

# Introduction to Statistical Programming with R

AILEEN BROWN CUEVAS  
THOMAS WIEMANN  
*University of Chicago*

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# Statistical Programming

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Statistical programming may be defined as the implementation of statistical procedures and statistical analyses on a computer.

To do so efficiently, the choice of the right tool (i.e., programming language) for the problem at hand is crucial. Four distinctions are particularly relevant:

- ▶ high-level languages (more human readable, less control) vs low-level languages (less human readable, more control)
- ▶ domain languages (optimized for specific tasks) vs general-purpose languages (suitable for large variety of tasks)
- ▶ availability of packages
- ▶ open-source/free vs proprietary/commercial

For statistical programming, this leaves us with C/C++ for low-level high-performance code, and R, Python, and Julia for higher level code.

# Why use R

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## Pros:

- ▶ It's free, open source, and available on every major platform.
- ▶ Widely used and sought-after language (e.g., see IEEE Spectrum)
- ▶ Large and incredibly helpful community (e.g., see Chadley Wickham)
- ▶ Excellent availability of data manipulation and visualization packages (e.g., dplyr, ggplot2).
- ▶ Possible to connect to low-level programming languages such as C++ (e.g., Rcpp).
- ▶ *Thousands* of packages designed and maintained by statisticians. Lot's of cutting-edge methods implemented in R.

## Cons:

- ▶ Thousands of packages designed and maintained by *statisticians*. We're not professional programmers – code often messy.
- ▶ Easy to write, difficult to perfect. Naive code can turn out slow.
- ▶ Can be very memory intensive.
- ▶ Advanced numerical optimization methods largely missing.

# Programming Pluralism

 **Victor Chernozhukov** @VC31415 ...

Recommendations for future students in econometrics and statistics. For programming, invest in both Python and R. For math, probability or stochastic processes, or both (I'd recommend engineering dept over math dept courses; with the exception: [math.uci.edu/~rvershyn/pape...](https://math.uci.edu/~rvershyn/pape...))

11:35 PM · Mar 20, 2021 · Twitter Web App

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104 Retweets 7 Quote Tweets 519 Likes

 **Julius P** @EconJulius · Mar 21 ...

Replying to @VC31415

Why not stata instead of R? Is this solely a preference thing?

2 1

 **Victor Chernozhukov** @VC31415 · Mar 21 ...

Stata is a respectful, high quality professional grade software for empirical work using highly standardized methods. I don't personally use it, but it is widely used.

3

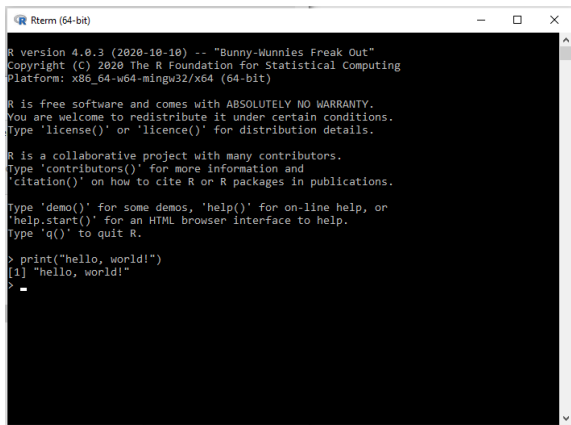
Source: <https://twitter.com/VC31415/status/1373402880280047617>

Takeaway: use the most convenient tool for the project at hand.

# Getting started: Base R

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Download & install R: <https://cran.rstudio.com/>



```
Rterm (64-bit)

R version 4.0.3 (2020-10-10) -- "Bunny-Wunnies Freak Out"
Copyright (C) 2020 The R Foundation for Statistical Computing
Platform: x86_64-w64-mingw32/x64 (64-bit)

R is free software and comes with ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY.
You are welcome to redistribute it under certain conditions.
Type 'license()' or 'licence()' for distribution details.

R is a collaborative project with many contributors.
Type 'contributors()' for more information and
'citation()' on how to cite R or R packages in publications.

Type 'demo()' for some demos, 'help()' for on-line help, or
'help.start()' for an HTML browser interface to help.
Type 'q()' to quit R.

> print("hello, world!")
[1] "hello, world!"
> _
```

Rough! Better use a integrated development environment (IDE).

Most popular IDE for R is R Studio:

- ▶ Designed specifically for R.
- ▶ Project management and integrated version control.
- ▶ Debugging support.
- ▶ Integrated R Markdown.

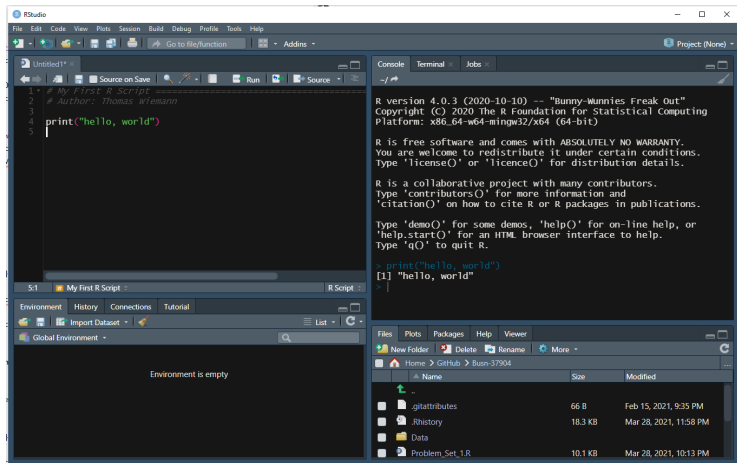
A sometimes convenient alternative to R Markdown is a Jupyter Notebook, especially if you're familiar with Jupyter Notebooks through working with Python or Julia. (Note: Ju-Py-[t]-R)

Personally, I do 99% of R coding in R Studio and 1% in Jupyter Notebooks.

