Programming and Statistics with R

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1 Basics

1.1 Environment

Set a custom prompt (R>):

```
options(prompt = "R> ")
List variables, objects and user-defined functions of the current session:
ls()
Remove an item from the current session:
ls() # nothing
foo <- "bar"
ls() # "foo"
rm(foo)
ls() # nothing
Empty the current session:
rm(list = ls())
Leave R:
q()
1.1.1 Scoping
List environments:
search() # ".GlobalEnv" "tools:rstudio" ... "package:base"
When referring to a symbol (a variable, object, functin etc.), R searches through
the environments listed by search() from left to right.
Determine the environment in which an object lives:
environment(seq) # <environment: namespace:base>
environment(plot) # <environment: namespace:graphics>
List the content of an environment:
ls("package:graphics")
When a package is no longer used, it can be detached in order to clean up the
namespace:
search() # ".GlobalEnv" "package:stats" "package:graphics" etc.
library("MASS")
search() # ".GlobalEnv" "package:MASS" "package:stats" etc.
detach("package:MASS", detach = TRUE)
```

search() # ".GlobalEnv" "package:stats" "package:graphics" etc.

For easier lookup, objects can be attached:

```
person <- data.frame(name = "Patrick", age = 30)</pre>
person.name # "Patrick"
person.age # 30
name # Error: object 'name' not found
age # Error: object 'age' not found
attach(person)
name # "Patrick"
age # 30
detach(person)
name # Error: object 'name' not found
age # Error: object 'age' not found
In order to keep the namespace clean, attaching objects to the namespace
("mounting") should be avoided.
1.1.2 Sessions
Find out and set the current working directory:
getwd()
setwd("~/my-workspace")
Save the current session:
save.image("my-session.RData")
Load a stored session:
load("my-session.RData")
1.1.3 Packages
Install a new package (MASS, for example):
install.packages("MASS")
List installed packages:
installed.packages()
Load the installed MASS library:
library("MASS")
Update installed packages:
update.packages()
```

```
Uninstall a package (using default library paths):
remove.packages("MASS", .libPaths())
```

1.1.4 Help

```
Get help for a specific keyword (the mean function, for example):
help("mean")
?mean # shortcut
Search for a help topic (random, for example):
help.search("random")
??"random" # shortcut
```

1.2 Language Basics

Comments, starting with # to the end of the line:

```
1 + 1 # calculates one plus one, which is two
```

Exponential notation:

```
1e3 # 1 * 10^3 = 1000
1e-3 # 1 * 10^(-3) = 0.001
```

Assignments:

```
a <- 17
b = 42
```

1.2.1 Calculations

Basic arithmetic:

```
3 + 5 # 8
5 - 2 # 3
2 * 3 # 6
9 / 3 # 3
2 ^ 3 # 8 (2 to the power of 3)
sqrt(16) # 4
13 %% 5 # 3 (modulus, the remainder of 13 divided by 5)
Logarithms:
log(x = 8, base = 2) # 3, because 2^3 = 8
log(8, 2) # same but shorter
```

Euler's number as an exponantial function:

```
exp(1) # 2.718282
```

The log() function uses Euler's number as the default base (natural logarithm):

```
log(100) # 4.60517
```

```
log(x = 100, base = exp(1)) # same with an explicit base
```

The exp() function is the reverse function of log():

```
log(exp(23)) # 23
```

1.2.2 Argument Matching

Exact matching (fully spell out all the parameters):

```
matrix(data=1:16, ncol=4, nrow=4, byrow=TRUE, dimnames=list(1:4, 1:4))
```

Partial matching (abbreviate the parameter names):

```
matrix(dat=1:16, nc=4, nr=4, byr=TRUE, dim=list(1:4, 1:4))
```

Positional matching (rely solely on the argument order, which can be found out using the args() function - args(matrix):

```
matrix(1:16, 4, 4, TRUE, list(1:4, 1:4))
```

Mixed matching (don't name most common arguments but special ones):

```
matrix(1:16, ncol=4, byrow=TRUE, dimnames=list(1:4, 1:4))
matrix(1:16, nc=4, byr=TRUE, dim=list(1:4, 1:4))
```

A lot of R functions have the parameter \mathbf{x} , which is usually not explicitly named upon invocation.

Some function accept variadic arguments, represented by an ellipsis (\ldots) . Any argument not matching a named parameter will be matched to the variadic parameter:

```
args(cat)
# function (..., file="", sep=" ", fill=FALSE, labels=NULL, append=FALSE)
cat("foo", "bar", sep="-", "qux") # foo-bar-qux
```

1.3 Vectors

Make a vector from individual elements:

```
c(1, 2, 3) # 1 2 3
```

1.3.1 Sequences

Make a sequence from one to ten:

```
seq(from = 1, to = 10, by = 1)
1:10 # same but shorter (default step = 1)
```

Make a sequence with a specific length instead of step size, which will be calculated automatically:

```
seq(from = 1, to = 10, length.out = 4) # 1 4 7 10
```

Make a sequence with a specific length and step size, but omit the upper boundry:

```
seq(from = 1, by = 2, length.out = 5) # 1 3 5 7 9
```

1.3.2 Repetitions

Repeat a number:

```
rep(x = 1, times = 3) # 1 1 1

rep(1, 3) # same but shorter
```

Repeat a sequence:

$$rep(c(1, 2, 3), 2) # 1 2 3 1 2 3$$

 $rep(1:3, 2), # same but shorter$

Repeat items instead of the whole sequence:

$$rep(1:3, each = 2) # 1 1 2 2 3 3$$

Repeat using each and times combined:

1.3.3 Sorting

```
Sort (in ascending order):
```

Sort (in descending order):

Reverse the order of a vector's elements:

1.3.4 Accessing Elements

For the following examples, the vector **v** is used:

$$v \leftarrow seq(from = 10, to = 50, by = 10) # 10 20 30 40 50$$

Access the first element (the first index is 1):

Access the last element (the last index is the vector's length):

Access multiple elements:

Omit the element at a certain index:

Omit multiple elements:

$$v[-c(1, 2, 3)] # 40 50$$

Overwrite vector elements:

```
v[1] = 11 # v = 11 20 30 40 50

v[c(2, 3)] = c(22, 33) # v = 11 22 33 40 50

v[c(4, 5)] = 44 # v = 11 22 33 44 44, 44 was used twice!

v[1:4] = c(1, 2) # v = 1 2 1 2 44
```

The vector on the left hand side must either have:

- 1. the same size as the vector on the right hand side, or
- 2. a size multiple times as big as the vector on the right hand side.

In the second case, the shorter vector is *recycled*, i.e. used repeatedly to fill up to the length of the longer vector.

1.3.5 Arithmetic on Vectors

Multiply every item of the vector by 2:

Multiply the items of the vector by 1 and -1, respectively:

$$1:6 * c(1,-1) # 1 -2 3 -4 5 -6$$

For the vector's sizes, the same rule applies as stated above.

