# Lecture 2: Atomic Data Types/Homogeneous vectors

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R can be summarized in three principles (John M. Chambers, 2016)

- Everything that exists in R is an object.
- Everything that happens in R is a function call.
- Interfaces to other languages are a part of R.

## 1 R Objects

- An object in R is (internally) represented as a pair: (symbol, value).
- A **symbol** is assigned a **value** by the use of an arrow pointing to the left (<-).
- There are less favored ways:
  - A simple equality sign (=).
  - Using the **assign()** function.

## 1.1 Examples

• Clean up the global environment i.e. remove all objects from the current R environment.

Recommended!

```
rm(list=ls())
ls()
```

character(0)

• preferred way to assign variables

```
x <- 5.0
x
```

[1] 5

• alternative 1: mainly used to assign default function arguments

```
y = 5.0
y
```

[1] 5

```
mysamplevariance <- function(x, av=0){

n <- length(x)
if(n>1){
    return(1.0/(n-1)*sum((x-av)^2))
}
else{
    stop("ERROR:: Dividing by zero (n==1) || (n==0) ")
}

x <- rnorm(10)
mysamplevariance(x)</pre>
```

[1] 0.7248089

```
mysamplevariance(x,mean(x))
```

[1] 0.7209066

```
var(x)
[1] 0.7209066

• alternative 2: even less used
assign("z", 5.0)
z
## [1] 5

• functions are objects
f <- mean
f
function (x, ...)
UseMethod("mean")
<br/>
<br/>
<br/>
cenvironment: namespace:base>
val <- f(1:10)
val
```

"Nothing exists except atoms and empty space; everything else is opinion". (Democritos)

## 2 Atomic Data Types

## 2.1 The core/atomic data types

- R has the following 6 atomic data types:
  - logical (i.e. boolean)
  - integer
  - double
  - character (i.e. string)
  - complex
  - raw (i.e. byte)

The latter 2 types (i.e. complex and especially raw) are less common.

The typeof() function determines the INTERNAL storage/type of an R object.

#### 2.1.1 Examples

• boolean/logical values: either TRUE or FALSE

```
x1 <- TRUE
x1
```

[1] TRUE

typeof(x1)

[1] "logical"

• integer values  $(\in \mathbb{Z})$ :

```
x2 <- 3L
x2
```

```
## [1] 3
typeof(x2)
```

```
• double (precision) values:

x3 <- 3.14
```

```
x3
## [1] 3.14
typeof(x3)
```

## [1] "double"

## [1] "integer"

 $\bullet$  character values/strings

## [1] "complex"

```
x4 <- "Hello world"

## [1] "Hello world"

typeof(x4)

## [1] "character"

• complex values (∈ ℂ):

x5 <- 2.0 + 3i

x5

## [1] 2+3i

typeof(x5)
```

## 2.2 Operations on atomic data types

```
• logical operators: ==, !=, &&, ||, !
   • numerical operators: +, -, *, /, \hat{}, ** (same as the caret), but also:
        – integer division: \%/\%
        - modulo operation: %%
        − Note: matrix multiplication will be performed using %*%
   • character/string manipulation:
       - nchar():
       - paste():
       - cat():
       - sprintf():
       - substr():
       - strsplit():
        - Note: Specialized R libraries were developed to manipulate strings e.g. stringr
   • explicit cast/conversion: https://data-flair.training/blogs/r-string-manipulation/
        as.{logical, integer, double, complex, character}()
   • explicit test of the type of a variable:
        is.{logical, integer, double, complex, character}()
2.2.1
       Examples
   • Logical operators:
x <-3
y <-7
(x <= 3) && (y == 7)
## [1] TRUE
! (y<7)
## [1] TRUE
   • Mathematical operations
2**4
## [1] 16
7%%4
## [1] 3
7/4
## [1] 1.75
7%/%4
## [1] 1
```

• String operations

```
s <- "Hello"
nchar(s)
## [1] 5
news <- paste(s,"World")</pre>
## [1] "Hello World"
sprintf("My new string:%20s\n", news)
## [1] "My new string:
                                Hello World\n"
city <- "Witwatersrand"</pre>
substr(city,4,8)
## [1] "water"
  • Conversion and testing of types
s <- "Hello World"
is.character(s)
## [1] TRUE
s1 <- "-500"
is.character(s1)
## [1] TRUE
s2 <- as.double(s1)
is.character(s2)
## [1] FALSE
is.double(s2)
## [1] TRUE
s3 <- as.complex(s2)
## [1] -500+0i
sqrt(s3)
## [1] 0+22.36068i
```

## 3 Atomic vectors

- An **atomic** vector is a data structure containing elements of **only one atomic** data type. Therefore, an atomic vector is **homogeneous**.
- Atomic vectors are stored in a **linear** fashion.
- R does NOT have scalars:
  - An atomic vector of length 1 plays the role of a scalar.
  - Vectors of **length 0** also exist (and they have some use!).
- A **list** is a vector not necessarily of the atomic type.

