

An Introduction to R

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Plan of the session

1. Getting started
2. R basics: objects and vectors
3. Importing and exporting data
4. The apply family
5. Graphics with base R

By the end you can install R and RStudio, work with vectors and data frames, read and write CSV, text and Excel files, summarise data without loops, and draw and annotate the standard graphs.

Session 2 applies these tools to a real air-quality data set from Delhi.

PART 1

Getting started

What is R?

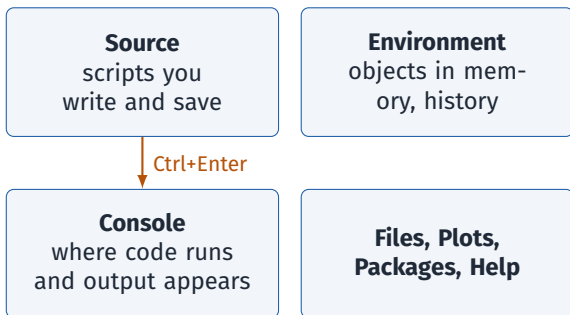
- A language *and* an environment for data, calculation and graphics
- Free, open source, on every major platform
- Grew out of **S** (Bell Labs, 1970s); begun by Ross Ihaka and Robert Gentleman in Auckland; version 1.0.0 on 29 February 2000
- CRAN listed 22,079 packages on 20 February 2025, grouped by field in Task Views

Why researchers use it A script is a complete, re-runnable record of the analysis: examiners and co-authors can reproduce every table and figure.

Trade-off Commands instead of menus: a steeper start, but nothing is hidden.

Installing R and RStudio

1. Download and install R from CRAN:
`cran.r-project.org`
2. Then install RStudio Desktop (free) from Posit:
`posit.co/download/rstudio-desktop`
3. Start RStudio, not R: it finds R by itself



Getting help

```
?mean                # help page of a function
help("cor")           # the same, as a function
??correlation         # search all help pages
help.search("regression")
help(package = "MASS") # what a package offers
example(mean)         # run the examples
```

- Every help page has the same parts: Description, Usage, Arguments, Value, Examples. Read Usage and Examples first
- Manuals: RStudio menu *Help* → *R Help* ("An Introduction to R")
- Web: rseek.org searches R sites only; Springer's *Use R!* book series covers many fields

Packages and colours used in this session

- A **package** adds functions and data; install once, load in every session
- `readr`, `data.table`: fast reading of text files
- `readxl`, `writexl`: Excel files, no Excel needed
- Graphics today use base R; two colours are defined once

```
# install once
# install.packages(c("readr", "data.table",
#                    "readxl", "writexl"))
library(readr)
library(data.table)
library(readxl)
library(writexl)
col_main <- "#1F5FA8" # blue
col_alt  <- "#B45309" # amber
```

PART 2

R basics: objects and vectors

R as a calculator

```
2 + 2; 3 + 2 * 5; (2 + 3) * 2; 5 / 2
```

```
## [1] 4  
## [1] 13  
## [1] 10  
## [1] 2.5
```

```
5^2; 7 %/% 2; 7 %% 2; log(100, base = 10)
```

```
## [1] 25  
## [1] 3  
## [1] 1  
## [1] 2
```

Order: ^ then * / then + -; brackets first.

%% integer division, %% remainder

- `x <- 5` stores a value in the object `x`
- Names start with a letter (or a dot not followed by a digit) and may contain letters, digits, `.` and `_`
- R is case sensitive: `x` and `X` differ

Creating a data vector

```
x <- c(2, 4, 3, 5, 7, 9, 15) # c() combines
c(n = length(x), sum = sum(x), mean = mean(x),
  median = median(x), min = min(x), max = max(x))
```

```
##      n      sum    mean median    min    max
##  7.000 45.000   6.429   5.000   2.000 15.000
```

```
summary(x)
```

```
##      Min. 1st Qu.  Median     Mean 3rd Qu.     Max.
##      2.00   3.50    5.00    6.43   8.00   15.00
```

```
sort(x, decreasing = TRUE)
```

```
## [1] 15  9  7  5  4  3  2
```

- A **vector** holds values of one type: numbers, text or logical
- Summary functions take the whole vector at once
- # starts a comment: R ignores the rest of the line

Reading it Mean 6.43 > median 5: the single large value 15 pulls the mean up.

