Lab 1 Supplement: R Reference Guide

Statistics 139 (special thanks to Julie Vu!)

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Data Structures

There are several **data types** in R: character, numeric, integer, complex, and logical. The most common data types are character and numeric, where numeric specifically refers to real-valued numbers; characters can be thought of as text labels. Integers and complex numbers can be stored as integer and complex values.

Data structures are different formats for storing data: vectors, matrices, lists, data frames, and factors.

Vectors

A **vector** is a one-dimensional collection of values that are all the same data type; in colloquial language, a vector might simply be referred to as a "list". For example, a numeric vector is one in which all elements of the vector are real numbers.

The c() command concatenates (i.e., combines) elements into a vector. The following code creates a numeric vector containing the values 1, 1.5, 2, 2.5, and 3, which is stored as a variable x. The variable y is an integer vector containing the integers 5 through 9. The class() command identifies the data structure of an object.

```
x = c(1, 1.5, 2, 2.5, 3)

y = 5:9

class(x)
```

```
## [1] "numeric" class(y)
```

```
## [1] "integer"
```

When creating a character vector, each element must be contained within quotes to denote it is a character, rather than a variable. Below, the vector \mathbf{a} is a character vector with the elements \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} . However, the vector \mathbf{b} is a numeric vector formed by combining the variables \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} as defined previously.

```
a = c("x", "y")
a
```

```
## [1] "x" "y"
```

```
b = c(x, y)
b
    [1] 1.0 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0
Operations on vectors are performed element by element; for example, if two vectors are added
together, the first element in the resulting vector is the sum of the first elements of the two vectors.
If two vectors are not the same length, the shorter vector will be repeated until it is the same length
as the longer vector; below, note how the 6^{th} element of z is created by summing the 6^{th} element of
the longer vector (b) with the 1^{st} element of the shorter vector (y).
x + y
## [1] 6.0 7.5 9.0 10.5 12.0
x^2
## [1] 1.00 2.25 4.00 6.25 9.00
2*x
## [1] 2 3 4 5 6
z = y + b
z
```

[1] 6.0 7.5 9.0 10.5 12.0 10.0 12.0 14.0 16.0 18.0

#product of all elements in x

prod(x)

[1] 22.5

Vectors are indexed, in that each element's position in the vector is identified by a number. To access specific elements in a vector, use square brackets.

```
z[6]
                   #extracts 6th element of z
## [1] 10
z[1:3]
                   #extracts elements 1 through 3 of z
## [1] 6.0 7.5 9.0
z[c(6, 1:3)]
                   #extracts elements 6 and 1 through 3 of z
## [1] 10.0 6.0 7.5 9.0
                   #extracts all elements of z except for elements 1 and 10
z[-c(1, 10)]
## [1] 7.5 9.0 10.5 12.0 10.0 12.0 14.0 16.0
Other useful vector operations exist; a few examples are provided below.
sum(x)
              #sum of all elements in x
## [1] 10
```

```
min(x) #minimum of all elements in x

## [1] 1

max(x) #maximum of all elements in x

## [1] 3

length(x) #length of x; i.e., number of elements in x

## [1] 5
```

Matrices

##

Α

ВС

D E

A **matrix** is a two-dimensional collection of values that are all the same data type. The dimensions of a matrix are its number of rows and number of columns.

There are various ways to construct a matrix. One is to bind together vectors by either the columns with cbind() or by the rows with rbind(). Note how the columns in the first matrix are automatically labeled with x and y, and the same for the rows in the second matrix. Row and column names can also be explicitly specified.

```
matrix.a = cbind(x, y)
matrix.a
##
          x y
## [1,] 1.0 5
## [2,] 1.5 6
## [3,] 2.0 7
## [4,] 2.5 8
## [5,] 3.0 9
matrix.b = rbind(x, y)
matrix.b
     [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
          1.5
## x
        1
                  2 2.5
          6.0
                  7 8.0
rownames(matrix.a) = c("A", "B", "C", "D", "E")
matrix.a
##
       х у
## A 1.0 5
## B 1.5 6
## C 2.0 7
## D 2.5 8
## E 3.0 9
colnames(matrix.b) = c("A", "B", "C", "D", "E")
matrix.b
```

```
## x 1 1.5 2 2.5 3
## y 5 6.0 7 8.0 9
```

