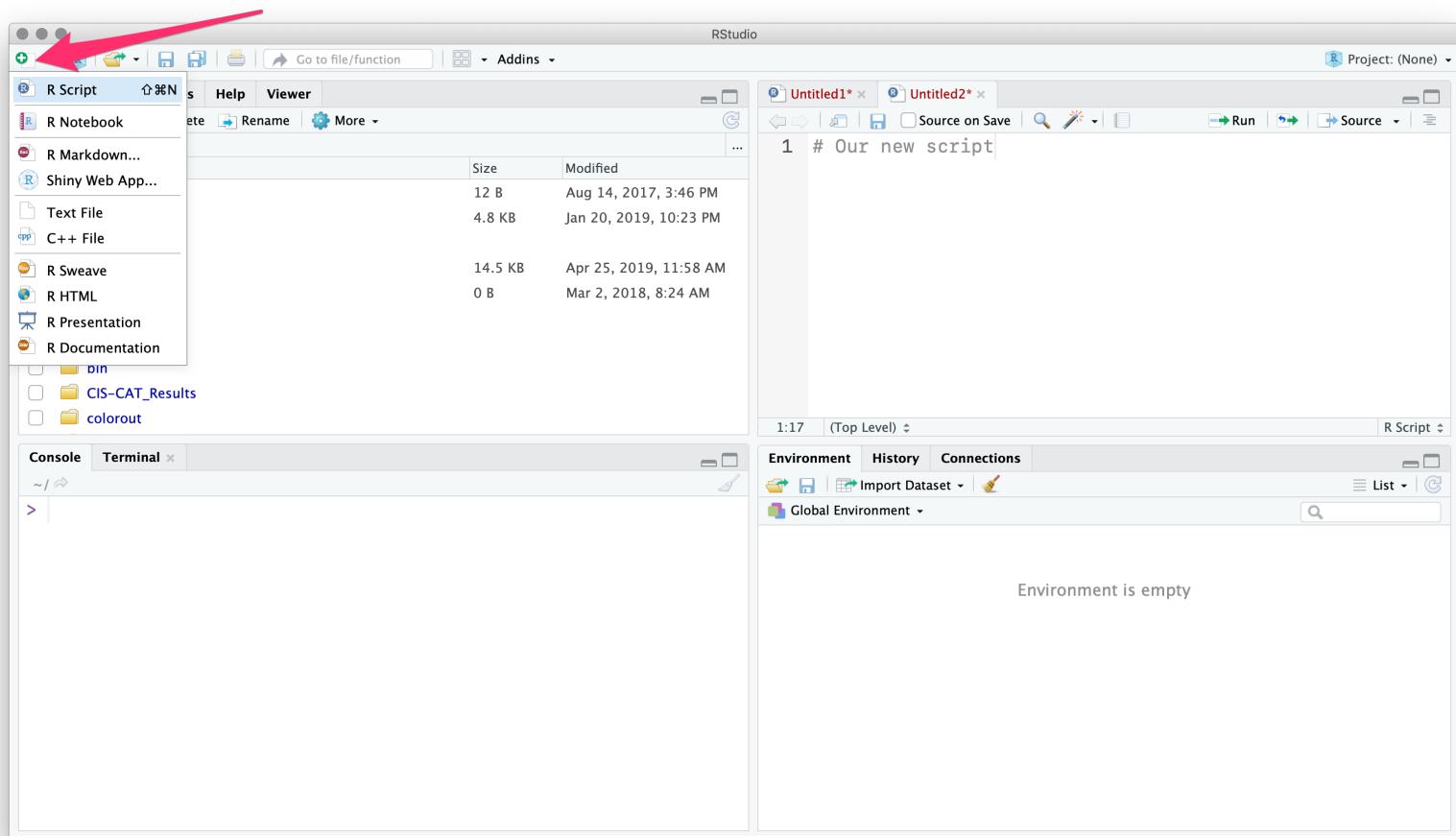
# Let's recap some of the major features in RStudio...



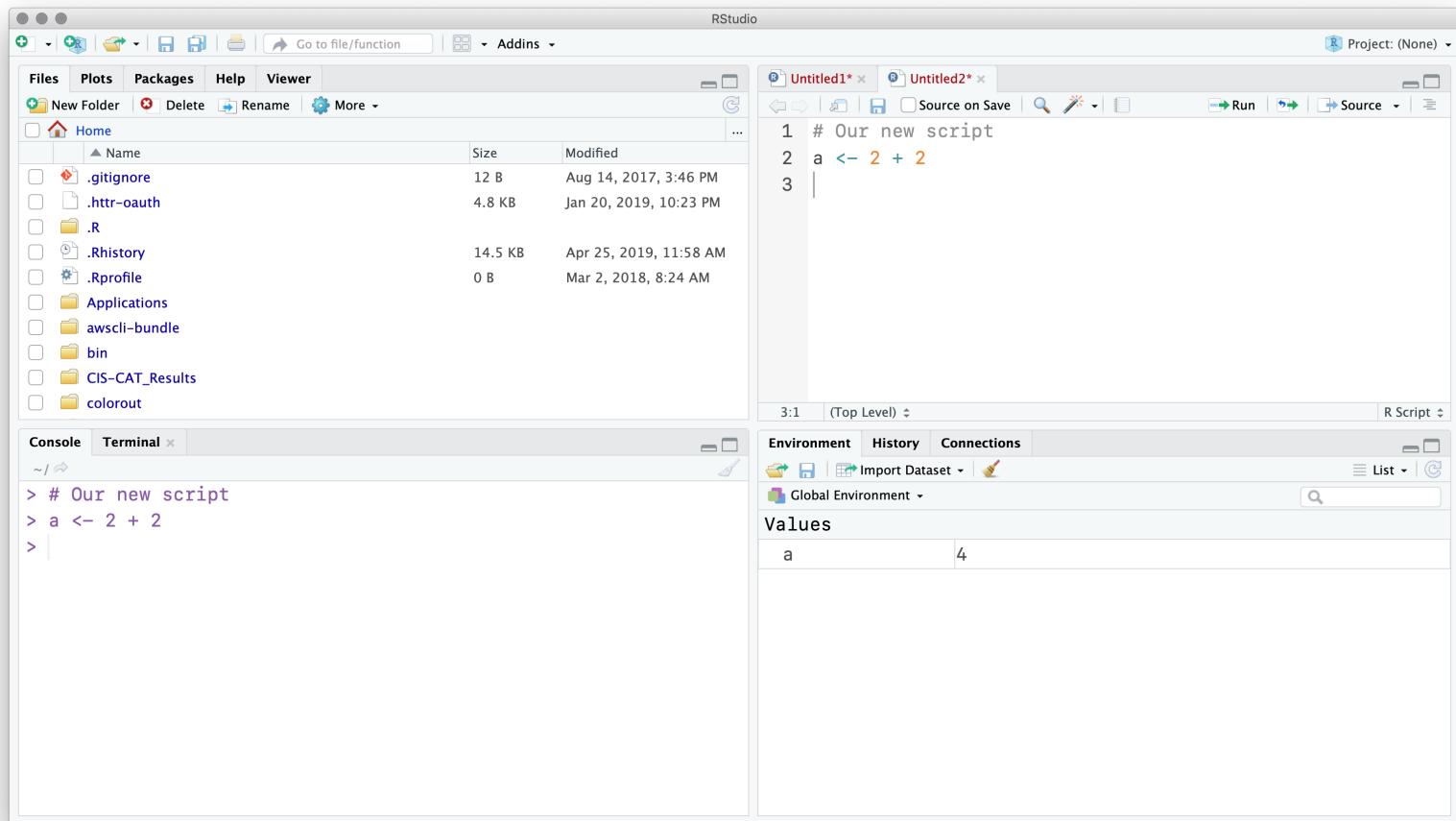
First, you write your R scripts (source code) in the **Source** pane.



