# A Succinct Intro to R

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# **About**

This book is a short introduction to the R language. It covers the basics of R that are not covered by analysis and visualization guides like R for Data Science. Consider it a quick way to get up to speed on R before diving into the analysis and visualization aspects.

This example-focused guide assumes you are familiar with programming concepts but want to learn the R language. It offers more examples than an "R cheat sheet" without the verbosity of a language spec or an introduction to programming.

### Sources of inspiration

http://alyssafrazee.com/introducing-R.html R for programmers

# Acknowledgements

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# **Prerequisites**

The prerequisites in R for Data Science are the same for this guide:

- 1. Install R for Windows, Mac, or your variant of Linux.
- 2. Install RStudio.
- 3. Run RStudio, and install the tidyverse by typing the following into the RStudio console: install.packages("tidyverse")

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# **Chapter 1**

# Variables, Math, and Comparisons

### 1.1 Help

```
# Hi. This is a comment.
# If you know a function's name, but not how to use it:
?t.test
```

You can also click a function and press F1 to see the help page.

If you don't know the exact name of a function or variable, you can type part of the name and press tab to autocomplete and see some info about it.

### 1.2 Assignment

```
a = 6
b = 8
c = 5.44
d = TRUE
e = "hello world"
e = 'hello world' # same as double quote
```

Note: No semi colon or "var" needed

You'll sometimes see a < 6 instead of a = 6. Just use =. Some people insist on using < . They are silly.

#### 1.3 Names with weird characters

R allows names to have a ., and it's common in many built-in functions. For your own variables, avoid it if possible. If you want to have a space in a name, use an underscore (\_) instead of being ridiculous.

To learn how to access object members, see the lists chapter.

```
this.is.a.variable.name = 1
better_name = 2
```

You can use any weird character like a space in a variable name by surrounding the name with '. Avoid it if you can, but sometimes it's necessary when you load data from a file.

```
`more than four (>4)` = 5
```

#### 1.4 Console Output

Print a in the console

```
a
```

**#>** [1] 6

The [1] is output because it is the first element in an array. For more info, see the arrays chapter.

Another option that's useful inside functions, which don't output most results

```
print(a)
```

**#>** [1] 6

#### 1.5 Math

Arithmetic

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```
z = a + b
z = a - b
z = a * b
z = a / b
z = a %/% b # Integer division
z = a %% b # Note the double % for the modulo operator
z = a \hat{b} \# exponent
1 + 2 - 3 * 4 / 5 ^ 6 # Please excuse my dear aunt, Sally
#> [1] 2.999232
Note: There is no ++ or +=
Functions for floats
floor(4.82)
#> [1] 4
ceiling(4.82)
#> [1] 5
Rounding
round(4.4) # round down
#> [1] 4
round(4.6) # round up
#> [1] 5
round(4.5) # round to even (down)
#> [1] 4
round(5.5) # round to even (up)
#> [1] 6
Other basic math functions
```

```
sin(pi/2) + cos(0) # radians, not degrees

#> [1] 2
log(exp(2)) # base e (like ln) is the default

#> [1] 2
log(100, 10) # use base 10

#> [1] 2
```

# 1.6 Comparisons

```
a == b

#> [1] FALSE
a != b

#> [1] TRUE
a > b

#> [1] FALSE
a < b

#> [1] TRUE
a >= b

#> [1] TRUE
```

#### 1.7 Boolean

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TRUE & FALSE

#> [1] FALSE

TRUE | FALSE

#> [1] TRUE

!TRUE

#> [1] FALSE

There's & and &&. You usually want just &.

# **Chapter 2**

# **Arrays**

In R, arrays are commonly called "vectors". R likes to be special.

### 2.1 Everything is an array

In R, even single values are arrays. That's why you see [1] in front of results: even single values are the first item in an array of length one.

#### 2.2 Creation

c() is some sort of legacy nonsense from the S language. I think it means *character array* even though it can hold things other than characters.

I pronounce it "CAW". Like the sound a crow makes.

Simple array

