R Programming Object-Oriented Programming

Generic Language

- A good deal of the language we use to describe the world around us is ambiguous.
- This is because we tend to use a large number of generic terms whose meaning is made clear by the context they are used in.
- This ambiguous use of words is very useful because it enables us to get by with a much smaller vocabulary.

Examples

- "Fitting a model" can mean quite different things depending on the particular model and data being used.
- What we do when we "compute a data summary" depends very much on the kind of data we a summarising.
- The kind of plot produced when we "plot some data" is very dependent on the kind of data we are plotting.

Generic Functions

- Ambiguity is handled in R by introducing a programming facility based on the idea of *generic* functions.
- The use of generic functions means that the action which occurs when a function is applied to a set of arguments is dependent on the type of arguments the function is being applied to.
- Because the action which occurs is determined by the objects passed as arguments, this kind of computer programming is known as object-oriented programming.

Types and Classes

- To make use of object-oriented programming in R, we need a way of creating new types of object.
- In the object-oriented paradigm, these new object types are referred to as *classes*.
- Because the R object system was added some time after R was created, not all R objects are defined using the class system.
- However, even though they may not be defined using the class system, all R objects have an implied class which can be obtained with the class function.

Vectors

The basic vector types correspond to the classes with names logical, numeric, character and complex, while lists are associated with the list class.

```
> class(10)
[1] "numeric"
> class("hello")
[1] "character"
> class(list(1, 2, 1))
[1] "list"
```

More Complex Objects

Other, more complex, R objects also have an implied class. For example matrices are associated with the matrix class and higher-way arrays with the array class.

```
> class(matrix(1:4, nc = 2))
[1] "matrix"
> class(matrix(letters[1:4], nc = 2))
[1] "matrix"
```

Notice that although the underlying modes of these objects differ, they are both regarded as being of class "matrix".

An Example

- We will develop software which manipulates numerical data associated locations in the *x-y* plane.
- Initially we will simply model the locations; later we will add the ability to associate numerical values with the locations.
- The actual locations will be stored in vectors which separately contain the *x* and *y* coordinates of the locations.

Creating the Locations

A simple way of storing the location vectors is in a list.

Adding a Class

To indicate the list has a special structure we attach a class to it.

```
> class(pts) = "coords"
> pts
$x
[1] 0.69 -0.34 1.59 0.12 -0.40
$y
[1] -1.20 0.68 -0.23 0.61 0.57
attr(,"class")
[1] "coords"
```

Constructor Functions

- Creating objects by simply attaching a class to a value is dangerous, because the value may not be appropriate.
- Because of this it is useful to wrap object creation inside a constructor function which can carry out some basic checks.
- In the case of coords object, we probably need to check the following:
 - The x and y values are numeric vectors.
 - The vectors contains no NA, NaN or Inf values.
 - The vectors have the same length.

The Constructor Function

```
> coords =
      function(x, y)
      {
          if (!is.numeric(x) || !is.numeric(y) ||
              !all(is.finite(x)) ||
              !all(is.finite(y)))
                  stop("invalid coordinates")
          if (length(x) != length(y))
              stop("coordinate lengths differ")
          pts = list(x = x, y = y)
          class(pts) = "coords"
          pts
```

Using the Constructor

```
> pts = coords(x = round(rnorm(5), 2),
              y = round(rnorm(5), 2))
> pts
$x
[1] 0.22 -0.03 1.27 0.37 -0.37
$y
[1] 0.83 -1.02 1.65 1.32 0.40
attr(,"class")
[1] "coords"
```

Discarding Class Information

- Sometimes it us useful to work with the information present in objects without the "baggage" of the class information.
- A simple way to do this is to use the unclass function.

```
> unclass(pts)
$x
[1] 0.22 -0.03 1.27 0.37 -0.37
$y
[1] 0.83 -1.02 1.65 1.32 0.40
```

Accessor Functions

- Although coords objects can be treated as a list it is better to define *accessor* functions which return the components.
- This makes the software more modular and easier to modify.

```
> xcoords = function(obj) obj$x
> ycoords = function(obj) obj$y
> xcoords(pts)
[1]  0.22 -0.03  1.27  0.37 -0.37
> ycoords(pts)
[1]  0.83 -1.02  1.65  1.32  0.40
```

Generic Functions and Methods

- Class attributes are the basis for the simple "S3" object-oriented mechanism.
- The mechanism uses a special type of function called a *generic function*.
- A generic function acts as a kind of switch that selects a particular function or *method* to invoked.
- The particular method selected depends on the class of the first argument.

