# **Q&A Vector-Subsetting-Iteration-Function**

# Question

# Subsetting:

How can I subset a vector based on a condition that involves a function, like selecting all values greater than the mean of the vector?

If we have a vector v, we can calculate its mean using mean(v). To find values in v that are greater than its mean, you can use v[v > mean(v)].

# Example:

Consider the vector v from 1 to 10. Its mean is 5.5.

```
v <- c(1:10)
v[v > mean(v)]
```

```
[1] 6 7 8 9 10
```

# Question

# Subsetting

Names are so special, that there are special ways to create them and view them

```
x <- c(a = 1, b = 2, c = 3)
```

```
a b c
1 2 3
```

```
names(x)
```

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

Or we can create it as follow

```
y <- 11:13
names(y) <- c("A", "B", "C")
y
```

A B C 11 12 13

```
names(y)
```

```
[1] "A" "B" "C"
```

• You can remove names with unname() function from {base} package.

```
unname(x) ->z
```

[1] 1 2 3

```
names(z)
```

NULL

• Names stay with single bracket [] subsetting

x

a b c 1 2 3

```
names(x[1])
```

[1] "a"

```
names(x[1:2])
```

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

Not double bracket subsetting [[]]

```
names(x[[1]])
```

NULL

• Names can be used for subsetting (more in Chapter 4)

```
x[["a"]]
```

[1] 1

# Difference betwen [], [[]] and \$

Sometimes you want just part of an object. In some cases you will use square [ ] brackets or double square [[ ]] brackets, and in other cases you will use a dollar sign \$.

# Extracting elements from a vector

```
x <- seq(from = 5, to = 50, by = 5)
x
```

[1] 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50

we can, for example, extract the 2nd element,

x[2]

[1] 10

we can also do it by

x[[2]]

[1] 10

Elements 3 to 6,

x[3:6]

[1] 15 20 25 30

Elements 2, 3, 5, 8

x[c(2, 3, 5, 8)]

[1] 10 15 25 40

All elements but 7

x[-7]

[1] 5 10 15 20 25 30 40 45 50

All values between 15 and 30, including 15

x[x<30 & x>= 15]

[1] 15 20 25

You can extract elements of a vector by using logical.

x[c(TRUE, TRUE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, FALSE)]

[1] 5 10 15 25 40

# Extracting elements from a matrix or array

Similarly, we can extract elements from a matrix or array, but now we need multiple indices separated by commas. For example, given the following 2-dimensional matrix x,

```
x \leftarrow matrix(c(10,12,31,14,51,60), nrow = 2, ncol = 3)
```

```
[,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 10 31 51
[2,] 12 14 60
```

Extract the element in the 2nd row and 3rd column

```
x[2, 3]
```

[1] 60

Extract the second row

```
x[2,]
```

[1] 12 14 60

Extract the third

```
x[, 3]
```

[1] 51 60

If you leave out the comma, you will get an answer not an error. For example:

```
x[3]
```

[1] 31

But it is ambiguous to say "the 3rd element of a matrix" since you could go down columns or across rows. R has a default, but rather than try to remember what that is, just do not forget the comma and then there is no ambiguity.

# • ARRAY

```
, , 1
   [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       10
[2,]
       12
, , 2
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       51
             7
[2,]
            53
       60
we can extract a single element,
z[2,1,2]
[1] 60
A sub-vector,
z[1,,2]
[1] 51 7
Or a sub-matrix,
z[,2,] # Second columns of any row and any of two sub-matrices. Just remember by default it:
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       31
             7
[2,]
       14
            53
```

 $z \leftarrow array(c(10,12,31,14,51,60, 7, 53), dim = c(2,2,2))$ 

z[,,2] # The Second sub-matrices

```
[,1] [,2]
[1,] 51 7
[2,] 60 53
```

z[2,,] # The Second rows of any columns and any of two sub-matrices. Just remember by default

```
[,1] [,2]
[1,] 12 60
[2,] 14 53
```

# Extracting elements from a list

For a list, you can use single square [ ] brackets or double square [[ ]] brackets, depending on what you want to extract.

```
x <- list("5", c(1,2,3), factor(c("BMW", "FORD", "GM", "FORD", "JEEP", "BMW", "FORD")))
x

[[1]]
[1] "5"

[[2]]
[1] 1 2 3

[[3]]
[1] BMW FORD GM FORD JEEP BMW FORD
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP</pre>
```