Calculate the sum of a vector:

```
sum(1, 2, 3, 4) # 1+2+3+4=10
sum(1:100) # 5050
```

Calculate the product of a vector:

```
prod(1, 2, 3, 4) # 1*2*3*4=4!=24
prod(1:4) # same but shorter
```

1.4 Matrices

Create a 2x2 matrix:

```
matrix(data = c(1, 2, 3, 4), nrow = 2, ncol = 2)
```

Either nrow or ncol can be omitted:

```
matrix(1:16, nrow = 4) # 4x4 matrix (16 items)

matrix(1:25, ncol = 5) # 5x5 matrix (25 items)
```

If both nrow and ncol are omitted, a one-row matrix will be created:

```
matrix(1:10) # 1x10 matrix (10 items)
```

By default, the matrix is filled up by column:

```
matrix(1:6, ncol = 2)
```

- 1 4
- 2 5
- 3 6

This behaviour can be changed using the byrow parameter:

```
matrix(1:6, ncol = 2, byrow = TRUE)
```

- 1 2
- 3 4
- 5 6

Matrices can be built up from vectors of same lengths:

```
rbind(1:3, 4:6) # by row
```

- 1 2 3
- 4 5 6

cbind(1:3, 4:6) # by column

```
1
    4
2
    4
3
Find out the dimensions of a matrix:
m \leftarrow matrix(1:12, nrow = 3, ncol = 4)
         7
             10
    4
    5
        8
             11
    6
         9
             12
dim(m) # 3 4 (a vector)
dim(m)[1] # 3, number of rows
nrow(m) # same but shorter
dim(m)[2] # 4, number of cols
ncol(m) # same but shorter
Access a matrix element:
m <- matrix(1:6, ncol = 3)</pre>
    3
        5
1
    4
         6
m[1,2] # 3 [row, col]
Access a whole row or column (returns a vector):
m[1,] # 1 3 5, first row
m[,2] # 3 4, second column
Rows and columns can be accessed using vectors:
m[1:2,] # rows 1 and 2
m[,c(1,3)] # cols 1 and 3
This makes it possible to select parts of a matrix:
m <- matrix(1:9, ncol = 3)</pre>
        7
    5
        8
    6
m[1:2, c(1,3)] # rows 1 and 2, cols 1 and 3
1
    7
```

Access the diagonal values as a vector:

8

2

```
diag(m) # 1 5 9
Omit parts of a matrix:
m[-1,] # omit the first row
m[,-2] # omit the second column
m[-(2:3), -c(1,4)] # omit rows 2 to 3, columns 1 and 4
Matrix rows and columns can be overwritten like any vector (the same length
rules apply):
m[1,] = 6 # set every value in the first row to 6
m[1:2, 2:3 = 7] # the values in the sub-matrix [1,2] to [2,3] are set to 7
m[,2] = c(1,2) # the values in the second column are set to 1, 2, 1, 2 etc.
m[1,] = m[2,] # overwrite the first row using the values of the second row
m[c(1, nrow(m)), c(1, ncol(m))] = -1 # set the values in the "corners" to -1
Name the dimensions of a matrix:
m \leftarrow (1:4, ncol = 2, dimnames = list(c("R1", "R2"), c("C1", "C2")))
   C1
        C2
        3
R1 1
R2 2
        4
Dimension names can also be provided after the creation:
m \leftarrow (1:4, ncol = 2)
dimension(m) <- list(c("R1", "R2"), c("C1", "C2"))</pre>
1.4.1 Operations and Algebra
Transpose a matrix (A^T) is the transposed matrix of A):
A \leftarrow matrix(1:9, ncol = 3)
        7
    4
    5
        8
3
    6
t(A)
    2
        3
    5
        6
Create an identity matrix of size n(I_n):
```

 $I \leftarrow diag(x = 3)$

1 0 0

0 1 0 0 0 1

Scalar multiplication of a matrix:

 $A \leftarrow rbind(1:3, 4:6)$

1 2 3

4 5 6

A * 2

2 4 6

8 10 12

Addition and substraction of matrices:

A <- matrix(1:4, ncol = 2)

 $B \leftarrow matrix(5:8, ncol = 2)$

A + B

1 3 5 7 6 10

2 4 6 8 8 12

B - A

5 7 1 3 4 4

8 8 2 4 4 4

Two matrices, A(m, n) and B(p, q), can be multiplied if n = p holds true (first matrix' cols = second matrix' rows), resulting in a matrix with m rows and q cols:

A <- matrix(c(2,6,5,1,2,4), ncol = 3) # n = 3

 $B \leftarrow matrix(c(3,-1,1,-3,1,5), nrow = 3) # p = 3$

A %*% B

A =

2 5 2 | 3 9 | = AxB

6 1 4 | 21 3 |

 A^{-1} is the inverse of a matrix A. A multiplied by A^{-1} results in the identity matrix:

```
A <- matrix(3,4,1,2), ncol = 2)

3    1
4    2

solve(A)

1    -0.5
-2    1.5

A %*% solve(A) # check the result: is it the identity matrix?

1    0
0    1

Summary:
• inverse matrix: A<sup>-1</sup>, solve(A)
```

• identity matrix: I_n , diag(x = n)

• transposed matrix: A^T , t(A)

1.5 Multidimensional Arrays

Define arrays of different dimension:

```
array(data = 1:24) # vector 1 2 3 ... 24, 1 dimension array(data = 1:24, dim = c(24)) # same with explicit dimension array(data = 1:24, dim = c(4, 6)) # a 4x6 matrix, 2 dimensions array(data = 1:24, dim = c(2, 3, 4)) # a 2x3x4 "cube", 3 dimensions
```

The dimension (2, 3, 4) stands for 2 rows, 3 cols and 4 layers. The product of the elements in the dimension vector must be equal to the length of the data vector.

Accessing parts of a multidimensional array:

```
AR <- array(1:24, c(2, 3, 4))

AR[1,,] # access the first row

AR[,2,] # access the second column

AR[,,3] # access the third layer

AR[1,,c(1, 2)] # first row of first and second layer
```

For arrays, the same assignment rules of vectors and matrices also apply.

