Statistics 341: Intro to Stat Computing and Exploratory Data Analysis with R

Lecture 2: R Data Structures, Functions and Packages

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2019-01-10

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R objects

R objects

- In R, data structures and functions are all referred to as "objects".
- ▶ Objects are created with the assignment operator <-; e.g., x <- 1.</p>
 - ► The objects a user creates from the R console are contained in the user's workspace, called the global environment.
 - Use ls() to see a list of all objects in the workspace.
 - ▶ Use rm(x) to remove object x from the workspace.
- We will discuss data structures first, and then functions and R packages.
- ▶ In between we will discuss logical and relational operators that can be used to subset data structures.

R Data Structures

R Data Structures

- ▶ Reference Wickham (2014), Advanced R, Chapter 2
- ► Focus on four common data structures: atomic vectors, lists, matrices and data frames.
- Atomic vectors and lists are 1d, while matrices and data frames are 2d objects
- ▶ R has no true scalars; e.g., in x<-1, x is a vector of length one.
- ▶ R also has an array data structure for higher dimensional elements that we will not discuss.
- Use str() to see the structure of an object

Types of objects

[1] "integer"

- All R objects have a "type", that describes how it is stored in computer memory.
- ► Common types we will encounter are "logical", "integer", "double", "character" and "list".
 - ▶ Find the type of an object with typeof().

x <- 6 # stores as double by default

```
typeof(x)

## [1] "double"

y <- 6L # The "L" suffix forces storage as integer
typeof(y)</pre>
```

Type versus Mode

[1] "numeric"

- ▶ In addition to the type of an object, there is its "mode".
- ► The mode of an object is generally the same as its type, but the modes are coarser.
 - ► For example, integer and double types are both of mode "numeric".
- ▶ I don't understand the need for mode.
 - ► The only reason I mention it is that the str() function sometimes reports the mode of an object, rather than its type, so we will frequently see reports of numeric objects.

```
mode(x)
## [1] "numeric"
mode(y)
```

Vectors

Vectors

- Vectors can be either atomic or list
 - ▶ The elements of an atomic vector must be the same type.
 - ▶ Lists can be comprised of multiple data types
- Empty vectors can be created by the vector() function:

```
# help("vector")
avec <- vector(mode="numeric",length=4)
lvec <- vector(mode="list",length=4)</pre>
```

Data vectors can be created with c() or list():

```
avec <- c(50,200,77)
lvec <- list(50,200,77,c("grey","thin"))</pre>
```

Combining vectors

Use c() to combine vectors

```
c(avec, c(100, 101))
## [1] 50 200 77 100 101
c(lvec, TRUE)
## [[1]]
## [1] 50
##
## [[2]]
## [1] 200
##
## [[3]]
## [1] 77
##
## [[4]]
##
   [1] "grey" "thin"
##
## [[5]]
## [1] TRUE
```

Vector attributes

num [1:3] 50 200 77

- Vectors have a type and length and, optionally, attributes such as names.
 - ▶ As we have seen, we find the type of an object with typeof().
 - ▶ Find the length of a vector with length().

```
typeof(avec)

## [1] "double"

length(avec)

## [1] 3

str(avec)
```

```
typeof(lvec)
## [1] "list"
length(lvec)
## [1] 4
names(lvec) = c("age", "weight", "height", "hair")
str(lvec)
## List of 4
    $ age : num 50
##
## $ weight: num 200
## $ height: num 77
    $ hair : chr [1:2] "grey" "thin"
##
  ▶ We can specify element names when creating a vector; e.g.:
```

lyoc <- list(200-50 yoight-200 hoight-77 hair-c("groy" "thin")

lvec <- list(age=50,weight=200,height=77,hair=c("grey","thin"))</pre>

Factors

##

- ▶ The statistical concept of a factor is important in experimental design.
- ► Factors are implemented in R as atomic vectors with attributes class and levels:

```
trt <- factor(c("drug1","placebo","placebo","drug2"))
attributes(trt)

## $levels
## [1] "drug1" "drug2" "placebo"
##
## $class
## [1] "factor"

str(trt)</pre>
```

Factor w/ 3 levels "drug1", "drug2", ...: 1 3 3 2

- ► The levels are coded numerically (1, 2 and 3) with assigned labels ordered alphabetically ("drug1", "drug2" and "placebo") by default.
- You can specify an order to the factors with the level argument:

```
## [1] drug1    placebo placebo drug2
## Levels: placebo drug1 drug2
```

More on object class

- You can create your own class for an object.
- Such "meta-data" can be used to tell R how to handle the object; e.g., how to print it, summarize it, etc.

```
class(lvec) <- "prof"</pre>
lvec
## $age
## [1] 50
##
## $weight
## [1] 200
##
## $height
## [1] 77
##
## $hair
## [1] "grey" "thin"
##
## attr(,"class")
## [1] "prof"
```

