Statistical Software Camp: Introduction to R

Day 1 Basic Concepts and Data Manipulation

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1 Introduction

1.1 Why Use R?

- Widely-used (ever-increasingly so in political science)
- Free
- Power and flexibility
- Graphical capabilities
- Pedagogical usefulness
- Learning curve is initially steep, but it gets easier later

1.2 Installing R

- 1. Go to http://www.r-project.org.
- 2. Follow the link under the Download section on the left hand side of the page.
- 3. Make sure to select an appropriate mirror (the closer the faster) and operating system.
- 4. Once the download is finished, you can install R in the same way you install other software.

1.3 Using R

1.3.1 Typing Directly

- R as a calculator
- <- or = to assign a name to an object (<- is recommended)
- # for comments
 - > apple <- 7
 - > apple

[1] 7

```
> ## Can use = but not recommended
> orange = 12
> orange
[1] 12
```

• Hello \neq hello \neq HELLO

```
> obama <- "president" # character string
> Obama # generates error
```

- Variable names cannot begin with numbers
- One command per line or use;

```
> pol572 <- "Quant II"; enrollment <- 26
> pol572
[1] "Quant II"
> enrollment
```

[1] 26

[1] 172206.2

• Space between syntaxes will be ignored, but not in ""

```
> pol.572 <- "second in quant sequence"
> pol.572
[1] "second in quant sequence"
```

- Can use <up> and <down> to navigate through previously entered commands
- An example: calculate the amount of Princeton's endowment the university could spend for each student without harming the principle.

```
> 15787000000 / (4918+2416)  # Endowment divided by the total number of students

[1] 2152577

> endow.ps <- 15.787*(10^9) / (4918+2416)  # Stores the result as `endow.ps'

> yield.ps <- endow.ps*0.08  # Creates new object `yield.ps'

> yield.ps
```

1.3.2 Using a Text Editor

- Almost always want to use a text editor
- Efficiency, Replicability
- Built-in R editor; what we'll use in the camp
- Notepad, TextPad, TextEdit, etc.
- More fancy editors: WinEdt (http://www.winedt.com) for Windows and Aquamacs (http://aquamacs.org) for Mac OS X
- Send code from R editor to **console** by:
 - Copy & Paste
 - Highlight and press <Ctrl + R> on Windows
 - Highlight and press < Apple + Return > on Mac
- An example: Repeat the endowment calculation above using the R editor.

1.4 Numeric Vectors

A **vector** is simply string of numeric values connected in a specific order.

1.4.1 Creating, Indexing and Combining

- Use c() to enter a data vector
- Use square brackets ([]) to access elements of a vector
- c() can also combine more than one vectors

```
> endow <- c(9928, 11207, 13045, 15000) #Princeton endowment 2004-2007 > endow
```

- [1] 9928 11207 13045 15000
- > endow[2] # Use square brackets to access elements of a vector
- [1] 11207
- > endow[c(2, 4)]
- [1] 11207 15000
- > endow[4] <- 15787
- > endow
- [1] 9928 11207 13045 15787
- > endow[-1]

```
[1] 11207 13045 15787

> endow <- endow / 1000
> endow

[1] 9.928 11.207 13.045 15.787

> endow.old <- c(8.398, 8.359, 8.320, 8.730) #Years 2000-2003
> endow <- c(endow.old, endow) #combine vectors
> endow

[1] 8.398 8.359 8.320 8.730 9.928 11.207 13.045 15.787
```

1.4.2 Manipulating

• Named vectors can be manipulated like numbers

```
> endow.penn <- c(3.201,3.382,3.393,3.547,4.019,4.370,5.313,6.635) #UPenn endowment
> endow.penn

[1] 3.201 3.382 3.393 3.547 4.019 4.370 5.313 6.635

> ratio <- endow / endow.penn
> ratio

[1] 2.623555 2.471614 2.452107 2.461235 2.470266 2.564531 2.455298 2.379352
```

1.4.3 Basic Functions

- General format of a function: output <- functionname(input)
- More than one input: output <- functionname(input1, input2, ...)
- Inputs are often called **arguments**
- The colon operator (:) creates a simple sequence
- Use seq() for more complex sequences

```
> 1:10
[1] 1 2 3 4 5
```

