Data Science in Business Analytics

Data Structures and Subsetting

HEC Lausanne
Professor Alex [aleksandr.shemendyuk@unil.ch]

Agenda

- 1 Data structures
- 2 Atomic vectors
- 3 Attributes
- 4 S3 objects
- 5 Lists
- 6 Data frames and tibbles
- 7 Subsetting

Warm-up

Type the following into your console:

```
# Create a vector in R
x <- c(5, 29, 13, 87)
x
#> [1] 5 29 13 87
```

- Two important ideas:
 - ▶ Commenting
 - Assignment
 - ▶ The <- symbol assigns the value c(5, 29, 13, 87) to x.
 - ► We can use = instead of <-, but this is discouraged.
 - ► All assignments take the same form: object_name <- value.</p>
 - c() means "concatenate".
 - Type x into the console to print its stored value.
 - Number [1] indicates that 5 is the first element of the vector.

Warm-up (cont'd)

```
# Create a vector in R
x \leftarrow rnorm(50)
Х
#>
    [1]
         1.26295 -0.32623
                          1.32980 1.27243 0.41464 -1.53995 -0.92857
       -0.29472 -0.00577 2.40465
                                   0.76359 -0.79901 -1.14766 -0.28946
   [15] -0.29922 -0.41151 0.25222 -0.89192 0.43568 -1.23754 -0.22427
   [22]
        0.37740 0.13334 0.80419 -0.05711 0.50361
#>
                                                    1.08577 -0.69095
   [29] -1.28460 0.04673 -0.23571 -0.54289 -0.43331 -0.64947
                                                               0.72675
#>
   [36]
       1.15191 0.99216 -0.42951 1.23830 -0.27935 1.75790 0.56075
   [43] -0.45278 -0.83204 -1.16657 -1.06559 -1.56378 1.15654
                                                              0.83205
   [50] -0.22733
```

Data structures

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

- Almost all other objects are built upon these foundations.
- R has no 0-dimensional, or scalar types.
- Best way to understand what data structures any object is composed of is str(), short for "structure".

```
x <- c(5, 29, 13, 87)
str(x)
#> num [1:4] 5 29 13 87
```

¹Homogeneous: Contains the same type of values.

²Heterogeneous: Contains different types of values.

1d data structures

- Two flavours:
 - ▶ atomic vectors (homogeneous),
 - ▶ lists (heterogeneous).
- Three common properties:
 - typeof() the variable: "double", "list", etc.
 - ▶ length() of the variable, how many elements it contains.
 - attributes(): additional metadata.
- Main difference: elements of an atomic vector must be the same type, whereas those of a list can have different types.

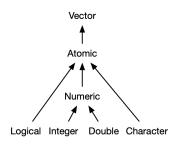
1d data structures (cont'd)

```
# Example: Atomic vector
atomic vector <- c(first = 1, second = 2, third = 3)
atomic_vector
#> first second third
#> 1 2 3
attributes(atomic_vector)
#> $names
#> [1] "first" "second" "third"
# Example: List
list_example \leftarrow list(x = 1, y = "a", TRUE)
list_example
#> $x
#> [1] 1
#>
#> $y
#> [1] "a"
#>
#> [[3]]
#> [1] TRUE
attributes(list_example)
#> $names
#> [1] "x" "y" ""
```

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Atomic vectors



- Four primary types of atomic vectors: logical, integer, double, and character.
- integer and double vectors are known as **numeric vectors**.
- There are two rare types: complex and raw (won't be discussed further).

Scalars

Special syntax to create an individual scalar value:

- Logical:
 - ► TRUE or FALSE
 - T or F (abbreviated version).
- Doubles:
 - Decimal (0.1234), scientific (1.23e4), or hexadecimal (0xcafe) form.
 - ▶ Special values unique to doubles: Inf, -Inf, and NaN (not a number).
- Integers:
 - Integer number followed by L (1234L, 1e4L, or 0xcafeL).
- Strings:
 - ► Surrounded by " or ' (for example, "hi", 'bye').
 - ► Special characters escaped with \.³

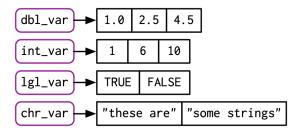
³see ?Quotes for details.