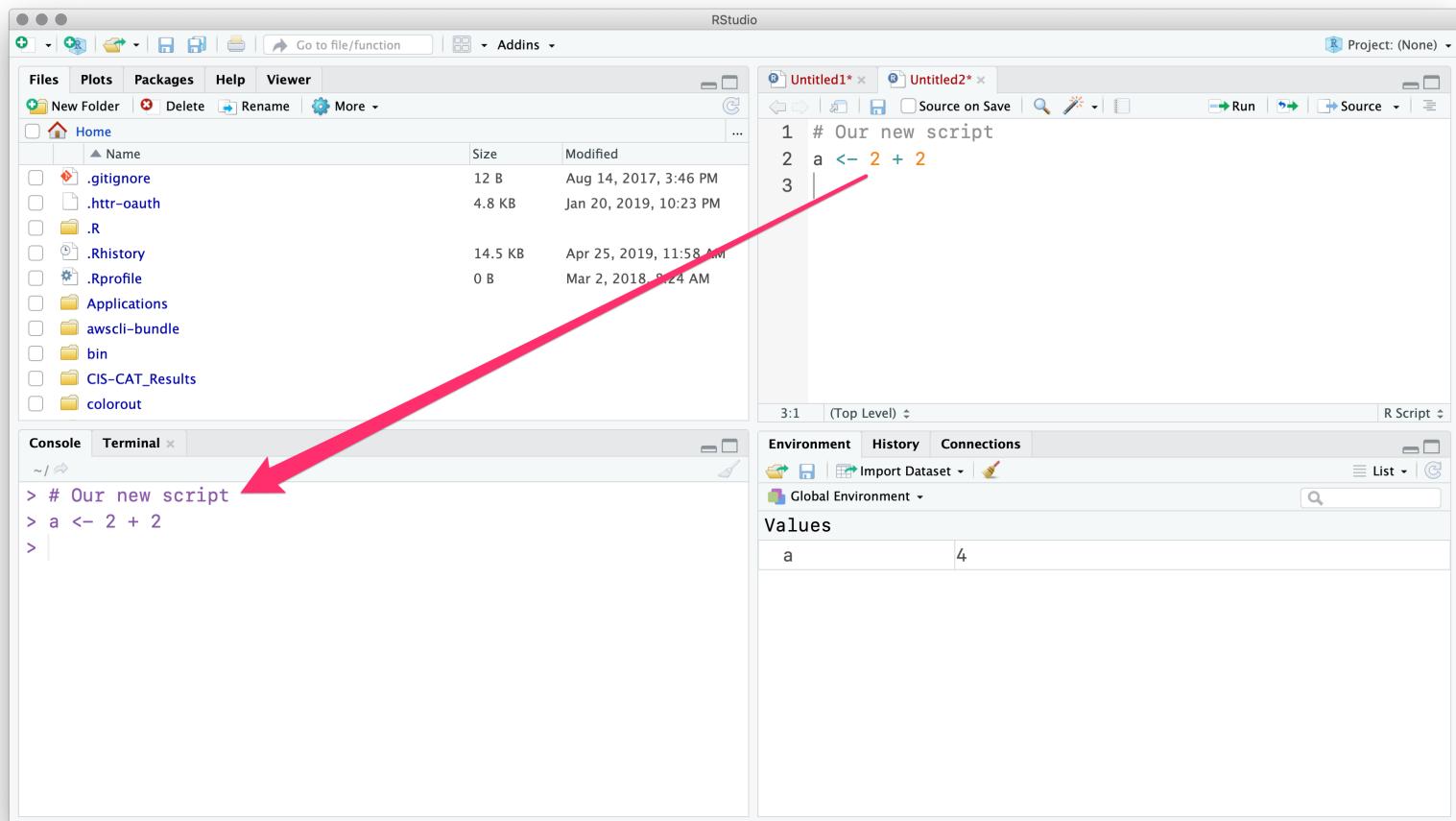
You can use the menubar or ⌘+N to create new R scripts.



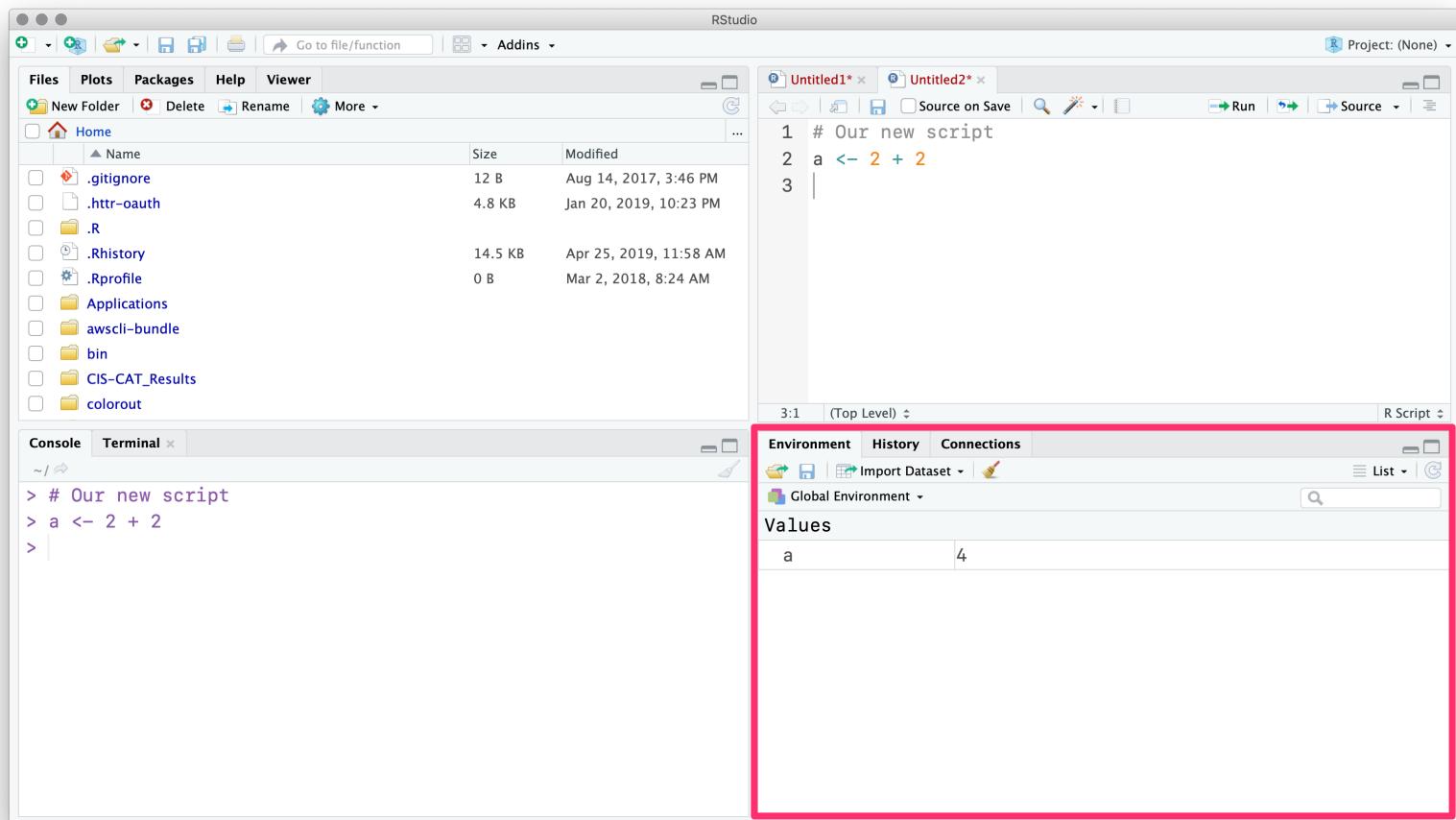
To execute commands from your R script, use ⌘+Enter.