A list is also known as a **recursive/generic** vector (vide infra).

#### 3.1 Creation of atomic vectors

Atomic vectors can be created in a multiple ways:

- Use of the **vector()** function.
- Use of the **c()** function (**c** stands for concatenate).
- Use of the column operator:
- Use of the **seq()** and **rep()** functions.

The length of a vector can be retrieved using the **length()** function.

#### 3.1.1 Examples

```
• use of the vector() function:
x <- vector() # Empty vector (Default:'logical')
x
## logical(0)
length(x)
## [1] 0
typeof(x)
## [1] "logical"

x <- vector(mode="complex", length=4)
x
## [1] 0+0i 0+0i 0+0i 0+0i
length(x)
## [1] 4
x
## [1] 4
x
## [1] 4+0i 0+0i 0+0i 0+0i</pre>
```

```
• use of the c() function:
x1 \leftarrow c(3, 2, 5.2, 7)
## [1] 3.0 2.0 5.2 7.0
x2 < -c(8, 12, 13)
x2
## [1] 8 12 13
x3 \leftarrow c(x2, x1)
## [1] 8.0 12.0 13.0 3.0 2.0 5.2 7.0
x4 <- c(FALSE,TRUE,FALSE)</pre>
x4
## [1] FALSE TRUE FALSE
x5 <- c("Hello", "Salt", "Lake", "City")
x5
## [1] "Hello" "Salt" "Lake" "City"
  • use of the column operator:
y1 <- 1:10
у1
## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
y2 <- 5:-5
у2
## [1] 5 4 3 2 1 0 -1 -2 -3 -4 -5
y3 <- 2.3:10
## [1] 2.3 3.3 4.3 5.3 6.3 7.3 8.3 9.3
y4 <- 2.0*7:1
у4
## [1] 14 12 10 8 6 4 2
y5 <- 1:7-1
у5
## [1] 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
  • seq() and rep() functions
z1 <- seq(from=1, to=15, by=3)</pre>
## [1] 1 4 7 10 13
```

```
z2 <- seq(from=-2,to=5,length=4)
z2

## [1] -2.0000000     0.3333333     2.6666667     5.0000000

z3 <- rep(c(3,2,4), time=2)
z3

## [1] 3 2 4 3 2 4

z4 <- rep(c(3,2,4), each=3)
z4

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

z5 <- rep(c(1,7), each=2, time=3)
z5

## [1] 1 1 7 7 1 1 7 7 1 1 7 7
length(z5)

## [1] 12</pre>
```

## 3.2 Operations on vectors: element-wise

- All operations on vectors in R happen element by element (cfr. NumPy).
- Vector Recycling:

If 2 vectors of **different** lengths are involved in an operation, the **shortest vector** will be repeated until all elements of the longest vector are matched. A message will be sent to the stdout.

#### 3.2.1 Examples

```
x <- -3:3

x

## [1] -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3

y <- 1:7

y

## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

xy <- x*y

xy

## [1] -3 -4 -3 0 5 12 21

xpy <- x^y

xpy

## [1] -3 4 -1 0 1 64 2187
```

```
x <- 0:10
y <- 1:2
length(x)

## [1] 11
length(y)

## [1] 2
x

## [1] 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
y

## [1] 1 2
x+y

## Warning in x + y: longer object length is not a multiple of shorter object
## length
## [1] 1 3 3 5 5 7 7 9 9 11 11</pre>
```

## 3.3 Retrieving elements of vectors

- Indexing: starts at 1 (not 0 like C/C++, Python, Java, ....) see also: Edsger Dijkstra: Why numbering should start at zero
- Use of vector with indices to extract values.
- Advanced features:
  - use of boolean values to extract values.
  - the membership operator: %in%.
  - the deselect/omit operator: -
  - which(): returns the indices for which the condition is true.
  - **any**()/**all**() functions.
    - \* any(): TRUE if at least 1 value is true
    - \* all(): TRUE if all values are true

