

Python and R

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Welcome

This book provides parallel examples in Python and R to help users of one platform more easily transition to the other.

Chapter 1

Basics

This chapter covers the very basics of Python and R.

1.1 Math

Mathematical operators are the same except for exponents, integer division, and remainder division (modulo).

Python

Python uses `**` for exponentiation, `//` for integer division, and `%` for remainder division.

```
> 3**2
9
> 5 // 2
2
> 5 % 2
1
```

In Python, the `+` operator can also be used to combine strings. See this TBD section.

R

Python uses `^` for exponentiation, `/%` for integer division, and `%%` for remainder division.

```
> 3^2
[1] 9
> 5 %/% 2
[1] 2
> 5 %% 2
[1] 1
```

1.2 Assignment

Python uses `=` for assignment while R can use either `=` or `<-` for assignment. The latter “assignment arrow” is preferred in most R style guides to distinguish it between assignment and setting the value of a function argument. According to R’s documentation, “The operator `<-` can be used anywhere, whereas the operator `=` is only allowed at the top level (e.g., in the complete expression typed at the command prompt) or as one of the subexpressions in a braced list of expressions.” See `?assignOps`.

Python

```
> x = 12
```

R

```
> x <- 12
```

1.3 Printing a value

To see the value of an object created via assignment, you can simply enter the object at the console and hit enter for both Python and R, though it is common in Python to explicitly use the `print()` function.

Python

```
> x
12
```


R

```
> x  
[1] 12
```

1.4 Packages

User-created functions can be bundled and distributed as packages. Packages need to be installed only once. Thereafter they're “imported” (Python) or “loaded” (R) in each new session when needed.

Packages with large user bases are often updated to add functionality and fix bugs. The updates are not automatically installed. Staying apprised of library/package updates can be challenging. Some suggestions are following developers on Twitter, signing up for newsletters, or periodically checking to see what updates are available.

Packages often depend on other packages. These are known as “dependencies”. Sometimes packages are updated to accommodate changes to other packages they depend on.

Python**R**

The main repository for R packages is the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN). Another repository is Bioconductor, which provides tools for working with genomic data. Many packages are also distributed on GitHub.

To install packages from CRAN use the `install.packages()` function. In RStudio, you can also go to Tools...Install Packages... for a dialog that will auto-complete package names as you type.

```
> # install the vcd package, a package for Visualizing Categorical Data  
> install.packages("vcd")  
>  
> # load the package  
> library(vcd)  
>  
> # see which packages on your computer have updates available  
> old.packages()  
>  
> # download and install available package updates;
```

```
> # set ask = TRUE to verify installation of each package  
> update.packages(ask = FALSE)
```

To install R packages from GitHub use the `install_github()` function from the **devtools** package. You need to include the username of the repo owner followed by a forward slash and the name of the package. Typing two colons between a package and a function in the package allows you to use that function without loading the package. That's how we use the `install_github()` below.

```
> install.packages("devtools")  
> devtools::install_github("username/packageName")
```

Occasionally when installing package updates you will be asked “Do you want to install from sources the package which needs compilation?” R packages on CRAN are *compiled* for Mac and Windows operating systems. That can take a day or two after a package has been submitted to CRAN. If you try to install a package that has not been compiled then you'll get asked the question above. If you click Yes, R will try to compile the package on your computer. This will only work if you have the required build tools on your computer. For Windows this means having Rtools installed. Mac users should already have the necessary build tools. Unless you absolutely need the latest version of a package, it's probably fine to click No.

1.5 Logic

Python and R share the same operators for making comparisons:

- `==` (equals)
- `!=` (not equal to)
- `<` (less than)
- `<=` (less than or equal to)
- `>` (greater than)
- `>=` (greater than or equal to)

Likewise they share the same operators for logical AND and OR:

- `&` (AND)
- `|` (OR)

However R also has `&&` and `||` operators for programming control-flow.

Python and R have different operators for negation and xor (exclusive OR).

Python

R

1.6 Generating a sequence of values

In Python, one option for generating a sequence of values is `arange()` from `numpy`. In R, a common approach is to use `seq()`. The sequences can be incremented by indicating a `step` argument in `arange()` or a `by` argument in `seq()`. Be aware that the start/stop interval in `arange()` is *open*, but the from/to interval in `seq()` is *closed*.