To create a matrix with the matrix() command, specify a vector containing the elements of the matrix, the number of rows, and the number of columns. By default, the matrix is filled by column, with the first column being filled top to bottom before moving to the next column. To fill the matrix by row, with the first row being filled left to right before moving down to the next row, specify byrow = TRUE.

```
matrix.c = matrix(1:9, nrow = 3, ncol = 3, byrow = FALSE)
matrix.c
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
##
## [1,]
            1
                  4
            2
                  5
                        8
## [2,]
## [3,]
            3
                  6
                        9
matrix.d = matrix(1:9, nrow = 3, ncol = 3, byrow = TRUE)
matrix.d
##
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]
                  2
                        3
            1
## [2,]
            4
                  5
                        6
            7
                        9
## [3,]
                  8
Operations on matrices are also performed element by element.<sup>1</sup>
matrix.c + matrix.d
##
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]
            2
                  6
                       10
## [2,]
            6
                 10
                       14
## [3,]
           10
                 14
                       18
matrix.c*matrix.d
##
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]
            1
                  8
                       21
## [2,]
            8
                 25
                       48
## [3,]
           21
                 48
                       81
matrix.c<sup>2</sup>
##
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]
                 16
            1
                       49
## [2,]
            4
                 25
                       64
## [3,]
                 36
                       81
2*matrix.c
##
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]
            2
                  8
                       14
## [2,]
            4
                 10
                       16
```

¹Matrix multiplication, in the matrix algebra sense, must be specified with the operator %*%.

```
## [3,] 6 12 18
```

As with vectors, specific elements of a matrix are indexed and can be accessed using square bracket notation.

```
matrix.c[1, 2]
                     #extracts the element in row 1, column 2 of matrix.c
## [1] 4
                     #extracts the elements in row 1, columns 1 and 2 of matrix.c
matrix.c[1, 1:2]
## [1] 1 4
matrix.c[1, ]
                     #extracts all elements in row 1 of matrix.c
## [1] 1 4 7
matrix.c[, 1]
                     #extracts all elements in column 1 of matrix.c
## [1] 1 2 3
matrix.c[, -1]
                     #extracts all elements in all columns of matrix.c except col 1
##
        [,1] [,2]
## [1,]
           4
                7
## [2,]
           5
                8
## [3,]
                9
           6
```

Data Frames

A **list** is a one-dimensional collection of values that are different data types; i.e., a vector that contains more than one data type. This is a useful format for outputting function results; lists will be seen later on beginning in Unit 4. In this course, creating lists will not be necessary.

```
list(a, b)

## [[1]]

## [1] "x" "y"

##

## [[2]]

## [1] 1.0 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0
```

Just as a matrix is the two-dimensional analog of a vector, a **data frame** is the two-dimensional analog of a list. A data frame contains vectors of the same length, where the vectors can be of different types. This is often the most convenient format for storing a statistical dataset.

The following code creates a small data frame called patient.info from four vectors: id, weight, gender, and age.

```
id = c("A", "B", "C", "D", "E")
weight = c(210, 140, 120, 180, 160)
gender = c("male", "female", "female", "male", "male")
age = c(22, 45, 35, 50, 70)
```

```
patient.info = data.frame(id, weight, gender, age)
patient.info
##
     id weight gender age
## 1
           210
                 male
## 2 B
           140 female 45
           120 female
## 3
     C
## 4
     D
           180
                 male 50
## 5
     Ε
           160
                 male
                       70
```

Square bracket notation applies to data frames just as for matrices. With data frames, a specific column can be accessed using the dollar sign symbol with the column name.

```
patient.info[, 2]  #elements in second column of patient.info

## [1] 210 140 120 180 160

patient.info[1, 2]  #first element of second column of patient.info

## [1] 210

patient.info$weight  #elements in weight column of patient.info

## [1] 210 140 120 180 160

patient.info$weight[1]  #first element in weight column of patient.info

## [1] 210
```

Square bracket notation can also be used with row and column names (specified in quotation marks), rather than the numerical indices.

The default in R when creating data frames is to convert any character vectors to factors. A **factor** is a specific data structure for values that come from a fixed set of possible values, and is ideal for storing categorical data. When **patient.info** was created, the character vector **gender** was converted into a factor variable with two levels, **female** and **male**. To prevent a character vector from being converted into a factor, use I() to indicate that the object should remain as-is.²

```
class(patient.info$gender)

## [1] "character"

levels(patient.info$gender)

## NULL

class(patient.info$id)

## [1] "character"

patient.info = data.frame(I(id), weight, gender, age) #rebuild patient.info

class(patient.info$id) #id remains a character vector
```

²In the *RStudio* interface, the data types of objects are visible in the Environment tab. To view the data types of objects within a data frame, select the blue arrow to the left of the name of the data frame.

```
## [1] "AsIs"
```

Creation of factor variables are not discussed here.

