

R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing

Reference Index

The R Core Team

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Chapter 1

The base package

base-package

The R Base Package

Description

Base R functions

Details

This package contains the basic functions which let R function as a language: arithmetic, input/output, basic programming support, etc. Its contents are available through inheritance from any environment.

For a complete list of functions, use `library(help = "base")`.

.bincode

Bin a Numeric Vector

Description

Bin a numeric vector and return integer codes for the binning.

Usage

```
.bincode(x, breaks, right = TRUE, include.lowest = FALSE)
```


Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector which is to be converted to integer codes by binning.
<code>breaks</code>	a numeric vector of two or more cut points, sorted in increasing order.
<code>right</code>	logical, indicating if the intervals should be closed on the right (and open on the left) or vice versa.
<code>include.lowest</code>	logical, indicating if an <code>'x[i]'</code> equal to the lowest (or highest, for <code>right = FALSE</code>) <code>'breaks'</code> value should be included in the first (or last) bin.

Details

This is a 'barebones' version of `cut.default(labels = FALSE)` intended for use in other functions which have checked the arguments passed. (Note the different order of the arguments they have in common.)

Unlike `cut`, the breaks do not need to be unique. An input can only fall into a zero-length interval if it is closed at both ends, so only if `include.lowest = TRUE` and it is the first (or last for `right = FALSE`) interval.

Value

An integer vector of the same length as `x` indicating which bin each element falls into (the leftmost bin being bin 1). NaN and NA elements of `x` are mapped to NA codes, as are values outside range of breaks.

See Also

[cut](#), [tabulate](#)

Examples

```
## An example with non-unique breaks:
x <- c(0, 0.01, 0.5, 0.99, 1)
b <- c(0, 0, 1, 1)
.bincode(x, b, TRUE)
.bincode(x, b, FALSE)
.bincode(x, b, TRUE, TRUE)
.bincode(x, b, FALSE, TRUE)
```

.Device

Lists of Open/Active Graphics Devices

Description

A pairlist of the names of open graphics devices is stored in `.Devices`. The name of the active device (see [dev.cur](#)) is stored in `.Device`. Both are symbols and so appear in the base namespace.

Value

.Device is a length-one character vector.

.Devices is a [pairlist](#) of length-one character vectors. The first entry is always "null device", and there are as many entries as the maximal number of graphics devices which have been simultaneously active. If a device has been removed, its entry will be "" until the device number is reused.

Devices may add attributes to the character vector: for example devices which write to a file may record its path in attribute "filepath".

.Machine

Numerical Characteristics of the Machine

Description

.Machine is a variable holding information on the numerical characteristics of the machine R is running on, such as the largest double or integer and the machine's precision.

Usage

.Machine

Details

The algorithm is based on Cody's (1988) subroutine MACHAR. As all current implementations of R use 32-bit integers and use IEC 60559 floating-point (double precision) arithmetic, all but three of the last four values are the same for almost all R builds.

Note that on most platforms smaller positive values than .Machine\$double.xmin can occur. On a typical R platform the smallest positive double is about $5e-324$.

Value

A list with components

double.eps	the smallest positive floating-point number x such that $1 + x \neq 1$. It equals $\text{double.base}^{\text{ulp.digits}}$ if either <code>double.base</code> is 2 or <code>double.rounding</code> is 0; otherwise, it is $(\text{double.base}^{\text{double.ulp.digits}}) / 2$. Normally $2.220446e-16$.
double.neg.eps	a small positive floating-point number x such that $1 - x \neq 1$. It equals $\text{double.base}^{\text{double.neg.ulp.digits}}$ if <code>double.base</code> is 2 or <code>double.rounding</code> is 0; otherwise, it is $(\text{double.base}^{\text{double.neg.ulp.digits}}) / 2$. Normally $1.110223e-16$. As <code>double.neg.ulp.digits</code> is bounded below by $-(\text{double.digits} + 3)$, <code>double.neg.eps</code> may not be the smallest number that can alter 1 by subtraction.
double.xmin	the smallest non-zero normalized floating-point number, a power of the radix, i.e., $\text{double.base}^{\text{double.min.exp}}$. Normally $2.225074e-308$.

<code>double.xmax</code>	the largest normalized floating-point number. Typically, it is equal to $(1 - \text{double.neg.eps}) * \text{double.base}^{\text{double.max.exp}}$, but on some machines it is only the second or third largest such number, being too small by 1 or 2 units in the last digit of the significand. Normally $1.797693e+308$. Note that larger unnormalized numbers can occur.
<code>double.base</code>	the radix for the floating-point representation: normally 2.
<code>double.digits</code>	the number of base digits in the floating-point significand: normally 53.
<code>double.rounding</code>	the rounding action, one of 0 if floating-point addition chops; 1 if floating-point addition rounds, but not in the IEEE style; 2 if floating-point addition rounds in the IEEE style; 3 if floating-point addition chops, and there is partial underflow; 4 if floating-point addition rounds, but not in the IEEE style, and there is partial underflow; 5 if floating-point addition rounds in the IEEE style, and there is partial underflow. Normally 5.
<code>double.guard</code>	the number of guard digits for multiplication with truncating arithmetic. It is 1 if floating-point arithmetic truncates and more than <code>double.digits</code> base- <code>double.base</code> digits participate in the post-normalization shift of the floating-point significand in multiplication, and 0 otherwise. Normally 0.
<code>double.ulp.digits</code>	the largest negative integer i such that $1 + \text{double.base}^i \neq 1$, except that it is bounded below by $-(\text{double.digits} + 3)$. Normally -52.
<code>double.neg.ulp.digits</code>	the largest negative integer i such that $1 - \text{double.base}^i \neq 1$, except that it is bounded below by $-(\text{double.digits} + 3)$. Normally -53.
<code>double.exponent</code>	the number of bits (decimal places if <code>double.base</code> is 10) reserved for the representation of the exponent (including the bias or sign) of a floating-point number. Normally 11.
<code>double.min.exp</code>	the largest in magnitude negative integer i such that double.base^i is positive and normalized. Normally -1022.
<code>double.max.exp</code>	the smallest positive power of <code>double.base</code> that overflows. Normally 1024.
<code>integer.max</code>	the largest integer which can be represented. Always $2^{31} - 1 = 2147483647$.
<code>sizeof.long</code>	the number of bytes in a C long type: 4 or 8 (most 64-bit systems, but not Windows).
<code>sizeof.longlong</code>	the number of bytes in a C long long type. Will be zero if there is no such type, otherwise usually 8.
<code>sizeof.longdouble</code>	the number of bytes in a C long double type. Will be zero if there is no such type (or its use was disabled when R was built), otherwise possibly 12 (most 32-bit builds) or 16 (most 64-bit builds).

`sizeof.pointer` the number of bytes in a C SEXP type. Will be 4 on 32-bit builds and 8 on 64-bit builds of R.

Note

`sizeof.longdouble` only tells you the amount of storage allocated for a long double (which are normally used internally by R for accumulators in e.g. `sum`, and can be read by `readBin`). Often what is stored is the 80-bit extended double type of IEC 60559, padded to the double alignment used on the platform — this seems to be the case for the common R platforms using ix86 and x86_64 chips.

Source

Uses a C translation of Fortran code in the reference, modified by the R Core Team to defeat over-optimization in recent compilers.

References

Cody, W. J. (1988) MACHAR: A subroutine to dynamically determine machine parameters. *Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **14**, 4, 303–311.

See Also

[.Platform](#) for details of the platform.

Examples

```
.Machine
## or for a neat printout
noquote(unlist(format(.Machine)))
```

.Platform

Platform Specific Variables

Description

`.Platform` is a list with some details of the platform under which R was built. This provides means to write OS-portable R code.

Usage

```
.Platform
```

Value

A list with at least the following components:

OS.type	character string, giving the Operating System (family) of the computer. One of "unix" or "windows".
file.sep	character string, giving the file separator used on your platform: "/" on both Unix-alikes <i>and</i> on Windows (but not on the former port to Classic Mac OS).
dynlib.ext	character string, giving the file name extension of dynamically loadable libraries , e.g., ".dll" on Windows and ".so" or ".sl" on Unix-alikes. (Note for OS X users: these are shared objects as loaded by dyn.load and not dylibs: see dyn.load .)
GUI	character string, giving the type of GUI in use, or "unknown" if no GUI can be assumed. Possible values are for Unix-alikes the values given via the '-g' command-line flag ("X11", "Tk"), "AQUA" (running under R.app on OS X), "Rgui" and "RTerm" (Windows) and perhaps others under alternative front-ends or embedded R.
endian	character string, "big" or "little", giving the 'endianness' of the processor in use. This is relevant when it is necessary to know the order to read/write bytes of e.g. an integer or double from/to a connection : see readBin .
pkgType	character string, the preferred setting for options("pkgType") . Values "source", "mac.binary.mavericks" and "win.binary" are currently in use. This should not be used to identify the OS.
path.sep	character string, giving the path separator , used on your platform, e.g., ":" on Unix-alikes and ";" on Windows. Used to separate paths in environment variables such as PATH and TEXINPUTS.
r_arch	character string, possibly "". The name of an architecture-specific directory used in this build of R.

AQUA

.Platform\$GUI is set to "AQUA" under the OS X GUI, R.app. This has a number of consequences:

- '/usr/local/bin' is *appended* to the PATH environment variable.
- the default graphics device is set to quartz.
- selects native (rather than Tk) widgets for the graphics = TRUE options of [menu](#) and [select.list](#).
- HTML help is displayed in the internal browser.
- the spreadsheet-like data editor/viewer uses a Quartz version rather than the X11 one.

See Also

[R.version](#) and [Sys.info](#) give more details about the OS. In particular, R.version\$platform is the canonical name of the platform under which R was compiled.

[.Machine](#) for details of the arithmetic used, and [system](#) for invoking platform-specific system commands.

Examples

```
## Note: this can be done in a system-independent way by dir.exists()
if(.Platform$OS.type == "unix") {
  system.test <- function(...) system(paste("test", ...)) == 0L
  dir.exists2 <- function(dir)
    sapply(dir, function(d) system.test("-d", d))
  dir.exists2(c(R.home(), "/tmp", "~", "/NO")) # > T T T F
}
```

abbreviate	<i>Abbreviate Strings</i>
------------	---------------------------

Description

Abbreviate strings to at least minlength characters, such that they remain *unique* (if they were), unless strict = TRUE.