Python

```
> import numpy as np
+ x = np.arange(start = 1, stop = 11, step = 2)
+ x
array([1, 3, 5, 7, 9])
```

R

```
> x <- seq(from = 1, to = 11, by = 2)
> x
[1] 1 3 5 7 9 11
```

1.7 Calculating means and medians

The **NumPy** Python library has functions for calculating means and medians, and base R has functions for doing the same.

Python

```
> # Mean, using function from NumPy library
+ import numpy as np
+ x = [90, 105, 110]
+ x_avg = np.mean(x)
+ print(x_avg)
101.66666666666667
```

```
> # Median, using function from NumPy library
+ x = [98, 102, 20, 22, 304]
+ x_med = np.median(x)
+ print(x_med)
98.0
```

R

```
> # Mean, using function from base R
> x <- c(90, 105, 110)
> x_avg <- mean(x)
> x_avg
[1] 101.6667
```

```
> # Median, using function from base R
> x <- c(98, 102, 20, 22, 304)
> x_med <- median(x)
> x_med
[1] 98
```

Chapter 2

Data Structures

This chapter compares and contrasts data structures in Python and R.

2.1 One-dimensional data

A one-dimensional data structure can be visualized as a column in a spreadsheet or as a list of values.

Python

R

In R a one-dimensional data structure is called a *vector*. We can create a vector using the `c()` function. A vector in R can only contain one type of data (all numbers, all strings, etc). The columns of data frames are vectors. If multiple types of data are put into a vector, the data will be coerced according to the hierarchy `logical < integer < double < complex < character`. This means if you mix, say integers and character data, all the data will be coerced to character.

```
> x1 <- c(23, 43, 55)
> x1
[1] 23 43 55
>
> # all values coerced to character
> x2 <- c(23, 43, 'hi')
> x2
[1] "23" "43" "hi"
```

Values in a vector can be accessed by position using indexing brackets.

```
> # extract the 2nd value
> x1[2]
[1] 43
>
> # extract the 2nd and 3rd value
> x1[2:3]
[1] 43 55
```

2.2 Two-dimensional data

Two-dimensional data is rectangular in nature, consisting of rows and columns. These can be the type of data you might find in a spreadsheet with a mix of data types in columns, or matrices as you might encounter in matrix algebra.

Python

R

Two-dimensional data structures in R include the *matrix* and *data frame*. A matrix can contain only one data type. A data frame can contain multiple vectors each of which can consist of different data types.

Create a matrix with the `matrix()` function. Create a data frame with the `data.frame()` function. Most imported data comes into R as a data frame.

```
> # matrix; populated down by column by default
> m <- matrix(data = c(1,3,5,7), nrow = 2, ncol = 2)
> m
      [,1] [,2]
[1,]    1    5
[2,]    3    7
>
> # data frame
> d <- data.frame(name = c("Rob", "Cindy"),
+                 age = c(35, 37))
> d
  name age
1  Rob  35
2 Cindy 37
```

Values in a matrix and data frame can be accessed by position using indexing brackets. The first number(s) refers to rows, the second number(s) to columns. Leaving row or column numbers empty selects all rows or columns.

```

> # extract value in row 1, column 2
> m[1,2]
[1] 5
>
> # extract values in row 2
> d[2,]
  name age
2 Cindy 37

```

2.3 Three-dimensional and higher data

Three-dimensional and higher data can be visualized as multiple rectangular structures stratified by extra variables. These are sometimes referred to as *arrays*. Analysts usually prefer two-dimensional data frames to arrays. Data frames can accommodate multidimensional data by including the additional dimensions as variables.

Python

R

The `array()` function in R can create three-dimensional and higher data structures. Specify the dimension number and size using the `dim` argument. Below we specify 2 rows, 3 columns, and 2 strata using a vector: `c(2,3,2)`. This creates a three-dimensional data structure. The data is simply the numbers 1 through 12.

```

> a1 <- array(data = 1:12, dim = c(2,3,2))
> a1
, , 1

  [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]   1   3   5
[2,]   2   4   6

, , 2

  [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]   7   9  11
[2,]   8  10  12

```

Values in arrays can be accessed by position using indexing brackets.

```

> # extract value in row 1, column 2, strata 1
> a1[1,2,1]
[1] 3
>
> # extract column 2 in both strata
> # result is returned as matrix
> a1[,2,]
      [,1] [,2]
[1,]    3    9
[2,]    4   10