Vector arithmetic works element by element

```
x + 1; 2 * x; x^2; round(log(x), 2)

## [1] 3 5 4 6 8 10 16
## [1] 4 8 6 10 14 18 30
## [1] 4 16 9 25 49 81 225
## [1] 0.69 1.39 1.10 1.61 1.95 2.20 2.71

round(100 * x / sum(x), 1) # percentage shares

## [1] 4.4 8.9 6.7 11.1 15.6 20.0 33.3

c(1, 2, 3, 4) + c(10, 20) # recycling

## [1] 11 22 13 24
```

- No loop is needed: $2 * x$ doubles every element
- Functions such as `log()`, `sqrt()`, `round()` are *vectorised*
- Shares of a total in one line: $x / \text{sum}(x)$

Recycling A shorter vector is reused; R warns only when the longer length is not a multiple of the shorter one.

Sequences and repetition

```
3:6; seq(3, 6, by = 0.5); seq(3, 5, length.out = 5)
```

```
## [1] 3 4 5 6
```

```
## [1] 3.0 3.5 4.0 4.5 5.0 5.5 6.0
```

```
## [1] 3.0 3.5 4.0 4.5 5.0
```

```
rep(x = c(2, 3), times = c(5, 4))
```

```
## [1] 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3
```

```
rep(1:3, times = 2); rep(1:3, each = 2)
```

```
## [1] 1 2 3 1 2 3
```

```
## [1] 1 1 2 2 3 3
```

- `a:b` counts in steps of 1
- `seq()` sets the step (`by`) or the number of points (`length.out`)
- `rep()` repeats a whole vector (`times`) or each element (`each`)

Typical uses: questionnaire item numbers, years of a panel, group labels for an experiment.

Selecting and naming elements

```
x[2]; x[c(2, 4)]; x[-2] # by position

## [1] 4
## [1] 4 5
## [1] 2 3 5 7 9 15

x[x > 5] # by a condition

## [1] 7 9 15

names(x) <- LETTERS[1:7] # labels A to G
x[c("A", "C")]

## A C
## 2 3
```

- `[ ]` is the extraction operator; positions start at 1
- A negative index *removes* elements
- A logical condition keeps the elements where it is TRUE
- `names()` attaches labels, so elements can be picked by name

Combining vectors: c(), cbind(), rbind()

```
x1 <- c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)
y1 <- c(2, 1, 4, 3, 2, 5, 6)
c(x1, y1)                # one long vector

## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 2 1 4 3 2 5 6

rbind(x1, y1)             # two rows: a matrix

##      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7]
## x1     1   2   3   4   5   6   7
## y1     2   1   4   3   2   5   6

dim(cbind(x1, y1))        # 7 rows, 2 columns

## [1] 7 2
```

- `c()` joins end to end
- `cbind()` and `rbind()` bind as columns or rows and return a **matrix**
- `dim()` gives the numbers of rows and columns

Objects you will meet vector, matrix, data frame, list, factor.

Data frames and factors: the swiss data

```
str(swiss[, 1:4], vec.len = 2)

## 'data.frame': 47 obs. of  4 variables:
## $ Fertility   : num  80.2 83.1 92.5 85.8 76.9 ...
## $ Agriculture: num  17 45.1 39.7 36.5 43.5 ...
## $ Examination: int  15 6 5 12 17 ...
## $ Education   : int  12 9 5 7 15 ...

swiss$majority <- factor(ifelse(swiss$Catholic > 50,
                               "Catholic", "Protestant"))

summary(swiss$majority)

##    Catholic Protestant
##         18         29
```

