Lecture 2: Working with Data in R

STAT GU4206/GR5206 Statistical Computing & Introduction to Data Science

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- **Vectors**. Elements must all be the same type. Access like v[5], create with v <- c().
- Matrices. Two dimension (rows and columns) version of array.
 Access like m[1,3], m[2,], m[,"colname"]. Create with matrix().
- Linear Algebra for matrices: matrix multiplication, determinant, inverse.
- **Lists**. Elements can all be different types. Access like 1[[3]], 1\$name. Create with list().
- Filtering. Accessing elements of a vector based on some criteria.
 v [v>5].
- NA and NULL values. NA is missing data and NULL doesn't exist.

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Factors and Tables

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Factors Definition

- Qualitative data that can assume only a discrete number of values (i.e. *categorical* data) can be represented as a *factor* in R.
- For example, Democrat, Republican, or Independent, Male or Female, Control or Treatment, etc.
- In R, think of factors as vectors with additional information which is a record of the distinct elements of the factor, called the *levels*.
- R automatically treats factors specially in many functions.

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Factors Definition

Factors Example

```
> data <- rep(c("Control","Treatment"),c(3,4))
> data # A character vector
```

```
[5] "Treatment" "Treatment" "Treatment"
```

```
> group <- factor(data)
> group
```

```
[1] Control Control Treatment Treatment [6] Treatment Treatment
```

[1] "Control" "Control" "Treatment"

Levels: Control Treatment

The *levels* of the factor group are Control and Treatment.

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Factors Definition

```
Factors Example
> str(group)
 Factor w/ 2 levels "Control", "Treatment": 1 1 1 2 2 2 2
> mode(group) # Numeric?
[1] "numeric"
> summary(group)
  Control Treatment
```

Functions on Factors

The split() function takes as input a vector and a factor (or list of factors), splitting the input according to the groups of the factor. The output is a list.

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Functions on Factors

The split() function takes as input a vector and a factor (or list of factors), splitting the input according to the groups of the factor. The output is a list.

Example

Suppose that we knew the ages and sex of the members of the Control and Treatment groups.

```
> group
```

- [1] Control Control Treatment Treatment
- [6] Treatment Treatment

Levels: Control Treatment

```
> ages <- c(20, 30, 40, 35, 35, 35, 35)
> sex <- c("M", "M", "F", "M", "F", "F", "F")
```

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Functions on Factors

Use the split() function to list the ages in each group + sex pair.

```
> split(ages, list(group, sex))
$Control.F
Γ17 40
$Treatment.F
[1] 35 35 35
$Control.M
[1] 20 30
$Treatment.M
[1] 35
```

Split has coerced sex into a factor variable.

Tables

The table() function can be used to produce contingency tables in R.

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Tables

The table() function can be used to produce contingency tables in R.

```
Example
> group
[1] Control Control Treatment Treatment
[6] Treatment Treatment
Levels: Control Treatment
> table(group)
group
  Control Treatment
```

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Tables

Example

```
> table(sex, group)
```

```
group
sex Control Treatment
F 1 3
M 2 1
```

Can have three-dimensional tables as well.

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Most matrix operations work on tables as well.

```
Example
> new_table <- table(sex, group)
> new_table[, "Control"]
F M
> round(new_table/length(group), 3) # Gives proportions
   group
sex Control Treatment
  F 0.143 0.429
  M 0.286 0.143
```

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- Use for two-dimensional tables of data.
- Like matrices (rows and columns structure) but each column can have a different mode (character, logical, numeric, ...).
- Use for data that can be represented as observations or cases (rows) on variables (columns).
- Can have row and column names.

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- Use data.frame() to create dataframes in R.
- stringsAsFactors = TRUE, the default, turns character vectors into a factor variable.
- Usually set stringsAsFactors = FALSE and set factors manually.

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- Use data.frame() to create dataframes in R.
- stringsAsFactors = TRUE, the default, turns character vectors into a factor variable.
- Usually set stringsAsFactors = FALSE and set factors manually.