1.6 Logical Values

```
Boolean values:
```

```
TRUE
```

T # shorter for TRUE

FALSE

F # shorter for FALSE

Logical operations:

```
6 == 3 * 2 # equal to, TRUE

10 != 5 * 2 # not equal to, FALSE

7 > 5 # greater than, TRUE

8 < 3 # less than, FALSE

8 >= 4 * 2 # greater than or equal to, TRUE

7 <= 3 * 3 # less than or equal to, FALSE
```

TRUE and FALSE represent 1 and 0, respectively:

```
1 == TRUE # TRUE

0 == FALSE # TRUE

2 == TRUE # FALSE

T + T + T # 3
```

```
T + T + T # 3
F - 4*T + 3*T # 0 - 4 + 3 = -1
```

Logical operations can be applied to vectors, matrices and arrays, applying the operator on every element and returning a vector consisting of TRUE and FALSE:

```
1:3 == seq(from = 1, to = 3) # TRUE TRUE TRUE
1:3 == c(1, 2, 4) # TRUE TRUE FALSE
```

Like assignments, comparisons can be performed on vectors of different lenghts (according to the same rules, a shorter right hand side vector will be recycled):

```
1:4 > 2:3 # 1>2, 2>3, 3>2, 4>3; evaluates to FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE
```

Check if at least one element evaluates to TRUE:

```
any(1:3 > 2) # TRUE, 3 is bigger than 2
```

Check if all elements evaluate to TRUE:

```
all(10:20 \geq= 11) # FALSE, 10 is smaller than 11
```

1.6.1 Logical Operations

Compare boolean values using double operators:

```
TRUE && TRUE # logical AND, returns TRUE FALSE || TRUE # logical OR, returns FALSE
```

```
!TRUE # logical NOT, returns FALSE
```

Compare elements of a vector (or a matrix, or an array of higher dimensions) using single operators:

```
c(T, F, F) & c(T, T, F) # TRUE FALSE FALSE c(T, T, T) | c(T, T, F) # TRUE TRUE FALSE
```

Single operators have the same behaviour as double operators when applied to scalar values rather than vectors. Double operators applied to vectors will only apply to the first elements of the vectors involved:

```
TRUE & FALSE # FALSE
FALSE | TRUE # TRUE

c(T, F, F) && c(T, T, T) # TRUE
c(F, T, T) || c(F, T, T) # FALSE
```

1.6.2 Element Selection

Select elements of a vector (or a matrix, or an array) using logical flags:

```
v \leftarrow 1:5 \# 1 2 3 4 5

v[c(T, T, F, T, F)] \# using a "flag" vector, returns 1 2 4

<math>v[v >= 3] \# using a condition, returns 3 4 5
```

Select every other element using vector recycling:

```
v <- 1:10
v[c(1,0)] # 1 3 5 7 9
```

Select all leap years of a range of years:

```
y <- 1987:2017
y[y %% 4 == 0 & (y %% 100 != 0 | y %% 400 == 0)]
# 1988 1992 1996 2000 2004 2008 2012 2016
```

Set all negative values to zero:

```
v \leftarrow -3:3 \# -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3

v[v < 0] = 0 \# 0 0 0 0 1 2 3
```

Find out the indices of items matching a condition using the which() function:

```
v \leftarrow 3:8 \# 3 4 5 6 7 8 which(x = (v \%% 2 == 0)) # indices of even numbers: 2 4 6
```

The resulting vector can be used to invert the selection:

```
v[-which(x = (v \% 2 == 0))] # indices of odd numbers: 1 3 5
```

By default, which() treatens matrices just like vectors:

```
m <- matrix(2:10, ncol = 3)</pre>
        8
    5
3
    6
        9
   7 10
which(x = (m \% 2 == 1)) ## odd element's indices: 2 4 6 8
To get row/col coordinates, use the arr.ind flag:
which(x = (m \% 2 == 1), arr.ind = TRUE)
row col
  2
      1
  1
      2
  3
      2
  2
      3
1.7
      Strings
Store a simple string:
s <- "This is a simple string!"
Find out the length of a string:
nchar("foobar") # 6
length("foobar") # 1, a string is considered a vector of length 1
Compare strings:
"foo" == "foo" # TRUE
"foo" == "bar" # FALSE
"bar" == c("foo", "bar", "qux") # FALSE TRUE FALSE
Compare strings using alphabetic order:
"Anna" > "Berti" # TRUE
Uppercase strings are considered bigger than lowercase string:
"A" > "a" # TRUE
"B" <= "b" # FALSE
This distinction only applies to alphabetically equivalent strings:
"A" > "z" # FALSE
Almost all characters can be used within a string. Double quotes and backslashes
```

"He said: \"a backslash: \\...\"" # He said: "a backslash: \..."

have to be escaped using a backslash:

Other escape sequences are:

```
\n line break
\t tab
\b backspace
```

For a complete list of escape sequences, type ?Quotes.

1.7.1 Concatenation

```
Strings can be concatenated:
```

```
cat("hello", "world") # prints "hello world"
paste("hello", "world") # returns "hello world"
The separator (a space character, by default) can be defined:
cat("foo", "bar", "qux", sep="---") # "foo---bar---qux"
cat("foo", "bar", "qux", sep="") # "foobarqux
Numbers are automatically converted to strings (coercion):
numbers <- 5:1
cat("Countdown:", numbers) # Countdown: 5 4 3 2 1
cat(2, "times", 3, "is", 2 * 3) # 2 times 3 is 6
cat("is", 5, "bigger than", 7, 5 > 7) # is 5 bigger than 7 FALSE
```

1.7.2 Substrings and Replacements

```
Extract a substring (using 1-based inclusive indices):
substr(x = "this is", start = 1, stop = 4) # "this"
```

Substrings can be replaced by other strings of the same length:

```
s <- "this is cool"
substr(x = s, start = 1, stop = 4) <- "that" # "that is cool"</pre>
```

Replacements are done more effectively using sub() (replaces the first occurence) and gsub() (replaces all occurences):

```
s <- "foo too"
sub(pattern = "oo", x = s, replacement = "u") # fu too
gsub(pattern = "oo", x = s, replacement = "u") # fu tu</pre>
```

1.8 Factors

Factors are a special kind of vectors for storing categorial data, similar to enumerations in Java or C. Next to the value, factors also store a level:

```
colors <- factor(c("red", "green", "blue"))</pre>
When a factor is subsetted, some of the values but all of the levels stay:
colors[1:2]
red green
Levels: blue red green
Factors allow ordering:
weekdays <- c("Mon", "Tue", "Wed", "Thu", "Fri", "Sat", Sun")</pre>
workdays <- c("Mon", "Tue", "Wed", "Thu", "Fri")</pre>
factor(x = workdays, levels = weekdays, ordered = TRUE)
Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri
Levels: Mon < Tue < Wed < Thu < Fri < Sat < Sun
1.8.1 Cutting
The cut() function can be used to break up data points on a continuum into
discrete intervals:
weights <- c(72, 83, 61, 119, 88, 155)
w.breaks \leftarrow c(0, 70, 90, 120, 200)
cut(x = weights, breaks = w.breaks)
Output:
(70,90]
           (70,90]
                                 (90,120] (70,90]
                      (0,70]
                                                       (120,200]
Levels: (0,70] (70,90] (90,120] (120,200]
(70,90] means: from 70 exclusive to 90 inclusive. Use the parameter right =
FALSE for inclusive/exclusive intervals ([70,90)).
The intervals can be named using labels:
w.labels <- c("low", "normal", "high", "obese")</pre>
cut(x = weights, breaks = w.breaks, labels = w.labels)
Output:
normal normal low high normal obese
Levels: low normal high obese
1.8.2 Splitting
Split the data up into a list grouped by the factor:
segments <- cut(x = weights, breaks = w.breaks, labels = w.labels)
groups <- split(x = weights, f = segments)</pre>
```

```
Output:
$low
[1] 61
$normal
[1] 72 83 88
$high
[1] 119
$obese
```

1.9 Lists

[1] 155

Lists can contain elements of different data types, including other lists, matrices etc.