Generic Functions and Methods

- It will be useful to be able to print the values of cooords objects in a more useful form than when they are printed as a list.
- To do that, we simply need to define a *method* for printing.

A Print Method

```
> print.coords =
     function(obj)
      {
            print(paste("(",
                        format(xcoords(obj)),
                        format(ycoords(obj)),
                        ")", sep = ""),
                  quote = FALSE)
      }
> pts
[1] (0.22, 0.83) (-0.03, -1.02)
[3] (1.27, 1.65) (0.37, 1.32)
[5] (-0.37, 0.40)
```

Other Methods

• We can define methods for any functions which are defined as generic.

```
> length.coords =
      function(obj) length(xcoords(obj))
> length(pts)
[1] 5
```

Creating Generic Functions

- Methods can only be defined for functions which are generic.
- New generic functions are easy to create.

```
> bbox =
    function(obj)
    UseMethod("bbox")
```

Creating a bbox Method

```
> bbox.coords =
      function(obj)
      matrix(c(range(xcoords(obj)),
               range(ycoords(obj))),
             nc = 2,
             dimnames = list(
               c("min", "max"),
               c("x:", "y:")))
> bbox(pts)
       x: y:
min -0.37 -1.02
max 1.27 1.65
```

Adding Values to the Coordinates

- We can now set about creating an object which contains both locations and values.
- We will do this by creating a new kind of vcoords object.
- This object will be tagged with both the new class name and the old one, so that we can continue to use the methods we have defined.

The Constructor Function

```
> vcoords =
      function(x, y, v)
      {
          if (!is.numeric(x) || !is.numeric(y) ||
              !is.numeric(v) ||
              !all(is.finite(x)) ||
              !all(is.finite(y)))
                  stop("invalid coordinates")
          if(length(x) != length(y) ||
             length(x) != length(v))
              stop("argument lengths differ")
          pts = list(x = x, y = y, v = v)
          class(pts) = c("vcoords", "coords")
          pts
```

Using the Constructor

```
> pts = vcoords(x = round(rnorm(5), 2),
                y = round(rnorm(5), 2),
                v = round(runif(5, 0, 100)))
> values = function(obj) obj$v
> values(pts)
[1] 18 79 64 56 4
> pts
[1] (-1.70, -0.08) (-0.11, -0.42)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36) (1.28, 0.93)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86)
```

Defining a Print Method

Clearly we need an appropriate method for vcoords objects, we can't just use the coords one.

```
> print.vcoords =
      function(obj)
            print(paste("(",
                         format(xcoords(obj)),
                         ", ",
                         format(ycoords(obj)),
                         ": ".
                         format(values(obj)),
                         ")", sep = ""),
                  quote = FALSE)
```

Results

 We can now get a sensible printed result for vcoords objects.

```
> pts
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 18) (-0.11, -0.42; 79)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 64) ( 1.28, 0.93; 56)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 4)
```

• But notice that the bbox method for vcoords produces a sensible result and does not need to be redefined.

Mathematical Transformations

- vcoords objects contain a numeric slot which can be changed by mathematical transformations.
- We may wish to:
 - apply a mathematical function to the values,
 - negate the values,
 - add, subtract, multiply or divide corresponding values in two objects,
 - compare values in two objects,
 - etc.
- Defining appropriate methods will allow us to do this.