Creating a dataframe

```
> Name <- c("John", "Jill", "Jacob", "Jenny")
> Year <- c(1,1,2,4)
> Grade <- c("B", "A+", "B-", "A")
> student_data <- data.frame(Name, Year, Grade,
+ stringsAsFactors = FALSE)</pre>
```

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Students Example

```
> student_data
```

```
Name Year Grade
1 John 1 B
2 Jill 1 A+
3 Jacob 2 B-
4 Jenny 4 A
```

> dim(student_data)

```
[1] 4 3
```

```
> str(student_data)
```

```
'data.frame': 4 obs. of 3 variables:

$ Name : chr "John" "Jill" "Jacob" "Jenny"

$ Year : num 1 1 2 4

$ Grade: chr "B" "A+" "B-" "A"
```

> summary(student_data)

Name	Year	Grade
Length:4	Min. :1.0	Length:4
Class :character	1st Qu.:1.0	Class :character
Mode :character	Median :1.5	Mode :character
	Mean :2.0	
	3rd Qu.:2.5	
	Max. :4.0	

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States Example

```
      Population Income Illiteracy Life.Exp Murder

      Alabama
      3615
      3624
      2.1
      69.05
      15.1

      Alaska
      365
      6315
      1.5
      69.31
      11.3

      HS.Grad Frost
      Area Region Abbr

      Alabama
      41.3
      20
      50708
      South
      AL

      Alaska
      66.7
      152
      566432
      West
      AK
```

states combines pre-existing matrix state.x77 with categorical vector state.region and character vector state.abb. More info: ?state.x77.

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Accessing Dataframes

Basically, like you would a matrix.

Student Example

```
> student_data
```

```
Name Year Grade
1 John 1 B
2 Jill 1 A+
3 Jacob 2 B-
4 Jenny 4 A
```

```
> student_data[3:4,]
```

```
Name Year Grade
3 Jacob 2 B-
4 Jenny 4 A
```

Accessing Dataframes

> student_data\$Grade

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[1] "B" "A+" "B-" "A"

Student Example

Basically, like you would a matrix.

```
Name Year Grade
1 John 1 B
2 Jill 1 A+
3 Jacob 2 B-
4 Jenny 4 A
```

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Accessing Dataframes

States Example

```
Population Income Illiteracy Life.Exp Murder
New York 18076 4903 1.4 70.55 10.9
HS.Grad Frost Area Region Abbr
New York 52.7 82 47831 Northeast NY
```

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Filtering Dataframes

```
> student_data[student_data$Grade == "A+", ]
 Name Year Grade
2 Jill 1 A+
> student_data[student_data$Year <= 2, ]</pre>
  Name Year Grade
1
  John 1 B
 Jill 1 A+
 Jacob 2 B-
> states[states$Region == "Northeast", "Population"]
[1]
    3100 1058 5814 812 7333 18076 11860 931
                                                 472
```

Adding Rows and Columns to Dataframes

Basically, like you would a matrix.

```
> new_stu <- c("Bobby", 3, "A")
> student_data <- rbind(student_data, new_stu)
> student_data
```

```
1 John 1 B
2 Jill 1 A+
3 Jacob 2 B-
4 Jenny 4 A
5 Bobby 3 A
```

Name Year Grade

Adding Rows and Columns to Dataframes

Recycling works too!

```
> student_data$School <- "Columbia"
> student_data
```

```
Name Year Grade School
1 John 1 B Columbia
2 Jill 1 A+ Columbia
3 Jacob 2 B- Columbia
4 Jenny 4 A Columbia
5 Bobby 3 A Columbia
```

- Note that this construction would not work with a matrix.
- Can add a new component to an already existing dataframe.

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Importing Data into R

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What Kinds of Data?

- Data can be saved on your computer. What we'll work on this today.
- Data can be on the internet. We'll do this in a few weeks.
- Data can be in a database. Also, in a few weeks.
- Other sources too.