• We can use [ ] to extract a sub-list containing only, for example, the second element,

```
x[1]

[[1]]

[1] "5"

class(x[1])

[1] "list"
```

```
x[2]
[[1]]
[1] 1 2 3
class(x[2])
[1] "list"
x[3]
[[1]]
[1] BMW FORD GM
                    FORD JEEP BMW FORD
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP
class(x[3])
[1] "list"
or multiple elements,
x[c(1, 3)]
[[1]]
[1] "5"
[[2]]
[1] BMW FORD GM
                    FORD JEEP BMW FORD
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP
class(x[c(1, 3)])
```

[1] "list"

• Or we can use [[ ]] to extract a single element, which will have the class of that element.

```
x[[1]]
[1] "5"
class(x[[1]])
[1] "character"
x[[2]]
[1] 1 2 3
class(x[[2]])
[1] "numeric"
x[[3]]
[1] BMW FORD GM FORD JEEP BMW FORD
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP
class(x[[3]])
[1] "factor"
x[[1]][1]
[1] "5"
class(x[[1]][1])
[1] "character"
x[[1]][2]
[1] NA
```

```
class(x[[1]][2])
[1] "character"
x[[2]][1]
[1] 1
class(x[[2]][1])
[1] "numeric"
x[[2]][2]
[1] 2
x[[2]][3]
[1] 3
x[[3]][1]
[1] BMW
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP
class(x[[3]][1])
[1] "factor"
x[[3]][2]
[1] FORD
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP
```

```
x[[3]][3]

[1] GM
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP

x[[3]][4]

[1] FORD
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP

x[[3]][5]

[1] JEEP
Levels: BMW FORD GM JEEP

class(x[[3]][5])

[1] "factor"
```

# Extracting elements from a data frame

Recall that a data.frame is special type of list where each element is one of the columns. You can access the elements of a data.frame in a number of ways, including the \$ method.

```
outcome exposure age
1
        1
                Yes
                     24
2
        0
                Yes
                      55
3
        1
                 No
                      39
4
        1
                 No
                     18
```

• we can extract a data.frame made up of a subset of columns using [],

# df[1:2] outcome exposure 1 1 Yes 2 0 Yes 3 1 No 4 1 No class(df[1:2]) [1] "data.frame" df[c("outcome", "exposure")] outcome exposure 1 Yes 1 2 0 Yes 3 1 No 4 1 ullet A single column of the data.frame, returned as the class of that column, using [[ ]] or df[3] age 1 24 2 55 3 39 4 18 class(df[3])

[1] "data.frame"

# df[[3]]

[1] 24 55 39 18

```
class(df[[3]])
[1] "numeric"
df["age"]
  age
   24
   55
   39
   18
class(df["age"])
[1] "data.frame"
df[["age"]]
[1] 24 55 39 18
class(df[["age"]])
[1] "numeric"
df$age
[1] 24 55 39 18
class(df$age)
[1] "numeric"
```

When using the \$ method, if the variable name has *spaces*, then enclose it in (not regular quotes) when extracting it. To illustrate, let's change the names of this data.frame by assigning a new value to its names().

```
names(df) <- c("Outcome Level", "Exposure", "Age")
df</pre>
```

	${\tt Outcome}$	Level	Exposure	Age
1		1	Yes	24
2		0	Yes	55
3		1	No	39
4		1	No	18

# df\$`Outcome Level`

# [1] 1 0 1 1

The double and single quotation still is working. But R studio by default wrao the column names wit the backticks.

```
df$"Outcome Level"
```

[1] 1 0 1 1

# df\$'Outcome Level'

# [1] 1 0 1 1

• You can also extract elements of a data.frame using matrix indexing.

# df[,1]

[1] 1 0 1 1

# class(df[,1])

#### [1] "numeric"

the first row of df, returning a data.frame with 1 row,

```
df[1,]
  Outcome Level Exposure Age
               1
                       Yes 24
1
class(df[1,])
[1] "data.frame"
df[2,]
  Outcome Level Exposure Age
2
               0
                       Yes 55
or the first column of x, returning a vector of the class of that column,
df[,1]
[1] 1 0 1 1
class(df[,1])
```

# [1] "numeric"

or a data.frame if you include drop=F.

# df[,1,drop=F]

# class(df[,1,drop=F])

#### [1] "data.frame"

If extracting more than 1 column, drop=F is not necessary to return a data.frame.

