Lecture 2: An overview of R: part I

This lecture gives an overview of R and introduces some basic characteristics of R. This includes

- 1. Basic computations in R
- 2. How to create an object
- 3. Data types
- 4. How to generate data
- 5. Operators
- 6. Learn packages for EPIB 607

2.1 Basic computations in R

```
In [1]:
2+3
5
In [2]:
2*3
6
In [3]:
log(4)
           # Natural log
1.38629436111989
In [4]:
exp(2)
7.38905609893065
In [5]:
2e3
2000
```

```
In [6]:
2^3; 8^(1/3)
8
2
In [7]:
sqrt(4)
```

2.2 Create an R object

We cannot always work with numbers by copy-paste. Create R objects to store the numbers -> data.

Not only numbers but also text, date, etc. are data that R can use.

```
In [8]:

x <- 5; x

5

In [9]:

y <- z <- 6
y
z

6

6

In [10]:

peak.no <- 21
course = "EPIB 613"
"Yi" -> me  # <- , = and -> are equivalent when we assign values
cat(c(me, "teaches", peak.no, "students in", course))
```

Yi teaches 21 students in EPIB 613

Calculations with stored R objects

Example: calculate the number of students left in Yi's class.

Don't worry about cat(). If you do, run ?cat in R.

```
In [11]:
```

```
peak.no <- no.students <- 21
no.quit <- 3
no.stay <- peak.no - no.quit
no.stay</pre>
```

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Advantages:

- Most importantly, re-use the values by simply calling the the object. Reproducibility!
- Can use variable names that make sense to yourself Very clear and can be easily edited later.

Note:

Whether or not to store data in a named R object is totally up to you.

R is case sensitive.

```
In [12]:
```

```
Course <- "EPIB 601" course
```

'EPIB 613'

The old value will be replaced by the new one.

```
In [13]:
print(no.students)

[1] 21

In [14]:
no.students <- no.stay
print(no.students)

[1] 18</pre>
```

Rule for creating an object:

- Variables can be alphabetic or alphanumeric, but not numeric (you are not allowed to create numeric variables).
- There are no restrictions to the length of the variable name.
- Do NOT assign the single letter names c, g, t, C, D, F, I and T as they are default names that are used by R. For instance, T and F are abbreviations for TRUE and FALSE in logical operations. We should avoid using names that are already used by the system.

2.3 Data types and structures

2.3.0 Data types

```
In [15]:
number <- c(1, 2, 3)
class(number)</pre>
```

'numeric'

```
In [16]:
```

```
\# As in most programming languages, there are integers and floating-point number s in R class(5L)
```

'integer'

```
In [17]:
```

```
# Double precision floating-point numbers in R
# is.double() checks whether an object is a double precision floating-point numb
er
is.double(5); is.double(5L)
```

TRUE

FALSE

```
In [18]:
```

```
# How precise is double precision?
options(digits = 22) # show more decimal points
print(1/3)
options(digits = 7) # reset to default
```

```
In [19]:
letters <- letters[1:3]; print(letters)</pre>
class(letters)
[1] "a" "b" "c"
'character'
In [20]:
logical <- c(TRUE, FALSE)</pre>
class(logical)
'logical'
In [21]:
factor <- as.factor(letters[1:3]); print(factor)</pre>
class(factor)
[1] a b c
Levels: a b c
'factor'
```

2.3.1* Scalar

Not considered as a stand-alone data structure because it is basically a vector of length 1.

```
In [22]:
x < -5; x
5
```