Making longer vectors with c()

To create longer vectors from shorter ones, use c():

```
dbl_var <- c(1, 2.5, 4.5)
int_var <- c(1L, 6L, 10L)
lgl_var <- c(TRUE, FALSE)
chr_var <- c("these are", "some strings")</pre>
```

Depicting vectors as connected rectangles:



Making longer vectors (cont'd)

• With atomic vectors, c() returns atomic vectors (i.e., flattens):

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

- Determine the typeof() and length() of a vector.
- Use is.<type>() to test if a vector is of a given <type>:
 - ▶ is.logical(), is.integer(), is.double(), and is.character().

```
typeof(lgl_var)
#> [1] "logical"
length(lgl_var)
#> [1] 2
c(is.logical(lgl_var), is.integer(lgl_var))
#> [1] TRUE FALSE
```

```
typeof(int_var)
#> [1] "integer"
typeof(dbl_var)
#> [1] "double"
typeof(chr_var)
#> [1] "character"
```

Coercion

 When combining different types, coercion is applied in a fixed order: character → double → integer → logical.

```
str(c("a", 1))
#> chr [1:2] "a" "1"
```

- Deliberately coerce values using as.<type>():
 - as.logical(), as.integer(), as.double(), or as.character()
- ullet Failed coercion of strings o warning and missing value.

- Coercion often happens automatically:
 - ► Most mathematical functions (+, log, etc.) coerce to numeric.
 - ▶ Useful for logical vectors because TRUE/FALSE become 1/0.

```
x <- c(FALSE, FALSE, TRUE)
as.numeric(x)
#> [1] 0 0 1
c(sum(x), mean(x))
#> [1] 1.000 0.333
```

Missing or unknown values

- Represented with NA (short for not applicable/available).
- Missing values tend to be infectious:

```
NA > 5

#> [1] NA

10 * NA

#> [1] NA

! NA

#> [1] NA
```

• Exception: when some identity holds for all possible inputs...

```
NA ^ 0
#> [1] 1
NA | TRUE
#> [1] TRUE
NA & FALSE
#> [1] FALSE
```

Missing or unknown values (cont'd)

Propagation of missing values leads to a common mistake:

```
x <- c(NA, 5, NA, 10)
x == NA
#> [1] NA NA NA NA
```

• Instead, use is.na():

```
is.na(x)
#> [1] TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE
```



Technically there are four missing value types, one for each of the atomic types: NA (logical), NA_integer_ (integer), NA_real_ (double), and NA_character_ (character). This distinction is usually unimportant because NA will be automatically coerced to the correct type when needed.

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Attributes

How about matrices, arrays, factors, or date-times?

- They are built on top of atomic vectors by adding attributes.
- For instance, you can add names to a vector:

```
# When creating it x \leftarrow c(a = 1, b = 2, c = 3)
# By assigning a character vector to names() x \leftarrow 1:3
names(x) <- c("a", "b", "c")
```

- In the next few slides:
 - ▶ The dim attribute to make matrices and arrays.
 - ► The class attribute to create "S3" vectors, including factors, dates, and date-times.

Dimensions

- The dim attribute allows a vector to behave like a 2-dimensional matrix or a multi-dimensional array.
- Most important feature: multidimensional subsetting, which we'll see later.
- Create matrices and arrays with matrix():

```
# Two scalar arguments
# specify row and column sizes
a <- matrix(1:6, nrow = 2, ncol = 3)
a
#> [,1] [,2] [,3]
#> [1,] 1 3 5
#> [2,] 2 4 6
attributes(a)
#> $dim
#> [1] 2 3
```

Or use the assignment form of dim():

```
# Modify an object in
# place by setting dim()
c <- 1:6
dim(c) <- c(3, 2)
c
#> [,1] [,2]
#> [1,] 1 4
#> [2,] 2 5
#> [3,] 3 6
```