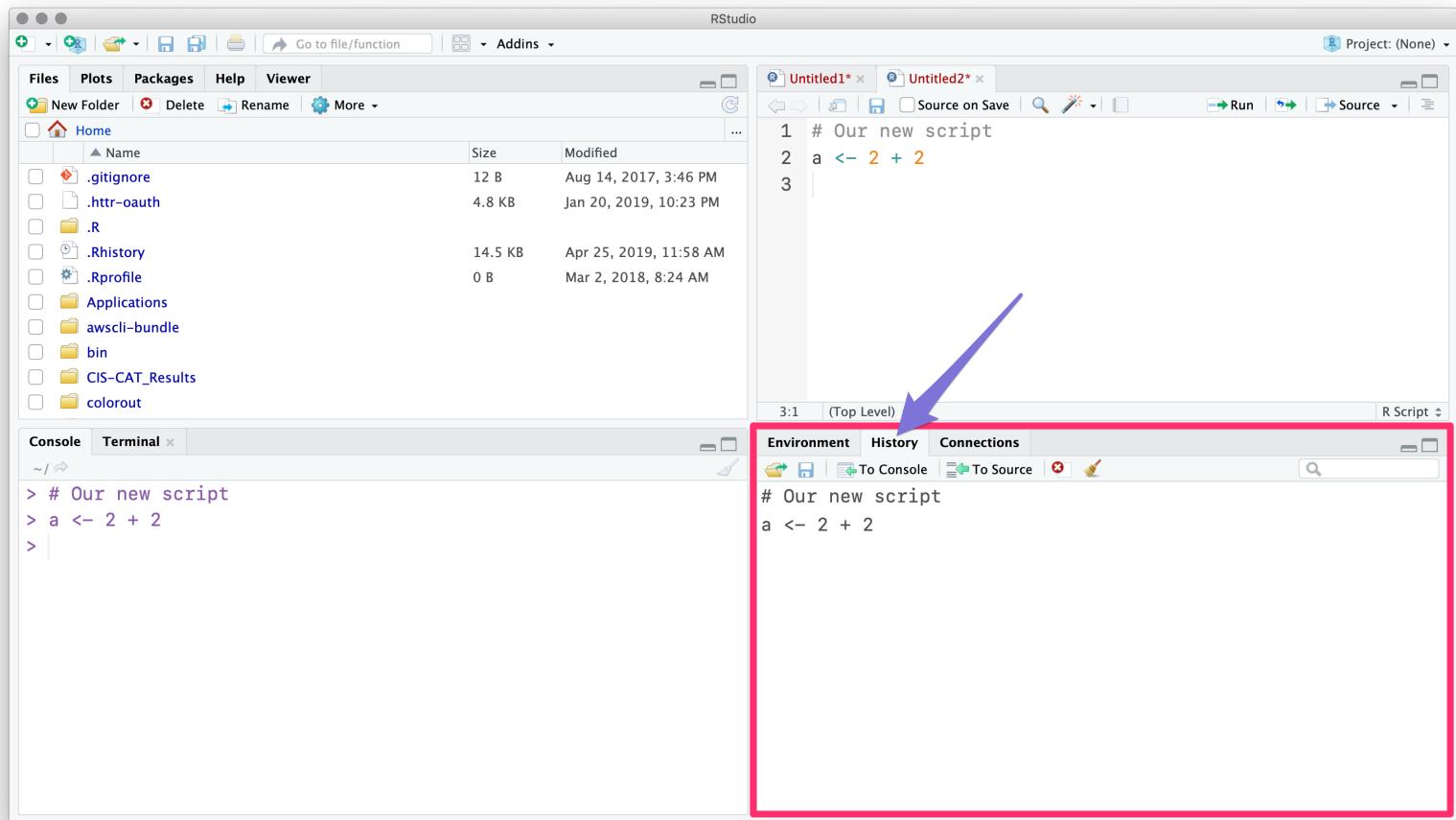
RStudio will execute the command in the terminal.



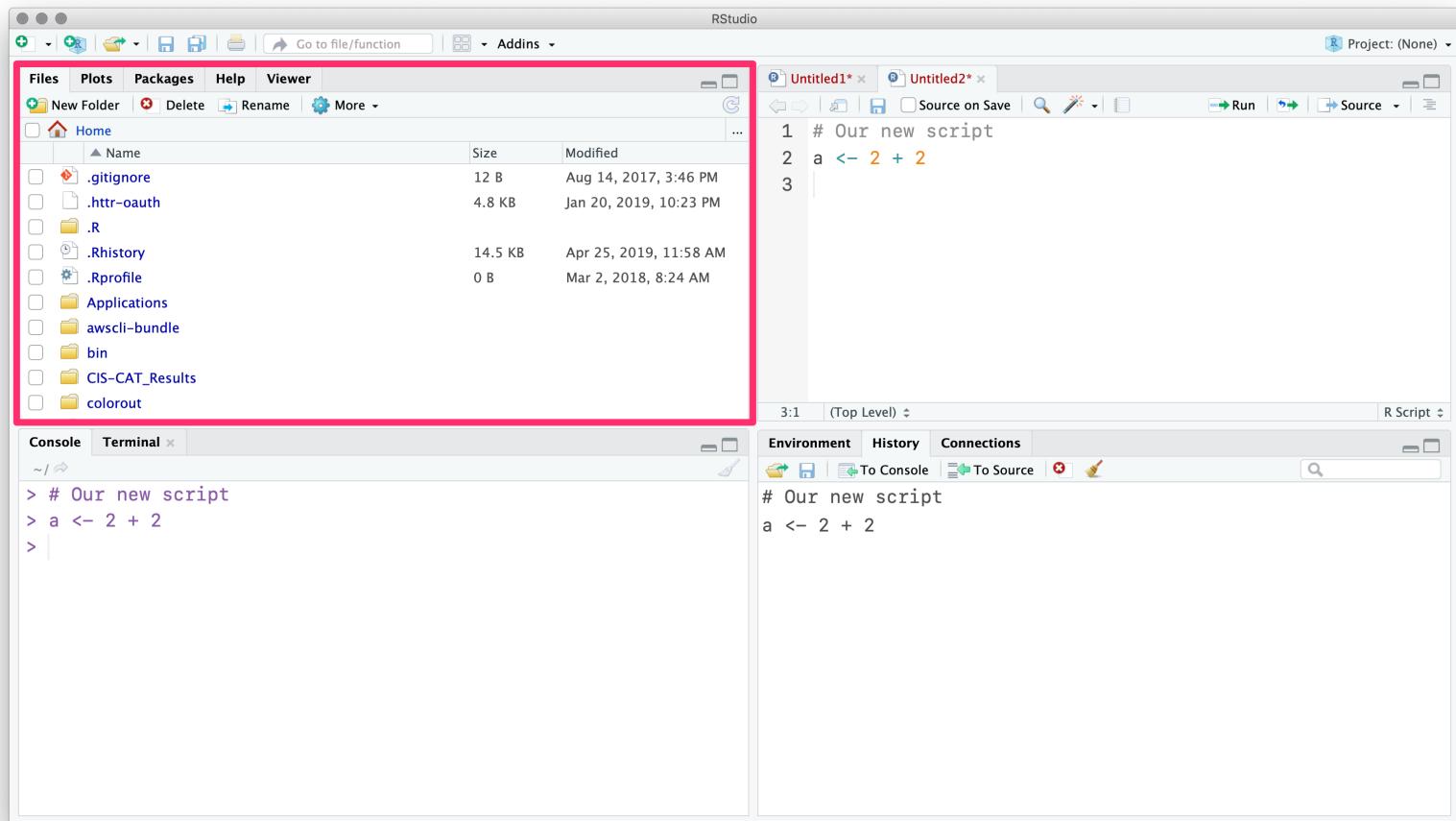
You can see our new object in the **Environment** pane.