# Getting started: R Studio

Download & install R Studio:

<https://rstudio.com/products/rstudio/download>

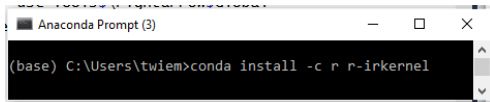


To change visual appearance, use Tools→Global Options→Appearance and change the editor theme (here: *Chaos*).



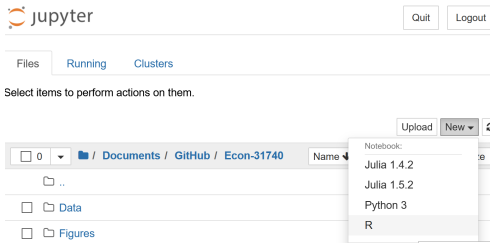
# Getting started: Jupyter Notebooks for R

- ▶ Download & install Anaconda:  
<https://www.anaconda.com/products/individual>
- ▶ Install R kernel via Anaconda prompt



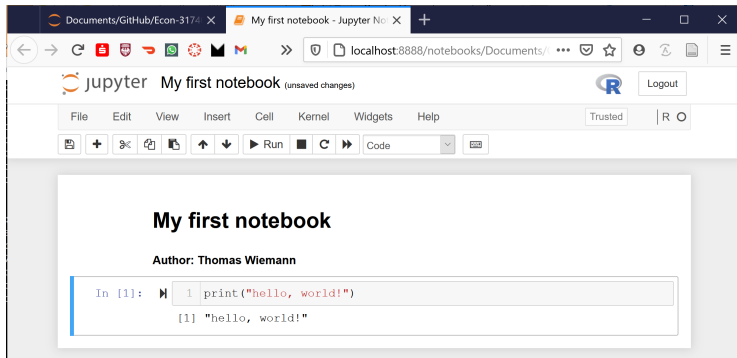
```
Anaconda Prompt (3)
(base) C:\Users\twiem>conda install -c r r-irkernel
```

- ▶ Open Jupyter Notebook and select the R kernel



## Getting started: Jupyter Notebooks for R (Contd.)

Jupyter Notebooks are a browser-based application and so will open in Chrome, Firefox, etc.



They are particularly useful for sharing output scripts that include brief sections of code and lots of explanation.

## Version Control: Overview

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A key feature of any editor is the UNDO operator (e.g., `ctrl + z`). Intuitively, a version control system is a sophisticated UNDO operator.

Working with version control allows you to

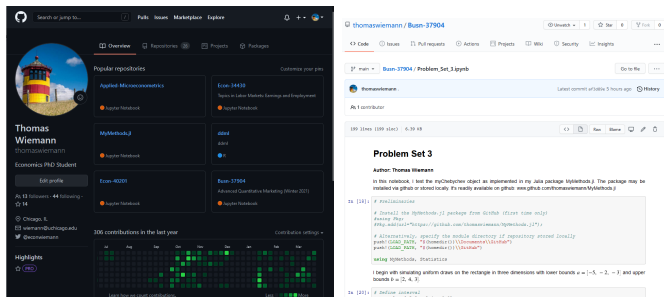
- ▶ track changes in your code;
- ▶ compare different versions of your code;
- ▶ rebuild your code as it existed at any prior point.

Invaluable for debugging and collaboration!

A particularly popular version control system is Git. It's free, available on all major operating systems, and widely supported by free hosting websites (e.g., GitHub). R Studio also has a Git integration.

# Version Control: Git with GitHub

GitHub is a free hosting website for code. Excellent for sharing code (like problem sets). Lots of software packages are hosted on GitHub.

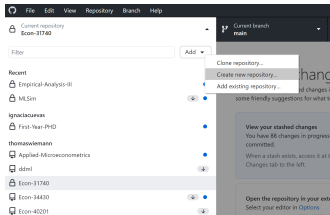


Installation:

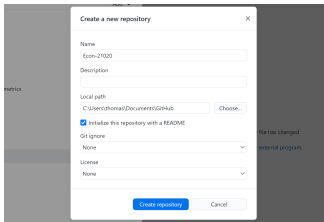
1. Sign-up for GitHub: [www.github.com](https://www.github.com)
2. Download the GitHub desktop app: <https://desktop.github.com>
3. After installation, open GitHub app and sign-in with your account.

We're now ready to start our first repository!

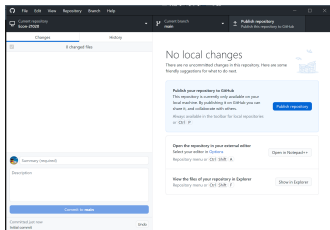
# Sample problem set repository



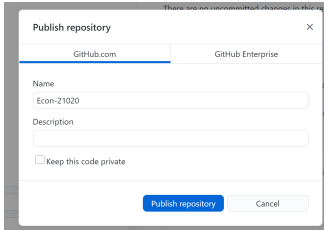
(a) File→Add→Create new...