```
c(8, 6, 7, 5)
```

```
#> [1] 8 6 7 5
```

For multiple types, R converts elements to the most complex type (usually a string). For a real multi-typed collection, see lists

### 2.3 Array generators

R has a cultural fear of complete words. Many terms are shortcuts or acronyms. Repeat

```
rep(0, 4)
#> [1] 0 0 0 0
rep(c(1,2,3), 4) # repeate the whole array
#> [1] 1 2 3 1 2 3 1 2 3 1 2 3
rep(c(1,2,3), each=4) # repeat each item in the array before moving to the next
#> [1] 1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3
Sequence
#increment by 1
4:10
#> [1] 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
#increment by any other value
seq(from=10, to=50, by=5)
#> [1] 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50
Randomly sample from a given distribution
# uniform distribution (not 'run if')
runif(n=5, min=0, max=1)
#> [1] 0.1594836 0.4781883 0.7647987 0.7696877 0.2685485
# normal distribution
rnorm(n=5, mean=0, sd=1)
#> [1] 0.4483395 1.0208067 -0.1378989 0.2103863 -0.6428271
```

# 2.4 Concatenate arrays

An array made up of smaller arrays combines them. R doesn't seem to allow for an array of arrays.

```
x = 1:3

y = c(10, 11)

z = 500

c(x, y, z)
```

```
#> [1] 1 2 3 10 11 500
```

Note: z is technically an array of length 1

Collapse an array into a string

**#>** [1] "1, 2, 3, 4, 5"

```
paste(1:5, collapse=", ")
```

### 2.5 Indexing

```
a = 10:20
```

Get the first value - Indices start at 1, not 0

```
a[1]
```

**#>** [1] 10

2nd and 6th values

```
a[c(2,6)]
```

**#>** [1] 11 15

Exclude the 2nd and 6th values

```
a[c(-2,-6)]

#> [1] 10 12 13 14 16 17 18 19 20

Range of values

a[2:6]

#> [1] 11 12 13 14 15

Any order or number of repetitions

a[c(2, 4, 6, 6, 6)]

#> [1] 11 13 15 15 15

specify values using booleans (keep this in mind for the "Array operations" section)

a[c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE)]
```

### 2.6 Sampling from an Array

[1] 1 1 2 3 2 2 2 2 3 1

#> [1] 10 12 14 16 18 20

Randomly sample from an array. Elements may repeat.

```
sample(1:3, size=10, replace=TRUE)
```

replace means "sample with replacement", so an element can be sampled more

Sample without replacement. Elements will not repeat.

```
sample(1:5, size=4, replace=FALSE)
#> [1] 4 3 1 5
```

Shuffle the order of an array

```
sample(a, size=length(a), replace=FALSE)

#> [1] 15 13 17 20 18 10 12 16 14 11 19

Make sure you have enough elements

sample(1:5, size=10, replace=FALSE)
```

#> Error in sample.int(length(x), size, replace, prob): cannot take a sample larger than the popular

### 2.7 Array constants

The letters and LETTERS constants hold lower and upper case letters

```
letters[1:5]

#> [1] "a" "b" "c" "d" "e"

LETTERS[1:5]

#> [1] "A" "B" "C" "D" "E"
```

### 2.8 Array operations

Many functions in R are vectorized, so they apply to arrays.

```
a * 2

#> [1] 20 22 24 26 28 30 32 34 36 38 40

Compare individual elements

a > 15
```

#> [1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE

Compare each element across arrays

```
a == c(10, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20)
```

Select elements using boolean array

```
a[a>15]
```

```
#> [1] 16 17 18 19 20
```

You can perform operations on the elements of two arrays **even if they are different sizes**. The smaller one wraps around.

