## Logic and types in R

Lecture 01

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# In R (almost) everything is a vector

### **Vectors**

The fundamental building block of data in R are vectors (collections of related values, objects, etc).

R has two types of vectors (that everything is built on):

- atomic vectors (vectors)
  - homogeneous collections of the same type (e.g. all true/false values, all numbers, or all character strings).
- generic vectors (*lists*)
  - heterogeneous collections of *any* type of R object, even other lists (meaning they can have a hierarchical/tree-like structure).

### **Atomic Vectors**

### **Atomic Vectors**

R has six atomic vector types, we can check the type of any object in R using the typeof() function

typeof()	mode()
logical	logical
double	numeric
integer	numeric
character	character
complex	complex
raw	raw

Mode is a higher level abstraction, we will discuss this in detail a bit later.

There are additional types in R, e.g. list, closure, environment, etc. We will see these in the next couple of weeks. Check ?typeof for more information.

### logical - boolean values (TRUE and FALSE)

R will let you use T and F as shortcuts to TRUE and FALSE, this is a bad practice as these values are actually **global variables** that can be overwritten.



### character - text strings

Either single or double quotes are fine, the opening and closing quote must match.

1 typeof("hello")
[1] "character"
[1] "character"
1 typeof('world')
[1] "character"
[1] "character"
[1] "character"

Quote characters can be included by escaping or using a non-matching quote.

```
1 "abc\"123"

[1] "abc\"123"

[1] "abc\"123"

1 'abc\"123'

[1] "abc\"123"

[1] "abc\"123"
```

RStudio's syntax highlighting is helpful here to indicate where it thinks a string begins and ends.

### **Numeric types**

double - floating point values (these are the default numerical type)

```
1 typeof(1.33)
                                        mode(1.33)
                                     [1] "numeric"
[1] "double"
    typeof(7)
                                        mode(7)
[1] "double"
                                     [1] "numeric"
integer - integer values (literals are indicated by an L suffix)
 1 typeof( 7L )
                                      1 mode( 7L )
[1] "integer"
                                    [1] "numeric"
  1 typeof( 1:3 )
                                      1 mode( 1:3 )
[1] "integer"
                                     [1] "numeric"
```

### **Combining / Concatenation**

Atomic vectors can be constructed using the combine c() function.

```
1 c(1, 2, 3)
[1] 1 2 3

1 c("Hello", "World!")
[1] "Hello" "World!"

1 c(1, 1:10)
[1] 1 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

1 c(1,c(2, c(3)))
[1] 1 2 3
```

Note - atomic vectors are inherently flat / 1d.

### **Inspecting types**

- typeof(x) returns a character vector (length 1) of the *type* of object x.
- mode(x) returns a character vector (length 1) of the *mode* of object x.

```
1 typeof(1)
                                   1 mode(1)
[1] "double"
                                  [1] "numeric"
 1 typeof(1L)
                                     mode(1L)
[1] "integer"
                                  [1] "numeric"
                                     mode("A")
   typeof("A")
[1] "character"
                                  [1] "character"
                                     mode(TRUE)
 1 typeof(TRUE)
[1] "logical"
                                  [1] "logical"
```

### **Type predicates**

- is.logical(x) returns TRUE if x has type logical.
- is.character(x) returns TRUE if x has type character.
- is.double(x) returns TRUE if x has type double.
- is.integer(x) returns TRUE if x has type integer.
- is.numeric(x) returns TRUE if x has mode numeric.

```
1 is.integer(1)
                          1 is.double(1)
                                                  1 is.numeric(1)
[1] FALSE
                                                 [1] TRUE
                        [1] TRUE
 1 is.integer(1L)
                          1 is.double(1L)
                                                  1 is.numeric(1L)
[1] TRUE
                        [1] FALSE
                                                 [1] TRUE
 1 is.integer(3:7)
                            is.double(3:8)
                                                  1 is.numeric(3:7)
[1] TRUE
                        [1] FALSE
                                                 [1] TRUE
```

### Other useful predicates

- is.atomic(x) returns TRUE if x is an atomic vector.
- is.list(x) returns TRUE if x is a *list* (generic vector).
- is.vector(x) returns TRUE if x is either an *atomic* or *generic* vector.

```
1 is.atomic(c(1,2,3))
[1] TRUE
[1] FALSE
[1] is.list(c(1,2,3))
[1] FALSE
[1] TRUE
```