(b) Name appropriately



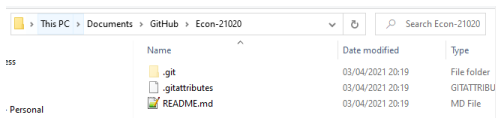
(c) "publish" repository



(d) Decide whether to keep private

## Sample problem set repository (Contd.)

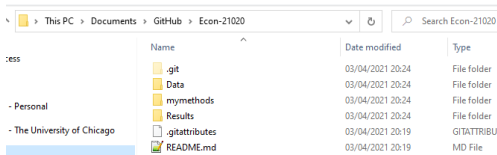
After initialization, the repository contains only the bare essentials.



The screenshot shows a Windows File Explorer window with the address bar set to 'This PC > Documents > GitHub > Econ-21020'. The search bar contains 'Search Econ-21020'. The main pane displays a table of files and folders:

Name	Date modified	Type
.git	03/04/2021 20:19	File folder
.gitattributes	03/04/2021 20:19	GITATTRIBU
README.md	03/04/2021 20:19	MD File

Before adding code, it's useful to organize the repository for a clean workflow. For a problem set repository, it's often convenient to have separate folders for data, results, and complementary code (here: `mymethods`).

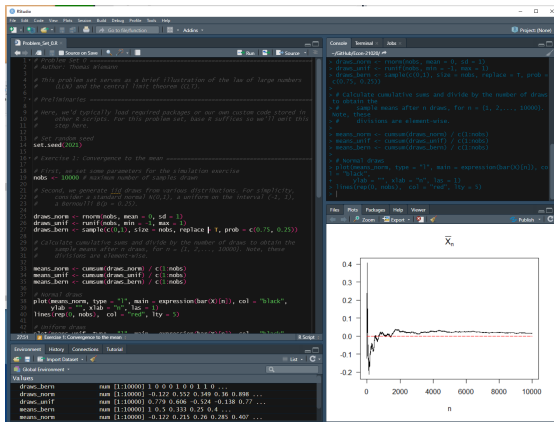


The screenshot shows the same Windows File Explorer window, but now with additional folders added to the repository:

Name	Date modified	Type
.git	03/04/2021 20:24	File folder
Data	03/04/2021 20:24	File folder
mymethods	03/04/2021 20:24	File folder
Results	03/04/2021 20:24	File folder
.gitattributes	03/04/2021 20:19	GITATTRIBU
README.md	03/04/2021 20:19	MD File

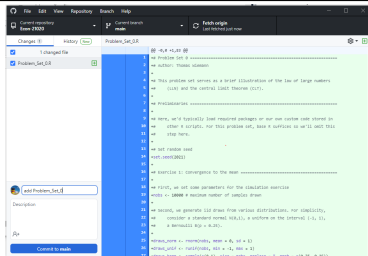
## Sample problem set repository (Contd.)

Let's now add our first R script. As an example for a problem set, Problem\_Set\_0.R provides a basic simulation exercises for the law of large numbers and the central limit theorem.

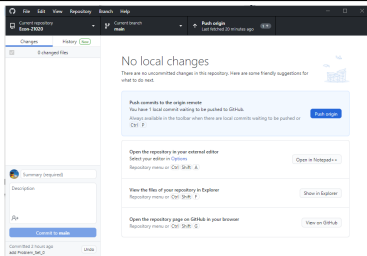


The file should be stored directly in the repository (i.e., it's filepath should look something like: “~/GitHub/Econ-21020/Problem\_Set\_0.R”).

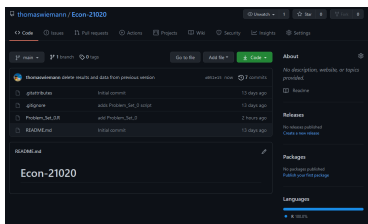
# Sample problem set repository (Contd.)



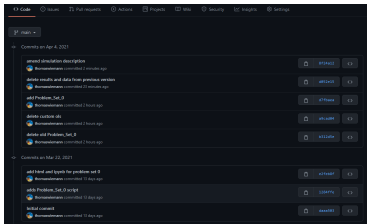
(a) Add brief description and commit



(b) "Push" to upload to GitHub



(c) Repository immediately updated...

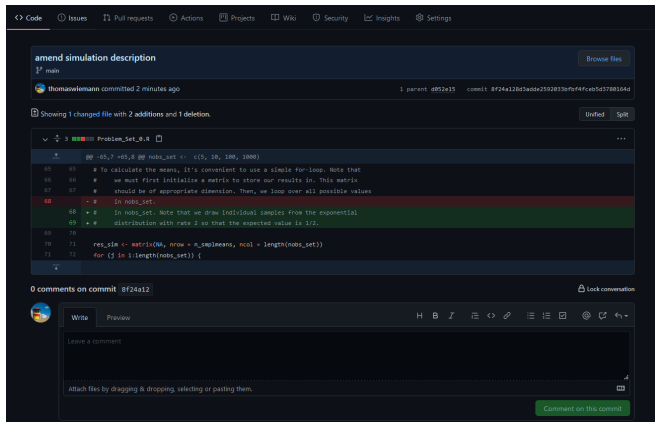


(d) ... but all versions backed-up



# Sample problem set repository (Contd.)

Particularly useful: line-by-line comparisons between different versions of the repository.