Mathematical Functions

Here is how we can define a cos method.

```
> cos.vcoords =
     function(x)
      vcoords(xcoords(x),
              ycoords(x),
              cos(values(x)))
> cos(pts)
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 0.6603167)
[2] (-0.11, -0.42; -0.8959709)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 0.3918572)
[4] (1.28, 0.93; 0.8532201)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; -0.6536436)
```

Mathematical Functions

A sin method is very similar.

```
> sin.vcoords =
     function(x)
     vcoords(xcoords(x),
              ycoords(x),
              sin(values(x)))
> sin(pts)
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; -0.7509872)
[2] (-0.11, -0.42; -0.4441127)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 0.9200260)
[4] (1.28, 0.93; -0.5215510)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; -0.7568025)
```

Group Methods - Math

In fact most of R's mathematical functions would require an almost identical definition. Fortunately, there is a short-hand way of defining all the methods with one function definition.

```
> Math.vcoords =
    function(x)
    vcoords(xcoords(x),
         ycoords(x),
         get(.Generic)(values(x)))
```

The expression get(.Generic) gets the function with the name that Math.vcoords was invoked under.

Results

```
> sqrt(pts)
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 4.242641)
[2] (-0.11, -0.42; 8.888194)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 8.000000)
[4] (1.28, 0.93; 7.483315)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 2.000000)
> log(pts)
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 2.890372)
[2] (-0.11, -0.42; 4.369448)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 4.158883)
[4] (1.28, 0.93; 4.025352)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 1.386294)
```

Group Methods - Ops

• Defining a method for the Ops generic makes it possible to simultaneously define methods for all the following binary operations.

```
- "+", "-", "*", "/", "^", "%%", "%/%",
- "&", "|", "!",
- "==", "!=", "<", "<=", ">=", ">=", ">".
```

 In order for these methods to work correctly, we need to ensure that locations of the vooords values being operated on are identical.

Ops Methods for vcoords Objects

```
> sameloc =
      function(e1, e2)
      (length(values(e1)) == length(values(e2))
       || all(xcoords(e1) == xcoords(e2))
       || all(ycoords(e1) == ycoords(e2)))
> Ops.vcoords =
      function(e1, e2) {
          if (!sameloc(e1, e2))
              stop("different locations")
          else vcoords(xcoords(e1),
                       ycoords(e2),
                       get(.Generic)(values(e1),
                                      values(e2)))
```

Results

```
> pts + pts
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 36) (-0.11, -0.42; 158)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 128) ( 1.28, 0.93; 112)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 8)
> pts * pts
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 324) (-0.11, -0.42; 6241)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 4096) ( 1.28, 0.93; 3136)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 16)
```

Complexities

- Unfortunately, things are more complex than they seem on the surface.
- Comparisons (==, !=, <, <=, etc.) return logical values so creating vcoords result is not appropriate in those cases.
- Only one of the arguments to binary operators need to be a vcoords object. More type checking is needed.

Code Sketch

• It is possible to check whether an object obj is of the class vcoords with the expression

```
inherits(obj, "vcoords")
```

• If one argument to an Ops function is of class vcoords and the other is numeric, the numeric argument should be shorter than the vcoords object.

Results

```
> pts
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 18) (-0.11, -0.42; 79)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 64) (1.28, 0.93; 56)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 4)
> 2 * pts
[1] (-1.70, -1.70; 36) (-0.11, -0.11; 158)
[3] (-0.10, -0.10; 128) (1.28, 1.28; 112)
[5] (-0.06, -0.06; 8)
> pts > 50
[1] FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE FALSE
```

Subsetting

- Clearly we may wish to have access to subsetting methods when dealing with vcoords objects.
- Expressions like

```
pts[xcoords(pts) < 0 & ycoords(pts) < 0]
need to be defined.</pre>
```

• This can be handled by defining methods for [.

