Data Science for Economists

Lecture 2: R language basics

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Table of contents

- 1. Prologue
- 2. Introduction
- 3. Types of Data
- 4. Data Strctures
- 5. Getting Help
- * Slides adapted from Grant McDermott's EC 607 at University of Oregon.

Prologue

Checklist

- ☑ R and RStudio are installed and running on your computer.
- ☑ Did anyone play around with ggplot2?

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Packages that you will need for today.

We're going to work almost exclusively in **base** R today.

- I'll also use the **dplyr** package, but only to demonstrate a few additional considerations for working with non-base libraries. Install/update it now, either through RStudio (recommended) or from your R console (install.packages("dplyr"), dependencies = TRUE).
- (P.S. If you're on Linux, I recommend installing the pre-compiled binary version of **dplyr** from RSPM. This avoids the need to build the package from source, greatly reducing your installation time. See related example here.)

Agenda

Today and the next lecture are going to be very hands on.

• I'll have slides as per usual, but we're going to spent a lot of time live coding together.

This is deliberate.

- I want you to get comfortable typing R commands yourself and navigating the RStudio IDE without resorting to copy+paste.
- Slightly more painful in the beginning, but much better payoff in the long-run.

Introduction

(Some important R concepts)

Basic Arithmetic

R is a powerful calculator and recognizes all of the standard arithmetic operators:

```
1+2 ## Addition
## [1] 3
 6-7 ## Subtraction
## [1] -1
 5/2 ## Division
## [1] 2.5
2<sup>3</sup> ## Exponentiation
## [1] 8
2+4*1<sup>3</sup> ## Standard order of precedence (`*` before `+`, etc.)
## [1] 6
```

Basic Arithmetic

When possible, do operators in vectors in R.

```
first vec = 1:5 #store our first vector
first vec #show vector
## [1] 1 2 3 4 5
first vec + 0.5 #add 1/2 to each element
## [1] 1.5 2.5 3.5 4.5 5.5
first vec + 6:10 #add another vector to first vector
## [1] 7 9 11 13 15
first vec + 6:9 #oops!
## Warning in first vec + 6:9: longer object length is not a multiple of shorter
## object length
## [1] 7 9 11 13 11
```

Basic Arithmetic (cont.)

We can also invoke modulo operators (quotient & remainder).

• Very useful when dealing with time, for example.

```
100 %/% 60 ## How many whole hours in 100 minutes?
## [1] 1
120 %/% 60 ## How many whole hours in 120 minutes?
## [1] 2
100 %% 60 ## How many minutes are left over from dividing 100 by 60?
## [1] 40
120 %% 60 ## How many minutes are left over from dividing 120 by 60?
## [1] 0
```

Data Types in R

Data Types

R has 6 basic data types:

- 1. Character
- 2. Numeric
- 3. Integer
- 4. Logical
- 5. Complex
- 6. Raw (we will mostly ignore this type)

Character

- The character type can be described as "text."
 - It is known as a "string" in other programming languages.

```
my_name = "Alex Marsh"
first_name = "Alex"
last_name = "Marsh" #good style to line up to equals signs
class(my_name)

## [1] "character"

is.character(my_name)

## [1] TRUE
```

Character: Counting Characters

```
length(my_name)
## [1] 1
length(c(first_name,last_name))
## [1] 2
nchar(my_name)
## [1] 10
nchar(c(first_name,last_name))
## [1] 4 5
```

Character: Combinding Characters

```
also my name = 'Alex Marsh'
my name = also my name
## [1] TRUE
paste(first name, last name)
## [1] "Alex Marsh"
paste(first name,last name,sep="-")
## [1] "Alex-Marsh"
paste0(first name, last name)
## [1] "AlexMarsh"
```

Character: An Aside

• The following code will look very similar to a user when examined in the console.

```
my_name

## [1] "Alex Marsh"

print(my_name)

## [1] "Alex Marsh"
```

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- However, what's happening is very different.
 - The first thing returns the *object* my_name
 - The second only prints the *contents* of the object my_name

Character: An Aside

• The following code will look very similar to a user when examined in the console.

```
my_name

## [1] "Alex Marsh"

print(my_name)

## [1] "Alex Marsh"
```

- However, what's happening is very different.
 - The first thing returns the *object* my_name
 - The second only prints the *contents* of the object my_name
- Imagine I have something written on a piece of paper. The first line is if I handed you the piece of paper and you read it. The second line is if I told you aloud what was written on the paper.
 - This difference will matter a lot when it comes to functions.