Local Data

When importing data from your machine, you need to tell R where to find that data.

Working Directory

- getwd() tells you where R is currently looking, or where your working directory is set.
- You can change your *working directory* with setwd(<file path for the data>).
- Can also change working directory with Session -> Set Working Directory -> Change Working Directory.
- Usually your file path will look like
 "/Users/gabrielyoung/Documents/GR5206/Week2".

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Working Directory

Code example.

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Spreadsheet Data

Often we work with data from a spreadsheet, meaning it's formatted in a rectangular grid.

- Tab-delimited data in .txt is read in using read.table().
- If the below was stored in stu_data.txt, use read.table("stu_data.txt", header=FALSE, as.is=TRUE).

```
John 1 B
Jill 1 A+
Jacob 2 B-
Jenny 4 A
```

- R output is a dataframe.
- Use the sep= argument if data is separated by something other than whitespace.
- as.is = TRUE is the same as stringsAsFactors = FALSE.

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Spreadsheet Data

Often we work with data from a spreadsheet, meaning it's formatted in a rectangular grid.

Reading Grid Data into R

- Comma-separated or .csv files are read in using read.csv().
- If the above was stored in stu_data.csv, use read.csv("stu_data.csv", header = TRUE, as.is = TRUE).

```
Name, Year, Grade
John, 1, B
Jill, 1, A+
Jacob, 2, B-
Jenny, 4, A
```

- R output is a dataframe.
- Excel has a "Save as .csv" option.

Spreadsheet Data

read.table {utils}

R Documentation

Data Input

Description

Reads a file in table format and creates a data frame from it, with cases corresponding to lines and variables to fields in the file.

Usage

```
read.table(file, header = FALSE, sep = "", quote = "\"'",
    dec = ".", numerals = c("allow.loss", "warn.loss", "no.loss"),
    row.names, col.names, as.is = !stringsAsFactors,
    na.strings = "NA", colClasses = NA, nrows = -1,
    skip = 0, check.names = TRUE, fill = !blank.lines.skip,
    strip.white = FALSE, blank.lines.skip = TRUE,
    comment.char = "#",
```

Figure 1: Help documentation for read.table(). Access with ?read.table().

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Importing Data

- Both read.table() and read.csv() use the function scan() to import the data, then they format it.
- Sometimes want to use scan() outright.
- scan() output is a vector with elements anything from the file separated by whitespace.

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Importing Data

- Both read.table() and read.csv() use the function scan() to import the data, then they format it.
- Sometimes want to use scan() outright.
- scan() output is a vector with elements anything from the file separated by whitespace.

Honor Code Example

The file "HonorCode.txt" contains Columbia University's Honor Code:

"Students should be aware that academic dishonesty (for example, plagiarism, cheating on an examination, or dishonesty in dealing with a faculty member or other University official) or the threat of violence or harassment are particularly serious offenses and will be dealt with severely under Dean's Discipline..."

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Importing Data

Honor Code Example

```
> HC <- scan("HonorCode.txt", what = "")
> head(HC, 20)
 [1] "students"
                                  "be"
                   "should"
                                                 "aware"
 [5] "that"
                   "academic"
                                  "dishonesty"
                                                 "for"
                                                 "on"
 [9] "example"
                   "plagiarism"
                                  "cheating"
[13] "an"
                   "examination"
                                  "or"
                                                 "dishonesty"
[17] "in"
                   "dealing"
                                  "with"
                                                 "a"
> str(HC)
 chr [1:443] "students" "should" "be" "aware" ...
```

By default, R expects the input of scan to be numeric data. The argument what="" tells R that our data is a vector of character values.

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Cleaning Data

Things to look out for when you're importing data into R.