# df[,2:3]

```
Exposure Age
1 Yes 24
2 Yes 55
3 No 39
4 No 18
```

# class(df[,2:3])

# [1] "data.frame"

In any of these column extraction via matrix-subsetting examples, you can use the column names.

# df[, "Outcome Level", drop=F]

```
class(df[, "Outcome Level", drop=F])
```

# [1] "data.frame"

• Some data.frame objects have rownames. By default, R just assigns numbers.

# rownames(df)

```
[1] "1" "2" "3" "4"
```

But suppose we have a data frame with, say, participant IDs as the row names.

```
rownames(df) <- c("B239", "B211", "B101", "B439")
df
```

	Outcome	Level	Exposure	Age
B239		1	Yes	24
B211		0	Yes	55
B101		1	No	39
B439		1	No	18

Then you can subset rows using row names.

```
df[c("B211", "B439"),]
```

```
Outcome Level Exposure Age B211 0 Yes 55 B439 1 No 18
```

You can also subset rows of a data.frame using logical statements about the values in the data.frame.

```
df[df$Exposure == "Yes",]
```

```
Outcome Level Exposure Age B239 1 Yes 24 B211 0 Yes 55
```

# Question:

# How to handle missing values?

In R, missing values are typically represented as NA. To check for missing values in variables, we use R's is.na() function. To find available values, we negate this function.

#### • Question:

Determine the number of missing values and the available items.

```
df <- tibble(
   C1 = c(1, 2, NA, 4, 5, 6),
   C2 = c(NA, 2, 3, NA, 5, 6),
   C3 = c(1, NA, 3, 4, NA, 6)
)
missing_values <- is.na(df)
sum(missing_values) -> n_miss
cat("The number of missing values are ", n_miss)
```

The number of missing values are 5

```
n_available_items <- nrow(df)*ncol(df) - n_miss
cat("\n \n The number of available items is determined by multiplying the observations by the</pre>
```

The number of available items is determined by multiplying the observations by the number of

Handling missing values depends on the context and the nature of your data. Let's explore two common options:

#### 1. Removing Missing Values (Deletion):

- Pros:
  - Simple and straightforward.
  - Avoids imputing potentially incorrect values.
- Cons:
  - Reduces the sample size.
  - May lead to biased results if missingness is not random.
- When to Use:
  - If the proportion of missing values is small and randomly distributed.
  - If you can afford to lose some data.
- I. Removes the rows that contain NA.

```
dfn <- drop_na(df)
dfn</pre>
```

```
# A tibble: 1 x 3
        C1    C2    C3
        <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> 1        6    6
```

Using drop\_na() Function of {tidyr} Package.

• II. This will remove rows only if they have NA in C1

```
drop_na(df,C1)
```

```
# A tibble: 5 x 3
      C1
            C2
                   C3
  <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
       1
            NA
1
                     1
2
       2
              2
                   NA
3
       4
            NA
                     4
       5
4
              5
                   NA
       6
              6
5
                     6
```

• III. This will remove rows only if they have NA in either C1 or C3. Rows with NA in C2 will be retained.

```
drop_na(df,C1, C3)
```

- 2. Imputing with Mean (or Other Measures):
  - Pros:
    - Retains the entire dataset.
    - Preserves statistical power.
  - Cons:
    - Assumes that missing values are missing at random.
    - May introduce bias if the mean is not representative.
  - When to Use:
    - If the proportion of missing values is significant.

```
 \begin{split} df_1 &<- \text{ tibble}(A = c(2, \, 2, \, \text{NA}, \, 10, \, 20, \, \text{NA}, \, 3) \,, \\ & B = c(1, \, \text{NA}, \, 5, \, \text{NA}, \, 8, \, 9, \, \text{NA}) \,, \\ & C = c(\text{NA}, \, 4, \, 6, \, 7, \, \text{NA}, \, 2, \, 3) \, \\ ) \\ & \text{missing\_values} &<- \text{is.na}(df_1) \\ & \text{sum}(\text{missing\_values}) \, -> \, \text{n\_miss} \\ & \text{cat}(\text{"The number of missing values are ", n\_miss}) \end{split}
```

The number of missing values are 7

```
n_available_items <- nrow(df)*ncol(df) - n_miss
cat("\n \n The number of available items is determined by multiplying the observations by the</pre>
```

The number of available items is determined by multiplying the observations by the number of

