

Basic Concepts of the R Language

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Basic Interaction

Basic interaction with the R console

- The most common form of interaction with R is through the command line at the console
 - User types a command
 - Presses the ENTER key
 - R “returns” the answer
- It is also possible to store a sequence of commands in a file (typically with the `.R` extension) and then ask R to execute all commands in the file

Basic interaction with the R console (2)

- We may also use the console as a simple calculator

```
1 + 3/5 * 6^2
```

```
## [1] 22.6
```

Basic interaction with the R console (3)

- We may also take advantage of the many functions available in R

```
rnorm(5, mean = 30, sd = 10)
```

```
## [1] 28.100 4.092 29.904 10.611 23.599
```

```
# function composition example
```

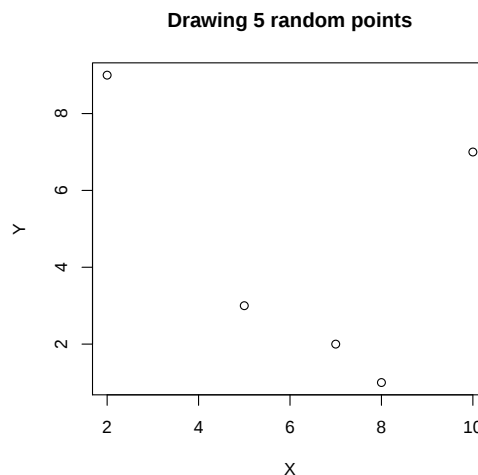
```
mean(sample(1:1000, 30))
```

```
## [1] 530.3
```

Basic interaction with the R console (4)

- We may produce plots

```
plot(sample(1:10, 5), sample(1:10, 5),
     main = "Drawing 5 random points",
     xlab = "X", ylab = "Y")
```



Variables and Objects

The notion of Variable

- In R, data are stored in variables.
- A variable is a “place” with a **name** used to store information
 - Different **types of objects** (e.g. numbers, text, data tables, graphs, etc.).
- The **assignment** is the operation that allows us to **store** an object on a variable
- Later we may use the content stored in a variable using its name.

Basic data types

R objects may store a diverse type of information.

R basic data types

- **Numbers:** e.g. 5, 6.3, 10.344, -2.3, -7
- **Strings :** e.g. "hello", "it is sunny", "my name is Ana"
Note: one the of the most frequent errors - confusing *names* of variables with *text values* (i.e. strings)! `hello` is the name of a variable, whilst "hello" is a string.
- **Logical values:** TRUE, FALSE
Note: R is case-sensitive!
 TRUE is a logical value; `true` is the name of a variable.

The assignment - 1

- The assignment operator “<-” allows to store some content on a variable

```
vat <- 0.2
```

- The above stores the number 0.2 on a variable named `vat`
- Afterwards we may use the value stored on the variable using its name

```
priceVAT <- 240 * (1 + vat)
```

- This new example stores the value 288 ($= 240 \times (1 + 0.2)$) on the variable `priceVAT`
- We may thus put expressions on the right-side of an assignment

The assignment - 2

What goes on in an assignment?

- 1 **Calculate** the result of the expression on the right-side of the assignment (e.g. a numerical expression, a function call, etc.)
 - 2 **Store** the **result** of the calculation in the variable indicated on the left side
- In this context, what do you think it is the value of `x` after the following operations?

```
k <- 10  
g <- k/2  
x <- g * 2
```

Still the variables...

- We may check the value stored in a variable at any time by typing its name followed by hitting the ENTER key

```
x <- 23^3  
x  
## [1] 12167
```

- The `^` signal is the exponentiation operator
- The odd `[1]` will be explained soon...
- And now a common mistake!

```
x <- true  
## Error: object 'true' not found
```

A last note on the assignment operation...

- It is important to be aware that the assignment is **destructive**
- If we assign some content to a variable and this variable was storing another content, this latter value is “lost”,

```
x <- 23
x
## [1] 23
x <- 4
x
## [1] 4
```

Functions

Functions

- In R almost all operations are carried out by functions
- A function is a mathematical notion that maps a set of arguments into a result
 - e.g. the function `sin` applied to 0.2 gives as result 0.1986693
- In terms of notation a function has a name and can have 0 or more arguments that are indicated within parentheses and separated by commas
 - e.g. `xpto(0.2, 0.3)` has the meaning of applying the function with the name `xpto` to the numbers 0.2 and 0.3

Functions (2)

- R uses exactly the same notation for functions.

```
sin(0.2)

## [1] 0.1987

sqrt(45)  # sqrt() calculates the square root

## [1] 6.708
```

Creating new functions

Any time we execute a set of operations frequently it may be wise to create a new function that runs them automatically.

