Statistics for Social Research Week 2 Supplements: Introduction of R

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Data

Acknowledgement

Data

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This note is largely based on Applied Statistics with R. https://daviddalpiaz.github.io/appliedstats/

Data Structures

Data

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- ▶ R also has a number of basic data *structures*.
- ► A data structure is either
 - ▶ homogeneous (all elements are of the same data type)
 - ▶ heterogeneous (elements can be of more than one data type).

Dimension	Homogeneous	Heterogeneous
1	Vector	List
2	Matrix	Data Frame
3+	Array	

Vector (Recap)

- In vector operations, we mostly deal with subsetting
- ► We want only part of the vector
- vector subsetting is controlled by index, or the position of the elements in the vector

```
## create a vector
x \leftarrow c(10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40)
## subset the vector
x[3]
## [1] 20
x[c(1,3,5)]
## [1] 10 20 30
x[x<20]
## [1] 10 15
```

Matrix

Matrix Operation: Basics

- R can also be used for **matrix** calculations.
 - ▶ Matrices have rows and columns containing a single data type.
- ► Matrices can be created using the matrix function.

```
x = 1:9
X = matrix(x, nrow = 3, ncol = 3)
X
```

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,] 1 4 7
## [2,] 2 5 8
## [3,] 3 6 9
```

- ► We are using two different variables:
 - lower case x, which stores a vector and
 - capital X, which stores a matrix.

▶ By default the matrix function reorders a vector into columns, but we can also tell R to use rows instead.

```
Y = matrix(x, nrow = 3, ncol = 3, byrow = TRUE)
Y
```

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,] 1 2 3
## [2,] 4 5 6
## [3,] 7 8 9
```

▶ a matrix of a specified dimension where every element is the same, in this case 0.

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
## [1,] 0 0 0 0
## [2,] 0 0 0 0
```

- ▶ Matrices can be subsetted using square brackets, [].
- ► However, since matrices are two-dimensional, we need to specify both a row and a column when subsetting.
- ▶ Here we get the element in the first row and the second column.

X

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,] 1 4 7
## [2,] 2 5 8
## [3,] 3 6 9
```

X[1, 2]

[1] 4

▶ We can also subset an entire row or column.

X[1,]

[1] 1 4 7

X[, 2]

[1] 4 5 6

Matrices can also be created by combining vectors as columns, using cbind, or combining vectors as rows, using rbind.

```
x = 1:9
rev(x)
## [1] 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
rep(1, 9)
## [1] 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
rbind(x, rev(x), rep(1, 9))
     [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9]
##
## x
                  3
                            5
                                 6
        9
             8
                       6
                            5
##
                                 4
##
```

▶ When using rbind and cbind you can specify "argument" names that will be used as column names.

$$cbind(col_1 = x, col_2 = rev(x), col_3 = rep(1, 9))$$

Matrix

##		col_1	col_2	col_3
##	[1,]	1	9	1
##	[2,]	2	8	1
##	[3,]	3	7	1
##	[4,]	4	6	1
##	[5,]	5	5	1
##	[6,]	6	4	1
##	[7,]	7	3	1
##	[8,]	8	2	1
##	[9,]	9	1	1

Matrix

```
x = 1:9
y = 9:1
X = matrix(x, 3, 3)
Y = matrix(y, 3, 3)
X
```

##

Vector (Recap)

```
[,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]
## [2,]
## [3,]
                      9
```

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

```
X + Y
```

```
X * Y
```

X / Y

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,] 0.1111111 0.6666667 2.333333
## [2,] 0.2500000 1.0000000 4.000000
## [3,] 0.4285714 1.5000000 9.000000
```

- ▶ Note that X * Y is **not** matrix multiplication.
- ▶ It is element by element multiplication. (Same for X / Y).

► Matrix multiplication uses %*%.

X %*% Y

▶ t() which gives the transpose of a matrix

t(X)

-3 -2

▶ solve() which returns the inverse of a square matrix if it is invertible.