# Replacing mising value with mean of each column

```
df_1$A[is.na(df_1$A)] <- mean(df_1$A, na.rm = TRUE)
df_1$B[is.na(df_1$B)] <- mean(df_1$B, na.rm = TRUE)
df_1$C[is.na(df_1$C)] <- mean(df_1$C, na.rm = TRUE)

df_1</pre>
```

```
# A tibble: 7 x 3
            В
                  C
      Α
  <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
    2
                4.4
1
         1
2
    2
         5.75
                4
   7.4 5
3
                6
4
  10
         5.75
                7
  20
                4.4
5
         8
   7.4 9
                2
    3
         5.75
                3
```

# Question:

# How to handle mising values when using functions like map() and apply() from {purr} package?

In R, the apply() function belongs to the {base} package, but here we're utilizing functions from the {purrr} package. As you know, there are numerous approaches to writing code. In this course, we've opted to prioritize the tidyverse package. This choice is often more efficient and straightforward.

• The square root of NA comes as NA

```
v <- c( 1:3, NA, 2:5, NA)
map(v, sqrt)
[[1]]
[1] 1
[[2]]
[1] 1.414214
[[3]]
[1] 1.732051
[[4]]
[1] NA
[[5]]
[1] 1.414214
[[6]]
[1] 1.732051
[[7]]
[1] 2
[[8]]
[1] 2.236068
[[9]]
[1] NA
   \bullet\, Remove NA then compute square root
v[!is.na(v)] ->
v_n
map(v_n, sqrt)
[[1]]
[1] 1
[[2]]
```

```
[1] 1.414214
[[3]]
[1] 1.732051
[[4]]
[1] 1.414214
[[5]]
[1] 1.732051
[[6]]
[1] 2
[[7]]
[1] 2.236068
Most functions in R include an na.rm argument, which, when set to TRUE, removes NA values
before computation.
11 <- list(c(1, 2, NA, 4), c(6, NA, 3, NA))
map(11, sum, na.rm = TRUE)
[[1]]
[1] 7
```

[[2]] [1] 9

```
map(l1, mean, na.rm = TRUE)

[[1]]
[1] 2.333333

[[2]]
[1] 4.5
```

# Question

# **Anonymous functions**

In R, functions are like objects themselves. They don't automatically come with a name attached. If you don't give it a name, it becomes an anonymous function.

Anonymous functions are used when you don't find it necessary to name them.

```
df <- tibble(
  C1 = c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5),
  C2 = c(6, 7, 8, 9, 10),
  C3 = c(11, 12, NA, 14,15)
)

df</pre>
```

```
# A tibble: 5 x 3
           C2
     C1
                  C3
  <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
1
      1
             6
                  11
2
      2
             7
                  12
3
      3
            8
                  NA
4
      4
            9
                  14
      5
            10
                  15
```

In the following code we use a function without selecting a name. The function square the values of df

```
lapply(df, function(x) sqrt(x))
```

```
$C1

[1] 1.000000 1.414214 1.732051 2.000000 2.236068

$C2

[1] 2.449490 2.645751 2.828427 3.000000 3.162278

$C3

[1] 3.316625 3.464102 NA 3.741657 3.872983
```

The function read the data and returns the length of each column

```
lapply(df, function(x) length(x))
$C1
[1] 5
$C2
[1] 5
$C3
[1] 5
In the next code we have a function that calculate the mean of each column
lapply(df, function(x) mean(x, na.rm = TRUE))
$C1
[1] 3
$C2
[1] 8
$C3
[1] 13
In the next code we show you we can do both by map() function.
map(df, sqrt)
$C1
[1] 1.000000 1.414214 1.732051 2.000000 2.236068
$C2
[1] 2.449490 2.645751 2.828427 3.000000 3.162278
$C3
[1] 3.316625 3.464102
                              NA 3.741657 3.872983
```

```
map(df, length)

$C1
[1] 5

$C2
[1] 5

$C3
[1] 5

map(df, mean, na.rm = TRUE)

$C1
[1] 3

$C2
[1] 8

$C3
[1] 13
```

# **Question:**

# **Factor and Subsetting**

If I have a factor vector and I subset it, the levels are still there even if they are not in the subset. Why does this happen, and how can I avoid it?

