# Object types

Applied Data Science using R, Session 3

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# **Goals for today**

- I. Learn about the use of R packages
- II. Understand the main object types in R and their practical relevance
- III. Learn how to transform object types into each other
- IV. Hear about some useful helper functions and the concept of vectorisation

# Packages



# R packages

- One cool thing about R is that there is a great community of R users that write objects and functions that perform useful purposes and makes them available to all
  - This process of 'making available objects to others' is done via the use of R
    packages
- You can think of an R package as a collection of assignments and documentations that people pass around
- If you install R, you can use all objects that...
  - ...you defined for yourself
  - ...are pre-defined in R
- If you want to use objects defined by someone else in her package you need to install this package



# Installing packages

- The official way to distribute packages is via CRAN, the The Comprehensive R Archive Network
- To install a package that was deployed on CRAN you must execute the following command:

```
install.packages("NAME OF PACKAGE")
```

• To install the package **ineq**, for instance, do:

```
install.packages("ineq")
```

- To install packages that were not yet released on CRAN, other functions are available
- After having installed the ineq package, you can use all objects defined by it



# Calling objects defined in packages

- One object defined in ineq is the function Gini()
  - Simply calling Gini() does, however, not work
- You need to tell R that Gini() is defined by the package ineq
- To do use, use :::

```
ineq::Gini(c(1,2,3,4))
```

- You may think of :: as building a bridge between your R session and all objects defined in a package
- A sometimes more convenient way is to use the function library() at the beginning of your script:

```
library(ineq)
```

This makes available all objects of ineq in your current R session



# Packages and masking

- Packages are written by many different people
- It is not unlikely that two packages assign the same name to different objects
- If you then attach both packages, the assignment of the earlier package will be masked
  - Try this by attaching the two packages dplyr and plm
  - In these cases, you must use :: to access the masked object of the first package
- As a general rule: always use :: whenever masking is a potential problem →
  makes your code much easier to understand for you and others
  - Use the function conflicts() to see all names for which conflicts exists

### **Recap questions**

- What is the main rationale for the use of R packages?
- What is an R package in the most basic sense?
- How can you install R packages from CRAN? Illustrate this using the package "dplyr"
- How can you access objects from a package that you have installed previously? What are the advantages and disadvantages of the different ways you learned about?
- What does it mean to 'attach a package'?
- What do we mean with 'masking' in the context of using R packages?

# Basic object types in R



# Object types in R

To understand computations in R, two slogans are helpful:

Everything that exists is an **object**.

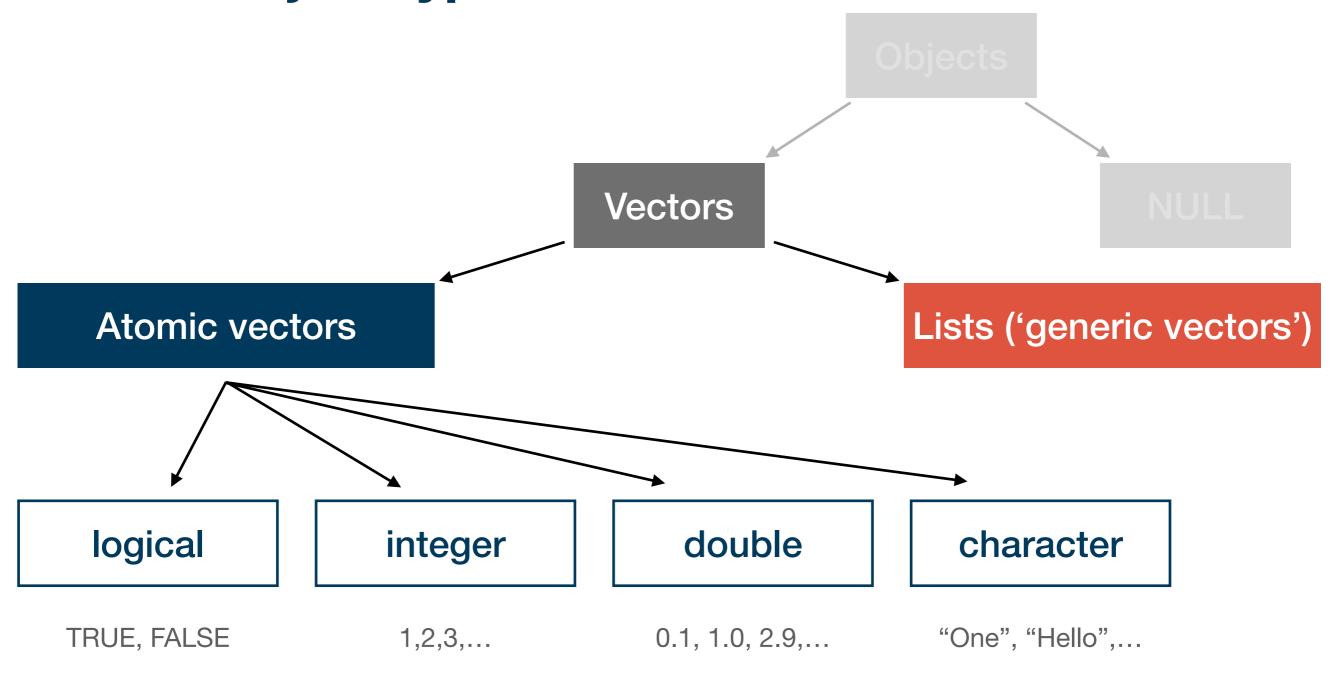
Everything that happens is a function call.