• names() gives named entries to a vector

```
> names(ratio) <- 2000:2007
> ratio
```

```
2.623555 2.471614 2.452107 2.461235 2.470266 2.564531 2.455298 2.379352
• Simple calculations: min(), max(), range(), length(), sum() and mean()
 > min(ratio) # Shows the minimum value of our vector
  [1] 2.379352
 > max(ratio) # Same, but for the maximum value
  [1] 2.623555
 > range(ratio)
  [1] 2.379352 2.623555
 > length(ratio) # Tells us the number of values in our vector
  [1] 8
 > ratio[length(ratio)]
      2007
 2.379352
 > sum(ratio) # Sum of all values in the vector
  [1] 19.87796
 > sum(ratio)/length(ratio) # Long way to calculate the mean
  [1] 2.484745
 > mean(ratio)
                # Easier
```

2003

2004

2005

2006

2007

1.5 Matrices

[1] 2.484745

2000

2001

2002

1.5.1 Creating, Indexing and Combining

- R can also handle **matrices**, two-dimensional array of numbers.
- The matrix(x, N, K) function reshapes a vector x into an N \times K matrix.
- By default, a matrix is (counterintuitively) filled by columns. Setting the byrow argument to TRUE (or just T) change this behavior.

```
> a <- c(1,2,3,4)
> X <- matrix(a, 2, 2)
> X
```

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

> Y <- matrix(a, 2, 2, byrow=TRUE)
> Y # Notice how X and Y differ

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

- A matrix can also be built up from other vectors/matrices.
- The cbind(x,y) and rbind(x,y) functions combine x and y by columns and rows, respectively.

- The nrow(X) function returns the number of rows in X; ncol(X) returns the number of columns.
- The dim(X) function reports both at the same time.
- Use square brackets and a comma ([,]) to specify rows and columns.

```
> nrow(V)
[1] 4
> ncol(V)
[1] 2
> dim(V)
[1] 4 2
> V[1,] # returns the first row
```

```
a b
1 5
> V[3,2] # returns the (3,2) element
b
7
```

1.5.2 Manipulating

• The addition operator (+) works on matrices in the same way as usual

- However, the multiplication (*) works element by element
- Instead, the %*% operator is used for usual matrix multiplication

14

[2,]

• Other matrix operations include:

20

- t(X) (transpose, X')
- det(X) (determinant, |X|)
- solve(X) (inversion, X^{-1})
- crossprod(X,Y) (cross product, X'Y)
- kronecker(X,Y) or X %x% Y (Kronecker product, $X \otimes Y$)

1.6 Object Class

- An object belongs to a certain class (e.g. numeric, character, function)
- The function class() returns the class of an object
- The function summary() to get a summary of an object

```
> endowment <- c(9928, 11207, 13045, 15787)
> class(endowment)
```

- [1] "numeric"
- > summary(endowment)

```
Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
9928 10890 12130 12490 13730 15790
```

- > schools <- c("Harvard", "Princeton", "Yale", "MIT", "Stanford", "CalTech")
 > class(schools)
- [1] "character"
- > summary(schools) #Not so useful when dealing with "character" vectors

```
Length Class Mode 6 character character
```

- factor is more useful for categorical variables than character
- The function as.factor() coerces an object into a factor (as.numeric(), as.character())
- The function levels() returns the categories of a factor

```
> regions <- c("Africa", "Africa", "Asia", "Asia", "Africa", "Middle East")
> regions
```

- [1] "Africa" "Africa" "Asia" "Africa"
- [6] "Middle East"
- > class(regions)
- [1] "character"
- > regions <- as.factor(regions)</pre>
- > regions
- [1] Africa Africa Asia Asia Africa Middle East Levels: Africa Asia Middle East
- > class(regions)

1.7 Workspace

- The workspace is the sandbox where R temporarily saves everything you've created or loaded into R
- The functions objects() and ls() list all objects in the workspace
- To remove an object from the workspace, use remove() or rm()
- You can remove multiple objects via rm(object1, object2, ...)

```
> objects()
```

```
[1] "a"
                   "apple"
                                 "b"
                                                "endow"
                                                              "endowment"
                   "endow.penn" "endow.ps"
                                                "enrollment" "orange"
 [6] "endow.old"
                   "pol.572"
                                 "ratio"
                                                              "schools"
[11] "pol572"
                                                "regions"
[16] "V"
                   11 W 11
                                  пХп
                                                uγu
                                                              "yield.ps"
> rm(schools)
> 1s()
 [1] "a"
                   "apple"
                                 "b"
                                                "endow"
                                                              "endowment"
                   "endow.penn" "endow.ps"
                                                "enrollment" "orange"
 [6] "endow.old"
                                                              пVп
[11] "pol572"
                   "pol.572"
                                 "ratio"
                                                "regions"
                   пХп
                                 "Y"
                                                "yield.ps"
[16] "W"
```