## 3.3.1 Examples

• Use of a simple index:

```
x <- seq(2,100,by=15)
x[4]
## [1] 47
x[1]
## [1] 2</pre>
```

• Select several indices at once using vectors:

```
## [1] 2 17 32 47 62 77 92
x[3:5]
## [1] 32 47 62
x[c(1,3,5,7)]
## [1] 2 32 62 92
x[seq(1,7,by=2)]
## [1] 2 32 62 92
  • Extraction via booleans (i.e. retain only those values that are equal to TRUE):
X
## [1] 2 17 32 47 62 77 92
x>45
## [1] FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE
x[x>45]
## [1] 47 62 77 92
  • Use of the %in% operator:
## [1] 2 17 32 47 62 77 92
10 %in% x
## [1] FALSE
62 %in% x
## [1] TRUE
c(32,33,43) %in% x
## [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE
!(c(32,33,43) \%in\% x)
## [1] FALSE TRUE TRUE
  • Negate/filter out the elements with negative indices:
## [1] 2 17 32 47 62 77 92
```

```
x[-c(2,4,6)]

## [1] 2 32 62 92

z <- x[-1] - x[-length(x)]

z

## [1] 15 15 15 15 15 15
```

• The which() function returns only those indices of which the condition/expression is true.

```
## [1] -1.471552439 -1.373701099 -0.743552262 -0.006133985 -1.928708769
## [6] -0.707711890 -0.615031575 0.018412453 0.894448050 2.215056866
which(vecnum>1.0)

## [1] 10

• Use of the any()/all() functions.

y <- seq(0,100,by=10)
x

## [1] 2 17 32 47 62 77 92

y

## [1] 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
any(x<y)

## Warning in x < y: longer object length is not a multiple of shorter object
## length
## [1] TRUE
all(x[6:7]>y[2:3])
```

#### 3.4 Hash tables

## [1] TRUE

# Sample 10 numbers from N(0,1)

vecnum <- rnorm(n=10)</pre>

vecnum

A hash table is a data structure which implements an associative array or dictionary. It is an abstract data which maps data to keys.

- There are several ways to create one:
  - Map names to an existing vector
  - Add names when creating the vector
- To remove the map, map the names to NULL

#### 3.4.1 Examples

• Creation of 2 independent vectors

```
capitals <- c("Albany", "Providence", "Hartford", "Boston", "Montpelier", "Concord", "Augusta")</pre>
states <- c("NY", "RI", "CT", "MA", "VT", "NH", "ME")
capitals
## [1] "Albany"
                     "Providence" "Hartford"
                                                               "Montpelier"
                                                 "Boston"
## [6] "Concord"
                     "Augusta"
states
## [1] "NY" "RI" "CT" "MA" "VT" "NH" "ME"
capitals[3]
## [1] "Hartford"
  • Create the hashtable/dictionary
# Method 1
names(capitals) <- states</pre>
capitals
##
             NY
                           RI
                                         CT
                                                       MA
                                                                                   NH
       "Albany" "Providence"
                                                 "Boston" "Montpelier"
##
                                 "Hartford"
                                                                           "Concord"
##
      "Augusta"
##
capitals["MA"]
##
         MA
## "Boston"
names(capitals)
## [1] "NY" "RI" "CT" "MA" "VT" "NH" "ME"
# Method 2
phonecode <- c("801"="SLC", "206"="Seattle", "307"="Wyoming")</pre>
phonecode
##
                    206
                               307
         801
       "SLC" "Seattle" "Wyoming"
phonecode["801"]
     801
```

• Dissociate the 2 vectors

## "SLC"

```
names(capitals) <- NULL
capitals</pre>
```

```
## [1] "Albany" "Providence" "Hartford" "Boston" "Montpelier"
## [6] "Concord" "Augusta"
```

## 3.5 NA (Not Available values)

- NA: stands for 'Not Available'/Missing values
- has length of 1.
- is.na(): test all elements of a vector for NA values.
- some functions e.g. mean() return NA when an instance of NA is present.

#### 3.5.1 Examples

• Check of the NA availability

```
x <- c(NA, 1, 2, NA) is.na(x)
```

```
## [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE TRUE
```

• Functions on a vector containing NA

```
mean(x)
```

```
## [1] NA
mean(x, na.rm=TRUE)
```

## [1] 1.5

#### 3.6 Alia

## Still to be developed!

- boolean: Vector operators vs. unique value
- && vs. &.
- || vs. |.
- xor()

"It is my experience that proofs involving matrices can be shortened by 50% if one throws the matrices out" (Emil Artin)

## 4 Matrices & Arrays

Matrices and arrays are homogeneous atomic vectors with an extra attribute: dimension

By default, the elements are stored in a **column-major** fashion. (cfr. **Fortran**). However, we can store the elements in **row-major** order (cfr. **C**) as well.