Vectors and matrices

Vector	Matrix		
names() length() c() - is.null(dim(x))	<pre>rownames(), colnames() nrow(), ncol() rbind(), cbind() t() is.matrix()</pre>		

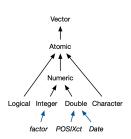
- A vector without a dim is often thought of as 1-dimensional, but actually has NULL dimensions.
- You can have matrices with a single row or single column:
 - May print similarly, but behave differently.
 - ▶ Differences not important, but useful to know they exist.
 - Use str() to reveal the differences.

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S3 objects

- The class attribute:
 - Turns a vector into an S3 object, which behaves differently, e.g.
 - Categorical data, where values come from a fixed set of levels: factor vectors.
 - Dates, i.e. times at a daily resolution: **Date** vectors.
 - ► Every S3 object
 - is built on top of a base type,
 - stores additional information in other attributes.

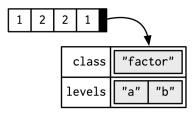


Factors

- A vector that can contain only predefined values.
- Used to store categorical data.
- Built on top of an integer vector with two attributes:
 - class (defines a different from integer vectors behaviour),
 - levels (defines the set of allowed values).

```
x <- factor(c("a", "b", "b", "a"))
x
#> [1] a b b a
#> Levels: a b

typeof(x)
#> [1] "integer"
attributes(x)
#> $levels
#> [1] "a" "b"
#>
$class
#> [1] "factor"
```



Factors (cont'd)

- Useful when you know the set of possible values, but they are not all
 present in a dataset.
- When tabulating a factor, you'll get counts of all categories, even unobserved ones:

```
sex_chr <- rep("f", 3)
table(sex_chr)
#> sex_fct <- factor(sex_chr, levels = c("f", "m"))
table(sex_fct)
#> sex_fct
#> f
#> f
#> 3
#> 3 0
```

• Ordered factors behave like regular factors, but the order of the levels is meaningful (e.g., low, medium, high)

```
grade <- ordered(c("b", "b", "a", "c"), levels = c("c", "b", "a"))
grade
#> [1] b b a c
#> Levels: c < b < a</pre>
```

Dates

- Built on top of double vectors.
- A class Date and no other attributes.

```
today <- Sys.Date() # Get the current system date
today
#> [1] "2024-09-23"
typeof(today)
#> [1] "double"
attributes(today)
#> $class
#> [1] "Date"
```

Value of the double is the number of days since "1970-01-01":⁴

```
date <- as.Date("1970-02-01")
unclass(date)
#> [1] 31
```

⁴Known as the Unix Epoch.

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Lists

Each element can be any <type>.

```
11 <- list(
                                         is.list(l1)
  1:3,
                                         #> [1] TRUE
  "a".
                                         str(11)
  c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE),
                                         #> List of 4
                                         #> $ : int [1:3] 1 2 3
  c(2.3, 5.9)
                                         #> $ : chr "a"
                                         #> $ : logi [1:3] TRUE FALSE TRUE
typeof(11)
#> [1] "list"
                                         #> $ : num [1:2] 2.3 5.9
```

TRUE FALSE TRUE

• c() combines several lists into one:



str(15)

#> List of 4

#> \$: num 1

#> \$: num 2

#> \$: num 3

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Data frames and tibbles

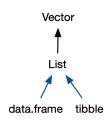
• The most important S3 vectors built on top of list.

If you do data analysis in R, you'll use them!

• A data.frame is a named list of vectors with names, row.names, and class attributes.

```
df1 <- data.frame(
  x = 1:3.
                            #> $names
  v = letters[1:3]
typeof (df1)
                            #> $class
#> [1] "list"
is.data.frame(df1)
#> [1] TRUE
                            #> $row.names
                            #> [1] 1 2 3
```

```
attributes(df1)
#> [1] "x" "y"
#> [1] "data.frame"
```



- Similar to a list, but the lengths of all component are equal.
- "Rectangular structure":
 - Share properties of both matrices and lists.
 - ▶ Has rownames()/colnames()/names()(= column names).
 - ► Has nrow()/ncol()/length() (= number of columns).