- Suppose we convert two currencies frequently (e.g. Euro-Dollar). We may create a function that given a value in Euros and an exchange rate will return the value in Dollars,

```
euro2dollar <- function(p, tx) p * tx
euro2dollar(3465, 1.36)

## [1] 4712
```

- We may also specify that some of the function parameters have default values

```
euro2dollar <- function(p, tx = 1.34) p * tx
euro2dollar(100)

## [1] 134
```

Function Composition

- An important mathematical notion is that of function composition - $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$, that means to apply the function f to the result of applying the function g to x
- R is a functional language and we will use function composition extensively as a form of performing several complex operations without having to store every intermediate result

```
x <- 10
y <- sin(sqrt(x))
y
## [1] -0.02068
```

Function Composition - 2

```
x <- 10
y <- sin(sqrt(x))
y
## [1] -0.02068
```

- We could instead do (without function composition):

```
x <- 10
temp <- sqrt(x)
y <- sin(temp)
y
## [1] -0.02068
```

Vectors

- Vectors are a type of R objects that can store **sets of values of the same base type**
 - e.g. the prices of an article sold in several stores
- Everytime some set of data has something in common and are of the same type, it may make sense to store them as a vector
- A vector is another example of a content that we may store in a R variable

Vectors

Vectors (2)

- Let us create a vector with the set of prices of a product across 5 different stores

```
prices <- c(32.4, 35.4, 30.2, 35, 31.99)
prices
## [1] 32.40 35.40 30.20 35.00 31.99
```

- Note that on the right side of the assignment we have a call to the function `c()` using as arguments a set of 5 prices
- The function `c()` creates a vector containing the values received as arguments

Vectors (3)

- The function `c()` allows us to associate names to the set members. In the above example we could associate the name of the store with each price,

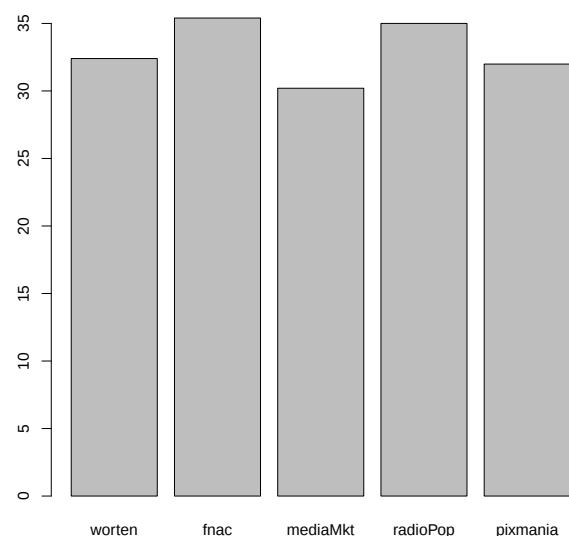
```
prices <- c(worten = 32.4, fnac = 35.4, mediaMkt = 30.2,
           radioPop = 35, pixmania = 31.99)
prices
##      Worten      fnac mediaMkt radioPop pixmania
##      32.40      35.40      30.20      35.00      31.99
```

- This makes the vector meaning more clear and will also facilitate the access to the data as we will see.

Vectors (4)

- Besides being more clear, the use of names is also recommended as R will take advantage of these names in several situations.
- An example is in the creation of graphs with the data:

```
barplot(prices)
```



Basic Indexing

- When we have objects containing several values (e.g. vectors) we may want to access some of the values individually.
- That is the main **purpose of indexing**: **access a subset of the values stored in a variable**
- In mathematics we use indices. For instance, x_3 usually represents the 3rd element in a set of values x .
- In R the idea is similar:

```
prices <- c(worten=32.4, fnac=35.4,
            mediaMkt=30.2, radioPop=35, pixmania=31.99)
prices[3]
## mediaMkt
##      30.2
```

Basic Indexing (2)

- We may also use the vector position names to facilitate indexing

```
prices <- c(worten=32.4, fnac=35.4,
            mediaMkt=30.2, radioPop=35, pixmania=31.99)
prices["worten"]
## worten
##      32.4
```

- **Please note that `worten` appears between quotation marks**. This is essential otherwise we would have an error! Why?
- Because without quotation marks R interprets `worten` as a variable name and tries to use its value. As it does not exist it complains,

```
prices[worten]
## Error: object 'worten' not found
```

- **Read and interpret error messages** is one of the key competences we should practice.

Vectors of indices

- Using vectors as indices we may access more than one vector position at the same time

```
prices <- c(worten=32.4, fnac=35.4,
            mediaMkt=30.2, radioPop=35, pixmania=31.99)
prices[c(2, 4)]
##      fnac radioPop
##      35.4      35.0
```

- We are thus accessing positions 2 and 4 of vector `prices`
- The same applies for vectors of names

```
prices[c("worten", "pixmania")]
##      worten pixmania
##      32.40      31.99
```

Vectors of indices (2)

- We may also use logical conditions to “query” the data!

```
prices[prices > 35]
##      fnac
##      35.4
```

- The idea is that the result of the query are the values in the vector `prices` for which the logical condition is **true**
- Logical conditions can be as complex as we want using several logical operators available in R.
What do you think the following instruction produces as result?

```
prices[prices > mean(prices)]
##      fnac radioPop
##      35.4      35.0
```

- Please note that this another example of function composition!