1.8 Saving Objects and Workspace

- Use save() to save an object or multiple objects (or go to the pulldown menu under File: "Save Workspace...")
- The file name should be xxx.RData

```
> save(endowment, file = "H:/endowment.RData")
> save(endowment, regions, file = "H:/endowment.RData") # save multiple objects
```

- If you want to save all objects (i.e., the entire workspace), then use save.image()
 - > save.image("H:/Handout1.RData")

- The working directory is where R loads and saves your files.
- For example, save(endowment, file = "endowment.RData") will save endowment.RData in the working directory
- When you close down R, you will be asked if you'd like to save your current workspace. You normally want to choose NO.
- If you choose YES, R will save your files in the working directory as ".RData" (empty file name + extension).
- getwd() displays the working directory

```
> getwd()
```

- [1] "/home/teppei/Documents/imai/software/handouts"
- setwd() changes the working directory (or go to the pulldown menu)

```
> setwd("H:/") # Start saving to H drive
```

• Change the working directory to an appropriate directory at the beginning of your code

1.9 Using Additional Packages

- R can be extended via **packages**, which contains additional functions and example data.
- Many packages are already available, and the library is being expanded by statisticians and methodologists.
- Packages can be installed directly from the internet using install.packages("xxx") where xxx is the package name.
 - > install.package("mvtnorm") # a package for multivariate normal distribution
- To use an installed package, type library(xxx).

```
> # Draws from the bivariate standard normal distribution
> rmvnorm(1, mean=c(0,0), sigma=matrix(c(1,0,0,1), nrow=2)) # generates error
```

- > library(mvtnorm)
- > rmvnorm(1, mean=c(0,0), sigma=matrix(c(1,0,0,1), nrow=2))

Package	Description	Pre-Installed?
boot	Functions for bootstrap analysis	Yes
foreign	Read data files created in other softwares, e.g., Stata, SAS, SPSS.	Yes
MASS	A large collection of useful functions by Venables & Lipley (2002)	Yes
MCMCpack	Bayesian analysis via Markov chain Monte Carlo	No
mvtnorm	Multivariate normal and t distributions.	No
pcse	Panel-corrected standard errors by Beck & Katz (1995)	No
Zelig	Easy-to-use frontend for a range of statistical models by Imai, King & Lau	No

Table 1: List of Add-on Packages Often Used in Political Science.

1.10 Getting R Help

- Use help() or ? to look up help on a function
- help.search("xxx") to look for functions that mention the word xxx

```
> help("save")
```

- > ?save # Same thing
- > ?read.table
- > help.search("save")
- Many resources on the web (e.g., search, mailing list at http://cran.r-project.org)

2 Working with Data

2.1 Loading Workspace and Data

- If you have the file named ".RData" in the working directory, it will get automatically loaded when you start R in that directory
- load() for a previously saved R object/workspace (xxx.RData)
- read.table() for a simple text (ASCII) file (xxx.txt, etc.)
- read.csv() for a comma-delimited file (xxx.csv)
- \bullet read.delim() for a tab-delimited file (xxx.tab, etc.)
- Use header = T (for "TRUE") for a file with variable name headers in the first row
- ullet read.table() defaults to header = T; others to F (= "FALSE")
- The object class for datasets is data.frame
 - > load("Africa.RData") # Looks for the file in our working directory
 - > Africa <- read.table("Africa.txt", header = TRUE)
 - > Africa <- read.csv("Africa.csv", header = TRUE)
 - > class(Africa)
 - [1] "data.frame"

• We can also pull data straight from the web

```
> primates <- "http://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/FAE/primate_structural_properties.txt"
> hop <- read.delim(primates, header=T)</pre>
```

2.2 Reading Data Created in Other Softwares

- The foreign package must be loaded to read files created in other softwares.
- read.dta() reads a Stata data file (xxx.dta)
- read.spss() reads a SPSS data file (xxx.sav)
 - > library(foreign)
 - > Humph <- read.dta("Humph.dta") # Data on African Countries by Humphreys
 - > BPCD <- read.spss("BPCD.sav") # British Parliament Constituency Data by Norris
- To read an Excel spreadsheet file (xxx.xls), the simplest way is to open it in Excel, save it as a .csv file and read it with read.csv().

