STA 326 2.0 R Programming and Data Analysis

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Learning outcomes functions:

In this tutorial we learned what functions in R programming are, the basic syntax of functions in R programming, in-built functions and how to use them to make our work easier, the syntax of a user-defined function, and different types of user-defined functions. In the next session, we are going to learn how to read files in R programming.

Introduction

1.1 R programming language

1.2 RStudio

RStudio is an integrated development environment (IDE) for R that provides an alternative interface to R that has several advantages over other default interfaces.

1.3 Working with R scripts files

Rather than typing R commands into the Console. This allows for **reproducibility**, share scripts with someone else.

To create a new R script

File -> New File -> R Script

Commenting on R scripts

1.4 R packages

1.4.1 Installation

There is a large community of R users who contribute various packages that do useful things. Before you start using an R package, you must first install it into your environment. There are two ways to install a package

1.

2.

1.4.2 Load a package

one time, then load package

1.5 Important things to know about R

- $1. \ \mathrm{R}$ is case-sensitive
- 2. R works with numerous data types. Some of the most basic types to get started are:

i. numeric: decimal values like 8.5ii. integers: natural numbers like 8

iii. logical: Boolean values (TRUE or FALSE)

iv. **character**: strigs(text) like "statistics"

1.6 Objects

The entities R operates on are technically known as **objects**. There are two types of objects:

- 1. Data structures
- 2. Functions

1.7 Getting help

1.8 Variable assignment

1.9

1.10 Data permanency and removing objects

Data structures in base R

There are five data types in R

- 1. Atomic vector
- 2. Matrix
- 3. Array
- 4. List
- 5. Data frame

2.1 Atomic vectors

- This is a 1-dimensional
- All elements of an atomic vector must be the same type, Hence it is a **homogeneous** type of object. Vectirs can hold numeric data, character data or logical data.

2.1.1 Creating vectors

Vectors can be created by using the function concatenation ${\tt c}$

Syntax

vector_name <- c(element1, element2, element3)</pre>

Examples

```
first_vec <- c(10, 20, 50, 70)
second_vec <- c("Jan", "Feb", "March", "April")
third_vec <- c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, TRUE)
fourth_vec <- c(10L, 20L, 50L, 70L)</pre>
```

2.1.2 Types and tests with vectors

1. typepf() returns types of their elements

• integer: is.integer()

```
typeof(first_vec)
[1] "double"
typeof(fourth_vec)
[1] "integer"
  2. To check if it is a
  • vector: is.vector()
is.vector(first_vec)
[1] TRUE
  • charactor vector: is.charactor()
is.character(first_vec)
[1] FALSE
  • double: is.double()
is.double(first_vec)
[1] TRUE
```

[1] 4

2.1.3 Coercion

length(fourth_vec)

Vectors must be homogeneous. When you attempt to combine different types they will be coerced to the most flexible type so that every element in the vector is of the same type.

Order from least to most flexible

 ${\tt logical} \mathrel{->} {\tt integer} \mathrel{->} {\tt double} \mathrel{->} {\tt charactor}$

```
a <- c(3.1, 2L, 3, 4, "GPA") typeof(a)
```

[1] "character"

```
anew <- c(3.1, 2L, 3, 4)
typeof(anew)</pre>
```

[1] "double"

2.1.4 Explicit coercion

Vectors can be explicitly coerced from one class to another using the functions as.charactor, as.numeric, as.integer, and as.logical.

```
vec1 <- c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, TRUE)
typeof(vec1)</pre>
```

