RStudio Lab Codes and Functions

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Loading, saving and viewing data	
data(): Loads and displays a pre-loaded data file from RStudio.	
Example:	
data(cdc)	
read.csv(): Imports data from a .csv formatted file into R.	
Example:	
read.csv("Time Use.csv")	
View(): Displays the data as a spreadsheet in a new tab.	
Example:	
View(cdc)	
view(cac)	
head(): Prints the first 6 values or rows of data in the console.	
Examples:	
# Observations of a dataset	
head(cdc)	
# Observations of a variable	
<pre>head(~gender, data = cdc)</pre>	
tail(): Prints the last 6 values or rows of data in the console.	
Examples:	
# Observations of a dataset	
tail(cdc)	

```
# Observations of a variable
tail(~gender, data = cdc)
dim(): Prints the number of rows and columns of a data file.
Example:
dim(cdc)
nrow(): Prints the number of rows (observations) in a data file.
Example:
nrow(cdc)
ncol(): Prints the number of columns (variables) in a data file.
Example:
ncol(cdc)
length(): Prints the number of elements in a vector.
Example:
length(1:25)
names(): Prints the variable names of a data file.
Example:
names(cdc)
```

str(): Prints the structure of a data file.

• Information displayed includes the number of observations and variables, the names of the variables, the type of variables and the first few observations.

Example:

```
str(cdc)
```

 ${\tt save()}\colon {\tt Saves}$ a data file to the ${\it Files}$ pane.

• When using the save function, the file argument is required to tell R where to save your new data and what to call it.

```
# Subset the cdc data to include only males and then save
cdc_males <- filter(cdc, gender == "Male")
save(cdc_males, file = "cdc_male.Rda")</pre>
```

load(): Loads a previously saved R data file from the Files pane.

Example:

```
load("cdc_male.Rda")
```

Scraping web data

readHTMLTable(): A function used to scrape basic web tables from a URL.

- Option: which. When many tables are scraped from a page, use which to designate exactly which table
 to extract.
- Option: colClasses. Specify, for a single table, the class of variables ("factor" for categorical, "numeric" for numerical).

Examples:

```
# The url of the 200 tallest peaks in the US
mtns_url <- "https://tinyurl.com/usamtns"
# Scrape all tables from a webpage
tables <- readHTMLTables(mtns_url)
# Scrape just the first table from a webpage
table_one <- readHTMLTables(mtns_url, which = 1)
# Scrape the first table and specify which variables are which types
var_types <- c("factor", "factor", "factor", "numeric", "numeric")</pre>
```

Data manipulation functions

c(): Used to combine values together.

Example:

```
# Combine values 0, 1 & 20 together into a vector and then compute their mean new_vector <- c(0, 1, 20) mean(new_vector)
```

rep(): Create a vector of repeated values. - *Option*: times. The number of times to repeat. - *Option*: each. The number of times to repeat each element of a vector.

```
# Basic usage
rep("A", times = 5)

# Repeat a vector of inputs 5 times. Notice the order of the output differs
# from the example below
rep(c("A", "B"), times = 5)

# Repeat each element of a vector 5 times. Notice the order of the output differs
# from the example above.
rep(c("A", "B", each = 5))
```

filter(): Used to create a smaller dataset where each observation abides but a specific rule. Observations that abide by multiple rules can be separated with commas (see example for details)

• Rules can be created using the relationship operators. See the **Symbols** section for more info on them.

Examples:

```
# Subsetting based on a categorical variable
filter(cdc, gender == "Male")

# Subsetting based on a numerical variable
filter(cdc, height > 1.6)

# Example showing how to include observatoins who are "Male" AND
# Taller than 1.6m. Notice how each rule is separated with a comma.
filter(cdc, gender == "Male", height > 1.6)

# Similar to the above example but instead filters observations based
# on reported gender being "Male" OR observations who are taller than
# 1.6m..
filter(cdc, gender == "Male" | height > 1.6)
```

mutate(): Used to change or add variables in a data file. Can also be used with the following functions to change the class of the variable:

- as.numeric(): Used to change a categorical variable to a numerical variable.
- as.character(): Used to change a numerical variable to a categorical variable.
- recode(): Used to change the names of categories for a categorical variable.