Create a list containing three different sized vectors of different types:

```
1 <- list(c("a", "b", "c"), c(1:5), c(TRUE, FALSE))</pre>
```

To acces list elements, use double square brackets:

```
l[[1]] # the vector "a" "b" "c"
1[[2]] # the vector 1 2 3 4 5
1[[3]] # the vector TRUE FALSE
l[[1]] <- c("X", "Y") # overwrite the first element</pre>
1[[3]][2] # the second vector element of the third list item (FALSE)
To access multiple elements at once, use list slicing rather than double square
brackets:
```

1[c(2,3)] # the vectors 1 2 3 4 5 and TRUE FALSE

List elements can be named:

```
names(1) <- c("chars", "numbers", "logicals")</pre>
```

List elements can also be named upon initialization:

```
1 <- list(chars = c("a", "b", "c"), numbers = 1:5, logicals = c(T, F))</pre>
names(1) # "chars" "numbers" "logicals"
```

To access list elements by name (rather than index), use dollar notation:

```
l$chars # "a" "b" "c"
l$numbers # 1 2 3 4 5
```

```
1$logicals # TRUE FALSE

1$chars[1] # "a"
1$numbers[5] # 5
1$logicals[2] # FALSE

An element can be added to the list by assignment:
1$newElement <- c("new", "character", "vector")
Lists can also be nested:
foo <- list(char = "A", num = 1, logical = TRUE)
bar <- list(char = "z", num = 9, logical = FALSE)

1 <- list(first = foo, second = bar)

1$first$char # "A"
1$second$logical # FALSE</pre>
```

1.10 Data Frames

A data frame is a special kind of list with the restriction that the members must be all vectors of equal length. (Shorter vectors will be recycled, if possible).

Create a data frame:

```
s <- c("cow", "spider", "whale")
l <- c(4, 8, 0)
m <- c(T, F, T)
animals <- data.frame(species = s, legs = l, mammal = m)</pre>
```

Output (a table with named columns and numbered rows):

```
species legs mammal
1 cow 4 TRUE
2 spider 8 FALSE
3 whale 0 TRUE
```

Elements can be accessed like matrices using row and column indices:

```
animals[3][1] # whale
animals[,2] # 4 8 0
animals[c(1,3),1] # cow whale
```

Since the element vectors of a data frame are named, they can be accessed using that name:

```
animals$species # cow spider whale
animals$species[2] # spider
```

The dimensions of a data frame can be explored using the same functions as for matrices:

```
nrow(animals) # 3
ncol(animals) # 3
dim(animals) # 3 3
```

String values are treated as factors by default. This can be prevented upon creation:

```
a <- data.frame(species = s, legs = 1, mammal = m, stringsAsFactors = F)
```

If certain (but not all) non-numeric colums should be factors, they have to be created as factors in the first place:

```
s <- c("cow", "spider", "whale")
l <- c(4, 8, 0)
m <- factor(c(T, F, T))
a <- data.frame(species = s, legs = l, mammal = m, stringsAsFactors = F)</pre>
```

Rows can be added to a data frame by creating a new data frame of similar structure and adding it to the existing data frame:

```
bird <- data.frame(species = "bird", legs = 2, mammal = FALSE)
a <- rbind(a, bird)</pre>
```

Columns can be added to a data frame by creating a new vector and adding it:

```
area <- c("land", "land", "sea", "air")
a <- cbind(a, area)</pre>
```

New columns can also made up using values of existing columns:

```
a$toesPerFoot = c(0, 0, 0, 3)
a$toes = a$legs * a$toesPerFoot
```

Rows can be selected using logical expressions:

```
a[a$mammal == TRUE, 1] # selects the first mammal of the data frame
```

To select multiple columns, a vector of names can be used:

```
a[1:2,c("species", "mammal")] # columns species and mammal of row 1 and 2
```

1.11 Special Values

1.11.1 Infinity

Infinity (Inf) is not a number, but a concept describing a number higher than the highest representable number, which is platform dependent::

```
12800 ^ 75 # 1.098368e+308
12900 ^ 75 # Inf
```

There is positive and negative infinity (-Inf):

```
Inf > 10e24 # TRUE
-Inf < -10e24 # TRUE</pre>
```

Arithmetic operations involving infinity always result in (positive or negative) infinity:

```
10e24 - Inf # -Inf
2 * Inf == Inf # TRUE
Inf + Inf - 2 * -Inf == 0 # FALSE
```

Expressions can be tested for finity/infinity:

```
is.finite(12800^75) # TRUE (on my machine)
is.infinite(12900^75) # TRUE (ditto)
is.finite(5 / 0) # FALSE
```

1.11.2 Not a Number

Some expressions cannot be represented as a number. They are represented as \mathtt{NaN} :

```
0 / 0 # NaN
-Inf + Inf # NaN
Inf / Inf # NaN
```

NaN is not considered finite:

```
is.finite(NaN) # FALSE
```

Expressions can be tested if they are "not a number":

```
is.nan(NaN) # TRUE
is.nan(134) # FALSE
is.nan(5 / 0) # FALSE, it's a number considered infinite
is.nan(0 / 0) # TRUE
is.nan(sqrt(-1)) # TRUE
!is.nan(13.7) # TRUE
!is.nan(13000 ^ 75) # TRUE, it's a infinite number (on my machine)
```

1.11.3 NULL

 $\tt NULL$ stands for emptiness – in contrast to NA, which stands for a missing entry. As opposed to NA, $\tt NULL$ cannot be part of a vector:

```
v <- c(1, 2, NULL, 4) # 1 2 4
length(v) # 3, not 4
c(NULL, NULL, NULL) # NULL</pre>
```

```
NULL values can be detected:
foo <- NULL
is.null(foo) # TRUE
bar <- "hello"
is.null(bar) # FALSE
NULL can be used in arithmetic expressions with the effect of returning the
resulting type.
17 + NULL # numeric(0)
NULL >= 5 # logical(0)
{\tt NULL} dominates in combination with {\tt Inf}, {\tt NaN} and {\tt NA}:
NULL + Inf - NaN + 3 * NA # numeric(0)
1.12 Objects
1.12.1 Attributes
Every object can store additional attributes:
o.description = "The answer to everything"
Show the attributes of an object:
m <- matrix(1:4, ncol = 2)</pre>
attributes(m)
$dim
2 2
Access an attribute:
attributes(m)$dim # 2 2
attr(x = m, which = "dim") # same using a string
Some attributes have their own function:
dim(m) # 2 2
1.12.2 Classes
Find out the class of an object:
class(c(1, 2, 3)) # "numeric"
```