```

The dimensions can be named using the `dimnames()` function. Notice the names must be a *list*.

```

> dimnames(a1) <- list("X" = c("x1", "x2"),
+                      "Y" = c("y1", "y2", "y3"),
+                      "Z" = c("z1", "z2"))
> a1
, , Z = z1

      Y
X     y1 y2 y3
x1    1  3  5
x2    2  4  6

, , Z = z2

      Y
X     y1 y2 y3
x1    7  9 11
x2    8 10 12

```

The `as.data.frame.table()` function can collapse an array into a two-dimensional structure that may be easier to use with standard statistical and graphical routines. The `responseName` argument allows you to provide a suitable column name for the values in the array.

```

> as.data.frame.table(a1, responseName = "value")
  X  Y  Z value
1 x1 y1 z1     1
2 x2 y1 z1     2
3 x1 y2 z1     3
4 x2 y2 z1     4
5 x1 y3 z1     5
6 x2 y3 z1     6

```


7	x1	y1	z2	7
8	x2	y1	z2	8
9	x1	y2	z2	9
10	x2	y2	z2	10
11	x1	y3	z2	11
12	x2	y3	z2	12

Chapter 3

Importing Data

This chapter reviews importing external data into Python and R, including CSV, Excel, and other structured data files. There is often more than one way to import data into Python and R. The examples below highlight one way that we frequently see used.

The data we use for demonstration is New York State Math Test Results by Grade from 2006 - 2011, downloaded from data.gov on September 30, 2021.

3.1 CSV

Comma separated value (CSV) files are text files with fields separated by commas. They are useful for “rectangular” data where rows represent observations and columns represent variables or features.

Python

```
> import pandas
+ d = pandas.read_csv('data/ny_math_test.csv')
+ d.loc[0:2, ["Grade", "Year", "Mean Scale Score"]]
```

	Grade	Year	Mean Scale Score
0	3	2006	700
1	4	2006	699
2	5	2006	691

R

There are many ways to import a csv file. A common way is to use the base R function `read.csv()`.

```
> d <- read.csv("data/ny_math_test.csv")
> d[1:3, c("Grade", "Year", "Mean.Scale.Score")]
  Grade Year Mean.Scale.Score
1     3 2006              700
2     4 2006              699
3     5 2006              691
```

Notice the spaces in the column names have been replaced with periods.

Two packages that provide alternatives to `read.csv()` are **readr** and **data.table**. The **readr** function `read_csv()` returns a tibble. The **data.table** function `fread()` returns a data.table.

3.2 XLS/XLSX (Excel)

Excel files are native to Microsoft Excel. Prior to 2007, Excel files had an extension of XLS. With the launch of Excel 2007, the extension was changed to XLSX. Excel files can have multiple sheets of data. This needs to be accounted for when importing into Python and R.

Python

R

readxl is a well-documented and actively maintained package for importing Excel files into R. The workhorse function is `read_excel()`. The **sheet** argument allows you to specify which sheet you want to import. You can specify sheet by its ordering or by its name. Since this Excel file only has one sheet we do not need to use the argument.

```
> # read in the 2nd sheet
> library(readxl)
> d_xls <- read_excel("data/ny_math_test.xlsx")
> d_xls[1:3, c("Grade", "Year", "Mean Scale Score")]
# A tibble: 3 x 3
  Grade Year `Mean Scale Score`
  <chr> <dbl>           <dbl>
1 3     2006             700
```

2	4	2006	699
3	5	2006	691

The result is a *tibble*, a tidyverse data frame.

It's worth noting we can use the **range** argument to specify a range of cells to import. For example, if the top left corner of the data was B5 and the bottom right corner of the data was J54, we could enter **range="B5:J54"** to just import that section of data.

3.3 JSON

JSON (**J**ava**S**cript **O**bject **N**otation) is a flexible format for storing data. JSON files are text and can be viewed in any text editor. Because of their flexibility JSON files can be quite complex in the way they store data. Therefore there is no one-size-fits-all for importing JSON files into Python or R.

