#### **Data Science for Economists**

Lecture 2: R language basics

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- \* 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"
```

#### 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

#### 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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- Unless explicitly stated as an integer, all "numbers" are numeric data.

```
my_age = 27
my_height = 5 + 11/12
c(my_age,my_height)

## [1] 27.000000 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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- Be careful when working with these

```
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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  - We will mostly ignore the distinction.

```
also_my_age = 27L
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
```

### Special Logicals

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- 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)
```

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## Logical: Operations

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

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

```
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.<sup>1</sup>

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

# **Assignment**

In R, we can use either  $\leftarrow$  or = to handle assignment.<sup>1</sup>

#### 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
```

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# Assignment

In R, we can use either  $\leftarrow$  or = to handle assignment.<sup>1</sup>

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```
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
```

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# 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.
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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)
```

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

```
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**

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```
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

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```
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

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```
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]]

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```
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
        " A – "
             " _ "
                       "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.

#### 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.

```
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]
```

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#### **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] "g" "o" "i" "r" "h" "k" "w" "s" "w" "h"

fact_groups = factor(fact_groups,levels=letters)
fact_groups

## [1] g o i r h k w s w h

## 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 #.

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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 <a href="vignette">vignette()</a> function, which will provide an introduction to a package and it's purpose through a series of helpful examples.

• Try running vignette("dplyr") in your console now.

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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:<sup>1</sup>

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

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> How would you limit the demos to one particular package?

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

To list all available demos on your system:<sup>1</sup>

```
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")
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> How would you limit the demos to one particular package?

# Next lecture(s): Objects and the OOP approach