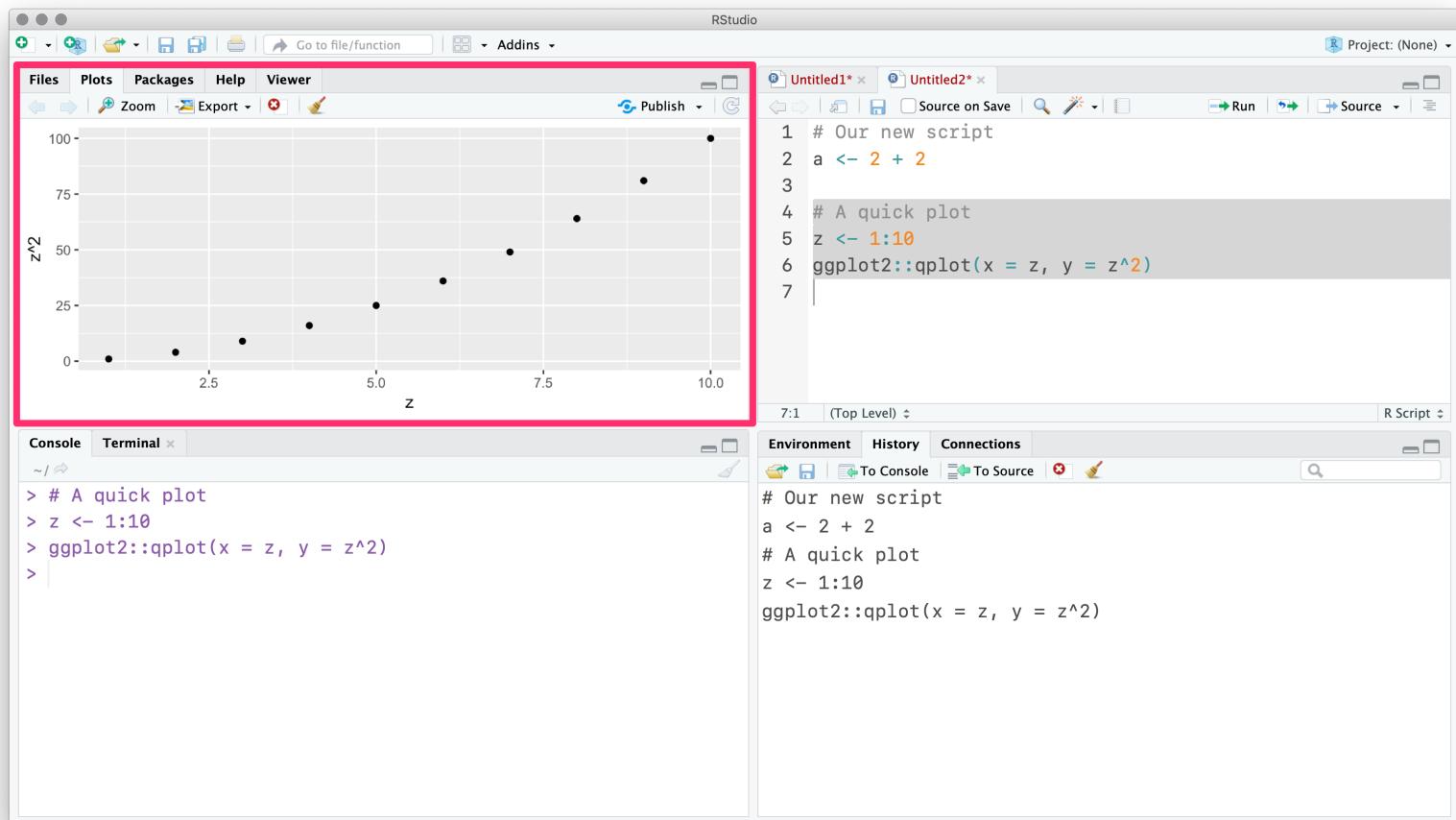
The **History** tab (next to **Environment**) records your old commands.



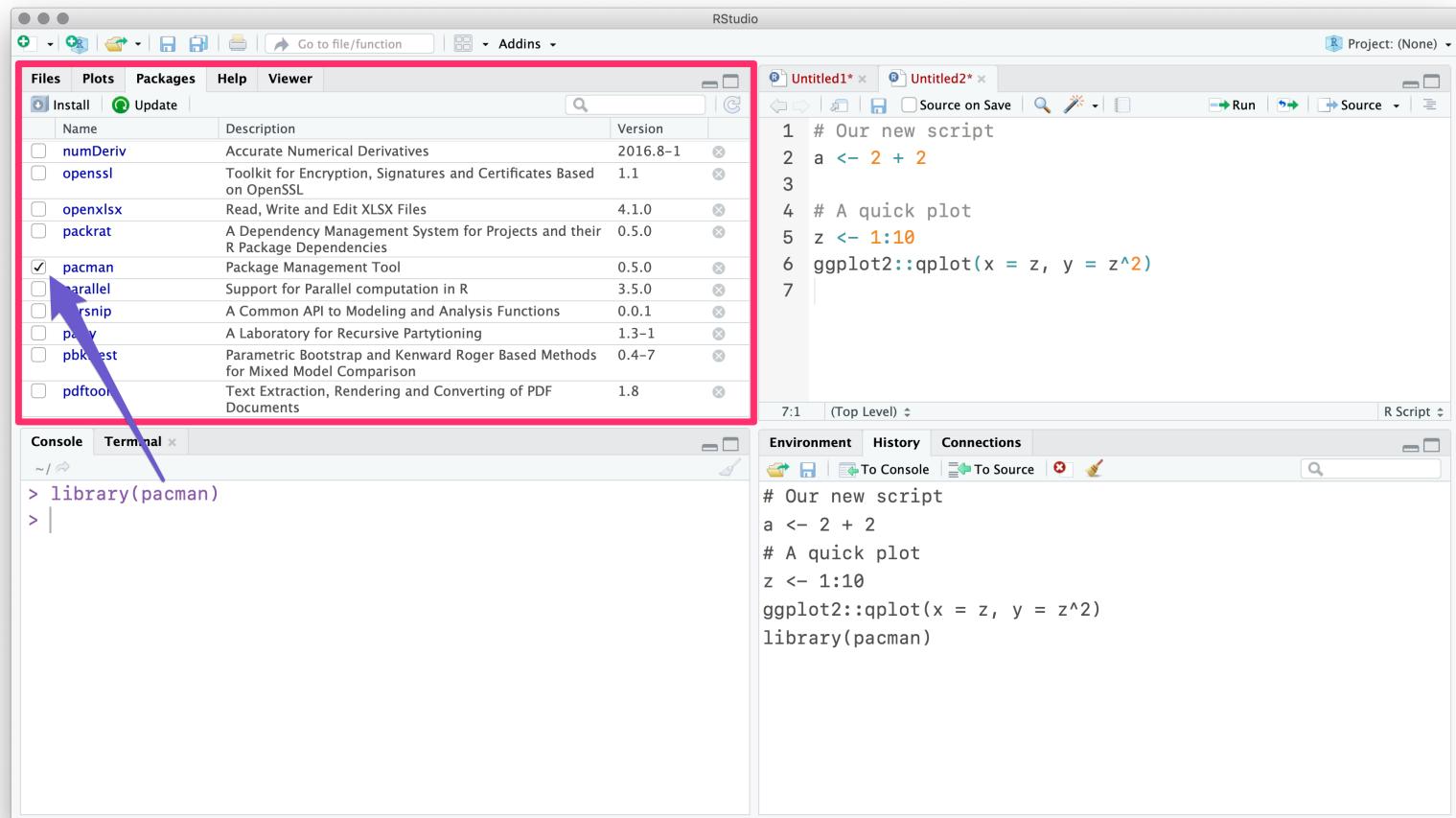
The **Files** pane is file explorer.