Subsetting vectors and extracting elements

Subset with [or by name:

```
lvec[c(1,3)] # same as lvec[c("age", "height")]

## $age
## [1] 50
##

## $height
## [1] 77
```

Extract individual elements with [[, or \$ for named objects:

```
lvec[[4]]
## [1] "grey" "thin"
lvec$hair
## [1] "grey" "thin"
```

Subsetting factors

Levels: placebo drug1

► Subsetting may remove all instances of a level, but the level will be retained in the data structure

```
trt[1:3]
## [1] drug1   placebo placebo
## Levels: placebo drug1 drug2
```

 If subsetting is intended to remove a level of the factor, use drop=TRUE

```
trt[1:3,drop=TRUE]
## [1] drug1 placebo placebo
```

Subsetting and assignment

 You can combine subsetting and assignment to change the value of vectors

```
avec

## [1] 50 200 77

avec[2] <- 210
avec

## [1] 50 210 77
```

Assignment and lists

- ▶ To assign to a list element, use [[rather than [.
 - ► Assignment with [requires that the replacement element be of length 1; [[does not have this restriction

```
lvec[3:4] <- c("Hi","there")
lvec[3:4]

## $height
## [1] "Hi"
##
## $hair
## [1] "there"</pre>
```

```
lvec[4] <- c("All","of","this")</pre>
## Warning in lvec[4] <- c("All", "of", "this"): number of items to replace is
## not a multiple of replacement length
lvec[4] # Only used first element of replacement vector
## $hair
## [1] "All"
lvec[[4]] <- c("All", "of", "this")</pre>
lvec[3:4]
## $height
## [1] "Hi"
##
## $hair
## [1] "All" "of" "this"
```

Coercion: atomic vectors to lists

Atomic vectors can be coerced to lists with as.list():

```
avec = c(age=50, weight=200, height=77)
avec
##
      age weight height
##
       50
              200
                      77
as.list(avec)
## $age
## [1] 50
##
## $weight
## [1] 200
##
## $height
## [1] 77
```

Coercion: lists to atomic vectors

▶ Lists can be "flattened" into atomic vectors with unlist():

unlist(lvec)

```
## age weight height hair1 hair2 hair3
## "50" "200" "Hi" "All" "of" "this"
```

- Notice how the numeric values are coerced to the more flexible character type.
- ► The order of flexibility, from least to most, is logical, integer, numeric, character.

Coercion: factors to atomic vectors

- We saw how to use factor() to coerce an atomic vector to a factor.
- ▶ Use as.vector() to coerce a factor back to an atomic vector.
- ► The result is a character vector. You may need to use as.numeric() to coerce to numeric, if required.

```
a <-factor(c(2,1,1,2))
as.vector(a)

## [1] "2" "1" "1" "2"

as.numeric(as.vector(a))

## [1] 2 1 1 2</pre>
```

Matrices and data frames

Matrices and data frames

- ► Though both 2d objects, matrices and data frames are different enough that we will need to discuss them separately.
- ▶ The elements of a matrix must all be of the same type.
- ▶ Data frames are essentially lists where each list element has the same length. Thus data frames can include columns of varying type.

Matrices

► Matrices can be created with the matrix() function as in

```
A <- matrix(1:4,nrow=2,ncol=2)
A
```

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

► Here 1:4 is the same as c(1,2,3,4)

► The default is to read the data vector into the matrix column-by-column. To read row-by-row instead use the byrow=TRUE argument:

```
A <- matrix(1:4,nrow=2,ncol=2,byrow=TRUE)
A
```

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

Combining matrices

► Combine matrices with rbind() and cbind():

```
rbind(A,matrix(c(5,6),nrow=1,ncol=2))
      [,1] [,2]
##
## [1,] 1
## [2,] 3 4
## [3,] 5 6
cbind(A,A)
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
##
## [1,] 1 2 1
## [2,] 3 4
```

Matrix attributes

▶ Matrices have a type, dimension (number of rows, number of columns) and optional attributes such as dimnames (row and column names).

```
typeof(A)

## [1] "integer"

dim(A)

## [1] 2 2
```

```
colnames(A) <- c("var1", "var2")</pre>
rownames(A) <- c("subj1", "subj2")</pre>
Α
## var1 var2
## subj1 1 2
## subj2 3 4
str(A)
## int [1:2, 1:2] 1 3 2 4
## - attr(*, "dimnames")=List of 2
## ..$ : chr [1:2] "subj1" "subj2"
##
    ..$ : chr [1:2] "var1" "var2"
```