In summer 2024, one of my students, Chih-Chen Wang, explained it very well. Here what he wrote;

when you subset a factor vector in R, the underlying levels of the factor remain unchanged even if some of the levels are not present in the subset. This happens because factors are categorical data types with a predefined set of levels. We can remove any levels that are not actually present in the factor by "droplevels()"

Let us create a factor

John Alice Bob Eve Michael male female male female male Levels: male female

```
f[-c(1,3,5)] ->
f1
f1
```

Alice Eve female female Levels: male female

Or we may use the following code to get only females name.

```
f[f=="female"]
```

Alice Eve female female Levels: male female

Now, if you use droplevels() function then level of male will be dropped since factor f1 does not contain any male names.

```
droplevels(f1)
```

Alice Eve female female Levels: female

# Question

#### When to use the set.seed() function?

• As you know, the random generation function isn't truly random. It's deterministic based on its input, known as a seed. When we all use the same seed, we get identical results. We often use the seed function to validate our code. If we're debugging, we don't want different outputs each time we run the code. Another reason to use it is to compare our work with others, like team members.

# **Question:**

#### How to generate a sequence of dates and use them in a for loop?

- There are three main classes for date/time data:
  - Date for just the date.
  - POSIXct for both the date and the time. "POSIXct" stands for "Portable Operating System Interface Calendar Time"
  - hms stands for "hours, minutes, and seconds."
- today() will give you the current date in the Date class, now() gives you in addition the time.

```
now(tzone = "UTC") # Universal Coordinated Time
```

- [1] "2024-07-18 20:05:32 UTC"
  - Sys.time() and Sys.Date() are from {base} package
  - current time

```
hms::as_hms(now())
```

16:05:32.257973

```
class(hms::as_hms(now()))
```

```
[1] "hms" "difftime"
```

The functions as\_date(), as.Date(), and ymd() are all used to work with date data in R, but they come from different packages and have slightly different purposes and behaviors. Here's an overview of each:

- 1. as\_date() from {lubridate}
  - Convert an object to a date or date-time

```
as.Date("2024-07-17")

[1] "2024-07-17"

as_date(0)

[1] "1970-01-01"

as_date(365)
```

- [1] "1971-01-01"
  - 2. ymd() from {lubridate}
    - **Purpose**: A convenience function to parse dates in the year-month-day format. It automatically recognizes and converts a variety of common date string formats to Date objects.

```
ymd("2024-07-16")

[1] "2024-07-16"

ymd("20240716")
```

- [1] "2024-07-16"
  - 3. **as.Date()**: {base}
    - Convert between character representations and objects of class "Date" representing calendar dates.

```
as.Date("2024-07-17")

[1] "2024-07-17"

as.Date("17-07-2024", format = "%d-%m-%Y")

[1] "2024-07-17"

as.Date("07-17-24", format = "%m-%d-%y")
```

We will use {lubridate} package

• Only the order of year, month, and day matters

```
ymd(c("2024/07-16", "2024-07/16", "20240716"))
```

[1] "2024-07-16" "2024-07-16" "2024-07-16"

Note: - Note that ms(), hm(), and hms() won't recognize "-" as a separator because it treats it as negative time. So use parse\_time() here.

```
ms("10-10")

[1] "10M -10S"

ms("10:10")
```

[1] "10M 10S"

You can order them and it reads only date and time

```
parse_date_time("23, 22, 01 Read only what it needed to read to display the time 07/16/2
```

- [1] "2024-07-16 23:22:01 UTC"
  - Parsing Dates

```
x \leftarrow parse_date("17/07/2024", format = "%d/%m/%Y")
[1] "2024-07-17"
  class(x)
[1] "Date"
    y \leftarrow parse\_datetime("07/17/2040 11:59:20", format = "\m/\%d/\%Y \%H:\%M:\%S")
[1] "2040-07-17 11:59:20 UTC"
  class(y)
[1] "POSIXct" "POSIXt"
    z <- parse_time("11:59:20", "%H:%M:%S")
11:59:20
class(z)
[1] "hms"
              "difftime"
How to to create dates and date-times?
   make_date(year = 2024, month = 7, day = 16)
```

[1] "2024-07-16"

```
make_datetime(year = 2024, month = 8, day = 17, hour = 23, min = 59, sec = 59)
```

[1] "2024-08-17 23:59:59 UTC"

# What happen if we use as\_date() function to convert a vector of numeral value to date class?

- This function will try to coerce an object to a date.
- as\_datetime() tries to coerce an object to a POSIXct object.

```
year <- c(2000, 2001, 2010)
(as_date(year) ->
  year)
```

```
[1] "1975-06-24" "1975-06-25" "1975-07-04"
```

