New Tools for Data Analysis

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Some New Tools for Working with Data

There are two new tools we will use in working with data for this lab:

Getting fancy with the pipe operator (%>%)

With the tidyverse, we often use the "pipe" operator %>% to send the output from one function into the input of another function. In most cases, this works very simply and it uses the output from the function on the left as the first argument of the function on the right.

For instance, the filter function selects certain rows in a data frame or tibble. I will work here with examples from the built-in storms data frame that lists a subset of hurricanes from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's Atlantic hurricane database. The data includes the positions and attributes of 198 tropical storms, measured every six hours during the lifetime of the storm.

Let's select Hurricane Katrina from 2005 (I specify the year because there were two earlier Katrinas in 1981 and 1999; storm names are re-used periodically unless they are retired because a storm with that name becomes historically important).

```
data(storms)
katrina <- filter(storms, name == "Katrina", year == 2005)</pre>
```

and we can also do the same thing using the pipe operator like this:

```
storms %>% filter(name == "Katrina", year == 2005)
```

What the pipe operator %>% does behind the scenes is take that output of whatever is on the left (the data frame storms) and stick it in front of the arguemnts for the function on the right so the two examples given above are equivalent.

We have been usuing the pipe operator throughout the semester to combine functions. Suppose we want to mutate the storms data frame to add a new column ts_area that is equal to pi * (ts_diameter / 2)^2, where ts_diameter is a column in storms that corresponds to the diameter (in nautical miles) of the area in which winds are tropical storm strength or greater (36 knots), and then we want to select only the data where the tropical storm area is greater than 10,000 square nautical miles, and finally sort the data so the rows of the data frame go from largest to smallest tropical storm area. We can do that as follows:

We use pipes because often they are simpler to understand. If we use the first way in the example above, if we are combining many functions, nesting functions inside other functions becomes very difficult to read and understand. The second way, of using temporary variables is fine, but it can get confusing to have lots of variable names that we use only one time to pass data from one function to another. The third way, using the pipe operator makes it easier to understand how the data is moving through the processing pipeline.

But the way pipe operators work can sometimes get in the way of things we want to do.

First, suppose that I want to send the results of a function into the second or third argument of a subsequent function instead of the first argument? We use the 1m function to calculate the slope and intercept of a trend line that best fits some data. The lm function expects the formula for the line to fit to be the first argument and the data to be the second.

Suppose I want to examine hurricanes from the year 2005 and look for a relationship between the air pressure in the eye and the wind speed, but only during the time when they are classified as hurricanes.

I can do this as follows:

```
hurricanes_2005 = storms %>% filter(status == "hurricane", year == 2005)
lin_fit = lm(wind ~ pressure, data = hurricanes_2005)
```

The lm function looks at the data given by the data argument and then finds the best line that characterizes the linear relationship wind \sim pressure, which means that the wind is a linear function of the pressure (this would be the slope of a graph where wind is on the y-axis and pressure is on the x-axis).

Suppose that I would like to pipe data from the filter function to the lm function. I have a problem because the pipe operator would put the output from filter as the first argument of the lm function, but in lm the first argument is the formula and data is the second. I can do this as follows:

```
lin_fit2 = storms %>% filter(status == "hurricane", year == 2005) %>%
lm(wind ~ pressure, data = .)
```

The pipe operator creates a new variable. (the period), which gets the value of whatever is on the left of the operator. If I don't use the . in the function on the right, the pipe operator invisibly puts . in the first argument so foo(x) %>% bar(y, z) is re-written behind the scenes to become

```
. = foo(x)
bar(., y, z)
```

However, if I want to use the . somewhere else, I can do that explicitly and when the pipe operator looks at the function on its right, it knows not to stick the . in the first argument if I use . in the function call. This, I could write foo(y) %% bar(x, ., z) if I want to substitute the output of foo(y) for the second argument of bar.

Extracting columns from a data frame in a pipeline

If I just want to look at the names of the hurricanes from the storms data frame, I can use the \$ operator:

```
names = storms$name
```

But suppose that I want to filter the storms and then extract the names. What are the names of category 5 hurricanes?

```
cat_5 = storms %>% filter(category == 5)
names = cat_5$name
```

Suppose I want to do this without creating a variable cat_5? I could try

```
# This will give an error
names = storms %>% filter(category == 5)$name
```

but it turns out that this doesn't work because of the way the pipe operators work. To do this, I need to load the magrittr library and use the %\$% operator instead of \$:

```
# This will work
names = storms %>% filter(category == 5) %$% name
```

The %\$% operator works like the pipe operator, but instead of calling a function, it extracts the specified column (in this case, name).

This will be useful for what comes next.