Character

```
first_name + " " + last_name

## Error in first_name + " ": non-numeric argument to binary operator

toupper(paste(first_name,last_name))

## [1] "ALEX MARSH"

tolower(paste(first_name,last_name))

## [1] "alex marsh"
```

Character: Special Characters

- Special characters "not native" to English can still be used but must be encoded so that R handles them correctly.
- Encoding guarantees that the computer will handle the special characters correctly.
- We will not spend much time on this; however, to read more about encoding text, see this post.

Numeric

Numeric data are "numbers"

- In a lot of programming languages, there is this distinction between floats and integers. This is also true in R but to a much smaller degree.
- Unless explicitly stated as an integer, all "numbers" are numeric data.

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```
my_age = 28
my_height = 5 + 11/12
#my_height_apps = 6 + 0

c(my_age,my_height)

## [1] 28.000000 5.916667

class(my_age)

## [1] "numeric"

class(my_height)
```

Special Numeric Data

- There are a handful of special numeric values including Inf, -Inf and NaN
- Be careful when working with these

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```
1/0

## [1] Inf

log(0)

## [1] -Inf

log(-1)

## Warning in log(-1): NaNs produced

## [1] NaN
```

Integers

"Whole numbers"

- Integers in R are distinguished from numeric data by having an L after the number part.
- The distinction between numeric and integers is not that important here in R.
 - We will mostly ignore the distinction.

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- The distinction between numeric and integers is not that important here in R.
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```
also_my_age = 28L
class(my_age)

## [1] "numeric"

class(also_my_age)

## [1] "integer"
```

Logical

Logical data are either TRUE or FALSE.

• T and F are equivalent.

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```
R_is_fun = TRUE
R_is_hard = FALSE
true = T
false = F

R_is_fun = true

## [1] TRUE

## [1] TRUE
```

Logical: Operations

The most common use of logical data is for testing conditions and control flow.

- >, <, >=, and <= test for greater/less than and/or equal to.
- & and | are the logical operators for "and" and "or" respectively.
 - Order of operations: & are evaluated before |.
- ! negates a logical: !TRUE becomes FALSE and vice versa,
- To test if equal, use two equal signs ==. Not equal !=.

```
2 > 1
## [1] TRUE
1 > 2 & 1 > 1/2
## [1] FALSE
1 > 2 | 1 > 1/2
## [1] TRUE
2 > 1 | 1 > 1/2
## [1] TRUE
```

```
1 > 1/2 & 1 > 2 | 3 > 2  #order of operations are important
## [1] TRUE
1 > 2 & (1 > 1/2 | 3 > 2) #use parenthesis when in doubt
## [1] FALSE
0.5 = 1/2
## [1] TRUE
3 \neq 2
                           #that is ! followed by a =
## [1] TRUE
```

Logical: Operations

%in% tests for containment

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```
R_is_fun
## [1] TRUE
!R_is_fun
## [1] FALSE
2 %in% c(1,2,3,4)
## [1] TRUE
!(5 \%in\% c(1,2,3,4))
  [1] TRUE
```

Aside: Binary operators

Operators like +, -, /, %%, %in%, etc are special functions in R that are binary operators.

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```
!(5 %in% c(1,2,3,4))
```

Aside: Binary operators

Operators like +, -, /, %%, %in%, etc are special functions in R that are binary operators. Notice that above to do "not in," it was a bit clunky:

```
!(5 %in% c(1,2,3,4))
```

You can define a new binary operator like so:

```
"%!in%" = function(a,b){!(a %in% b)}
5 %!in% c(1,2,3,4)
## [1] TRUE
```

Special Logicals

- NA is a special type of logical data
- Cannot be compared the same way.
- NA is different than NaN

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[1] FALSE

```
NA = TRUE
## [1] NA
is.na(NA)
## [1] TRUE
1 = NaN
## [1] NA
is.nan(NA)
```

Logical: Operations

If "mathematical operations" are performed on logicals, they will be coerced into 1s and 0s.