Examples:

```
# Convert meters to feet
mutate(cdc, height = height * 3.28084)

# Create a new variable called ratio
mutate(cdc, ratio = height/weight)

# Overwrite the cdc data to change height to a categorical variable
cdc <- mutate(cdc, height = as.character(height))

# Overwrite the cdc data again but changing the height variable back to numerical
cdc <- mutate(cdc, height = as.numeric(height))

# Change the categories of the asthma variable from Yes/No to 1/0
mutate(cdc, asthma = recode(asthma, "Yes"="1", "No" = "0"))</pre>
```

slice(): Extract rows of data based on row numbers. *Note*: To extract everything EXCEPT some number of rows, use a minus sign. See the examples below.

```
# Extract 1st 3 rows of the cdc data
slice(cdc, 1:3)

# Extact a random sample of 1,000 rows from the cdc data
rows <- sample(1:nrow(cdc), size = 1000, replace = FALSE)
slice(cdc, rows)</pre>
```

```
# Extract every row EXCEPT those sampled from the above example
slice(cdc, -rows)
```

rename(): Used to rename the variables of a data file.

Example:

```
rename(cdc, HEIGHT = height)
```

timeuse_format(): Takes the downloaded Time Use data and formats it for use in the labs.

Example:

```
timeuse_format(TimeUseData)
```

merge(): Merge two data frames together. *Note*: When merging data, it's best if there's a one-to-one or many-to-one connection between the data. Meaning that one data set has an *id* variable where each individual *id* occurs only once in the data.

Example:

```
# Load the Personality Colors data and name it colors.
# Load the Stress data and name it stress.
# NOTICE: Personality Color data has a unique user in each row.
stress_colors <- merge(stress, colors, by = "user.id")</pre>
```

Numerical summaries and frequency tables

Note: The numerical summary functions will print a warning when the data they're using contains missing values, denoted as NA. The warnings are so the user doesn't mistakenly believe they are calculating a summary of all observations in a data set when in fact they are only summarizing a small subset of the observations.

favstats(): Computes the mean, median, Q1, Q3, max, min, sd, number of observatins (n) and number of missing values (missing) for a variable.

Examples:

```
# Basic usage
favstats(~height, data = cdc)

# Groupwise favstats
favstats(~height | gender, data = cdc)
```

mean(): Calculates the average of a numerical variable.

```
# Basic usage
mean(~height, data = cdc)
```

```
# Calculate group means
mean(~height | gender, data = cdc)
```

median(): Calculates the value that falls in the middle of an ordered set of numbers.

Examples:

```
# Basic usage
median(~height, data = cdc)

# Calculate group means
median(~height | gender, data = cdc)
```

diff(): Calculates the difference between two or more values.

Examples:

```
# Create a vector of values
values <- c(1, 2, 4, 5)
# Use diff() to calculate pairwise differences between pairs of values.
diff(values)</pre>
```

MAD(): Calculates the *mean absolute deviation*, meaning the average (positive) distance each observation is from the mean.

Examples:

```
# Basic usage
MAD(~height, data = cdc)

# Compute the groupwise MAD
MAD(~height | gender, data = cdc)
```

range(): Calculates the minimum and maximum values of a variable.

Examples:

```
# Basic usage
range(~height, data = cdc)

# To compute the statistical range, that is the max minus min value:
rng <- range(~height, data = cdc)
diff(rng)</pre>
```

max(): The largest value of a numerical variable.

Examples:

```
max(~height, data = cdc)
```

min(): The smallest value of a numerical variable.

Examples:

```
min(~height, data = cdc)
```

quantile(): Computes the value for which p percent of the data are smaller than.

Examples:

```
# Calculate the value for which 25% of the age variable in the cdc data are smaller than.
quantile(~height, data = cdc, p = 0.25)

# Calculate the value for which 75% of the age variable in the cdc data are smaller than.
quantile(~height, data = cdc, p = 0.75)
```

iqr(): Calculate the difference between the 75th and 25th percentiles.

Examples:

```
# Basic usage
iqr(~height, data = cdc)

# Calculate the groupwise IQRs
iqr(~height | gender, data = cdc)
```

cor(): Calculate the correlation between two variables.

Examples

```
cor(audience_rating ~ critics_rating, data = movie)
```

tally(): Creates a one-way or two-way frequency table for categorical variables.

- Option: format. Can be set to "count", "proportion", "percent"
- Option: margins. Can be set to TRUE, FALSE. Includes column-totals when set to TRUE.

Examples:

```
# One-way table
tally(~asthma, data = cdc)

# Two-way table
tally(gender ~ asthma, data = cdc)

# Two-way table with options
tally(gender ~ asthma, data = cdc, margins = TRUE, format = "percent")

# The order of the variables is important as swapping them results in different tables.
tally(asthma ~ gender, data = cdc, margins = TRUE, format = "percent")
```

Plotting functions

histogram(): Creates a visual display of a numerical variable.