Usage

```
abbreviate(names.arg, minlength = 4, use.classes = TRUE,
           dot = FALSE, strict = FALSE,
           method = c("left.kept", "both.sides"))
```

Arguments

names.arg	a character vector of names to be abbreviated, or an object to be coerced to a character vector by as.character .
minlength	the minimum length of the abbreviations.
use.classes	logical (currently ignored by R).
dot	logical: should a dot (".") be appended?
strict	logical: should minlength be observed strictly? Note that setting strict = TRUE may return <i>non-unique</i> strings.
method	a character string specifying the method used with default "left.kept", see 'Details' below. Partial matches allowed.

Details

The default algorithm (method = "left.kept") used is similar to that of S. For a single string it works as follows. First all spaces at the beginning of the string are stripped. Then (if necessary) any other spaces are stripped. Next, lower case vowels are removed (starting at the right) followed by lower case consonants. Finally if the abbreviation is still longer than minlength upper case letters are stripped.

Characters are always stripped from the end of the word first. If an element of names.arg contains more than one word (words are separated by space) then at least one letter from each word will be retained.

Missing (NA) values are unaltered.

If `use.classes` is `FALSE` then the only distinction is to be between letters and space. This has NOT been implemented.

Value

A character vector containing abbreviations for the strings in its first argument. Duplicates in the original `names.arg` will be given identical abbreviations. If any non-duplicated elements have the same `minlength` abbreviations then, if `method = "both.sides"` the basic internal `abbreviate()` algorithm is applied to the characterwise *reversed* strings; if there are still duplicated abbreviations and if `strict = FALSE` as by default, `minlength` is incremented by one and new abbreviations are found for those elements only. This process is repeated until all unique elements of `names.arg` have unique abbreviations.

The character version of `names.arg` is attached to the returned value as a `names` argument: no other attributes are retained.

Warning

This is really only suitable for English, and does not work correctly with non-ASCII characters in multibyte locales. It will warn if used with non-ASCII characters (and required to reduce the length).

See Also

[substr](#).

Examples

```
x <- c("abcd", "efgh", "abce")
abbreviate(x, 2)
abbreviate(x, 2, strict = TRUE) # >> 1st and 3rd are == "ab"

(st.abb <- abbreviate(state.name, 2))
table(nchar(st.abb)) # out of 50, 3 need 4 letters :
as <- abbreviate(state.name, 3, strict = TRUE)
as[which(as == "Mss")]

## method="both.sides" helps: no 4-letters, and only 4 3-letters:
st.ab2 <- abbreviate(state.name, 2, method = "both")
table(nchar(st.ab2))
## Compare the two methods:
cbind(st.abb, st.ab2)
```

agrep

*Approximate String Matching (Fuzzy Matching)***Description**

Searches for approximate matches to `pattern` (the first argument) within each element of the string `x` (the second argument) using the generalized Levenshtein edit distance (the minimal possibly weighted number of insertions, deletions and substitutions needed to transform one string into another).

Usage

```
agrep(pattern, x, max.distance = 0.1, costs = NULL,
      ignore.case = FALSE, value = FALSE, fixed = TRUE,
      useBytes = FALSE)

agrep1(pattern, x, max.distance = 0.1, costs = NULL,
      ignore.case = FALSE, fixed = TRUE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>pattern</code>	a non-empty character string or a character string containing a regular expression (for <code>fixed = FALSE</code>) to be matched. Coerced by as.character to a string if possible.
<code>x</code>	character vector where matches are sought. Coerced by as.character to a character vector if possible.
<code>max.distance</code>	<p>Maximum distance allowed for a match. Expressed either as integer, or as a fraction of the <i>pattern</i> length times the maximal transformation cost (will be replaced by the smallest integer not less than the corresponding fraction), or a list with possible components</p> <p>cost: maximum number/fraction of match cost (generalized Levenshtein distance)</p> <p>all: maximal number/fraction of <i>all</i> transformations (insertions, deletions and substitutions)</p> <p>insertions: maximum number/fraction of insertions</p> <p>deletions: maximum number/fraction of deletions</p> <p>substitutions: maximum number/fraction of substitutions</p> <p>If cost is not given, all defaults to 10%, and the other transformation number bounds default to all. The component names can be abbreviated.</p>
<code>costs</code>	a numeric vector or list with names partially matching ‘insertions’, ‘deletions’ and ‘substitutions’ giving the respective costs for computing the generalized Levenshtein distance, or <code>NULL</code> (default) indicating using unit cost for all three possible transformations. Coerced to integer via as.integer if possible.

<code>ignore.case</code>	if FALSE, the pattern matching is <i>case sensitive</i> and if TRUE, case is ignored during matching.
<code>value</code>	if FALSE, a vector containing the (integer) indices of the matches determined is returned and if TRUE, a vector containing the matching elements themselves is returned.
<code>fixed</code>	logical. If TRUE (default), the pattern is matched literally (as is). Otherwise, it is matched as a regular expression.
<code>useBytes</code>	logical. in a multibyte locale, should the comparison be character-by-character (the default) or byte-by-byte.

Details

The Levenshtein edit distance is used as measure of approximateness: it is the (possibly cost-weighted) total number of insertions, deletions and substitutions required to transform one string into another.

This uses `tre` by Ville Laurikari (<http://laurikari.net/tre/>), which supports MBCS character matching.

The main effect of `useBytes` is to avoid errors/warnings about invalid inputs and spurious matches in multibyte locales. It inhibits the conversion of inputs with marked encodings, and is forced if any input is found which is marked as "bytes" (see [Encoding](#)).

Value

`agrep` returns a vector giving the indices of the elements that yielded a match, or, if `value` is TRUE, the matched elements (after coercion, preserving names but no other attributes).

`agrep1` returns a logical vector.

Note

Since someone who read the description carelessly even filed a bug report on it, do note that this matches substrings of each element of `x` (just as `grep` does) and **not** whole elements. See also `adist` in package `utils`, which optionally returns the offsets of the matched substrings.

Author(s)

Original version in R < 2.10.0 by David Meyer. Current version by Brian Ripley and Kurt Hornik.

See Also

[grep](#), [adist](#).

Examples

```
agrep("lasy", "1 lazy 2")
agrep("lasy", c(" 1 lazy 2", "1 lasy 2"), max = list(sub = 0))
agrep("laysy", c("1 lazy", "1", "1 LAZY"), max = 2)
agrep("laysy", c("1 lazy", "1", "1 LAZY"), max = 2, value = TRUE)
agrep("laysy", c("1 lazy", "1", "1 LAZY"), max = 2, ignore.case = TRUE)
```

all

*Are All Values True?***Description**

Given a set of logical vectors, are all of the values true?

Usage

```
all(..., na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`...` zero or more logical vectors. Other objects of zero length are ignored, and the rest are coerced to logical ignoring any class.

`na.rm` logical. If true NA values are removed before the result is computed.

Details

This is a generic function: methods can be defined for it directly or via the [Summary](#) group generic. For this to work properly, the arguments `...` should be unnamed, and dispatch is on the first argument.

Coercion of types other than integer (raw, double, complex, character, list) gives a warning as this is often unintentional.

This is a [primitive](#) function.

Value

The value is a logical vector of length one.

Let `x` denote the concatenation of all the logical vectors in `...` (after coercion), after removing NAs if requested by `na.rm = TRUE`.

The value returned is `TRUE` if all of the values in `x` are `TRUE` (including if there are no values), and `FALSE` if at least one of the values in `x` is `FALSE`. Otherwise the value is `NA` (which can only occur if `na.rm = FALSE` and `...` contains no `FALSE` values and at least one `NA` value).

S4 methods

This is part of the S4 [Summary](#) group generic. Methods for it must use the signature `x, ..., na.rm`.

Note

That `all(logical(0))` is true is a useful convention: it ensures that

```
all(all(x), all(y)) == all(x, y)
```

even if `x` has length zero.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[any](#), the ‘complement’ of `all`, and [stopifnot](#)(*) which is an `all`(*) ‘insurance’.

Examples

```
range(x <- sort(round(stats::rnorm(10) - 1.2, 1)))
if(all(x < 0)) cat("all x values are negative\n")

all(logical(0)) # true, as all zero of the elements are true.
```

all.equal

Test if Two Objects are (Nearly) Equal

Description

`all.equal(x, y)` is a utility to compare R objects `x` and `y` testing ‘near equality’. If they are different, comparison is still made to some extent, and a report of the differences is returned. Do not use `all.equal` directly in `if` expressions—either use `isTRUE(all.equal(...))` or [identical](#) if appropriate.

Usage

```
all.equal(target, current, ...)

## S3 method for class 'numeric'
all.equal(target, current,
          tolerance = .Machine$double.eps ^ 0.5, scale = NULL,
          ..., check.attributes = TRUE)

## S3 method for class 'list'
all.equal(target, current, ...,
          check.attributes = TRUE, use.names = TRUE)

## S3 method for class 'environment'
all.equal(target, current, all.names=TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
all.equal(target, current, ..., tolerance = 1e-3, scale)

attr.all.equal(target, current, ...,
               check.attributes = TRUE, check.names = TRUE)
```

Arguments

target	R object.
current	other R object, to be compared with target.
...	Further arguments for different methods, notably the following two, for numerical comparison:
tolerance	numeric ≥ 0 . Differences smaller than tolerance are not reported. The default value is close to $1.5e-8$.
scale	numeric scalar > 0 (or NULL). See ‘Details’.
check.attributes	logical indicating if the <code>attributes</code> of target and current (other than the names) should be compared.
use.names	logical indicating if <code>list</code> comparison should report differing components by name (if matching) instead of integer index. Note that this comes after ... and so must be specified by its full name.
all.names	logical passed to <code>ls</code> indicating if “hidden” objects should also be considered in the environments.
check.names	logical indicating if the <code>names(.)</code> of target and current should be compared.

Details

`all.equal` is a generic function, dispatching methods on the `target` argument. To see the available methods, use `methods("all.equal")`, but note that the default method also does some dispatching, e.g. using the `raw` method for logical targets.

Remember that arguments which follow ... must be specified by (unabbreviated) name: some of them were before ... prior to R 3.1.0. It is inadvisable to pass unnamed arguments in ... as these will match different arguments in different methods.

Numerical comparisons for `scale = NULL` (the default) are typically on *relative difference* scale unless the target values are close to zero: First, the mean absolute difference of the two numerical vectors is computed. If this is smaller than `tolerance` or not finite, absolute differences are used, otherwise relative differences scaled by the mean absolute target value. (Note that these comparisons are computed only for those vector elements where `target` is not `NA` and differs from `current`.)

If `scale` is positive, absolute comparisons are made after scaling (dividing) by `scale`.

For complex `target`, the modulus (`Mod`) of the difference is used: `all.equal.numeric` is called so arguments `tolerance` and `scale` are available.

The `list` method compares components of `target` and `current` recursively, passing all other arguments, as long as both are “list-like”, i.e., fulfill either `is.vector` or `is.list`.