2.3.2 Vector

In R, we work with vectors.

```
In [23]:
```

```
# As a big fan of winter sports, I hope that...
snow.days.per.week.mtl \leftarrow c(7, 7, 7, 7)
print(snow.days.per.week.mtl)
```

```
[1] 7 7 7 7
```

```
In [24]:
# We can add names to the vector for each entry
names(snow.days.per.week.mtl) <- rep("Jan 2018", 4)</pre>
print(snow.days.per.week.mtl)
Jan 2018 Jan 2018 Jan 2018 Jan 2018
                 7
                           7
                                     7
       7
In [25]:
# But the names will not affect calculations.
sum(snow.days.per.week.mtl)
28
2.3.3 Matrix
In [26]:
mymatrix1 <- matrix(c(3:14), nrow = 4, byrow = TRUE)</pre>
print(mymatrix1)
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
        3
              4
              7
[2,]
        6
                   8
[3,]
        9
             10
                  11
       12
             13
                  14
[4,]
In [27]:
mymatrix2 <- matrix(c(3:14), nrow = 4, byrow = FALSE)</pre>
print(mymatrix2)
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
        3
              7
                  11
[1,]
[2,]
        4
              8
                  12
[3,]
              9
                  13
        6
             10
[4,]
                  14
```

In [28]:

```
rownames <- c("row1", "row2", "row3", "row4")
colnames <- c("col1", "col2", "col3")
rownames(mymatrix1) <- rownames
colnames(mymatrix1) <- colnames
print(mymatrix1)</pre>
```

```
col1 col2 col3
        3
             4
row1
             7
                   8
row2
        6
       9
            10
                  11
row3
row4
       12
            13
                  14
```

2.3.4 Array

Mathematically, scalars, vectors and matrices are all arrays of different dimensions

- Scalar: 1 x 1 array
- Vector of length k: 1 x k array
- Matrix of dimension m x n: m x n array

R treats every array below 3 dimensions differently but they are essentially not very different. Python treats them in the same way.

Now let's look at a 3-dimensional array.

In [29]:

```
myarray <- array(1:24, dim = c(4,3,2))
print(myarray)</pre>
```

```
, , 1
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
             5
[1,]
        1
[2,]
        2
             6
                  10
      3 7
4 8
[3,]
                  11
[4,]
                  12
, , 2
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
```

```
[1,]
        13
              17
                    21
              18
                    22
[2,]
        14
        15
              19
                    23
[3,]
[4,]
        16
              20
                    24
```

A demonstration of high dimensional arrays - why is it useful?

Fake data:

• Disease: 1=Yes, 0=No

• Drug: 1=Exposed, 0=Unexposed

BMI category: 1,2,3Age category: 1,2,3,4

In [30]:

```
# Don't worry about the data generating process.
set.seed(613) # Make random numbers generated from sample() reproducible.
# Randomly assign ~20% of patients to have disease.
disease <- sample(c(0,1), size = 100, replace = TRUE, prob = c(0.2, 0.8))
# Randomly assign ~40% of patients to take drug.
drug <- sample(c(0,1), size = 100, replace = TRUE, prob = c(0.4, 0.6))
bmi.cat <- sample(1:3, size = 100, replace = TRUE) # Randomly assign BMI categor ies
age.cat <- sample(1:4, size = 100, replace = TRUE) # Randomly assign age categor ies
data <- data.frame(drug, disease, bmi.cat, age.cat) # Make our data frame head(data)

# The table below shows the first 6 rows of the fake dataset.
# This is a typical dataset you will see in Epidemiology.
# Each row is a patient, with their own information.
# Goal is to assess the association between disease and drug (drug safety).</pre>
```

A data.frame: 6 × 4

drug disease	bmi.cat	age.cat
--------------	---------	---------

<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>	<int></int>	<int></int>
1	0	3	3
1	0	3	4
1	1	2	1
0	0	1	2
0	1	3	2
1	0	2	1

```
# By tabulating the data, we can assess the association (EPIB 601 material).
# If we only tabulate drug and disease, we get a 2x2 table, which is a matrix or
a 2-dimensional array.
# 1st dimension: drug, 2nd dimension: disease
table(data[c("drug", "disease")])
    disease
drug 0 1
   0 11 31
   1 19 39
In [32]:
# This may not be enough, we want to see how people with different BMI may diffe
r (confounder, also 601 material).
# We now need a 2x2x3 table, which is a 3-dimensional array.
# 1st dimension: drug, 2nd dimension: disease, 3rd dimension: bmi.cat
table(data[c("drug", "disease", "bmi.cat")])
, , bmi.cat = 1
    disease
drug
      0
         1
      3
   1
     5 15
, , bmi.cat = 2
    disease
drug 0 1
      3 12
   1 8 11
, , bmi.cat = 3
    disease
drug 0
        1
   0
     5 12
      6 13
   1
In [33]:
# Further include age to see how age category comes into the association
# We now need a 2x2x3x4 table, which is a 4-dimensional array.
# 1st dimension: drug, 2nd dimension: disease, 3rd dimension: bmi.cat, 4th dimen
sion: age.cat
# table(data)
```