### **Type Coercion**

R is a dynamically typed language – it will automatically convert between most types without raising warnings or errors. Keep in mind that atomic vectors must always contain values of the same type.

```
1 c(1, "Hello")

[1] "1" "Hello"

1 c(FALSE, 3L)

[1] 0 3

1 c(1.2, 3L)

[1] 1.2 3.0

1 c(FALSE, "Hello")

[1] "FALSE" "Hello"
```

### **Operator coercion**

Builtin operators and functions (e.g. +, &, log(), etc.) will generally attempt to coerce values to an appropriate type for the given operation (numeric for math, logical for logical, etc.)

1 3.1+1L	1 log(1)
[1] 4.1	[1] 0
1 5 + FALSE	1 log(TRUE)
[1] 5	[1] 0
1 TRUE & FALSE	1 TRUE   FALSE
[1] FALSE	[1] TRUE
1 TRUE & 7	1 FALSE   !5
[1] TRUE	[1] FALSE

### **Explicit Coercion**

Most of the is functions we just saw have an as variant which can be used for *explicit* coercion.

1 as.logical(5.2)	1 as.numeric(FALSE)
[1] TRUE	[1] 0
1 as.character(TRUE)	1 as.double("7.2")
[1] "TRUE"	[1] 7.2
1 as.integer(pi)	1 as.double("one")
[1] 3	Warning: NAs introduced by coercion [1] NA

# **Missing Values**

### **Missing Values**

R uses NA to represent missing values in its data structures, what may not be obvious is that there are different NAs for the different atomic types.

```
1 typeof(NA)
                                   1 typeof(NA_character_)
[1] "logical"
                                  [1] "character"
   typeof(NA+1)
                                     typeof(NA_real_)
[1] "double"
                                  [1] "double"
   typeof(NA+1L)
                                     typeof(NA_integer_)
[1] "integer"
                                  [1] "integer"
   typeof(c(NA,""))
                                     typeof(NA_complex_)
[1] "character"
                                  [1] "complex"
```

This should make sense as NA values can appear along over values in atomic vectors.

### **NA stickiness**

Because NAs represent missing values it makes sense that most calculations using them will also be missing.

Aggregation / summarization functions (e.g. sum(), mean(), sd(), etc.) will often have a narm argument which will allow you to *drop* missing values.

```
1 sum(c(1, 2, 3, NA), na.rm = TRUE)
[1] 6
1 mean(c(1, 2, 3, NA), na.rm = TRUE)
[1] 2
```

### NAs are not always sticky

A useful mental model for NAs is to consider them as a unknown value that could take any of the possible values for a type.

For numbers or characters this isn't very helpful, but for a logical value we know that the value must either be TRUE or FALSE and we can use that when deciding what value to return.

1 TRUE & NA	1 TRUE   NA
[1] NA	[1] TRUE
1 FALSE & NA	1 FALSE   NA
[1] FALSE	[1] NA

### Other Special values (double)

These are defined as part of the IEEE floating point standard (not unique to R)

- NaN Not a number
- Inf Positive infinity
- -Inf Negative infinity

1 pi / <mark>0</mark>	1 Inf - Inf
[1] Inf	[1] NaN
1 0 / 0	1 NaN / NA
[1] NaN	[1] NA
1 1/0 + 1/0	1 NaN * NA
[1] Inf	[1] NA

### Testing for Inf and NaN

NaN and Inf there are convenience functions for testing for these types of values

```
1 is.finite(Inf)
                                             1 is.finite(NaN)
[1] FALSE
                                           [1] FALSE
 1 is.infinite(-Inf)
                                             1 is.infinite(NaN)
[1] TRUE
                                           [1] FALSE
 1 is.nan(Inf)
                                             1 is.nan(NaN)
[1] FALSE
                                           [1] TRUE
 1 Inf > 1
                                             1 - Inf > 1
[1] TRUE
                                           [1] FALSE
 1 is.finite(NA)
[1] FALSE
 1 is.infinite(NA)
[1] FALSE
 1 is.nan(NA)
[1] FALSE
```

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### **Coercion for infinity and NaN**