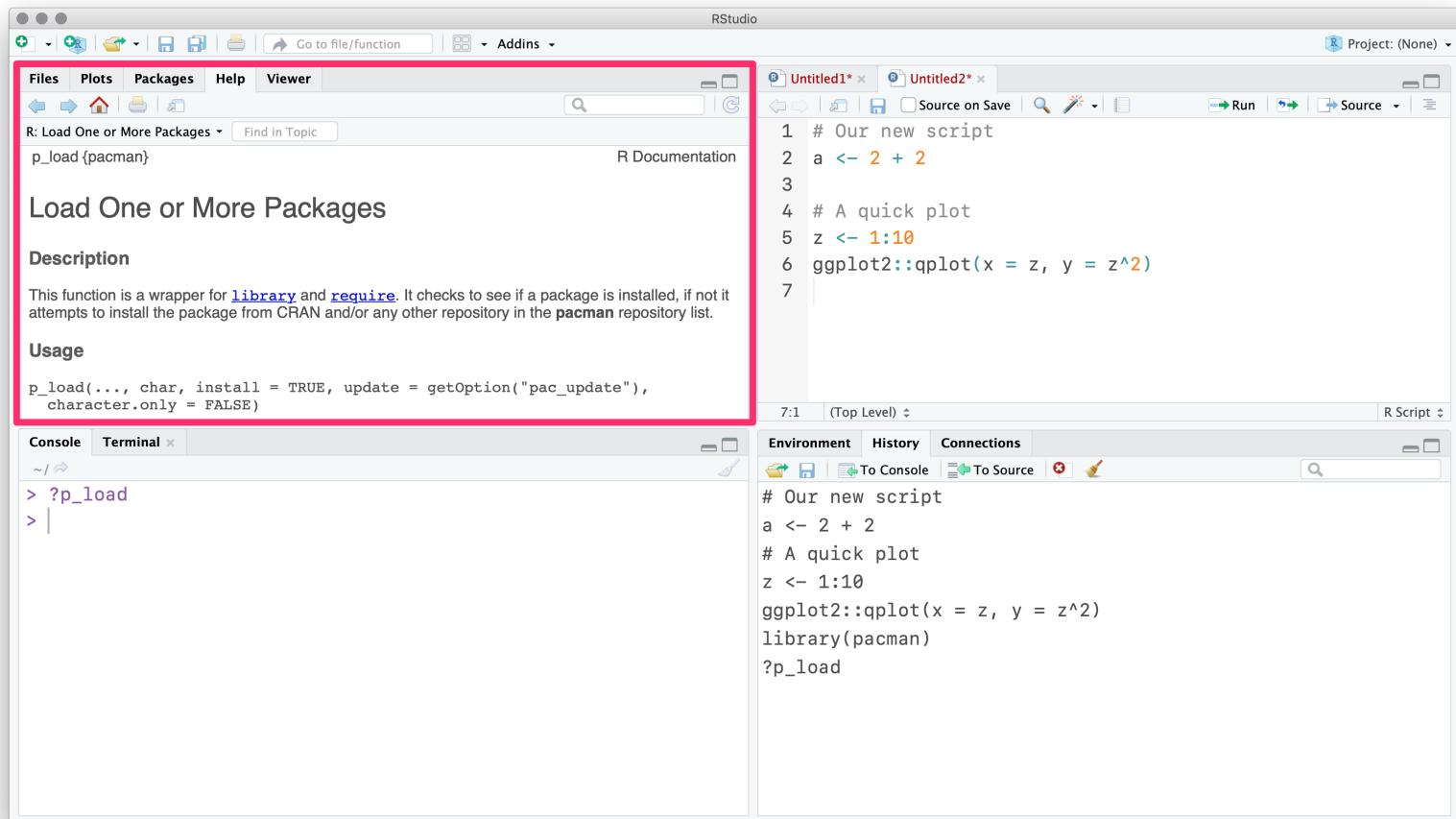
The **Plots** pane/tab shows... plots.



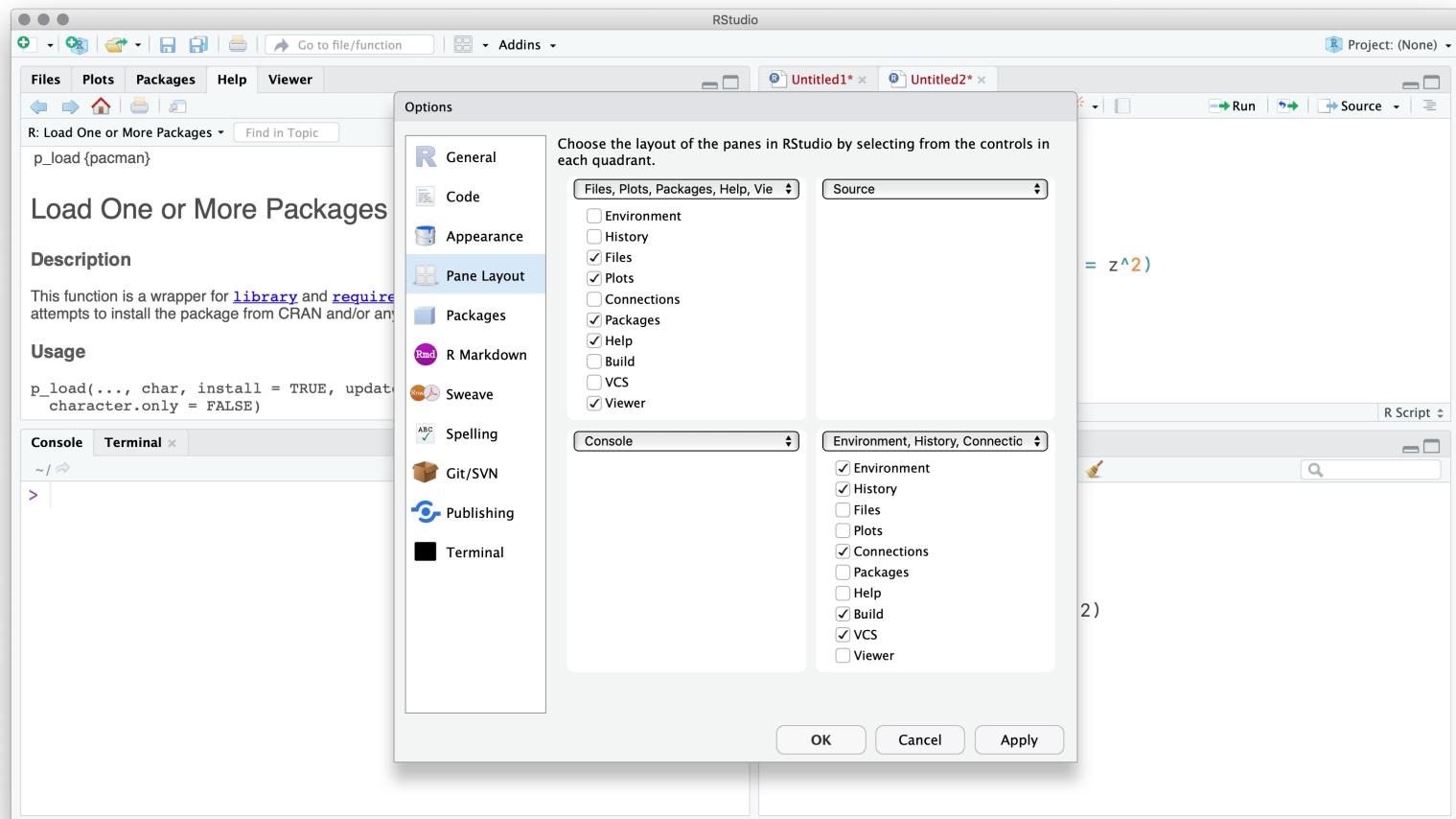
**Packages** shows installed packages and whether they are **loaded**.



The **Help** tab shows help documentation (also accessible via **?**).



Finally, you can customize the actual layout and many other items.



# R and RStudio

## Related best practices

1. Write code in R scripts. Troubleshoot in RStudio. Then run the scripts.
2. Comment your code. (# This is a comment)
3. Name objects/variables/files with intelligible, standardized names.
  - o **BAD** ALLCARS, Vl123a8, a.fun, cens.12931, cens.12933
  - o **GOOD** unique\_cars, health\_df, sim\_fun, is\_female, age
4. Write code that is readable (see comments comment above).
5. Use projects in RStudio (next). And organize your projects.