#### 4.1 Creation of matrices

Matrices can be created in different ways:

- use of the **matrix()** function
- use of rbind()/cbind()
- set the attributes() of a vector
- special functions like e.g. diag()

#### 4.1.1 Examples

• use of the **matrix()** function:

The matrix() function creates a matrix based on a vector.

By default, the elements are stored in a column-major fashion.

The use of the flag byrow=TRUE will store the data in a row-major fashion.

```
A <- matrix(data=1:10, nrow=2) # Column-major (like Fortran)
##
        [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
## [1,]
           1
                 3
## [2,]
                                10
B \leftarrow matrix(data=c(2,3,893,0.17), nrow=2, ncol=2)
В
##
        [,1]
                [,2]
## [1,]
           2 893.00
## [2,]
                0.17
```

```
C <- matrix(data=1:10, nrow=2, byrow=TRUE) # Row-major (like C, C++)
C

## [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
## [1,] 1 2 3 4 5
## [2,] 6 7 8 9 10
```

• use of the **rbind()/cbind()** functions:

```
- cbind(): Bind several vectors (as columns) into a matrix.
A <- rbind(1:10,11:20)
         [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10]
##
## [1,]
            1
                 2
                       3
                            4
                                  5
                                        6
                                             7
                                                        9
                                                   8
                                                              10
## [2,]
           11
                12
                      13
                           14
                                 15
                                       16
                                            17
                                                  18
                                                       19
                                                              20
typeof(A)
## [1] "integer"
class(A)
```

- rbind(): Bind several vectors (as rows) into a matrix.

```
B \leftarrow cbind(1:5,6:10,11:15)
В
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
##
## [1,]
             1
                  6
                       11
## [2,]
             2
                  7
                       12
## [3,]
             3
                  8
                       13
## [4,]
                       14
## [5,]
                 10
                       15
class(B)
```

## [1] "matrix" "array"

## [1] "matrix" "array"

 $\bullet \;$  modifying the  $\operatorname{\mathbf{dim}}$  attribute.

The **fundamental** difference between an R vector and matrix is the presence (in the case of matrices) of a non NULL dim attribute.

We change easily convert a vector into a matrix by setting the dimensions of the vector:

- through the dim() function.
- through the attr() function.

The inverse can be done as well by setting the dim attribute of matrix to NULL.

#### 4.1.2 Examples

```
A <- 1:10
typeof(A)

## [1] "integer"
class(A)

## [1] "integer"
dim(A)
```

## NULL

```
B <- matrix(1:10,nrow=2,ncol=5,byrow=TRUE)</pre>
typeof(B)
## [1] "integer"
class(B)
## [1] "matrix" "array"
dim(B)
## [1] 2 5
# Vector
A <- 1:10
## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
dim(A)
## NULL
typeof(A)
## [1] "integer"
class(A)
## [1] "integer"
\# OPTION I: Using the dim function transform a vector into a matrix
dim(A) \leftarrow c(2,5)
Α
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
## [1,] 1 3 5 7 9
## [2,]
        2 4 6 8 10
dim(A)
## [1] 2 5
typeof(A)
## [1] "integer"
class(A)
## [1] "matrix" "array"
```

```
\# Converting the matrix back to a vector
dim(A) <- NULL</pre>
dim(A)
## NULL
typeof(A)
## [1] "integer"
class(A)
## [1] "integer"
# Option II: More general way
# Convert vector into a matrix
A <- 1:8
## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
class(A)
## [1] "integer"
attr(A,'dim') <- c(2,4)
Α
        [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
## [1,]
           1
                3
## [2,]
            2
                 4
class(A)
## [1] "matrix" "array"
# Convert matrix into a vector.
attr(A, 'dim') <- NULL</pre>
## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
class(A)
## [1] "integer"
4.2
      Operations on matrices
  • Operations like *,/, + happen element-wise.
   • There are also more specialized functions:
       - the mean over rows and columns (rowMeans(), colMeans())
       - linear algebra functions (\%*\%, \mathbf{t}(), \ldots)
```