Python

R

jsonlite is one of several R packages available for importing JSON files into R. The **read_json()** function takes a JSON file and returns a list or data frame depending on the structure of the data file and its arguments. We set **simplifyVector = TRUE** so the data is simplified into a matrix.

```
> library(jsonlite)
> d_json <- read_json('data/ny_math_test.json', simplifyVector = TRUE)
```

The **d_json** object is a list with two elements: “meta” and “data”. The “data” element is a matrix that contains the data of interest. The “meta” element contains the column names for the data (among much else). Notice we had to “drill down” in the list to find the column names. We assign column names to the matrix using the **colnames()** function and then convert the matrix to a data frame using the **as.data.frame()** function.

```
> colnames(d_json$data) <- d_json$meta$view$columns$fieldname
> d_json <- as.data.frame(d_json$data)
> d_json[1:3,c("grade", "year", "mean_scale_score")]
  grade year mean_scale_score
1     3 2006             700
2     4 2006             699
3     5 2006             691
```

3.4 XML

XML (**eXtensible Markup Language**) is a markup language that was designed to store data. XML files are text and can be viewed in any text editor or a web browser. Because of their flexibility XML files can be quite complex in the way they store data. Therefore there is no one-size-fits-all for importing XML files into Python or R.

Python

R

xml2 is a relatively small but powerful package for importing and working with XML files. The `read_xml()` function imports an XML file and returns a list of *pointers* to XML *nodes*. There are a number of ways to proceed once you import an XML file, such as using the `xml_find_all()` function to find nodes that match an xpath expression. Below we take a simple approach and convert the XML nodes into a list using the `as_list()` function that is part of the **xml2** package. Once we have the XML nodes in a list, we can use the `bind_rows()` function in the **dplyr** package to create a data frame. Notice we have to drill down into the list to select the element that contains the data. After this we need to do one more thing: *unlist* each the columns into vectors. We do this by applying the `unlist` function to each column of `d`. We save the result by assigning to `d[]`, which overwrites each element (or column) of `d` with the unlisted result.

```
> library(xml2)
> d_xml <- read_xml('data/ny_math_test.xml')
> d_list <- as_list(d_xml)
> d <- dplyr::bind_rows(d_list$response$row)
> d[] <- lapply(d, unlist)
> d[1:3,c("grade", "year", "mean_scale_score")]
# A tibble: 3 x 3
  grade year mean_scale_score
<chr> <chr> <chr>
1 3      2006 700
2 4      2006 699
3 5      2006 691
```

The result is a *tibble*, a tidyverse data frame. We would most likely want to proceed to converting certain columns to numeric.

Chapter 4

Data Manipulation

This chapter looks at various strategies for modifying and deriving variables in data. Unless otherwise stated, examples are for DataFrames (Python) and data frames (R) and use the `mtcars` data frame that is included with R.

```
> # Python  
+ import pandas  
+ mtcars = pandas.read_csv('data/mtcars.csv')
```

```
> # R  
> data(mtcars)  
> # drop row names to match Python version of data  
> rownames(mtcars) <- NULL
```

4.1 Names of variables and their types

View and inspect the names of variables and their type (numeric, string, logical, etc.) This is useful to ensure that variables have the expected type.

Python

R

The `str()` function in R lists the names of the variables, their type, the first few values, and the dimensions of the data frame.

```
> str(mtcars)
'data.frame': 32 obs. of 11 variables:
 $ mpg : num 21 21 22.8 21.4 18.7 18.1 14.3 24.4 22.8 19.2 ...
 $ cyl : num 6 6 4 6 8 6 8 4 4 6 ...
 $ disp: num 160 160 108 258 360 ...
 $ hp : num 110 110 93 110 175 105 245 62 95 123 ...
 $ drat: num 3.9 3.9 3.85 3.08 3.15 2.76 3.21 3.69 3.92 3.92 ...
 $ wt : num 2.62 2.88 2.32 3.21 3.44 ...
 $ qsec: num 16.5 17 18.6 19.4 17 ...
 $ vs : num 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 ...
 $ am : num 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ...
 $ gear: num 4 4 4 3 3 3 3 4 4 4 ...
 $ carb: num 4 4 1 1 2 1 4 2 2 4 ...
```

To see just the names of the data frame, use the `names()` function.

```
> names(mtcars)
[1] "mpg" "cyl" "disp" "hp" "drat" "wt" "qsec" "vs" "am" "gear"
[11] "carb"
```

To see just the dimensions of the data frame, use the `dim()` function. It returns the number of rows and columns, respectively.

```
> dim(mtcars)
[1] 32 11
```

4.2 Access variables

How to work with a specific column of data.