The screenshot shows a GitHub commit page for the repository 'Problem\_Set\_0.R'. The commit is titled 'amend simulation description' and was made by user 'thomaswiemann' 2 minutes ago. It shows 1 parent commit (d052e15) and the current commit hash is 8f24a12bd3adde2592033b9bf4fceb5d3780164d. The commit message is 'amend simulation description'. The diff shows changes to the file 'Problem\_Set\_0.R'. The changes include adding a comment about initializing a matrix and adding a loop to calculate the means. The code is as follows:

```
@@ -65,7 +65,8 @@ nobis_set <- c(5, 10, 100, 1000)
65 65 # to calculate the means, it's convenient to use a simple for-loop. Note that
66 66 # we must first initialize a matrix to store our results in. This matrix
67 67 # should be of appropriate dimension. Then, we loop over all possible values
68 68 # in nobis_set.
69 69 # in nobis_set. Note that we draw individual samples from the exponential
70 70 # distribution with rate 2 so that the expected value is 1/2.
71 71 res_sin <- matrix(NA, nrow = n_samplemeans, ncol = length(nobis_set))
72 72 for (j in 1:length(nobis_set)) {
```

Below the diff, there are 0 comments on this commit. At the bottom, there is a comment input area with a 'Write' button, a 'Preview' button, and a 'Comment on this commit' button.

## Best Practices

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Getting used to version control and GitHub can take some time. A few best practices may help you get started. (Note that these are not universal guidelines and depend on the project, but it's a good set of rules for homework repositories.)

- ▶ Commit recent changes after completing a logical step (e.g., finishing an exercise). This should be done relatively frequently.
- ▶ Always add a brief description to your commit.
- ▶ Upload to GitHub each time you stop working on your project.
- ▶ Avoid uploading large files. Small data sets are fine, large data sets may need to be stored locally.
- ▶ When collaborating, “push” and “pull” frequently.

As a student at UChicago, you qualify for GitHub pro. Comes with a few benefits, including unlimited collaborators on private repositories. Link: <https://education.github.com/benefits?type=student>.

## Optional Homework

---

Exercise: setup a problem set repository for this course.

To do so, complete the following steps:

1. Download and install R.
2. Download and install R Studio.
3. Create a GitHub account.
4. Download and install the GitHub desktop application.
5. Create a new **public** repository with the name Econ-21020 and publish it to GitHub.
6. Add a single R script called `hello_world.R`. The file should contain the following code: `print('hello, world!')`.
7. Commit your changes to the repository and 'push' to GitHub.
8. Copy the link of the repository and include it in your next problem set. The link should look something like this (but of course with your username): `www.github.com/thomaswiemann/Econ-21020`.

All necessary instructions can be found in this slide deck.

# Introduction to Statistical Programming with R (Part. II)

AILEEN BROWN CUEVAS  
THOMAS WIEMANN  
*University of Chicago*

July 29, 2021

1. Data Types
2. Operators
3. Functions
4. Documentation
5. Style Guide
6. Coding in R Studio

## Data Types

---

The simplest kind of variables in R are *atomic types*. These do not have an internal structure. Examples are:

- ▶ integer: 1L, 2L, 42L, ...
- ▶ numeric: pi, 0.25, Inf, ...
- ▶ logical: TRUE, FALSE.
- ▶ character: "lorem ipsum", "a", "", ...

More complex data types are combinations of atomic types. It's useful to organize the most common data types based on their dimensionality and whether they are homogeneous (i.e., whether all of it's contents must be of the same type).

	Homogeneous	Heterogeneous
1d	Atomic vector	List
2d	Matrix	Data frame
nd	Array	

## Data Types: Atomic vectors

---

Atomic vectors are usually created with `c()`, short for combine. Even when nesting, atomic vectors are always flat.

R does not have any scalar variables. Single numbers or characters are vectors of length 1. Vectors of length 0 also exist (and are a common cause for bugs).

### Example: Atomic vectors

```
c(1L, c(2L, c(3L, 4L))) # integer  
#> [1] 1 2 3 4
```

```
c(1, 2, 3, 4) # numeric  
#> [1] 1 2 3 4
```

```
c(T, F) # logical  
#> [1] TRUE FALSE
```

```
c("these_are", "some_strings") # character  
#> [1] "these are" "some strings"
```

## Data Types: Factors

---

Another fundamental data type that is essentially a vector with attributes is factor. These are used to store categorical and ordinal variables.

Factor variables can easily be initialized from an existing vector by using `factor()`.

### Example: Factors

```
factor(c("red", "blue", "green", "red", "green"))  
#> [1] red blue green red green  
#> Levels: blue green red  
  
factor(c(1, 2, 1, 2, 3))  
#> [1] 1 2 1 2 3  
#> Levels: 1 2 3
```



## Data Types: Matrices

---

A two-dimensional collection of atomic vectors is a `matrix`. They are convenient for storing and manipulating data with linear algebra.

Matrices are easily initialized with `matrix()`. Note that R uses column-wise initialization of matrices. Vectors (or matrices) of appropriate dimension may also be combined via row- or column-concatenation using `rbind()` or `cbind()`.

### Example: Matrices

```
matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 4), ncol = 2, nrow = 2)
#>      [, 1] [, 2]
#> [1, ]    1    3
#> [2, ]    2    4

cbind(c(1, 2), c(3, 4))
#>      [, 1] [, 2]
#> [1, ]    1    3
#> [2, ]    2    4
```

## Data Types: Arrays

---

The n-dimensional generalization of matrix is called array. They are much less common but it's good to be aware of them.