In [31]:

2.3.5 Data frames

Data frame is the most commonly used member of the data types family in R. A data frame is a generalization of a matrix, in which different columns may have different modes. All elements of any column must have the same mode, i.e. all numeric or all factor, or all character.

In [34]:

```
names <- c("Lucy", "John", "Mark", "Candy")</pre>
score <-c(67, 56, 87, 91)
pass \leftarrow \mathbf{c}(T, F, T, T)
df <- data.frame(names, score, pass); print(df)</pre>
  names score pass
1
  Lucy
            67
                TRUE
2
  John
            56 FALSE
3
  Mark
            87 TRUE
4 Candy
            91
                TRUE
In [35]:
```

```
str(df) # checking the structure of an object
```

```
'data.frame': 4 obs. of 3 variables:
$ names: Factor w/ 4 levels "Candy", "John", ...: 3 2 4 1
$ score: num 67 56 87 91
$ pass : logi TRUE FALSE TRUE TRUE
```

Create these data structures

- C
- matrix
- array
- data.frame
- ...

Conversion between these data structures

- as.vector
- as.matrix
- as.array
- as.data.frame
- ...

Check whether your R object has certain data structure

- is.vector
- is.matrix
- is.array
- is.data.frame
- ...

Exercise

- 1. Create your own vectors, matrices, arrays and data frames
- 2. Convert your data into different shapes
 - What will you get if you try to make your higher dimensional objects into a vector
 - How to re-format you vector into a matrix in your desired order
 - What will you get if you try to convert your data frame (with columns of different data types) into a matrix?

2.3.6 List

In above data structures, data types and dimensions have to match. But not in lists.

```
In [36]:
mylist <- list("Red", factor(c("a", "b")), c(21,32,11), TRUE)</pre>
print(mylist)
[[1]]
[1] "Red"
[[2]]
[1] a b
Levels: a b
[[3]]
[1] 21 32 11
[[4]]
[1] TRUE
In [37]:
str(mylist)
List of 4
 $ : chr "Red"
 $ : Factor w/ 2 levels "a", "b": 1 2
 $ : num [1:3] 21 32 11
 $ : logi TRUE
2.3.7* Factors
Factor is considered as a data structure - among vectors, matrices, etc.
In my opinion, factor is a data type.
Doesn't really matter.
```

In [38]:

ch.letter <- letters[1:3]</pre>

print(ch.letter)

```
[1] "a" "b" "c"

In [39]:
class(ch.letter)
'character'
```

```
In [40]:
fac.letter <- as.factor(letters[1:3])</pre>
print(fac.letter)
# Note the additional 'Levels: a b c' in the output
[1] a b c
Levels: a b c
In [41]:
class(fac.letter)
# Should factor be considered as a data structure or a data type?
'factor'
2.4 How to generate data
Combinations of the following
 • c()
 • seq()
 • rep()
 sequence()
In [42]:
C(-1, 5.44, 100, 34123)
-1 5.44 100 34123
In [43]:
-1:10 # Integers, by increments of 1.
-1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
In [44]:
seq(from = 0.33, to = 9.33, by = 3)
0.33 3.33 6.33 9.33
```

```
In [45]:
seq(from = 0, to = 1, length = 5)
0 0.25 0.5 0.75 1
In [46]:
rep(1.2, times = 5)
1.2 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.2
In [47]:
rep(c("six", "one", "three"), times = 2)
'six' 'one' 'three' 'six' 'one' 'three'
In [48]:
c(6, 1, 3, rep(seq(from = 3, to = 5, by = 0.5), times = 2))
6 1 3 3 3.5 4 4.5 5 3 3.5 4 4.5 5
In [49]:
sequence(5)
1 2 3 4 5
In [50]:
sequence(c(6, 1, 3))
1 2 3 4 5 6 1 1 2 3
```

Now we can group these vectors into higher dimensional data structures we just learned.

