Matrices and Arrays

Bok, Jong Soon javaexpert@nate.com www.javaexpert.info

Matrices

- Are a vector with two additional attributes: the number of rows and the number of columns.
- Since matrices are vectors, they also have modes, such as numeric and character.

Arrays

- Can be multidimensional.
- For example, a three-dimensional array would consist of rows, columns, and layers, not just rows and columns as in the matrix case.

Creating Matrices

- matrix(data, nrow, ncol, byrow, dimnames)
 - data is the input vector which becomes the data elements of the matrix.
 - nrow is the number of rows to be created.
 - ncol is the number of columns to be created.
 - byrow is a logical clue. If **TRUE** then the input vector elements are arranged by row.
 - dimname is the names assigned to the rows and columns.

- Matrix row and column subscripts begin with 1.
- For example, the upper-left corner of the matrix a is denoted a [1,1].
- The internal storage of a matrix is in *column-major order*, meaning that first all of column 1 is stored, then all of column 2, and so on.

One way to create a matrix is by using the matrix()

function:

```
Console ~/ ♠
 > y <- matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 4), nrow=2, ncol=2)
 > y
      [,1] [,2]
 [1,] 1 3
[2,] 2 4
 > y <- matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 4), nrow=2)
 > y
      [,1] [,2]
 [1,] 1 3
[2,] 2 4
```

 When print out y, R shows its notation for rows and columns.

```
> y[, 2]
[1] 3 4
```

Another way to build y is to specify elements

individually:

```
Console ~/ 🙈
> y <- matrix(nrow=2, ncol=2)</pre>
> y[1,1] <- 1
> y[2,1] <- 2
> y[1,2] <- 3
> y[2,2] <- 4
     [,1] [,2]
[2,\bar{]} 2 4
```

• Though internal storage of a matrix is in *column-major* order, you can set the byrow argument in matrix() to true to indicate that the data is coming in *row-major*

order.

```
Console ~/ 	 > m <- matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), nrow=2, byrow=TRUE) > m

[,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 1 2 3
[2,] 4 5 6
>
```

General Matrix Operations

Performing Linear Algebra Operations on Matrices.

```
Console ~/ 🖒
> # Mathematical matrix multiplication
> y
> y %*% y
     [,1] [,2]
[2,]
> # Mathematical multiplication of matrix by scalar
> 3 * y
     [,1] [,2]
[2,]
> # Mathematical matrix addition
> y + y
     [,1] [,2]
```

Matrix Indexing

```
Console ~/ 🙈
> z <- matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0), nrow=4)
> Z
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
[2,]
[3,]
[4,]
> z[, 2:3]
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,]
[3,]
[4,]
```

```
Console ~/ 🗇
> y <- matrix(c(11, 12, 21, 22, 31, 32), nrow=3, byrow = T)
> y
     [,1] [,2]
     11 12
[1,]
[2,] 21 22
[3,] 31 32
> y[2:3,]
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 21 22
[2,] 31 32
> y[2:3, 2]
[1] 22 32
>
```

```
Console ~/ 🙈
> y <- matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), nrow=3)
> y
    [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,] 2 5
[3,]
> y[c(1, 3), ] <- matrix(c(1, 1, 8, 12), nrow=2)
    [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,] 2 5
[3,] 1 12
```

```
Console ~/ 🖒
> x <- matrix(nrow=3, ncol=3)</pre>
> y <- matrix(c(4, 5, 2, 3), nrow=2)
> y
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,]
> x[2:3, 2:3] <- y
> X
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,]
       NA NA NA
[2,]
    NA 4 2
       NA 5
[3,]
```

 Negative subscripts, used with vectors to exclude certain elements, work the same way with matrices:

```
Console ~/ 🗇
> y <- matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), nrow=3)
> y
      [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 4
[2,] 2 5
[3,] 3 6
> y[-2, ]
      [,1] [,2]
```

Filtering on Matrices

- Filtering can be done with matrices, just as with vectors.
- You must be careful with the syntax, though.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🔊
> j <- x[,2] >= 3
[1] FALSE TRUE
                 TRUE
> x[j,]
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 2 3
[2,] 3
```

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> x <- matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 2, 3, 4), nrow=3)
> x
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 2
[2,] 2 3
[3,] 3 4
> x[x[, 2] >= 3,]
     [,1] [,2]
```

- The object x[,2] is a vector.
- The operator >= compares two vectors.
- The number 3 was recycled to a vector of 3s.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> x
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 2
    2 3
[2,]
[3,]
> z < -c(5, 12, 13)
> x[z % 2 == 1, ]
    [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 2
```

- The expression z %% 2 == 1
 tests each element of z for being
 an odd number, thus yielding
 (TRUE, FALSE, TRUE).
- As a result, we extracted the first and third rows of x.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> m <- matrix(c(1,2,3,4,5,6), nrow=3)
> m

    First, the expression m[,1] > 1
    compares each element of the first column
    of m to 1 and returns (FALSE, TRUE, TRUE).

          [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1
[2,] 2 5
[3,] 3 6
                                                           • The second expression, m[,2] > 5, similarly returns (FALSE, FALSE, TRUE).

    We then take the logical AND of
(FALSE,TRUE,TRUE) and
(FALSE,FALSE,TRUE), yielding
(FALSE,FALSE,TRUE).

> m[m[,1] > 1 \& m[,2] > 5, ]
[1] 3 6
```