A Subsetting Method

```
> `[.vcoords` = function(x, i)
     vcoords(xcoords(x)[i], ycoords(x)[i],
              values(x)[i])
> pts
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 18) (-0.11, -0.42; 79)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 64) (1.28, 0.93; 56)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 4)
> pts[1:3]
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 18) (-0.11, -0.42; 79)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 64)
> pts[pts > 50]
[1] (-0.11, -0.42; 79) (-0.10, 0.36; 64)
[3] (1.28, 0.93; 56)
```

Assigning to Subsets

- It is common to want to alter the values stored in some subset of an object.
- The syntax for this kind of operation is as follows.

```
var[subset-specification] = values
```

 This expression above is formally equivalent to the following.

```
var = `[<-`(var, subset-specification, values)</pre>
```

• The function [<- is generic and it is possible to write methods for it.

Defining a Subset Assignment Method

```
> `[<-.vcoords` =</pre>
      function(x, i, values) {
          if (!inherits(values, "vcoords"))
              stop("invalid right-hand side")
          if (length(values) != length(i))
              stop("invalid replacement length")
          xx = xcoords(x)
          xy = ycoords(x)
          xv = values(x)
          xx[i] = xcoords(values)
          xy[i] = ycoords(values)
          xv[i] = values(values)
          vcoords(xx, xy, xv)
```

Example: Subset Replacement

```
> pts
[1] (-1.70, -0.08; 18) (-0.11, -0.42; 79)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 64) (1.28, 0.93; 56)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 4)
> pts[1:2] = pts[3:4]
> pts
[1] (-0.10, 0.36; 64) (1.28, 0.93; 56)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; 64) (1.28, 0.93; 56)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 4)
```

General Replacement

 In general, it is possible to define a meaning for any expression of the form

$$fun(var, args) = values$$

• This is taken to mean

so the appropriate effect can be obtained by providing the right definition of `fun<-`.

• The evaluator in R also ensures that nested calls like

$$values(pts)[1:3] = NA$$

will work correctly.

Example: General Replacement

```
> `values<-` =
     function(x, values) {
       if (length(values) != length(x))
          stop("invalid replacement length")
       vcoords(xcoords(x), ycoords(x), values)
> values(pts)[1:3] = NA
> pts
[1] (-0.10, 0.36; NA) (1.28, 0.93; NA)
[3] (-0.10, 0.36; NA) (1.28, 0.93; 56)
[5] (-0.06, -0.86; 4)
```

Problems with the S3 Object System

- The S3 object system provides a range of object-oriented facilities, but does so in a very "loose" fashion.
- The following statements are permissible in R.

```
> model = 1:10; class(model) = "lm"
> class(x) = sample(class(x))
```

- Because this kind of manipulation is allowed, the S3 object system is not completely trustworthy.
- There are other more technical issues with the S3 system.

The S4 Object System

- Because of problems with the S4 object system, John Chambers has moved to a more formally-based object system.
- This "S4" system is quite similar to the Common Lisp CLOS object system or the object system in the Dylan language.
- The system is still "in development," but already offers significant advantages over the S3 system.
- One of the greatest advantages is the use of a formal system of inheritance.

Formal Classes

- In the formal class system, objects belong to formally defined classes. A class consists of a number of named slots, each with a specific type or class.
- A class which represents coordinates in the plane might have two slots, named x and y, which contain numeric vectors of the same length.
- Classes are be *declared* with a setClass statement. We could create a class to represent coordinates as follows.

Creating Objects

• Once a class has been created, objects from that class can be created with a call to the new function.

 The first argument to the function is the class name; the other arguments provide values for the slots in the object.

Constructor Functions

Generally, it is not a good idea to use new in this naked fashion. Instead it is better to embed object creation in a *constructor* function. This makes it possible to carry out some checks of slot validity.

Constructing and Printing Objects

Objects from the coords class, known as *instances* of the class, can now be created with a call to the constructor function.