```
a = 1:5
b = rep(1, 8)
a + b
```

#> Warning in a + b: longer object length is not a multiple of shorter object #> length

```
#> [1] 2 3 4 5 6 2 3 4
```

### 2.9 Array functions

Length

```
length(20:50)
```

**#>** [1] 31

Reverse

```
rev(1:5)
```

**#>** [1] 5 4 3 2 1

Math

```
min(1:5)

#> [1] 1

max(1:5)

#> [1] 5

sum(1:5)

#> [1] 15
```

# 2.10 Array sorting

Sort

```
a = c(70, 20, 80, 20, 10, 40)
sort(a)

#> [1] 10 20 20 40 70 80

Reverse
sort(a, decreasing=TRUE)

#> [1] 80 70 40 20 20 10

Get the indices of the sorted values
order(a)

#> [1] 5 2 4 6 1 3
```

### 2.11 Test membership

To see if an item is in an array, use %in%

9 %in% 1:10

#> [1] TRUE

9:11 %in% 1:10

#> [1] TRUE TRUE FALSE

# **Chapter 3**

# **Types**

For this chapter, you'll need to load the tidyverse library. More on libraries R is dramatic and gives "conflict" messages that look like errors. Ignore them.

```
library(tidyverse)
```

### 3.1 Numbers

R has integers but defaults all numbers to numeric which is a double precision float.

```
x = 5 \# no \ decimal \ but \ still \ a \ double

y = x + 1
```

Good ol' float point comparison

```
x = .58
y = .08
x - y == 0.5

#> [1] FALSE

round(x-y, digits=1) == round(0.5, digits=1)

#> [1] TRUE
```

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Numeric division returns a double

```
9 / 2 # double precision float

#> [1] 4.5

9 %/% 2 # drop the part after the decimal

#> [1] 4
```

### 3.2 Strings

Single and double quotes are the same in R, but a given string needs the same in the beginning and end

```
"hello world"

#> [1] "hello world"

"hello world'

#> [1] "hello world"

"single quote ' in a string"

#> [1] "single quote ' in a string"

'double quote " in a string'

#> [1] "double quote \" in a string"

Strings are not character arrays in R, so array techniques may not work as expected.

String length

length('hello world') # R sees this is one string, not many charaters

#> [1] 1
```

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```
str_length('hello world') # the actual length of the string

#> [1] 11
Substring
str_sub('hello world', 2, 10)

#> [1] "ello worl"
Comparison
'hello' == "hello"

#> [1] TRUE
```

#### 3.2.1 Strings with special characters

If you want to use special characters in a string, you need to "escape it" by adding \

```
"string with backslashes \ , double quote \", and unicode \ u263A"
```

#> [1] "string with backslashes \\, double quote \", and unicode <U+263A>"

Or you can use the literal r"(text)" which is useful for a Windows path or regular expression

```
r"(c:\hello\world)"

#> [1] "c:\\hello\\world"
```

#### 3.2.2 String Concatenation

Concatenate with a space in between

```
paste('hello', 'world')
#> [1] "hello world"
```

Use a different separator

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```
paste('hello', 'world', sep='_')

#> [1] "hello_world"

No separator

paste('hello', 'world', sep='')

#> [1] "helloworld"

pasteO('hello', 'world') # a shortcut function for no separator

#> [1] "helloworld"

See the strings chapter in R4DS for more.
```

#### 3.3 Dates

See the dates chapter in R4DS.

### 3.4 Finding the type of a variable

```
class(c(5, 'hi', TRUE))
#> [1] "character"
```

### 3.5 Checking the type

What's the type?

```
class(5)
#> [1] "numeric"
```

Remember, arrays are the same as single values.

```
class(1:5)

#> [1] "integer"

Test if numeric
is.numeric(5)

#> [1] TRUE

Test if string
is.character('hi')

#> [1] TRUE

Test if boolean
is.logical(TRUE)
```

# 3.6 Converting and parsing

Parse or convert to numeric

```
as.numeric(c("5", TRUE, 1:3, "abc"))

#> Warning: NAs introduced by coercion

#> [1] 5 NA 1 2 3 NA

To string
as.character(5)

#> [1] "5"
```

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```
format(1/3)

#> [1] "0.3333333"

format(1/3 , digits = 16)

#> [1] "0.333333333333333"

as.character(TRUE)

#> [1] "TRUE"

Convert to boolean. Zero is false. Other numbers are true.

as.logical(0:2)

#> [1] FALSE TRUE TRUE
```