Use `array()` for initialization.

### Example: Arrays

```
array(c(1:8), dim = c(2, 2, 2))  
#> , , 1  
#>      [, 1] [, 2]  
#> [1, ]    1    3  
#> [2, ]    2    4  
#>  
#> , , 2  
#>      [, 1] [, 2]  
#> [1, ]    5    7  
#> [2, ]    6    8
```

## Data Types: Lists

---

A list is a 1-dimensional data type with elements of arbitrary type. Note that this is their key difference to atomic vectors.

Use `list()` for initialization (instead of `c()`).

### Example: Lists

```
list(1:3, "a", TRUE, 1L)
#> [[1]]
#> [1] 1 2 3
#>
#> [[2]]
#> [1] "a"
#>
#> [[3]]
#> [1] TRUE
#>
#> [[4]]
#> [1] 1
```

## Data Types: Data frames

---

Data frames are the most common way of storing data in R. Essentially, a data frame is a list of equal-length vectors. Given this construction, it shares some properties of both the matrix and the list, which can be very convenient for data analysis.

Use `data.frame()` for initialization. Multiple data frames (of appropriate dimension) may be concatenated via `rbind()` or `cbind()`.

### Example: Data frames

```
data.frame(x = 2:4, y = c("a", "b", "c"))  
#>   x y  
#> 1 2 a  
#> 2 3 b  
#> 3 4 c
```

## Data Types: Which one to choose?

---

Sometimes the data gives you little choice in the data structure. More often than not, however, you have to make the decision. Doing so incorrectly can have noticeable consequences. Poor choices can make your code needlessly complicated, slow, and memory-intensive.

As a simple guideline for the choice between data frames and matrices, consider how linear algebra intensive your code is. If you're using linear algebra operations frequently, use a `matrix` instead of a data frame.

For advanced projects (outside the scope of this course), also consider other data structures provided by R packages (e.g., `data.table`, sparse matrices).

Operators are convenient shortcuts to many of the key operations that frequently arise in data analysis. The key groups of operators are

- ▶ Assignment operators
- ▶ Arithmetic operators
- ▶ Relational operators
- ▶ Logical operators
- ▶ Subsetting operators

We'll discuss each briefly and conclude with a note on operator preference.

(There are also two linear algebra operators. We'll turn to them later.)

## Operators: Assignment

---

Assignment associates an internal object (e.g., a vector of integers) with a variable in your code. The key assignment operator in R is “<-”. It’s not the only one – but it’s the only one you should use.

There are other assignment operators you may sometimes see in other’s code. “=” is identical to “<-” and both deal with local assignment. The global assignment operator in R is “<<-”.

### Assignment: Assignment Operators

```
x <- c(1, 2)
x # print(x)
#> [1] 1 2

y <- cbind(x, x)
y # print(y)
#>      [, 1] [, 2]
#> [1, ]    1    1
#> [2, ]    2    2
```

## Operators: Arithmetic

---

The familiar arithmetic operators are implemented with their usual symbols. In particular, “+” is addition, “-” is subtraction, “\*” is multiplication, “/” is division, and “^” is the exponent operator. There are two other useful operators: “%%” calculates the modulus and “%/%” calculates integer division.

Note that these operations are element-wise! R is vectorized.

### Example: Arithmetic Operators

```
c(1, 2, 3, 4) + 1
```

```
#> [1] 2 3 4 5
```

```
c(1, 2, 3, 4) * c(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

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

```
c(3, 4, 5, 6) %% 3
```

```
#> [1] 0 1 2 0
```



## Operators: Relational

---

Relational operators are very convenient for generation of logical variables. In R, the key relational operators are the familiar “greater than” and “smaller than” operators – “>” and “<” – as well as their weak extensions – “>=” and “<=”. Equality is indicated by a double equality sign: “==”. Not-equal is using the negation operator: “!=”.

As before: these operations are element-wise!

### Example: Relational Operators

```
x <- 1
y <- x + 1
c(y < x, y <= x, y != x)
#> [1] FALSE FALSE TRUE

(c(3, 4, 5, 6) %% 3) == 0
#> [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE TRUE
```

## Operators: Logical

---

Logical operators are convenient for aggregating logical variables. Here, “&” is element-wise *logical-and*, and “|” is element-wise *logical-or*. The negation operator is “!”.

In addition to the element-wise logical operators, there are also non-element-wise alternatives – “&&” and “||”. Both only evaluate the first logical variable. Be cautious when using them.

### Example: Logical Operators

```
!(c(TRUE, FALSE) & TRUE)
```

```
#> [1] FALSE TRUE
```

```
x <- 1
```

```
y <- x + 1
```

```
(y < x - 1) | (y > x)
```

```
#> [1] TRUE
```

```
(c(1, 2, 3, 4) == c(1, 5, 5, 5)) && (x == 1)
```

```
#> [1] TRUE
```

## Operators: Subsetting

---

Subsetting allows you to retrieve and manipulate parts of your data structure. This is crucial for succinctly expressing complex operations.

R has three subsetting operators:

- ▶ `[` for vectors, matrices, arrays, and data frames
- ▶ `[[` for lists
- ▶ `$` for named lists and data frames

### Example: Subsetting Operators