Vectorization of operations

- The great majority of R functions and operations can be applied to sets of values (e.g vectors)
- Suppose we want to know the prices after VAT in our vector `prices`

```
vat <- 0.23
(1+vat)*prices
##      worten      fnac mediaMkt radioPop pixmania
## 39.8520  43.5420  37.1460  43.0500  39.3477
```

- Notice that we have multiplied a number (1.2) by a set of numbers!
- The result is another set of numbers that are the result of the multiplication of each number by 1.2

Vectorization of operations (2)

- Although it does not make a lot of sense, notice this other example of vectorization,

```
sqrt(prices)
##      worten      fnac mediaMkt radioPop pixmania
## 5.692100  5.949790  5.495453  5.916080  5.655970
```

- By applying the function `sqrt()` to a vector instead of a single number we get as result a vector with the same size, resulting from applying the function to each individual member of the given vector.

Vectorization of operations (3)

- We can do similar things with two sets of numbers
- Suppose you have the prices of the product on the same stores in another city,

```
prices2 <- c(worten=32.5, fnac=34.6, mediaMkt=32,
             radioPop=34.4, pixmania=32.1)
```

```
prices2
```

```
##      Worten      fnac mediaMkt radioPop pixmania
##      32.5      34.6      32.0      34.4      32.1
```

- What are the average prices on each store over the two cities?

```
(prices+prices2)/2
```

```
##      Worten      fnac mediaMkt radioPop pixmania
##      32.450     35.000     31.100     34.700     32.045
```

- Notice how we have summed two vectors!

Logical conditions involving vectors

- Logical conditions involving vectors are another example of vectorization

```
prices > 35
```

```
##      Worten      fnac mediaMkt radioPop pixmania
##      FALSE      TRUE      FALSE      FALSE      FALSE
```

- `prices` is a set of 5 numbers. We are comparing these 5 numbers with one number (35). As before the result is a vector with the results of each comparison. Sometimes the condition is true, others it is false.
- Now we can fully understand what is going on on a statement like `prices[prices > 35]`. The result of this indexing expression is to return the positions where the condition is true, i.e. this is a vector of Boolean values as you may confirm above.

Hands On 1

A survey was carried out on several countries to find out the average price of a certain product, with the following resulting data:

Portugal	Spain	Italy	France	Germany	Greece	UK	Finland	Belgium	Austria
10.3	10.6	11.5	12.3	9.9	9.3	11.4	10.9	12.1	9.1

- 1 What is the adequate data structure to store these values?
- 2 Create a variable with this data, taking full advantage of R facilities in order to facilitate the access to the information.
- 3 Obtain another vector with the prices after VAT.
- 4 Which countries have prices above 10?
- 5 Which countries have prices above the average?
- 6 Which countries have prices between 10 and 11 euros?
- 7 How would you raise the prices by 10%?
- 8 How would you decrease by 2.5%, the prices of the countries with price above the average?

Hands On 2

Go to the site <http://www.xe.com> and create a vector with the information you obtain there concerning the exchange rate between some currencies. You may use the ones appearing at the opening page.

- 1 Create a function with 2 arguments: the first is a value in Euros and the second the name of other currency. The function should return the corresponding value in the specified currency.
- 2 What happens if we make a mistake when specifying the currency name? Try.
- 3 Try to apply the function to a vector of values provided in the first argument.

Matrices

- As vectors, matrices can be used to store **sets** of values of the **same base type** that are somehow related
- Contrary to vectors, matrices “spread” the values over two dimensions: rows and columns
- Let us go back to the prices at the stores in two cities. It would make more sense to store them in a matrix, instead of two vectors
- Columns could correspond to stores and rows to cities

Matrices (2)

- Let us see how to create this matrix

```
prc <- matrix(c(32.40, 35.40, 30.20, 35.00, 31.99,
                32.50, 34.60, 32.00, 34.40, 32.01),
              nrow=2, ncol=5, byrow=TRUE)

prc
##      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
## [1,] 32.4 35.4 30.2 35.0 31.99
## [2,] 32.5 34.6 32.0 34.4 32.01
```

- The function `matrix()` can be used to create matrices
- We have at least to provide the values and the number of columns and rows

Matrices (3)

```
prc <- matrix(c(32.40, 35.40, 30.20, 35.00, 31.99,
               32.50, 34.60, 32.00, 34.40, 32.01),
              nrow=2, ncol=5, byrow=TRUE)

prc

##      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
## [1,] 32.4 35.4 30.2 35.0 31.99
## [2,] 32.5 34.6 32.0 34.4 32.01
```

- The parameter `nrow` indicates which is the number of rows while the parameter `ncol` provides the number of columns
- The parameter setting `byrow=TRUE` indicates that the values should be “spread” by row, instead of the default which is by column

Indexing matrices

- As with vectors but this time with **two dimensions**

```
prc

##      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
## [1,] 32.4 35.4 30.2 35.0 31.99
## [2,] 32.5 34.6 32.0 34.4 32.01

prc[2, 4]

## [1] 34.4
```

- We may also access a single column or row,

```
prc[1, ]

## [1] 32.40 35.40 30.20 35.00 31.99

prc[, 2]

## [1] 35.4 34.6
```