This kind of object can be printed just like any other R value.

```
> pts
An object of class "coords"
Slot "x":
[1] 1.31 1.15 -1.15 -0.46 -0.97
Slot "y":
[1] 0.64 -0.31 0.87 0.51 -1.34
```

Accessing an Object's Slots

- The values in the slots within an object can be accessed with the *slot access operator* @.
- The slots are accessed by name.

```
> pts@x
[1] 1.31 1.15 -1.15 -0.46 -0.97
> pts@y
[1] 0.64 -0.31 0.87 0.51 -1.34
```

Accessor Functions

- The code fragments pts@x and pts@y reveal a little too much of the internal structure of the coords class.
- Rather than getting the values directly in this way, it is better to use accessor functions which provide indirect access.
- That way the internal structure of the class can be changed more easily.

```
> xcoords = function(obj) obj@x
> ycoords = function(obj) obj@y
```

Generic Functions and Methods

- Formal classes are the basis for a clean object-oriented mechanism in R.
- The mechanism uses a special type of function called a *generic function*.
- A generic function acts as a kind of switch that selects a particular function or *method* to invoked.
- The particular method selected depends on the class of a number of nominated arguments.
- The types of the nominated arguments define the *signature* of the method.

The "show" Generic Function

> show

- The display (i.e. printing) of objects is handled by the show generic function.
- We can see that show is a special kind of function if we print it.

```
standardGeneric for "show"

defined from package "methods"

function (object)
standardGeneric("show")
<environment: 0x8e34728>
Methods may be defined for arguments: object
Use showMethods("show") for currently available
```

(This generic function excludes non-simple inherit

Defining a "show" Method

Methods for show have a single argument called object. An appropriate show method for coords objects can be defined as follows. Here is how we could create a display method for the coords class defined above.

Notice that the slots are accessed using the accessor functions rather than directly.

Using a Method

The *show* method will be used whenever an (implicit or explicit) attempt is made to print an object.

Defining New Generic Functions

If a function is not generic, it possible to create a new generic using the setGeneric function.

Writing a "display" Method

Once a function is defined as generic, new methods can be written for it. In the case of the coords class, we may choose to display the coordinates as pairs of values. It is easy to implement a method which will do this.

Using the "display" Method

A call to the generic function display will be dispatched to the method just defined when the argument is of class coords.

```
> display(pts)
[1] ( 1.31,  0.64) ( 1.15, -0.31)
[3] (-1.15,  0.87) (-0.46,  0.51)
[5] (-0.97, -1.34)
```

Bounding Boxes

- One thing we might be interested in having for objects like those in the coords class, is a bbox method which will compute the two dimensional bounding box for the coordinates.
- We'll make the function generic so that methods can be defined for other classes too.

Implementing a Bounding Box Method

We can implement a bounding box method for the coords class as follows.

Example: Bounding Box

```
> pts
     x y
1 1.31 0.64
2 1.15 -0.31
3 -1.15 0.87
4 -0.46 0.51
5 -0.97 -1.34
> bbox(pts)
      x: y:
min -1.15 -1.34
max 1.31 0.87
```

Inheritance

- The coords class provides a way to represent a set of spatial locations.
- Now suppose that we want a class which provides a numerical value to go along with each spatial location.
- We could define an entirely new class to do this, but it is better to simply add the value to our existing coords class.
- The new class will then *inherit* the spatial properties of the coords class.

Inheritance: The Class Declaration

Here is a declaration of the new class.

This says that a vcoords object contains a numeric value slot and *inherits* the slots from the coords class.

Inheritance: A Constructor Function

```
> vcoords =
      function(x, y, value)
      {
          if (!is.numeric(x) ||
              !is.numeric(y) ||
              !is.numeric(value) ||
              length(x) != length(value) ||
              length(y) != length(value))
                  stop("invalid arguments")
          new("vcoords", x = x, y = y,
              value = value)
      }
> values = function(obj) obj@value
```

Example: A vcoords Object

Defining a vcoords object is simple

but printing it gives an unexpected result.

Inherited Methods

- The printing result occurs because the vcoords class doesn't just inherit the slots of the coords class. It also inherits its methods.
- A vcoords is also a coords object. When a search is is made for an appropriate print method, and no vcoords method is found, the coords method is used.
- If we want a method for printing vcoords objects, we have to define one.