- Built-in classic data: fertility and socio-economic indicators for 47 French-speaking Swiss provinces, about 1888; two more columns are Catholic and Infant.Mortality
- A **data frame**: one row per case, one column per variable; columns may differ in type
- A **factor** stores a categorical variable with its levels

PART 3

Importing and exporting data

Where R reads and writes

- Keep the script and a data/folder together in one RStudio **project**
- Use relative paths such as "data/ito.csv"; drive-letter paths break on every other computer
- `getwd()` shows the current working folder

File type	Read / write with
CSV	<code>read.csv()</code> , <code>readr::read_csv()</code>
Text	<code>read.table()</code> , <code>data.table::fread()</code>
Excel	<code>readxl::read_excel()</code>
Write CSV	<code>write.csv()</code> , <code>readr::write_csv()</code>
Write Excel	<code>writexl::write_xlsx()</code>

RStudio's *Import Dataset* menu writes the same code for you.

Reading a CSV file

```
jnu <- read.csv("data/data_jnu.csv",  
               fileEncoding = "UTF-8-BOM")  
dim(jnu); colMeans(jnu)  
  
## [1] 10  4  
##      A      B      C      D  
## 33.7 26.2 27.7 44.4  
  
head(jnu, 3)  
  
##      A  B  C  D  
## 1 10 12 15 20  
## 2 20 10 14 18  
## 3 15 25 58 47
```

- `read.csv()` returns a data frame; line 1 holds the column names
- Illustrative data made for the course: 10 rows, columns A–D
- `fileEncoding` strips the invisible byte-order mark of Excel's "CSV UTF-8" files

Always check `dim()`, `names()` and `head()` right after reading.

The same file with readr

```
jnu_tbl <- read_csv("data/data_jnu.csv",  
                    show_col_types = FALSE)  
print(jnu_tbl, n = 3)
```

```
## # A tibble: 10 x 4  
##       A      B      C      D  
##   <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>  
## 1     10     12     15     20  
## 2     20     10     14     18  
## 3     15     25     58     47  
## # i 7 more rows
```

- `read_csv()` returns a **tibble**: a data frame that prints compactly and shows each column's type (<dbl> = number)
- Faster on large files; handles the byte-order mark itself
- `spec(jnu_tbl)` lists the column types it chose

Note the underscore `read.csv()` is base R; `read_csv()` is readr.

Text files: read.table() and fread()

```
scores <- read.table("data/data3.txt",
                    header = TRUE)
str(scores, vec.len = 2)

## 'data.frame': 10 obs. of 2 variables:
## $ score: num  20 20.5 13 16 11 ...
## $ group: chr  "batchA" "batchA" ...

write.table(scores, "data/scores.txt", sep = "\t",
            row.names = FALSE)
scores_dt <- fread("data/scores.txt")
class(scores_dt); dim(scores_dt)

## [1] "data.table" "data.frame"
## [1] 10 2
```

- data3.txt: test scores of two batches of five students, separated by spaces (data from the lecture)
- write.table() with sep = "\t" saves a tab-separated copy
- fread() detects the separator and column types by itself, and reads files with millions of rows in seconds

Excel workbooks

```
write_xlsx(scores, "data/scores.xlsx")
excel_sheets("data/scores.xlsx")

## [1] "Sheet1"

sc_xl <- read_excel("data/scores.xlsx",
                    sheet = 1)

head(sc_xl, 3)

## # A tibble: 3 x 2
##   score group
##   <dbl> <chr>
## 1    20  batchA
## 2   20.5  batchA
## 3    13  batchA
```

- `read_excel()` reads .xls and .xlsx; choose the sheet by number or name, and a cell block with range = "B2:D20"
- `write_xlsx()` writes a data frame (or a named list of them, one per sheet)

Tip Merged cells, colours and notes in a spreadsheet do not survive import: keep one rectangular table per sheet.