```
Z = matrix(c(9, 2, -3, 2, 4, -2, -3, -2, 16), 3, byrow = TRUE)
Z
## [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,] 9 2 -3
## [2,] 2 4 -2
```

[3,] solve(Z)

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,] 0.12931034 -0.05603448 0.01724138
## [2,] -0.05603448 0.29094828 0.02586207
## [3,] 0.01724138 0.02586207 0.06896552
```

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[,3]

[1] TRUE

##

► To verify that solve(Z) returns the inverse, we multiply it by Z.

```
solve(Z) %*% Z
                [,1]
                              [,2]
##
   [1,] 1.000000e+00 -6.245005e-17 0.000000e+00
   [2,] 7.979728e-17 1.000000e+00 5.551115e-17
## [3,] 2.775558e-17 0.000000e+00 1.000000e+00
diag(3)
##
        [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]
## [2,]
## [3,]
                0
all.equal(solve(Z) %*% Z, diag(3))
```

Getting information of matrix

▶ Matrix specific functions for obtaining dimension and summary information.

```
X = matrix(1:6, 2, 3)
Х
        [,1] [,2] [,3]
##
## [1,]
## [2,] 2 4
                    6
dim(X)
## [1] 2 3
rowSums(X)
## [1] 9 12
```

[1] 1.5 3.5 5.5

```
colSums(X)
## [1] 3 7 11
rowMeans(X)
## [1] 3 4
colMeans(X)
```

Matrix

0000000000000000

```
## [1] 9 4 16
```

diag(Z)

Vector (Recap)

 Or create a matrix with specified elements on the diagonal. (And 0 on the off-diagonals.)

```
diag(1:5)
         [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
##
## [1,]
            1
                                   0
## [2,]
                                   0
## [3,]
                                   0
## [4,]
                        0
                                   0
## [5,]
                                   5
                        0
```

▶ Or, lastly, create a square matrix of a certain dimension with 1 for every element of the diagonal and 0 for the off-diagonals.

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List

- ► A list is a one-dimensional heterogeneous data structure.
 - ▶ It is indexed like a vector with a single integer value,
 - but each element can contain an element of any type.

```
# creation
list(42, "Hello", TRUE)
## [[1]]
## [1] 42
##
##
   [[2]]
   [1] "Hello"
##
   [[3]]
##
   [1] TRUE
```

List

```
ex_list = list(
    a = c(1, 2, 3, 4),
    b = TRUE,
    c = "Hello!",
    d = function(arg = 42) {print("Hello World!")},
    e = diag(5)
)
```

- Lists can be subset using two syntaxes,
 - 1. the \$ operator, and
 - 2. square brackets [].

subsetting

ex_list\$e

##		[,1]	[,2]	[,3]	[,4]	[,5]
##	[1,]	1	0	0	0	0
##	[2,]	0	1	0	0	0
##	[3,]	0	0	1	0	0
##	[4,]	0	0	0	1	0
##	[5,]	0	0	0	0	1

List

```
ex_list[1:2]
## $a
## [1] 1 2 3 4
##
## $b
## [1] TRUE
```

```
ex_list[c("e", "a")]
```

```
## $e
         [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
##
## [1,]
            1
                       0
                                   0
## [2,]
            0
                       0
                                   0
## [3,]
                       1
                  0
                                   0
## [4,]
                  0
                       0
                                   0
## [5,]
                  0
                       0
                             0
##
## $a
## [1] 1 2 3 4
```

```
ex_list["e"]
```

```
## $e
##
        [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
## [1,]
           1
                0
                                 0
## [2,]
                                 0
## [3,]
                0
                                 0
## [4,]
                      0
                                 0
## [5,]
                      0
                0
```

ex_list\$d

function(arg = 42) {print("Hello World!")}

Control flow

if/else syntax

► The if/else syntax is:

```
if (...) {
  some R code
} else {
  more R code
}
```

Example: To see whether x is large than y.

```
x = 1
y = 3
if (x > y) {
  z = x * y
  print("x is larger than y")
} else {
  z = x + 5 * y
  print("x is less than or equal to y")
## [1] "x is less than or equal to y"
z
## [1] 16
```

- ► R also has a special function ifelse()
 - ▶ It returns one of two specified values based on a conditional statement.

```
ifelse(4 > 3, 1, 0)
```