A Print Method for vcoords Objects

Printing vcoords Objects

Mathematical Transformations

- The vcoords class contains a numeric slot which can be changed by mathematical transformations.
- We may wish to:
 - apply a mathematical function to the values,
 - negate the values,
 - add, subtract, multiply or divide corresponding values in two objects,
 - compare values in two objects,
 - etc.
- Defining appropriate methods will allow us to do this.

Mathematical Functions

Here is how we can define an cos method.

```
> setMethod("cos", signature(x = "vcoords"),
           function(x)
           vcoords(xcoords(x),
                   ycoords(x),
                   cos(values(x))))
[1] "cos"
> cos(vpts)
     x y value
1 1.31 0.64 0.7539023
2 1.15 -0.31 -0.8959709
3 -1.15 0.87 0.9887046
4 -0.46 0.51 -0.8192882
5 -0.97 -1.34 -0.8959709
```

Mathematical Functions

A sin method is very similar.

```
> setMethod("sin", signature(x = "vcoords"),
           function(x)
           vcoords(xcoords(x),
                   ycoords(x),
                   sin(values(x))))
[1] "sin"
> sin(vpts)
     x y value
1 1.31 0.64 0.6569866
2 1.15 -0.31 -0.4441127
3 -1.15 0.87 0.1498772
4 -0.46 0.51 -0.5733819
5 -0.97 -1.34 -0.4441127
```

Group Methods

In fact most of R's mathematical functions would require an almost identical definition. There is actually a short-hand way of defining all the methods with one function definition.

This provides definitions for all the common mathematical functions.

Group Methods

```
> sqrt(vpts)
     x y value
1 1.31 0.64 2.645751
2 1.15 -0.31 8.888194
3 -1.15 0.87 4.358899
4 -0.46 0.51 9.899495
5 -0.97 -1.34 8.888194
> tan(vpts)
     x y value
1 1.31 0.64 0.8714480
2 1.15 -0.31 0.4956775
3 -1.15 0.87 0.1515895
4 -0.46 0.51 0.6998537
5 -0.97 -1.34 0.4956775
```

Functions Handled by the Math Group

The following functions are handled by the Math group.

```
abs, sign, exp, sqrt, log, log10, log2, cos, sin, tan, acos, asin, atan, cosh, sinh, tanh, acosh, asinh, atanh, ceiling, floor, trunc, gamma, lgamma, digamma, trigamma cumprod, cumsum, cummin, cummin.
```

There is also a Math2 group (with a second argument called digits) which contains the following functions.

round, signif.

Binary Operations

- There are many binary operations R.
- Examples are:
 - The arithmetic operators:

- The comparison operators:

- These operators are all *generic*, and methods can be defined for them.
- The operators belong to the groups Arith and Compare, which both belong to the larger group Ops.

Binary Operators as Functions

- Any binary operator can be thought of as a function of two variables.
- The function has the form

```
function(e1, e2) {
   . . .
}
```

 A call of the form x + y can be thought of as a call to a function like the one above.

Compatibility of vcoords Objects

- Arithmetic on vcoords objects only makes sense if the objects are defined at identical locations.
- Here is function which will check whether two vccords objects are defined at the same locations.

```
> sameloc =
    function(e1, e2)
    (length(values(e1)) == length(values(e2))
    || any(xcoords(e1) == xcoords(e2))
    || any(ycoords(e1) == ycoords(e2)))
```

Defining Methods for Arithmetic Operators

Here is a group method which will define all the necessary binary operators for arithmetic on vcoords objects.

```
> setMethod("Arith", signature(e1 = "vcoords",
                                e2 = "vcoords"),
      function(e1, e2)
          if (!sameloc(e1, e2))
              stop("identical locations required")
          vcoords(xcoords(e1),
                  ycoords(e1),
                  callGeneric(values(e1),
                               values(e2)))
      7)
[1] "Arith"
```

Example: Adding vcoords

```
> vpts
    x y value
1 1.31 0.64 7
2 1.15 -0.31 79
3 -1.15 0.87 19
4 -0.46 0.51 98
5 -0.97 -1.34 79
> vpts + vpts
     x y value
1 1.31 0.64 14
2 1.15 -0.31 158
3 -1.15 0.87 38
4 -0.46 0.51 196
5 -0.97 -1.34 158
```

Defining Methods for Comparison Operators

A similar definition will work for the Compare group.