- Option: type. Can be set to "count", "percent", "density"
- Option: nint. The number of intervals or bars to use.
- Option: fit. Overlays a probability curve over the data. Most often used with "normal".
- Option: layout. Used to arrange the individual plots when faceting. Use with the c() function to control the number of columns (first number) and rows (second number).

Examples:

```
# Basic usage
histogram(~height, data = cdc)

# With faceting and horizontal layout
histogram(~height | gender, data = cdc, layout = c(2, 1))

# Including options
histogram(~height, data = cdc, type = "percent", nint = 24, fit = "normal")
```

dotPlot(): Creates a visual display of a numerical variable.

- Option: nint. The number of intervals or bars to use.
- Option: fit. Overlays a probability curve over the data. Most often used with "normal".
- Option: cex. The character expansion option can be used to make the dots larger or smaller.
- Option: layout. Used to arrange the individual plots when faceting. Use with the c() function to control the number of columns (first number) and rows (second number).

Examples:

```
# Having too many data points makes the dots hard to see so we'll take a sample
cdc_sample <- sample(cdc, size = 100)

# Basic usage
dotPlot(~height, data = cdc_sample)

# With faceting and stacked layout
dotPlot(~height | gender, data = cdc_sample, layout = c(1, 2))

# Including options and making dots smaller
dotPlot(~height, data = cdc_sample, nint = 24, fit = "normal", cex = 0.5)

# Including options and making dots larger
dotPlot(~height, data = cdc_sample, nint = 24, fit = "normal", cex = 1.5)</pre>
```

bargraph(): Creates a visual display of a categorical variable.

- Option: group. Used to create a split bargraph based on a categorical variable.
- Option: horizontal. Set equal to TRUE to make bars horizontal.
- Option: layout. Used to arrange the individual plots when faceting. Use with the c() function to control the number of columns (first number) and rows (second number).

```
# Basic usage
bargraph(~age, data = cdc)

# With faceting and 3-column layout
bargraph(~age | asthma, data = cdc, layout = c(3, 1))
```

```
# With faceting on two variables and 3-column 2-row layout.
bargraph(~age | asthma + gender, data = cdc, layout = c(3, 2))
# Including options
bargraph(~age, data = cdc, groups = asthma, horizontal = TRUE)
```

xyplot(): Creates a visual display of two numerical variables.

- Option: group. Plots points with different colors based on a categorical variable.
- Option: layout. Used to arrange the individual plots when faceting. Use with the c() function to control the number of columns (first number) and rows (second number).

Examples:

```
# Basic usage
xyplot(weight ~ height, data = cdc)

# With faceting and 3-column layout
xyplot(weight ~ height | asthma, data = cdc, layout = c(3, 1))

# With options
xyplot(weight ~ height, data = cdc, group = gender)
```

add_line(): Adds a line to an xyplot either by running the command with no arguments and then clicking twice on the plot plane or by supplying a slope and intercept. - *Option*: slope. The slope of the line you'd like to have plotted. - *Option*: intercept. The intercept of the line you'd like to have plotted.

Examples:

```
# After making an xyplot, run the following and then click twice on the plot pane
# to add a line
add_line()

# Alternatively, after making an xyplot you could use the following to add a line with
# slope = 5 and intercept = -2
add_line(slope = 5, intercept = -2)
```

add_curve(): Adds a curve to an xyplot based on a linear model (lm) with one explanatory and one response variable.

• Option: col. Draw the line in a different color.

```
# add_curve() can perform the same job as add_line()
model <- lm(height ~ armspan, data = arm_span)
xyplot(height ~ armspan, data = arm_span)
add_curve(model)

# add_curve() can also plot curves from linear models using polynomials
model <- lm(height ~ poly(armspan, degree = 2), data = arm_span)
xyplot(height ~ armspan, data = arm_span)
add_curve(model)

# Use col to change the line/curve's colors
model <- lm(height ~ poly(armspan, degree = 2), data = arm_span)</pre>
```

```
xyplot(height ~ armspan, data = arm_span)
add_curve(model, col = "red")
```

treeplot(): Draw the tree of a classification or regression tree.

Examples:

```
# Create a tree model
model <- tree(survived ~ gender + age + class + embarked, data = titanic)
# Then use treeplot() to plot it
treeplot(model)</pre>
```

bwplot(): Creates a box-and-whisker plot of a variable.

• Option: layout. Used to arrange the individual plots when faceting. Use with the c() function to control the number of columns (first number) and rows (second number).