Data frames and tibbles (cont'd)

- Data frames:
 - One of the biggest and most important ideas in R, but ...
 - ▶ 20 years have passed since their creation,
 - which leads to the creation of the tibble, a modern version.
- Main differences: tibbles are lazier (do less) & safer (complain more).
- Technically:
 - Similar to data.frame but the class includes tbl_df.
 - Allows tibbles to behave differently.

Creating a data.frame or a tibble

• Supply name-vector pairs to data.frame() or tibble().

- Next few slides: some of the differences between the two.
 - Non-syntactic names.
 - ► Recycling shorter inputs.
 - ► Variables created during construction.
 - Printing.

Non-syntactic names

- Strict rules about what constitutes a valid name.
 - ▶ Syntactic names consist of letters⁵, digits, . and _ but can't begin with _ or a digit.
 - Additionally, can't use any of the reserved words like TRUE, NULL, if, and function (see the complete list in ?Reserved).
- A name that doesn't follow these rules is **non-syntactic**.

```
_abc <- 1
#> Error: unexpected input in "_"

if <- 10
#> Error: unexpected assignment in "if <-"
```

 $^{^5}$ What constitutes a letter is determined by your current locale. Avoid this by sticking to ASCII characters (i.e. A-Z).

Non-syntactic names (cont'd)

Add a back tick to override these rules and use any name:

```
`_abc` <- 1
`_abc`
#> [1] 1

`Asset Price` <- 10e3
`Asset Price`
#> [1] 10000
```

- Avoid deliberately creating such names!
 - You'll see them data in data created outside of R.
- In data frames and tibbles:

```
names(data.frame(`1` = 1))
#> [1] "X1"

names(data.frame(`1` = 1, check.names = FALSE))
#> [1] "1"

names(tibble(`1` = 1))
#> [1] "1"
```

Recycling shorter inputs

- Both data.frame() and tibble() recycle shorter inputs, but
 - data frames automatically recycle columns that are an integer multiple of the longest column,
 - tibbles will only recycle vectors of length one.

```
data.frame(x = 1:4, y = 1:2)

#> x y

#> 1 1 1

#> 2 2 2

#> 3 3 1

#> 4 4 2
```

```
tibble(x = 1:4, y = 1)

#> # A tibble: 4 x 2

#> x y

#> <int> <dbl>
#> 1 1 1

#> 2 2 1

#> 3 3 1

#> 4 4 1
```

```
tibble(x = 1:4, y = 1:2)
#> Error in `tibble()`:
#> ! Tibble columns must have compatible sizes.
#> * Size 4: Existing data.
#> * Size 2: Column `y`.
#> i Only values of size one are recycled.
data.frame(x = 1:4, y = 1:3)
#> Error in data.frame(x = 1:4, y = 1:3): arguments imply differing number of recompatible.
```

Variables created during construction

 tibble() allows you to refer to variables created during construction:

(Inputs are evaluated left-to-right.)

Printing

iris					
#>	Sepal.Length	Sepal.Width	Petal.Length	Petal.Width	Species
#> 1	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	setosa
#> 2	4.9	3.0	1.4	0.2	setosa
#> 3	4.7	3.2	1.3	0.2	setosa
#> 4	4.6	3.1	1.5	0.2	setosa
#> 5	5.0	3.6	1.4	0.2	setosa
#> 6	5.4	3.9	1.7	0.4	setosa
#> 7	4.6	3.4	1.4	0.3	setosa
#> 8	5.0	3.4	1.5	0.2	setosa
#> 9	4.4	2.9	1.4	0.2	setosa
#> 10	4.9	3.1	1.5	0.1	setosa
#> 11	5.4	3.7	1.5	0.2	setosa
#> 12	4.8	3.4	1.6	0.2	setosa
#> 13	4.8	3.0	1.4	0.1	setosa
#> 14	4.3	3.0	1.1	0.1	setosa
#> 15	5.8	4.0	1.2	0.2	setosa
#> 16	5.7	4.4	1.5	0.4	setosa
#> 17	5.4	3.9	1.3	0.4	setosa
#> 18	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.3	setosa
#> 19	5.7	3.8	1.7	0.3	setosa
#> 20	5.1	3.8	1.5	0.3	setosa
#> 21	5.4	3.4	1.7	0.2	setosa
#> 22	5.1	3.7	1.5	0.4	setosa
#> 23	4.6	3.6	1.0	0.2	setosa