Notice that this returns a logical vector rather than a vcoords object.

Additional Definitions

- The definitions of the binary operators given above only work for combining two vcoords objects.
- It may also be useful to define operations like x + 10 or x > 3.
- This can be done by defining addition methods for combining vcoords objects and numeric objects.
- Care must be taken to make this work correctly.

Additional Methods

The following method will make expressions like 1 + x and 3 * y work correctly.

```
> setMethod("Arith",
      signature(e1 = "numeric",
                e2 = "vcoords"),
     function(e1, e2) {
         if (length(e1) > length(values(e2)))
             stop("incompatible lengths")
         vcoords(xcoords(e2).
                 ycoords(e2),
                 callGeneric(as.vector(e1),
                              values(e2)))
            })
[1] "Arith"
```

Example: Scaling vcoords

```
> vpts
    x y value
1 1.31 0.64 7
2 1.15 -0.31 79
3 -1.15 0.87 19
4 -0.46 0.51 98
5 -0.97 -1.34 79
> 3 * vpts
     x y value
1 1.31 0.64 21
2 1.15 -0.31 237
3 -1.15 0.87 57
4 -0.46 0.51 294
5 -0.97 -1.34 237
```

Additional Methods

The following method will make expressions like 1 + x and 3 * y work correctly.

```
> setMethod("Arith",
      signature(e1 = "vcoords",
                 e2 = "numeric"),
     function(e1, e2) {
         if (length(values(e1)) < length(e2))</pre>
             stop("incompatible lengths")
         vcoords(xcoords(e1),
                  ycoords(e1),
                  callGeneric(values(e1),
                               as.vector(e2)))
            })
[1] "Arith"
```

Example: Scaling vcoords

```
> vpts
    x y value
1 1.31 0.64 7
2 1.15 -0.31 79
3 -1.15 0.87 19
4 -0.46 0.51 98
5 -0.97 -1.34 79
> vpts / 2
     x y value
1 1.31 0.64 3.5
2 1.15 -0.31 39.5
3 -1.15 0.87 9.5
4 -0.46 0.51 49.0
5 -0.97 -1.34 39.5
```

Example: vcoords Powers

```
> vpts
    x y value
1 1.31 0.64
2 1.15 -0.31 79
3 -1.15 0.87 19
4 -0.46 0.51 98
5 -0.97 -1.34 79
> vpts^2
     x y value
1 1.31 0.64 49
2 1.15 -0.31 6241
3 -1.15 0.87 361
4 -0.46 0.51 9604
5 -0.97 -1.34 6241
```

Testing Class Membership

The function is allows us to test whether an object belongs to a particular class.

```
> is(vpts, "vcoords")
[1] TRUE
```

Remember that the vcoords class is defined as inheriting from the coords class. So every vcoords object is also a coords object.

```
> is(vpts, "coords")
[1] TRUE
```

Coercion of Objects

Class inheritance provides a natural way of coercing objects from one class to another. The function as can be used to do this.

Coercion only works in the direction of inheritance (it is easy to discard slots).

Subsetting

It is likely that we will want to take subsets of coords and vcoords objects. We can do this by defining methods for the [generic.

Example

```
> vpts[1:3]
   x y value
1 1.31 0.64 7
2 1.15 -0.31 79
3 -1.15 0.87 19
> vpts[values(vpts) > 50]
    x y value
1 1.15 -0.31 79
2 -0.46 0.51 98
3 -0.97 -1.34 79
```