The `environment` method works via the `list` method, and is also used for reference classes (unless a specific `all.equal` method is defined).

The methods for the date-time classes by default allow a tolerance of `tolerance = 0.001` seconds, and ignore `scale`.

`attr.all.equal` is used for comparing `attributes`, returning `NULL` or a character vector.

Value

Either TRUE (NULL for attr.all.equal) or a vector of `mode` "character" describing the differences between target and current.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer (for =).

See Also

`identical`, `isTRUE`, `==`, and `all` for exact equality testing.

Examples

```
all.equal(pi, 355/113)
# not precise enough (default tol) > relative error

d45 <- pi*(1/4 + 1:10)
stopifnot(
  all.equal(tan(d45), rep(1, 10)))      # TRUE, but
all      (tan(d45) == rep(1, 10))      # FALSE, since not exactly
all.equal(tan(d45), rep(1, 10), tolerance = 0) # to see difference

## advanced: equality of environments
ae <- all.equal(as.environment("package:stats"),
               asNamespace("stats"))
stopifnot(is.character(ae), length(ae) > 10,
          ## were incorrectly "considered equal" in R <= 3.1.1
          all.equal(asNamespace("stats"), asNamespace("stats")))
```

all.names

Find All Names in an Expression

Description

Return a character vector containing all the names which occur in an expression or call.

Usage

```
all.names(expr, functions = TRUE, max.names = -1L, unique = FALSE)
```

```
all.vars(expr, functions = FALSE, max.names = -1L, unique = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	an expression or call from which the names are to be extracted.
<code>functions</code>	a logical value indicating whether function names should be included in the result.
<code>max.names</code>	the maximum number of names to be returned. -1 indicates no limit (other than vector size limits).
<code>unique</code>	a logical value which indicates whether duplicate names should be removed from the value.

Details

These functions differ only in the default values for their arguments.

Value

A character vector with the extracted names.

See Also

[substitute](#) to replace symbols with values in an expression.

Examples

```
all.names(expression(sin(x+y)))
all.names(quote(sin(x+y))) # or a call
all.vars(expression(sin(x+y)))
```

any	<i>Are Some Values True?</i>
-----	------------------------------

Description

Given a set of logical vectors, is at least one of the values true?

Usage

```
any(..., na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	zero or more logical vectors. Other objects of zero length are ignored, and the rest are coerced to logical ignoring any class.
<code>na.rm</code>	logical. If true NA values are removed before the result is computed.

Details

This is a generic function: methods can be defined for it directly or via the [Summary](#) group generic. For this to work properly, the arguments `...` should be unnamed, and dispatch is on the first argument.

Coercion of types other than integer (raw, double, complex, character, list) gives a warning as this is often unintentional.

This is a [primitive](#) function.

Value

The value is a logical vector of length one.

Let `x` denote the concatenation of all the logical vectors in `...` (after coercion), after removing NAs if requested by `na.rm = TRUE`.

The value returned is `TRUE` if at least one of the values in `x` is `TRUE`, and `FALSE` if all of the values in `x` are `FALSE` (including if there are no values). Otherwise the value is `NA` (which can only occur if `na.rm = FALSE` and `...` contains no `TRUE` values and at least one `NA` value).

S4 methods

This is part of the S4 [Summary](#) group generic. Methods for it must use the signature `x, ..., na.rm`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[all](#), the ‘complement’ of any.

Examples

```
range(x <- sort(round(stats::rnorm(10) - 1.2, 1)))
if(any(x < 0)) cat("x contains negative values\n")
```

aperm

Array Transposition

Description

Transpose an array by permuting its dimensions and optionally resizing it.

Usage

```
aperm(a, perm, ...)
## Default S3 method:
aperm(a, perm = NULL, resize = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'table'
aperm(a, perm = NULL, resize = TRUE, keep.class = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>a</code>	the array to be transposed.
<code>perm</code>	the subscript permutation vector, usually a permutation of the integers 1:n, where n is the number of dimensions of <code>a</code> . When <code>a</code> has named <code>dimnames</code> , it can be a character vector of length n giving a permutation of those names. The default (used whenever <code>perm</code> has zero length) is to reverse the order of the dimensions.
<code>resize</code>	a flag indicating whether the vector should be resized as well as having its elements reordered (default TRUE).
<code>keep.class</code>	logical indicating if the result should be of the same class as <code>a</code> .
<code>...</code>	potential further arguments of methods.

Value

A transposed version of array `a`, with subscripts permuted as indicated by the array `perm`. If `resize` is TRUE, the array is reshaped as well as having its elements permuted, the `dimnames` are also permuted; if `resize = FALSE` then the returned object has the same dimensions as `a`, and the `dimnames` are dropped. In each case other attributes are copied from `a`.

The function `t` provides a faster and more convenient way of transposing matrices.

Author(s)

Jonathan Rougier, <J.C.Rougier@durham.ac.uk> did the faster C implementation.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[t](#), to transpose matrices.

Examples

```
# interchange the first two subscripts on a 3-way array x
x <- array(1:24, 2:4)
xt <- aperm(x, c(2,1,3))
stopifnot(t(xt[,2]) == x[,2],
          t(xt[,3]) == x[,3],
```



```

t(xt[,4]) == x[,4])

UCB <- aperm(UCBAdmissions, c(2,1,3))
UCB[1,,]
summary(UCB) # UCB is still a contingency table

```

append

Vector Merging

Description

Add elements to a vector.

Usage

```
append(x, values, after = length(x))
```

Arguments

x	the vector to be modified.
values	to be included in the modified vector.
after	a subscript, after which the values are to be appended.

Value

A vector containing the values in x with the elements of values appended after the specified element of x.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
append(1:5, 0:1, after = 3)
```

 apply

Apply Functions Over Array Margins

Description

Returns a vector or array or list of values obtained by applying a function to margins of an array or matrix.

Usage

```
apply(X, MARGIN, FUN, ...)
```

Arguments

X	an array, including a matrix.
MARGIN	a vector giving the subscripts which the function will be applied over. E.g., for a matrix 1 indicates rows, 2 indicates columns, c(1, 2) indicates rows and columns. Where X has named dimnames, it can be a character vector selecting dimension names.
FUN	the function to be applied: see ‘Details’. In the case of functions like +, %*%, etc., the function name must be backquoted or quoted.
...	optional arguments to FUN.

Details

If X is not an array but an object of a class with a non-null `dim` value (such as a data frame), `apply` attempts to coerce it to an array via `as.matrix` if it is two-dimensional (e.g., a data frame) or via `as.array`.

FUN is found by a call to `match.fun` and typically is either a function or a symbol (e.g., a backquoted name) or a character string specifying a function to be searched for from the environment of the call to `apply`.

Arguments in ... cannot have the same name as any of the other arguments, and care may be needed to avoid partial matching to MARGIN or FUN. In general-purpose code it is good practice to name the first three arguments if ... is passed through: this both avoids partial matching to MARGIN or FUN and ensures that a sensible error message is given if arguments named X, MARGIN or FUN are passed through ...

Value

If each call to FUN returns a vector of length n, then `apply` returns an array of dimension `c(n, dim(X)[MARGIN])` if `n > 1`. If n equals 1, `apply` returns a vector if MARGIN has length 1 and an array of dimension `dim(X)[MARGIN]` otherwise. If n is 0, the result has length 0 but not necessarily the ‘correct’ dimension.

If the calls to FUN return vectors of different lengths, `apply` returns a list of length `prod(dim(X)[MARGIN])` with `dim` set to MARGIN if this has length greater than one.

In all cases the result is coerced by `as.vector` to one of the basic vector types before the dimensions are set, so that (for example) factor results will be coerced to a character array.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[lapply](#) and there, [simplify2array](#); [tapply](#), and convenience functions [sweep](#) and [aggregate](#).

Examples

```
## Compute row and column sums for a matrix:
x <- cbind(x1 = 3, x2 = c(4:1, 2:5))
dimnames(x)[[1]] <- letters[1:8]
apply(x, 2, mean, trim = .2)
col.sums <- apply(x, 2, sum)
row.sums <- apply(x, 1, sum)
rbind(cbind(x, Rtot = row.sums), Ctot = c(col.sums, sum(col.sums)))

stopifnot( apply(x, 2, is.vector))

## Sort the columns of a matrix
apply(x, 2, sort)

## keeping named dimnames
names(dimnames(x)) <- c("row", "col")
x3 <- array(x, dim = c(dim(x),3),
  dimnames = c(dimnames(x), list(C = paste0("cop.",1:3))))
identical(x, apply(x, 2, identity))
identical(x3, apply(x3, 2:3, identity))

##- function with extra args:
cave <- function(x, c1, c2) c(mean(x[c1]), mean(x[c2]))
apply(x, 1, cave, c1 = "x1", c2 = c("x1","x2"))

ma <- matrix(c(1:4, 1, 6:8), nrow = 2)
ma
apply(ma, 1, table) #--> a list of length 2
apply(ma, 1, stats::quantile) # 5 x n matrix with rownames

stopifnot(dim(ma) == dim(apply(ma, 1:2, sum)))

## Example with different lengths for each call
z <- array(1:24, dim = 2:4)
zseq <- apply(z, 1:2, function(x) seq_len(max(x)))
zseq          ## a 2 x 3 matrix
typeof(zseq)  ## list
dim(zseq)     ## 2 3
zseq[1,]
apply(z, 3, function(x) seq_len(max(x)))
# a list without a dim attribute
```

`args`*Argument List of a Function*

Description

Displays the argument names and corresponding default values of a function or primitive.

Usage

```
args(name)
```

Arguments

name	a function (a closure or a primitive). If name is a character string then the function with that name is found and used.
------	--

Details

This function is mainly used interactively to print the argument list of a function. For programming, consider using [formals](#) instead.

Value

For a closure, a closure with identical formal argument list but an empty (NULL) body.

For a primitive, a closure with the documented usage and NULL body. Note that some primitives do not make use of named arguments and match by position rather than name.

NULL in case of a non-function.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[formals](#), [help](#).

Examples

```
args(c)
args(graphics::plot.default)
```

Arithmetic

*Arithmetic Operators***Description**

These unary and binary operators perform arithmetic on numeric or complex vectors (or objects which can be coerced to them).

Usage

```
+ x
- x
x + y
x - y
x * y
x / y
x ^ y
x %% y
x %/% y
```

Arguments

`x`, `y` numeric or complex vectors or objects which can be coerced to such, or other objects for which methods have been written.

Details

The unary and binary arithmetic operators are generic functions: methods can be written for them individually or via the [Ops](#) group generic function. (See [Ops](#) for how dispatch is computed.)

If applied to arrays the result will be an array if this is sensible (for example it will not if the recycling rule has been invoked).