(Note: The gdata package contains the read.xls() function, which can directly read an Excel file. However, you need to have the Perl language installed to get it to work.)

2.3 Looking at Data

- names() gives variable names in the data frame
- nrow(), ncol() and dim() work for data frames in the same as they do for matrices
- Also like matrices, data frames can be indexed by [,]
- Use \$ to access an individual variable
- summary() works for data frames too

```
> names(Africa)
```

```
[1] "Country" "GDP" "GDP.pc" "HDI" "Region"
```

> dim(Africa)

[1] 52 5

> Africa[1:4,] # Display the first four rows, and all columns

```
Country GDP GDP.pc HDI Region
1 Algeria 298448 8649 0.73 Northern Africa
2 Angola 91825 5463 0.45 Central Africa
3 Benin 12217 1507 0.44 Western Africa
4 Botswana 28454 18402 0.65 Southern Africa
```

> Africa[3:8, c(2,4)] # Display rows 3-8, columns 2 and 4

```
GDP HDI
3 12217 0.44
4 28454 0.65
5 22132 0.37
6 5913 0.41
7 45777 0.53
8 4271 0.74
```

> Africa\$HDI # Displays only the HDI values

```
[1] 0.73 0.45 0.44 0.65 0.37 0.41 0.53 0.74 0.38 0.39 0.56 0.43 0.41 0.52 0.71 [16] 0.64 0.48 0.41 0.68 0.50 0.55 0.46 0.37 0.52 0.55 0.33 0.82 0.53 0.44 0.38 [31] 0.55 0.80 0.65 0.38 0.65 0.37 0.47 0.55 0.45 0.65 0.50 0.84 0.34 0.67 0.53 [46] 0.55 0.47 0.51 0.77 0.51 0.43 0.51
```

> summary(Africa)

Country		GDP		GDP.pc		HDI	
Algeria	: 1	Min. :	616	Min.	: 500	Min.	:0.3300
Angola	: 1	1st Qu.:	6178	1st Qu.	: 1366	1st Qu	:0.4300
Benin	: 1	Median :	19654	Median	: 2162	Median	:0.5100
Botswana	: 1	Mean :	61118	Mean	: 4616	Mean	:0.5294
Burkina Fa	aso: 1	3rd Qu.:	55461	3rd Qu.	: 5569	3rd Qu.	:0.6425
Burundi	: 1	Max. :	703709	Max.	:23294	Max.	:0.8400
(Other)	:46						
Central Africa : 9							

Eastern Africa: 9
Eastern Africa: 16
Northern Africa: 6
Southern Africa: 5
Western Africa: 16

2.4 Logical, Conditional Statements and Subsetting

- Logical operators: <, <=, >=, == and !=
- an object class of logical (i.e., TRUE or FALSE) is returned
- "==" versus "="
- Works with vectors too

```
> 4 > 3
```

[1] TRUE

[1] FALSE

```
> x <- 4 > 3
> x
```

[1] TRUE

> class(x)

[1] "logical"

$$> x <- c(3, 2, 1, -2, -1)$$

 $> x >= 2$

- [1] TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE
- Combine logical statements with & (and) and | (or)

```
> x > 0 & x <= 2
```

[1] FALSE TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE

$$> x > 0 | x <= 2$$

- [1] TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE
- Use logical statements to subset the data. Two important arguments of subset() are subset (for observations) and select (for variables)
 - > Africa[Africa\$Region == "Northern Africa",]

```
Country GDP GDP.pc HDI Region
1 Algeria 298448 8649 0.73 Northern Africa
15 Egypt 423464 5643 0.71 Northern Africa
27 Libya 93402 15041 0.82 Northern Africa
33 Morocco 198785 6406 0.65 Northern Africa
45 Sudan 129447 3395 0.53 Northern Africa
49 Tunisia 107185 10269 0.77 Northern Africa
```