```
df <- data.frame(x = 2:4, y = c("a", "b", "c"))
df[, 1]
#> [1] 2 3 4

df[, 1] == df[, "x"] & df[, 1] == df$x
#> [1] TRUE TRUE TRUE
```

## Operators: Precedence

---

Precedence rules for operators can be complicated. Rather than memorize these rules and risk confusion, use parentheses to avoid ambiguity.

### Example: Operator Precedence

```
TRUE || FALSE == FALSE || FALSE  
#> [1] TRUE
```

```
(TRUE || FALSE) == (FALSE || FALSE)  
#> [1] FALSE
```

```
TRUE || (FALSE == FALSE) || FALSE  
#> [1] TRUE
```

## Functions

---

Functions are a fundamental building block of R: Anything that “happens” is the result of a function call.

Much like it's mathematical equivalent, a function takes some inputs (called *arguments*) and returns an output. In R, a function can only return a single object (e.g., a vector or a list).

Writing your own functions is – thankfully – incredibly easy. If you catch yourself copy-pasting lines of code, consider writing your own function and calling it instead.

### Example: Custom Functions

```
myplus <- function(x, y) {  
  res <- x + y  
  return(res)  
}#MYPLUS  
  
myplus(1, 2) == (1 + 2)  
#> [1] TRUE
```

Base R implements many key functions for data analysis. Being familiar with them is important for efficient programming.

Some of the key function groups are:

- ▶ Distributional functions
- ▶ Statistical functions
- ▶ Logical functions
- ▶ Linear Algebra
- ▶ Importing and Exporting Data

We'll briefly go over each now.

## Functions: Distributions

---

The four key distributional functions we need are

- ▶ the probability density (mass) function,
- ▶ the cumulative density (mass) function,
- ▶ the quantile function,
- ▶ the sampling function for generating random draws.

R implements these for all standard distributions with the same pattern:

```
(d, p, q, r) * (binom, chisq, exp, f, norm, t, unif)
```

where `d` denotes the pdf (pmf), `p` denotes the CDF (CMF), `q` denotes the quantile function, and `r` denotes the sampling function.

`binom` denotes the binomial distribution, `chisq` denotes the  $\chi^2$ -distribution, `exp` denotes the exponential distribution, `f` denotes the F-distribution, `norm` denotes the normal distribution, `t` denotes the t-distribution, and `unif` denotes the uniform distribution.

(Note: There are many other distributions implemented in R!)

## Functions: Sample Statistics

---

Sample statistics are functions of the observed data. They are useful for summarizing key features of the data.

Particularly useful functions are:

- ▶ `sum`, `mean`, `sd`, `var`
- ▶ `cov`, `cor`
- ▶ `quantile`
- ▶ `table`

Example: Sample Statistics

```
x <- rexp(n = 100000, rate = 2) #  $E[X] = 1/2$ 
mean(x)
#> [1] 0.501

x <- rnorm(n = 10000, mean = 0, sd = 1)
quantile(x = x, probs = c(0.025, 0.975))
#> 2.5% 97.5%
#> -1.967 1.947
```



## Functions: Sample Statistics (Contd.)

---

In the example below, we test the fairness of an unfair coin given a sample of  $n = 100$  observations. Recall that a binomial random variable with 1 trial is simply a Bernoulli random variable.

Example: Test fairness of a coin flip

```
# Simulate data from Bernoulli s.t.  $E[X] = 0.6$ .  
# That is, the coin is unfair!  
n <- 100  
x <- rbinom(n = n, size = 1, prob = 0.6)  
  
# Calculate test statistic for  $H_0: E[X] = 0.5$ .  
z <- sqrt(n) * (mean(x) - 0.5) / sd(x)  
  
# Conduct two sided test using the CLT.  
2 * pnorm(q = -abs(z), mean = 0, sd = 1)  
#> [1] 0.002
```

## Functions: Linear Algebra

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Linear algebra is incredibly useful for econometrics and statistics – both for theory and for implementation.

The key functions are

- ▶ the transpose function: `t`
- ▶ the inverse function: `solve`
- ▶ matrix multiplication: `%*%`
- ▶ out product: `%o%`

Implementing linear regression from scratch has never been so easy!

Recall  $\hat{\beta}_{ols} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$ .

Example: Linear Algebra

```
myols <- function(y, X) {  
  beta <- solve(t(X) %*% X) %*% (t(X) %*% y)  
  return(beta)  
}#MYOLS
```

## Functions: Logical functions

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The key logical functions are

- ▶ any
- ▶ all
- ▶ which

Two others that are sometimes convenient are `which.min` and `which.max`.

### Example: Logical Functions

```
x <- c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
any(x)
#> [1] TRUE

all(x)
#> [1] FALSE

which(x)
#> [1] 1 3
```

## Functions: Importing and Exporting Data

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Here we discuss importing and exporting comma separated values-files (i.e., csv-files). This can easily be done with `read.csv` and `write.csv`.

There are many R packages for importing other file formats. See, e.g., `readstata13`, `haven`, etc.

### Example: Importing and Exporting Data

```
# Simulate some data
n <- 100
df <- data.frame(x = rnorm(n, 0, 1),
                 y = rbinom(n, 1, 0.6))