# Projects

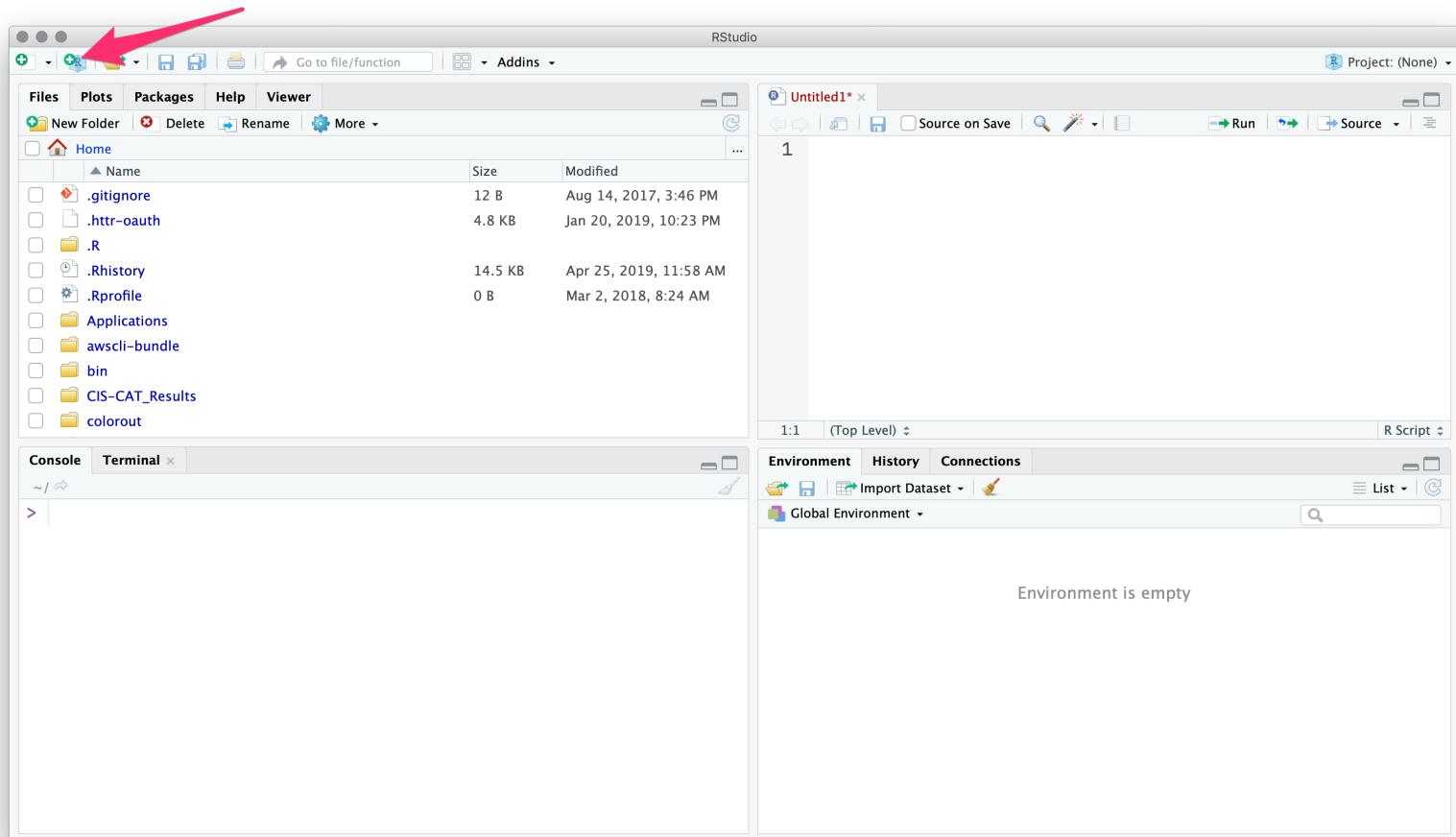
# Projects

Projects in R offer several benefits

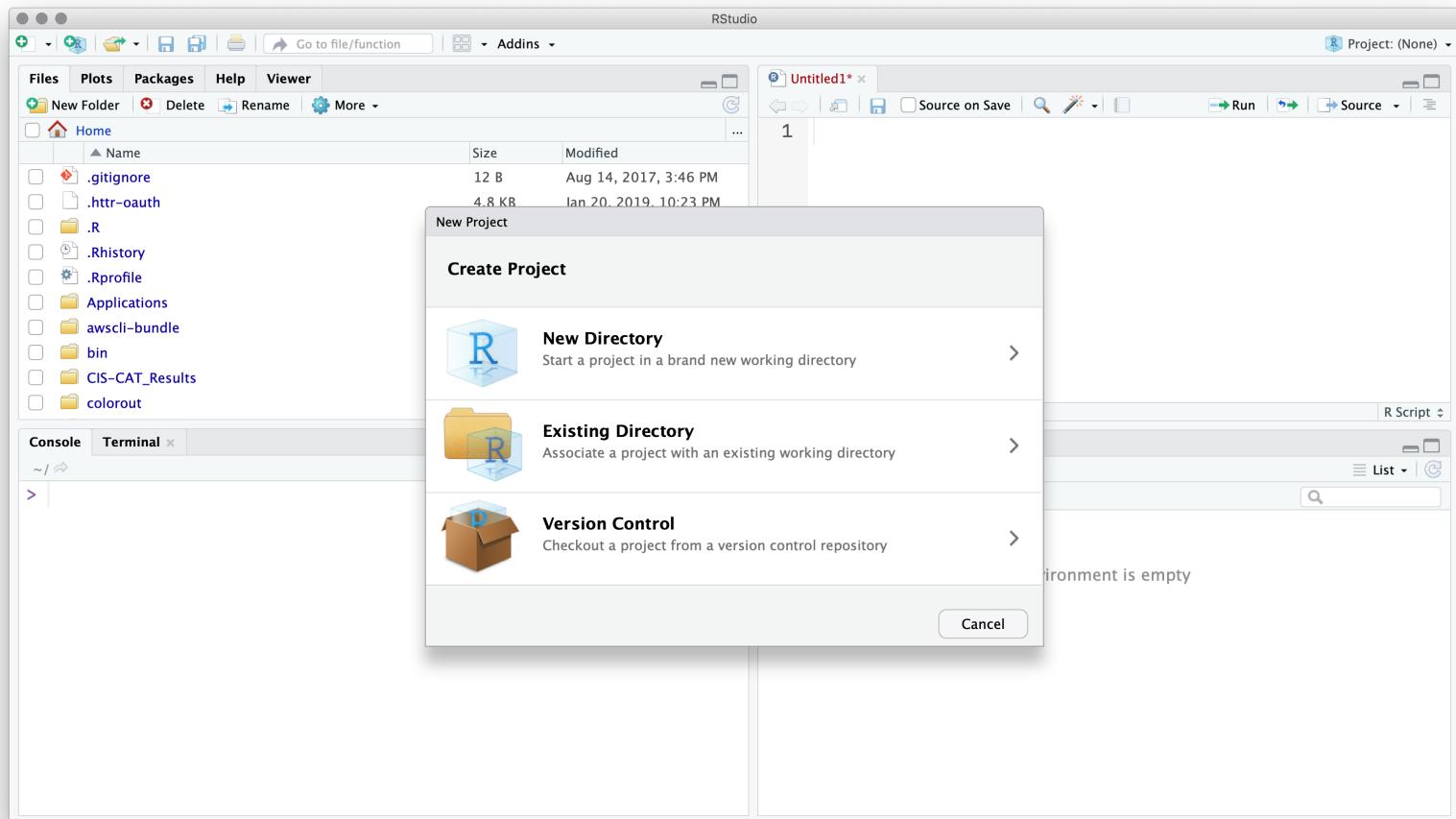
1. Act as an **anchor** for working with files.
2. Make your work (projects) easily **reproducible**.<sup>†</sup>
3. Help you **quickly jump back** into your work.