Giving names to Rows and Columns

- We may also give names to the two dimensions of matrices

```
colnames(prc) <- c("worten", "fnac", "mediaMkt", "radioPop", "pixmania")
rownames(prc) <- c("porto", "lisboa")
prc
##           worten fnac mediaMkt radioPop pixmania
## porto      32.4 35.4      30.2      35.0      31.99
## lisboa     32.5 34.6      32.0      34.4      32.01
```

- The functions `colnames()` and `rownames()` may be used to get or set the names of the respective dimensions of the matrix
- Names can also be used in indexing

```
prc["lisboa", ]
##      worten      fnac mediaMkt radioPop pixmania
##      32.50      34.60      32.00      34.40      32.01
prc["porto", "pixmania"]
## [1] 31.99
```

Arrays

Arrays

- Arrays are extensions of matrices to more than 2 dimensions
- We can create an array with the function `array()`

```
a <- array(1:18, dim = c(3, 2, 3))
a
## , , 1
##
##      [,1] [,2]
## [1,]    1    4
## [2,]    2    5
## [3,]    3    6
##
## , , 2
##
##      [,1] [,2]
## [1,]    7   10
## [2,]    8   11
## [3,]    9   12
##
## , , 3
##
##      [,1] [,2]
## [1,]   13   16
## [2,]   14   17
## [3,]   15   18
```

Indexing Arrays

- Similar to matrices and vectors but now with multiple dimensions

```
a[1, 2, 1]
## [1] 4
a[1, , 2]
## [1] 7 10
a[, , 1]
##      [,1] [,2]
## [1,]    1    4
## [2,]    2    5
## [3,]    3    6
```

Lists

Lists

- Lists are ordered collections of other objects, known as the *components*
- List components do not have to be of the same type or size, which turn lists into a highly flexible data structure.
- List can be created as follows:

```
lst <- list(id=12323, name="John Smith",
            grades=c(13.2, 12.4, 5.6))
lst
## $id
## [1] 12323
##
## $name
## [1] "John Smith"
##
## $grades
## [1] 13.2 12.4 5.6
```

Indexing Lists

- To access the **content** of a component of a list we may use its name,

```
lst$grades
## [1] 13.2 12.4 5.6
```

- We may access several components at the same time, resulting in a sub-list

```
lst[c("name", "grades")]
## $name
## [1] "John Smith"
##
## $grades
## [1] 13.2 12.4 5.6
```

Data Frames

Data Frames

- Data frames are the R data structure used to store **data tables**
- As matrices they are bi-dimensional structures
- In a data frame each **row** represents a case (observation) of some phenomenon (e.g. a client, a product, a store, etc.)
- Each **column** represents some information that is provided about the entities (e.g. name, address, etc.)
- Contrary to matrices, data frames **may store information of different data type**

Create Data Frames

- Usually data sets are already stored in some infrastructure external to R (e.g. other software, a data base, a text file, the Web, etc.)
- Nevertheless, sometimes we may want to introduce the data ourselves
- We can do it in R as follows

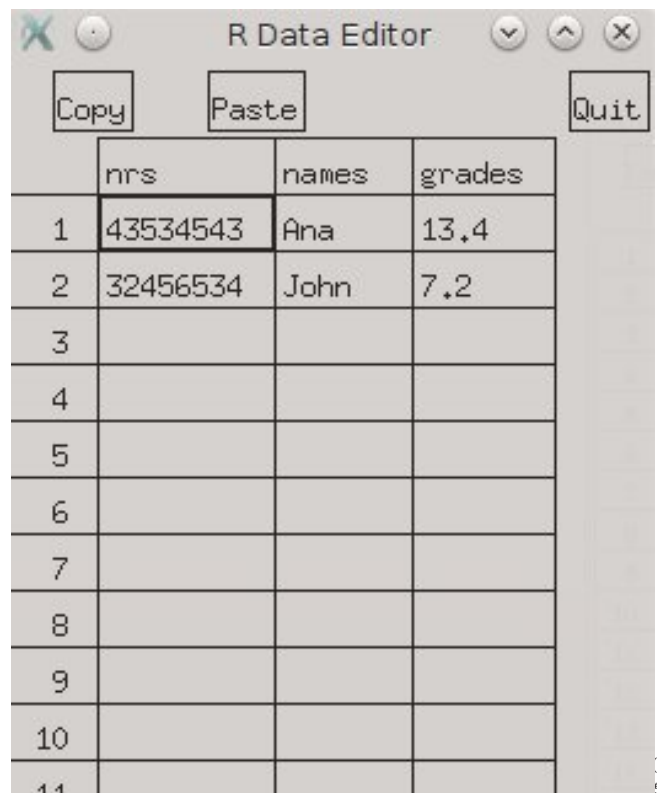
```
stud <- data.frame(nrs=c("43534543", "32456534"),
                  names=c("Ana", "John"),
                  grades=c(13.4, 7.2))

stud
##           nrs names grades
## 1 43534543   Ana   13.4
## 2 32456534  John    7.2
```

Create Data Frames (2)

- If we have too many data to introduce it is more practical to add new information using a spreadsheet like editor,

```
stud <- edit(stud)
```



	nrs	names	grades
1	43534543	Ana	13.4
2	32456534	John	7.2
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			

Querying the data

- Data frames are visualized as a data table

```
stud
##           nrs names grades
## 1 43534543   Ana   13.4
## 2 32456534  John    7.2
```

- Data can be accessed in a similar way as in matrices

```
stud[2,3]
## [1] 7.2
stud[1,"names"]
## [1] Ana
## Levels: Ana John
```

Querying the data (cont.)