First remember that Inf, -Inf, and NaN are doubles, however their coercion behavior is not the same as other doubles

```
1 as.integer(Inf)
Warning: NAs introduced by coercion to integer range
[1] NA
 1 as.integer(NaN)
[1] NA
 1 as.logical(Inf)
                                             1 as.character(Inf)
[1] TRUE
                                            [1] "Inf"
 1 as.logical(-Inf)
                                             1 as.character(-Inf)
[1] TRUE
                                            [1] "-Inf"
 1 as.logical(NaN)
                                             1 as.character(NaN)
[1] NA
                                            [1] "NaN"
```

### **Exercise 1**

#### Part 1

What is the type of the following vectors? Explain why they have that type.

```
1 c(1, NA+1L, "C")
2 c(1L / 0, NA)
3 c(1:3, 5)
4 c(3L, NaN+1L)
5 c(NA, TRUE)
```

#### Part 2

Considering only the four (common) data types, what is R's implicit type conversion hierarchy (from highest priority to lowest priority)?

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*Hint* - think about the pairwise interactions between types.

### **Conditionals & Control Flow**

### Logical (boolean) operators

Operator	Operation	Vectorized?
x   y	or	Yes
x & y	and	Yes
!x	not	Yes
x    y	or	No
х && у	and	No
xor(x, y)	exclusive or	Yes

### **Vectorized?**

```
1 x = c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
2 y = c(FALSE, TRUE, TRUE)

1 x | y

[1] TRUE TRUE TRUE
1 x & y

[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE

Error in x || y: 'length = 3' in coercion to 'logical(1)'

1 x & y

Error in x & y: 'length = 3' in coercion to 'logical(1)'
```

& and | are almost always going to be the right choice, the only time we use && or || is when you need to take advantage of short-circuit evaluation.

**Note** previously (before R 4.3) both | | and && only used the *first* value in the vector, all other values are ignored and there was no warning about the ignored values.

### **Vectorization and math**

Almost all of the basic mathematical operations (and many other functions) in R are vectorized.

1 c(1, 2, 3) + c(3, 2, 1)	1 log(c(1, 3, 0))
[1] 4 4 4	[1] 0.000000 1.098612 -Inf
1 c(1, 2, 3) / c(3, 2, 1)	1 sin(c(1, 2, 3))
[1] 0.3333333 1.0000000 3.0000000	[1] 0.8414710 0.9092974 0.1411200

### Length coercion (aka recycling)

If the lengths of the vector do not match, then the shorter vector has its values recycled to match the length of the longer vector.

```
1 x = c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
2 y = c(TRUE)
3 z = c(FALSE, TRUE)

1 x | y

1 y | z

[1] TRUE TRUE TRUE

1 x & y

1 y & z

[1] TRUE FALSE TRUE

1 x & z

[1] TRUE FALSE TRUE
```

Warning in  $x \mid z$ : longer object length is not a multiple of shorter object length

[1] TRUE TRUE TRUE

### Length coercion and math

The same length coercion rules apply for most basic mathematical operators,

```
1 x = c(1, 2, 3)

2 y = c(5, 4)

3 z = 10L

1 x + x

1 y / z

[1] 2 4 6 [1] 0.5 0.4

1 x + z

1 \log(x) + z

[1] 11 12 13 [1] 10.00000 10.69315 11.09861

1 x \% y
```

Warning in x%y: longer object length is not a multiple of shorter object length

[1] 1 2 3

### **Comparison operators**

Operator	Comparison	Vectorized?
x < y	less than	Yes
x > y	greater than	Yes
x <= y	less than or equal to	Yes
x >= y	greater than or equal to	Yes
x != y	not equal to	Yes
x == y	equal to	Yes
x %in% y	contains	Yes (over x)*

<sup>\*</sup>over x means the returned value will have the length of x regardless of the length of y

### **Comparisons**

```
1 x = c("A","B","C")
2 y = c("A")

1 x == y

[1] TRUE FALSE FALSE
[1] TRUE FALSE FALSE

1 x != y

[1] FALSE TRUE TRUE

[1] TRUE
```

Type coercion also applies for comparison opperators which can result in *interesting* behavior

```
1 TRUE == "TRUE"

1 TRUE == 1

[1] TRUE

1 FALSE == 1

1 TRUE == 5

[1] FALSE

[1] FALSE
```

### > & < with characters

While maybe somewhat unexpected, these comparison operators can be used character values.