Logical vectors will be coerced to integer or numeric vectors, FALSE having value zero and TRUE having value one.

$1 \wedge y$ and $y \wedge 0$ are 1, *always*. $x \wedge y$ should also give the proper limit result when either (numeric) argument is [infinite](#) (one of Inf or -Inf).

Objects such as arrays or time-series can be operated on this way provided they are conformable.

For double arguments, %% can be subject to catastrophic loss of accuracy if `x` is much larger than `y`, and a warning is given if this is detected.

%% and `x %/% y` can be used for non-integer `y`, e.g. `1 %/% 0.2`, but the results are subject to representation error and so may be platform-dependent. Because the IEC 60059 representation of 0.2 is a binary fraction slightly larger than 0.2, the answer to `1 %/% 0.2` should be 4 but most platforms give 5.

Users are sometimes surprised by the value returned, for example why $(-8)^{(1/3)}$ is NaN. For [double](#) inputs, R makes use of IEC 60559 arithmetic on all platforms, together with the C system function 'pow' for the ^ operator. The relevant standards define the result in many corner cases. In

particular, the result in the example above is mandated by the C99 standard. On many Unix-alike systems the command `man pow` gives details of the values in a large number of corner cases.

Arithmetic on type `double` in R is supposed to be done in ‘round to nearest, ties to even’ mode, but this does depend on the compiler and FPU being set up correctly.

Value

Unary `+` and unary `-` return a numeric or complex vector. All attributes (including class) are preserved if there is no coercion: logical `x` is coerced to integer and names, dims and dimnames are preserved.

The binary operators return vectors containing the result of the element by element operations. If involving a zero-length vector the result has length zero. Otherwise, the elements of shorter vectors are recycled as necessary (with a `warning` when they are recycled only *fractionally*). The operators are `+` for addition, `-` for subtraction, `*` for multiplication, `/` for division and `^` for exponentiation.

`%%` indicates `x mod y` and `/%` indicates integer division. It is guaranteed that `x == (x %% y) + y * (x %/% y)` (up to rounding error) unless `y == 0` where the result of `%%` is `NA_integer_` or `NaN` (depending on the `typeof` of the arguments), and for non-finite arguments.

If either argument is complex the result will be complex, otherwise if one or both arguments are numeric, the result will be numeric. If both arguments are of type `integer`, the type of the result of `/` and `^` is `numeric` and for the other operators it is integer (with overflow, which occurs at $\pm(2^{31} - 1)$, returned as `NA_integer_` with a warning).

The rules for determining the attributes of the result are rather complicated. Most attributes are taken from the longer argument. Names will be copied from the first if it is the same length as the answer, otherwise from the second if that is. If the arguments are the same length, attributes will be copied from both, with those of the first argument taking precedence when the same attribute is present in both arguments. For time series, these operations are allowed only if the series are compatible, when the class and `tsp` attribute of whichever is a time series (the same, if both are) are used. For arrays (and an array result) the dimensions and dimnames are taken from first argument if it is an array, otherwise the second.

S4 methods

These operators are members of the S4 `Arith` group generic, and so methods can be written for them individually as well as for the group generic (or the `Ops` group generic), with arguments `c(e1, e2)` (with `e2` missing for a unary operator).

Implementation limits

R is dependent on OS services (and they on FPUs) for floating-point arithmetic. On all current R platforms IEC 60559 (also known as IEEE 754) arithmetic is used, but some things in those standards are optional. In particular, the support for *denormal numbers* (those outside the range given by `.Machine`) may differ between platforms and even between calculations on a single platform.

Another potential issue is signed zeroes: on IEC 60659 platforms there are two zeroes with internal representations differing by sign. Where possible R treats them as the same, but for example direct output from C code often does not do so and may output ‘`-0.0`’ (and on Windows whether it does so or not depends on the version of Windows). One place in R where the difference might be seen is in division by zero: `1/x` is `Inf` or `-Inf` depending on the sign of zero `x`.

Note

All logical operations involving a zero-length vector have a zero-length result.

The binary operators are sometimes called as functions as e.g. ``&`(x, y)`: see the description of how argument-matching is done in [Ops](#).

`**` is translated in the parser to `^`, but this was undocumented for many years. It appears as an index entry in Becker *et al* (1988), pointing to the help for `Deprecated` but is not actually mentioned on that page. Even though it had been deprecated in S for 20 years, it was still accepted in R in 2008.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

D. Goldberg (1991) *What Every Computer Scientist Should Know about Floating-Point Arithmetic* ACM Computing Surveys, **23**(1).

Postscript version available at <http://www.validlab.com/goldberg/paper.ps> Extended PDF version at <http://www.validlab.com/goldberg/paper.pdf>

See Also

[sqrt](#) for miscellaneous and [Special](#) for special mathematical functions.

[Syntax](#) for operator precedence.

[%*%](#) for matrix multiplication.

Examples

```
x <- -1:12
x + 1
2 * x + 3
x %% 2 #-- is periodic
x %/% 5
```

array

Multi-way Arrays

Description

Creates or tests for arrays.

Usage

```
array(data = NA, dim = length(data), dimnames = NULL)
as.array(x, ...)
is.array(x)
```

Arguments

<code>data</code>	a vector (including a list or expression vector) giving data to fill the array. Non-atomic classed objects are coerced by as.vector .
<code>dim</code>	the <code>dim</code> attribute for the array to be created, that is an integer vector of length one or more giving the maximal indices in each dimension.
<code>dimnames</code>	either NULL or the names for the dimensions. This must be a list (or it will be ignored) with one component for each dimension, either NULL or a character vector of the length given by <code>dim</code> for that dimension. The list can be named, and the list names will be used as names for the dimensions. If the list is shorter than the number of dimensions, it is extended by NULLs to the length required.
<code>x</code>	an R object.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

An array in R can have one, two or more dimensions. It is simply a vector which is stored with additional [attributes](#) giving the dimensions (attribute `"dim"`) and optionally names for those dimensions (attribute `"dimnames"`).

A two-dimensional array is the same thing as a [matrix](#).

One-dimensional arrays often look like vectors, but may be handled differently by some functions: [str](#) does distinguish them in recent versions of R.

The `"dim"` attribute is an integer vector of length one or more containing non-negative values: the product of the values must match the length of the array.

The `"dimnames"` attribute is optional: if present it is a list with one component for each dimension, either NULL or a character vector of the length given by the element of the `"dim"` attribute for that dimension.

`is.array` is a [primitive](#) function.

For a list array, the print methods prints entries of length not one in the form `'integer, 7'` indicating the type and length.

Value

`array` returns an array with the extents specified in `dim` and naming information in `dimnames`. The values in `data` are taken to be those in the array with the leftmost subscript moving fastest. If there are too few elements in `data` to fill the array, then the elements in `data` are recycled. If `data` has length zero, NA of an appropriate type is used for atomic vectors (`0` for raw vectors) and NULL for lists.

Unlike [matrix](#), `array` does not currently remove any attributes left by `as.vector` from a classed list `data`, so can return a list array with a class attribute.

`as.array` is a generic function for coercing to arrays. The default method does so by attaching a [dim](#) attribute to it. It also attaches [dimnames](#) if `x` has [names](#). The sole purpose of this is to make it possible to access the `dim[names]` attribute at a later time.

`is.array` returns TRUE or FALSE depending on whether its argument is an array (i.e., has a `dim` attribute of positive length) or not. It is generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#).

Note

is.array is a [primitive](#) function.

R 2.x.y allowed (although documented not to) a zero-length dim argument, and returned a vector of length one.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[aperm](#), [matrix](#), [dim](#), [dimnames](#).

Examples

```
dim(as.array(letters))
array(1:3, c(2,4)) # recycle 1:3 "2 2/3 times"
#      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
# [1,]    1    3    2    1
# [2,]    2    1    3    2
```

as.data.frame

Coerce to a Data Frame

Description

Functions to check if an object is a data frame, or coerce it if possible.

Usage

```
as.data.frame(x, row.names = NULL, optional = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'character'
as.data.frame(x, ...,
              stringsAsFactors = default.stringsAsFactors())

## S3 method for class 'matrix'
as.data.frame(x, row.names = NULL, optional = FALSE, ...,
              stringsAsFactors = default.stringsAsFactors())

is.data.frame(x)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	any R object.
<code>row.names</code>	NULL or a character vector giving the row names for the data frame. Missing values are not allowed.
<code>optional</code>	logical. If TRUE, setting row names and converting column names (to syntactic names: see make.names) is optional.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments to be passed to or from methods.
<code>stringsAsFactors</code>	logical: should the character vector be converted to a factor?

Details

`as.data.frame` is a generic function with many methods, and users and packages can supply further methods. For classes that act as vectors, often a copy of `as.data.frame.vector` will work as the method.

If a list is supplied, each element is converted to a column in the data frame. Similarly, each column of a matrix is converted separately. This can be overridden if the object has a class which has a method for `as.data.frame`: two examples are matrices of class `"model.matrix"` (which are included as a single column) and list objects of class `"POSIXlt"` which are coerced to class `"POSIXct"`.

Arrays can be converted to data frames. One-dimensional arrays are treated like vectors and two-dimensional arrays like matrices. Arrays with more than two dimensions are converted to matrices by ‘flattening’ all dimensions after the first and creating suitable column labels.

Character variables are converted to factor columns unless protected by [I](#).

If a data frame is supplied, all classes preceding `"data.frame"` are stripped, and the row names are changed if that argument is supplied.

If `row.names = NULL`, row names are constructed from the names or `dimnames` of `x`, otherwise are the integer sequence starting at one. Few of the methods check for duplicated row names. Names are removed from vector columns unless [I](#).

Value

`as.data.frame` returns a data frame, normally with all row names `""` if `optional = TRUE`.

`is.data.frame` returns TRUE if its argument is a data frame (that is, has `"data.frame"` amongst its classes) and FALSE otherwise.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Data for models*. Chapter 3 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[data.frame](#), [as.data.frame.table](#) for the `table` method (which has additional arguments if called directly).

as.Date

*Date Conversion Functions to and from Character***Description**

Functions to convert between character representations and objects of class "Date" representing calendar dates.

Usage

```
as.Date(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'character'
as.Date(x, format, ...)
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
as.Date(x, origin, ...)
## S3 method for class 'POSIXct'
as.Date(x, tz = "UTC", ...)

## S3 method for class 'Date'
format(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'Date'
as.character(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x	An object to be converted.
format	A character string. If not specified, it will try "%Y-%m-%d" then "%Y/%m/%d" on the first non-NA element, and give an error if neither works. Otherwise, the processing is via strptime
origin	a Date object, or something which can be coerced by as.Date(origin, ...) to such an object.
tz	a time zone name.
...	Further arguments to be passed from or to other methods, including format for as.character and as.Date methods.