class("foo") # "character"

```
class(matrix(1:4)) # "matrix"
class(array(1:100)) # "array"
class(factor(c("R", "G", "B"))) # "factor"
class(5 > 3) # "logical"
class(length(c(1, 2, 3))) # "integer"
Some objects have multiple classes due to ineritance:
bits \leftarrow factor(x = c(1, 0, 0, 1, 0), levels = c(0, 1), ordered = TRUE)
class(bits) # "ordered" "factor"
Objects can be checked whether or not they are of a certain class:
is.numeric(3) # TRUE
is.character("abc") # TRUE
is.matrix(matrix(1:4)) # TRUE
is.array(array(1:100)) # TRUE
is.factor(factor(c(1, 0, 1, 1, 0))) # TRUE
is.logical(5 > 3) # TRUE
is.integer(length(1:3)) # TRUE
is.vector(1:3) # TRUE
Convert explicitly from one type to another (coercion):
as.numeric("12") # 12
as.numeric("1.2e5") # 12000
as.character(13) # "13"
as.numeric("howdy!") # NA
as.logical(0) # FALSE
as.logical(as.numeric(c("1", "0", "0", "1"))) # TRUE FALSE FALSE TRUE
m \leftarrow matrix(1:4, ncol = 2)
as.vector(m) # 1 2 3 4
a \leftarrow array(1:8, dim = c(2, 2, 2))
as.matrix(a)
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
as.vector(a) # 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
```

1.13 Plotting

Simple plots can be drawn using two vectors of x and y coordinates of the same length:

```
x \leftarrow c(3, 2, 7, 8)

y \leftarrow c(2, 5, 6, 1)

plot(x, y)
```

When using matrices for plotting, the first column holds the x values, and the second column holds the y values:

```
m <- matrix(1:4, ncol = 2)

1      3  # point (1;3)
2      4  # point (2;4)

plot(m)</pre>
```

When using a single vector for plotting, each value serves as the x and the y coordinate at the same time:

```
plot(1:3) # plots (1;1), (2;2), (3;3)
```

Plots can be (optically) enhanced using various options:

- type: the plotting style, a single character
 - "p": points
 - "1": lines
 - "b": both (points and lines)
 - "c": empty points joined by lines
 - "o": overplotted points and lines
 - "s": stair steps (lower Riemann areas)
 - "S": stair steps (upper Riemann areas)
 - "n": none
- main: the main title of the plot, characters
- xlab, ylab: labels for the x and y axis, characters
- pch: the character to be used to draw the dots, either a number from 1 to 25 (pre-defined styles) or any single character
- cex: character expansion, stretches the point by the given factor, a number
- lty: the line type ("solid", "dotted" or "dashed")
- lwd: the line width, a number
- xlim, ylim: horizontal and vertical ranges as vectors (c(lower, upper))
- col: the color for the dots/lines, either a color name, a number (from 1 to
- 8) or a hex code (like #ffffff for white)

1.13.1 Additional Elements

Calling the plot() function always creates a new output and removes the old one. Elements can be added to an existing plot using these functions:

```
lines(x = c(1, 3, 2), y = c(3, 1, 2))
# plots a line connecting P(1;3), P(3;1) and P(2;2)

points(x = c(1, 3, 2), y = c(3, 1, 2))
# plots the points P(1;3), P(3;1) and P(2;2)

text(x = 5, y = 3, "Nothing") # the text "Nothing" centered around P(5;3)

arrows(x0 = 1, y0 = 2, x1 = 4, y1 = 7)
# draws an arrow pointing from P(1;2) to P(4;7)

abline(a = 2, b = 3) # line with the slope 2 and y intercept 3 (P(0;3), that is)

abline(h = 2) # a horizontal line on y = 2

abline(v = 1) # a vertical line on x = 1

segments(x0 = c(1, 4), y0 = c(1, 1), x1 = c(1, 4), y1 = c(5, 5))
# two vertical lines from P(1;1) to P(1;5) and from P(4;1) to P(4;5)

legend(x = "bottomleft", legend = c("Male", "Female"), pch = c("+", "x"))
# a legend on the bottom left position (+: Male, x: Female)
```

1.13.2 Saving Plots to Files

Plots can be saved to files. Various formats are supported, for example PNG, JPEG, TIFF, BMP, PDF and EPS (postscript). Plotting to a screen is a special case of plotting: it draws directly on the screen device. Files are handled as devices, too..

In order to save a plot to a file, just open the file device, do the plots and close the device:

```
png(filename = "plot.png")
plot(1:10, 2:11)
dev.off()
The dimensions are 480x480 pixels by default, but can be overwritten:
png(filename = "plot.png", width = 800, height = 600)
Other units than pixels can be used when providing the DPI resolution:
png(filename = "plot.png", width = 9, height = 8, units = "cm", res = 300)
```

For postscript and PDF output, the default unit is inches – and the filename parameter is called file:

```
pdf(file = "plot.pdf", width = 8, height = 6)
```

For SVG output, parameters such as the font and the background can be defined:

```
svg(filename = "plot.svg", family = "serif", bg = "grey")
```

1.13.3 Plotting Examples

1.13.3.1 Example 1: Drawing Features

```
plot(x = c(), xlim = c(-3, 3), ylim = c(7, 13), xlab="", ylab="")
abline(v = c(-3,3), h = c(7,13), lty = "dashed", col = "grey", lwd = 3)
x0 = c(-2.5, -2.5, -2.5, 2.5, 2.5, 2.5)
y0 = c(7.5, 10, 12.5, 12.5, 10, 7.5)
x1 = c(-1, -1, -1, 1, 1, 1)
y1 = c(9.5, 10, 10.5, 10.5, 10, 9.5)
arrows(x0, y0, x1, y1)
text(x = 0, y = 10, "SOMETHING\nPROFOUND")
```

1.13.3.2 Example 2: Colored Graph and Legend

1.13.3.3 Example 3: Law of Large Numbers

nTosses <- 500

```
## toss the coin, get head ("H") or tails ("T")
tosses <- sample(c('H', 'T'), size = nTosses, replace = TRUE)

v <- rep(0, length(tosses))
heads <- data.frame(tossNumber = v, headCount = v, headRatio = v)

for (n in 1:length(v)) {</pre>
```

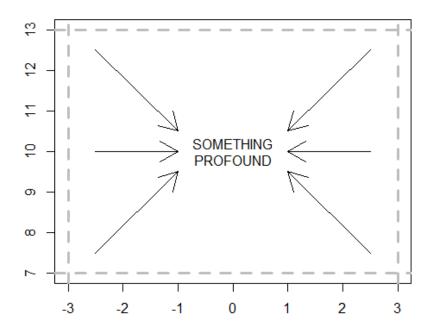


Figure 1: Example 1: Various Drawing Features

Female/Male: Height by Weight

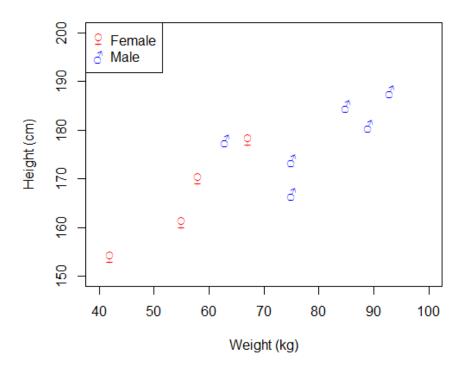


Figure 2: Example 2: Colored Graph with Legend

```
h <- 0
for (i in 1:n) {
   if (tosses[i] == 'H') {
     h <- h + 1
   }
}
heads$tossNumber[n] = n
heads$headCount[n] = h
heads$headRatio[n] = heads$headCount[n] / n
}

plot(x = c(), type = "l", xlim = c(0, nTosses), ylim = c(0,1),
   main = "Coin Tosses", xlab = "Toss Number", ylab = "Heads Ratio")
abline(h = 0.5, col = "red")
lines(x = heads$tossNumber, y = heads$headRatio)
axis(side = 2, at = c(0.5))</pre>
```