Printing (cont'd)

```
dplyr::starwars
#> # A tibble: 87 x 14
#>
    name height mass hair_color skin_color eye_color birth_year
  <chr> <int> <dbl> <chr> <chr>
                                        <chr>
                                                    <dbl>
#>
#> 1 Luke Skyw~ 172 77 blond fair blue
                                                     19
#> 2 C-3PO 167 75 <NA> gold yellow
                                                   112
#> 3 R2-D2 96 32 <NA> white, bl~ red
                                                    33
#> 4 Darth Vad~ 202 136 none white yellow
                                                    41.9
#> 5 Leia Orga~ 150 49 brown light brown
                                                    19
#> 6 Owen Lars 178 120 brown, gr~ light blue
                                                    52
#> 7 Beru Whit~ 165 75 brown light blue
                                                     47
#> 8 R5-D4 97 32 <NA> white, red red
                                                     NΑ
#> 9 Biggs Dar~ 183 84 black
                               light
                                        brown
                                                     24
#> 10 Obi-Wan K~ 182 77 auburn, w~ fair
                                        blue-grav
                                                     57
#> # i 77 more rows
#> # i 7 more variables: sex <chr>, gender <chr>, homeworld <chr>,
     species <chr>, films <list>, vehicles <list>, starships <list>
```

- Only the first 10 rows, and columns that fit on screen.
- Each column is labelled with its <type>.
- Wide columns are truncated.
- In RStudio, colour highlights important information.

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Subsetting

- R's subsetting operators are fast and powerful.
 - Allows to succinctly perform complex operations in a way that few other languages can match.
 - ► Easy to learn but hard to master because of a number of interrelated concepts:
 - Six ways to subset atomic vectors.
 - ► Three subsetting operators, [[, [, and \$.
 - ▶ The operators interact differently with different vector types.
 - Subsetting can be combined with assignment.
- Subsetting is a natural complement to str():
 - ▶ str() shows the pieces of any object (its structure).
 - ► Subsetting pulls out the pieces that you're interested in.
- Outline:
 - ► Selecting multiple elements with [.
 - ► Selecting a single element with [[and \$.
 - Subsetting and assignment.

[for atomic vectors

• We'll look at the following vector:

```
x \leftarrow c(2.1, 4.2, 3.3, 5.4)
```

- Note that the number *after the decimal point* represents the original position in the vector.
- Next few slides, subset an atomic vector with:
 - Positive integers.
 - ► Negative integers.
 - Logical vectors.
 - Character vectors.

[for atomic vectors (cont'd)

• Positive integers return elements at the specified positions:

```
x[c(3, 1)]
#> [1] 3.3 2.1
order(x)
#> [1] 1 3 2 4
x[order(x)] # Equivalent to sort(x)
#> [1] 2.1 3.3 4.2 5.4
x[c(1, 1)] # Duplicate indices will duplicate values
#> [1] 2.1 2.1
x[c(2.1, 2.9)] # Real numbers are silently truncated to integers
#> [1] 4.2 4.2
```

• Negative integers exclude elements at the specified positions:

```
x[-c(3, 1)]
#> [1] 4.2 5.4
```

• Can't mix positive and negative integers in a single subset:

```
x[c(-1, 2)] #> Error in x[c(-1, 2)]: only 0's may be mixed with negative subscripts
```

[for atomic vectors (cont'd)