Details

The usual vector re-cycling rules are applied to x and format so the answer will be of length that of the longer of the vectors.

Locale-specific conversions to and from character strings are used where appropriate and available. This affects the names of the days and months.

The as.Date methods accept character strings, factors, logical NA and objects of classes "[POSIXlt](#)" and "[POSIXct](#)". (The last is converted to days by ignoring the time after midnight in the representation of the time in specified time zone, default UTC.) Also objects of class "date" (from package

date) and "dates" (from package **chron**). Character strings are processed as far as necessary for the format specified: any trailing characters are ignored.

as.Date will accept numeric data (the number of days since an epoch), but *only* if origin is supplied.

The format and as.character methods ignore any fractional part of the date.

Value

The format and as.character methods return a character vector representing the date. NA dates are returned as NA_character_.

The as.Date methods return an object of class "Date".

Conversion from other Systems

Most systems record dates internally as the number of days since some origin, but this is fraught with problems, including

- Is the origin day 0 or day 1? As the 'Examples' show, Excel manages to use both choices for its two date systems.
- If the origin is far enough back, the designers may show their ignorance of calendar systems. For example, Excel's designer thought 1900 was a leap year (claiming to copy the error from earlier DOS spreadsheets), and Matlab's designer chose the non-existent date of 'January 0, 0000' (there is no such day), not specifying the calendar. (There is such a year in the 'Gregorian' calendar as used in ISO 8601:2004, but that does say that it is only to be used for years before 1582 with the agreement of the parties in information exchange.)

The only safe procedure is to check the other systems values for known dates: reports on the Internet (including R-help) are more often wrong than right.

Note

The default formats follow the rules of the ISO 8601 international standard which expresses a day as "2001-02-03".

If the date string does not specify the date completely, the returned answer may be system-specific. The most common behaviour is to assume that a missing year, month or day is the current one. If it specifies a date incorrectly, reliable implementations will give an error and the date is reported as NA. Unfortunately some common implementations (such as 'glibc') are unreliable and guess at the intended meaning.

Years before 1CE (aka 1AD) will probably not be handled correctly.

References

International Organization for Standardization (2004, 1988, 1997, ...) *ISO 8601. Data elements and interchange formats – Information interchange – Representation of dates and times*. For links to versions available on-line see (at the time of writing) <http://www.qsl.net/g1smd/isopdf.htm>.

See Also

[Date](#) for details of the date class; [locales](#) to query or set a locale.

Your system's help pages on `strftime` and `strptime` to see how to specify their formats. Windows users will find no help page for `strptime`: code based on 'glibc' is used (with corrections), so all the format specifiers described here are supported, but with no alternative number representation nor era available in any locale.

Examples

```
## locale-specific version of the date
format(Sys.Date(), "%a %b %d")

## read in date info in format 'ddmmYYYY'
## This will give NA(s) in some locales; setting the C locale
## as in the commented lines will overcome this on most systems.
## lct <- Sys.getlocale("LC_TIME"); Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", "C")
x <- c("1jan1960", "2jan1960", "31mar1960", "30jul1960")
z <- as.Date(x, "%d%b%Y")
## Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", lct)
z

## read in date/time info in format 'm/d/y'
dates <- c("02/27/92", "02/27/92", "01/14/92", "02/28/92", "02/01/92")
as.Date(dates, "%m/%d/%y")

## date given as number of days since 1900-01-01 (a date in 1989)
as.Date(32768, origin = "1900-01-01")
## Excel is said to use 1900-01-01 as day 1 (Windows default) or
## 1904-01-01 as day 0 (Mac default), but this is complicated by Excel
## incorrectly treating 1900 as a leap year.
## So for dates (post-1901) from Windows Excel
as.Date(35981, origin = "1899-12-30") # 1998-07-05
## and Mac Excel
as.Date(34519, origin = "1904-01-01") # 1998-07-05
## (these values come from http://support.microsoft.com/kb/214330)

## Experiment shows that Matlab's origin is 719529 days before ours,
## (it takes the non-existent 0000-01-01 as day 1)
## so Matlab day 734373 can be imported as
as.Date(734373, origin = "1970-01-01") - 719529 # 2010-08-23
## (value from
## http://www.mathworks.de/de/help/matlab/matlab_prog/represent-date-and-times-in-MATLAB.html)

## Time zone effect
z <- ISOdate(2010, 04, 13, c(0,12)) # midnight and midday UTC
as.Date(z) # in UTC
## these time zone names are common
as.Date(z, tz = "NZ")
as.Date(z, tz = "HST") # Hawaii
```

as.environment	<i>Coerce to an Environment Object</i>
----------------	--

Description

A generic function coercing an R object to an [environment](#). A number or a character string is converted to the corresponding environment on the search path.

Usage

```
as.environment(x)
```

Arguments

x an R object to convert. If it is already an environment, just return it. If it is a positive number, return the environment corresponding to that position on the search list. If it is -1, the environment it is called from. If it is a character string, match the string to the names on the search list.

If it is a list, the equivalent of `list2env(x, parent = emptyenv())` is returned.

If `is.object(x)` is true and it has a `class` for which an `as.environment` method is found, that is used.

Value

The corresponding environment object.

Note

This is a [primitive](#) function.

Author(s)

John Chambers

See Also

[environment](#) for creation and manipulation, [search](#); [list2env](#).

Examples

```
as.environment(1) ## the global environment
identical(globalenv(), as.environment(1)) ## is TRUE
try( ## <- stats need not be attached
    as.environment("package:stats"))
ee <- as.environment(list(a = "A", b = pi, ch = letters[1:8]))
ls(ee) # names of objects in ee
utils::ls.str(ee)
```

as.function	<i>Convert Object to Function</i>
-------------	-----------------------------------

Description

as.function is a generic function which is used to convert objects to functions.

as.function.default works on a list x, which should contain the concatenation of a formal argument list and an expression or an object of mode "[call](#)" which will become the function body. The function will be defined in a specified environment, by default that of the caller.

Usage

```
as.function(x, ...)  
  
## Default S3 method:  
as.function(x, envir = parent.frame(), ...)
```

Arguments

x	object to convert, a list for the default method.
...	additional arguments, depending on object
envir	environment in which the function should be defined

Value

The desired function.

Note

For ancient historical reasons, `envir = NULL` uses the global environment rather than the base environment. Please use `envir = globalenv()` instead if this is what you want, as the special handling of NULL may change in a future release.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard

See Also

[function](#); [alist](#) which is handy for the construction of argument lists, etc.

Examples

```
as.function(alist(a = , b = 2, a+b))  
as.function(alist(a = , b = 2, a+b))(3)
```

as.POSIX*

*Date-time Conversion Functions***Description**

Functions to manipulate objects of classes "POSIXlt" and "POSIXct" representing calendar dates and times.

Usage

```
as.POSIXct(x, tz = "", ...)
as.POSIXlt(x, tz = "", ...)

## S3 method for class 'character'
as.POSIXlt(x, tz = "", format, ...)

## S3 method for class 'numeric'
as.POSIXlt(x, tz = "", origin, ...)

## S3 method for class 'POSIXlt'
as.double(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x	An object to be converted.
tz	A time zone specification to be used for the conversion, <i>if one is required</i> . System-specific (see time zones), but "" is the current time zone, and "GMT" is UTC (Universal Time, Coordinated). Invalid values are most commonly treated as UTC, on some platforms with a warning.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from other methods.
format	character string giving a date-time format as used by strptime .
origin	a date-time object, or something which can be coerced by as.POSIXct(tz = "GMT") to such an object.

Details

The as.POSIX* functions convert an object to one of the two classes used to represent date/times (calendar dates plus time to the nearest second). They can convert a wide variety of objects, including objects of the other class and of classes "Date", "date" (from package [date](#)), "chron" and "dates" (from package [chron](#)) to these classes. Dates without times are treated as being at midnight UTC.

They can also convert character strings of the formats "2001-02-03" and "2001/02/03" optionally followed by white space and a time in the format "14:52" or "14:52:03". (Formats such as "01/02/03" are ambiguous but can be converted via a format specification by [strptime](#).) Fractional seconds are allowed. Alternatively, format can be specified for character vectors or factors: if it is not specified and no standard format works for all non-NA inputs an error is thrown.

If format is specified, remember that some of the format specifications are locale-specific, and you may need to set the LC_TIME category appropriately *via* [Sys.setlocale](#). This most often affects the use of %b, %B (month names) and %p (AM/PM).

Logical NAs can be converted to either of the classes, but no other logical vectors can be.

If you are given a numeric time as the number of seconds since an epoch, see the examples.

Character input is first converted to class "POSIXlt" by [strptime](#): numeric input is first converted to "POSIXct". Any conversion that needs to go between the two date-time classes requires a time zone: conversion from "POSIXlt" to "POSIXct" will validate times in the selected time zone. One issue is what happens at transitions to and from DST, for example in the UK

```
as.POSIXct(strptime("2011-03-27 01:30:00", "%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S"))
as.POSIXct(strptime("2010-10-31 01:30:00", "%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S"))
```

are respectively invalid (the clocks went forward at 1:00 GMT to 2:00 BST) and ambiguous (the clocks went back at 2:00 BST to 1:00 GMT). What happens in such cases is OS-specific: one should expect the first to be NA, but the second could be interpreted as either BST or GMT (and common OSES give both possible values). Note too (see [strptime](#)) that OS facilities may not format invalid times correctly.

Value

as.POSIXct and as.POSIXlt return an object of the appropriate class. If tz was specified, as.POSIXlt will give an appropriate "tz" attribute. Date-times known to be invalid will be returned as NA.

Note

Some of the concepts used have to be extended backwards in time (the usage is said to be 'proleptic'). For example, the origin of time for the "POSIXct" class, '1970-01-01 00:00.00 UTC', is before UTC was defined. More importantly, conversion is done assuming the Gregorian calendar which was introduced in 1582 and not used universally until the 20th century. One of the re-interpretations assumed by ISO 8601:2004 is that there was a year zero, even though current year numbering (and zero) is a much later concept (525 AD for year numbers from 1 AD).

If you want to extract specific aspects of a time (such as the day of the week) just convert it to class "POSIXlt" and extract the relevant component(s) of the list, or if you want a character representation (such as a named day of the week) use the [format](#) method.

If a time zone is needed and that specified is invalid on your system, what happens is system-specific but attempts to set it will probably be ignored.

Conversion from character needs to find a suitable format unless one is supplied (by trying common formats in turn): this can be slow for long inputs.

See Also

[DateTimeClasses](#) for details of the classes; [strptime](#) for conversion to and from character representations.

[Sys.timezone](#) for details of the (system-specific) naming of time zones.

[locales](#) for locale-specific aspects.

Examples

