R data types: Lists

Alberto Garfagnini

Università di Padova

R lecture 3



R internals: variables and objects creation

 We create a vector with three values and assign it to a reference variable, x

$$x < -c(1,2,3)$$

• we now copy x to another variable y:

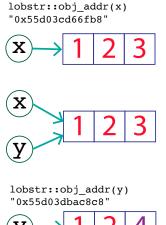
• and modify one element of y

$$y[3] < -4$$

• did we modify also x?

No, they refer to two different objects:

- the behavior is called copy-on-modify
- all R objects are immutable



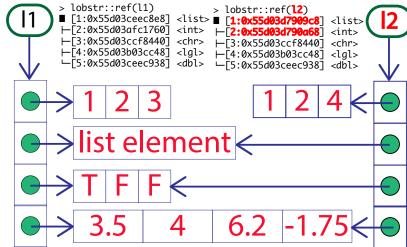
The lobstr package allows to visualize R data structures: it shows memory location and size of objects.

URL: https://github.com/r-lib/lobstr

- Lists are an evolution of atomic vectors: each element can be of any type
- from the technical point of view: each element of a list is of the same type: it is a reference to another R object
- building a list:

 we copy to a new list and modify one element

```
12 <- 11
12[[1]] <- c(1L,2L,4L)
```



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R matrices

- a matrix is a 2-dimensional object
- the first way of creating a matrix is by calling the matrix() object constructor

```
X \leftarrow matrix(c(1,0,0,0,1,0,0,0,1), nrow=3); X
%>
         [,1] [,2] [,3]
%> [1,]
            1
                 0
                       0
%> [2,]
            0
                 1
                       0
%> [3,]
            0
                 0
class(X)
%> [1] "matrix"
attributes(X)
%> $dim
%> [1] 3 3
str(X)
%> num [1:3, 1:3] 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1
```

 another way is to transform a vector in a matrix: data can be arranged by rows (byrow=T) or columns (byrow=F)

```
vct < c(1,2,3,4,4,3,2,1)
V <- matrix(vct,byrow=T,nrow=2)</pre>
                                            V <- matrix(vct,byrow=F,nrow=2)</pre>
V
                                            V
%>
         [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
                                            %>
                                                      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
                                            %> [1,]
%> [1,]
                                                               3
             1
%> [2,]
                  3
                              1
                                            %> [2,]
                                                         2
                                                                     3
             4
                                                               4
```

 another possibility is to convert the vector to a matrix by specifying the new dimensions (rows and columns), using the dim function

```
vct < -c(1,2,3,4,4,3,2,1)
vct
%> [1] 1 2 3 4 4 3 2 1
dim(vct) \leftarrow c(4,2)
is.matrix(vct)
%> [1] TRUE
vct
       [,1] [,2]
%>
%> [1,]
        1
%> [2,]
          2
%> [3,]
        3
4
          3
                2
%> [4,]
```

• we can then transform the matrix:

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Accessing or operating on matrix rows or columns

ullet Let's create a matrix with n=20 entries sampled from a Poisson distribution with $\lambda=1.5$

```
X <- matrix(rpois(n=20,lambda=1.5), nrow=4)</pre>
X
%>
        [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
%> [1,]
         1
                 1
                      1
                            2
%> [2,]
                      3
                            3
                                 2
                 1
           1
%> [3,]
           1
                 3
                      5
                            0
                                 1
%> [4,]
          2
                 1
                      1
X[3,3] # return element in row 3 and column 3
%> [1] 5
X[4,] # return row 4
%> [1] 2 1 1 2 2
X[,5] # return column 5
%> [1] 4 2 1 2
```

• there are special functions for calculating summary statistics on a matrix:

Adding rows and columns to a matrix

• given a matrix, we would like to add a row, at the bottom, showing the column means, and a column at the right showing the row variances:

```
vct \leftarrow matrix(c(1,0,2,5,1,1,3,1,3,1,0,2,1,0,2,1), byrow=T, nrow=4)
%>
         [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
%> [1,]
         1
                 0
%> [2,]
           1
                 1
                       3
%> [3,]
                            2
           3
                 1
                       0
%> [4,]
vct <- rbind(vct, apply(vct, 2, mean))</pre>
vct <- cbind(vct, apply(vct, 1, var))</pre>
colnames(vct) <- c(1:4, "variance")</pre>
rownames(vct) <- c(1:4, "mean")</pre>
vct
%>
               2
                    3
                         4 variance
           1
      1.0 0.0 2.00 5.00 4.6666667
%> 1
%> 2
       1.0 1.0 3.00 1.00 1.0000000
%> <mark>3</mark>
        3.0 1.0 0.00 2.00 1.6666667
%> 4
        1.0 0.0 2.00 1.00 0.6666667
%> mean 1.5 0.5 1.75 2.25 0.5416667
```

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The apply() collection functions

- are used to apply operations on a the elements of a complex object (vector, list, data.frame, ...) avoiding the use of loops
- apply() is the most basic and can be used over a matrix or array

apply()

usage:

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The apply() collection functions

• sapply() takes a vector or list object and returns an object of the same type.

sapply()

usage:

```
sapply(X, FUN)

Arguments:
    X: A vector or an object
    FUN: Function applied to each element of X

x <- 1:10
apply(x, 1, sqrt)
#> Error in apply(x, 1, sqrt): dim(X) must have a positive length

sapply(x, sqrt)
[1] 1.000000 1.414214 1.732051 2.000000 2.236068
[6] 2.449490 2.645751 2.828427 3.000000 3.162278
```

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The apply() collection functions

- lapply() perfoms operations on list objects and returns a list object with the same length of the original set
- lappy() applies a function to each element of the list
- lapply() takes list, vector or data frame as input and returns a list

lapply()

usage:

```
lapply(X, FUN)
Arguments:

X: A vector or an object
FUN: Function applied to each element of X
box <- c("Orange", "CHErrry", "APPLE")
str(box)
#> chr [1:3] "Orange" "CHErrry" "APPLE"

lbox <- lapply(box, tolower)
str(lbox)
#> List of 3
#> $ : chr "orange"
#> $ : chr "cherrry"
#> $ : chr "apple"
```

apply(), sapply() and lapply()

- apply() is used to apply functions to rows or columns of matrices or dataframes across one of the margins of a matrix
- margin=1 refers to the rows and margin=2 to the columns

```
(Y <- matrix(rbinom(20, 9, 0.45), nrow=4))
        [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
%>
%> [1,]
           6
                5
%> [2,]
           6
                3
                     3
%> [3,]
%> [4,]
          3
                4
                     4
                           3
apply(Y, MARGIN=2, FUN=sum) # apply sum() to all columns
%>[1] 20 14 14 14 19
```

• we can apply() functions to the individual elements of a matrix. In this case, the margin parameter, determines only the shape of the resulting matrix

```
apply(Y, 1, sqrt)
%>
            [, 1]
                      [,2]
                               [,3]
                                        [,4]
%> [1,] 2.449490 2.449490 2.236068 1.732051
%> [2,] 2.236068 1.732051 1.414214 2.000000
%> [3,] 2.000000 1.732051 1.732051 2.000000
%> [4,] 1.414214 2.236068 2.000000 1.732051
%> [5,] 2.236068 2.000000 2.000000 2.449490
apply(Y, 2, sqrt)
%>
            [,1]
                      [,2]
                               [,3]
                                        [,4]
%> [1,] 2.449490 2.236068 2.000000 1.414214 2.236068
%> [2,] 2.449490 1.732051 1.732051 2.236068 2.000000
%> [3,] 2.236068 1.414214 1.732051 2.000000 2.000000
%> [4,] 1.732051 2.000000 2.000000 1.732051 2.449490
```

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apply(), sapply() and lapply()

it is also possible to apply an anonymous, user defined, function

```
apply(Y, 1, function(x) x^2+x) # compute x^2 + x for each element
%> [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
%> [1,]
        42
               42
                    30
%> [2,]
          30
               12
                         20
                     6
%> [3,]
          20
               12
                    12
                         20
%> [4,]
          6
               30
                    20
                         12
%> [5,]
          30
               20
                    20
                          42
```

 in case you need to apply a function to a vector, rather than to the margin of a matrix, use sapply()

```
sapply(12:14, seq) # generate a list of seq, from 1:12 to 1:14
%> [[1]]
%>
   [1]
                3
                      5
                                   9 10 11 12
%>
%> [[2]]
%>
    [1]
            2
                3
                      5
                         6
                            7
                               8 9 10 11 12 13
%>
%> [[3]]
    [1]
%>
                3
                      5
                         6
                            7
                               8
                                 9 10 11 12 13 14
```