Exercise

- 1. Make a character variable of 5 student names a, b, c, d, e
- 2. Make a numeric variable of their EPIB 607 scores 80, 99, 55, 70, 84
- 3. Make a numeric variable of their EPIB 613 scores 85, 90, 62, 60, 88
- 4. Make a factor variable with two levels 'EPIB607' and 'EPIB613'
- 5. Make two numeric variable of their curved scores $\sqrt{score} \times 10$
- 6. Make a logical variable of their pass/fail situation before curving
- 7. Make a logical variable of their pass/fail situation after curving
- 8. Put the four numeric vectors into a matrix, each row is a student
- 9. Assemble all information into a data frame, each row is a student, with columns indicating the course, score before curving, score after curving, pass/fail. Each student will have two rows.

2.5 Operators

2.5.1 Arithmetic operators

Vector operations

In [51]:

2 64 32

```
a <- c(1, 8, 8)
b <- c(2, 8, 4)

In [52]:
a+1 # here 1 is considered as a vector (1, 1, 1)
2 9 9

In [53]:
a+b

3 16 12

In [54]:
a*b
```

```
a^2
1 64 64
Operations between corresponding entries.
Matrix operations
In [56]:
c \leftarrow matrix(c(1,2,3,4), nrow = 2, byrow = T)
d \le matrix(c(5,6,7,8), nrow = 2, byrow = F)
print(c); print(d)
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
        1
         3
[2,]
  [,1] [,2]
[1,]
        5
[2,] 6
               8
In [57]:
c+1
Α
matrix:
2 \times 2
of type
dbl
2 3
4 5
In [58]:
c+d
Α
matrix:
2 \times 2 of
type dbl
  9
```

In [55]:

9 12

```
c*d
A matrix:
2 \times 2 of
type dbl
  5 14
 18 32
In [60]:
c^2
Α
matrix:
2 \times 2 of
type dbl
     4
9 16
Again, operations between corresponding entries.
Exercise
Try taking the sum of a matrix and a vector, what does R do it?
(Optional) If you know linear algebra - cross product, dot product, matrix transpose, diagnol,
determinant, rank, etc...
In [61]:
a %*% b
Α
matrix:
1 \times 1
of
type
dbl
  98
```

In [59]:

```
a %o% b
A matrix: 3 \times
3 of type dbl
 2 8 4
16 64 32
16 64 32
In [63]:
c %*% d
A matrix:
2 \times 2 of
type dbl
17 23
39 53
In [64]:
c; t(c)
Α
matrix:
2 × 2
of type
dbl
1 2
3 4
Α
matrix:
2 × 2
of type
dbl
1 3
2 4
```

In [62]:

```
diag(c)
1 4
In [66]:
det(c)
-2
2.5.2 Logical operators
In [67]:
# Recall vector a and b from above.
print(a); print(b)
[1] 1 8 8
[1] 2 8 4
In [68]:
a == b # Equal or not?
FALSE TRUE FALSE
In [69]:
a != b # Not equal?
TRUE FALSE TRUE
In [70]:
a > b
FALSE FALSE TRUE
In [71]:
a \le b
TRUE TRUE FALSE
```

In [65]:

```
In [72]:
# And
a; b
a>5 & b>5
1 8 8
2 8 4
FALSE TRUE FALSE
In [73]:
# Or
a > = 5 | b > = 5
FALSE TRUE TRUE
In [74]:
"ABC" == "ABC"
TRUE
In [75]:
"ABC" == "abc"
FALSE
In [76]:
TRUE + TRUE + FALSE # True = 1, False = 0.
```

2.6 R packages: ggformula and mosaic

For EPIB 607

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