[1] "logical"

```
vec2 <- as.integer(vec1)
typeof(vec2)</pre>
```

[1] "integer"

vec2

[1] 1 0 1 1

Question

Why the below output produce NAs?

```
x <- c("a", "b", "c")
as.numeric(x)
```

Warning: NAs introduced by coercion

[1] NA NA NA

2.1.5 Simplifying vector creation

1. colon: produce regular spaced ascending or descending sequences.

```
a1 <- 10:16
[1] 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
b1 <- -0.5:8.5
b1
 [1] -0.5 0.5 1.5 2.5 3.5 4.5 5.5 6.5 7.5 8.5
  2. sequence seq(). There are three arguments we need to provide, i) initial
     value, ii) final value, and iii) increment
syntax
seq(initial_value, final_value, increment)
example
  3. repeats rep()
rep(9, 5)
[1] 9 9 9 9 9
rep(1:4, 2)
[1] 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4
rep(1:4, each=2) # each element is repeated twice
[1] 1 1 2 2 3 3 4 4
rep(1:4, times=2) # whole sequence is repeated twice
[1] 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4
```

```
rep(1:4, each=2, times=3)

[1] 1 1 2 2 3 3 4 4 1 1 2 2 3 3 4 4 1 1 2 2 3 3 4 4

rep(1:4, 1:4)

[1] 1 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4

rep(1:4, c(4, 1, 4, 2))

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

2.1.6 Logical operations

2.1.7 Subsetting

[1] 10 103 124

There are situations where we want to select only some of the elements of a vector. Following codes show various ways to select part of a vector object.

```
data <- c(10, 20, 103, 124, 126)
data[1] # shows the first element

[1] 10
data[-1] # shows all except the first item

[1] 20 103 124 126
data[1:3] # shows first three elements

[1] 10 20 103
data[c(1, 3, 4)]</pre>
```

```
data[data > 3]
```

[1] 10 20 103 124 126

```
data[data<20|data>120]
```

[1] 10 124 126

Example: How do you replace the 3rd element in the data vector by 203?

```
data[3] <- 203
data
```

[1] 10 20 203 124 126

2.1.8 Vector arithmetic

Vector operations are perfored element by element.

```
c(10, 100, 100) + 2 # two is added to every element in the vector
```

[1] 12 102 102

Vector operations between two vectors

```
v1 <- c(1, 2, 3)
v2 <- c(10, 100, 1000)
v1 + v2
```

[1] 11 102 1003

Add two vectors of unequal length

```
longvec <- seq(10, 100, length=10)
shortvec <- c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
shortvec+longvec</pre>
```

[1] 11 22 33 44 55 61 72 83 94 105

2.1.9 Missing values

Use NA to place a missing value in a vector.

```
z <- c(10, 101, 2, 3, NA)
is.na(z)
```

[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE

2.1.10 Factor

A factor is a vector that can contain only predefined values, and is used to store categorical data.

2.2 Matrix

Matrix is a 2-dimentional and a homogeneous data structure

Syntax to create a matrix

Example

```
values <-c(10, 20, 30, 40)
matrix1 <- matrix(values, nrow=2) # Matrix filled by columns (default option)</pre>
matrix1
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       10
             30
[2,]
       20
             40
matrix2 <- matrix(values, nrow=2, byrow=TRUE) # Matrix filled by rows</pre>
matrix2
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
       10
             20
[2,]
       30
             40
```

2.2. MATRIX 15

Naming matrix rows and columns

```
rnames <- c("R1", "R2")</pre>
cnames <- c("C1", "C2")</pre>
matrix_with_names <- matrix(values, nrow=2, dimnames=list(rnames, cnames))</pre>
matrix_with_names
   C1 C2
R1 10 30
R2 20 40
2.2.1 Matrix subscript
matraix_name[i, ] gives the ith row of a matrix
matrix1[1, ]
[1] 10 30
matraix_name[, j] gives the jth column of a matrix
matrix1[, 2]
[1] 30 40
matraix_name[i, j] gives the ith row and jth column element
matrix1[1, 2]
[1] 30
matrix1[1, c(1, 2)]
```

2.2.2 cbind and rbind

[1] 10 30

Matrices can be created by column-binding and row-binding with ${\tt cbind}()$ and ${\tt rbind}()$

```
x <- 1:3
y <- c(10, 100, 1000)

cbind(x, y) # binds matrices horizontally</pre>
```

```
x y
[1,] 1 10
[2,] 2 100
[3,] 3 1000
```

rbind(x, y) #binds matrices vertically