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```
as.numeric(c(TRUE,FALSE))
## [1] 1 0
TRUE + FALSE
## [1] 1
sum(c(TRUE,FALSE,TRUE))
## [1] 2
mean(c(TRUE,FALSE,TRUE))
  [1] 0.6666667
```

Logical: Comparing Floats

Must be careful when testing for equality of floating point numbers ("decimals")

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```
0.1 + 0.2 = 0.3
## [1] FALSE
```

What happened?

Logical: Comparing Floats

Must be careful when testing for equality of floating point numbers ("decimals")

```
0.1 + 0.2 = 0.3
## [1] FALSE
```

What happened?

• Finite precision: floating point numbers aren't exact due to how numbers are stored in a computer.

```
all.equal(0.1+0.2,0.3)
### [1] TRUE
```

Logical

You can read more about logical operators and types here and here.

Complex

Complex data are data that have complex numbers.

• We probably won't use these much but can pop-up if you're not careful.

```
2+3*sqrt(-1) #doesn't work
## Warning in sqrt(-1): NaNs produced
## [1] NaN
2+3i
             #works
## [1] 2+3i
class(2+3i) #complex
## [1] "complex"
```

Assignment

In R, we can use either \leftarrow or = to handle assignment.¹

¹ The \leftarrow is really a < followed by a -. It just looks like one thing b/c of the font I'm using here.

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Assignment with ←

← is normally read aloud as "gets". You can think of it as a (left-facing) arrow saying assign in this direction.

```
\begin{array}{l} a \leftarrow 10 + 5 \\ a \end{array}
```

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Assignment

In R, we can use either \leftarrow or = to handle assignment.¹

Assignment with ←

← is normally read aloud as "gets". You can think of it as a (left-facing) arrow saying assign in this direction.

```
a ← 10 + 5
a
```

[1] 15

Of course, an arrow can point in the other direction too (i.e. \rightarrow). So, the following code chunk is equivalent to the previous one, although used much less frequently.

```
10 + 5 \rightarrow a
```

¹ The \leftarrow is really a < followed by a −. It just looks like one thing b/c of the font I'm using here.

Assignment (cont.)

Assignment with =

You can also use = for assignment.

```
b = 10 + 10 ## Note that the assigned object *must* be on the left with "=".
b
## [1] 20
```

Assignment (cont.)

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```
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b
## [1] 20
```

Which assignment operator to use?

Most R users (purists?) seem to prefer ← for assignment, since = also has specific role for evaluation within functions.

- We'll see lots of examples of this later.
- But I don't think it matters; = is quicker to type and is more intuitive if you're coming from another programming language. (More discussion here and here.)
- I prefer = as it makes for easier to read and cleaner code.

Bottom line: Use whichever you prefer. Just be consistent.

Data Structures in R

Data Structures

In base R, there are 5 main data structures (not exhaustive).

- 1. atomic vector
- 2. list
- 3. matrix/array
- 4. data.frame
- 5. factors

Vectors

- Vectors are a collection of multiple objects.
- There are two types of vectors:
 - 1. atomic vectors
 - 2. lists.
- Atomic vectors must be all of the same type of data.
- To create an atomic vector, put multiple objects within c() separated by commas.
 - Never store an object as c!
 - Will break your code and it might take hours to figure out why.
- A list is a collection of atomic vectors.
- Atomic vectors are one dimensional

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```
numeric_grades = c(90,75,95,85,100,60,76)
letter_grades = c("A-","C","A","B","A","D","C")
mixed_grades = c("A", 95,"B",85,"C",75)
```

Vectors

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 - 2 lists
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- A list is a collection of atomic vectors.
- Atomic vectors are one dimensional