1.14 Pre-Installed Data Sets

R comes with of pre-installed data sets, which can be listed:

```
library(help = "datasets")
```

To get more information about one of the data sets listed, just use the help function:

```
?Titanic # Survival of passengers on the Titanic
```

Other data sets can be installed just like packages, for example the tseries package:

```
install.packages("tseries")
```

Load the ice.river data set into the current workspace:

```
data(ice.river)
```

Now the ice.river data set can be accessed and explored like any variable.

A good resource for free statistical example data is the Journal of Statistics Education (JSE).

1.15 Working with Files

1.15.1 Reading Text Files

Sample file (table.txt):

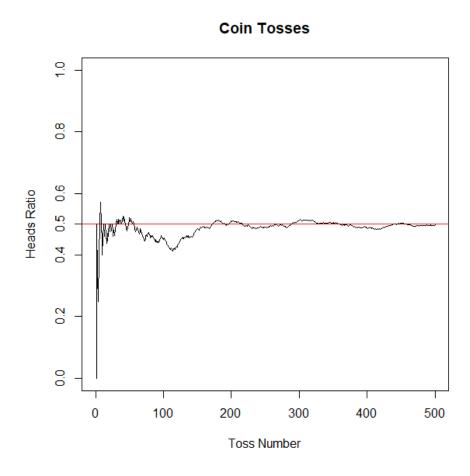


Figure 3: Example 3: Coin Tosses: Law of Large Numbers

```
species mammal legs area
cow TRUE 4 land
spider FALSE 8 land
whale TRUE N/A sea
bird TRUE 2 air
```

Read tabular data from a file (table.txt):

```
animals <- read.table(file = "table.txt", header = TRUE, sep = " ",
    na.strings = "N/A", stringsAsFactors = FALSE)</pre>
```

Parameters:

- file: the (absolute or relative) file name
- header: whether or not the first line should be read as a header
- sep: the seperator (here: one space, use "" for any amount of whitespace)
- na.strings: define which strings (either a single string or a vector of strings) should be recognized as NA values
- stringsAsFactors: whether or not string columns should be interpreted as factors (same parameter as for data.frame)

If *some* of the non-numeric columns should be interpreted as factors, simply overwrite them, providing optional levels (in case some possible values are missing in the data set):

```
animals$area = factor(animals$area)
animals$area = factor(animals$area, levels = c("air", "land", "sea")
```

Either use an absolute file path or make sure to change your working directory:

```
getwd() # "C:/Users/patrick.bucher/Documents/R"
setwd("tables") # relative path (absolute paths are also possible)
getwd() # "C:/Users/patrick.bucher/Documents/R/tables"
```

List all files in the current working directory (for more information type ?list.files and ?list.dirs):

```
list.files()
```

Files can also be choosen interactively, returning the absolute path of the file selected:

```
myFile <- file.choose()</pre>
```

Files can also be read directly from the web:

```
forbes500 <- read.table(file = "http://forbes.com/assets/filthy-rich-people.txt")</pre>
```

1.15.2 Reading CSV Files

Sample file (table.csv):

CSV files often use the semicolon (;) or the tab (\t) as the seperator value, so make sure to define the sep parameter accordingly:

```
animals <- read.csv(file = "table.csv", header = TRUE,
    stringsAsFactors = TRUE, sep = ';')
```

1.15.3 Writing Files

Sample data frame:

```
names <- c("Sepp", "Max", "Uschi")
sex <- factor("M", "M", "F")
age <- c(42, 50, 61)
people <- data.frame(person = names, sex = sex, age = age)</pre>
```

Write the data frame to a tabular text file:

```
write.table(x = people, file = "people.txt")
```

Write the data frame to a CSV file:

```
write.csv(x = people, file = "people.csv", row.names = TRUE)
```

The argument row.names adds an unnamed column with a row counter to the output.

Store any single object in a file:

```
m \leftarrow matrix(1:64, ncol = 8) \# 8x8 matrix dput(x = m, file = "matrix.txt")
```

Retreive a formerly stored object from a file:

```
m <- dget(file = "matrix.txt")</pre>
```

1.16 Timing

Pause the program execution for a given amount of time (in seconds):

```
for (i in 1:10) {
    print(i)
    Sys.sleep(0.5)
}
Display a textual progress bar:
from <- 1
to <- 10
prog <- txtProgressBar(min = from, max = to, char = "#", style = 3)</pre>
cat("counting from", from, "to", to, "\n")
for (i in from:to) {
    setTxtProgressBar(prog, value = i)
    Sys.sleep(0.5)
}
close(prog)
Get the current date and time:
Sys.time() # returns current date time
Sys.Date() # returns current date
Format date and time:
format(Sys.time(), "%d.%m.%Y %H:%M") # 30.07.2017 17:41
format(Sys.time(), "%s") # 1501429298, UNIX timestamp
Measure execution time (difference between two times):
start <- Sys.time()</pre>
Sys.sleep(1.23)
end <- Sys.time()</pre>
diff <- end - start # diff is of type "difftime"
as.numeric(diff, units = "secs") # time difference in seconds, around 1.23
Measure duration of a function call (similar to the UNIX command time):
system.time(sqrt(mean(1:1e9)))
Output:
user system elapsed
1.504 0.233 1.738
```

2 Programming

2.1 Conditions

2.1.1 If, Else If, Else

```
Simple if-else if-else conditions:
r <- sample(1:10, 1) # random number from 1 to 10
if (r > 6) {
   print("big")
} else if (r < 4) {
   print("small")
} else {
   print("medium")
}
Combined logical conditions:
year <- sample(c(1900:2100), 1) # a random year from 1900 to 2100</pre>
if (year \%, 4 == 0 && (year <math>\%, 100 != 0 || year \%, 400 == 0)) {
    cat(year, "is a leap year")
} else {
    cat(year, "is not a leap year")
}
Apply conditions to a series of numbers:
x <- sample(1:10, 5) # 5 numbers from 1 to 10
y <- sample(0:2, replace = TRUE, 5) # 5 numbers from 0 to 2
q \leftarrow ifelse(test = (y != 0), yes = (x / y), no = NA)
\# divide x by y if y is not equal to y, otherwhise return NA
2.1.2 Switch-Case
Switch-case in R is implemented as a function:
animal <- sample(c("Spider", "Cow", "Bird"), 1)</pre>
legs <- switch(EXPR = animal, Spider = 8, Cow = 4, Bird = 2)</pre>
cat(animal, legs) # prints either "Spider 8", "Cow 4" or "Bird 2"
```

