5d. Initializing Vectors

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INTRODUCTION

We continue introducing preliminary concepts for mutations. The previous section distinguished between the use of \equiv for assignments and mutations. Now, we'll deal with approaches to creating vectors.

Our presentation starts by outlining the process of initializing vectors, where memory is reserved without assigning initial values. We'll then discuss how to create vectors filled with predefined values such as zeros or ones. Finally, we show how to concatenate multiple vectors into new ones.

INITIALIZING VECTORS

Creating an array involves two steps: reserving memory for holding its content and assigning initial values to its elements. However, if you don't intend to populate the array with values right away, it's more efficient to only initialize the array. This means reserving memory space, but without setting any initial values.

Technically, initializing an array entails creating an array filled with undef values. These values represent arbitrary content in memory at the moment of allocation. Importantly, while undef displays concrete numbers when you output the array's content, they're meaningless and vary every time you initialize a new array.

There are two methods for creating vectors with <code>undef</code> values. The first one requires you to explicit specify the type and length of the array, which is accomplished via <code>Vector{<elements' type>}(undef, <length>)</code>. The second approach is based on the function <code>similar(x)</code>, which creates a vector with the same type and dimensions as an existing vector <code>x</code>.

```
x_length = 3

x = Vector{Int64}(undef, x_length) # 'x' can hold 'Int64' values, and is initialized with
3 undefined elements

julia> [X]
3-element Vector{Int64}:
140724480121488
2497084710592
2497285012816
```

```
y = [3,4,5]

x = similar(y)  # `x` has the same type as `y`, which is Vector{Int64}
(undef, 3)

julia> X
3-element Vector{Int64}:
    2497063587648
    2497063587664
    2497355825296
```

The example demonstrates that <u>undef</u> values don't follow any particular pattern. Moreover, these values vary in each execution, as they reflect any content held in RAM at the moment of allocation. In fact, a more descriptive way to call <u>undef</u> values would be **uninitialized values**.

CREATING VECTORS WITH GIVEN VALUES

In the following, we present several approaches to creating arrays filled with predefined values.

VECTORS WITH RANGE

If our goal is to generate a sequence of values, we can employ the function <code>collect(<range>)</code>. Recall that the syntax for defining ranges is <code><start>: <steps>: <stop></code>, where <code><steps></code> establishes the gap between elements.

Notice that when a range is created, <steps> implicitly dictates the number of elements to be generated. Alternatively, you could specify the number of elements to be stored, letting <steps> be implicitly determined. This is achieved by the function range, whose syntax is range(<start>, <end>, <number elements>). 1

The following code snippet demonstrates the use of range, by generating five evenly spaced elements between 0 and 1.

```
x = range(start=0, length=5, stop=1) # any order for keyword arguments
julia> \times
0.0:0.25:1.0
```

VECTORS WITH SPECIFIC VALUES

We can also create vectors of some given length filled with the same repeated value. In particular, the functions zeros and ones respectively create vectors with zeros and ones. By default, these functions define Float64 elements, although you can specify a different type in the first argument of the function.

For creating Boolean vectors, Julia provides two convenient functions called trues and falses.

VECTORS FILLED WITH A REPEATED OBJECT

To define vectors comprising elements different from zeros or ones, Julia provides the fill function. Unlike the previous functions, this accepts any arbitrary scalar to be repeated.

```
length_vector = 3
filling_object = 1

x = fill(filling_object, length_vector)

julia> [X]
3-element Vector{Int64}:
    1
    1
    1
    1
    1
```

CONCATENATING VECTORS

Finally, we can create a vector \boxed{z} that merges all the elements of two vectors \boxed{x} and \boxed{y} . One simple approach for doing this is through $\boxed{z = [x \; ; \; y]}$. While this method is suitable for concatenating a few vectors, it becomes impractical with a large number of vectors, and directly infeasible when the number of vectors to concatenate is unknown.

For these scenarios, we can instead employ the function vcat, which merges all its arguments into one vector. By use of the splat operator \ldots , the function can also be applied with a single argument that comprises a list of vectors. ²

Closely related to vector concatenation is the repeat function, which defines a vector containing the same object multiple times. Importantly, unlike fill, repeat requires an array as its input, throwing an error if a scalar in particular is passed.

Warning!

This subsection requires knowledge of a few **concepts that we haven't discussed yet**. As such, it's marked as optional.

One such concept is **in-place functions**, identified by the symbol <code>!</code> appended to the function's name. The symbol is simply notation added by developers, hinting that the function modifies the value of at least one of its arguments. In-place functions will be explored thoroughly later).

Another concept introduced is **pairs**, which will also be examined comprehensively in <u>a future section</u>. For the purposes of this subsection, it's sufficient to know that pairs are denoted by $\boxed{a \Rightarrow b}$, where \boxed{a} in our application will refer to some value and \boxed{b} represent its corresponding replacement value.

Next, we show how to add, remove, and replace elements of a vector. To add a single element in particular, the methods are as follows.

The function <code>push!</code> is particularly helpful to collect results in a vector. This is because, as it doesn't require any prior knowledge about the number of elements to be stored, we can dynamically grow the vector by adding more results. Notice that adding elements at the end via <code>push!</code> is faster than doing it at the beginning via <code>pushfirst!</code>.

Analogous functions exist to remove elements, as shown below.

```
x = [5,6,7]

popfirst!(x) # delete first element

julia> [X]
2-element Vector{Int64}:
6
7
```

```
x = [5,6,7]
indices_of_removal = [1,3]

deleteat!(x, indices_of_removal) # delete elements at indices 1 and 3

julia> X
1-element Vector{Int64}:
6
```

Emulating the behavior of deleteat!, we can also indicate which elements should be retained.

Finally, we can replace specific values with new ones. This can be done by creating a new copy via replace or by updating the original vector with replace!

Both functions make use of pairs [a => b], where [a] is some value and [b] its corresponding replacement value. Note that these functions perform substitutions based on values, rather than indices.

```
x = [3,3,5]
y = replace(x, 3 => 0)  # new copy

julia> y
3-element Vector{Int64}:
0
0
5
```

```
x = [3,3,5]
y = replace(x, 3 => 0, 5 => 1)  # new copy

julia> y
3-element Vector{Int64}:
0
0
1
```

FOOTNOTES

^{1.} Note that range represents a convenient syntax for <start> : 1 / <number elements> : <end>.

^{2.} Recall that the operator ... splits a collection into multiple arguments. This enables the use of a vector or tuple to denote multiple function arguments. For further details, see here under the subsection "Splatting".