### 3.7 Special types

#### 3.7.1 NA

Missing values are very common in datasets.

```
is.na(c(NA, 1, ""))
```

#> [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE

Any operation performed on NA will also yield NA. So, you can operate on arrays with missing values.

```
c(5, NA, 7) + 1
```

#> [1] 6 NA 8

Be careful about aggregation functions like  $\min()$ ,  $\max()$ , and  $\max()$ . To ignore NAs, use the na.rm parameter.

```
mean(c(5, NA, 7), na.rm=TRUE)

#> [1] 6
```

#### **3.7.2 Factor**

A factor is like an enum in other languages. It encodes strings as integers via a dictionary.

Create an array with many repeating values

```
data = sample(c("hello", "cruel", "world"), 12, replace=TRUE)
data

#> [1] "world" "cruel" "world" "hello" "world" "hello" "cruel" "world" "world"
#> [10] "hello" "cruel" "world"

Make it into a factor

data = factor(data)
data
```

#> [1] world cruel world hello world hello cruel world world hello cruel world
#> Levels: cruel hello world

The array is now an integer array with a dictionary

```
as.numeric(data)

#> [1] 3 1 3 2 3 2 1 3 3 2 1 3

data[1]

#> [1] world

#> Levels: cruel hello world

See the different values in the array
levels(data)
```

For more info, see forcats.

#> [1] "cruel" "hello" "world"

# **Chapter 4**

# **Control Flow**

R is primarily a functional language, so you often don't need control flow yourself. But if you want to, go for it. If you can write some quick code with a for loop, go for it! Tell the R bullies to fuck off. Do what feels comfortable to you.

#### 4.1 If

Simple if

```
a = TRUE
if (a)
  print("a is TRUE")

#> [1] "a is TRUE"

# conditionally run multiple expressions
if (a) {
  print("a is TRUE")
  print("a is TRUE")
}

#> [1] "a is TRUE"

#> [1] "a is TRUE"

#> [1] "a is TRUE"
```

```
x = 5
y = 8
if (x > y) {
  print("x is greater than y")
} else {
  print("x is less than or equal to y")
}
```

#> [1] "x is less than or equal to y"

The ifelse function is the way to handle vector operations. It is like a vectorized version of ? : in C or javascript.

```
x = 1:10
ifelse(x %% 2 == 0, "even", "odd")
```

```
#> [1] "odd" "even" "odd" "even" "odd" "even" "odd" "even" "odd" "even"
```

#### 4.2 While

```
x = runif(1)
while (x < 0.95) {
  x = runif(1)
}</pre>
```

#### 4.3 For

For works like foreach in other languages.

```
a = runif(100, 1, 100)
for (x in a) {
  if (x > 95)
    print(x)
}
```

```
#> [1] 97.59641
#> [1] 97.67089
#> [1] 95.54705
```

# **Chapter 5**

# **Functions**

Basic function

```
foo = function () {
  print("hello world")
}
foo()
```

#> [1] "hello world"

Note: in the function, you need to use print to output

#### 5.1 Parameters

Parameters and return values

```
addOne = function (x) {
  return(x + 1)
}
addOne(5)
```

**#>** [1] 6

The syntax for return is like a function: return(value)

Parameter order can be arbitrary

```
add = function (x, y) {
  return(x + (y*10))
add(x=2, y=10)
#> [1] 102
add(y=10, x=2)
#> [1] 102
Functions are vectorized by default
add0ne(1:5)
#> [1] 2 3 4 5 6
All parameters are pass-by-value because functions are immutable.
a = 5
foo = function (a) {
  a = 6
  print(paste("Inside the function as a parameter: ", a))
print(paste("Before the function: ", a))
#> [1] "Before the function: 5"
foo(1)
#> [1] "Inside the function as a parameter: 6"
print(paste("After the function: ", a))
```

### 5.2 Scope

#> [1] "After the function: 5"