Some useful commands for viewing features of a dataframe are shown below.

```
nrow(patient.info) #number of rows in patient.info

## [1] 5
ncol(patient.info) #number of columns in patient.info

## [1] 4
```

Numerical and Graphical Summaries

Numerical Summaries

The following code demonstrates several functions that produce numerical summaries.

The summary() command applied to a (non-character) vector returns the minimum, first quartile, median, mean, third quartile, and maximum values of the vector. If there are any missing values, which R denotes as the value NA, the number of missing values is also reported.

The quantile() command returns quantiles corresponding to the specified probabilities. To produce the first quartile (i.e., the 25^{th} percentile), specify probs = 0.25; several probabilities can also be specified.

Functions like mean(), median(), IQR(), etc. will either return NA or an error message if the vector contains missing values. To specify that the missing values should be omitted before the summary is computed, specify na.rm = TRUE. This is shown below with the body.size variable.

```
frog=read.csv("data/frog.csv")
summary(frog$clutch.volume)
##
      Min. 1st Qu.
                    Median
                               Mean 3rd Qu.
                                               Max.
##
     151.4
             609.6
                     831.8
                              882.5
                                     1096.5
                                             2630.3
#range, minimum, maximum
range(frog$clutch.volume)
## [1] 151.3561 2630.2680
min(frog$clutch.volume)
## [1] 151.3561
max(frog$clutch.volume)
## [1] 2630.268
#median, quantiles
median(frog$clutch.volume)
```

```
quantile(frog$clutch.volume, probs = 0.25)
##
        25%
## 609.5773
quantile(frog$clutch.volume, probs = c(0.25, 0.50, 0.75))
##
         25%
                    50%
                               75%
##
    609.5773
              831.7638 1096.4782
#measures of spread
IQR(frog$clutch.volume)
## [1] 486.9009
var(frog$clutch.volume)
## [1] 143680.9
sd(frog$clutch.volume)
## [1] 379.0527
#effect of missing values
summary(frog$body.size)
##
                                                 Max.
                                                          NA's
      Min. 1st Qu.
                     Median
                                Mean 3rd Qu.
##
     3.631
             4.677
                      5.248
                                                           302
                               5.096
                                       5.623
                                                6.166
mean(frog$body.size)
## [1] NA
mean(frog$body.size, na.rm = TRUE)
## [1] 5.096367
The correlation between two variables x and y can be calculated using cor(x, y). To calculate a
correlation after dropping missing values, use the argument use = "complete.obs".
cor(frog$body.size, frog$clutch.volume, use = "complete.obs")
```

Graphical Summaries

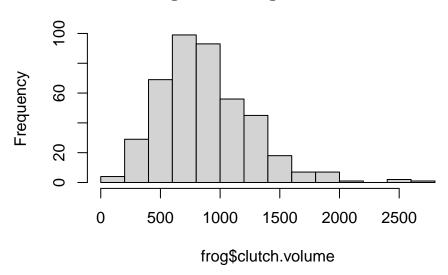
[1] 0.6755435

Simple plots can be created with very few specifications, since R will make default choices about marking data points, labeling axes, etc. The full details of optional plotting arguments are explained in the R help files and in various freely accessible resources online.

To create a histogram from the data values in a vector \mathbf{x} , use $\mathbf{hist}(\mathbf{x})$. The basic plot will label the x-axis with the name of the vector, \mathbf{x} . The optional arguments allow for control over how many bins are used, the range of values for the y-axis, the axis labels, plot title, etc.