<sup>†</sup> In this class, we're assuming reproducibility is good/desirable.

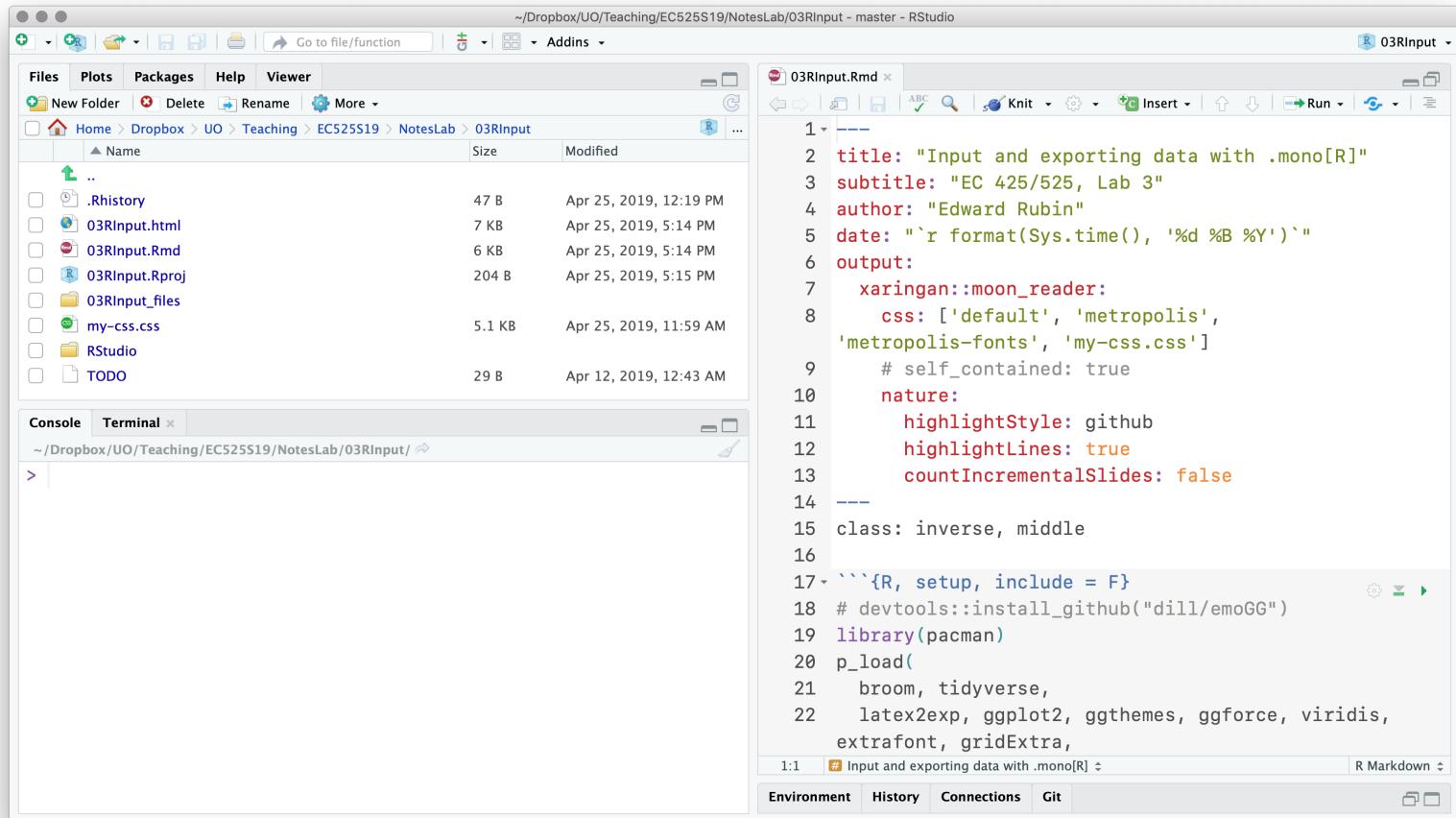
To start a new project, hit the **project icon**.



You'll then choose the folder/directory where your project lives.



RStudio will 'load' your previous setup (pane setup, scripts, etc.).



# R and RStudio

## Projects

**Without a project**, you will need to define long file paths that you'll need to keep updating as folder names/locations change.

```
dir_class <- "/Users/edwardarubin/Dropbox/U0/Teaching/EC525S19/"  
dir_labs <- paste0(dir_class, "NotesLab/")  
dir_lab03 <- paste0(dir_labs, "03RInput/")  
sample_df <- read.csv(paste0(dir_lab03, "sample.csv"))
```

**With a project**, R automatically references the project's folder.

```
sample_df <- read.csv("sample.csv")
```

*Double-plus bonus* The `here` package extends projects' reproducibility.

# Pipes and dplyr

# Pipes and dplyr

## Introduction

1. Pipes (`%>%`) make your life easier.<sup>†</sup>
2. `dplyr` is your data-work friend.

<sup>†</sup> Check out `magrittr` for more pipe options, e.g., `%<-%`.

# Pipes and dplyr

## What is a pipe?

Pipes are a **simplifying** programming tool; make your code easier to read

Take the **output** of a function as the **input/argument** of another function

In `dplyr`, the expression for a pipe is `%>%`

R's pipe specifically plugs the returned object to the **left** of the pipe into the first argument of the function on the **right** of the pipe, e.g.,

```
rnorm(10) %>% mean()
```

```
#> [1] -0.5162503
```

† ▶ native pipe as of R 4.1.0

# Pipes and dplyr

## Pipes

Pipes avoid nested functions, prevent excessive writing to your disc, and increase the readability of our R scripts

*Example* Three ways to draw 100  $N(0,1)$  observations and calculate the interquartile range (IQR: difference between the 75<sup>th</sup> and 25<sup>th</sup> percentiles).

```
# Save each intermediate step
draw ← rnorm(100)
end_points ← quantile(draw, probs = c(0.25, 0.75))
diff(end_points)

# Lots of nesting
diff(quantile(rnorm(100), probs = c(0.25, 0.75)))

# Piping 💪
rnorm(100) %>% quantile(probs = c(0.25, 0.75)) %>% diff()
```

Think russian dolls

# Pipes and dplyr

## Pipes

By default, R pipes the output from the LHS of the pipe into the **first** argument of the function on the RHS of the pipe.

E.g., `a %>% fun(3)` is equivalent to `fun(arg1 = a, arg2 = 3)`.

If you want to pipe output into a different argument, you use a period (`.`).

- `b %>% fun(arg1 = 3, .)` is equivalent to `fun(arg1 = 3, arg2 = b)`.
- `b %>% fun(3, .)` is also equivalent to `fun(arg1 = 3, arg2 = b)`.
- `b %>% fun(., .)` is equivalent to `fun(arg1 = b, arg2 = b)`.

The `magrittr` package contains even more piping power.<sup>†</sup>

<sup>†</sup> `magrittr` = Magritte (of *this is not a pipe* fame) plus R.

# dplyr

## Before we begin:

1. Ensure `tidyverse` is installed: `install.packages('tidyverse')`
2. Install `nycflights13` package: `install.packages('nycflights13')`
3. Load package libraries: `library(tidyverse, nycflights13)`
4. Test the `flights` dataset: `(flights)`

year	month	day	dep_time	sched_dep_time	dep_delay	arr_time
2013	1	1	517	515	2	830
2013	1	1	533	529	4	850
2013	1	1	542	540	2	923

dplyr

# dplyr

## Introduction

It's a package. `dplyr` is not installed by default, so you'll need to install it.<sup>†</sup>

`dplyr` is part of the `tidyverse` (Hadleyverse), and it follows a grammar-based approach to programming/data work.