Exporting results

```
batch_means <- aggregate(score ~ group,  
                          data = scores, FUN = mean)  
  
batch_means  
  
##      group score  
## 1 batchA  16.1  
## 2 batchB  46.6  
  
write.csv(batch_means, "data/output.csv",  
          row.names = FALSE)  
read.csv("data/output.csv")      # verify  
  
##      group score  
## 1 batchA  16.1  
## 2 batchB  46.6
```

- `aggregate()` summarises a variable by group (formula `score ~ group`)
- `write.csv()` saves a table for Excel or a manuscript; `row.names = FALSE` avoids an extra column
- Reading the file back confirms what was written

A first look at a real data set

```
ito <- read.csv("data/ito.csv")
dim(ito); class(ito$Date)

## [1] 659 11
## [1] "character"

head(ito[, 1:5], 3); colSums(is.na(ito[, 2:5]))

##           Date PM25 PM10    NO  NO2
## 1 01-01-2023 138.7 167.3 142.8 47.21
## 2 02-01-2023 292.1 361.4 139.3 52.09
## 3 03-01-2023 284.1 366.8 103.1 36.83
## PM25 PM10    NO  NO2
##    20    20    17    17
```

- Daily air-pollution readings at the ITO monitoring station, Delhi (Central Pollution Control Board)
- Date arrives as *text*, not as a date
- Some days are missing

Session 2 turns these 659 rows into a research analysis: dates, missing values, exploration, tests and a model.

PART 4

The apply family

apply(): rows or columns of a matrix

```
mat <- matrix(1:12, nrow = 3, ncol = 4)
mat

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

apply(mat, 1, mean); apply(mat, 2, mean)

## [1] 5.5 6.5 7.5
## [1]  2  5  8 11
```

`apply(X, MARGIN, FUN, ...)`

X: matrix or data frame; MARGIN: 1 rows, 2 columns; FUN: the function to apply

Row means first, then column means. On a data frame, `apply(swiss[, 1:6], 2, median)` gives every indicator's median in one call; `rowMeans()` and `colMeans()` are faster shortcuts for means.

lapply(), sapply() and vapply(): over a list

```
lst <- list(a = 1:3, b = 4:6)
str(lapply(lst, function(v) v^2)) # a list

## List of 2
## $ a: num [1:3] 1 4 9
## $ b: num [1:3] 16 25 36

sapply(lst, sum); vapply(lst, length, numeric(1))

## a b
## 6 15
## a b
## 3 3
```

- `lapply()` applies a function to each element and always returns a **list**
- `sapply()` simplifies the result to a vector or matrix when it can
- `vapply()` also states the result type (`numeric(1)`: one number), so it stops with an error rather than returning something unexpected
- A data frame is a list of columns: `sapply(swiss, mean)` gives column means

tapply(): a summary for each group

```
marks <- c(85, 90, 78, 92, 88, 76)
groups <- factor(c("A", "A", "B", "B", "A", "B"))
tapply(marks, groups, mean)
```

```
##      A      B
## 87.67 82.00
```

```
round(tapply(swiss$Fertility, swiss$majority,
             mean), 1)
```

```
##   Catholic Protestant
##      76.5      66.2
```

tapply(X, INDEX, FUN): split X by the factor INDEX, then apply FUN to each piece

Reading it Mostly Catholic provinces had a higher average fertility index (76.5) than mostly Protestant ones (66.2): a description, not yet a test.

mapply(): several vectors in parallel

```
a <- 1:4
b <- 5:8
mapply(sum, a, b)           # 1+5, 2+6, ...

## [1] 6 8 10 12

mapply(function(n, p) round(n * p),
        c(200, 150, 90), c(0.42, 0.35, 0.60))

## [1] 84 52 54
```

- `mapply()` takes the first elements of all vectors, then the second ones, and so on
- Second example: expected number of “yes” answers in three survey strata from their sizes and proportions
- For simple arithmetic, `a + b` or `n * p` is shorter: vectorised operators come first

Which one to use?