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numeric_grades = c(90,75,95,85,100,60,76)
letter_grades = c("A-","C","A","B","A","D","C")
mixed_grades = c("A", 95,"B",85,"C",75)
```

I said atomic vectors must be all of the same type. However, the last line ran without an error. What do you think happened?

Vectors

```
class(numeric_grades)
## [1] "numeric"
class(letter_grades)
## [1] "character"
mixed_grades
## [1] "A" "95" "B" "85" "C" "75"
class(mixed_grades)
## [1] "character"
```

Vectors: Attributes

- Objects in R can have attributes. Each type of data structure (and objects more generally) will have different attributes.
- Types of attributes include (but not limited to):
 - 1. names
 - 2. dimnames
 - 3. class

Vectors: Attributes

Vectors: Attributes

```
names(numeric grades)
## NULL
names(numeric_grades) = c("Student 1", "Student 2", "Student 3", "Student 4",
                           "Student 5". "Student 6". "Student 7") #this is bad code!
names(numeric grades)
## [1] "Student 1" "Student 2" "Student 3" "Student 4" "Student 5" "Student 6"
## [7] "Student 7"
names(numeric grades) = NULL
names(numeric grades) = paste("Student",1:length(numeric grades))
names(numeric grades)
## [1] "Student 1" "Student 2" "Student 3" "Student 4" "Student 5" "Student 6"
## [7] "Student 7"
```

Vectors: Indexing

- Indexing in R is very simple: it starts at 1 and count up by 1.
 - This is different than indexing in other programming languages which starts at 0.
 - Most "mathematical" languages will start at 1 e.g. R, Matlab, Julia.
- To index a vector, put [i] after the name of the vector where i is the ith position.

```
some_numbers = c(27,22,94)
some_numbers[1]

## [1] 27

some_numbers[3]

## [1] 94

some_numbers[1:2]
## [1] 27 22
```

Vectors: Indexing

• Can use indexing to change values in an object

Vectors: Indexing

• Can use indexing to change values in an object

```
some_numbers[2]

## [1] 22

some_numbers[2] = 23
some_numbers[2]

## [1] 23
```

Vectors: Indexing

• Can use indexing to change values in an object

```
some_numbers[2]

## [1] 22

some_numbers[2] = 23
some_numbers[2]

## [1] 23
```

• Can sequentially index

Vectors: Indexing

• Can use indexing to change values in an object

```
some_numbers[2]
## [1] 22

some_numbers[2] = 23
some_numbers[2]
## [1] 23
```

• Can sequentially index

```
some_numbers[1:2][2]
```

[1] 23

Lists

- Lists are collections of atomic vectors.
- Since each atomic vector is still an atomic vector, within vector types have to be the same but across vectors can differ in type.

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- Since each atomic vector is still an atomic vector, within vector types have to be the same but across vectors can differ in type.

```
names(letter grades) = paste("Student",1:length(letter grades))
 grade list = list(names(numeric grades), numeric grades, letter grades)
 grade list
## [[1]]
  [1] "Student 1" "Student 2" "Student 3" "Student 4" "Student 5" "Student 6"
   [7] "Student 7"
##
   [[2]]
## Student 1 Student 2 Student 3 Student 4 Student 5 Student 6 Student 7
          90
                     75
###
                                95
                                          85
                                                    100
                                                                60
                                                                           76
##
  [[3]]
## Student 1 Student 2 Student 3 Student 4 Student 5 Student 6 Student 7
                    " ( "
        " A - "
                               " A "
                                          "B"
                                                               "D"
##
                                                                          " ( "
```

Lists: Indexing

- Indexing for lists is almost the same as vectors, you just have another layer to deal with.
- To return an element of the list as a list, use single brackets: [i]
- To return an element of the list as a vector, use double brackets: [[i]]

Lists: Indexing

- Indexing for lists is almost the same as vectors, you just have another layer to deal with.
- To return an element of the list as a list, use single brackets: [i]
- To return an element of the list as a vector, use double brackets: [[i]]