Python

R

The dollar sign operator, `$`, provides access to a column in a data frame as a vector.

```
> mtcars$mpg
[1] 21.0 21.0 22.8 21.4 18.7 18.1 14.3 24.4 22.8 19.2 17.8 16.4 17.3 15.2 10.4
[16] 10.4 14.7 32.4 30.4 33.9 21.5 15.5 15.2 13.3 19.2 27.3 26.0 30.4 15.8 19.7
[31] 15.0 21.4
```


Double indexing brackets also provide access to columns as a vector.

```
> mtcars[["mpg"]]
[1] 21.0 21.0 22.8 21.4 18.7 18.1 14.3 24.4 22.8 19.2 17.8 16.4 17.3 15.2 10.4
[16] 10.4 14.7 32.4 30.4 33.9 21.5 15.5 15.2 13.3 19.2 27.3 26.0 30.4 15.8 19.7
[31] 15.0 21.4
```

Single indexing brackets work as well, but return a data frame instead of a vector (if used with a data frame).

```
> mtcars["mpg"]
      mpg
1  21.0
2  21.0
3  22.8
4  21.4
5  18.7
6  18.1
7  14.3
8  24.4
9  22.8
10 19.2
11 17.8
12 16.4
13 17.3
14 15.2
15 10.4
16 10.4
17 14.7
18 32.4
19 30.4
20 33.9
21 21.5
22 15.5
23 15.2
24 13.3
25 19.2
26 27.3
27 26.0
28 30.4
29 15.8
30 19.7
31 15.0
32 21.4
```

Single indexing brackets also allow selection of rows when used with a comma.

The syntax is `rows, columns`

```
> # first three rows  
> mtcars[1:3, "mpg"]  
[1] 21.0 21.0 22.8
```

Finally single indexing brackets allow us to select multiple columns. Request columns either by name or position using a vector.

```
> mtcars[c("mpg", "cyl")]  
   mpg cyl  
1  21.0   6  
2  21.0   6  
3  22.8   4  
4  21.4   6  
5  18.7   8  
6  18.1   6  
7  14.3   8  
8  24.4   4  
9  22.8   4  
10 19.2   6  
11 17.8   6  
12 16.4   8  
13 17.3   8  
14 15.2   8  
15 10.4   8  
16 10.4   8  
17 14.7   8  
18 32.4   4  
19 30.4   4  
20 33.9   4  
21 21.5   4  
22 15.5   8  
23 15.2   8  
24 13.3   8  
25 19.2   8  
26 27.3   4  
27 26.0   4  
28 30.4   4  
29 15.8   8  
30 19.7   6  
31 15.0   8  
32 21.4   4  
> # same as mtcars[1:2]
```

The `head()` and `tail()` functions return the first 6 or last 6 values. Use the

`n` argument to change the number of values. They work with vectors or data frames.

```
> # first 6 values
> head(mtcars$mpg)
[1] 21.0 21.0 22.8 21.4 18.7 18.1

> # last row of data frame
> tail(mtcars, n = 1)
      mpg cyl  disp  hp  drat   wt  qsec vs  am  gear carb
32  21.4   4   121  109  4.11  2.78 18.6  1   1    4     2
```

4.3 Rename variables

How to rename variables or “column headers”.

Python

R

Variable names can be changed by their index (ie, order of columns in the data frame). Below the second column is “cyl”. We change the name to “cylinder”.

```
> names(mtcars)[2]
[1] "cyl"
> names(mtcars)[2] <- "cylinders"
> names(mtcars)
 [1] "mpg"      "cylinders" "disp"      "hp"        "drat"      "wt"
 [7] "qsec"      "vs"        "am"        "gear"      "carb"
```

Variable names can also be changed by conditional match. Below we find the variable name that matches “drat” and change to “axle_ratio”.

```
> names(mtcars)[names(mtcars) == "drat"]
[1] "drat"
> names(mtcars)[names(mtcars) == "drat"] <- "axle_ratio"
> names(mtcars)
 [1] "mpg"      "cylinders" "disp"      "hp"        "axle_ratio"
 [6] "wt"       "qsec"      "vs"        "am"        "gear"
[11] "carb"
```

More than one variable name can be changed using a vector of positions or matches.

```

> names(mtcars)[c(6,8)] <- c("weight", "engine")
>
> # or
> # names(mtcars)[names(mtcars) %in% c("wt", "vs")] <- c("weight", "engine")
>
> names(mtcars)
[1] "mpg"      "cylinders" "disp"      "hp"      "axle_ratio"
[6] "weight"   "qsec"      "engine"    "am"      "gear"
[11] "carb"

```

See also the `rename()` function in the **dplyr** package.