It creates a a vector of dates in the format "YYYY-MM-DD". The first entry is year 2000 days after year 1970-01-01

#### nycflights13 example:

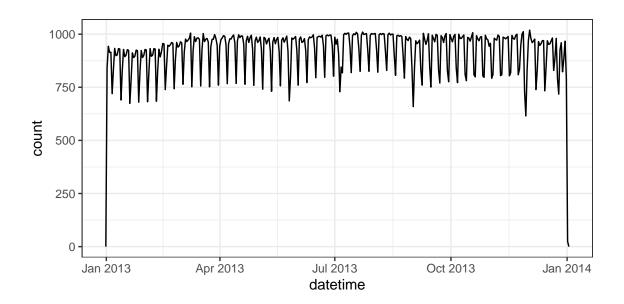
```
library(nycflights13)
flights |>
  select(c(year, month, day, hour, minute)) |>
  glimpse()
```

Create a column that show s the date and time of the flights

```
# A tibble: 336,776 x 1
datetime
<dttm>
1 2013-01-01 05:15:00
2 2013-01-01 05:29:00
3 2013-01-01 05:40:00
4 2013-01-01 05:45:00
5 2013-01-01 06:00:00
6 2013-01-01 06:00:00
7 2013-01-01 06:00:00
8 2013-01-01 06:00:00
9 2013-01-01 06:00:00
10 2013-01-01 06:00:00
# i 336,766 more rows
```

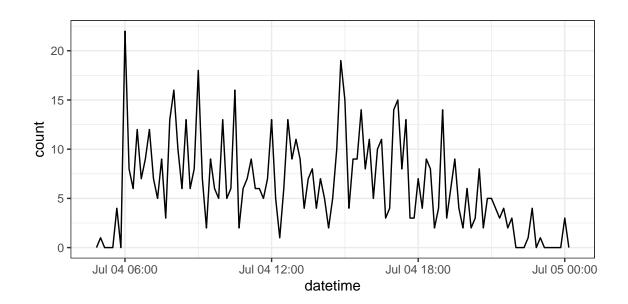
• Having it in the date-time format makes it easier to plot.

```
ggplot(flights, aes(x = datetime)) +
  geom_freqpoly(bins = 365)
```



• It makes it easier to filter by date

```
flights %>%
  filter(as_date(datetime) == ymd(20130704)) %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = datetime)) +
  geom_freqpoly(binwidth = 600)
```



# **Extracting Components**

```
ddat <- mdy_hms("07/16/2024 03:51:44")</pre>
    ddat
[1] "2024-07-16 03:51:44 UTC"
   • year() extracts the year.
   • month() extracts the month.
   • week() extracts the week.
   • mday() extracts the day of the month (1, 2, 3, ...).
   • wday() extracts the day of the week (Saturday, Sunday, Monday ...).
   • yday() extracts the day of the year (1, 2, 3, ...)
   • hour() extracts the hour.
   • minute() extract the minute.
   • second() extracts the second.
    year(ddat)
[1] 2024
    month(ddat, label = TRUE)
[1] Jul
12 Levels: Jan < Feb < Mar < Apr < May < Jun < Jul < Aug < Sep < ... < Dec
    week(ddat)
[1] 29
    mday(ddat)
[1] 16
    wday(ddat, label = TRUE)
[1] Tue
Levels: Sun < Mon < Tue < Wed < Thu < Fri < Sat
```

```
yday(ddat)
```

[1] 198

```
hour(ddat)
```

[1] 3

```
minute(ddat)
```

[1] 51

```
second(ddat)
```

[1] 44

• Let us generate a sequence of dates starting from today to the end of semester

```
l_day <- ymd("2024-08-17")
t_day <- today()

# Create sequence of dates from today until last day
sequence_day <- seq(t_day, l_day, by = "day")

# Create the dataframe
df <- tibble(
   date = sequence_day,
   days_left = as.numeric(l_day - sequence_day)
)

print(df)</pre>
```

```
4 2024-07-21 27

5 2024-07-22 26

6 2024-07-23 25

7 2024-07-24 24

8 2024-07-25 23

9 2024-07-26 22

10 2024-07-27 21

# i 21 more rows
```