- Is the first row a header? What about the first column?
- R interprets words separated by a space as two separate values. Messes up the number of elements per line in your data set. (Use $_$ or . between words.)
- Symbols such as ?, %, &, *, etc. can make R do funny things.
- Headers, footers, side comments, and notes will mess up the structure.
- How are missing values indicated? It should be with NA but often something like 999 or N.A.

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Exporting Data

- Often we want to export a matrix or dataframe into a file on our machine.
- This is done with write.table() or write.csv().
- Note that the default for both is col.names = TRUE and row.names
 TRUE.

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Data in R: A Text Example

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Text Data

- Textual Data Mining is commonly studied in machine learning.
- Examples: Can we write an algorithm to tell whether a newspaper article is a 'positive' or 'negative' response? Can we identify the author of a novel just from the text?
- We'll learn more in a few weeks about how to deal with text data in R.
- For the time being, a quick example.

Recall the Honor Code data we've imported into R.

```
> HC <- scan("HonorCode.txt", what = "")
> head(HC, 15)

[1] "students" "should" "be" "aware"
[5] "that" "academic" "dishonesty" "for"
[9] "example" "plagiarism" "cheating" "on"
[13] "an" "examination" "or"
```

¹Example developed from N. Matloff, "The Art of R Programming: A Tour of Statistical Software Design"

Honor Code Text Data ¹

Recall the Honor Code data we've imported into R.

```
> HC <- scan("HonorCode.txt", what =
> head(HC, 15)
 [1] "students"
                                  "be"
                   "should"
                                                "aware"
 [5]
    "that"
                   "academic" "dishonesty"
                                                 "for"
    "example"
                                                 "on"
 [9]
                   "plagiarism" "cheating"
[13] "an"
                   "examination"
                                  "or"
```

- HC is a vector and each word of the Honor Code is an element of the vector.
- Let's write a function findwords() that compiles a list of the location of each occurrence of each word in the text.

¹Example developed from N. Matloff, "The Art of R Programming: A Tour of Statistical Software Design"

Functions in R

```
Basic Structure

function_name <- function(arg1, arg2, ...){
   statements
   return(object)
}</pre>
```

- A function is a group of instructions that takes inputs, uses them to compute other values, and returns a result.
- We can write and add our own functions in R.
- Functions:
 - 1. Have names.
 - 2. Usually take in arguments.
 - 3. Include body of code that does something.
 - 4. Usually return an object at the end.

Example Function

A Function to Square its Input

```
> square_it <- function(x){
+ out <- x*x
+ return(out)
+ }</pre>
```

A Function to Square its Input

```
> square_it <- function(x){
+ out <- x*x
+ return(out)
+ }</pre>
```

Let's try it:

```
> square_it(2); square_it(-4); square_it(146)
```

```
[1] 4
```

Let's write a function findwords() that compiles a list of the location of each occurrence of each word in the text.

```
> HC <- factor(HC, levels = unique(HC))
```

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Let's write a function findwords() that compiles a list of the location of each occurrence of each word in the text.

We can do this with the split() function!

```
> findwords <- function(text_vec){
+ words <- split(1:length(text_vec), text_vec)
+ return(words)
+ }</pre>
```

- length(textfile) is the total number of words in the textfile. In Honor Code it's 443.
- textfile is a factor, with each unique word as a level. There are 243 levels in the Honor Code.
- split() then determines the locations of each unique word and returns the locations in list form.

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Let's try it.

```
> findwords(HC)[1:3]
$students
[1] 1 48 142 204 232 310 331
$should
[1] 2 206
$be
[1] 3 40 336
```

- Note that findwords() returns a list. In the above we look at the first three elements of the list.
- The list consists of one element per word in the Honor Code.