• Logical vectors select elements where the corresponding logical value is TRUE (probably the most useful):

```
x[c(TRUE, TRUE, FALSE, FALSE)]
#> [1] 2.1 4.2
x[x > 3]
#> [1] 4.2 3.3 5.4
```

- In x[y], what happens if x and y are different lengths?
 - ▶ **Recycling rule:** the shorter length is recycled to the longest.
 - Convenient and easy to understand when x or y has length one, but avoid for other lengths because of inconsistencies in base R.

```
x[c(TRUE, FALSE)]
#> [1] 2.1 3.3
```

• A missing value in the index always yields an NA in the output:

```
x[c(TRUE, TRUE, NA, FALSE)]
#> [1] 2.1 4.2 NA
```

[for atomic vectors (cont'd)

 If the vector is named, you can also use character vectors to return elements with matching names:

```
(y \leftarrow setNames(x, letters[1:4])) # letters = c("a", "b", "c", "d", ..., "z")
#> a b c d
#> 2.1 4.2 3.3 5.4
v[c("d", "c", "a")]
#> d c a
#> 5.4 3.3 2.1
# Like integer indices, you can repeat indices
v[c("a", "a", "a")]
#> a a a
#> 2.1 2.1 2.1
# When subsetting with [, names are always matched exactly
z < -c(abc = 1, def = 2)
z[c("a", "d")]
#> <NA> <NA>
#> NA NA
```

[for lists

- Exactly as for atomic vectors.
 - [always returns a list;
 - ► [[and \$ let you pull out elements of a list.

[for matrices

- Subset matrices in three ways:
 - ▶ With multiple vectors.
 - ▶ With a single vector.
 - With a matrix.
- The most common way:
 - ▶ Supply a 1D index for each dimension, separated by a comma.
 - ► Notice the use of blank subsetting!

```
a <- matrix(1:9, nrow = 3)
colnames(a) <- c("A", "B", "C")
a[1:2, ]

#> A B C
#> [1,] 1 4 7
#> [2,] 2 5 8
```

```
a[c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE), c("B", "A")]

#> B A

#> [1,] 4 1

#> [2,] 6 3

a[0, -2]

#> A C
```

• By default, [simplifies to the lowest possible dimensionality:

```
a[1, ]

#> A B C

#> 1 4 7

#> 1
```

[for matrices (cont'd)

• Can subset with a vector as if they were 1D.

```
vals <- outer(1:4, 1:4, FUN = "paste", sep = ",")
vals

#> [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]

#> [1,] "1,1" "1,2" "1,3" "1,4"

#> [2,] "2,1" "2,2" "2,3" "2,4"

#> [3,] "3,1" "3,2" "3,3" "3,4"

#> [4,] "4,1" "4,2" "4,3" "4,4"
vals[c(4, 15)]

#> [1] "4,1" "3,4"
```

- Can also subset a matrix with a matrix of integers.
 - ► Each row in the matrix specifies the location of a value.
 - ► Each column in the matrix corresponds to a dimension.
 - The result is a vector of values.

```
select <- matrix(ncol = 2, byrow = TRUE, c(
    1, 1,
    2, 4
))</pre>
```

```
vals[select]
#> [1] "1,1" "2,4"
```

[for data frames and tibbles

- Characteristics of both lists and matrices.
- When subsetting with a single index:
 - ▶ Behave like lists and index the columns.
 - ► E.g. df [1:2] selects the first two columns.
- When subsetting with two indices:
 - ▶ Behave like matrices.
 - ► E.g. df [1:3,] selects the first three rows and all columns.

```
df <- data.frame(x = 1:3, y = 3:1, z = letters[1:3])

df[df$x == 2, ]

#> x y z

#> 2 2 2 b

df[c(1, 3), ]

#> x y z

#> 1 1 3 a

#> 3 3 1 c
```

[for data frames and tibbles (cont'd)