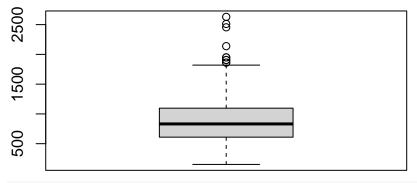
Histogram of frog\$clutch.volume



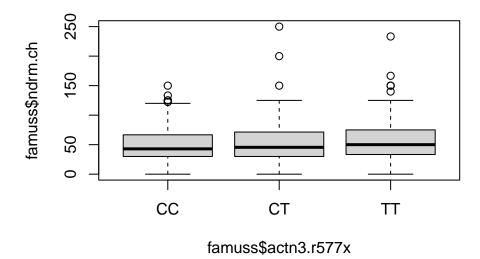
Similarly, to create a boxplot from the data values in a vector \mathbf{x} , use boxplot(\mathbf{x}). The syntax for creating a side-by-side boxplot depends on how the data are organized. To plot the distribution of a variable y separately by the groups defined by a variable x, use boxplot($y \sim x$). To simply plot the distributions of variables v and w next to each other, use boxplot(v, w).

```
#load famuss data
famuss = read.csv("data/famuss.csv")

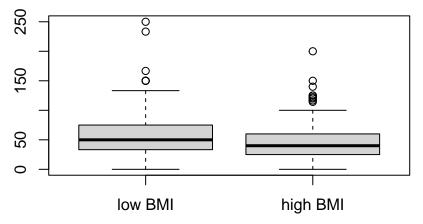
#basic boxplot: single variable
boxplot(frog$clutch.volume)
```



```
#basic boxplot: y ~ x
boxplot(famuss$ndrm.ch ~ famuss$actn3.r577x)
```

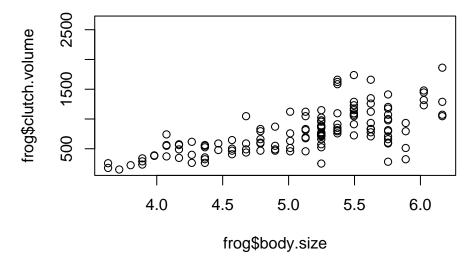


To plot the distributions of two variables v and w in a side-by-side boxplot, use boxplot(v, w). The boxplots can be labeled using the optional argument names. The following code produces a side-by-side boxplot of change in non-dominant arm strength for participants with BMI less than 25 and with BMI greater than or equal to 25.



To create a scatterplot of the variable y and the variable x, where y is on the y-axis and x is on the x-axis, use either plot($y \sim x$) or plot(x, y).

```
#basic scatterplot
plot(frog$clutch.volume ~ frog$body.size)
```



Subsetting Data

The subset() command is one way to create subsets of vectors, matrices, or dataframes that meet specific conditions. The conditions are specified using logical operators that express "less than", "greater than or equal to", "exactly equal to", etc.

The following code creates subsets from the famuss data that contain only the rows (i.e., participants) that are older than 27, 27 or younger, or 27 years old. The \leq and \geq denote \leq and \geq . Note that two equal signs (==) are required to specify exactly equal to.

The subset() command can also be used on character vectors like sex.

```
famuss.older = subset(famuss, famuss$age > 27)
range(famuss.older$age)
## [1] 28 40
famuss.younger = subset(famuss, famuss$age <= 27)</pre>
range(famuss.younger$age)
## [1] 17 27
famuss.27 = subset(famuss, famuss$age == 27)
range(famuss.27$age)
## [1] 27 27
famuss.females = subset(famuss, famuss$sex == "Female")
summary(famuss.females$sex)
##
      Length
                 Class
                             Mode
##
         353 character character
```

Subsetting can also be done through bracket notation and logical operators. The following code creates a subset of males, a subset of males over 25, and a subset of individuals who are either male or over 25. The logical "and" is denoted by & and the logical "or" is denoted by |. Note that in the last subset, males of any age are included, while females must be older than 25.

```
famuss.males = famuss[famuss$sex == "Male", ]
summary(famuss.males$sex)
##
      Length
                            Mode
                 Class
##
         242 character character
famuss.males.and.over25 = famuss[famuss$sex == "Male" & famuss$age > 25, ]
range(famuss.males.and.over25$age); summary(famuss.males.and.over25$sex)
## [1] 26 40
##
                 Class
                            Mode
      Length
##
          82 character character
famuss.males.or.over25 = famuss[famuss$sex == "Male" | famuss$age > 25, ]
females = famuss.males.or.over25[famuss.males.or.over25$sex == "Female", ]
range(females$age)
## [1] 26 40
```