• The following code generates the weekends

```
l_day <- ymd("2024-08-17")
t_day <- today()

# Create sequence of dates from today until last day
sequence_day <- seq(t_day, l_day, by = "day")

weekends <- sequence_day[wday(sequence_day) %in% c(1, 7)] # 1 = Sunday, 7 = Saturday

print(weekends)</pre>
```

The output is a dataframe

```
l_day <- ymd("2024-08-17")
t_day <- today()

# Create sequence of dates from today until last day
sequence_day <- seq(t_day, l_day, by = "day")

weekends <- sequence_day[wday(sequence_day) %in% c(1, 7)]
df <- tibble(Weekend = weekends)

print(df)</pre>
```

 $[1] \ "2024-07-20" \ "2024-07-21" \ "2024-07-27" \ "2024-07-28" \ "2024-08-03"$ 

[6] "2024-08-04" "2024-08-10" "2024-08-11" "2024-08-17"

```
# A tibble: 9 x 1
Weekend
<date>
1 2024-07-20
2 2024-07-21
3 2024-07-27
4 2024-07-28
5 2024-08-03
6 2024-08-04
7 2024-08-10
8 2024-08-11
9 2024-08-17
```

# \_ By For Loop

```
l_day <- ymd("2024-08-17")
t_day <- today()

sequence_day <- seq(t_day, l_day, by = "day")

# initialize the vector
weekends <- c()

# Loop through each date from today to last day
for (dates in sequence_day) {
    d <- as_date(dates)
    if (wday(d) %in% c(1, 7)){
        weekends <- c(weekends, d) # append the date to the weekends vector.
        w <- as_date(weekends)
    }
}

# Print the weekends
print(w)</pre>
```

```
 \hbox{\tt [1]} \quad \hbox{\tt "2024-07-20"} \quad \hbox{\tt "2024-07-21"} \quad \hbox{\tt "2024-07-27"} \quad \hbox{\tt "2024-07-28"} \quad \hbox{\tt "2024-08-03"}
```

```
[6] "2024-08-04" "2024-08-10" "2024-08-11" "2024-08-17"
```

```
l_day <- ymd("2024-08-17")
t_day <- today()</pre>
```

```
sequence_day <- seq(t_day, l_day, by = "day")

weekends_df <- tibble(weekend = as_date(character()))

# Loop through each date from today to last day
for (dates in sequence_day) {
    d <- as_date(dates)
    if (wday(d) %in% c(1, 7)){
        weekends_df <- rbind(weekends_df, tibble(weekend = d)) # append the date to the dataframe
    }
}

# Print the weekends data frame
print(weekends_df)</pre>
```

```
# A tibble: 9 x 1
weekend
<date>
1 2024-07-20
2 2024-07-21
3 2024-07-27
4 2024-07-28
5 2024-08-03
6 2024-08-04
7 2024-08-10
8 2024-08-11
9 2024-08-17
```

# Question

# Mixed data Types

In R, a vector must have elements of the same type, so if we try to create a vector with mixed types, R will **coerce** them.

• Consider following vectors. These are mixed vectors and R coreced them to the most flexible type.

```
v1 <- c(1, 3.14, "a", TRUE)
v1
[1] "1" "3.14" "a" "TRUE"
typeof(v1)
[1] "character"
map(v1, typeof)
[[1]]
[1] "character"
[[2]]
[1] "character"
[[3]]
[1] "character"
[[4]]
[1] "character"
v2 <- c(FALSE, exp(1), - 21, pi, TRUE)
v2
[1]
    0.000000
                 2.718282 -21.000000
                                      3.141593 1.000000
typeof(v2)
[1] "double"
map(v2, typeof)
[[1]]
[1] "double"
[[2]]
```

```
[1] "double"
[[3]]
[1] "double"
[[4]]
[1] "double"
[[5]]
[1] "double"
We can use a list to store elements of mixed types without coercion.
l1 <-list(1, 3.14, "a", TRUE)
typeof(11)
[1] "list"
map(l1, typeof)
[[1]]
[1] "double"
[[2]]
[1] "double"
[[3]]
[1] "character"
[[4]]
[1] "logical"
**We can use sapply() from {base} package to find type of objects
sapply(l1, typeof)
                              "character" "logical"
[1] "double"
                 "double"
```

```
sapply(v2, typeof)
```

[1] "double" "double" "double" "double"

```
sapply(v1, typeof)
```

```
1 3.14 a TRUE "character" "character" "character"
```