```
(z <- Sys.time())          # the current datetime, as class "POSIXct"
unclass(z)                 # a large integer
floor(unclass(z)/86400)     # the number of days since 1970-01-01 (UTC)
(now <- as.POSIXlt(Sys.time())) # the current datetime, as class "POSIXlt"
unlist(unclass(now))        # a list shown as a named vector
now$year + 1900             # see ?DateTimeClasses
months(now); weekdays(now) # see ?months

## suppose we have a time in seconds since 1960-01-01 00:00:00 GMT
## (the origin used by SAS)
z <- 1472562988
# ways to convert this
as.POSIXct(z, origin = "1960-01-01") # local
as.POSIXct(z, origin = "1960-01-01", tz = "GMT") # in UTC

## SPSS dates (R-help 2006-02-16)
z <- c(10485849600, 10477641600, 10561104000, 10562745600)
as.Date(as.POSIXct(z, origin = "1582-10-14", tz = "GMT"))

## Stata date-times: milliseconds since 1960-01-01 00:00:00 GMT
## format %tc excludes leap-seconds, assumed here
## For format %tC including leap seconds, see foreign::read.dta()
z <- 1579598122120
op <- options(digits.secs = 3)
# avoid rounding down: milliseconds are not exactly representable
as.POSIXct((z+0.1)/1000, origin = "1960-01-01")
options(op)

## Matlab 'serial day number' (days and fractional days)
z <- 7.343736909722223e5 # 2010-08-23 16:35:00
as.POSIXct((z - 719529)*86400, origin = "1970-01-01", tz = "UTC")

as.POSIXlt(Sys.time(), "GMT") # the current time in UTC

## These may not be correct names on your system
as.POSIXlt(Sys.time(), "America/New_York") # in New York
as.POSIXlt(Sys.time(), "EST5EDT")          # alternative.
as.POSIXlt(Sys.time(), "EST" )             # somewhere in Eastern Canada
as.POSIXlt(Sys.time(), "HST")              # in Hawaii
as.POSIXlt(Sys.time(), "Australia/Darwin")
```

Description

Change the class of an object to indicate that it should be treated ‘as is’.

Usage

```
I(x)
```

Arguments

x an object

Details

Function I has two main uses.

- In function `data.frame`. Protecting an object by enclosing it in `I()` in a call to `data.frame` inhibits the conversion of character vectors to factors and the dropping of names, and ensures that matrices are inserted as single columns. I can also be used to protect objects which are to be added to a data frame, or converted to a data frame *via* `as.data.frame`.
It achieves this by prepending the class "AsIs" to the object's classes. Class "AsIs" has a few of its own methods, including for `[], as.data.frame, print` and `format`.
- In function `formula`. There it is used to inhibit the interpretation of operators such as `"+"`, `"-"`, `"*"` and `"^"` as formula operators, so they are used as arithmetical operators. This is interpreted as a symbol by `terms.formula`.

Value

A copy of the object with class "AsIs" prepended to the class(es).

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Linear models*. Chapter 4 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`data.frame`, `formula`

assign

Assign a Value to a Name

Description

Assign a value to a name in an environment.

Usage

```
assign(x, value, pos = -1, envir = as.environment(pos),
       inherits = FALSE, immediate = TRUE)
```

Arguments

x	a variable name, given as a character string. No coercion is done, and the first element of a character vector of length greater than one will be used, with a warning.
value	a value to be assigned to x.
pos	where to do the assignment. By default, assigns into the current environment. See ‘Details’ for other possibilities.
envir	the environment to use. See ‘Details’.
inherits	should the enclosing frames of the environment be inspected?
immediate	an ignored compatibility feature.

Details

There are no restrictions on the name given as x: it can be a non-syntactic name (see [make.names](#)).

The pos argument can specify the environment in which to assign the object in any of several ways: as -1 (the default), as a positive integer (the position in the [search](#) list); as the character string name of an element in the search list; or as an [environment](#) (including using [sys.frame](#) to access the currently active function calls). The envir argument is an alternative way to specify an environment, but is primarily for back compatibility.

assign does not dispatch assignment methods, so it cannot be used to set elements of vectors, names, attributes, etc.

Note that assignment to an attached list or data frame changes the attached copy and not the original object: see [attach](#) and [with](#).

Value

This function is invoked for its side effect, which is assigning value to the variable x. If no envir is specified, then the assignment takes place in the currently active environment.

If inherits is TRUE, enclosing environments of the supplied environment are searched until the variable x is encountered. The value is then assigned in the environment in which the variable is encountered (provided that the binding is not locked: see [lockBinding](#): if it is, an error is signaled). If the symbol is not encountered then assignment takes place in the user’s workspace (the global environment).

If inherits is FALSE, assignment takes place in the initial frame of envir, unless an existing binding is locked or there is no existing binding and the environment is locked (when an error is signaled).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[<-](#), [get](#), [exists](#), [environment](#).

Examples

```

for(i in 1:6) { #-- Create objects 'r.1', 'r.2', ... 'r.6' --
  nam <- paste("r", i, sep = ".")
  assign(nam, 1:i)
}
ls(pattern = "^r..$")

##-- Global assignment within a function:
myf <- function(x) {
  innerf <- function(x) assign("Global.res", x^2, envir = .GlobalEnv)
  innerf(x+1)
}
myf(3)
Global.res # 16

a <- 1:4
assign("a[1]", 2)
a[1] == 2      # FALSE
get("a[1]") == 2 # TRUE

```

assignOps

Assignment Operators

Description

Assign a value to a name.

Usage

```

x <- value
x <<- value
value -> x
value ->> x

x = value

```

Arguments

x	a variable name (possibly quoted).
value	a value to be assigned to x.

Details

There are three different assignment operators: two of them have leftwards and rightwards forms.

The operators <- and = assign into the environment in which they are evaluated. The operator <- can be used anywhere, whereas the operator = is only allowed at the top level (e.g., in the

complete expression typed at the command prompt) or as one of the subexpressions in a braced list of expressions.

The operators `<<-` and `->>` are normally only used in functions, and cause a search to be made through parent environments for an existing definition of the variable being assigned. If such a variable is found (and its binding is not locked) then its value is redefined, otherwise assignment takes place in the global environment. Note that their semantics differ from that in the S language, but are useful in conjunction with the scoping rules of R. See ‘The R Language Definition’ manual for further details and examples.

In all the assignment operator expressions, `x` can be a name or an expression defining a part of an object to be replaced (e.g., `z[[1]]`). A syntactic name does not need to be quoted, though it can be (preferably by [backticks](#)).

The leftwards forms of assignment `<-` = `<<-` group right to left, the other from left to right.

Value

value. Thus one can use `a <- b <- c <- 6`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Chamber, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer (for =).

See Also

[assign](#), for “subassignment” such as `x[i] <- v`, [\[<-](#); [environment](#).

attach

Attach Set of R Objects to Search Path

Description

The database is attached to the R search path. This means that the database is searched by R when evaluating a variable, so objects in the database can be accessed by simply giving their names.

Usage

```
attach(what, pos = 2L, name = deparse(substitute(what)),
       warn.conflicts = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>what</code>	‘database’. This can be a <code>data.frame</code> or a list or a R data file created with save or NULL or an environment. See also ‘Details’.
<code>pos</code>	integer specifying position in search() where to attach.

name name to use for the attached database. Names starting with `package:` are reserved for `library`.

warn.conflicts logical. If TRUE, warnings are printed about `conflicts` from attaching the database, unless that database contains an object `.conflicts.OK`. A conflict is a function masking a function, or a non-function masking a non-function.

Details

When evaluating a variable or function name R searches for that name in the databases listed by `search`. The first name of the appropriate type is used.

By attaching a data frame (or list) to the search path it is possible to refer to the variables in the data frame by their names alone, rather than as components of the data frame (e.g., in the example below, `height` rather than `women$height`).

By default the database is attached in position 2 in the search path, immediately after the user's workspace and before all previously attached packages and previously attached databases. This can be altered to attach later in the search path with the `pos` option, but you cannot attach at `pos = 1`.

The database is not actually attached. Rather, a new environment is created on the search path and the elements of a list (including columns of a data frame) or objects in a save file or an environment are *copied* into the new environment. If you use `<<-` or `assign` to assign to an attached database, you only alter the attached copy, not the original object. (Normal assignment will place a modified version in the user's workspace: see the examples.) For this reason `attach` can lead to confusion.

One useful 'trick' is to use what `= NULL` (or equivalently a length-zero list) to create a new environment on the search path into which objects can be assigned by `assign` or `load` or `sys.source`.

Names starting `"package:"` are reserved for `library` and should not be used by end users. Attached files are by default given the name `file:what`. The name argument given for the attached environment will be used by `search` and can be used as the argument to `as.environment`.

There are hooks to attach user-defined table objects of class `"UserDefinedDatabase"`, supported by the Omegahat package **RObjectTables**. See <http://www.omegahat.net/RObjectTables/>.

Value

The `environment` is returned invisibly with a `"name"` attribute.

Good practice

`attach` has the side effect of altering the search path and this can easily lead to the wrong object of a particular name being found. People do often forget to `detach` databases.

In interactive use, `with` is usually preferable to the use of `attach/detach`, unless what is a `save()`-produced file in which case `attach()` is a (safety) wrapper for `load()`.

In programming, functions should not change the search path unless that is their purpose. Often `with` can be used within a function. If not, good practice is to

- Always use a distinctive name argument, and
- To immediately follow the `attach` call by an `on.exit` call to detach using the distinctive name.

This ensures that the search path is left unchanged even if the function is interrupted or if code after the `attach` call changes the search path.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[library](#), [detach](#), [search](#), [objects](#), [environment](#), [with](#).

Examples

```
require(utils)

summary(women$height)  # refers to variable 'height' in the data frame
attach(women)
summary(height)        # The same variable now available by name
height <- height*2.54   # Don't do this. It creates a new variable
                        # in the user's workspace

find("height")
summary(height)        # The new variable in the workspace
rm(height)
summary(height)        # The original variable.
height <-> height*25.4  # Change the copy in the attached environment
find("height")
summary(height)        # The changed copy
detach("women")
summary(women$height)  # unchanged

## Not run: ## create an environment on the search path and populate it
sys.source("myfuns.R", envir = attach(NULL, name = "myfuns"))

## End(Not run)
```

attr

Object Attributes

Description

Get or set specific attributes of an object.

Usage

```
attr(x, which, exact = FALSE)
attr(x, which) <- value
```

Arguments

x	an object whose attributes are to be accessed.
which	a non-empty character string specifying which attribute is to be accessed.
exact	logical: should which be matched exactly?
value	an object, the new value of the attribute, or NULL to remove the attribute.