- Function `subset()` can be used to easily query the data set

```
subset(stud, grades > 13, names)
##      names
## 1      Ana

subset(stud, grades <= 9.5, c(nrs, names))
##           nrs names
## 2 32456534  John
```

Hands On Data Frames - Boston Housing

Load in the data set named “Boston” that comes with the package MASS. This data set describes the median house price in 506 different regions of Boston. You may load the data doing:

`data(Boston, package='MASS')`. This should create a data frame named `Boston`. You may know more about this data set doing `help(Boston, package='MASS')`. With respect to this data answer the following questions:

- 1 What are the data on the regions with an median price higher than 45?
- 2 What are the values of `nox` and `tax` for the regions with an average number of rooms (`rm`) above 8?
- 3 Which regions have a median price between 10 and 15?
- 4 What is the average criminality rate (`crim`) for the regions with a number of rooms above 6?



Package dplyr

The Package **dplyr**

- **dplyr** is a package that greatly facilitates manipulating data in R
- It has several interesting features like:
 - Implements the most basic data manipulation operations
 - Is able to handle several data sources (e.g. standard data frames, data bases, etc.)
 - Very fast



Data tables using tbl objects

- **dplyr** defines the class **tbl** that can be seen as a generalization of a data frame, that encapsulates the possibility of the data being store in different sources
- These sources can be:
 - Standard data frames - through **tbl_df** class
 - Tables of relational data bases
 - Etc.

Data sources - internal data frames

- Data frame table (a *tibble*)
 - A wrapper for a local R data frame
 - Main advantage is printing

```
library(dplyr)
data(iris)
ir <- as_tibble(iris)
ir

## # A tibble: 150 x 5
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##   <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
## 1         5.1         3.5         1.4
## 2         4.9         3         1.4
## 3         4.7         3.2         1.3
## 4         4.6         3.1         1.5
## 5         5         3.6         1.4
## 6         5.4         3.9         1.7
## 7         4.6         3.4         1.4
## 8         5         3.4         1.5
## 9         4.4         2.9         1.4
## 10        4.9         3.1         1.5
## # ... with 140 more rows, and 2 more
## #   variables: Petal.Width <dbl>,
## #   Species <fct>
```

Data sources - relational databases

What you need to install?

- Package **dbplyr**
 - Translations of **dplyr** statements to vendor-specific SQL
- Package **DBI**
 - General interface to relational databases backends
- Specific package to interface your target database backend
 - **RMariaDB** for MySQL or MariaDB
 - **RPostgreSQL** for Postgres and Redshift
 - **RSQLite** for SQLite
 - **odbc** for connecting to several databases using the *odbc* protocol
 - **bigrquery** for Google's BigQuery

Data sources - relational databases

A small example

```
library(dplyr)
dbConn <- DBI::dbConnect(RMariaDB::MariaDB(),
  dbname="myDatabase"
  host="myorganization.com",
  user="myUser",
  password=rstudioapi::askForPassword("DB password"))

sensors <- tbl(dbConn, "sensor_values")
```

- After this initialization the object `sensors` can be used as any other **dplyr** data source.
- **dplyr** will be very conservative never pulling data from the database unless specifically told to do so.

The basic operations

- **filter** - show only a subset of the rows
- **select** - show only a subset of the columns
- **arrange** - reorder the rows
- **mutate** - add new columns
- **summarise** - summarise the values of a column

The structure of the basic operations

- First argument is a data frame table
- Remaining arguments describe what to do with the data
- Return an object of the same type as the first argument (except summarise)
- Never change the object in the first argument

Filtering rows

`filter(data, cond1, cond2, ...)` corresponds to the rows of data that satisfy ALL indicated conditions.

```
filter(ir, Sepal.Length > 6, Sepal.Width > 3.5)
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 5
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##         <dbl>      <dbl>      <dbl>
## 1         7.2         3.6         6.1
## 2         7.7         3.8         6.7
## 3         7.9         3.8         6.4
## # ... with 2 more variables:
## #   Petal.Width <dbl>, Species <fct>
```

```
filter(ir, Sepal.Length > 7.7 | Sepal.Length < 4.4)
```

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 5
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##         <dbl>      <dbl>      <dbl>
## 1         4.3         3         1.1
## 2         7.9         3.8         6.4
## # ... with 2 more variables:
## #   Petal.Width <dbl>, Species <fct>
```

Ordering rows

`arrange(data, col1, col2, ...)` re-arranges the rows of data by ordering them by `col1`, then by `col2`, etc.