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Random numbers

- random numbers from a uniform distribution $\mathcal{U}(0,1)$ are generated using runif()
- the random generation seed is set via set.seed()

```
set.seed(2019)
runif(3)
%> [1] 0.7699015 0.7128397 0.3033602
```

- resetting the seed with the same value will generate the same sequence of random numbers
- is is also possible to save the current seed and reuse it to obtain the same random numbers sub-sequence

```
current.seed <- .Random.seed # save the current seed
runif(3)
%> [1] 0.61823636 0.05048374 0.04321880
runif(3)
%> [1] 0.820176206 0.009614496 0.102491504

current.seed -> .Random.seed # reset the previous sequence seed
runif(5)
%> [1] 0.618236361 0.050483740 0.043218804 0.820176206 0.009614496
```

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sampling from a vector

- generating random numbers from probability distributions will be discussed in the next lessons
- now we want to randomize (shuffling or sampling from) the elements of a vector
- There are two ways of sampling:
 - 1) sampling without replacement: all the vector values will appear in output, but in a randomized sequence
 - 2) sampling with replacement : some vector values may be re-selected and appear more than once in the output
- using sample(), sampling without replacement is the default operation

```
y <- c(8,3,5,7,6,6,8,9,2,3,9,4,10,4,11)
sample(y) # reshuffling all vector values
%> [1] 3 9 2 5 4 8 6 8 6 4 10 3 7 11 9
sample(y, 5) # pick up only 5 values from the original vector
%> [1] 3 8 9 4 8
sample(y, 5) # just redo it, and a different sequence may appear
%> [1] 8 3 8 4 3
```

• The option replace=T allows for sampling with replacement

```
sample(y, replace=T)
%> [1] 8 3 6 8 8 4 3 7 10 9 10 9 4 4 7
```

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sample()'s surprise example

```
x < -1:10
%>
    [1]
                        5
                            6
                               7
                                   sample(x, size, replace = FALSE, prob = NULL)
sample(x[x>8])
%> [1] 10 9
                                   If 'x' has length 1, sampling takes place from '1:x'
sample(x[x>9])
                        6 5
%> [1] 1 10
                                          3
sample(x[x > 10])
%> integer(0)
```

- the first argument of sample() can be a vector of more than one element or an integer
- the resample() function is safer

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R subsetting

- R's subsetting operators are fast and powerful, and allow to perform complex operations in a way that few other languages can match
- there are 6 ways to subset atomic vectors
- there are 3 subsetting operators: [[, [and \$
- subsetting can be combined with assignment

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```
x < -c(2.1, 4, 6.7, 1.75)
```

positive integers return elements at a specified position

```
x[c(1,3)]
%> [1] 2.1 6.7

% Duplicate indices will duplicate values
x[c(1,1,3,3)]
%> [1] 2.1 2.1 6.7 6.7

% Real numbers are truncated to integers
x[sort(x)]
%> [1] 2.10 4.00 1.75 NA
```

negative integers exclude elements

```
x[-c(1,3)] %> [1] 4.00 1.75 % NB negative and positive ints cannot be mixed x[c(-1,3)] %> Error in x[c(-1,3)]:only 0'sumayubeumixeduwithunegativeusubscripts
```

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Subsetting atomic vectors - 2

```
x < -c(2.1, 4, 6.7, 1.75)
```

logical vectors select elements where the logical value is TRUE

```
x[c(T, T, F, T)]
%> [1] 2.10 4.00 1.75

x[x>2]
%> [1] 2.1 4.0 6.7
```

• if in x[sel], length(sel) != length(x) the recycling rules are used: the shorter vector is recycled to the length of the longer

```
> x[c(TRUE, FALSE)]
[1] 2.1 6.7

%# is equivalent to:
> x[c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE)]
[1] 2.1 6.7
```

nothing returns the original vector