Tables

The table() command produces a 2×2 contingency table of counts at each combination of factor levels for two specified variables. Running table(x, y) results in a table where x specifies the rows and y specifies the columns. The addmargins() command prints the row and column sums on the sides of the tables.

```
#load data
LEAP = read.csv("data/LEAP.csv")
#simple table
table(LEAP$treatment.group, LEAP$overall.V60.outcome)
##
##
                         FAIL OFC PASS OFC
##
     Peanut Avoidance
                               36
                                        227
                                5
     Peanut Consumption
                                        262
##
#0I Biostat Table 1.2
addmargins(table(LEAP$treatment.group, LEAP$overall.V60.outcome))
##
##
                         FAIL OFC PASS OFC Sum
##
     Peanut Avoidance
                               36
                                        227 263
                                5
##
     Peanut Consumption
                                        262 267
                               41
                                        489 530
##
     Sum
```

Using table() on a single factor produces the counts in each level; using summary() on a factor has the same result.

```
table(LEAP$treatment.group)
```

##

```
##
     Peanut Avoidance Peanut Consumption
##
                   263
                                       267
summary(LEAP$treatment.group)
##
      Length
                  Class
                             Mode
##
         530 character character
```

Barplots

50

CC

CT

TT

The command prop.table() converts a table of counts to a table of proportions. To produce a bar plot, apply barplot() to the table. A bar plot of counts can also be produced by directly applying plot() to a categorical variable; this method is shown in the lab solutions.

```
table(famuss\sactn3.r577x)
##
    CC
##
        CT
            TT
## 173 261 161
prop.table(table(famuss$actn3.r577x))
##
##
          CC
                     CT
                                TT
## 0.2907563 0.4386555 0.2705882
#0I Biostat Figure 1.25
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
barplot(table(famuss$actn3.r577x))
barplot(prop.table(table(famuss$actn3.r577x)))
250
                                 3
                                 0
50
                                 0.2
                                 0.1
```

A segmented bar plot is produced from applying barplot() to a contingency table of counts. A standardized segmented bar plot is produced from applying barplot() to a contingency table of proportions. When using prop.table() on a contingency table, specify 2 to calculate column proportions; specify 1 to calculate row proportions.

CT

TT

CC

0.0

```
addmargins(table(LEAP$overall.V60.outcome, LEAP$treatment.group))
##
##
              Peanut Avoidance Peanut Consumption Sum
```

```
##
     FAIL OFC
                             36
                                                  5
                                                     41
                                                262 489
##
     PASS OFC
                            227
##
                            263
                                                267 530
     Sum
prop.table(table(LEAP$overall.V60.outcome, LEAP$treatment.group), 2)
##
##
              Peanut Avoidance Peanut Consumption
##
     FAIL OFC
                     0.13688213
                                         0.01872659
##
     PASS OFC
                     0.86311787
                                         0.98127341
#0I Biostat Figure 1.3
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
barplot(table(LEAP$overall.V60.outcome, LEAP$treatment.group))
barplot(prop.table(table(LEAP$overall.V60.outcome, LEAP$treatment.group), 2))
250
50
50
Peanut Avoidance
                                 Peanut Avoidance
```

Logical Values

A logical vector contains elements that can take on either of two pre-defined values: TRUE or FALSE. Logical vectors are typically created from the use of logical operators. The following code repeats the creation of famuss.males, but explicitly shows how the condition famuss\$sex == "Male" is a logical vector specifying which rows to extract from famuss. R extracts the rows with indices that have value TRUE in the logical vector; i.e., rows for which the variable sex has value "Male".

```
male.rows = (famuss$sex == "Male")
head(male.rows)

## [1] FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE

class(male.rows)

## [1] "logical"

famuss.males = famuss[male.rows, ]  #vector stored as male.rows
famuss.males = famuss[famuss$sex == "Male", ]  #syntax used in Lab 1 Notes
```

In various programming contexts, it can sometimes be useful to express a logical vector as a numeric vector. R always associates the logical value TRUE with the numeric value 1, and the logical value FALSE with the numeric value 0. This idea will be revisited in later chapters.

```
male.rows.numeric = as.numeric(famuss$sex == "Male")
head(male.rows.numeric)

## [1] 0 1 0 0 0 0

class(male.rows.numeric)

## [1] "numeric"
```

The tapply() Function

The tapply() function allows a specific function to be applied to a matrix; the function can be a predefined R function like mean() or a user-defined function. The power of tapply() is that it allows for a vector to be split into groups, with the function applied to each group.

The function has the generic structure

```
tapply(y, x, FUN)
```

where y is the vector of data, x is the grouping variable, and FUN is the function of interest.

The following code shows how to calculate the mean change in non-dominant arm strength for each genotype group in the FAMuSS data.