Tidying up results of statistical modeling

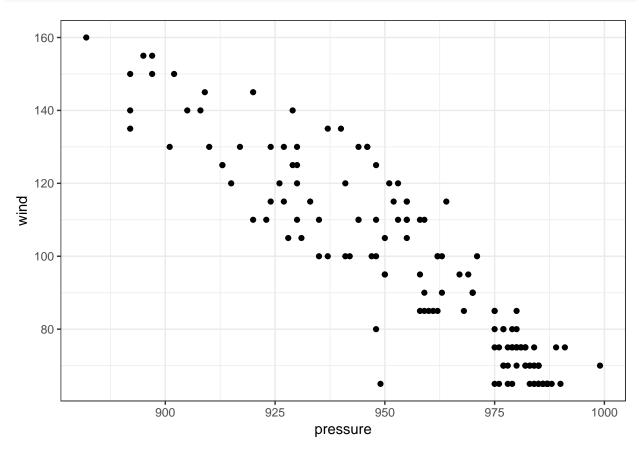
Im is one example of a lot of powerful functions in R that let you analyze data by fitting models. A statistical model is an idealized functional relationship between different attributes of the data (attributes are represented by columns in a data frame). For instance, a linear model idealizes two columns in the data frame in terms of a linear relationship. For instance y~x represents a model

in which y = a + bx. In fact, the data rarely lie exactly along a line, but the 1m function will find the values for a and b that define the line that best relates y to x (specifically this will be the line such that the minimizes the sum of the square of the errors between the actual y and the line: $\sum_i (y_i - (a + bx_i))^2$.

We will be using 1m in this lab to find the rates of change of different parameters in the Kaya identity. For that we want to examine the slopes of the lines identified by 1m. We can do that as follows for the slope that relates wind speed to pressure for a hurricane.

First, let's plot the two variables to see wether there's an apparent relationship. Let's look at hurricanes from 2005:

```
storms %>% filter(status == "hurricane", year == 2005) %>%
ggplot(aes(x = pressure, y = wind)) + geom_point(na.rm = T)
```



The data clearly doesn't lie on a straight line, but there is a clear relationship that lower pressures tend to go along with higher wind speeds and higher pressures with lower wind speeds.

First, let's review how we can fit a relationship between wind speed and pressure for hurricanes from 2005:

```
lin_fit = storms %>% filter(status == "hurricane", year == 2005) %>%
lm(wind ~ pressure, data = .)
```

But how can we get the slope out of the variable lin_fit? Here we use the broom package, which

gives us a tidy function that will tidy up the results of statistical models and put them into a nice data frame:

```
lin_fit = storms %>% filter(status == "hurricane", year == 2005) %>%
           lm(wind \sim pressure, data = .)
tidy(lin_fit)
## # A tibble: 2 x 5
                 estimate std.error statistic p.value
##
     term
    <chr>
##
                    <dbl>
                              <dbl>
                                        <dbl>
                                                 <dbl>
                                         37.4 5.07e-86
## 1 (Intercept)
                  947.
                            25.3
## 2 pressure
                   -0.890
                             0.0263
                                        -33.8 3.43e-79
```

Here, term tells us the parameter: (Intercept) is the intercept (a in the formula above), and pressure is the slope with respect to the pressure (b in the formula above). estimate is the estimate of the parameter (intercept or slope), std.error is the uncertainty about the estimate of the parameter, statistic and p.value are used for statistical hypothesis testing and we will not use them so you can ignore them.

If I just want the slope, I can get that as follows:

```
## [1] -0.8896546
```

Here, filter selects the row where term equals "pressure" and %\$% estimate then selects the estimate column.

We can write this more compactly as follows:

```
## [1] -0.8896546
```

Writing functions

If you are going to do the same calculation many times in R it is often useful to define a function that performs that calculation and then you can simply call the function whenever you want to do the calculation with new values.

For instance, in the "Growth Rates and Trends" section of the assignment for the bottom-up decarbonization lab, we see that if we have a quantity q that is growing at a steady percentage rate r_q each year and we know the value in one year y_0 and want to predict what the value will be at a future year y, we can calculate this as follows:

$$q(y) = q(y_0) \times \exp(r_q \times (y - y_0)).$$

We can write this as an R function that we can call for different quantities and years:

```
growth = function(q_0, rate, start_year, end_year) {
   q_0 * exp(rate * (end_year - start_year))
}
```

A function definition has three parts: First we have the name of the function (growth), then we have the word function, followed by the arguments that the user must supply to the function (q_0 , rate, start_year, end_year), and then the body of the function, between curly braces { ... }. When you call the function, it executes all of the code between the curly braces and returns the last value calculated before the closing brace. Thus, we can call the function like this to estimate the world population in 2050

```
## [1] 11.99146
```

If you don't specify the name of the parameter, the function fills them out in order, so we could also write

```
P_2017 = 7.53 # world population was 7.53 billion

r_P = 0.0141 # growth rate is 1.41% per yer

P_2050 = growth(P_2017, r_P, 2017, 2050)

P_2050
```

[1] 11.99146