# Export to .csv
write.csv(df, file = "my_simulated_data.csv",
          row.names = FALSE)

# Import from .csv
df_2 <- read.csv(file = "my_simulated_data.csv")
head(df_2$y) # prints first 5 entries
#> [1] 0 1 0 1 1
```

## Functions: Packages

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Base R is great (and you should use it) but there are excellent extensions available in the form of packages.

Official packages are hosted on CRAN. These packages are well maintained and have to adhere to certain quality standards. Examples are `ggplot2` for plotting or `dyplr` for data manipulation.

In-official packages (or development versions) are often hosted on GitHub. Using the package `devtools`, these can be directly installed as well.

After installation, packages need to be activated each time you want to use them. This is done via `library`.

Example: Installing Packages

```
# CRAN packages
install.packages(c("ggplot2", "dyplr", "devtools"))

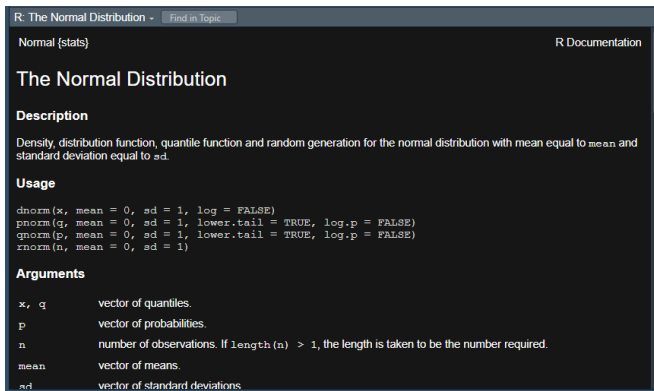
# GitHub package
library(devtools)
install_github("jkcshea/l1svr") # needs devtools
```

# Documentation

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Before calling a function, it's important you familiarize yourself with the syntax and default arguments. The perfect resource for this are the R help files. These can be conveniently accessed via the “?” operator.

The following is a screenshot from the output after calling `?rnorm`.



The screenshot shows the R help documentation for the Normal distribution. At the top, there is a title bar with "R: The Normal Distribution" and a "Find in Topic" search box. Below this, the title "Normal (stats)" is displayed on the left and "R Documentation" on the right. The main heading is "The Normal Distribution". Under the "Description" section, it states: "Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the normal distribution with mean equal to `mean` and standard deviation equal to `sd`." The "Usage" section lists four functions: `dnorm(x, mean = 0, sd = 1, log = FALSE)`, `pnorm(q, mean = 0, sd = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)`, `qnorm(p, mean = 0, sd = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)`, and `rnorm(n, mean = 0, sd = 1)`. The "Arguments" section lists: `x, q` as "vector of quantiles.", `p` as "vector of probabilities.", `n` as "number of observations. If `length(n) > 1`, the length is taken to be the number required.", `mean` as "vector of means.", and `sd` as "vector of standard deviations."

```
R: The Normal Distribution - Find in Topic

Normal (stats) R Documentation

The Normal Distribution

Description
Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the normal distribution with mean equal to mean and standard deviation equal to sd.

Usage
dnorm(x, mean = 0, sd = 1, log = FALSE)
pnorm(q, mean = 0, sd = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qnorm(p, mean = 0, sd = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rnorm(n, mean = 0, sd = 1)

Arguments
x, q      vector of quantiles.
p          vector of probabilities.
n          number of observations. If length(n) > 1, the length is taken to be the number required.
mean       vector of means.
sd         vector of standard deviations.
```

Other helpful resources are Google, Stack Overflow, Stack Exchange, etc.

*“Good coding style is like using correct punctuation. You can manage without it, but it sure makes things easier to read.”* – Wickham (2019)

Adopting (and adapting) a so-called style guide is the better alternative to re-inventing punctuation from scratch. The following gives a few highlights from the tidyverse style guide (<https://style.tidyverse.org/>).

We focus on:

- ▶ Naming
- ▶ Spacing
- ▶ Comments
- ▶ Sections

## Style-Guide: Naming

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Coming up with good variable names can be challenging!

- ▶ Variable and function names should be in lowercase.
- ▶ Use an underscore to separate words withing a name.
- ▶ Variable names should be nouns and function names should be verbs.
- ▶ Strive for names that are clear and concise.

Example: Variable names

```
# Good
sample_mean_x <- mean(x)
avg_x <- mean(x)

# Bad
SampleMean_1 <- mean(x)
avgx <- mean(x)
```



## Style-Guide: Spacing

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- ▶ Place spaces around all infix operators (=, +, -, <-, etc.). The exception is ":", which should be used without spaces.
- ▶ Always put a space after a comma, and never before.
- ▶ Place spaces before left parentheses, except in a function call.
- ▶ Don't add space within parentheses.

### Example: Spacing

```
# Good
x <- 1:10
if (1 %in% x) print("Wow!")
x <- c(x, x)
```

```
# Bad
x <- 1 : 10
if(1%in%x)print("Wow!")
x <- c ( x , x )
```

## Style-Guide: Comments

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- ▶ Use # to add a comment.
- ▶ Comment frequently but not excessively.
- ▶ For multi-line comments, add *four* spaces at the beginning of each line after the first one.

Important: Limit your code to 80 characters per line. Many IDEs add a vertical line to help with this.

### Example: Multi-line comment

```
# Commenting code is important. Be concise. When  
#     necessary, use indentation to increase  
#     readability.
```

### Example: Simple comment