```
[,1] [,2] [,3]
x 1 2 3
y 10 100 1000
```

2.2.3 Matrix operations

2.3 Array

• 3 dimentional data structure

.

2.4 List

2.5 Data frame

- A dataframe is a rectangular arrangement of data with rows corresponding to observational units and columns corresponding to variables.
- A data frame is more general than a matrix in that different columns can contain different modes of data.
- $\bullet\,$ It's similar to the datasets you'd typically see in SPSS and MINITAB.
- Data frames are the most common data structure you'll deal with in R.

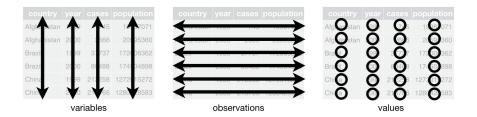


Figure 2.1: Figure 1: Components of a dataframe.

2.5.1 Creating a dataframe

Syntax

Example

```
ID Location Test_Results
1 C001 Beijing FALSE
2 C002 Wuhan TRUE
3 C003 Shanghai FALSE
4 C004 Beijing FALSE
```

To check if it is a datafrme

```
is.data.frame(corona)
```

[1] TRUE

To convert a matrix to a dataframe

```
mat <- matrix(10:81, ncol=4)</pre>
\mathtt{mat}
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
 [1,]
        10
             28
                  46
                       64
 [2,]
        11
             29
                  47
                       65
 [3,]
        12
             30
                  48
                       66
 [4,]
        13
             31
                  49
                       67
 [5,]
             32
                  50
                       68
        14
 [6,]
        15
             33
                  51
                       69
 [7,]
                       70
        16
             34
                  52
 [8,]
        17
             35 53
                       71
 [9,]
        18
             36
                54
                       72
[10,]
             37
        19
                  55
                       73
[11,]
        20
             38
                56
                       74
[12,]
             39
                 57
                       75
        21
[13,]
        22
             40 58
                       76
[14,]
        23
             41 59
                       77
[15,]
        24
             42
                 60
                       78
[16,]
        25
             43 61
                       79
[17,]
        26
             44
                  62
                       80
[18,]
        27
             45
                  63
                       81
mat_df <- as.data.frame(mat)</pre>
mat_df
   V1 V2 V3 V4
1 10 28 46 64
2 11 29 47 65
3 12 30 48 66
4 13 31 49 67
5 14 32 50 68
6 15 33 51 69
7 16 34 52 70
8 17 35 53 71
9 18 36 54 72
10 19 37 55 73
11 20 38 56 74
12 21 39 57 75
13 22 40 58 76
14 23 41 59 77
15 24 42 60 78
16 25 43 61 79
17 26 44 62 80
18 27 45 63 81
```

2.5.2 Subsetting data frames

Select rows

```
head(mat_df) # default it shows 5 rows
  V1 V2 V3 V4
1 10 28 46 64
2 11 29 47 65
3 12 30 48 66
4 13 31 49 67
5 14 32 50 68
6 15 33 51 69
head(mat_df, 3) # To extract only the first three rows
  V1 V2 V3 V4
1 10 28 46 64
2 11 29 47 65
3 12 30 48 66
tail(mat_df)
   V1 V2 V3 V4
13 22 40 58 76
14 23 41 59 77
15 24 42 60 78
16 25 43 61 79
17 26 44 62 80
18 27 45 63 81
To select some specific rows
index <-c(1, 3, 7, 8)
mat_df[index, ]
  V1 V2 V3 V4
1 10 28 46 64
3 12 30 48 66
7 16 34 52 70
8 17 35 53 71
```

Select columns

1. Select column(s) by variable names

```
mat_df$V1 # Method 1
```

[1] 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27

```
mat_df[, "V1"] # Method 2
```

- [1] 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27
- 2. Select column(s) by index

```
mat_df[, 2]
```

[1] 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45

2.5.3 Built in dataframes

Note: All objects in R have a class.

Functions in R programming

A function is a block of organized and reusable code that is used to perform a specific task in a program. There are two types of functions in R:

- 1. In-built functions
- 2. User-defined functions

3.1 In-built functions

These functions in R programming are provided by R environment for direct execution, to make our work easier Some examples for the frequently used inbuilt functions are as follows.