Examples:

```
# Basic usage
bwplot(~height, data = cdc)

# Two-ways to facet:
# Method 1
bwplot(~height | gender, data = cdc)

# Method 2
bwplot(gender ~ height, data = cdc)

# With options
bwplot(~height | gender, data = cdc, layout = c(1, 2))
```

plotdist(): Plot the curve of a probability distribution

- Option: dist. The distribution you want to plot. In the curriculum, we use "norm" for the normal distribution. See the examples for a few others.
- Option: mean. For the normal distribution, the value to center the distribution around.
- Option: sd. For the normal distribution, the value of the spread for the distribution.

```
# Standard normal distribution
plotDist("norm", mean = 0, sd = 1)

# mean 10, sd 4 normal distribution
plotDist("norm", mean = 10, sd = 4)

# A binomial distribution with n = 25, p = 0.25
plotDist('binom', size = 25, prob = .25)

# A beta distribution because, why not?
plotDist('beta', shape1 = 3, shape2 = 10)
```

Maps

colorize(): A simple function to add colors to maps

Example:

```
# Load the mountains data and call it mtns_data
# Add the colors for each state by mutating the data
mtns_data <- mutate(mtns_data, state_colors = colorize(state))</pre>
```

leaflet(): Input data to make maps via the leafet mapping functions.

Example:

```
# Load the mountains data and call it mtns_data
mtns_leaf <- leaflet(mtns_data)</pre>
```

addTiles(): Add map tiles to a leaflet leaf

Example:

```
# From the leaflet() example
mtns_map <- addTiles(mtns_leaf)</pre>
```

addMarkers(): Add icons to denote the location of data on a map

- Option: map. The map to add markers to.
- Option: lng. The longitude values of points.
- Option: lat. The latitude values of points.
- Option: popup. Values that will popup when a marker is clicked

Example:

```
# From the addTiles() example
addMarkers(map = mtns_map, lng = ~long, lat = ~lat)
# From the the example above, but with the name of the peaks as popups
addMarkers(map = mtns_map, lng = ~long, lat = ~lat, popup = ~peak)
```

addCircleMarkers(): Add circles, instead of icons, to denote the location of data on a map

- Option: map. The map to add markers to.
- Option: lng. The longitude values of points.
- Option: lat. The latitude values of points.
- Option: popup. Values that will popup when a marker is clicked
- Option: color. Include colors for different circles.

```
# From the addTiles() example
addMarkers(map = mtns_map, lng = ~long, lat = ~lat)
# From the the example above, but with the name of the peaks as popups
addMarkers(map = mtns_map, lng = ~long, lat = ~lat, popup = ~peak)
```

```
# From the the example above as well as the example for colorize()
addMarkers(map = mtns_map, lng = ~long, lat = ~lat, popup = ~peak, color = ~state_colors)
```

addLegend(): Include a legend for a map. Used with the unique() function to determine the unique values of colors and labels.

- Option: colors. The value of colors used in the map.
- Option: labels. The label of variables used in the map.

Example:

Statistical modeling

lm(): Create a line of best fit, i.e. linear model, using ordinary least squares.

Examples:

```
# For a simple linear regression where we want to explain a variable, height,
# in terms of an expanatory variable, armspan.
lm(height ~ armspan, data = arm_span)

# For a multiple linear regression, include more variables using a "+" sign.
lm(domest_gross ~ critics_rating + runtime, data = movie)
```

poly(): Model a variable as a polynomial instead of a line in a linear model (lm). *Note*: The poly() function coefficients aren't directly interpretable because it orthogonalizes the polynomial before estimating the coefficients.

• Option: degree. The degree of the polynomial you want to use.

Examples:

```
# To fit a quadratic polynomial for person's armspan
lm(height ~ poly(armspan, degree = 2), data = arm_span)
```

predict(): For a linear model (lm) or a tree model (tree), give the predicted values for the data used to create the model or the values of a different data set with the same variables (i.e. testing data).

• Option: newdata. When using a testing data set, specify the data set with this option.

```
# Make a model using lm() or tree() and give the model a name (I'll assume
# you've named it "model"). To give the predicted values for the data used
# to create the model use:
predict(model)

# We could also predict the values of a testing data set
predict(model, newdata = testing_data_set)
```

tree(): Create a tree based model.

- Option: cp. The complexity parameter to use for the tree. Smaller numbers results in more complex trees, that is, trees with more branches. Default value is 0.01.
- Option: minsplit. The minimum number of observations that need to be in a leaf before splitting the leaf into a new branch. Default value is 20.

Examples:

```
# Create a simple classification tree
tree(survived ~ gender, data = titanic)

# Create a classification tree with additional explanatory variables
tree(survived ~ gender + age + class + embarked, data = titanic)

# Include options to create more complex trees
tree(survived ~ gender + age + class + embarked, data = titanic, cp = 0.005, minsplit = 10)
```

kclusters(): Cluster 2 variables into k clusters using the k-means algorithm.