```
arrange(ir, Species, Petal.Width)
```

```
## # A tibble: 150 x 5
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##         <dbl>      <dbl>      <dbl>
## 1         4.9         3.1         1.5
## 2         4.8         3         1.4
## 3         4.3         3         1.1
## 4         5.2         4.1         1.5
## 5         4.9         3.6         1.4
## 6         5.1         3.5         1.4
## 7         4.9         3         1.4
## 8         4.7         3.2         1.3
## 9         4.6         3.1         1.5
## 10         5         3.6         1.4
## # ... with 140 more rows, and 2 more
## #   variables: Petal.Width <dbl>,
## #   Species <fct>
```

Ordering rows - 2

```

arrange(ir, desc(Sepal.Width), Petal.Length)

## # A tibble: 150 x 5
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##   <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
## 1         5.7         4.4         1.5
## 2         5.5         4.2         1.4
## 3         5.2         4.1         1.5
## 4         5.8         4         1.2
## 5         5.4         3.9         1.3
## 6         5.4         3.9         1.7
## 7         5.1         3.8         1.5
## 8         5.1         3.8         1.6
## 9         5.7         3.8         1.7
## 10        5.1         3.8         1.9
## # ... with 140 more rows, and 2 more
## #   variables: Petal.Width <dbl>,
## #   Species <fct>

```

Selecting columns

`select(data, col1, col2, ...)` shows the values of columns `col1, col2, etc.` of data

```

select(ir, Sepal.Length, Species)

## # A tibble: 150 x 2
##   Sepal.Length Species
##   <dbl> <fct>
## 1         5.1 setosa
## 2         4.9 setosa
## 3         4.7 setosa
## 4         4.6 setosa
## 5         5   setosa
## 6         5.4 setosa
## 7         4.6 setosa
## 8         5   setosa
## 9         4.4 setosa
## 10        4.9 setosa
## # ... with 140 more rows

```

Selecting columns - 2

```
select(ir, -(Sepal.Length:Sepal.Width))

## # A tibble: 150 x 3
##   Petal.Length Petal.Width Species
##   <dbl>         <dbl> <fct>
## 1         1.4         0.2 setosa
## 2         1.4         0.2 setosa
## 3         1.3         0.2 setosa
## 4         1.5         0.2 setosa
## 5         1.4         0.2 setosa
## 6         1.7         0.4 setosa
## 7         1.4         0.3 setosa
## 8         1.5         0.2 setosa
## 9         1.4         0.2 setosa
## 10        1.5         0.1 setosa
## # ... with 140 more rows
```

Selecting columns - 3

```
select(ir, starts_with("Sepal"))

## # A tibble: 150 x 2
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width
##   <dbl>         <dbl>
## 1         5.1         3.5
## 2         4.9         3
## 3         4.7         3.2
## 4         4.6         3.1
## 5         5         3.6
## 6         5.4         3.9
## 7         4.6         3.4
## 8         5         3.4
## 9         4.4         2.9
## 10        4.9         3.1
## # ... with 140 more rows
```

Adding new columns

`mutate(data, newcol1, newcol2, ...)` adds the new columns `newcol1`, `newcol2`, etc.

```
mutate(ir, sr=Sepal.Length/Sepal.Width, pr=Petal.Length/Petal.Width, rat=sr/pr)
```

```
## # A tibble: 150 x 8
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##   <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
## 1         5.1         3.5         1.4
## 2         4.9         3         1.4
## 3         4.7         3.2         1.3
## 4         4.6         3.1         1.5
## 5         5         3.6         1.4
## 6         5.4         3.9         1.7
## 7         4.6         3.4         1.4
## 8         5         3.4         1.5
## 9         4.4         2.9         1.4
## 10        4.9         3.1         1.5
## # ... with 140 more rows, and 5 more
## #   variables: Petal.Width <dbl>,
## #   Species <fct>, sr <dbl>, pr <dbl>,
## #   rat <dbl>
```

NOTE: It does not change the original data!

Several Operations

```
select(filter(ir, Petal.Width > 2.3), Sepal.Length, Species)
```

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 2
##   Sepal.Length Species
##   <dbl> <fct>
## 1         6.3 virginica
## 2         7.2 virginica
## 3         5.8 virginica
## 4         6.3 virginica
## 5         6.7 virginica
## 6         6.7 virginica
```

Several Operations (cont.)

Function composition can become hard to understand...

```
arrange(
  select(
    filter(
      mutate(ir, sr=Sepal.Length/Sepal.Width),
      sr > 1.6),
    Sepal.Length, Species),
  Species, desc(Sepal.Length))

## # A tibble: 103 x 2
##   Sepal.Length Species
##   <dbl> <fct>
## 1      5 setosa
## 2     4.9 setosa
## 3     4.5 setosa
## 4      7 versicolor
## 5     6.9 versicolor
## 6     6.8 versicolor
## 7     6.7 versicolor
## 8     6.7 versicolor
## 9     6.7 versicolor
## 10    6.6 versicolor
## # ... with 93 more rows
```