#### 4.2.1 Examples

• Operations (by **default: element-by-element**): A <- matrix(1:10, nrow=2) B <- matrix( seq(10, 100, by=10), nrow=2)</pre> **##** [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] **##** [1,] 1 3 5 7 9 **##** [2,] 2 4 6 8 10 **##** [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] **##** [1,] 10 30 50 70 90 ## [2,] 20 40 60 80 100 **A**\*B ## [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] **##** [1,] 10 90 250 490 810 **##** [2,] 40 160 360 640 1000 C <- matrix(rep(2,10), nrow=2)</pre> C\*\*A**##** [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] **##** [1,] 2 8 32 128 512 ## [2,] 4 16 64 256 1024 • Calculate row and column means : # Means of rows and columns Α **##** [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] **##** [1,] 1 3 5 7 9 ## [2,] 2 4 6 8 10 rowMeans(A) ## [1] 5 6 colMeans(A) **##** [1] 1.5 3.5 5.5 7.5 9.5 • Matrix multiplication (%\*%) : A <- matrix(1:6, nrow=2) **##** [,1] [,2] [,3] **##** [1,] 1 3 5 ## [2,] 2 4 6

```
B <- matrix(seq(10,120,by=10), nrow=3)</pre>
##
         [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
## [1,]
           10
                 40
                      70 100
## [2,]
           20
                      80
                          110
## [3,]
           30
                      90 120
                60
C <- A%*%B
С
         [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
##
## [1,] 220 490 760 1030
## [2,]
         280 640 1000 1360
dim(C)
## [1] 2 4
   • Linear algebra routines
Some of the more common ones in R:
   • solve(): invert a square matrix
   • diag()
       - extracts the diagonal of a matrix when a matrix is provided.
       - creates a diagonal matrix when a vector is provided.
   • eigen(): calculates the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix
   • det() : calculates the determinant of a matrix.
   • t(): calculates the transpose<sup>1</sup> of a matrix.
# Invert matrix A
A \leftarrow matrix(c(1, 3, 2, 4), ncol = 2, byrow = T)
Ainv <- solve(A)
Ainv %*% A
         [,1] [,2]
##
## [1,]
            1
## [2,]
            0
# Create a diagonal matrix
C \leftarrow diag(c(1,4,7))
С
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
##
                  0
                       0
## [1,]
            1
## [2,]
            0
                       0
            0
                  0
                       7
## [3,]
# Extract the diagonal elements
D <- matrix(1:8,nrow=4)</pre>
D
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Can also be used for dataframes (see later)

```
[,1] [,2]
##
## [1,]
           1
## [2,]
           2
## [3,]
           3
                7
## [4,]
diag(D)
## [1] 1 6
# Calculate eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A
r <- eigen(A)
r
## eigen() decomposition
## $values
## [1] 5.3722813 -0.3722813
##
## $vectors
##
              [,1]
                         [,2]
## [1,] -0.5657675 -0.9093767
## [2,] -0.8245648 0.4159736
# Eigenvalues
r$values
## [1] 5.3722813 -0.3722813
# Matrix with eigenvectors
r$vectors
##
              [,1]
                          [,2]
## [1,] -0.5657675 -0.9093767
## [2,] -0.8245648 0.4159736
# Diagonal Matrix (Similarity Transformation)
solve(r$vectors) %*% A %*% r$vectors
##
                 [,1]
                             [,2]
## [1,] 5.372281e+00 0.0000000
## [2,] -3.330669e-16 -0.3722813
Note that under the hood R calls BLAS and LAPACK.
# Find the version used of BLAS and LAPACK
La_library()
## [1] "/usr/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/lapack/liblapack.so.3.7.1"
extSoftVersion()["BLAS"]
##
                                                 BLAS
## "/usr/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/blas/libblas.so.3.7.1"
```

#### 4.3 Hash Tables

#### Other types **5**

- Attributes
- Special types:
  - FactorsDateTime
- NA, NaN, NULL

## Other topics on Data structures

- List
- Dataframe & Tibble
- IO (read.csv, read.file)
- Names
- Subsetting, [[]] vs. []

## Conditionals & Loops

- if, else, else if switch and elseif
- $\bullet$  for
- while
- repeat
- return()

## **Environments**

- search(), attach, detach
- library

## **Functions**

- lexical scoping
- simple functions
- args(), formals()
- default arg, ...
- lazy evaluation
- closure
- anonymous functions
- make your own operators
- loop functions: {l,s,m}apply, split

## Capita selecta

• profiling, debugging