- `data` compose the subjects of your stories
- `dplyr` provides the *verbs* (action words):  
`filter()`, `mutate()`, `select()`, `group_by()`, `summarize()`, `arrange()`

**Bonus** `dplyr` is pretty fast and able to interact with SQL databases.

<sup>†</sup> or just `p_load(dplyr)` after loading `pacman`.

# dplyr

Manipulating variables: `mutate()`

`dplyr` streamlines adding/manipulating variables in your data frame.

**Function** `mutate(.data, ...)`

- **Required argument** `.data`, an existing data frame
- **Additional arguments** Names and values of the new variables
- **Output** An updated data frame

*Example*

```
mutate(.data = our_df, new1 = 7, new2 = x * y)
```

# dplyr

## mutate()

*Example* Take the data frame

```
my_df <- data.frame(x = 1:3, y = 5:7)
```

mutate() allows us to create many new variables with one call.

```
mutate(.data = my_df,  
       xy = x * y,  
       x2 = x^2,  
       xy2 = xy^2,  
       is_max = x == max(x)  
)
```

x	y	xy	x2	xy2	is_max
1	5	5	1	25	false
2	6	12	4	144	false
3	7	21	9	441	true

Notice mutate() returns the original *and* new columns.

# dplyr

## mutate() vs. transmute()

As their names imply, `mutate()` and `transmute()` are very similar functions.

- `mutate()` returns the *original and new* columns (variables).
- `transmute()` returns only the *new* columns (variables).

*Note* Both functions return a new object as *output*—they do not update the object in R's memory. (This is the case for all functions in `dplyr`.)

# dplyr

## %>% and dplyr

Each `dplyr` function begins with a `.data` argument so that you can easily pipe in data frames (recall: `mutate(.data, ...)`).

The common workflow in `dplyr` will look something like

```
new_df ← old_df %>% mutate(cool stuff here)
```

which takes `old_df`, does some cool stuff with `mutate()`, and then saves the output of `mutate()` as `new_df`.

# dplyr

## filter()

The `filter()` function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

*Example*

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
  x = 1:10,
  y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Only keep rows where x is 3
some_df %>% filter(x = 3)
```

x	y
3	13

# dplyr

## filter()

The `filter()` function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

*Example*

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
  x = 1:10,
  y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Only keep rows where x > 7
some_df %>% filter(x > 7)
```

x	y
8	18
9	19
10	20

# dplyr

## filter()

The `filter()` function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

*Example*

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
  x = 1:10,
  y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Keep rows where y/x > 3
some_df %>% filter(y/x > 3)
```

x	y
1	11
2	12
3	13
4	14

# dplyr

## filter()

The `filter()` function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

*Example*

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
  x = 1:10,
  y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Keep rows where x>8 OR y<12
some_df %>%
  filter(x > 8 | y < 12)
```

x	y
1	11
9	19
10	20

# dplyr

## filter()

The `filter()` function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

*Example*

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
  x = 1:10,
  y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Keep rows where 16 ≤ y ≤ 18
some_df %>%
  filter(between(y, 16, 18))
```

x	y
6	16
7	17
8	18

# dplyr

## filter()

The `filter()` function does what its name implies: it **filters the rows** of your data frame **based upon logical conditions**.

### Example

```
# Create a dataset
some_df ← data.frame(
  x = 1:10,
  y = 11:20
)
```

```
# Keep rows where y > 20
some_df %>% filter(y > 20)
```

x ◆ y ◆

---

No data available in  
table

If you filter your data frame down to nothing, R returns a 0-row data frame with the names/number of columns from the original data frame.

# dplyr

## select()

Just as `filter()` grabs row-based subsets of your data frame, `select()` grabs column-based subsets.

You can select columns using their **names**

```
our_df %>% select(var10, var100)
```

you can select columns using their **numbers**

```
our_df %>% select(10, 100)
```

or you can select columns using **helper functions**

```
our_df %>% select(starts_with("var10"))
```

`select()` helps you narrow down a dataset to its necessary features.

# dplyr

## summarize()

Hopefully you're starting to see that functions' names in `dplyr` tell you what the function does.

`summarize()`<sup>†</sup> summarizes variables—you choose the variables and the summaries (e.g., `mean()` or `min()`).

```
the_df %>% summarize(  
  mean(x), mean(y), mean(z),  
  min(x), max(x),  
)
```

would return a  $1 \times 5$  data frame with the means of `x`, `y`, and `z`; the minimum of `x`; and the maximum of `x`.

<sup>†</sup> or `summarise()` if you ❤️ 🇬🇧

# dplyr

## summarize() and group\_by()

While sample-wide summarizes are certainly interesting, `dplyr` has one last gem for us: `group_by()`.

`group_by()` groups your observations by the variable(s) that you name.

Specifically, `group_by()` returns a *grouped data frame* that you can then feed to `summarize()`, `mutate()`, or `transmute` to perform grouped calculations, e.g., each group's mean.

# dplyr

## Example: Grouped summaries

```
# Create a new data frame
our_df ← data.frame(
  x = 1:6,
  y = c(0, 1),
  grp = rep(c("A", "B"), each = 3)
)
```

```
# For dataset 'our_df' ...
our_df %>%
  # Group by 'grp'
  group_by(grp) %>%
  # Take means of 'x' and 'y'
  summarize(mean(x), mean(y))
```

x	y	grp
1	0	A
2	1	A
3	0	A
4	1	B
5	0	B
6	1	B

grp	mean(x)	mean(y)
A	2.000	0.333
B	5.000	0.667

# dplyr

## Example: Grouped mutation

```
# Create a new data frame
our_df <- data.frame(
  x = 1:6,
  y = c(0, 1),
  grp = rep(c("A", "B"), each = 3)
)
```

```
# Add grp means for x and y
our_df %>%
  group_by(grp) %>%
  mutate(
    x_m = mean(x), y_m = mean(y)
  )
```

x	y	grp
1	0	A
2	1	A
3	0	A
4	1	B
5	0	B
6	1	B

x	y	grp	x_m	y_m
1	0	A	2.000	0.333
2	1	A	2.000	0.333
3	0	A	2.000	0.333
4	1	B	5.000	0.667
5	0	B	5.000	0.667
6	1	B	5.000	0.667

# dplyr

## arrange()

arrange() will sort the rows of a data frame using the inputted columns.

R defaults to starting with the "lowest" (smallest) at the top of the data frame. Use a - in front of the variable's name to reverse sort.

```
# As is  
our_df
```

x	y	grp
1	0	A
2	1	A
3	0	A
4	1	B
5	0	B
6	1	B

```
# Arrang by y, grp, then -x  
our_df %>% arrange(y, grp, -x)
```

x	y	grp
3	0	A
1	0	A
5	0	B
2	1	A
6	1	B
4	1	B

# The tidyverse

There's more! `dplyr` and `tidyr` offer even more...<sup>†</sup>

- Viewing data `glimpse()`, `top_n()`
- Sampling `sample_n()`, `sample_frac()`
- Summaries `first()`, `last()`, `nth()`, `n_distinct()`
- Duplicates `distinct()`
- Missingness `na_if()`, `replace_na()`, `drop_na()`, `fill()`

The folks at RStudio have put together some great cheatsheets, e.g.,

- `dplyr`
- `data import`
- `data wrangling`

<sup>†</sup> And these are only two of the packages in the `tidyverse`.

# Exercises

Some selected exercises from [R for Data Science](#) by Hadley Wickham

1. Exercise [5.2.4.1](#)
2. Exercise [5.3.1.2](#), [5.3.1.3](#), [5.3.1.4](#)
3. Exercise [5.5.2.4](#)
4. Exercise [5.7.1.3](#)

# Table of contents

## Admin

- Today and upcoming

## Workflow

- General
- RStudio
- Related best practies
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## dplyr

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- `arrange`
- `filter()`
- `select()`
- `summarize`
- `summarize()` and `group_by()`
- The `tidyverse`