The Chaining Operator as Alternative

```
mutate(ir, sr=Sepal.Length/Sepal.Width) %>% filter(sr > 1.6) %>%
  select(Sepal.Length, Species) %>% arrange(Species, desc(Sepal.Length))

## # A tibble: 103 x 2
##   Sepal.Length Species
##   <dbl> <fct>
## 1      5 setosa
## 2     4.9 setosa
## 3     4.5 setosa
## 4      7 versicolor
## 5     6.9 versicolor
## 6     6.8 versicolor
## 7     6.7 versicolor
## 8     6.7 versicolor
## 9     6.7 versicolor
## 10    6.6 versicolor
## # ... with 93 more rows
```

Summarizing a set of rows

`summarise(data, sumF1, sumF2, ...)` summarises the rows in data using the provided functions

```
summarise(ir, avgPL= mean(Petal.Length), varSW = var(Sepal.Width))

## # A tibble: 1 x 2
##   avgPL varSW
##   <dbl> <dbl>
## 1   3.76 0.190
```

Forming sub-groups of rows

`group_by(data, crit1, crit2, ...)` creates groups of rows of data according to the indicated criteria, applied one over the other (in case of draws)

```
sps <- group_by(ir, Species)
sps

## # A tibble: 150 x 5
## # Groups:   Species [3]
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##   <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1     5.1     3.5     1.4
## 2     4.9     3     1.4
## 3     4.7     3.2     1.3
## 4     4.6     3.1     1.5
## 5     5     3.6     1.4
## 6     5.4     3.9     1.7
## 7     4.6     3.4     1.4
## 8     5     3.4     1.5
## 9     4.4     2.9     1.4
## 10    4.9     3.1     1.5
## # ... with 140 more rows, and 2 more
## #   variables: Petal.Width <dbl>,
## #   Species <fct>
```

Summarization over groups

```
group_by(ir, Species) %>% summarise(mPL=mean(Petal.Length))

## 'summarise()' ungrouping output (override with '.groups' argument)

## # A tibble: 3 x 2
##   Species      mPL
##   <fct>      <dbl>
## 1 setosa      1.46
## 2 versicolor  4.26
## 3 virginica   5.55
```

Counting

```
group_by(ir, Species) %>% tally()

## # A tibble: 3 x 2
##   Species      n
##   <fct>      <int>
## 1 setosa      50
## 2 versicolor  50
## 3 virginica   50

group_by(ir, Species) %>% summarise(n=n())

## 'summarise()' ungrouping output (override with '.groups' argument)

## # A tibble: 3 x 2
##   Species      n
##   <fct>      <int>
## 1 setosa      50
## 2 versicolor  50
## 3 virginica   50

count(ir, Species)

## # A tibble: 3 x 2
##   Species      n
##   <fct>      <int>
## 1 setosa      50
## 2 versicolor  50
## 3 virginica   50
```

Tops

```
group_by(ir, Species) %>% arrange(desc(Petal.Length)) %>% slice(1:2)
```

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 5
## # Groups:   Species [3]
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##   <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
## 1         4.8         3.4         1.9
## 2         5.1         3.8         1.9
## 3         6         2.7         5.1
## 4         6.7         3         5
## 5         7.7         2.6         6.9
## 6         7.7         3.8         6.7
## # ... with 2 more variables:
## #   Petal.Width <dbl>, Species <fct>
```

```
group_by(ir, Species) %>% top_n(2, Petal.Length) # note the slight difference!
```

```
## # A tibble: 7 x 5
## # Groups:   Species [3]
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##   <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
## 1         4.8         3.4         1.9
## 2         5.1         3.8         1.9
## 3         6.7         3         5
## 4         6         2.7         5.1
## 5         7.7         3.8         6.7
## 6         7.7         2.6         6.9
## 7         7.7         2.8         6.7
## # ... with 2 more variables:
## #   Petal.Width <dbl>, Species <fct>
```

Bottoms

```
group_by(ir, Species) %>% arrange(Sepal.Width) %>% slice(1:2)
```

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 5
## # Groups:   Species [3]
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##   <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
## 1         4.5         2.3         1.3
## 2         4.4         2.9         1.4
## 3         5         2         3.5
## 4         6         2.2         4
## 5         6         2.2         5
## 6         4.9         2.5         4.5
## # ... with 2 more variables:
## #   Petal.Width <dbl>, Species <fct>
```

```
group_by(ir, Species) %>% top_n(-2, Sepal.Width) # note the slight difference!
```

```
## # A tibble: 10 x 5
## # Groups:   Species [3]
##   Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
##   <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
## 1         4.4         2.9         1.4
## 2         4.5         2.3         1.3
## 3         5         2         3.5
## 4         6         2.2         4
## 5         6.2         2.2         4.5
## 6         4.9         2.5         4.5
## 7         6.7         2.5         5.8
## 8         5.7         2.5         5
## 9         6         2.2         5
```

```
## # ... with 2 more variables:
## #   Petal.Width <dbl>, Species <fct>
```

Combining Data

- Functions `bind_rows()` and `bind_cols()` can be used to glue tables row- and column-wise, respectively
- Functions `left_join()`, `right_join()`, `inner_join()` and `full_join()` allow joining data from different tables that share some common information (keys)