[1] 1

▶ The real power of ifelse() comes from its ability to be applied to vectors.

```
fib = c(1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21)
ifelse(fib > 6, "Foo", "Bar")
```

```
## [1] "Bar" "Bar" "Bar" "Bar" "Foo" "Foo" "Foo"
```

for loop

▶ A for loop repeats the same procedure for the specified number of times

```
x = 11:15
for (i in 1:5) {
   x[i] = x[i] * 2
}
```

[1] 22 24 26 28 30

- ▶ Note that this for loop is very normal in many programming languages.
- ▶ In R we would not use a loop, instead we would simply use a vectorized operation.
 - ▶ for loop in R is known to be very slow.

```
x = 11:15

x = x * 2

x
```

[1] 22 24 26 28 30

Function

Functions

- ► To use a function,
 - you simply type its name,
 - ► followed by an open parenthesis,
 - ▶ then specify values of its arguments,
 - then finish with a closing parenthesis.
- ▶ An **argument** is a variable which is used in the body of the function.

```
# The following is just a demonstration,
# not the real function in R.
function_name(arg1 = 10, arg2 = 20)
```

▶ We can also write our own functions in R.

Example

► Example: "standardize" variables

$$\frac{x-\bar{x}}{s}$$

- ▶ When writing a function, there are three thing you must do.
 - 1. Give the function a name. Preferably something that is short, but descriptive.
 - 2. Specify the arguments using function()
 - 3. Write the body of the function within curly braces, {}.

```
standardize = function(x) {
  m = mean(x)
  std = sd(x)
  result = (x - m) / std
  return(result)
}
```

- ▶ Here the name of the function is standardize.
- ► The function has a single argument x which is used in the body of function.
- Note that the output of the final line of the body is what is returned by the function.

test sample = rnorm(n = 10, mean = 2, sd = 5)

- Let's test our function
- ▶ Take a random sample of size n = 10 from a normal distribution with a mean of 2 and a standard deviation of 5.

```
test_sample

## [1] 6.5470282 0.7131335 4.9040854 -0.4813283 0.2113166 0.7868870

## [7] -3.5003255 7.8734480 -2.1090746 3.4517340
```

```
standardize(x = test_sample)
```

```
## [1] 1.2627112 -0.3021912 0.8220030 -0.6225974 -0.4368001 -0.2824073
## [7] -1.4324227 1.6185142 -1.0592292 0.4324197
```

► The same function can be written more simply.

```
standardize = function(x) {
  (x - mean(x)) / sd(x)
}
```

▶ When specifying arguments, you can provide default arguments.

```
power_of_num = function(num, power = 2) {
  num ^ power
}
```

► Let's look at a number of ways that we could run this function to perform the operation 10^2 resulting in 100.

```
power_of_num(10)
## [1] 100
power_of_num(10, 2)
## [1] 100
power_of_num(num = 10, power = 2)
## [1] 100
power_of_num(power = 2, num = 10)
## [1] 100
```

▶ Note that without using the argument names, the order matters. The following code will not evaluate to the same output as the previous example.

```
power_of_num(2, 10)
```

[1] 1024

▶ Also, the following line of code would produce an error since arguments without a default value must be specified.

```
power_of_num(power = 5)
```

- ► To further illustrate a function with a default argument, we will write a function that calculates sample variance two ways.
- ▶ By default, the function will calculate the unbiased estimate of σ^2 , which we will call s^2 .

$$s^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x - \bar{x})^{2}$$

It will also have the ability to return the biased estimate (based on maximum likelihood) which we will call $\hat{\sigma}^2$.

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x - \bar{x})^2$$

```
get_var = function(x, unbiased = TRUE) {
   if (unbiased == TRUE) {
      n = length(x) - 1
   } else if (unbiased == FALSE) {
      n = length(x)
   }
   (1 / n) * sum((x - mean(x)) ^ 2)
}
```

```
get_var(test_sample)

## [1] 13.89769

get_var(test_sample, unbiased = TRUE)

## [1] 13.89769

var(test_sample)

## [1] 13.89769
```

We see the function is working as expected, and when returning the unbiased estimate it matches R's built in function var(). Finally, let's examine the biased estimate of σ^2 .

get_var(test_sample, unbiased = FALSE)

[1] 12.50792