John Chambers

- We have learned quite a bit about functions, now we turn to objects
- We must distinguish different object types because functions operate differently depending on the type of the object we are processing
  - E.g.: 'adding up' numbers is different than 'adding up' words
- Fortunately, there are only a few basic types you must know about
  - More complex types are natural modifications of these basic types
- The most general type of object in R is a vector



## **Basic object types in R**



 Among the more specific vector types, we will learn about factors and data frames later



#### **Atomic vectors**

- Atomic vectors are composed only of objects of the same type
  - We say that an atomic vector is of the same type as are its elements
  - We can test for this type using the function typeof()
- There are four main types of atomic vector that are most important:

# Logical values: logical

- Only two\* options: TRUE or FALSE
- Often the result of logical operations (e.g. 4>2)

# Whole numbers: integer

- A whole number, followed by L:
- 1L, 2L, 100L, etc.
- Often the result of counting

# Decimal numbers: double

- A number with the decimal sign.
- 2.0, 0.8, -7.5, etc.
- The 'standard' number you will use

# Letters and words: character

- Might contain all kinds of tokens and start and end with "
  - "2", "Hello!", "vec 1", etc.

\*: We will see later that missing values are also considered logical in some instances, but this is basically irrelevant now.



# **Creating atomic vectors**

• The easiest way to create atomic vectors is the function c() ('concatenate')

```
t_vec <- c(1, 2, 3)
```

- The number of elements that are part of a vector are its length:
  - You can test for the length of a vector using length():

```
length(t_vec)
```

• c() can also be used to merge atomic vectors or arbitrary length:

```
t_vec_2 <- c(4, 5, 6)

t_vec_full <- c(t_vec, t_vec_2)</pre>
```



#### Coercion

- Sometimes we might want to change the type of an atomic vector
- In this context, the functions as.\*() and is.\*() are useful
  - Substitute the \* for the type of vector, and you can test and transform them:

```
is.double(xx)

yy <- as.double(xx)

is.double(yy)</pre>
```

- But be beware of some counter-intuitive transformation behaviour:
  - as.integer(22.9)
  - as.logical(99)

#### Intermediate exercises

- 1. Create a vector containing the numbers 2, 5, 2.4 and 11.
- 2. What is the type of this vector?
- 3. Transform this vector into the type integer. What happens?
- 4. Do you think you can create a vector containing the following elements: "2", "Hallo", 4.0, and TRUE? Why? Why not?

# Helper functions, indexing, and vectorisation



# Some useful helper functions

- There are some types of atomic vectors that you create frequently
  - Sequences of numbers, concatenated words, or repetitions
- For case 1 you may use the function seq() with the following arguments:
  - from, to: starting and end values of the sequence
  - by: increment steps of the sequences (must be numeric)
  - length.out: desired length of final sequence
  - along.with: creates sequence of same length as object
- Only one of the arguments (ii), (iii), and (iv) can be used, e.g.:
  - seq(-5, 5, by=2.5); seq(1, 4, length.out=10)



# Some useful helper functions

- There are some types of atomic vectors that you create frequently
  - Sequences of numbers, concatenated words, or repetitions
- For case 2 you may use the function paste() with the argument sep:
  - sep: How should the input vectors be separated?
- This is useful, for instance, if you want to create file names:

```
paste("file_", seq(1,4), ".pdf", sep = "")
```

Finally, if you want to repeat something, use rep():

```
rep("Cool!", 5)
```

# Indexing

- Indexing means referencing a particular position of a vector
  - You do this by adding the position in square brackets to the end of the vector
  - v\_c[3], for instance, returns the third element of the vector v\_c
  - You can also use this logic to replace these elements:

```
v_c <- c("First", "Second", "Second", "Fourth")
v c[3] <- "Third!"</pre>
```

But you cannot use this to add new elements to a vector:

Add a fifth element to the vector v\_c!