When you assign a value inside a function, it creates a local variable in the scope of the function. You can't access the global variable inside the function. (OK, you can, but the syntax is so obnoxious that I pretend it doesn't exist)

```
a = 5
foo = function () {
    a = 6
    b = 100
    print(paste("Inside the function a =", a))
    print(paste("Inside the function b =", b))
}
print(paste("Before the function a =", a))

#> [1] "Before the function a = 5"

foo()

#> [1] "Inside the function b = 100"

print(paste("After the function a = ", a))

#> [1] "After the function a = 5"

#trying to use 'b' will cause an error because it is out of scope
```

#### 5.3 A function in a function

Might be useful for encapsulation

#> [1] 1e+00 1e+10

```
foo = function (a, b) {
    square = function(x) {
       return(x ^ x)
    }
    print(c(a, b))
    print(c(square(a), square(b)))
}
foo(1, 10)
#> [1] 1 10
```

#### 5.4 Dot dot dot

```
foo = function (a, b) {
  return (a / b)
}
bar = function(a, ...) {
  return(foo(a, ...))
}
bar(50, 10)

#> [1] 5

bar(b = 10, 50) # named works too
#> [1] 5
```

# 5.5 Operators

Operators like + or - or even [ are all functions. To use them like a function, surround them with '.

```
"+"(3, 4)

#> [1] 7

"*"(3, 4)

#> [1] 12

"["(5:10, 2) # you don't need the close bracket (])

#> [1] 6
```

# **Chapter 6**

# Lists

A list is like an array but it can contain multiple types of elements.

#### 6.1 Make a list

```
x = list(
a = 5,
b = 2,
Long_Name = 4.8,
"named with spaces" = 0,
12, # not every element needs a name
a = 20 # names don't have to be unique (but you really should avoid this)
)
```

# 6.2 Accessing elements in a list

Get a tuple of the key and value

```
x['a'] # by key name

#> $a
#> [1] 5
```

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```
x[1] # by index

#> $a
#> [1] 5

Multiple keys

x[c('b', 'a')] # by key name

#> $b
#> [1] 2
#>
#> $a
#> [1] 5
```

Type the list name, then \$, and press tab. R will pop up a list of keys to autocomplete. R uses \$ in the way that other languages use .

```
x$Long_Name
#> [1] 4.8
```

Note: Only the value is returned.

#### 6.3 Brackets for real

Sometimes, R will return the whole list or object even though you asked for just one element. So you need to use double brackets. Why? Because R is snarky and doesn't believe you actually want what you said. So you need to use double brackets to explain to R that you're sure this is what you want.

Double brackets only works for single items, not subsetting.

```
x[['a']] # by key name

#> [1] 5
x[[1]] # by index
#> [1] 5
```

#### 6.4 Names and values

Use the names() function to get and set names. It behaves like an array.

You can modify names by assigning strings to the names function. This is weird. Take a minute to let it sink in.

```
names(x) = c("first", "second", "third", "fourth")
names(x)[3] = "new name"
```

If all elements are the same type, this will get a vector of values

```
myList = list(a=1, b=2, c=3, d=4)
as.vector(unlist(myList))
```

```
#> [1] 1 2 3 4
```

# **Chapter 7**

# Libraries and packages

A library or package is a collection of variables, datasets, functions, and/or operators.

It's called a "package" when being installed install.packages("tidyverse") and a "library" when being loaded for use library(tidyverse).

A library and a package are the same thing, but R people will insist there is a difference. Whenever talking to R people, you've got a 50-50 chance of getting it right. If you get it wrong, you're going to get a short lecture. Just nod, and say "yes, that makes sense, and the distinction is clearly important". If you say anything else, you'll get a much longer more boring lecture.

I define these functions, so I don't have to worry about confusing the two.

```
install.library = install.packages
package = library
```

If you only want to access one function or variable in a library without loading the whole thing, you can use ::

dplyr::band\_instruments

```
#> # A tibble: 3 x 2
#> name plays
#> <chr> <chr> #> 1 John guitar
#> 2 Paul bass
#> 3 Keith guitar
```