Details

These functions provide access to a single attribute of an object. The replacement form causes the named attribute to take the value specified (or create a new attribute with the value given).

The extraction function first looks for an exact match to which amongst the attributes of `x`, then (unless `exact = TRUE`) a unique partial match. (Setting `options(warnPartialMatchAttr = TRUE)` causes partial matches to give warnings.)

The replacement function only uses exact matches.

Note that some attributes (namely `class`, `comment`, `dim`, `dimnames`, `names`, `row.names` and `tsp`) are treated specially and have restrictions on the values which can be set. (Note that this is not true of `levels` which should be set for factors via the `levels` replacement function.)

The extractor function allows (and does not match) empty and missing values of which: the replacement function does not.

Both are `primitive` functions.

Value

For the extractor, the value of the attribute matched, or `NULL` if no exact match is found and no or more than one partial match is found.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[attributes](#)

Examples

```
# create a 2 by 5 matrix
x <- 1:10
attr(x,"dim") <- c(2, 5)
```

attributes

Object Attribute Lists

Description

These functions access an object's attributes. The first form below returns the object's attribute list. The replacement forms uses the list on the right-hand side of the assignment as the object's attributes (if appropriate).

Usage

```
attributes(obj)
attributes(obj) <- value
mostattributes(obj) <- value
```

Arguments

obj	an object
value	an appropriate named list of attributes, or NULL.

Details

Unlike [attr](#) it is possible to set attributes on a NULL object: it will first be coerced to an empty list.

Note that some attributes (namely [class](#), [comment](#), [dim](#), [dimnames](#), [names](#), [row.names](#) and [tsp](#)) are treated specially and have restrictions on the values which can be set. (Note that this is not true of [levels](#) which should be set for factors via the [levels](#) replacement function.)

Attributes are not stored internally as a list and should be thought of as a set and not a vector. They must have unique names (and NA is taken as "NA", not a missing value).

Assigning attributes first removes all attributes, then sets any [dim](#) attribute and then the remaining attributes in the order given: this ensures that setting a [dim](#) attribute always precedes the [dimnames](#) attribute.

The [mostattributes](#) assignment takes special care for the [dim](#), [names](#) and [dimnames](#) attributes, and assigns them only when known to be valid whereas an [attributes](#) assignment would give an error if any are not. It is principally intended for arrays, and should be used with care on classed objects. For example, it does not check that [row.names](#) are assigned correctly for data frames.

The names of a pairlist are not stored as attributes, but are reported as if they were (and can be set by the replacement form of [attributes](#)).

Both assignment and replacement forms of attributes are [primitive](#) functions.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[attr](#).

Examples

```
x <- cbind(a = 1:3, pi = pi) # simple matrix with dimnames
attributes(x)

## strip an object's attributes:
attributes(x) <- NULL
x # now just a vector of length 6
```

```
mostattributes(x) <- list(mycomment = "really special", dim = 3:2,
  dimnames = list(LETTERS[1:3], letters[1:5]), names = paste(1:6))
x # dim(), but not {dim}names
```

autoload

On-demand Loading of Packages

Description

autoload creates a promise-to-evaluate autoloader and stores it with name `name` in `.AutoloadEnv` environment. When `R` attempts to evaluate `name`, autoloader is run, the package is loaded and `name` is re-evaluated in the new package's environment. The result is that `R` behaves as if file was loaded but it does not occupy memory.

`.Autoloaded` contains the names of the packages for which autoloading has been promised.

Usage

```
autoload(name, package, reset = FALSE, ...)
autoloader(name, package, ...)
```

```
.AutoloadEnv
.Autoloaded
```

Arguments

<code>name</code>	string giving the name of an object.
<code>package</code>	string giving the name of a package containing the object.
<code>reset</code>	logical: for internal use by autoloader.
<code>...</code>	other arguments to library .

Value

This function is invoked for its side-effect. It has no return value.

See Also

[delayedAssign](#), [library](#)

Examples

```
require(stats)
autoload("interpSpline", "splines")
search()
ls("Autoloads")
.Autoloaded

x <- sort(stats::rnorm(12))
```

```

y <- x^2
is <- interpSpline(x, y)
search() ## now has splines
detach("package:splines")
search()
is2 <- interpSpline(x, y+x)
search() ## and again
detach("package:splines")

```

backsolve

*Solve an Upper or Lower Triangular System***Description**

Solves a triangular system of linear equations.

Usage

```

backsolve(r, x, k = ncol(r), upper.tri = TRUE,
          transpose = FALSE)
forwardsolve(l, x, k = ncol(l), upper.tri = FALSE,
             transpose = FALSE)

```

Arguments

<code>r, l</code>	an upper (or lower) triangular matrix giving the coefficients for the system to be solved. Values below (above) the diagonal are ignored.
<code>x</code>	a matrix whose columns give the right-hand sides for the equations.
<code>k</code>	The number of columns of <code>r</code> and rows of <code>x</code> to use.
<code>upper.tri</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), the <i>upper triangular</i> part of <code>r</code> is used. Otherwise, the lower one.
<code>transpose</code>	logical; if TRUE, solve $r' * y = x$ for y , i.e., <code>t(r) %*% y == x</code> .

Details

Solves a system of linear equations where the coefficient matrix is upper (or 'right', 'R') or lower ('left', 'L') triangular.

```

x <- backsolve (R, b) solves  $Rx = b$ , and
x <- forwardsolve(L, b) solves  $Lx = b$ , respectively.

```

The `r/l` must have at least `k` rows and columns, and `x` must have at least `k` rows.

This is a wrapper for the level-3 BLAS routine `dtrsm`.

Value

The solution of the triangular system. The result will be a vector if `x` is a vector and a matrix if `x` is a matrix.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Dongarra, J. J., Bunch, J. R., Moler, C. B. and Stewart, G. W. (1978) *LINPACK Users Guide*. Philadelphia: SIAM Publications.

See Also

[chol](#), [qr](#), [solve](#).

Examples

```
## upper triangular matrix 'r':
r <- rbind(c(1,2,3),
           c(0,1,1),
           c(0,0,2))
( y <- backsolve(r, x <- c(8,4,2)) ) # -1 3 1
r %*% y # == x = (8,4,2)
backsolve(r, x, transpose = TRUE) # 8 -12 -5
```

basename

Manipulate File Paths

Description

basename removes all of the path up to and including the last path separator (if any).

dirname returns the part of the path up to but excluding the last path separator, or "." if there is no path separator.

Usage

```
basename(path)
dirname(path)
```

Arguments

path character vector, containing path names.

Details

For dirname [tilde expansion](#) of the path is done.

Trailing path separators are removed before dissecting the path, and for dirname any trailing file separators are removed from the result.

Value

A character vector of the same length as `path`. A zero-length input will give a zero-length output with no error.

Paths not containing any separators are taken to be in the current directory, so `dirname` returns `"."`.

If an element of `path` is [NA](#), so is the result.

`""` is not a valid pathname, but is returned unchanged.

Behaviour on Windows

On Windows this will accept either `\` or `/` as the path separator, but `dirname` will return a path using `/` (except if on a network share, when the leading `\\` will be preserved). Expect these only to be able to handle complete paths, and not for example just a network share or a drive.

UTF-8-encoded path names not valid in the current locale can be used.

Note

These are not wrappers for the POSIX system functions of the same names: in particular they do **not** have the special handling of the path `"/"` and of returning `"."` for empty strings.

See Also

[file.path](#), [path.expand](#).

Examples

```
basename(file.path("", "p1", "p2", "p3", c("file1", "file2")))
dirname(file.path("", "p1", "p2", "p3", "filename"))
```

Bessel

Bessel Functions

Description

Bessel Functions of integer and fractional order, of first and second kind, J_ν and Y_ν , and Modified Bessel functions (of first and third kind), I_ν and K_ν .