A Good Cheat Sheet to Have Around

RStudio maintains a series of very nice cheat sheets that are handy when you forget some things. They can be found at this URL:

<https://www.rstudio.com/resources/cheatsheets/>

In particular there is one about **dplyr** at this URL:

<https://github.com/rstudio/cheatsheets/raw/master/source/pdfs/data-transformation-cheatsheet.pdf>

Hands On Data Manipulation - Houston Crime Data

- The site https://www.houstontx.gov/police/cs/Monthly_Crime_Data_by_Street_and_Police_Beat.htm contains a series of spreadsheets with information on crime events at the city of Houston, US
 - 1 Download the spreadsheet of March 2015 to your computer.
 - 2 Import the spreadsheet into **dplyr** data frame table and try to understand its structure and information (you may search for more information at the above site)
 - 3 What is the total number of offenses that were registered?
 - 4 Obtain these totals by type of offense
 - 5 Explore the function `weekdays` and add a new column with the name of the week day when each event happened
 - 6 What is the number of events per day of the week (present the days by decreasing number of events)

Hands On Data Manipulation - Houston Crime Data

- 7 What are the top 10 police beats with larger number of events?
- 8 Explore the function `cut` and add a new column that breaks the hour when each event happened into a series of periods (e.g. morning, afternoon, etc.)
- 9 Check the number of events per period of the day
- 10 What is the period of the day with more events per day of the week?
- 11 Check the data carefully and try to find and solve some of its problems

Handling Time Series in R

- A time series is a sequence of time-ordered observations of a variable
- R has several data structures to store time series
- We will use the infrastructure provided in package `xts`
Note: this is an extra package that must be installed.
- The function `xts()` can be used to create a time series,

```
library(lubridate) # Another extra package you need to install (handles da
library(xts)
sp500 <- xts(c(1102.94, 1104.49, 1115.71, 1118.31),
             ymd(c("2010-02-25", "2010-02-26", "2010-03-01", "2010-03-02")))
sp500
##           [,1]
## 2010-02-25 1102.94
## 2010-02-26 1104.49
## 2010-03-01 1115.71
## 2010-03-02 1118.31
```

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Creating time series

- The function `xts` has 2 arguments: the time series values and the temporal tags of these values
- The second argument must contain dates
- The function `ymd()` can be used to convert strings in format “Year-Month-Day” into dates
- If we supply a matrix on the first argument we will get a multivariate time series, with each column representing one of the variables being measured at each time step

Indexing Time Series

- We may index the objects created by the function `xts()` as follows,

```
sp500[3]
##           [,1]
## 2010-03-01 1115.71
```

- However, it is far more interesting to make “temporal queries”,

```
sp500["2010-03-02"]
##           [,1]
## 2010-03-02 1118.31
sp500["2010-03"]
##           [,1]
## 2010-03-01 1115.71
## 2010-03-02 1118.31
```

Indexing Time Series (2)

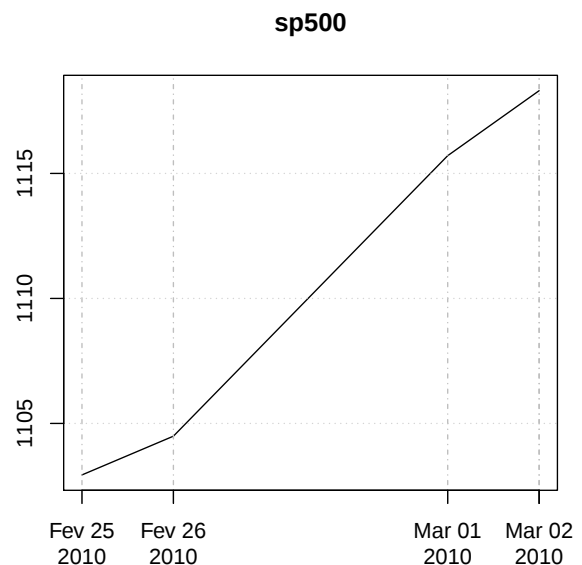
```
sp500["2010-02-26/"]
##           [,1]
## 2010-02-26 1104.49
## 2010-03-01 1115.71
## 2010-03-02 1118.31
sp500["2010-02-26/2010-03-01"]
##           [,1]
## 2010-02-26 1104.49
## 2010-03-01 1115.71
```

- The index is a string that may represent intervals using the symbol `/` or by omitting part of a date. You may also use `::` instead of `/`.

Temporal Plots

- The `plot()` function can be used to obtain a temporal plot of a time series
- R takes care of selecting the proper axes,

```
plot(sp500)
```



Hands On Time Series

Package **quantmod** (an extra package that you need to install) contains several facilities to handle financial time series. Among them, the function `getMetals` allows you to download the prices of metals from `oanda.com`. Explore the help page of the function to try to understand how it works, and the answer the following:

- 1 Obtain the prices of gold of the current year
- 2 Show the prices in January
- 3 Show the prices from January 10 till February 15
- 4 Obtain the prices of silver in the last 30 days
Tip: explore the function `days()` from package **lubridate**
- 5 Plot the prices of silver in the last 7 days
Tip: explore the function `last()` on package **xts**