Function	Works over	Returns
<code>apply(X, MARGIN, FUN)</code>	rows or columns of a matrix	vector or matrix
<code>lapply(X, FUN)</code>	elements of a list or vector	list
<code>sapply(X, FUN)</code>	elements of a list or vector	vector or matrix if possible
<code>vapply(X, FUN, FUN.VALUE)</code>	elements of a list or vector	vector of a stated type
<code>tapply(X, INDEX, FUN)</code>	groups defined by a factor	one value per group
<code>mapply(FUN, . . .)</code>	several vectors in parallel	vector or list

Rule of thumb First look for a vectorised function (`colMeans()`, `x / sum(x)`); then the `apply` family; write an explicit `for` loop only when each step depends on the previous one.

PART 5

Graphics with base R

The base graphics toolbox

Question	Graph	Function
Do two variables relate?	scatter	<code>plot(x, y)</code>
How is one variable spread?	histogram	<code>hist()</code>
Do groups differ?	box plot	<code>boxplot(y ~ g)</code>
Change over time?	line plot	<code>plot(type = "l")</code>
How many per category?	bar chart	<code>barplot()</code>
Many named cases?	dot chart	<code>dotchart()</code>

Two kinds of function

High-level functions draw a new graph.

Low-level functions add to the current one:

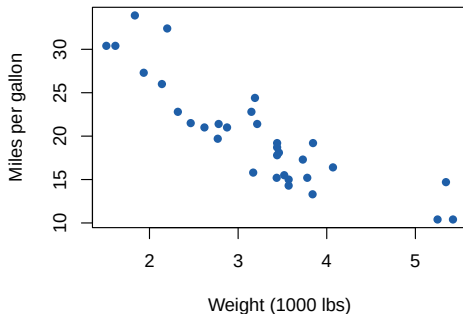
`points()`, `lines()`,
`abline()`, `text()`,
`legend()`.

Data: built-in `mtcars`, 32 cars (1973–74 models).

Scatter plot

```
par(mar = c(4, 4, 1, 1))
plot(mtcars$wt, mtcars$mpg,
     pch = 16, col = col_main,
     xlab = "Weight (1000 lbs)",
     ylab = "Miles per gallon")
```

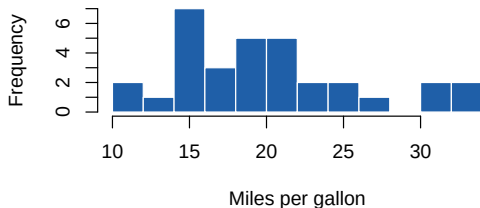
- `pch = 16`: solid circles
- `xlab, ylab`: always label axes with units



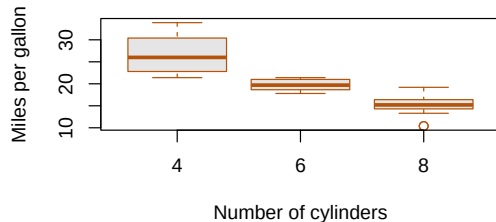
Heavier cars travel fewer miles per gallon: a strong negative relationship, $r = -0.87$.

Histogram and box plot

```
par(mar = c(4, 4, 1, 1))
hist(mtcars$mpg, breaks = 10, main = "",
     col = col_main, border = "white",
     xlab = "Miles per gallon",
     ylab = "Frequency")
```



```
par(mar = c(4, 4, 1, 1))
boxplot(mpg ~ cyl, data = mtcars,
       col = "grey90", border = col_alt,
       xlab = "Number of cylinders",
       ylab = "Miles per gallon")
```



Reading the two graphs

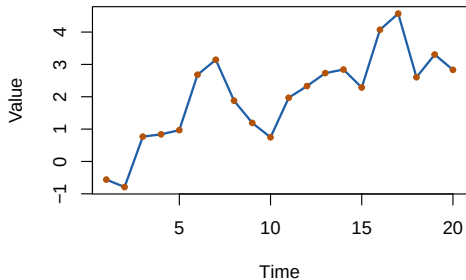
Histogram Fuel economy ranges from 10.4 to 33.9 mpg and is slightly right-skewed: a few very economical cars. `breaks = 10` is only a suggestion; R picks “pretty” class limits near it.