> subset(Africa, subset = (Region == "Northern Africa"))

```
Country GDP GDP.pc HDI Region

1 Algeria 298448 8649 0.73 Northern Africa

15 Egypt 423464 5643 0.71 Northern Africa

27 Libya 93402 15041 0.82 Northern Africa

33 Morocco 198785 6406 0.65 Northern Africa

45 Sudan 129447 3395 0.53 Northern Africa

49 Tunisia 107185 10269 0.77 Northern Africa
```

> Africa[(Africa\$GDP.pc >= 8000) & (Africa\$Region != "Northern Africa"),]

```
GDP GDP.pc HDI
              Country
                                                  Region
 4
             Botswana 28454 18402 0.65 Southern Africa
 8
           Cape Verde
                        4271
                               8481 0.74 Western Africa
 16 Equatorial Guinea 26428 21316 0.64 Central Africa
 32
            Mauritius 19015 14954 0.80 Eastern Africa
 35
              Namibia 20100
                               9653 0.65 Southern Africa
 42
                        1921 23294 0.84 Eastern Africa
           Seychelles
         South Africa 703709 14529 0.67 Southern Africa
 44
 > subset(Africa, subset = ((GDP.pc >= 8000) & (Region != "Northern Africa")))
                         GDP GDP.pc HDI
              Country
                                                  Region
             Botswana 28454 18402 0.65 Southern Africa
 4
 8
           Cape Verde
                       4271
                               8481 0.74 Western Africa
 16 Equatorial Guinea 26428 21316 0.64 Central Africa
            Mauritius 19015 14954 0.80 Eastern Africa
 32
 35
              Namibia 20100
                               9653 0.65 Southern Africa
 42
           Seychelles
                        1921 23294 0.84 Eastern Africa
         South Africa 703709 14529 0.67 Southern Africa
 44
 > Africa.sub <- subset(Africa, select = c("Country", "GDP"))</pre>
 > names(Africa.sub)
  [1] "Country" "GDP"
 > Africa.sub <- Africa[, c(1,2)]</pre>
 > names(Africa.sub)
  [1] "Country" "GDP"
• We can add up the number of TRUE statements using the sum() command
 > x
  [1] 3 2 1 -2 -1
 > x >= 2
      TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 > sum(x>=2) # Adds up the number of TRUE statements
  [1] 2
```

- Conditional Statements evaluate a logical statement, then perform an action
- ifelse(X, Y, Z) performs Y if the statement X is true; performs Z if X is false
 - > regions

[1] Africa Africa Asia Asia Africa Middle East
Levels: Africa Asia Middle East
> ifelse(regions == "Africa", "Yes", "No")
[1] "Yes" "Yes" "No" "No" "Yes" "No"

2.5 Working with Missing Values

- Missing values in your dataset can cause you trouble, and sometimes mess up your analysis completely.
- R uses NA ("not available") to indicate missing values.
- When a calculation involves NAs, it often behaves in a rather counterintuitive manner. Examples:

```
> x <- c(0, 1, NA)
> x > 0 # Returns "NA" for NA, rather than "FALSE"

[1] FALSE TRUE NA

> x == NA # Returns "NA" for everything

[1] NA NA NA
```

- The is.na() function tells whether a value is NA.
- Many R functions have an argument na.rm=. Setting it to TRUE allows the function to automatically drop NAs.
 - > is.na(x) # Shows which element is missing
 - [1] FALSE FALSE TRUE
 - > mean(x) # Returns NA
 - [1] NA
 - > mean(x, na.rm=T) # Omits missing values
 - [1] 0.5
- Other special values similar to NA include NaN ("not a number") and Inf.
 - > 1/0
 - [1] Inf
 - > 0/0
 - [1] NaN
 - > is.na(c(1/0, 0/0, NA)) # NaN is treated as NA; Inf is not
 - [1] FALSE TRUE TRUE

2.6 Exporting Data Created in R

- Once finished with manipulating a data frame, you might want to save it into a non-R file.
- The write.table(x, file) function saves the object x as an ASCII file, with its name specified by the file argument.
- Alternatively, you can save it into a csv file by write.csv(x, file)
 - > write.table(Africa.sub, file="africa_sub.txt")
 - > write.csv(Africa.sub, file="africa_sub.csv")