• Two ways to select columns from a data frame:

```
# Like a list

df[c("x", "z")]

#> x z

#> 1 1 a

#> 2 2 b

#> 3 3 c

# Like a matrix

df[, c("x", "z")]

#> x z

#> x z

#> 1 1 a

#> 2 2 b

#> 3 3 c
```

- Important difference if you select a single column:
 - Matrix subsetting simplifies by default.
 - List subsetting does not.

```
str(df[, "x"])
#> int [1:3] 1 2 3
#> 'data.frame': 3 obs. of 1 variable:
#> $ x: int 1 2 3
```

• Subsetting a tibble with [always returns a tibble:

Selecting a single element from a list

The other two subsetting operators:

- [[is used for extracting single items.
- x\$y is a useful shorthand for x[["y"]].

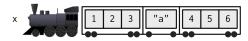
• [[is most important when working with lists because subsetting a list with [always returns a smaller list.

If the #rstats list "x" is a train carrying objects, then x[[5]] is the object in car 5; x[4:6] is a train of cars 4-6.

— @RLangTip, Twitter, 2012-11-13

Use this metaphor to make a simple list:

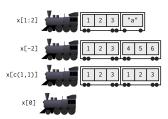
 $x \leftarrow list(1:3, "a", 4:6)$



[[(cont'd)

- When extracting a single element, you have two options:
 - Create a smaller train, i.e., fewer carriages, with [.
 - Extract the contents of a particular carriage with [[.
- When extracting multiple (or even zero!) elements, you have to make a smaller train.







- Shorthand operator:
 - x\$y is roughly equivalent to x[["y"]].
 - ▶ Often used to access variables in a data frame.
 - ► E.g., mtcars\$cyl or diamonds\$carat.
- One common mistake with \$:

 Important difference between \$ and [[: (left-to-right) partial matching!

```
x <- list(abc = 1)
x$a
#> [1] 1
x[["a"]]
#> NULL
```

Data frames and tibbles again

- Data frames have two undesirable subsetting behaviours.
 - ▶ When you subset columns with df[, vars]:
 - Returns a vector if vars selects one variable.
 - Otherwise, returns a data frame.
 - Frequent unless you use drop = FALSE.
 - ▶ When extracting a single column with df\$x:
 - If there is no column x, selects any variable that starts with x
 - If no variable starts with x. returns NULL.
 - Easy to select a wrong variable or a variable that doesn't exist.
- Tibbles tweak these behaviours:
 - [always returns a tibble.
 - \$ doesn't do partial matching and warns if it can't find a variable.

```
df1 \leftarrow data.frame(xyz = "a") df2 \leftarrow tibble(xyz = "a")
str(df1$x)
                                      str(df2$x)
     chr "a"
                                            NUIT.T.
                                                                                                   52 / 54
```

Subsetting and assignment ->

- Subsetting operators can be combined with assignment.
 - ► Modifies selected values of an input vector
 - ► Called subassignment.
- The basic form is x[i] <- value:

```
x <- 1:5
x[c(1, 2)] <- c(101, 102)
x
#> [1] 101 102 3 4 5
```

- Recommendation:
 - ► Make sure that length(value) is the same as length(x[i]),
 - and that i is unique.
 - ► Otherwise, you'll end-up in recycling hell.

Subsetting and assignment (cont'd)

- Subsetting lists with NULL
 - ► x[[i]] <- NULL removes a component.
 - ► To add a literal NULL, use x[i] <- list(NULL).

```
x <- list(a = 1, b = 2)
x[["b"]] <- NULL
str(x)
#> List of 1
#> $ a: num 1
```

```
y <- list(a = 1, b = 2)
y["b"] <- list(NULL)
str(y)
#> List of 2
#> $ a: num 1
#> $ b: NULL
```

- Subsetting with nothing can be useful with assignment
 - Preserves the structure of the original object.
 - Coerce all values in mtcars into integers:

```
mtcars[] <- lapply(mtcars, as.integer)
is.data.frame(mtcars)
#> [1] TRUE
```

```
mtcars <- lapply(mtcars, as.integer)
is.data.frame(mtcars)
#> [1] FALSE
```