Box plot The formula `mpg ~ cyl` draws one box per group. Median mpg falls from 26 (4 cylinders) to 15.2 (8 cylinders), and the groups barely overlap.

Box plot anatomy The box spans the quartiles Q_1 to Q_3 , the line inside is the median, whiskers reach the most extreme values within $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$ of the box, and points beyond are drawn individually.

Line plot

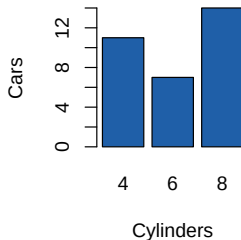
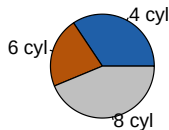
```
set.seed(123)
walk <- cumsum(rnorm(20)) # a random walk
par(mar = c(4, 4, 1, 1))
plot(walk, type = "l", lwd = 2,
     col = col_main, xlab = "Time",
     ylab = "Value")
points(walk, pch = 20, col = col_alt)
```



`type = "l"` joins points in order; `points()` adds the observations; `set.seed()` makes the simulation reproducible.

Bar chart and pie chart

```
cyl_counts <- table(mtcars$cyl); cyl_counts  
  
##  
## 4 6 8  
## 11 7 14  
  
par(mfrow = c(1, 2), mar = c(4, 4, 1, 1))  
barplot(cyl_counts, col = col_main,  
        xlab = "Cylinders", ylab = "Cars")  
pie(cyl_counts, labels = paste(  
    names(cyl_counts), "cyl"),  
    col = c(col_main, col_alt, "grey75"))
```

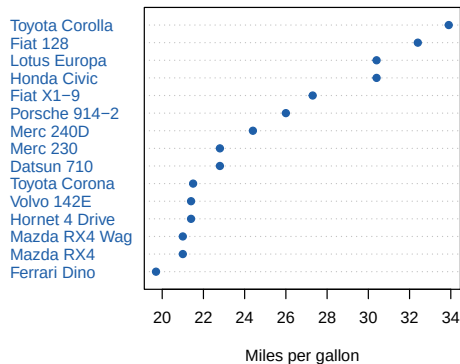


Prefer the bar chart Lengths are judged more accurately than angles; keep pies for a few parts of one whole, never in 3-D.

Dot chart

```
mt <- mtcars[order(mtcars$mpg), ]  
top15 <- tail(mt, 15) # 15 highest mpg  
par(mar = c(4, 1, 1, 1))  
dotchart(top15$mpg,  
  labels = row.names(top15),  
  cex = 0.8, pch = 19,  
  col = col_main,  
  xlab = "Miles per gallon")
```

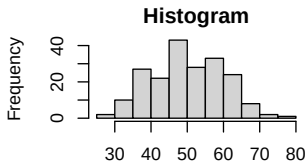
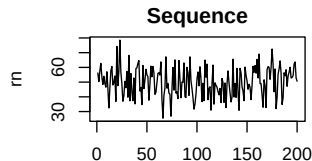
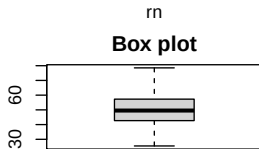
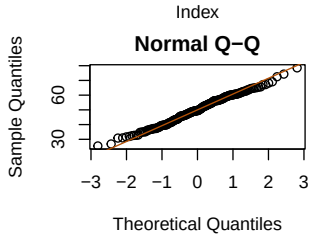
A Cleveland dot chart replaces bars by dots, so many named cases fit. Sorting first with `order()` turns it into a ranking.