#### **DataFrame**

Having a column with mixed data types (like column 3 in the example) indicates that the data is not tidy. In tidy data, each column should contain only one type of data (e.g., all numbers, all characters, etc.).

```
df <- tibble::tibble(
   Var1 = c(T, TRUE, F),
   Var2 = c("Jim", "Steve", "Mary"),
   Var3 = c(4.5, FALSE, -pi) # This column has mixed data types
)
df</pre>
```

```
# A tibble: 3 x 3
  Var1 Var2 Var3
  <lgl> <chr> <dbl>
1 TRUE Jim 4.5
2 TRUE Steve 0
3 FALSE Mary -3.14
```

When a column contains mixed types, R often coerces the entire column to the most flexible type (in this case, dbl) to accommodate all values.

```
typeof(df)
```

[1] "list"

```
class(df)
```

```
[1] "tbl_df" "tbl" "data.frame"
```

# Question

Is the "Special For Loop Method" a good method to be adapted as a function to determine values like median or standard deviation for any given dataframe?

• We can find the numerical summaries of a data set as follow

• Or we can get the numerical summaries based on class of the cars

```
mpg |>
  group_by(class) |>
  summarise(median(cty), mean(cty), sd(cty), sum(cty), n())
```

#### # A tibble: 7 x 6 class `median(cty)` `mean(cty)` `sd(cty)` `sum(cty)` `n()` <chr> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <int> <int> 1 2seater 15 15.4 0.548 77 5 2 compact 20 20.1 3.39 946 47 3 midsize 18 18.8 1.95 769 41 4 minivan 16 15.8 1.83 174 11 5 pickup 429 13 13 2.05 33 6 subcompact 19 20.4 4.60 713 35 7 suv 13 13.5 2.42 837 62

• The summaries of all variables can be obtained by

# mpg |> summary()

<b>c</b> .	1 7	1. 7	
	model	-	
Length:234	Length: 234	Min. :1.600	Min. :1999
Class :characte	r Class :characte	r 1st Qu.:2.400	1st Qu.:1999
Mode :characte	r Mode :characte	r Median :3.300	Median :2004
		Mean :3.472	Mean :2004
		3rd Qu.:4.600	3rd Qu.:2008
		Max. :7.000	Max. :2008
cyl	trans	drv	cty
Min. :4.000	Length: 234	Length: 234	Min. : 9.00
1st Qu.:4.000	Class :character	Class :character	1st Qu.:14.00
Median:6.000	Mode :character	Mode :character	Median :17.00
Mean :5.889			Mean :16.86
3rd Qu.:8.000			3rd Qu.:19.00
Max. :8.000			Max. :35.00
hwy	fl	class	
Min. :12.00	Length: 234	Length: 234	
1st Qu.:18.00	Class :character	Class :character	
Median :24.00	Mode :character	Mode :character	
Mean :23.44			
3rd Qu.:27.00			
Max. :44.00			

• To create a frequency table of categorical variables, such as class, and its graph, follow these steps:

```
table(mpg$class) ->
t1

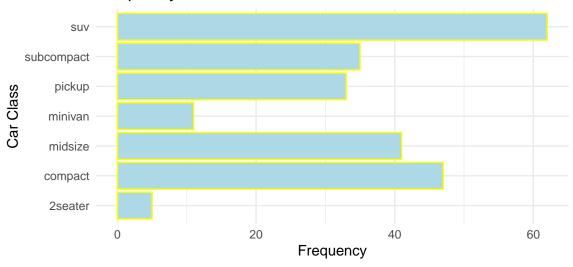
as.data.frame(t1) ->
   df

colnames(df) <- c("Class", "Count")

df</pre>
```

```
Class Count
1 2seater
            5
            47
2 compact
3 midsize
           41
4 minivan
           11
           33
    pickup
6 subcompact
            35
7
       suv
             62
```

# Frequency of Each Car Class



• Now calculate proportion of each class and draw its bargraph

```
df |>
  mutate(Prop = Count/n()) ->
  df_p
df_p
```

```
Class Count
                      Prop
1
    2seater
                5 0.7142857
2
    compact
              47 6.7142857
3
    midsize
            41 5.8571429
    minivan
            11 1.5714286
4
5
     pickup
            33 4.7142857
6 subcompact
              35 5.0000000
7
        suv
              62 8.8571429
```

# Proportion of Each Car Class

