# Vectors and Data Types 

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## Warmup

1. In the lecture, we covered $c(),:, \operatorname{rep}(), \operatorname{seq}(), \operatorname{rnorm}()$, runif () among other ways to create vectors. Use each of these functions once as you create the vectors required below.
a. Create an integer vector from 2 to 30 .
```
c(2:30)
```

\#\# [1] $2 \begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllllllllll} & 3 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 & 13 & 14 & 15 & 16 & 17 & 18 & 19 & 20 & 21 & 22 & 23 & 24 & 25\end{array} 26$
\#\# [26] $27 \quad 28 \quad 2930$
b. Create a numeric vector with 60 draws from the 'r'andom 'unif'orm distribution

```
runif(60)
```

| \#\# | [1] | 0.65773607 | 0.53362365 | 0.24225258 | 0.86635810 | 0.46082582 | 0.34368971 |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| \#\# | [7] | 0.71957400 | 0.11335664 | 0.84938542 | 0.40154480 | 0.40909820 | 0.46718600 |
| \#\# [13] | 0.86902185 | 0.33799385 | 0.12935275 | 0.44847607 | 0.75017009 | 0.59106156 |  |
| \#\# [19] | 0.20153780 | 0.51135853 | 0.64671043 | 0.97185054 | 0.09127655 | 0.75520945 |  |
| \#\# [25] | 0.36952501 | 0.55626911 | 0.11685529 | 0.92937492 | 0.05421800 | 0.51976355 |  |
| \#\# [31] | 0.88522772 | 0.30987652 | 0.95355235 | 0.90395567 | 0.66711933 | 0.78348735 |  |
| \#\# [37] | 0.92984318 | 0.40780228 | 0.10496608 | 0.74841144 | 0.01306007 | 0.53363228 |  |
| \#\# [43] | 0.02374849 | 0.80085629 | 0.72217348 | 0.75620470 | 0.23792516 | 0.76417311 |  |
| \#\# [49] | 0.39960052 | 0.81372132 | 0.43421472 | 0.82531859 | 0.12592431 | 0.88341204 |  |
| \#\# [55] | 0.21846332 | 0.65563960 | 0.15749268 | 0.67175733 | 0.67940514 | 0.62122374 |  |

c. Create a character vector with the letter "x" repeated 1980 times.

```
rep("x", 1980)
d. Create a character vector of length 5 with the items "Nothing" "works" "unless" "you" "do". Call thi
angelou_quote <- c("Nothing", "works", "unless", "you", "do")
e. Create a numeric vector with 1e4 draws^[This is scientific notation. Try '1e4 - 1 + 1' in the consol
rnorm(1e4)
f. Create an integer vector with the numbers 0, 2, 4, ... 20.
seq(0, 20, length.out=11)
## [1] 0
```

2. Try to guess the output of the following code:
a <- 3
$\mathrm{b}<-\mathrm{a} 2+1$

Answer: 10
4. Now try to guess again:
$\mathrm{a}<-\mathrm{c}(1,2,3)$
$b<-a^{\wedge} 2+1$

Answer: c(2, 5, 10)
5. Will this one run? If it does, what will it return? Will R complain?
$\mathrm{a}<-\mathrm{c}(1,2,3)$
$b<-a \wedge 2+c(1,2)$

Answer: It will run and return c(2, 6, 10), but R will complain because the last vector is shorter than the previous one and is not a multiple of it.
6. Finally, what about this one?
$\mathrm{a}<-\mathrm{c}(1,2)$
$b<-a^{\wedge} 2+c(1,2,3,4)$

Answer: This one will run and return $\mathrm{c}(2,6,4,8)$, and R will not complain because the vectors' lengths are multiples of each other - the shorter vector gets recycled for the second.

## Calculating Mean and Standard Deviation

## Calculating the Mean

In this exercise, we will calculate the mean of a vector of random numbers. We will practice assigning new variables and using functions in R.
We can run the following code to create a vector of 1000 random numbers. The function set.seed() ensures that the process used to generate random numbers is the same across computers.

Note: rf () is a R command we use to generate 1000 random numbers according to the F distribution, and 10 and 100 are parameters that specify how "peaked" the distribution is.

```
set.seed(1)
random_numbers <- rf(1000, 10, 100)
```

Write code that gives you the sum of random_numbers and saves it to a new variable called numbers_sum:

```
numbers_sum <- sum(random_numbers)
numbers_sum
```

\#\# [1] 1018.126

Note: You don't automatically see the output of numbers_sum when you assign it to a variable. Type numbers_sum into the console and run it to see the value that you assigned it.

Write code that gives you the number of items in the random_numbers vector and saves it to a new variable called numbers_count:
numbers_count <- length(random_numbers)

Hint: To count the number of items in a vector, use the length() function.
Now write code that uses the above two variables to calculate the average of random_numbers and assign it to a new variable called this_mean.

```
this_mean <- numbers_sum/numbers_count
this_mean
```

```
## [1] 1.018126
```

What number did you get? It should have been 1.018. If it isn't, double check your code!
$R$ actually has a built in function to calculate the mean for you, so you don't have to remember how to build it from scratch each time! Check your above answer by using the mean() function on the random_numbers vector.

```
mean(random_numbers)
```

\#\# [1] 1.018126

## Calculating the Standard Deviation

Now that you've got that under your fingers, let's move on to standard deviation.
We will be converting the following formula for calculating the sample standard deviation into code:
$s=\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}{n-1}}$
For this, we'll review the concept of vectorization. This means that an operation like subtraction will act on all numbers in a vector at the same time.

Subtract this_mean from the random_numbers vector. Did each number in random_numbers change?

```
vectorized <- random_numbers - this_mean
```

Answer: Each number in the vector random_numbers did not change, because it's particular value is saved in our global environment from previous.

Try to write the formula for standard deviation in R code using the sqrt(), sum(), and length() functions, along with other operators ( $\left.{ }^{\wedge}, /,-\right)$. Assign it to a new variable called this_sd. Watch out for your parentheses!

```
this_sd <- sqrt(sum((random_numbers - this_mean) ~ 2) / (length(random_numbers) - 1))
this_sd
```

\#\# [1] 0.489704

Hint: Fill in the following formula: $\qquad$ $<-$ sqrt(sum $\qquad$ - this_mean) ^ 2) / (length (___) - 1) )

What number did you get for this_sd, or the standard deviation of random_numbers? If you didn't get 0.489704 , recheck your code!
$R$ also has a built in function for standard deviation. Check if you calculated the standard deviation correctly by using the sd() function on the random_numbers vector.

```
sd(random_numbers)
```

```
## [1] 0.489704
```


## Making a Histogram of Our Numbers

What do these random numbers look like, anyway? We can use base plotting in R to visualize the distribution of our random numbers.

1. Run the following code to visualize the original distribution of random_numbers as a histogram.
```
hist(random_numbers)
```

Histogram of random_numbers

2. You could also visualize this with ggplot but there are some extra steps. ggplot typically expects a data frame (tibble) in the first position so we need to explicitly tell it that the first position has the aesthetic mapping.
library(ggplot2)
\#\# Warning: package 'ggplot2' was built under $R$ version 4.0.5
ggplot(mapping = aes(x = random_numbers)) +
geom_histogram()
\#\# 'stat_bin()' using 'bins $=30$ '. Pick better value with 'binwidth'.


Notice how most of the values are concentrated on the left-hand side of the graph, while there is a longer "tail" to the right? Counterintuitively, this is known as a right-skewed distribution. When we see a distribution like this, one common thing to do is to normalize it.
This is also known as calculating a z-score, which we will cover next.

## Calculating a Z-Score

The formula for calculating a z-score for a single value, or normalizing that value, is as follows:
$z=\frac{x-\bar{x}}{s}$
This can be calculated for each value in random_numbers in context of the larger set of values.
Can you translate this formula into code?
Using random_numbers, this_mean, and this_sd that are already in your environment, write a formula to transform all the values in random_numbers into z-scores, and assign it to the new variable normalized_data.

```
normalized_data <- (random_numbers - this_mean) / this_sd
```

Hint: $R$ is vectorized, so you can subtract the mean from each random number in random_numbers in a straightforward way.

Take the mean of normalized_data and assign it to a variable called normalized_mean.
Note: If you see something that ends in "e-16", that means that it's a very small decimal number (16 places to the right of the decimal point), and is essentially 0.

```
normalized_mean <- sum(normalized_data) / length(normalized_data)
# or
normalized_mean <- mean(normalized_data)
```

Take the standard deviation of normalized_data and assign it to a variable called normalized_sd.

```
normalized_sd <- sqrt(sum((normalized_data) - 2) / (length(normalized_data) - 1))
# or
normalized_sd <- sd(normalized_data)
```

What is the value of normalized_mean? What is the value of normalized_sd? You should get a vector that is mean zero and has a standard deviation of one, because the data has been normalized.

```
normalized_mean
```

\#\# [1] -1.553267e-16
normalized_sd
\#\# [1] 1

## Making a Histogram of Z-scores

Let's plot the z-scores and see if our values are still skewed. How does this compare to the histogram of random_numbers?

```
hist(normalized_data)
```

Histogram of normalized_data


Is the resulting data skewed?
Answer: This is an example of right-skew distribution of data. We can calculate the mean of this data and see that it is to the right of the median.

## Calculating a T-Score

T-tests are used to determine if two sample means are equal. The formula for calculating a t-score is as follows:
$t=\frac{\bar{x}_{1}-\bar{x}_{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_{1}^{2}}{n_{1}}+\frac{s_{2}^{2}}{n_{2}}}}$
where $\bar{x}_{i}$ is the mean of the first or second set of data, $s_{i}$ is the sample standard deviation of the first or second set of data, and $n_{i}$ is the sample size of the $i$ th set of data.

We'll first create two data sets of random numbers following a normal distribution:

```
set.seed(1)
data_1 <- rnorm(1000, 3)
data_2 <- rnorm(100, 2)
```

Here's how we'll calculate the mean ( $\mathrm{x}_{\mathbf{\prime}}$ ), standard deviation ( $\mathrm{s}_{-} 1$ ), and sample size ( $\mathrm{n}_{-} 1$ ) of the first data set:

```
x_1 <- mean(data_1)
s_1 <- sd(data_1)
n_1 <- length(data_1)
```

What numeric types do you get from doing this? Try running the typeof() function on each of $\mathrm{x}_{\mathbf{\prime}} 1$, $\mathrm{s}_{\mathbf{\prime}} 1$, and $n_{\_} 1$. We have you started with $x_{\_} 1$.

```
typeof(x_1)
## [1] "double"
typeof(s_1)
## [1] "double"
typeof(n_1)
## [1] "integer"
```

What object type is $n_{-} 1$ ? Answer: $n_{-} 1$ is "integer" type
Can you calculate the same values for data_2, assigning mean, standard deviation, and length to the variables of $x_{-} 2, s_{\_} 2$, and $n_{\_} 2$, respectively?

```
x_2 <- mean(data_2)
s_2 <- sd(data_2)
n_2 <- length(data_2)
```

What values do you get for $x_{-} 2$ and $s_{\mathbf{\prime}} 2$ ?
x_2
\#\# [1] 1.989683
s_2
\#\# [1] 1.029709

Answer: We get 1.99 and 1.03 for $x_{\_} 2$ and s_2 respectively
Now, you should be able to translate the t-score formula $\left(\frac{\bar{x}_{1}-\bar{x}_{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_{1}^{2}}{n_{1}}+\frac{s_{2}^{2}}{n_{2}}}}\right)$ into code, based on the above calculated values.

```
t_score <- (x_1 - x_2)/(sqrt((s_1^2/n_1 + s_2^2/n__2)))
t_score
## [1] 9.242949
```

What did you get for the t-score? You should have gotten 9.243 , if not, double check your code!
The t-score's meaning depends on your sample size, but in general t-scores close to 0 imply that the means are not statistically distinguishable, and large t-scores (e.g. $\mathrm{t}>3$ ) imply the data have different means.

## Performing a T-Test

Once again, R has a built in function that will perform a T-test for us, aptly named t.test(). Look up the arguments the function t.test() takes, and perform a T-test on data_1 and data_2.

```
t.test(data_1, data_2)
##
## Welch Two Sample t-test
##
## data: data_1 and data_2
## t = 9.2429, df = 119.89, p-value = 1.099e-15
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.7847422 1.2125955
## sample estimates:
## mean of x mean of y
## 2.988352 1.989683
```

What are the sample means, and are they distinguishable from each other?
Answer: The mean of data_1 is 2.988 , the mean of data_2 is 1.990 , and they are distinguishable from each other.

Well done! You've learned how to work with R to calculate basic statistics. We've had you generate a few by hand, but be sure to use the built-in functions in R in the future.

Extra time? Try writing some of this code into a new R script on your own computer.
Want to improve this tutorial? Report any suggestions/bugs/improvements on Github here! We're interested in learning from you how we can make this tutorial better.