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🗇
> m <- matrix(c(5, 2, 9, -1, 10, 11), nrow=3)
> m
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 5 -1
[2,] 2 10
[3,] 9 11
> which (m > 2)
[1] 1 3 5 6
```

Applying Functions to Matrix Rows and Columns

- One of the most famous and most used features of R is the *apply() family of functions.
- That is, apply(), tapply(), and lapply().
- Here, we'll look at apply (), which instructs R to call a user-specified function on each of the rows or each of the columns of a matrix.

Using the apply() Function

- Is the general form of apply for matrices:
 apply (m, dimcode, f, fargs)
- The arguments:
 - m is the matrix.
 - **dimcode** is the dimension, equal to 1 if the function applies to rows or 2 for columns.
 - f is the function to be applied.
 - fargs is an optional set of arguments to be supplied to f.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🗇
\geq
> z <- matrix(c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), nrow=3)
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 4
[2,] 2 5
[3,] 3 6
> apply(z, 2, mean)
[1] 2 5
```

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,] 2 5
[3,]
> f \leftarrow function(x) x/c(2,8)
> y < - apply(z, 1, f)
> y
     [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 0.5 1.000 1.50
      0.5 0.625 0.75
```

- f() function divides a two-element vector by the vector (2,8).
- Recycling would be used if x had a length longer than 2.
- The call to apply () asks R to call f() on each of the rows of z.
- The first such row is (1,4), so in the call to f(), the actual argument corresponding to the formal argument x is (1,4).
- Thus, R computes the value of (1,4)/(2,8), which in R's element-wise vector arithmetic is (0.5,0.5).

- If the function to be applied returns a vector of k components, then the result of apply () will have k rows.
- Can use the matrix transpose function t() to change it if necessary.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[2,] 2 5
[3,]
function (x) x/c(2,8)
<bytecode: 0x0000000037ae178>
>
> t(apply(z, 1, f))
     [,1] [,2]
      0.5 0.500
[2,] 1.0 0.625
[3,] 1.5 0.750
```

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🗇
> copymaj <- function(rw, d) {</pre>
+ maj \leftarrow sum(rw[1:d]) / d
+ return(if(maj > 0.5) 1 else 0)
+ }
>
> x <- matrix(c(1,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,0,0,1,0), nrow=4)
> x
    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
[1,] 1 0 1 1
[2,] 1 1 1 1 0
[3,] 1 0 0 1 1
[4,] 0 1
> apply(x, 1, copymaj, 3)
[1] 1 1 0 1
> apply(x, 1, copymaj, 2)
[1] 0 1 0 0
```

Adding and Deleting Matrix Rows and Columns

- Technically, matrices are of fixed length and dimensions, so we cannot add or delete rows or columns.
- However, matrices can be reassigned.
- Can achieve the same effect as if we had directly done additions or deletions.

Changing the Size of a Matrix

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> x < -c(12, 5, 13, 16, 8)
> x
[1] 12 5 13 16 8
> x < -c(x, 20) # Append 20
> x
[1] 12 5 13 16 8 20
> x <- c(x[1:3], 20, x[4:6]) # Insert 20
> x
[1] 12 5 13 20 16 8 20
> x <- x[-2:-4] # Delete elements 2 through 4
> x
[1] 12 16 8 20
```

- x is originally of length 5, which we extend to 6 via concatenation and then reassignment.
- We didn't literally change the length of x but instead created a new vector from x and then assigned x to that new vector.

• The rbind() (row bind) and cbind() (column bind) functions let you add rows or columns to a matrix.

```
> one <- c(1, 1, 1, 1)
> one
[1] 1 1 1 1
> z < - matrix(c(1,2,3,4,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,0), nrow=4)
> z
      [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 1 1 1
[2,] 2 1 0
[3,] 3 0 1
[4,] 4 0 0
> cbind(one, z)
     one
[2,] 1 2 1 0
```

cbind () creates a
 new matrix by
 combining a column
 of 1s with the columns
 of z.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 😞
> one
    [,1] [,2] [,3]
[2,] 2 1
[3,] 3 0
[4,]
> cbind(1, z)
    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,] 1 1 1
[2,] 1 2 1
[3,] 1 3
```

 Can also use the rbind() and cbind() functions as a quick way to create small matrices.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 

> q <- cbind(c(1,2), c(3, 4))

> q

        [,1] [,2]

[1,] 1 3

[2,] 2 4
```

• Can delete rows or columns by reassignment.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🔊
> m <- matrix(1:6, nrow=3)
> m
 [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 4
[2,] 2 5
[3,] 3 6
> m < -m[c(1,3),]
> m
 [,1] [,2]
```

More on the Vector/Matrix Distinction

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> z <- matrix(1:8, nrow=4)
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,] 2 6
[3,] 3 7
[4,] 4
> length(z)
> class(z)
[1] "matrix"
> attributes(z)
$dim
```

- As z is still a vector, we can query its length.
- But as a matrix, z is a bit more than a vector.
- Most of R consists of S3 classes.
- S3 components are denoted by dollar signs (\$).
- The matrix class has one attribute, named dim, which is a vector containing the numbers of rows and columns in the matrix.