```
mean(c(10, 20, 21, 78, 105))
```

[1] 46.8

3.2 User-defined functions

These functions in R programming language are dclared and defined by a user according to the requirements, to perform a specific task.

3.3 Main components of a function

All R functions have three main components: (Check this with Hadley's book)

- 1. function name: name of the function that is stored as an R object
- 2. **arguments:** are used to rovide specific inputs to a function while a function is invoked. A function can have zero, single, multiple or default arguments.
- 3. **function body:** contains the block of code that performs the specific task assigned to a function. **return value**

3.4 Passing arguments to a function

3.5 Some useful built-in functions in R

3.6 R can be used as a simple calculator.

Operator	Description
+	addition
-	substraction
*	multiplication
^	exponentiation $(5^2 \text{ is } 25)$
%%	modulo-remainder of the division of the number to the left by the
	number on its right. $(5\%\%3 \text{ is } 2)$

3.6.1 Some more maths functions

Operator	Description
abs(x)	absolute value of x
log(x, base=y)	logarithm of x with base y; if base is
	not specified, returns the natural
	logarithm
$\exp(x)$	exponential of x
$\operatorname{sqrt}(x)$	square root of x
factorial(x)	factorial of x

3.6.2 Basic statistic functions

Operator	Description
mean(x)	mean of x
median(x)	median of x
mode(x)	mode of x
var(x)	variance of x
scale(x)	z-score of x
quantile(x)	quantiles of x
$\operatorname{summary}(x)$	summary of x : mean, minimum, maximum, etc.

3.6.3 Probability distribution functions

- d prefix for the distribution function
- p prefix for the probability
- q prefix for the quantile
- ${f r}$ prefix for the ${f random}$ number generator

3.6.3.1 Illustration with Standard normal distribution

The general formula for the probability density function of the normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ is given by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{(2\pi)}}e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

3.6.4 Reproducibility of scientific results

```
rnorm(10) # first attempt

## [1] 0.60064745 -0.40656969 -1.27499855   1.08826739 -0.03398461 -0.81505467
## [7] -1.10542367   1.72754929   0.75281886   0.50873719

rnorm(10) # second attempt

## [1] -0.45083911 -0.49272368   1.06436998   0.02131287   1.07597638   0.99712576
## [7] -0.57225171   0.08784569   0.04534238 -1.28541711
```

As you can see above you will get different results

```
set.seed(1)
rnorm(10) # First attempt with set.seed

## [1] -0.6264538     0.1836433 -0.8356286     1.5952808     0.3295078 -0.8204684
## [7]     0.4874291     0.7383247     0.5757814 -0.3053884

set.seed(1)
rnorm(10) # Second attempt with set.seed

## [1] -0.6264538     0.1836433 -0.8356286     1.5952808     0.3295078 -0.8204684
## [7]     0.4874291     0.7383247     0.5757814 -0.3053884
```

Writing functions

- 4.1 When should we write functions?
 - do many repetitive task
- 4.2 Glogal variables vs local variables
- 4.3 Control structures
 - for loops
- 4.4 lapply, apply..

Data analysis with tidyverse

Some significant applications are demonstrated in this chapter.

5.1 Tidy data

Two key principles:

- 1. Put each dataset in a dataframe
- 2. Put each variable in a column

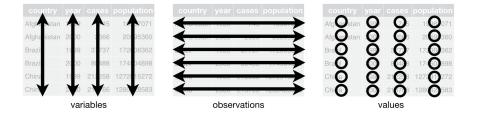


Figure 5.1: Figure 1: Components of a dataframe.

Vedio: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K-ss_ag2k9E

5.1.1 Convert from messy data to tidy data

"Tidy dataset are all alike; every messy dataset is messy in its own way." $_$ Hadley Wickham

Data wrangliing

Data visualisation

Modelling

8.1 Simulation-based Inference