2.2 Loops

2.2.1 For Loops

```
Loop over the elements of a vector (by value):
abc <- c("A", "B", "C")
for (i in abc) {
    print(i)
}
# prints "A" "B" "C"
Loop over the elements of a vector (by index):
abc <- c("A", "B", "C")
for (i in 1:length(abc)) {
    print(abc[i])
}
# prints "A" "B" "C", too
Nested loops (implementing the "Bubble Sort" algorithm):
x <- sample(1:10, 10)
print(x)
for (i in 1:length(x)) {
    for (j in 1:length(x)) {
         if (x[i] < x[j]) {</pre>
             tmp <- x[i]
             x[i] \leftarrow x[j]
             x[j] \leftarrow tmp
         }
    }
}
2.2.2 While Loops
Loop as long as a condition holds true:
x <- 3
while (x > 0) {
    print(x)
    x <- x - 1
# prints 3 2 1
Use a loop to get input from the user:
number = 0
while (number <= 0) {</pre>
```

```
input = readline(prompt = "Enter a positive number: ")
number = as.numeric(input)
}
```

2.2.3 Implicit Looping

Apply a function to the columns or rows of a matrix (define the dimension the function should be applied to using the MARGIN parameter):

```
m <- matrix(data = sample(1:16, 16), ncol = 2)
rowSums = apply(X = m, MARGIN = 1, FUN = sum)
colSums = apply(X = m, MARGIN = 2, FUN = sum)

Create a random matrix, sum up its rows and put the result in a new matrix:
numbers <- sample(1:8, 8)
m <- matrix(data = numbers, ncol = 2, dimnames = list(1:4, c("A", "B")))
rowSums <- apply(X = m, MARGIN = 1, FUN = sum)
colums <- cbind(m, rowSums)
m2 <- matrix(columns, ncol = 3, dimnames = list(1:4, c("A", "B", "Sum")))
Apply a function to every member of a list:
1 <- list("a", 13, TRUE)
lapply(X = 1, FUN = is.numeric) # returns a list (FALSE TRUE FALSE)
sapply(X = 1, FUN = is.numeric) # returns a vector (FALSE TRUE FALSE)</pre>
```

2.2.4 Leave a Loop

A loop can be left prematurely using the break keyword (a binary search to guess a secret number):

```
min = 1
max = 100
secret = sample(min:max, 1)
print(paste("don't tell: the secret number is", secret))

guess = 0
tries = 0
while (TRUE) {
    guess = as.integer((min + max) / 2)
    print(paste("guessed", guess))
    tries <- tries + 1
    if (guess == secret) {
        print("right")
            print(paste("found the secret after", tries, "attempts"))
            break</pre>
```

```
} else {
    print("wrong")
    if (guess > secret) {
        max = guess
    } else {
        min = guess
    }
}
```

2.2.5 Skip a Loop Item

A loop item can be skipped using the next keyword (a loop that performs divisions only on non-zero divisors):

```
n <- 10
dividends = sample(1:100, n)
divisors = sample(0:3, replace = TRUE, n)

for (i in 1:n) {
    if (divisors[i] == 0) {
        next
    }
    q <- dividends[i] / divisors[i]
    print(paste(dividends[i], "/", divisors[i], "=", q))
}</pre>
```

2.2.6 Repeat

Instead of writing while (TRUE), an endless loop can be defined using the repeat keyword (such a loop can only be ended using break):

```
print("CC: CrappyCalculator")
repeat {
    i <- trimws(readline("Enter '+' for addition or 'q' to quit: "))
    if (i == "q") {
        break
    }
    if (i != "+") {
        next
    }
    a <- as.numeric(readline("Enter a number: "))
    b <- as.numeric(readline("Enter another number: "))
    print(paste(a, "+", b, "is", a + b))
}</pre>
```

2.3 Functions

A recursive function to calculate Fibonacci numbers:

```
fib <- function(n) {
    if (n == 1 || n == 2) {
        return(1)
    } else {
        return(fib(n - 2) + fib(n - 1))
    }
}</pre>
```

If return is left away, the last object created in the lexical environment will be returned (this function works exactly like the one above):

```
fib <- function(n) {
    if (n == 1 || n == 2) {
          1
    } else {
        fib(n - 2) + fib(n - 1)
    }
}</pre>
```

The variadic arguments . . . first have to be converted into a vector or list in order to work with them:

```
numberOfArguments <- function(...) {
    args <- c(...)
    return(length(args))
}
numberOfArguments(1, 2, 3)
numberOfArguments(1:10)</pre>
```

Function definitions can be nested within other functions:

```
average <- function(...) {
    args = c(...)
    sum <- function(x) {
        s <- 0
        for (i in x) {
            s <- s + i
        }
        return(s)
    }
    return(sum(args) / length(args))
}
average(sample(1:10, replace = TRUE, 100))</pre>
```

Functions can also defined ad hoc, so called disposable functions:

```
sapply(1:10, FUN = function(x) { x ** 2 })
# squares all the numbers from 1 to 10
```

When defining a function with a name already used (such as sum), the new user-defined function hides the original function:

```
sum(1:10) # calls the original function

sum <- function(...) {
    print("this sum function is user-defined")
    total <- 0
    for (i in c(...)) {
        total <- total + i
    }
    return(total)
}

sum(1:10) # calls the user-defined function

The original function can be accessed using a package qualifier:
base::sum(1:10) # calls the original function</pre>
```

2.4 Warnings and Exceptions

Throw a warning or an exception:

```
saveDivide <- function(x, y) {</pre>
    if (x == 0) {
        # throw a warning message
        warning("zero value can't be divided")
    }
    if (y == 0) {
        # throw an exception, halts the execution
        stop("can't divide by zero")
    return(x / y)
}
saveDivide(0, 2) # causes warning
saveDivide(2, 0) # causes exception, halts execution
print("done") # this won't be executed
Catch an error (silent = TRUE suppresses the original error message):
x <- try(saveDivide(2, 0), silent = TRUE)
if ("try-error" == attr(x, "class")) {
    print("division failed")
```

```
} else {
    print(x)
Suppress a warning:
sqrt(-1): # returns NaN, arning: "NaNs produced"
suppressWarning(sqrt(-1)) # just returns NaN
Advanced error handling with tryCatch (using the saveDivide(x, y) function
from above):
dividends = sample(0:3, 4)
divisors = sample(0:3, 4)
for (c in 1:4) {
    a = dividends[c]
    b = divisors[c]
    cat("try to divide", a, "by", b, "\n")
    result <- tryCatch({</pre>
        # try part
        saveDivide(a, b)
    }, warning = function(warning) {
        # catch part (for warnings)
        return(0)
    }, error = function(error) {
        # catch part (for errors)
        return(NA)
    }, finally = {
        # finally part (for cleanup)
        cat("division", a, "by", b, "done\n")
    })
    cat("result:", result, "\n")
}
Example output:
try to divide 2 by 2
division 2 by 2 done
result: 1
try to divide 1 by 3
division 1 by 3 done
result: 0.3333333
try to divide 3 by 1
division 3 by 1 done
result: 3
try to divide 0 by 0
```

```
division 0 by 0 done result: 0
```