Several plots on one page with par()

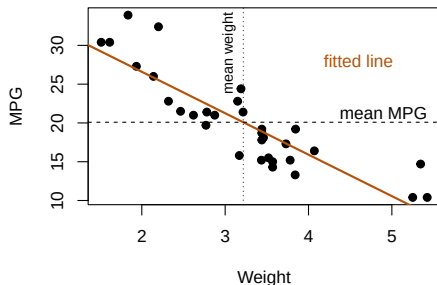
```
set.seed(2025)
rn <- rnorm(200, mean = 50, sd = 10)
par(mfrow = c(2, 2),
    mar = c(4, 4, 2, 1))
hist(rn, main = "Histogram")
plot(rn, type = "l", main = "Sequence")
boxplot(rn, main = "Box plot")
qqnorm(rn, main = "Normal Q-Q")
qqline(rn, col = col_alt)
```

mfrow = c(2, 2): a 2×2 grid,
filled by rows. Q-Q points on the
line: normal data.



Adding annotations

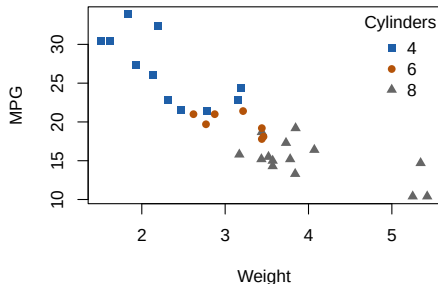
```
fit <- lm(mpg ~ wt, data = mtcars)
par(mar = c(4, 4, 1, 1))
plot(mtcars$wt, mtcars$mpg, pch = 19,
     xlab = "Weight", ylab = "MPG")
abline(fit, col = col_alt, lwd = 2)
abline(h = mean(mtcars$mpg), lty = 2)
abline(v = mean(mtcars$wt), lty = 3)
text(4.6, 28, "fitted line", col = col_alt)
text(4.9, 21.3, "mean MPG")
text(3.05, 29, "mean weight", srt = 90,
     cex = 0.8)
```



`abline()` adds fitted or reference lines (lty: 2 dashed, 3 dotted); `text()` writes at (x, y) ; `srt = 90` rotates.

Groups, colours and a legend

```
grp <- factor(mtcars$cyl)
cols <- c(col_main, col_alt, "grey40")
shps <- c(15, 16, 17)
par(mar = c(4, 4, 1, 1))
plot(mtcars$wt, mtcars$mpg,
     pch = shps[grp], col = cols[grp],
     xlab = "Weight", ylab = "MPG")
legend("topright", title = "Cylinders",
     legend = levels(grp), pch = shps,
     col = cols, bty = "n")
```



Indexing `shps` and `cols` by the factor gives each group its own symbol and colour; `legend()` must reuse the *same* vectors.

Plot options and saving a graph

Argument	Controls
type	"p", "l", "b" (both)
pch	symbol (1–25)
lty, lwd	line type and width
col	colour; see <code>colors()</code>
main, xlab	title, axis label
xlim, ylim	axis ranges
cex	text and symbol size

```
pdf("weight_mpg.pdf", width = 6, height = 4)
plot(mtcars$wt, mtcars$mpg, pch = 19)
dev.off()                                # closes the file

png("weight_mpg.png", width = 1800,
    height = 1200, res = 300)
plot(mtcars$wt, mtcars$mpg, pch = 19)
dev.off()
```

PDF scales without blurring (best for a thesis); a 300 dpi PNG suits Word and slides.

Key take-aways

1. **Work in scripts and projects:** relative paths and saved code make the analysis reproducible.
2. **Think in vectors:** arithmetic, summaries and selection act on whole vectors.
3. **Check every import** with `dim()`, `head()` and `str()`: types, dates and missing values.
4. **Prefer vectorised functions and the apply family** to hand-written loops; `tapply()` gives group summaries in one line.
5. **Choose the graph from the question**, label axes with units, and keep legends consistent with the plot.

Next session Application of R for data analysis in social science research: the ITO air-quality data from research question to model.

References

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Thank you

Questions and discussion