More on the Vector/Matrix Distinction (Cont.)

You can also obtain dim via the dim() function.

```
> dim(z)
[1] 4 2
```

• The numbers of rows and columns are obtainable individually via the nrow() and ncol() functions.

```
> nrow(z)
[1] 4
>
> ncol(z)
[1] 2
```

- In the world of statistics, dimension reduction is a good thing, with many statistical procedures aimed to do it well.
- If we are working with, say, 10 variables and can reduce that number to 3 that still capture the essence of our data, we're happy.
- However, in R, something else might merit the name dimension reduction that we may sometimes wish to avoid.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> z <- matrix(1:8, nrow=4)
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 5
[3,] 3 7
[4,] 4 8
> r < - z[2,]
> r
[1] 2 6
```

- r, it's a vector format, not a matrix format.
- In other words, r is a vector of length 2, rather than a 1-by-2 matrix.

```
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 5
[2,] 2 6
[3,] 3 7
[4,] 4 8
> attributes(z)
$dim
[1] 4 2
> r
[1] 2 6
> attributes(r)
NULL
> str(z)
 int [1:4, 1:2] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
> str(r)
 int [1:2] 2 6
```

- R informs us that z has row and column numbers, while r does not.
- Similarly, str() tells us that z has indices ranging in 1:4 and 1:2, for rows and columns, while r's indices simply range in 1:2.
- No doubt about it—r is a vector, not a matrix.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 5
[2,] 2 6
[3,] 3 7
[4,] 4 8
> r <- z[2,, drop=FALSE]
> r
     [,1] [,2]
> dim(r)
```

- Fortunately, R has a way to suppress this dimension reduction.
- The drop argument.
- Here's an example, using the matrix z.
- Now r is a 1-by-2 matrix, not a two-element vector.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🔊
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1
[2,] 2 6
[3,] 3 7
[4,]
> z[3,2]
[1] 7
> "["(z, 3, 2)
```

• [is actually a function, just as is the case for operators like +.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 😞
> u <- c(1,2,3)
[1] 1 2 3
> v <- as.matrix(u)</pre>
>
> attributes(u)
NULL
> attributes(v)
$dim
[1] 3 1
```

• If you have a vector that you wish to be treated as a matrix, you can use the as.matrix() function.

Naming Matrix Rows and Columns

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🗇
> z <- matrix(1:4, nrow=2)
> z
     [,1] [,2]
[1,] 1 3
[2,] 2 4
> colnames(z)
NULL
> colnames(z) <- c("a", "b")
> z
     a b
[1,] 1 3
[2,] 2 4
> colnames(z)
[1] "a" "b"
> z[,"a"]
```

- The natural way to refer to rows and columns in a matrix is via the row and column numbers.
- However, you can also give names to these entities.
- These names can then be used to reference specific columns.
- The function rownames () works similarly.

Higher-Dimensional Arrays

- The matrix is then a two-dimensional data structure.
- But suppose also have data taken at different times, one data point per person per variable per time.
- Time then becomes the third dimension, in addition to rows and columns.
- In R, such data sets are called arrays.

Here's the data for the first test.

• Student 1 had scores of 46 and 30 on the first test, student 2 scored 21 and 25, and so on.

Here's the data for the second test.

```
> secondtest <- matrix(c(46, 41, 50, 43, 35, 50), nrow=3)
> secondtest
      [,1] [,2]
[1,]      46      43
[2,]      41      35
[3,]      50      50
>
```

- Now let's put both tests into one data structure, which we'll name tests.
- We'll arrange it to have two *layers*—one layer per test—with three rows and two columns within each layer.
- We'll store firsttest in the first layer and secondtest in the second.
- In layer 1, there will be three rows for the three students' scores on the first test, with two columns per row for the two portions of a test.
- We use R's array function to create the data structure:
 - > tests <- array(data=c(firsttest,secondtest),dim=c(3,2,2))</pre>

• In the argument dim=c(3,2,2), we are specifying two layers (this is the second 2), each consisting of three rows and two columns.

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> firsttest
     [,1] [,2]
[1, ]
     46 30
[2,] 21 25
[3,] 50 50
> secondtest
     [,1] [,2]
[1,]
[2,] 41 35
[3,] 50 50
> tests <- array(data=c(firsttest, secondtest), dim=c(3,2,2))
> attributes(tests)
$dim
[1] 3 2 2
```

```
Console C:/R Home/ 🖒
> tests
[1,]
[2,]
[3,]
        50
               50
[1,]
[2,]
        41
               35
[3,]
        50
               50
  tests[3,2,1]
```

- Each element of tests now has three subscripts, rather than two as in the matrix case.
- The first subscript corresponds to the first element in the \$dim vector, the second subscript corresponds to the second element in the vector, and so on.