```
grade_list[1]
## [[1]]
## [1] "Student 1" "Student 2" "Student 3" "Student 4" "Student 5" "Student 6"
## [7] "Student 7"

grade_list[[1]]
## [1] "Student 1" "Student 2" "Student 3" "Student 4" "Student 5" "Student 6"
## [7] "Student 7"
```

Lists: Indexing

• Elements of a list can still have names

Lists: Indexing

Elements of a list can still have names

```
names(grade list) = c("student names", "numeric grade", "letter grade")
grade list
## $`student names`
## [1] "Student 1" "Student 2" "Student 3" "Student 4" "Student 5" "Student 6"
## [7] "Student 7"
##
## $`numeric grade`
## Student 1 Student 2 Student 3 Student 4 Student 5 Student 6 Student 7
###
          90
                    75
                              95
                                        85
                                                  100
                                                             60
                                                                       76
##
## $`letter grade`
## Student 1 Student 2 Student 3 Student 4 Student 5 Student 6 Student 7
        " Δ – "
             " _ "
                       "Д"
                                       "R"
                                                  "Δ"
                                                            "D"
##
```

Lists: Indexing

• You can access an element of a list using it's name and the \$

Lists: Indexing

• You can access an element of a list using it's name and the \$

```
grade_list$`numeric grade` #`` are used because of the space

## Student 1 Student 2 Student 3 Student 4 Student 5 Student 6 Student 7
## 90 75 95 85 100 60 76
```

Lists: Indexing

• You can access an element of a list using it's name and the \$

```
grade_list$`numeric grade` #`` are used because of the space

## Student 1 Student 2 Student 3 Student 4 Student 5 Student 6 Student 7
## 90 75 95 85 100 60 76
```

Double indexing still works

Lists: Indexing

• You can access an element of a list using it's name and the \$

```
grade_list$`numeric grade` #`` are used because of the space

## Student 1 Student 2 Student 3 Student 4 Student 5 Student 6 Student 7
## 90 75 95 85 100 60 76
```

Double indexing still works

```
grade_list[[1]][4]

## [1] "Student 4"

grade_list$`student names`[4]

## [1] "Student 4"
```

Matrix

- Matrices are essentially two dimensional atomic vectors.
- Most things that apply to atomic vectors are true for matrices
- While we can make character matrices, they aren't very useful as matrices are most useful for mathematical operations.
- Due to the nature of this course, we will probably not use matrices much as we are not coding things by hand.

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- Most things that apply to atomic vectors are true for matrices
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```
num_mat = matrix(1:9,ncol=3)
num_mat

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

Matrix: Indexing

[1] 5

- Indexing a matrix is similar to atomic vectors; two dimensions to index.
- If one dimension is omitted, returns that entire dimension.
- First index is for rows; second index is for columns.

```
num mat[1,2]
## [1] 4
num mat[1,]
## [1] 1 4 7
num mat[,2]
## [1] 4 5 6
num_mat[5]
```

47 / 58

Array

- Arrays are 2 dimensional or greater matrices.
- Again, while arrays can be useful, we will likely not be working with them much.

```
num array = array(1:(3*3*2),dim = c(3,3,2))
num array
## , , 1
###
  [,1] [,2] [,3]
###
## [1,] 1 4
## [2,] 2 5 8
## [3,]
##
## , , 2
##
       [,1][,2][,3]
##
## [1,]
       10
           13
               16
## [2,]
      11 14 17
## [3,]
      12
           15
                 18
```

Array: Indexing

• Indexing is same as matrices, just the same number of indexes as dimensions

Array: Indexing

• Indexing is same as matrices, just the same number of indexes as dimensions

```
num array[1,2,1]
## [1] 4
num_array[,,1]
   [,1][,2][,3]
##
## [1,] 1 4 7
## [2,] 2 5 8
## [3,] 3 6 9
num_array[1,2,]
## [1] 4 13
num array[12]
```

Data.frame

- data.frames are basically "data sets."
- Using established terminology, they are collections of atomic vectors in a rectangular format.
 - This may sound similar to lists; however, lists don't have a restriction on the geometric format.
 - Could have a lists of lists etc.
- Each column of a data.frame must be of the same type.
- Fach row is an observation.

Data.frame

- names() on a data.frame returns the names of the variables.
- length() and ncol() return the number of variables in the data.frame
- nrow() returns the number of rows in the data.frame.
- Note: if you don't use head(), tail() or another way to restrict which rows are returned, returning a data.frame will return all rows, which is annoying.
 - This is fixed in a popular library called data.table that we will learn later.