3 Statistics

3.1 Basic Terms

- raw data: records or observations that make up a sample
- numeric variables
 - continuous: weight of a person, distance between two points
 - discrete: number of coin tosses, population of a village
- categorial variables
 - nominal (unranked categories): color, nationality
 - ordinal (ranked categories): level (low, medium, high)
- univariate data: only one dimension (weight, length, duration etc.)
- multivariate data: more than one dimension (latitude/longitude, x/y position, weight/height)
- parameter: characteristic of a population
 - true mean μ
- statistic: characteristic of a sample (drawn from the population)
 - sample mean x

3.2 Summary Statistics

3.2.1 Mean, Median, Mode

Calculate the mean (arithmetic average) and median (the middle value for a set with odd length or the mean of the two middle values for a set with an even length, respectively):

```
data <- c(1,1,1,2,2,3,3,3,3,4,4,4,4,5,5,6,7,8,8,9)
mean(data) # 4.15
median(data) # 4
Calculate the mode (most common value(s) in a set):
mode <- function(v) {
    # convert values to a table (containing the values and the number of # occurences for each value))
    t <- table(v)

# select the table entries with the biggest number of occurences
    m <- t[t == max(t)]</pre>
```

```
# return the value with the most occurences as a number
    return(as.numeric(names(m)))
}
mode(data) # 3 4 (the most common values, both occur four times)
Apply summarizing functions on a data frame, grouped by an index (see
?chickwts, for details):
tapply(X = chickwts$weight, INDEX = chickwts$feed, FUN = mean)
tapply(X = chickwts$weight, INDEX = chickwts$feed, FUN = median)
3.2.2 Quantiles, Percentiles
Calculate the quantile of a vector (0% minimum, 50% median, 100% maximum):
# 100 random numbers from 1 to 10
s <- sample(x = 1:10, replace = TRUE, size = 100)
quantile(s) # default quantiles: 0%, 25%, 50%, 75% and 100%
quantile(s, prob = c(0, 0.5, 1)) # just 0%, 50% and 100%
quantile(s, prob = seq(from = 0, to = 1, by = 0.1)) # 0\%, 10\% etcetera
Output:
  0%
       25%
             50%
                    75% 100%
1.00 3.00 6.00 8.25 10.00
 0%
     50% 100%
 1
       6
           10
    10% 20%
               30% 40%
                          50%
                               60%
                                   70% 80% 90% 100%
1.0 2.0
          2.8
              3.0
                    5.0
                          6.0
                              7.0
                                    8.0 9.0 10.0 10.0
From this output, information can be obtained, such as:
  • 25% of all the values in the sample are below 3
  • 0% of all values in the sample are below or equal to 1.0 (not a single value)
  • 100% of all values in the sample are below or equal to 10.0 (all values)
Obtaining the "five-number summary":
summary(sample(x = 1:10, replace = TRUE, size = 100))
Output:
Min. 1st Qu.
              Median
                         Mean 3rd Qu.
                                          Max.
1.00
        3.00
                 6.00
                         5.66
                                 8.00
                                         10.00
```

3.2.3 Spread

Observations with different characteristics could have similar or equal means and medians:

```
a <- c(1,2,3,10,11,12,19,20,21)
b <- c(7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15)
mean(a) # 11
mean(b) # 11
median(a) # 11
median(b) # 11
```

The degree of spread of numeric observations can be measured with variance (average squared distance) and the standard deviation (the square root of the variance):

```
var(a) # 61.5
var(b) # 7.5

sd(a) # 7.842194, same as sqrt(var(a))
sd(b) # 2.738613, same as sqrt(var(b))
```

The interquartile range measures the width of the "middle 50%" of the data :

```
as.numeric(quantile(a, 0.75) - quantile(a, 0.25)) # 16
IQR(a) # same, but shorter
as.numeric(quantile(b, 0.75) - quantile(b, 0.25)) # 4
IQR(b) # 4
```

3.2.4 Covariance and Correlation

Two variables can be more or less related to each other:

```
height <- c(170, 168, 181, 188, 195, 182, 157, 175, 177, 183) weight <- c(82, 67, 95, 112, 100, 82, 63, 90, 67, 75) plot(height, weight)
```

Calculate the covariance (how much two variables "change together") and the correlation (identify the direction and strength of the covariance):

```
cov(height, weight) # 128.3556, positive linear relationship
cor(height, weight) # 0.7424948, strong correlation, close to one
```

If the points in the plot would align to a straight line, the correlation would be exactly 1.

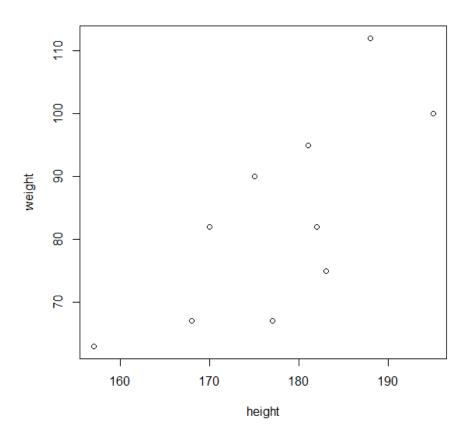


Figure 4: Weight by Height

3.3 Probability Distributions

R offers four types of functions for probability distributions, using a one-letter prefix:

- 'd' functions: providing specific probability values
- 'p' functions: providing cumulative probability values
- 'q' functions: providing quantiles (reverse function of the 'p' function)
- 'r' functions: providing random values

3.3.1 Mass Functions (for Discrete Variables)

Binomial distribution: The probability of getting n out of x when p(n) is given. Roll a die (probability of 1/6 of getting a certain value):

```
# getting the desired value 5 times (x) when rolling a die 10 times (size)
dbinom(x=5, size=10, prob=1/6) # 0.01302381
# getting the desired value up to five times
sum(dbinom(x=0:5, size=10, prob=1/6) # 0.9975618
pbinom(x=5, size=10, prob=1/6) # same, using the cumulative function
# how many desired values to get with a given probability of 50%
qbinom(p=0.5, size=10, prob=1/6) # 2
# do 5 (n) random experiments with 10 (size) die rolls
# see how many desired values you get
rbinom(n=5, size=10, prob=1/6) # 3 1 0 1 3 (for example)
```

Poisson distribution:

Geometric distribution:

Negative binomial distribution:

Hypergeometric distribution:

Multinomial distribution:

3.3.2 Density Functions (for Continuous Variables)

Uniform distribution:

Normal distribution:

Student's t distribution:

Exponential distribution:

Chi-squared distribution:

F distribution:

Gamma distribution:

Beta distribution: