# Introduction to the R Language Data Types and Basic Operations 

## Starting Up

- Windows: Double-click on "R"
- Mac OS X: Click on "R"
- Unix: Type "R"


## Objects

R has five basic or "atomic" classes of objects:

- character
- numeric (real numbers)
- integer
- complex
- logical (True/False)

The most basic object is a vector

- A vector can only contain objects of the same class
- BUT: The one exception is a list, which is represented as a vector but can contain objects of different classes (indeed, that's usually why we use them)
Empty vectors can be created with the vector() function.


## Numbers

- Numbers in R a generally treated as numeric objects (i.e. double precision real numbers)
- If you explicitly want an integer, you need to specify the L suffix
- Ex: Entering 1 gives you a numeric object; entering 1L explicitly gives you an integer.
- There is also a special number Inf which represents infinity; e.g. $1 / 0$; Inf can be used in ordinary calculations; e.g. 1 / Inf is 0
- The value NaN represents an undefined value ("not a number"); e.g. $0 / 0 ; \mathrm{NaN}$ can also be thought of as a missing value (more on that later)


## Attributes

R objects can have attributes

- names, dimnames
- dimensions (e.g. matrices, arrays)
- class
- length
- other user-defined attributes/metadata

Attributes of an object can be accessed using the attributes() function.

## Entering Input

At the R prompt we type expressions. The <- symbol is the assignment operator.
> $\mathrm{x}<-1$
$>$ print(x)
[1] 1
> x
[1] 1
> msg <- "hello"
The grammar of the language determines whether an expression is complete or not.
> x <- \#\# Incomplete expression
The \# character indicates a comment. Anything to the right of the \# (including the \# itself) is ignored.

## Evaluation

When a complete expression is entered at the prompt, it is evaluated and the result of the evaluated expression is returned. The result may be auto-printed.
> x <- 5 \#\# nothing printed
> $\mathrm{x} \quad$ \#\# auto-printing occurs
[1] 5
> print(x) \#\# explicit printing
[1] 5
The [1] indicates that x is a vector and 5 is the first element.

## Printing

$>x<-1: 20$
$>\mathrm{x}$
[1] $1 \begin{array}{lllllllllllllllll} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 & 13 & 14 & 15\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { [16] } & 16 & 17 & 18 & 19 & 20\end{array}$
The : operator is used to create integer sequences.

## Creating Vectors

The c() function can be used to create vectors of objects.

| $>x<-c(0.5,0.6)$ | \#\# numeric |
| :--- | :--- |
| $>x<-c(T R U E$, FALSE $)$ | \#\# logical |
| $>x<-c(T, F)$ | \#\# logical |
| $>x<-c(" a ", ~ " b ", ~ " c ")$ | \#\# character |
| $>x<-9: 29$ | \#\# integer |
| $>x<-c(1+0 i, 2+4 i)$ | \#\# complex |

Using the vector() function
> x <- vector("numeric", length = 10)
$>\mathrm{x}$
[1] 00000000000

## Mixing Objects

What about the following?
> y <- c(1, "a") \#\# character
> y <- c(TRUE, 2) \#\# numeric
> y <- c("a", TRUE) \#\# character
When different objects are mixed in a vector, coercion occurs so that every element in the vector is of the same class.

## Explicit Coercion

Objects can be explicitly coerced from one class to another using the as.* functions, if available.
> $x<-0: 6$
> class(x)
[1] "integer"
> as.numeric(x)
[1] 0123456
> as.logical(x)
[1] FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE
$>$ as.character ( x )
[1] "0" "1" "2" "3" "4" "5" "6"
> as.complex(x)
[1] 0+0i 1+0i 2+0i 3+0i 4+0i 5+0i 6+0i

## Explicit Coercion

Nonsensical coercion results in NAs.
> x <- c("a", "b", "c")
$>$ as.numeric (x)
[1] NA NA NA
Warning message:
NAs introduced by coercion
> as.logical(x)
[1] NA NA NA

## Matrices

Matrices are vectors with a dimension attribute. The dimension attribute is itself an integer vector of length 2 (nrow, ncol)
$>\mathrm{m}<-\operatorname{matrix}($ nrow $=2$, ncol $=3$ )
$>\mathrm{m}$
[,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] NA NA NA
[2,] NA NA NA
$>\operatorname{dim}(m)$
[1] 23
> attributes(m)
\$dim
[1] 23

## Matrices (cont'd)

Matrices are constructed column-wise, so entries can be thought of starting in the "upper left" corner and running down the columns.
$>\mathrm{m}<-\operatorname{matrix}(1: 6$, nrow $=2$, ncol = 3)
$>\mathrm{m}$
[,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 1135
$[2] \quad 2 \quad 4 \quad$,

## Matrices (cont'd)

Matrices can also be created directly from vectors by adding a dimension attribute.
> m <- 1:10
$>\mathrm{m}$

$\quad[1]$| $[1$ | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $>$ | $\operatorname{dim}(m)$ | $<-$ | $c(2$, | $5)$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $>m$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


|  | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ | $[, 4]$ | $[, 5]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $[1]$, | 1 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 |
| $[2]$, | 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 |

## cbind-ing and rbind-ing

Matrices can be created by column-binding or row-binding with cbind() and rbind().
$>x<-1: 3$
$>y<-10: 12$
$>$ cbind (x, y)
$\mathrm{x} \quad \mathrm{y}$
[1,] 110
$[2]$,
$[3]$,
> rbind (x, y)
[,1] [,2] [,3]
$\begin{array}{lrrr}\mathrm{x} & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \mathrm{y} & 10 & 11 & 12\end{array}$

## Missing Values

Missing values are denoted by NA or NaN for undefined mathematical operations.

- is.na() is used to test objects if they are NA
- is.nan() is used to test for NaN
- NA values have a class also, so there are integer NA, character NA, etc.
- A NaN value is also NA but the converse is not true


## Missing Values

$>x<-c(1,2, N A, 10,3)$
> is.na(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE
> is.nan(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
> $\mathrm{x}<-\mathrm{c}(1,2, \mathrm{NaN}, \mathrm{NA}, 4)$
$>$ is.na(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE FALSE
> is.nan(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE

## Lists

Lists are a special type of vector that can contain elements of different classes. Lists are a very important data type in R and you should get to know them well.
> x <- list(1, "a", TRUE, 1 + 4i)
> x
[[1]]
[1] 1
[[2]]
[1] "a"
[[3]]
[1] TRUE
[[4]]
[1] $1+4 i$

Factors are used to represent categorical data. Factors can be unordered or ordered. One can think of a factor as an integer vector where each integer has a label.

- Factors are treated specially by modelling functions like $\operatorname{lm}()$ and $\operatorname{glm}()$
- Using factors with labels is better than using integers because factors are self-describing; having a variable that has values "Male" and "Female" is better than a variable that has values 1 and 2.
> x <- factor(c("yes", "yes", "no", "yes", "no"))
$>\mathrm{x}$
[1] yes yes no yes no
Levels: no yes
> table(x)
x
no yes
23
> unclass(x)
[1] 22121
attr(, "levels")
[1] "no" "yes"

The order of the levels can be set using the levels argument to factor(). This can be important in linear modelling because the first level is used as the baseline level.
> x <- factor(c("yes", "yes", "no", "yes", "no"), levels = c("yes", "no"))
> x
[1] yes yes no yes no
Levels: yes no

## Data Frames

Data frames are used to store tabular data

- They are represented as a special type of list where every element of the list has to have the same length
- Each element of the list can be thought of as a column and the length of each element of the list is the number of rows
- Unlike matrices, data frames can store different classes of objects in each column (just like lists); matrices must have every element be the same class
- Data frames also have a special attribute called row. names
- Data frames are usually created by calling read.table() or read.csv()
- Can be converted to a matrix by calling data.matrix()


## Data Frames

```
> \(\mathrm{x}<-\) data.frame(foo = 1:4, bar = c(T, T, F, F))
\(>\mathrm{x}\)
    foo bar
11 TRUE
22 TRUE
3 FALSE
44 FALSE
> nrow(x)
[1] 4
> ncol(x)
[1] 2
```

R objects can also have names, which is very useful for writing readable code and self-describing objects.
$>x<-1: 3$
$>$ names ( x )
NULL
> names (x) <- c("foo", "bar", "norf")
$>\mathrm{x}$
foo bar norf
123
$>$ names (x)
[1] "foo" "bar" "norf"

## Names

Lists can also have names.
$>\mathrm{x}<-\operatorname{list}(\mathrm{a}=1, \mathrm{~b}=2, \mathrm{c}=3)$
$>\mathrm{x}$
\$a
[1] 1
\$b
[1] 2
\$c
[1] 3

## Names

And matrices.
> m <- matrix (1:4, nrow = 2, ncol = 2)
> dimnames(m) <- list(c("a", "b"), c("c", "d"))
> m
c d
a 13
b 24

There are a number of operators that can be used to extract subsets of $R$ objects.

- [ always returns an object of the same class as the original; can be used to select more than one element (there is one exception)
- [ [ is used to extract elements of a list or a data frame; it can only be used to extract a single element and the class of the returned object will not necessarily be a list or data frame
- \$ is used to extract elements of a list or data frame by name; semantics are similar to hat of [ [.


## Subsetting

> x <- c("a", "b", "c", "c", "d", "a")
$>x[1]$
[1] "a"
$>x[2]$
[1] "b"
$>x[1: 4]$
[1] "a" "b" "c" "c"
> $x[x>" a "]$
[1] "b" "c" "c" "d"
> u <- x > "a"
$>\mathrm{u}$
[1] FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE FALSE
$>x[u]$
[1] "b" "c" "c" "d"

## Subsetting a Matrix

Matrices can be subsetted in the usual way with $(i, j)$ type indices.
$>x<-\operatorname{matrix}(1: 6,2,3)$
$>x[1,2]$
[1] 3
$>\mathrm{x}[2,1]$
[1] 2
Indices can also be missing.
> $\mathrm{x}[1$, ]
[1] 135
$>x[, 2]$
[1] 34

## Subsetting a Matrix

By default, when a single element of a matrix is retrieved, it is returned as a vector of length 1 rather than a $1 \times 1$ matrix. This behavior can be turned off by setting drop $=$ FALSE.
$>x<-\operatorname{matrix}(1: 6,2,3)$
$>x[1,2]$
[1] 3
$>\mathrm{x}[1,2$, drop $=$ FALSE $]$
[,1]
[1,] 3

## Subsetting a Matrix

Similarly, subsetting a single column or a single row will give you a vector, not a matrix (by default).
> $x$ <- matrix $(1: 6,2,3)$
$>x[1$,
[1] 135
> $\mathrm{x}[1$, , drop $=$ FALSE $]$
[,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] $1 \begin{array}{lll} & 3\end{array}$

## Subsetting Lists

$>\mathrm{x}<-\operatorname{list}(\mathrm{foo}=1: 4$, bar $=0.6)$
$>x[1]$
\$foo
[1] 1234
> $x[[1]]$
[1] 1234
> x\$bar
[1] 0.6
> x[["bar"]]
[1] 0.6
> x["bar"]
\$bar
[1] 0.6

## Subsetting Lists

Extracting multiple elements of a list.
> $x$ <- list (foo = 1:4, bar = 0.6, baz = "hello")
$>x[c(1,3)]$
\$foo
[1] 1234
\$baz
[1] "hello"

## Subsetting Lists

The [ [ operator can be used with computed indices; \$ can only be used with literal names.
> $x$ <- list (foo = 1:4, bar = 0.6, baz = "hello")
> name <- "foo"
$>$ x[[name]] \#\# computed index for 'foo'
[1] 1234
> x\$name \#\# element 'name' doesn't exist!
NULL
> x\$foo
[1] 1234 \#\# element 'foo' does exist

## Subsetting Nested Elements of a List

The [ [ can take an integer sequence.
> $\mathrm{x}<-\operatorname{list}(\mathrm{a}=$ list(10, 12, 14), $\mathrm{b}=\mathrm{c}(3.14,2.81)$ )
$>x[[c(1,3)]]$
[1] 14
> $x[[1]][[3]]$
[1] 14
> $x[[c(2,1)]]$
[1] 3.14

## Partial Matching

Partial matching of names is allowed with [ [ and \$.
> $\mathrm{x}<-$ list(aardvark = 1:5)
$>\mathrm{x} \$ \mathrm{a}$
[1] $1 \begin{array}{lllll}2 & 3 & 4\end{array}$
> x[["a"]]
[1] 12345
Warning message:
In $x[[" a "]]$ : partial match of 'a' to 'aardvark'

## Removing NA Values

A common task is to remove missing values (NAs).
$>x<-c(1,2, N A, 4, N A, 5)$
> bad <- is.na(x)
$>x[!$ bad]
[1] 1245

## Removing NA Values

What if there are multiple things and you want to take the subset with no missing values?

```
> x <- c(1, 2, NA, 4, NA, 5)
> y <- c("a", "b", NA, "d", NA, "f")
> good <- complete.cases(x, y)
> good
[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE
> x[good]
[1] 1 2 4 5
> y[good]
[1] "a" "b" "d" "f"
```


## Removing NA Values

> airquality[1:6, ]
Ozone Solar.R Wind Temp Month Day

| 1 | 41 | 190 | 7.4 | 67 | 5 | 1 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 2 | 36 | 118 | 8.0 | 72 | 5 | 2 |
| 3 | 12 | 149 | 12.6 | 74 | 5 | 3 |
| 4 | 18 | 313 | 11.5 | 62 | 5 | 4 |
| 5 | NA | NA | 14.3 | 56 | 5 | 5 |
| 6 | 28 | NA | 14.9 | 66 | 5 | 6 |

> good <- complete.cases(airquality)
> airquality [good, ][1:6, ]
Ozone Solar.R Wind Temp Month Day

| 1 | 41 | 190 | 7.4 | 67 | 5 | 1 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 2 | 36 | 118 | 8.0 | 72 | 5 | 2 |
| 3 | 12 | 149 | 12.6 | 74 | 5 | 3 |
| 4 | 18 | 313 | 11.5 | 62 | 5 | 4 |
| 7 | 23 | 299 | 8.6 | 65 | 5 | 7 |
| 8 | 19 | 99 | 13.8 | 59 | 5 | 8 |

## Vectorized Operations

Many operations in R are vectorized making code more efficient, concise, and easier to read.
$>x<-1: 4 ; y<-6: 9$
$>\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{y}$
[1] $7 \begin{array}{llll}7 & 9 & 11\end{array}$
> x > 2
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE
> $\mathrm{x}>=2$
[1] FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE
> y == 8
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE
> $\mathrm{x} * \mathrm{y}$
[1] $614 \quad 2436$
> x / y
[1] 0.16666670 .28571430 .37500000 .4444444

## Vectorized Matrix Operations

```
> x <- matrix(1:4, 2, 2); y <- matrix(rep(10, 4), 2, 2)
> x * y ## element-wise multiplication
        [,1] [,2]
[1,] 10 30
[2,] 20 40
> x / y
    [,1] [,2]
[1,] 0.1 0.3
[2,] 0.2 0.4
> x %*% y ## true matrix multiplication
    [,1] [,2]
[1,] 40 40
[2,] 60 60
```