4.4 Create, replace and remove variables

We often need to create variables that are functions of other variables, or replace existing variables with an updated version.

Python

R

Adding a new variable name after the dollar sign notation and assigning a result adds a new column.

```

> # add column for Kilometer per liter
> mtcars$kpl <- mtcars$mpg/2.352

```

Doing the same with an *existing* variable updates the values in a column.

```

> # update to liters per 100 Kilometers
> mtcars$kpl <- 100/mtcars$kpl

```

To remove a variable, assign it NULL.

```

> # drop the kpl variable
> mtcars$kpl <- NULL

```

4.5 Create strings from numbers

You may have data that is numeric but that needs to be treated as a string.

Python**R**

The `as.character()` function takes a vector and converts it to string format.

```
> head(mtcars$am)
[1] 1 1 1 0 0 0
> head(as.character(mtcars$am))
[1] "1" "1" "1" "0" "0" "0"
```

Note we just demonstrated conversion. To save the conversion we need to *assign* the result to the data frame.

```
> # add new string variable am_ch
> mtcars$am_ch <- as.character(mtcars$am)
> head(mtcars$am_ch)
[1] "1" "1" "1" "0" "0" "0"
```

The `factor()` function can also be used to convert a numeric vector into a categorical variable. The result is not exactly a string, however. A factor is made of integers with character labels. Factors are useful for character data that have a fixed set of levels (eg, “grade 1”, grade 2”, etc)

```
> # convert to factor
> head(mtcars$am)
[1] 1 1 1 0 0 0
> head(factor(mtcars$am))
[1] 1 1 1 0 0 0
Levels: 0 1
>
> # convert to factor with labels
> head(factor(mtcars$am, labels = c("automatic", "manual")))
[1] manual    manual    manual    automatic automatic automatic
Levels: automatic manual
```

Again we just demonstrated factor conversion. To save the conversion we need to assign to the data frame.

```
> # create factor variable am_fac
> mtcars$am_fac <- factor(mtcars$am, labels = c("automatic", "manual"))
> head(mtcars$am_fac)
[1] manual    manual    manual    automatic automatic automatic
Levels: automatic manual
```

TODO: add zip code conversion using `str_pad()` (or base R option?)

4.6 Create numbers from strings

String variables that ought to be numbers usually have some character data in the values such as units (eg, “4 cm”). To create numbers from strings it’s important to remove any character data that cannot be converted to a number.

Python

R

The `as.numeric()` function will attempt to coerce strings to numeric type *if possible*. Any non-numeric values are coerced to NA.

For demonstration, let’s say we have the following vector.

```
> weight <- c("125 lbs.", "132 lbs.", "156 lbs.")
```

The `as.numeric()` function returns all NA due to presence of character data.

```
> as.numeric(weight)
Warning: NAs introduced by coercion
[1] NA NA NA
```

There are many ways to approach this. A common approach is to first remove the characters and then use `as.numeric()`. Below we use the `sub` function to find “lbs.” and replace with nothing.

```
> weightN <- gsub("lbs.", "", weight)
> as.numeric(weightN)
[1] 125 132 156
```

The `parse_number()` function in the **readr** package can often take care of these situations automatically.

```
> readr::parse_number(weight)
[1] 125 132 156
```

4.7 Change case

How to change the case of strings. The most common case transformations are lower case, upper case, and title case.

Python**R**

The `tolower()` and `toupper()` functions convert case to lower and upper, respectively.

```
> names(mtcars) <- toupper(names(mtcars))
> names(mtcars)
[1] "MPG"      "CYLINDERS"  "DISP"      "HP"      "AXLE_RATIO"
[6] "WEIGHT"   "QSEC"       "ENGINE"    "AM"      "GEAR"
[11] "CARB"     "AM_CH"      "AM_FAC"
```

```
> names(mtcars) <- tolower(names(mtcars))
> names(mtcars)
[1] "mpg"      "cylinders"  "disp"      "hp"      "axle_ratio"
[6] "weight"   "qsec"       "engine"    "am"      "gear"
[11] "carb"     "am_ch"      "am_fac"
```

The **stringr** package provides a convenient title case conversion function, `str_to_title()`, which capitalizes the first letter of each string.

```
> stringr::str_to_title(names(mtcars))
[1] "Mpg"      "Cylinders"  "Disp"      "Hp"      "Axle_ratio"
[6] "Weight"   "Qsec"       "Engine"    "Am"      "Gear"
[11] "Carb"     "Am_ch"      "Am_fac"
```

4.8 Drop duplicate rows

How to find and drop duplicate elements.