• Option: k. The number of clusters to group the data into.

Examples:

```
# Group data into 2 clusters
kclusters(ht_inches ~ wt_lbs, data = futbol, k = 2)
```

Sampling and permutation functions

sample(): Sample from a set of values.

- Option: size. The number of times you want to sample.
- Option: replace. After a value has been sampled, should the sampled value be replaced so that it can be sampled again.

Examples:

```
# Create a vector to sample from
values <- c("A", "B", "B", "C")
# Basic usage
sample(values, size = 1)

# Sample 3 values without replacement
sample(values, size = 3)

# Sample values with or without replacement
sample(values, size = 4, replace = TRUE)
sample(values, size = 4, replace = FALSE)</pre>
```

set.seed(): Perform random functions in a systematic way, meaning, if two or more users set the same seed, they can generate the same random values.

```
# Any user who runs the following code will generate the same random sample.
set.seed(531)
sample(1:3, size = 10, replace = TRUE)
## [1] 1 2 1 2 1 3 2 2 1 3
```

do(): Perform an operation many times, often with using the shuffle() function. - Option: shuffle. Inside of a do() call, shuffle() will shuffle the values of a given variable so that any relationship between variables is nullified.

Examples:

```
# Compute the mean of the height of people 5 times BUT shuffle the genders of our
# observations before computing the mean each time.
do(5) * mean(~height | shuffle(gender), data = cdc)
```

rowSums(): Count the instances that follow a rule from a do() operation.

Examples:

```
# Create some values to sample from
values <- c("A", "B", "C")

# Use a do() operation to sample 2 letters, 5 times
draws <- do(5) * sample(values, size = 2, replace = FALSE)

# Count the number of times both draws were "A"
draws <- mutate(draws, n_A == rowSums(draws == "A"))

# Subset the data based on the number of rows where n_A is equal to 2.
draws_sub <- subset(draws, n_A == 2)

# Calculate the proportion of two sample draws that were both A's
nrow(draws_sub) / 5</pre>
```

Probability functions

pnrom(): Calculate the probabilities of values for a normal distribution.

- Option: mean. The mean of the normal distribution
- Option: sd. The standard deviation of the normal distribution

```
# The probability of a value less than 0.5 for a standard normal distribution
pnorm(0.5, mean = 0, sd = 1)

# The probability of a value greater than 0.5 for a standard normal distribution
pnorm(0.5, mean = 0, sd = 1, lower.tail = FALSE)
# Equivalently:
1 - pnorm(0.5, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
# The probability of a value less than 0.5 and greater than -0.25 for a
# standard normal distribution
pnorm(0.5, mean = 0, sd = 1) - pnorm(0.25, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

qnrom(): Calculate the values for a normal distribution for a given probability.

- Option: mean. The mean of the normal distribution
- Option: sd. The standard deviation of the normal distribution

Examples:

```
# The value for which 75% of the probability is less than for a standard
# normal distribution
qnorm(0.75, mean = 0, sd = 1)

# The value for which 75% of the probability is less than for a mean 66,
# standard deviation 8 normal distribution (The mean and standard deviation
# of men's heights in the United States)
qnorm(0.75, mean = 66, sd = 8)
# [1] 71.39592
# This is interpreted as: About 75% of men in the US are shorter than 71.4 inches.
```

Symbols and operators

<-: Assigns values on the right-side of the arrow to the name on the left-side of the arrow.

Example:

```
new_object <- c("A", "A", "A", "B", "B")
tally(new_object)</pre>
```

Relationship operators

The following operators can be used to make comparisons:

- == : Are the left and right-sides exactly equal?
- != : Are the left and right-sides not equal?
- <= : Is the left-side less than or equal to the right-side?
- < : Is the left-side less than the right-side?
- >= : Is the left-side greater or equal to the right-side?
- > : Is the left-side greater than the right-side?

Creating functions

function(input_a, input_b): Create a function which takes inputs and computes outputs.

```
# Create a function, called mm_diff, that computes the difference between the
# median and mean values of a variable
# The inputs in this function are variable and data
```

```
mm_diff <- function(variable, data) {
    # The steps taken to compute the output of the function must be between the
    # curly braces, {}.
    mean_val <- mean(variable, data = data)
    med_val <- median(variable, data = data)
    abs(mean_val - med_val)
}

# The user will then populate the inputs. The following input methods are equivalent.
mm_diff(variable = ~height, data = cdc)
mm_diff(~height, data = cdc)
mm_diff(~height, cdc)</pre>
```