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Does it work?

```
> HC[c(1, 48, 142, 204, 232, 310, 331)] # students
```

```
[1] "students" "students" "students" "students"
```

```
[6] "students" "students"
```

```
> HC[c(2, 206)] # should
```

```
[1] "should" "should"
```

Does it work?

```
> HC[c(1, 48, 142, 204, 232, 310, 331)] # students

[1] "students" "students" "students" "students"

[6] "students" "students"
```

```
> HC[c(2, 206)] # should
```

```
[1] "should" "should"
```

- Must we use a list? How about a matrix or a dataframe?
- Each row could correspond to a unique word and column to locations of the word. Different words would use different numbers of columns.
- The list structure makes the most sense here.

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Finally, let's write a function to alphabetize our word list.

List in Alphabetical Order

```
> alphabetized_list <- function(wordlist) {
+    nms <- names(wordlist) # The names are the words
+    sorted <- sort(nms) # The words, but now in ABC order
+    return(wordlist[sorted]) # Returns the sorted version
+ }</pre>
```

Exercise

Break this function apart and run it line by line to make sure you know what it's doing.

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Does it work?

List in Alphabetical Order

```
> wl <- findwords(HC)
> alphabetized_list(wl)[1:3]
```

```
$a
[1] 20 110 167 173 180

$academic
[1] 6 59 69 296 323 375

$accidental
[1] 249
```

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Controls Statements: Loops, While, If Else

Control Statements

A **control statement** determines whether other statements will or will not be executed.

Types of Control Statements

- A loop iterates over a statement a certain number of times.
 - for loops execute a controlled statement a fixed number of times.
 - while loops executes a controlled statement as long as a condition is met.
- An if statement gives a condition under which another statement is executed.
- An if, else statement decides which of two statements to execute based on a condition.

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for Loops

The basic structure of for loops is the following:

```
for (i in x) {
   do something...
}
```

The above statement,

- Increments a counter i along a vector x.
- Loops through the body of the statement (between { and }) until the counter runs through the vector.

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for Loops

The basic structure of for loops is the following:

```
for (i in x) {
   do something...
}
```

The above statement,

- Increments a counter i along a vector x.
- Loops through the body of the statement (between { and }) until the counter runs through the vector.

One iteration of the loop for each component of x with i taking on the values of x in each iteration.

```
1st iteration: i = x[1]
2nd iteration: i = x[2]
so on...
```

for Loops Example

```
> x < -c(5, 12, -3)
> for (i in x) {
+ print(i^2)
+ }
[1] 25
[1] 144
[1] 9
```

for Loops Example

```
> x <- c(5, 12, -3)
> for (i in x) {
+ print(i^2)
+ }

[1] 25
[1] 144
[1] 9
```

```
1st iteration: i = x[1] = 5, print(25)
2nd iteration: i = x[2] = 12, print(144)
3rd iteration: i = x[3] = -3, print(9)
```

for Loops

Notes

- Body of a for loop can contain other for loops (called nesting) or other control statements.
- Can loop over any kind of vector regardless of mode.
- For example, could loop over filenames to be scanned into R.

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while Loops

The basic structure of while loops is the following:

```
while (condition) {
   do something...
}
```

The above loop,

Increments the controlled statement as long as the condition is TRUE.

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while Loops

The basic structure of while loops is the following:

```
while (condition) {
   do something...
}
```

The above loop,

Increments the controlled statement as long as the condition is TRUE.

- The condition must be a single logical value (TRUE or FALSE). It can't be a vector of values, for example.
- Note that this could loop forever.

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while Loops Example

Note that if the statement code is one line, we don't need braces.

```
> i <- 1
> while (i <= 10) i <- i + 4
```

while Loops Example

Note that if the statement code is one line, we don't need braces.

```
> i <- 1
> while (i <= 10) i <- i + 4
```

```
> i
```

[1] 13

```
Beginning: i = 1, i \le 10 is TRUE
1st iteration: i = 5, i \le 10 is TRUE
2nd iteration: i = 9, i \le 10 is TRUE
3rd iteration: i = 13, i \le 10 is FALSE
```

Looping Summary

- Use for loops when the number of times to iterate is clear in advance.
- Use while when you can recognize the stopping point when you've arrived even if you don't know it beforehand.
- Note that all for loops can be written as while statements. (Can you show this?)
- for and while are examples of iteration: doing the same thing over and over. Usually there is a better way to do it!