#### **Vectorisation**

- One reason why atomic vectors are so popular is that they allow for very fast computations
  - For the computer it is much easier to work with sets of objects that all behave the same
- Vectorisation means that an operation is applied to each element of a vector:

- "To vectorise" a task means to write it in a way that operations are applied to atomic vectors → in R, you should do that whenever possible
  - A slower alternative are loops, which we learn about later and which are unavoidable in certain situations

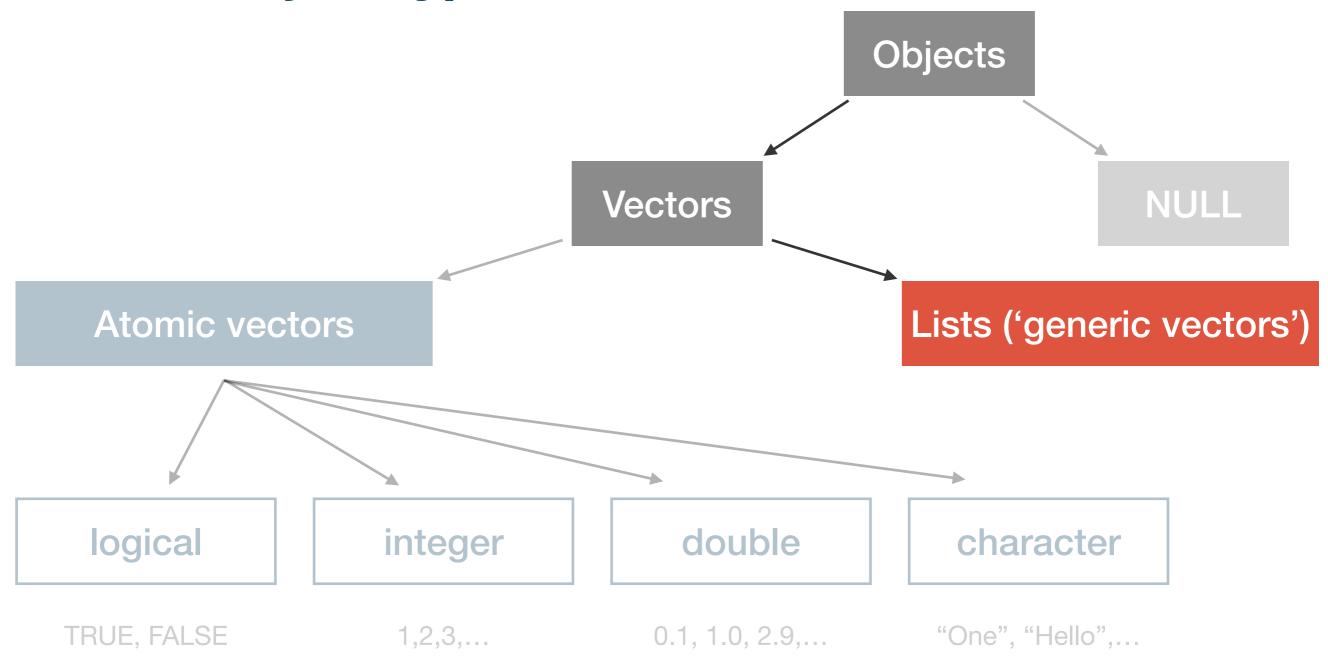
#### Intermediate exercises

- I. Create a vector with the numbers from -2 to 19 (step size: 0.75)
- II. Create an index vector for this first vector (note: an index vector is a vector with all possible indices of the original vector)
- III. Compute the log of each element of the first vector using vectorisation. Anything that draws your attention?
- IV. What happens if you concatenate vectors of different types using c()?
  Can you derive a systematization?
  - Remember that you can check for the type of an atomic vector using typeof()

# Lists



## **Basic object types in R**



 Among the more specific vector types, we will learn about factors and data frames later



#### **Lists**

- The second major type of vectors → sometimes called generic vectors
- Difference to atomic vectors: lists may contain objects of different types
  - Thus, the type of a list is always...

```
l_1 \leftarrow list(c(1,2), c("a", "b"), c(TRUE, FALSE, FALSE)); typeof(l_1)
```

Lists can be complex → get an overview using str():

```
Types of the elements

> str(l_1)
List of 3

$: num [1:2] 1 2
$: chr [1:2] "a" "b"
$: logi [1:3] TRUE FALSE FALSE

Preview of the elements
```