```
x[]
%> [1] 2.10 4.00 6.70 1.75
```

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```
x <- c(2.1, 4, 6.7, 1.75)
```

zero returns a zero-length vector (it can be helpful to generate test data)

```
x[0]
numeric(0)
```

named vectors can be accessed with character vectors

```
y <- setNames(x, LETTERS[1:length(x)])

% > A B C D

% > 2.10 4.00 6.70 1.75

y["A"]

% > A

% > 2.1

y[c('A', 'A', 'D')]

% > A D

% > 2.10 2.10 1.75
```

 WARNING: subsetting with factors will use the underlying integer vector, not the character levels. Avoid subsetting with factors

```
y[factor("B")]
%> A
%> 2.1
```

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Subsetting matrices

 subsetting a matrix or a list works in a similar way as subsetting atomic vectors

```
S <- matrix(1:9, nrow = 3)
%> [1,] 1 4 7
%> [2,] 2 5 8
%> [3,] 3 6 9
```

- using [] always returns a list
- [[]] and \$ allows to pull out elements from the list
- the common rule to subset a matrix (2D) and an array (nD, n > 2) is to supply a 1D vector for each dimension, separated by a comma
- blank subsetting allows to keep all data for the corresponding dimension

```
\%# Get rows 1 and 3 and all columns
S[c(1,3),]
   [,1] [,2] [,3]
%>
%> [1,]
         1
                4
%> [2,]
           3
                6
                     9
colnames(S) <- c("S1", "S2", "S3")</pre>
S[c(T, F, T), c("S1", "S3")]
%>
      S1 S3
%> [1,] 1 7
%> [2,] 3
```

Subsetting matrices - 2

• matrices and arrays are just vectors with special attributes, therefore they can be subset with a single vector, as if they were a 1D vector

```
v <- outer(1:5,1:5, FUN="paste", sep=",")
v
%>     [,1]     [,2]     [,3]     [,4]     [,5]
%>     [1,]     "1,1"     "1,2"     "1,3"     "1,4"     "1,5"
%>     [2,]     "2,1"     "2,2"     "2,3"     "2,4"     "2,5"
%>     [3,]     "3,1"     "3,2"     "3,3"     "3,4"     "3,5"
%>     [4,]     "4,1"     "4,2"     "4,3"     "4,4"     "4,5"
%>     [5,]     "5,1"     "5,2"     "5,3"     "5,4"     "5,5"
v[seq(3, 23, 5)]
%>     [1]     "3,1"     "3,2"     "3,3"     "3,4"     "3,5"
```

• to preserve the original matrix dimension, use drop = FALSE

```
(S <- matrix(1:6, nrow = 2))
%> [,1] [,2] [,3]
%> [1,] 1 3 5
%> [2,] 2 4 6

S[1, ]
%> [1] 1 3 5

S[1, , drop = FALSE]
%> [,1] [,2] [,3]
%> [1,] 1 3 5
```

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Selecting a single element

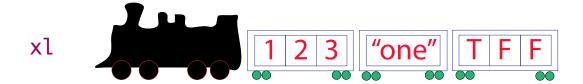
- there are two other subsetting operators:
- [[]] is used to extract single items
- \$ is used as a shorthand: x\$y stands for x[["y"]]
- [[]] is most important while working with lists: subsetting a list with single [] always returns a smaller list

If list xl is a train carrying objects, then xl[[5]] is the object in car 5; xl[4:6] is a train of cars 4-6

https://twitter.com/RLangTip/status/268375867468681216

- with this metaphor let's build a list

```
xl <- list(1:3, "one", c(T,F,F))</pre>
```



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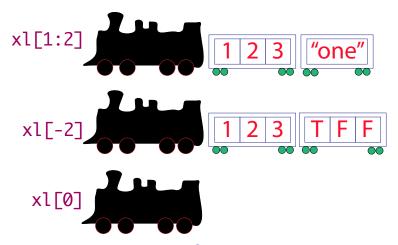
- two options are available when extracting a single element:
- create a smaller train, with fewer cars (using [])



or extract the content of a particular car (with [[]])