```
mtcars
##
                      mpg cyl disp hp drat
                                               wt gsec vs am gear carb
  Mazda RX4
                      21.0
                            6 160.0 110 3.90 2.620 16.46
  Mazda RX4 Wag
                     21.0
                           6 160.0 110 3.90 2.875 17.02 0 1
                      22.8
  Datsun 710
                          4 108.0 93 3.85 2.320 18.61 1 1
  Hornet 4 Drive
                     21.4
                            6 258.0 110 3.08 3.215 19.44 1 0
## Hornet Sportabout 18.7
                            8 360.0 175 3.15 3.440 17.02
## Valiant
                      18.1
                            6 225.0 105 2.76 3.460 20.22
  Duster 360
                      14.3
                            8 360.0 245 3.21 3.570 15.84
## Merc 240D
                     24.4
                            4 146.7 62 3.69 3.190 20.00
  Merc 230
                      22.8
                            4 140.8 95 3.92 3.150 22.90
```

Data.frame: Indexing

• Indexing a data.frame is similar to indexing a matrix; the columns can have names

```
mtcars[1:5, "mpg"]
## [1] 21.0 21.0 22.8 21.4 18.7
mtcars$mpg[1:5]
## [1] 21.0 21.0 22.8 21.4 18.7
mtcars[1:5,1]
## [1] 21.0 21.0 22.8 21.4 18.7
row.names(mtcars)[1:5]
  [1] "Mazda RX4"
                           "Mazda RX4 Wag" "Datsun 710"
                           "Hornet Sportabout"
  [4] "Hornet 4 Drive"
```

Factors:

- Factors are essentially categorical variables.
- Factors can organized text into different groups.
- Are only really useful to data analysis and modeling.
- Factors have different "levels" which are the groups.
- Can be tricky when first learning, but ultimately rather simple.

```
fact_groups = letters[sample(1:26,10,replace=T)]
fact_groups

## [1] "a" "j" "z" "y" "w" "f" "m" "g" "n" "j"

fact_groups = factor(fact_groups,levels=letters)
fact_groups

## [1] a j z y w f m g n j
## Levels: a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z
```

Getting help

Help

For more information on a (named) function or object in R, consult the "help" documentation. For example:

```
help(plot)
```

Or, more simply, just use ?:

```
# This is what most people use.
?plot
```

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Aside 1: Comments in R are demarcated by #.

• Hit Ctrl+Shift+c in RStudio to (un)comment whole sections of highlighted code.

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Aside 1: Comments in R are demarcated by #.

• Hit Ctrl+Shift+c in RStudio to (un)comment whole sections of highlighted code.

Aside 2: See the *Examples* section at the bottom of the help file?

• You can run them with the example() function. Try it: example(plot).

Vignettes

For many packages, you can also try the vignette() function, which will provide an introduction to a package and it's purpose through a series of helpful examples.

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I highly encourage reading package vignettes if they are available.

• They are often the best way to learn how to use a package.

One complication is that you need to know the exact name of the package vignette(s).

- E.g. The dplyr package actually has several vignettes associated with it: "dplyr", "window-functions", "programming", etc.
- You can run vignette() (i.e. without any arguments) to list the available vignettes of every installed package installed on your system.
- Or, run vignette(all = FALSE) if you only want to see the vignettes of any *loaded* packages.

Demos

Similar to vignettes, many packages come with built-in, interactive demos.

To list all available demos on your system:¹

```
demo(package = .packages(all.available = TRUE))
```

¹ How would you limit the demos to one particular package?

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To list all available demos on your system:¹

```
demo(package = .packages(all.available = TRUE))
```

To run a specific demo, just tell R which one and the name of the parent package. For example:

```
demo("graphics", package = "graphics")
```

¹ How would you limit the demos to one particular package?

Next lecture(s): Objects and the OOP approach