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if, else Statements

The basic structure of if, else statements is the following:

```
if (condition) {
   do something...
} else {
   do something else...
}
```

The above statement,

Decides between different calculations according to some condition.

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if, else Statements

The basic structure of if, else statements is the following:

```
if (condition) {
   do something...
} else {
   do something else...
}
```

The above statement,

Decides between different calculations according to some condition.

- The else clause is optional, which would mean if the condition is FALSE nothing is executed.
- Again, the condition must be provided a single logical value.

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if, else Statements Example

[1] 1.386294

```
> for (i in seq(4)) {
+    if (i %% 2 == 0) {print(log(i))}
+    else {print("Odd")}
+ }

[1] "Odd"
[1] 0.6931472
[1] "Odd"
```

if, else Statements Example

```
> for (i in seq(4)) {
+    if (i %% 2 == 0) {print(log(i))}
+    else {print("Odd")}
+ }

[1] "Odd"
[1] 0.6931472
[1] "Odd"
[1] 1.386294
```

Check Your Understanding

What is the value of total?

```
> library(matlab)
> total <- 0
> for (i in 1:10) {
+    if(isprime(i)) {
+    total <- total + i
+    }
+ }</pre>
```

Check Your Understanding

What is the value of total?

```
> library(matlab)
> total <- 0
> for (i in 1:10) {
+    if(isprime(i)) {
+     total <- total + i
+    }
+ }</pre>
```

```
> total
```

[1] 17

How? Prime values are 2 + 3 + 5 + 7 = 17.

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Vectorized Operations

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Vectorized Operators

Where we can, we'd like to avoid iterations and use **vectorized operators**.

Vectorized Operators

- Vectorized operations act on the whole object (vector or matrix, for example), instead of iterating over it.
- This is conceptually more clear, and often faster.

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Vectorized Operations

Let's add two vectors: $u \leftarrow c(1,2,3)$ and $v \leftarrow c(10,-20,30)$. Consider two ways to do this.

Example

1) Loops

```
> u <- c(1,2,3)
> v <- c(10,-20,30)
> c <- vector(mode = "numeric", length = length(u))
> for (i in 1:length(u)) {
+ c[i] <- u[i] + v[i]
+ }
> c
```

[1] 11 -18 33

Vectorized Operators

Let's add two vectors: $u \leftarrow c(1,2,3)$ and $v \leftarrow c(10,-20,30)$. Consider two ways to do this.

Example

2) Vectorized operators:

The second option is obviously more clear and concise.

Vectorized Conditions

The function ifelse() vectorizes conditional statements. It takes three arguments ifelse(test, yes, no).

- test is a logical vector.
- yes is the return values when test is TRUE.
- no is the return values when test is FALSE.

Vectorized Conditions

A simplification in the previous example.

```
> for (i in seq(4)) {
+   if (i %% 2 == 0) {print(log(i))}
+   else {print("Odd")}
+ }
```

```
[1] "Odd"
[1] 0.6931472
[1] "Odd"
[1] 1.386294
```

A simplification in the previous example.

```
> for (i in seq(4)) {
+   if (i %% 2 == 0) {print(log(i))}
+   else {print("Odd")}
+ }
```

```
[1] 0.6931472
[1] "Odd"
[1] 1.386294
```

[1] "Odd"

```
> ifelse(seq(4) %% 2 == 0, log(seq(4)), "Odd")
```

```
[1] "Odd" "0.693147180559945"
[3] "Odd" "1.38629436111989"
```

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The commands apply(), sapply(), lapply(), tapply() replace loops that iterate over an object's entries, computing the same function on each.