# Naming and indexing of lists

The different elements of lists can be named:

• You can retrieve the names using names():

```
names(1_2)
```

You can subset the list using the names:

```
1_2["letters"]
```

• And access the elements of the sublists with [[:

```
1_2[["letters"]]
```

Alternatively use the shortcut \$: 1\_2\$letters



#### Practical differences to atomic vectors

- There are two very important differences to atomic vectors:
  - Vectorisation does not work for lists
  - Indexing works differently for lists
- To illustrate the first issue compare:

To illustrate the latter:

```
typeof(l_[1])
typeof(l_[[1]])
```

Lists are fundamental to more complex data structures we will encounter later

# Final remarks on basic object types

- There are two "strange" data types: NA and NULL
- NA is used to represent absent elements of vectors
  - Happens frequently when vectors contain observations
  - Many functions behave differently when NAs are present (remember na.rm!):

```
mean(c(1,2,NA)); mean(c(1,2,NA), na.rm = TRUE)
```

• You test for NA using is.na():

```
is.na(c(1, 2, NA))
```

To check whether a vector contains missing values, use anyNA():

```
anyNA(c(1,2,NA))
```

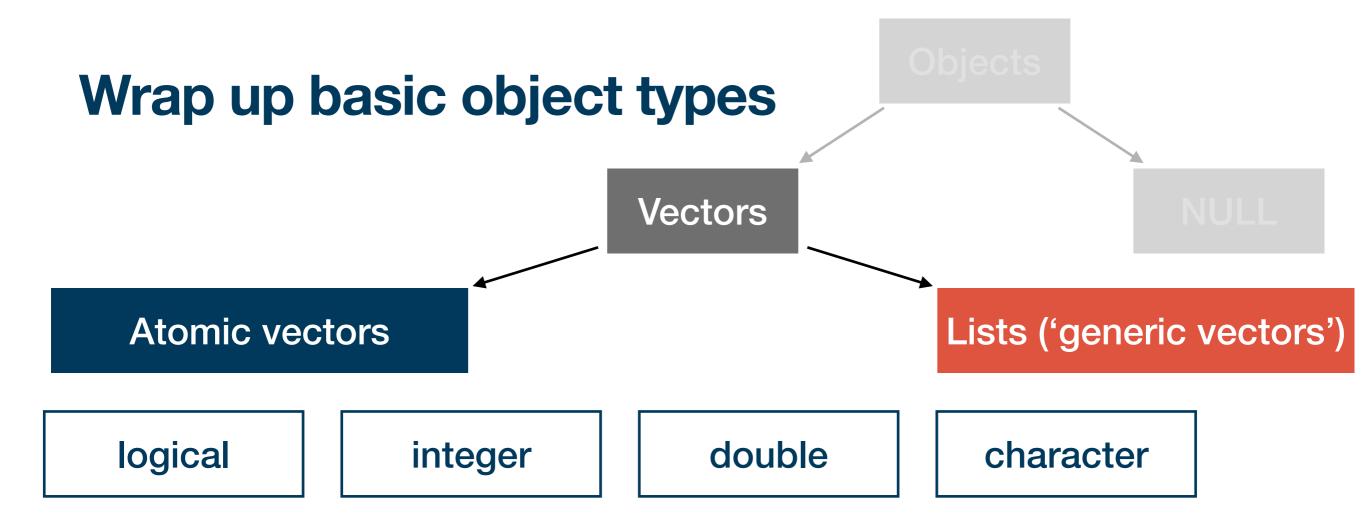


# Final remarks on basic object types

- There are two "strange" data types: NA and NULL
- NULL is in fact a data type in itself, but in practice its best thought of as a vector of length zero:

```
c()
typeof(NULL)
length(NULL)
is.null(NULL)
```

- You might use NULL mainly in two instances:
  - Represent an empty vector of arbitrary type
  - Represent and absent vector (≠ NA, which represents absent elements of vectors)



- The central take-aways concern:
  - How to test for and transform these types: typeof(), is.\*(), as.\*()
  - How to index them: [, [[, \$
  - How to create typical instances: rep(), paste(), seq()
- We learned about vectorisation and its attractiveness in R
- We also encountered "strange" types such as NA, NULL and NaN



# **Summary and outlook**

- Next time we will learn about two more advanced object types: factors
  and data.frames
- We will learn how our knowledge about the basic object types helps us to deal with more advanced types, and how they relate to each other

#### Tasks until next session:

- 1. Fill in the quick feedback survey on Moodle
- 2. Read the **tutorials** posted on the course page
- Do the exercises provided on the course page and discuss problems and difficulties via the Moodle forum