```
x <- 1  
x <- x + 1 # This works well for brief comments
```

Use comments to break up a single R script into multiple sections. For example, each section dedicated to a single exercise of a problem set.

Using “=” does the job nicely:

### Example: Sectioning an R Script

```
# Section name =====  
# Adding a brief explanation here may be good.  
  
x <- 1 # Some code  
x <- x + 1  
  
# Another section name =====  
# Etc...
```

# Coding in R Studio

**R Script**

```
1 # Problem Set 1.R
2 # Author: Thomas Wiemann
3
4 # This problem set serves as a brief illustration of the law of large numbers
5 # (LLN) and the central limit theorem (CLT).
6
7 # Preliminaries
8
9 # Here, we'd typically load required packages or our own custom code stored in
10 # other R scripts. For this problem set, base R suffices so we'll omit this
11 # step here.
12
13 # Set random seed
14 set.seed(2021)
15
16 # Exercise 1: Convergence to the mean
17
18 # First, we set some parameters for the simulation exercise
19 nobs <- 10000 # maximum number of samples drawn
20
21 # Second, we generate iid draws from various distributions. For simplicity,
22 # consider a standard normal  $N(0,1)$ , a uniform on the interval  $[-1, 1]$ ,
23 # a Bernoulli  $B(p = 0.25)$ .
24
25 draws_norm <- rmnorm(nobs, mean = 0, sd = 1)
26 draws_unif <- runif(nobs, min = -1, max = 1)
27 draws_bern <- sample(c(0,1), size = nobs, replace = T, prob = c(0.75, 0.25))
28
29 # Calculate cumulative sums and divide by the number of draws to obtain the
30 # sample means after n draws, for  $n = \{1, 2, \dots, 10000\}$ . Note, these
31 # elements are division-wise.
32 means_norm <- cumsum(draws_norm) / c(1:nobs)
33 means_unif <- cumsum(draws_unif) / c(1:nobs)
34 means_bern <- cumsum(draws_bern) / c(1:nobs)
35
36 # Normal draws
37 plot(means_norm, type = "l", main = expression(bar(X)[n]), col = "black",
38      ylab = "x", xlab = "n", las = 1)
39 lines(rep(0, nobs), col = "red", lty = 5)
40
41 # Uniform draws
42 plot(means_unif, type = "l", main = expression(bar(X)[n]), col = "black",
43      ylab = "x", xlab = "n", las = 1)
44 lines(rep(0, nobs), col = "red", lty = 5)
45
46 # Bernoulli draws
47 plot(means_bern, type = "l", main = expression(bar(X)[n]), col = "black",
48      ylab = "x", xlab = "n", las = 1)
```

**R Console**

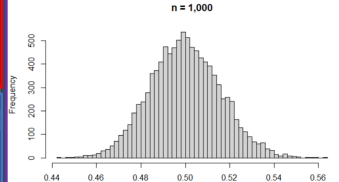
```
> # As before, let's first define some parameters for the simulation exercise
> # 1) to visualize the distribution of the sample mean at various sample
> # sizes. It thus makes sense to fix the number of simulated sample means at
> # a sufficiently high value (so that we can plot a proper histogram), and
> # define a set of different sample sizes.
> n_samplmeans <- 10000
> nobs_set <- c(5, 10, 100, 1000)
>
> # To calculate the means, it's convenient to use a simple for-loop. Note that
> # we must first initialize a matrix to store our results in. This matrix
> # should be of appropriate dimension. Then, we loop over all possible values
> # in nobs_set. Note that we draw individual samples from the exponential
> # distribution with rate 2 so that the expected value is 1/2.
> res_slm <- matrix(NA, nrow = n_samplmeans, ncol = length(nobs_set))
> for(j in 1:length(nobs_set)) {
+   res_slm[, j] <- replicate(n_samplmeans, mean(rep(nobs_set[j], 2)))
+ }
> # Let us now plot the corresponding histogram.
> hist(res_slm[, 1], 50, xlab = expression(bar(X)[n]), main = "n = 5")
> hist(res_slm[, 2], 50, xlab = expression(bar(X)[n]), main = "n = 10")
> hist(res_slm[, 3], 50, xlab = expression(bar(X)[n]), main = "n = 100")
> hist(res_slm[, 4], 50, xlab = expression(bar(X)[n]), main = "n = 1,000")
>
> # Indeed, we see that the distribution of the sample mean converges to a normal
> # distribution.
```

**Environment**

Object	Value
res_slm	num [1:10000, 1:4] 0.387 0.68 0.59 0.911 0.518 ...
draws_bern	num [1:10000] 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 ...
draws_norm	num [1:10000] -0.122 0.552 0.349 0.36 0.898 ...
draws_unif	num [1:10000] 0.779 0.606 -0.524 -0.138 0.77 ...
j	4L
means_bern	num [1:10000] 1 0.5 0.333 0.25 0.4 ...
means_norm	num [1:10000] -0.122 0.215 0.26 0.285 0.407 ...

**Files / Plots / Help**

**n = 1,000**



There are essentially three options for executing code in R Studio:

- ▶ Entering code directly in the R console. Note that this makes reproduction (practically) impossible.
- ▶ Selecting a single line in the R script and hitting `enter`. This runs the line of code and advances to the next line.
- ▶ Block-selecting multiple lines of code and hitting `enter`. This runs all selected lines in sequence.

Frequently run your code to check whether everything works as intended.

## References

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Wickham, H. (2019). *Advanced R*. CRC press.