apply() Example

Used to apply the same function to each row or column of a matrix.

```
> mat <- matrix(1:12, ncol = 6)
> mat
```

```
[1,1] [2,2] [3,3] [4,4] [5,5] [6,6] [1,1] 1 3 5 7 9 11 [2,1] 2 4 6 8 10 12
```

```
> colSums(mat) # Recall colSums() from lab.
```

[1] 3 7 11 15 19 23

apply() Example

Here's another way to do the same thing.

```
> colSums(mat)
```

```
[1] 3 7 11 15 19 23
```

```
> apply(mat, 2, sum)
```

```
[1] 3 7 11 15 19 23
```

apply() Example

Here's another way to do the same thing.

```
> colSums(mat)
```

```
[1] 3 7 11 15 19 23
```

```
> apply(mat, 2, sum)
```

```
[1] 3 7 11 15 19 23
```

apply() takes three arguments: a matrix (or dataframe), a 1 for the rows or a 2 for the columns, and a function.

```
> apply(mat, 1, sum) # Calculates the row sums
```

[1] 36 42

- lapply(), or *list apply*, works like apply(), but for applying the same function to each element of a list. It returns a list.
- sapply(), or *simplified list apply*, works like lapply(), but returns a vector if possible.

Use R Help for more info!

Look up further details of the apply() function and its variants using ?apply.

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Taking the Mean of Elements of a List

Example

```
> vec1 <- c(1.1,3.4,2.4,3.5)
> vec2 <- c(1.1,3.4,2.4,10.8)
> not_robust <- list(vec1, vec2)
> lapply(not_robust, mean)
[[1]]
[1] 2.6
```

[[2]] [1] 4.425

> # The sample mean is not rubust!

Note that lapply() returned a list.

Apply a Function Over a List

Example

[[1]]

```
> lapply(not_robust, median)
```

```
[1] 2.9
[[2]]
[1] 2.9
```

```
> sapply(not_robust, median)
```

```
[1] 2.9 2.9
```

```
> unlist(lapply(not_robust,median))
```

```
[1] 2.9 2.9
```

Recall, the Honor Code Text example.

```
List in Alphabetical Order
```

```
> wl[1:3] # wl for word list
$a
[1] 20 110 167 173 180
$academic
[1] 6 59 69 296 323 375
$accidental
[1] 249
```

Let's now sort the words by their frequency.

We use sapply() to find the length of each element in our word list. Since the elements are the words, the length is the frequency.

List in Frequency Order

```
> freq_list <- function(wordlist) {
+  freqs <- sapply(wordlist, length) # The frequencies
+  return(wordlist[order(freqs)])
+ }</pre>
```

The order() function returns a vector of indices that will permute its input argument into sorted order. Check out ?order.

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Let's try it out.

```
List in Frequency Order
```

```
> head(freq_list(wl), 3)
```

```
$accidental
```

[1] 249

\$activities

[1] 115

\$adapted

[1] 220

Let's try it out.

```
List in Alphabetical Order
```

```
> tail(freq_list(wl), 3)
```

```
$or
[1] 15 23 27 32 104 126 129 160 164 171 184 191 401 405
[15] 414 419
```

```
$of
```

```
[1] 30 56 64 67 124 152 166 193 200 262 290 338 348 403 [15] 412 429 434
```

\$and

```
[1] 38 58 61 77 148 195 238 240 264 270 274 308 314 339
```

[15] 345 351 356 361 364 373 394 416 432

Functions on Factors

- Factors have their own member of the apply() family: tapply().
- Use as follows: tapply(vector, factor, function).
- The above splits the vector into groups according to the levels of the factor and then applies the function to each group.

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Functions on Factors

tapply() Example

- > # Calulate the average age in each group.
- > group
- [1] Control Control Treatment Treatment
- [6] Treatment Treatment

Levels: Control Treatment

- > ages <- c(20, 30, 40, 35, 35, 35, 35)
- > tapply(ages, group, mean)

Control Treatment 30 35

Optional Reading

• Chapter 1-7 and Chapter 9 from An Introduction to R.

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