Subsetting matrices

Subset with [and a comma to separate rows from columns:

```
A[1,1]
## [1] 1
A[1,]
## var1 var2
##
A[,1]
## subj1 subj2
##
```

When a subsetting operation leads to a vector, the dimension of the object is "dropped" from 2 to 1. To prevent this use drop=FALSE:

```
A[1,,drop=FALSE]
```

Extracting elements from matrices

Can use [[to extract elements, but this is not necessary because of the way subsetting to a single element drops to a vector of length 1 by default:

```
A[[1,1]]

## [1] 1

A[1,1]

## [1] 1
```

Coercion: Matrices to/from vectors

- We have already seen how matrix() coerces a vector to a matrix
- as.vector() applied to a matrix creates a vector by concatenating columns:

```
as.vector(A)
```

```
## [1] 1 3 2 4
```

Data frames

- Data frames (class data.frame) are the usual way to store data in R.
 - ▶ Rows are intended to be observational units, columns variables
 - ▶ Implemented as a list (columns are list elements), but also behave like a matrix in terms of combining and subsetting.
- Create with data.frame:

```
set.seed(1)
n <- 4
x <- 1:n; y <- rnorm(n,mean=x,sd=1) # multiple commands separated by ;
dd <- data.frame(x=x,y=y) # like making a list
str(dd)</pre>
```

```
## 'data.frame': 4 obs. of 2 variables:
## $ x: int 1 2 3 4
## $ y: num 0.374 2.184 2.164 5.595
```

Subsetting and combining data frames like a list

```
dd$x
## [1] 1 2 3 4

dd[[1]]
## [1] 1 2 3 4
```

Subsetting and combining data frames like a matrix

```
dd[1:2,]
##
## 1 1 0.3735462
## 2 2 2.1836433
zz = data.frame(z=runif(4))
cbind(dd,zz)
##
     х
                           7.
   1 1 0.3735462 0.62911404
   2 2 2.1836433 0.06178627
## 3 3 2.1643714 0.20597457
## 4 4 5.5952808 0.17655675
```

Logical and relational operators

Logical operators

- ▶ The basic logical operators are described in help("Logic").
- ▶ ! is NOT
- ▶ & and && are AND, with & acting vector-wise and && acting on scalars
- ▶ | and || are OR, with | acting vector-wise and || acting on scalars
- ► Make sure you understand the following:

```
x <- c(TRUE, TRUE, FALSE); y <- c(FALSE, TRUE, TRUE)
!x ; x&y ; x&by ; x | y ; x | y
## [1] FALSE FALSE TRUE
## [1] FALSE TRUE FALSE
## [1] FALSE
## [1] TRUE TRUE TRUE
## [1] TRUE
```

▶ Notice how && and || act on the first element of the vectors x and y and ignore all the rest.

Relational operators

- Relational operators can be used to compare values in atomic vectors
 - See help("Comparison")
- > is greater than, >= is greater than or equal
- < is less than, <= is less than or equal</p>
- == is equal and != is not equal
- Make sure you understand the following:

```
x < -1:3; y < -3:1
x>y; x>=y; x<y; x<=y; x==y; x!=y
## [1] FALSE FALSE TRUE
## [1] FALSE TRUE TRUE
## [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE
## [1]
       TRUE
            TRUE FALSE
## [1] FALSE TRUE FALSE
```

Subsetting vectors with logical expressions

Can subset with logicals and [:

```
avec
      age weight height
##
##
       50
             200
                     77
avec>100
      age weight height
##
   FALSE TRUE FALSE
##
avec[avec>100]
## weight
      200
##
avec[avec>50 & avec<100]
## height
```

Subsetting matrices with logical expressions

Can also subset matrices, but results may not be as expected:

```
Α
## var1 var2
## subj1 1 2
## subj2 3 4
A>1
## var1 var2
## subj1 FALSE TRUE
## subj2 TRUE TRUE
A[A>1] # coerces to a vector
```

```
## [1] 3 2 4
```

Subset and assign with logical expressions

Combine subset and assign to change the value of objects

```
A[A>1] <- 9
A
```

```
## var1 var2
## subj1 1 9
## subj2 9 9
```

▶ In the above substitution, the vector 9 is shorter than the three elements in A>1 so R "recycles" the 9 three times.