Python**R**

The `uplicated()` function “determines which elements of a vector or data frame are duplicates of elements with smaller subscripts”. (from `?uplicated`)

```
> # create data frame with duplicate rows
> mtcars2 <- rbind(mtcars[1:3,1:6], mtcars[1,1:6])
> # last row is duplicate of first
> mtcars2
```

	mpg	cylinders	disp	hp	axle_ratio	weight
1	21.0	6	160	110	3.90	2.620
2	21.0	6	160	110	3.90	2.875
3	22.8	4	108	93	3.85	2.320
4	21.0	6	160	110	3.90	2.620

The `duplicated()` function returns a logical vector. TRUE indicates a row is a duplicate of a previous row.

```
> # last row is duplicate
> duplicated(mtcars2)
[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE
```

The TRUE/FALSE vector can be used to extract or drop duplicate rows. Since TRUE in indexing brackets will keep a row, we can use `!` to negate the logicals and keep those that are “NOT TRUE”

```
> # drop the duplicate and update the data frame
> mtcars3 <- mtcars2[!duplicated(mtcars2),]
> mtcars3
  mpg cylinders disp  hp axle_ratio weight
1  21.0         6  160  110      3.90  2.620
2  21.0         6  160  110      3.90  2.875
3  22.8         4  108   93      3.85  2.320
```

```
> # extract and investigate the duplicate row
> mtcars2[duplicated(mtcars2),]
  mpg cylinders disp  hp axle_ratio weight
4  21         6  160  110      3.9   2.62
```

The `anyDuplicated()` function returns the row number of duplicate rows.

```
> anyDuplicated(mtcars2)
[1] 4
```

4.9 Randomly sample rows

How to take a random sample of rows from a data frame. The sample is usually either a fixed size or a proportion.

Python**R**

There are many ways to sample rows from a data frame in R. The **dplyr** package provides a convenience function, `slice_sample()`, for taking either a fixed sample size or a proportion.

```
> # sample 5 rows from mtcars
> dplyr::slice_sample(mtcars, n = 5)
```

	mpg	cylinders	disp	hp	axle_ratio	weight	qsec	engine	am	gear	carb	am_ch
1	19.2	8	400.0	175	3.08	3.845	17.05	0	0	3	2	0
2	21.0	6	160.0	110	3.90	2.875	17.02	0	1	4	4	1
3	22.8	4	140.8	95	3.92	3.150	22.90	1	0	4	2	0
4	17.8	6	167.6	123	3.92	3.440	18.90	1	0	4	4	0
5	10.4	8	460.0	215	3.00	5.424	17.82	0	0	3	4	0

```

      am_fac
1 automatic
2  manual
3 automatic
4 automatic
5 automatic
>
> # sample 20% of rows from mtcars
> dplyr::slice_sample(mtcars, prop = 0.20)
```

	mpg	cylinders	disp	hp	axle_ratio	weight	qsec	engine	am	gear	carb	am_ch
1	19.2	6	167.6	123	3.92	3.440	18.30	1	0	4	4	0
2	30.4	4	75.7	52	4.93	1.615	18.52	1	1	4	2	1
3	16.4	8	275.8	180	3.07	4.070	17.40	0	0	3	3	0
4	10.4	8	460.0	215	3.00	5.424	17.82	0	0	3	4	0
5	21.4	6	258.0	110	3.08	3.215	19.44	1	0	3	1	0
6	26.0	4	120.3	91	4.43	2.140	16.70	0	1	5	2	1

```

      am_fac
1 automatic
2  manual
3 automatic
4 automatic
5 automatic
6  manual
```

To sample with replacement, set `replace = TRUE`.