- extracting multiple (or zero) elements, we have to build a smaller train



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Loops

- Let's create a function, using loops, to evaluate the factorial:
- $\bullet \ n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \dots 2 \cdot 1$

```
fac3 <- function(x) {</pre>
fac1 \leftarrow function(x) {
                                           fac2 <- function(x) {</pre>
                                                                                            f <- 1; t <- x
    f <- 1
                                              \begin{array}{l} f <\!\!-1; \ t <\!\!-x \\ \text{while (t>\!\!1) } \{ \end{array}
                                                                                            repeat {
    if (x<2) return (1)
                                                                                                if (t<2) break
    for (i in 2:x) {
                                                   f <- f * t
                                                                                                 f \leftarrow f * t
        Ì <− f∗i
                                                   t < -t-1
                                              }
    }
                                                                                           }
    return (f)
                                              return (f)
                                                                                            return(f)
                                          }
                                                                                        sapply (1:5, fac2)
sapply (1:5, fac1)
% [1] 1 2
                    6 24 120
                                          %> [1] 1 2
                                                                  24 120
                                                                                        %> [1] 1 2
```

 But it is almost always better to use a built-in function that operates on the entire vector, removing the need of loops or repeats

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Loop avoidance: use vectorized operations

- it's a good R programming practice to avoid loops wherever possible
- in many cases, using vector functions, makes it particularly straightforward

```
> y <- c(-3,4,-2,-1,8,7,9)
> y
[1] -3  4 -2 -1  8  7  9

> for (i in 1:length(y)) {if (y[i] < 0) y[i] <- 0}
> y
[1] 0 4 0 0 8 7 9
```

• in the example below, a loop can be replaced by logical subscripts

```
> y <- c(-3,4,-2,-1,8,7,9)
> y[y<0] <- 0
> y
[1] 0 4 0 0 8 7 9
```

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the ifelse() vectorized function

- ifelse() allow to work on an entire vector without using loops
- $\bullet > y <- \log(rpois(20,1.5))$ > y [1] -Inf 1.0986123 0.0000000 0.0000000 0.0000000 0.6931472 [7] 0.6931472 -Inf 1.3862944 0.6931472 1.3862944 -Inf 0.0000000 0.0000000 1.0986123 0.0000000 0.0000000 [13] -Inf 1.0986123 > mean(y) [1] -Inf $> (y \leftarrow ifelse(y < 0, NA, y))$ NA 1.0986123 0.0000000 0.0000000 0.0000000 0.6931472 [1] [7] 0.6931472 NA 1.3862944 0.6931472 1.3862944 [13] NA 0.0000000 0.0000000 1.0986123 0.0000000 0.0000000 [19] NA 1.0986123 > mean(y, na.rm=TRUE) [1] 0.5431911

Loops are slow, compared to vectorized operations

- let's generate $5 \cdot 10^7$ events according to an uniform distribution, $\mathcal{U}(0,1)$
- we want to search for the maximum value in the vector using the vectorized function max() e by using conventional loops

```
x <- runif(5000000)
system.time(max(x))
%>
     user
           system elapsed
    0.106
            0.000
pc <- proc.time()</pre>
cmax <- x[1]
for (i in 2:length(x)) { if(x[i]>cmax) cmax <- x[i] }
proc.time()-pc
%>
     user
           system elapsed
%>
    2.061
            0.071
                     2.133
```

• system.time() and proc.time() produce a vector of three numbers, showing the user, system and total elapsed time in seconds

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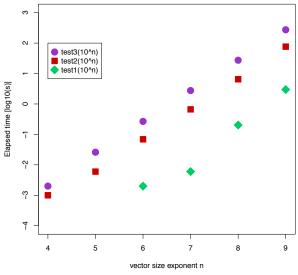
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Good/Bad practice in building vectors

- we want to build a vector containing 10^n elements in the sequence $1:10^n$
- three ways are analyzed

```
> system.time(test1(10000000))
  user system elapsed
 0.006
         0.000
                 0.006
> system.time(test2(10000000))
   user system elapsed
  0.622
          0.011
                  0.633
> system.time(test3(10000000))
  user
         system elapsed
  2.755
          0.003
                  2.758
```

- the first method (test1) is the best
- the loop using a pre-determined vector length is reasonably fast
- the last method (test3) is the slowest
- Moral: never grow vectors by repeated concatenation