1 "A" < "B"

1 "Good" < "Goodbye"

[1] TRUE

[1] TRUE

[1]

1 "A" > "B"

1 c("Alice", "Bob", "Carol") <</pre>

TRUE FALSE FALSE

- [1] FALSE
- 1 "A" < "a"
- [1] FALSE
- "a" > "!"
- [1] TRUE

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Note - to better understand how this works, i.e. the ordering used, see ASCII code

### **Conditional Control Flow**

Conditional execution of code blocks is achieved via if statements.

```
1 \times = c(1, 3)
 1 if (3 %in% x) {
                                 1 if (1 %in% x)
 print("Contains 3!")
                                 print("Contains 1!")
 3 }
                                [1] "Contains 1!"
[1] "Contains 3!"
 1 if (5 %in% x) {
                                 1 if (5 %in% x) {
 print("Contains 5!")
                                   print("Contains 5!")
 3 }
                                 3 } else {
                                     print("Does not contain 5!
                                 5 }
                                [1] "Does not contain 5!"
```

### if is not vectorized

```
1 x = c(1, 3)

1 if (x == 1)
2 print("x is 1!")
```

Error in if (x == 1) print("x is 1!"): the condition has length > 1

```
1 if (x == 3)
2 print("x is 3!")
```

Error in if (x == 3) print("x is 3!"): the condition has length > 1

Note that the behavior seen above (thrown errors) is new in R 4.2, previous versions will only throw warnings (using only the first value in the condition vector).

### **Collapsing logical vectors**

There are a couple of helper functions for collapsing a logical vector down to a single value: any, all

```
1 \times = c(3,4,1)
 1 \times >= 2
                                         1 x <= 4
    TRUE TRUE FALSE
                                        [1] TRUE TRUE TRUE
 1 \text{ any}(x \ge 2)
                                         1 \text{ any}(x \ll 4)
[1] TRUE
                                        [1] TRUE
 1 \text{ all}(x >= 2)
                                         1 \text{ all}(x \ll 4)
[1] FALSE
                                        [1] TRUE
 1 if (any(x == 3))
      print("x contains 3!")
[1] "x contains 3!"
```

### else if and else

```
1 x = 3
2
3 if (x < 0) {
4   "x is negative"
5 } else if (x > 0) {
6   "x is positive"
7 } else {
8   "x is zero"
9 }
```

```
1 x = 0
2
3 if (x < 0) {
4  "x is negative"
5 } else if (x > 0) {
6  "x is positive"
7 } else {
8  "x is zero"
9 }
```

[1] "x is positive"

[1] "x is zero"

### if return values

R's if conditional statements return a value (invisibly), the two following implementations are equivalent.

```
1 x = 5

1 x = 5

1 x = 5

1 x = 5

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1 x
```

Notice that conditional expressions are evaluated in the parent scope.

### **Exercise 2**

Take a look at the following code below on the left, without running it in R what do you expect the outcome will be for each call on the right?

```
1 f(1)
2 f(3)
3 f(8)
4 f(-1)
5 f(-3)
6 f(1:2)
7 f("0")
8 f("3")
9 f("zero")
```

More on functions next time

05:00

### Conditionals and missing values

NAs can be particularly problematic for control flow,

```
1 if (2 != NA) {
                                             1 2 != NA
     "Here"
                                           [1] NA
 3 }
Error in if (2 != NA) {: missing value
where TRUE/FALSE needed
 1 if (all(c(1,2,NA,4) >= 1)) {
                                             1 all(c(1,2,NA,4) >= 1)
      "There"
                                           [1] NA
 3 }
Error in if (all(c(1, 2, NA, 4) >= 1)) {:}
missing value where TRUE/FALSE needed
 1 if (any(c(1,2,NA,4) >= 1)) {
                                             1 any(c(1,2,NA,4) >= 1)
      "There"
                                           [1] TRUE
 3 }
```

[1] "There"

### **Testing for NA**

To explicitly test if a value is missing it is necessary to use is.na (often along with any or all).

1 NA == NA	1 is.na(c(1,2,3,NA))
[1] NA	[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE
1 is.na(NA)	<pre>1 any(is.na(c(1,2,3,NA)))</pre>
[1] TRUE	[1] TRUE
1 is.na(1)	1 all(is.na(c(1,2,3,NA)))
[1] FALSE	[1] FALSE