The base R functions `sample()` and `runif()` can be combined to sample sizes or approximate proportions.

```

> # sample 5 rows from mtcars
> # get random row numbers
> i <- sample(nrow(mtcars), size = 5)
> # use i to select rows
> mtcars[i,]
  mpg cylinders  disp  hp axle_ratio weight  qsec engine  am gear carb am_ch
31  15.0         8 301.0 335    3.54   3.570 14.60      0  1   5   8    1
 7  14.3         8 360.0 245    3.21   3.570 15.84      0  0   3   4    0
16  10.4         8 460.0 215    3.00   5.424 17.82      0  0   3   4    0
30  19.7         6 145.0 175    3.62   2.770 15.50      0  1   5   6    1
20  33.9         4  71.1  65    4.22   1.835 19.90      1  1   4   1    1
  am_fac
31  manual
 7  automatic
16  automatic
30  manual
20  manual

```

```

> # sample about 20% of rows from mtcars
> # generate random values on range of [0,1]
> i <- runif(nrow(mtcars))
> # use i < 0.20 logical vector to
> # select rows that correspond to TRUE
> mtcars[i < 0.20,]
  mpg cylinders  disp  hp axle_ratio weight  qsec engine  am gear carb am_ch
 2  21.0         6 160.0 110    3.90   2.875 17.02      0  1   4   4    1
 5  18.7         8 360.0 175    3.15   3.440 17.02      0  0   3   2    0
 7  14.3         8 360.0 245    3.21   3.570 15.84      0  0   3   4    0
27  26.0         4 120.3  91    4.43   2.140 16.70      0  1   5   2    1
28  30.4         4  95.1 113    3.77   1.513 16.90      1  1   5   2    1
29  15.8         8 351.0 264    4.22   3.170 14.50      0  1   5   4    1
30  19.7         6 145.0 175    3.62   2.770 15.50      0  1   5   6    1
  am_fac
 2  manual
 5  automatic
 7  automatic
27  manual
28  manual
29  manual
30  manual

```

The random sample will change every time the code is run. To always generate the same “random” sample, use the `set.seed()` function with any positive integer.

```

> # always get the same random sample
> set.seed(123)
> i <- runif(nrow(mtcars))
> mtcars[i < 0.20,]

```

	mpg	cylinders	disp	hp	axle_ratio	weight	qsec	engine	am	gear	carb	am_ch
6	18.1	6	225.0	105	2.76	3.46	20.22	1	0	3	1	0
15	10.4	8	472.0	205	2.93	5.25	17.98	0	0	3	4	0
18	32.4	4	78.7	66	4.08	2.20	19.47	1	1	4	1	1
30	19.7	6	145.0	175	3.62	2.77	15.50	0	1	5	6	1

```

      am_fac
6  automatic
15 automatic
18  manual
30  manual

```


Chapter 5

Combine, Reshape and Merge

This chapter looks at various strategies for combining, reshaping and merging data.

5.1 Combine rows

Combining rows may be thought of as “stacking” rectangular data structures.

Python

R

The `rbind()` function “binds” rows. It takes two or more objects. To row bind data frames the column names must match, otherwise an error is returned. If columns being stacked have differing variable types, the values will be coerced according to `logical < integer < double < complex < character`.

```
> d1 <- data.frame(x = 4:6, y = letters[1:3])
> d2 <- data.frame(x = 3:1, y = letters[4:6])
> rbind(d1, d2)
  x y
1 4 a
2 5 b
3 6 c
4 3 d
```

```
5 2 e
6 1 f
```

See also the `bind_rows()` function in the **dplyr** package.

5.2 Combine columns

Combining columns may be thought of as setting rectangular data structures next to each other.

Python

R

The `cbind()` function “binds” columns. It takes two or more objects. To column bind data frames the number of rows must match, otherwise the object with fewer rows will have rows “recycled” (if possible) or an error is returned.

```
> d1 <- data.frame(x = 10:13, y = letters[1:4])
> d2 <- data.frame(x = c(23,34,45,44))
> cbind(d1, d2)
   x y  x
1 10 a 23
2 11 b 34
3 12 c 45
4 13 d 44
```

```
> # example of recycled rows (d1 is repeated twice)
> d1 <- data.frame(x = 10:13, y = letters[1:4])
> d2 <- data.frame(x = c(23,34,45,44,99,99,99,99))
> cbind(d1, d2)
   x y  x
1 10 a 23
2 11 b 34
3 12 c 45
4 13 d 44
5 10 a 99
6 11 b 99
7 12 c 99
8 13 d 99
```

See also the `bind_cols()` function in the **dplyr** package.

5.3 Reshape wide to long

Python

R

5.4 Reshape long to wide

Python

R

5.5 Merge/Join

5.5.1 Left Join

Python

R

5.5.2 Right Join

Python

R

5.5.3 Inner Join

Python

R

5.5.4 Outer Join

Python

R