Be careful about recycling:

```
A[A>1] \leftarrow c(-10,10) \# Throws a warning
## Warning in A[A > 1] <- c(-10, 10): number of items to replace is not
## multiple of replacement length
A # R used c(-10,10), then just the -10
    var1 var2
##
## subj1 1 10
## subj2 -10 -10
```

Aside: Special values

Missing values

##

50

NΑ

77

- R has a special data code for missing data: NA
- Test for and set missing values with is.na()

```
avec
##
      age weight height
##
       50
             200
                     77
is.na(avec)
##
      age weight height
    FALSE FALSE FALSE
##
is.na(avec) <- 2
avec
      age weight height
```

Infinite and undefined values

[1] TRUE

- R has a special codes for infinite values (Inf) and undefined values (NaN).
- ► Test for Inf and NaN with is.infinite() and is.nan().

```
ii < -1/0; nn < -0/0
ii
## [1] Inf
is.infinite(ii)
## [1] TRUE
nn
## [1] NaN
is.nan(nn)
```

The null object

- The null object, NULL, is an un-typed no-value object.
 - ► Test for NULL with is.null()
 - ▶ NULL can be used to initialize objects that will be created through combining, rbinding, etc.

```
x <- NULL; is.null(x)
## [1] TRUE
x \leftarrow c(x,1); x \leftarrow c(x,2); x
## [1] 1 2
# etc., or as a loop (more on these later)
x <- NUI.I.
for(i in 1:2) {
  x \leftarrow c(x,i)
х
```

[1] 1 2 49/61

R Functions

R functions

- ▶ Reference Wickham (2014), Advanced R, Chapter 6
- ▶ In R, functions are objects with three essential components:
 - the code inside the function, or body,
 - ▶ the list of arguments to the function, or formals, and
 - ▶ a data structure called an environment which is like a map to the memory locations of all objects defined in the function.
- ▶ Functions can have other attributes, but the above three are essential.

Example function

```
f <- function(x) {
   return(x^2)
}
f

## function(x) {
## return(x^2)
## }</pre>
```

The function body

- This is the code we want to execute.
- When the end of a function is reached without a call to return(), the value of the last line is returned.
 - ► So in our example function, we could replace return(x^2) with just 'x^2.

The function formals

- ▶ These are the arguments to the function.
- ► Function arguments can have default values, as in:

```
f \leftarrow function(x=0) \{ x^2 \}
```

▶ Argument defaults can be defined in terms of other arguments:

```
f <- function(x=0,y=3*x) { x^2 + y^2 }
f()

## [1] 0

f(x=1)

## [1] 10</pre>
```

Argument matching when calling a function

When you call a function, the arguments are matched first by name, then by "prefix" matching and finally by position:

```
f <- function(firstarg, secondarg) {</pre>
  firstarg^2 + secondarg
f(firstarg=1,secondarg=2)
## [1] 3
f(s=2,f=1)
## [1] 3
f(2,f=1)
## [1] 3
f(1,2)
```

The function environment

- The environment within a function is like a map to the memory locations of all its variables.
- ► The function arguments are "passed by value", meaning that a copy is made and stored in the function's environment.
- ▶ Variables created within the function are also store in its environment

```
f <- function(x) {
  y <- x^2
  ee <- environment() # Returns ID of environment w/in f
  print(ls(ee)) # list objects in ee
  ee
}
f(1) # function call</pre>
```

```
## [1] "ee" "x" "y"
## <environment: 0x7fe30556a860>
```

Enclosing environments

- ➤ Our function f was defined in the global environment, .GlobalEnv, which "encloses" the environment within f.
- ▶ If f needs a variable and can't find it whithin f's environment, it will look for it in the enclosing environment, and then the enclosing environment of .GlobalEnv, and so on.
- The search() function lists the heirarchy of environments that enclose .GlobalEnv.

search()

```
## [1] ".GlobalEnv" "package:stats" "package:graphics
## [4] "package:grDevices" "package:utils" "package:datasets
## [7] "package:methods" "Autoloads" "package:base"
```

► To facilitate this search, each environment includes a pointer to its enclosing environment.

R packages

Loading packages

- Use the library() command to load packages.
- ▶ When we load a package it is inserted in position 2 of the search list, just after .GlobalEnv.

```
# install.packages("hapassoc")
library(hapassoc)
search()
```

```
## [1] ".GlobalEnv" "package:hapassoc" "package:stats"
## [4] "package:graphics" "package:grDevices" "package:utils"
## [7] "package:datasets" "package:methods" "Autoloads"
## [10] "package:base"
```

Detaching packages

Detach a package from the search list with detach()

Package namespaces

- Package authors create a list of objects that will be visible to users when the package is loaded. This list is called the package namespace.
- ▶ You can access functions in a package's namespace without loading the package using the :: operator.

```
set.seed(321)
n<-30; x<-(1:n)/n; y<-rnorm(n,mean=x); ff<-lm(y~x)
car::sigmaHat(ff)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 0.926726
```

Doing so does not add the package to the search list.