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• let's create a more complex list with etherogeneous object types

```
apples \leftarrow c(4, 4.5, 5, 3.9)
oranges <- c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
chalk <- c("limestone", "marl", "ooline", "CaCO3")</pre>
       \leftarrow c(3.2-4.5i, 12.8+2.2i)
items <- list(apples, oranges, chalk, pears)</pre>
items
%> [[1]]
%> [1] 4.0 4.5 5.0 3.9
%>
%> [[2]]
%> [1] TRUE FALSE TRUE
%>
%> [[3]]
%> [1] "limestone" "marl"
                                "ooline"
                                               "CaCO3"
%>
%> [[4]]
%> [1] 3.2-4.5i 12.8+2.2i
```

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R List example: element access

- vectors, matrices and arrays subscripts have one set of square brackets [6], [3,4] or [2,3,2,1]
- lists subscripts have double square brackets [[2]] or [[i,j]]

```
items[[3]]
%> [1] "limestone" "marl" "ooline" "CaCO3"
items[[3]][1]
%> [1] "limestone"
```

if the list elements have names, it is possible to use the operator \$ for list indexing

```
names(items) <- c("apples", "oranges", "chalk", "pears")

str(items)

%> List of 4

%> $ apples : num [1:4] 4 4.5 5 3.9

%> $ oranges: logi [1:3] TRUE FALSE TRUE

%> $ chalk : chr [1:4] "limestone" "marl" "ooline" "CaCO3"

%> $ pears : cplx [1:2] 3.2-4.5i 12.8+2.2i

items$pears

%> [1] 3.2-4.5i 12.8+2.2i
```

R list example: Applying functions

• the length of the list is the number of items on the list. To get the length of the individual vectors we use the lapply() function

```
length(items)
                                           class(items)
%> [1] 4
                                           %> [1] "list"
lapply(items, length)
                                           lapply(items, class)
%> $apples
                                           %> $apples
%> [1] 4
                                           %> [1] "numeric"
%> $oranges
                                           %> $oranges
                                           %> [1] "logical"
%> [1] 3
%> $chalk
                                           %> $chalk
%> [1] 4
                                           %> [1] "character"
%> $pears
                                           %> $pears
%> [1] 2
                                           %> [1] "complex"
```

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 applying numeric functions to the list, will only work for objects of class numeric or complex

```
mean (items)
%> [1] NA
%> Warning message:
%> In mean.default(items) :
     argument is not numeric or logical: returning NA
lapply(items, mean)
%> $apples
%> [1] 4.35
%> $oranges
%> [1] 0.6666667
%> $chalk
%> [1] NA
%> $pears
%> [1] 8-1.15i
%> Warning message:
%> In mean.default(X[[i]], ...) :
     argument is not numeric or logical: returning NA
```

 a warning message points out that the third vector cannot be coerced to a number (it is not numeric, complex or logical), therefore NA appears in the output

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• The summary() function works for lists, but the most useful overview of a list content is given by str(), the structure function:

```
summary(items)
%>
          Length Class
                        Mode
%> apples 4
                 -none- numeric
%> oranges 3
                 -none- logical
%> chalk 4
                 -none- character
%> <NA>
          2
                 -none- complex
str(items)
%> List of 4
   $ apples : num [1:4] 4 4.5 5 3.9
%> $ oranges: logi [1:3] TRUE FALSE TRUE
%> $ chalk : chr [1:4] "limestone" "marl" "ooline" "CaCO3"
%>
   $ NA
             : cplx [1:2] 3.2-4.5i 12.8+2.2i
```

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Question Time

• What is the effect of [[1:2]] on a list ?

```
xl \leftarrow list(1:3,
            "one",
            c(T, F, F))
% xl[[1:2]] is equivalent to xl[[1]][[2]]
x1[[1:2]]
[1] 2
x1[[1]][[2]]
%> [1] 2
\% i.e. it extracts the element stored in the list at position 1, and
       then it gets the second element
% This fails:
x1[[1:3]]
\%> Error in xl[[1:3]] : recursive indexing failed at level 2
% and it is equivalent to:
> (a1 <- x1[[1]])
[1] 1 2 3
> (a2 <- a1[[2]])</pre>
[1] 2
> (a3 <- a2[[3]])
Error in a2[[3]] : subscript out of bounds
```