Usage

```
besseli(x, nu, expon.scaled = FALSE)
besselk(x, nu, expon.scaled = FALSE)
besselj(x, nu)
bessely(x, nu)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	numeric, ≥ 0 .
<code>nu</code>	numeric; The <i>order</i> (maybe fractional!) of the corresponding Bessel function.
<code>expon.scaled</code>	logical; if TRUE, the results are exponentially scaled in order to avoid overflow (I_ν) or underflow (K_ν), respectively.

Details

If `expon.scaled = TRUE`, $e^{-x}I_\nu(x)$, or $e^xK_\nu(x)$ are returned.

For $\nu < 0$, formulae 9.1.2 and 9.6.2 from Abramowitz & Stegun are applied (which is probably suboptimal), except for `besselK` which is symmetric in `nu`.

The current algorithms will give warnings about accuracy loss for large arguments. In some cases, these warnings are exaggerated, and the precision is perfect. For large `nu`, say in the order of millions, the current algorithms are rarely useful.

Value

Numeric vector with the (scaled, if `expon.scaled = TRUE`) values of the corresponding Bessel function.

The length of the result is the maximum of the lengths of the parameters. All parameters are recycled to that length.

Author(s)

Original Fortran code: W. J. Cody, Argonne National Laboratory

Translation to C and adaption to R: Martin Maechler <maechler@stat.math.ethz.ch>.

Source

The C code is a translation of Fortran routines from <http://www.netlib.org/specfun/ribes1>, `./rjbess1`, etc. The four source code files for `bessel[IJKY]` each contain a paragraph “Acknowledgement” and “References”, a short summary of which is

besselI based on (code) by David J. Sookne, see Sookne (1973)... Modifications... An earlier version was published in Cody (1983).

besselJ as `besselI`

besselK based on (code) by J. B. Campbell (1980)... Modifications...

besselY draws heavily on Temme’s Algol program for Y ... and on Campbell’s programs for $Y_\nu(x)$... heavily modified.

References

Abramowitz, M. and Stegun, I. A. (1972) *Handbook of Mathematical Functions*. Dover, New York; Chapter 9: Bessel Functions of Integer Order.

In order of “Source” citation above:

Sookne, David J. (1973) Bessel Functions of Real Argument and Integer Order. *NBS Jour. of Res. B.* **77B**, 125–132.

Cody, William J. (1983) Algorithm 597: Sequence of modified Bessel functions of the first kind. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software* **9**(2), 242–245.

Campbell, J.B. (1980) On Temme's algorithm for the modified Bessel function of the third kind. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software* **6**(4), 581–586.

Campbell, J.B. (1979) Bessel functions $J_{\nu}(x)$ and $Y_{\nu}(x)$ of float order and float argument. *Comp. Phy. Comm.* **18**, 133–142.

Temme, Nico M. (1976) On the numerical evaluation of the ordinary Bessel function of the second kind. *J. Comput. Phys.* **21**, 343–350.

See Also

Other special mathematical functions, such as [gamma](#), $\Gamma(x)$, and [beta](#), $B(x)$.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

nus <- c(0:5, 10, 20)

x <- seq(0, 4, length.out = 501)
plot(x, x, ylim = c(0, 6), ylab = "", type = "n",
     main = "Bessel Functions I_nu(x)")
for(nu in nus) lines(x, besselI(x, nu = nu), col = nu + 2)
legend(0, 6, legend = paste("nu=", nus), col = nus + 2, lwd = 1)

x <- seq(0, 40, length.out = 801); y1 <- c(-.8, .8)
plot(x, x, ylim = y1, ylab = "", type = "n",
     main = "Bessel Functions J_nu(x)")
for(nu in nus) lines(x, besselJ(x, nu = nu), col = nu + 2)
legend(32, -.18, legend = paste("nu=", nus), col = nus + 2, lwd = 1)

## Negative nu's :
xx <- 2:7
nu <- seq(-10, 9, length.out = 2001)
op <- par(lab = c(16, 5, 7))
matplot(nu, t(outer(xx, nu, besselI)), type = "l", ylim = c(-50, 200),
     main = expression(paste("Bessel ", I[nu](x), " for fixed ", x,
                             ", as ", f(nu))),
     xlab = expression(nu))
abline(v = 0, col = "light gray", lty = 3)
legend(5, 200, legend = paste("x=", xx), col=seq(xx), lty=seq(xx))
par(op)

x0 <- 2^(-20:10)
plot(x0, x0^-8, log = "xy", ylab = "", type = "n",
     main = "Bessel Functions J_nu(x) near 0\n log - log scale")
for(nu in sort(c(nus, nus+0.5)))
  lines(x0, besselJ(x0, nu = nu), col = nu + 2)
legend(3, 1e50, legend = paste("nu=", paste(nus, nus+0.5, sep=",")),
     col = nus + 2, lwd = 1)
```



```

plot(x0, x0^-8, log = "xy", ylab = "", type = "n",
     main = "Bessel Functions K_nu(x) near 0\n log - log scale")
for(nu in sort(c(nus, nus+0.5)))
  lines(x0, besselK(x0, nu = nu), col = nu + 2)
legend(3, 1e50, legend = paste("nu=", paste(nus, nus + 0.5, sep = ", ")),
      col = nus + 2, lwd = 1)

x <- x[x > 0]
plot(x, x, ylim = c(1e-18, 1e11), log = "y", ylab = "", type = "n",
     main = "Bessel Functions K_nu(x)")
for(nu in nus) lines(x, besselK(x, nu = nu), col = nu + 2)
legend(0, 1e-5, legend=paste("nu=", nus), col = nus + 2, lwd = 1)

yl <- c(-1.6, .6)
plot(x, x, ylim = yl, ylab = "", type = "n",
     main = "Bessel Functions Y_nu(x)")
for(nu in nus){
  xx <- x[x > .6*nus]
  lines(xx, bessely(xx, nu=nu), col = nu+2)
}
legend(25, -.5, legend = paste("nu=", nus), col = nus+2, lwd = 1)

## negative nu in bessel_Y -- was bogus for a long time
curve(bessely(x, -0.1), 0, 10, ylim = c(-3,1), ylab = "")
for(nu in c(seq(-0.2, -2, by = -0.1)))
  curve(bessely(x, nu), add = TRUE)
title(expression(bessely(x, nu) * " " *
  {nu == list(-0.1, -0.2, ..., -2)}))

```

bindenv

Binding and Environment Locking, Active Bindings

Description

These functions represent an experimental interface for adjustments to environments and bindings within environments. They allow for locking environments as well as individual bindings, and for linking a variable to a function.

Usage

```

lockEnvironment(env, bindings = FALSE)
environmentIsLocked(env)
lockBinding(sym, env)
unlockBinding(sym, env)
bindingIsLocked(sym, env)

makeActiveBinding(sym, fun, env)
bindingIsActive(sym, env)

```

Arguments

env	an environment.
bindings	logical specifying whether bindings should be locked.
sym	a name object or character string.
fun	a function taking zero or one arguments.

Details

The function `lockEnvironment` locks its environment argument, which must be a normal environment (not base). (Locking the base environment and namespace may be supported later.) Locking the environment prevents adding or removing variable bindings from the environment. Changing the value of a variable is still possible unless the binding has been locked. The namespace environments of packages with namespaces are locked when loaded.

`lockBinding` locks individual bindings in the specified environment. The value of a locked binding cannot be changed. Locked bindings may be removed from an environment unless the environment is locked.

`makeActiveBinding` installs `fun` in environment `env` so that getting the value of `sym` calls `fun` with no arguments, and assigning to `sym` calls `fun` with one argument, the value to be assigned. This allows the implementation of things like C variables linked to R variables and variables linked to databases, and is used to implement [setRefClass](#). It may also be useful for making thread-safe versions of some system globals.

Value

The `bindingIsLocked` and `environmentIsLocked` return a length-one logical vector. The remaining functions return NULL, invisibly.

Author(s)

Luke Tierney

Examples

```
# locking environments
e <- new.env()
assign("x", 1, envir = e)
get("x", envir = e)
lockEnvironment(e)
get("x", envir = e)
assign("x", 2, envir = e)
try(assign("y", 2, envir = e)) # error

# locking bindings
e <- new.env()
assign("x", 1, envir = e)
get("x", envir = e)
lockBinding("x", e)
try(assign("x", 2, envir = e)) # error
unlockBinding("x", e)
```

```
assign("x", 2, envir = e)
get("x", envir = e)

# active bindings
f <- local( {
  x <- 1
  function(v) {
    if (missing(v))
      cat("get\n")
    else {
      cat("set\n")
      x <- v
    }
  }
  x
})
makeActiveBinding("fred", f, .GlobalEnv)
bindingIsActive("fred", .GlobalEnv)
fred
fred <- 2
fred
```

bitwise

Bitwise Logical Operations

Description

Logical operations on integer vectors with elements viewed as sets of bits.

Usage

```
bitwNot(a)
bitwAnd(a, b)
bitwOr(a, b)
bitwXor(a, b)

bitwShiftL(a, n)
bitwShiftR(a, n)
```

Arguments

a, b	integer vectors; numeric vectors are coerced to integer vectors.
n	non-negative integer vector of values up to 31.

Details

Each element of an integer vector has 32 bits.

Pairwise operations can result in integer NA.

Shifting is done assuming the values represent unsigned integers.

Value

An integer vector of length the longer of the arguments, or zero length if one is zero-length.

The output element is NA if an input is NA (after coercion) or an invalid shift.

See Also

The logical operators, [!](#), [&](#), [|](#), [xor](#).

The classes "octmode" and "hexmnode" whose implementation of the standard logical operators is based on these functions.

Package **bitOps** has similar functions for numeric vectors which differ in the way they treat integers 2^{31} or larger.

Examples

```
bitwAnd(15L, 7L)
bitwOr(15L, 7L)
bitwXor(15L, 7L)
bitwXor(-1L, 1L)

bitwShiftR(-1, 1:31) # shifts of 2^32-1 = 4294967295
```

body

Access to and Manipulation of the Body of a Function

Description

Get or set the body of a function.

Usage

```
body(fun = sys.function(sys.parent()))
body(fun, envir = environment(fun)) <- value
```

Arguments

fun	a function object, or see 'Details'.
envir	environment in which the function should be defined.
value	an object, usually a language object : see section 'Value'.

Details

For the first form, fun can be a character string naming the function to be manipulated, which is searched for from the parent frame. If it is not specified, the function calling body is used.

The bodies of all but the simplest are braced expressions, that is calls to `{`: see the 'Examples' section for how to create such a call.

Value

body returns the body of the function specified. This is normally a [language object](#), most often a call to `{`, but it can also be an object (e.g., `pi`) to be the return value of the function.

The replacement form sets the body of a function to the object on the right hand side, and (potentially) resets the environment of the function. If value is of class "[expression](#)" the first element is used as the body: any additional elements are ignored, with a warning.

See Also

[alist](#), [args](#), [function](#).

Examples

```
body(body)
f <- function(x) x^5
body(f) <- quote(5^x)
## or equivalently body(f) <- expression(5^x)
f(3) # = 125
body(f)

## creating a multi-expression body
e <- expression(y <- x^2, return(y)) # or a list
body(f) <- as.call(c(as.name("{"), e))
f
f(8)
```

bquote

Partial substitution in expressions

Description

An analogue of the LISP backquote macro. `bquote` quotes its argument except that terms wrapped in `.()` are evaluated in the specified where environment.

Usage

```
bquote(expr, where = parent.frame())
```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	A language object .
<code>where</code>	An environment.

Value

A [language object](#).

See Also[quote](#), [substitute](#)**Examples**

```
require(graphics)

a <- 2

bquote(a == a)
quote(a == a)

bquote(a == .(a))
substitute(a == A, list(A = a))

plot(1:10, a*(1:10), main = bquote(a == .(a)))

## to set a function default arg
default <- 1
bquote( function(x, y = .(default)) x+y )
```

browser

*Environment Browser***Description**

Interrupt the execution of an expression and allow the inspection of the environment where browser was called from.

Usage

```
browser(text = "", condition = NULL, expr = TRUE, skipCalls = 0L)
```

Arguments

text	a text string that can be retrieved once the browser is invoked.
condition	a condition that can be retrieved once the browser is invoked.
expr	An expression, which if it evaluates to TRUE the debugger will invoked, otherwise control is returned directly.
skipCalls	how many previous calls to skip when reporting the calling context.

Details

A call to browser can be included in the body of a function. When reached, this causes a pause in the execution of the current expression and allows access to the R interpreter.

The purpose of the text and condition arguments are to allow helper programs (e.g., external debuggers) to insert specific values here, so that the specific call to browser (perhaps its location in

a source file) can be identified and special processing can be achieved. The values can be retrieved by calling `browserText` and `browserCondition`.

The purpose of the `expr` argument is to allow for the illusion of conditional debugging. It is an illusion, because execution is always paused at the call to `browser`, but control is only passed to the evaluator described below if `expr` evaluates to `TRUE`. In most cases it is going to be more efficient to use an `if` statement in the calling program, but in some cases using this argument will be simpler.

The `skipCalls` argument should be used when the `browser()` call is nested within another debugging function: it will look further up the call stack to report its location.

At the browser prompt the user can enter commands or R expressions, followed by a newline. The commands are

`c` exit the browser and continue execution at the next statement.

`cont` synonym for `c`.

`f` finish execution of the current loop or function

`help` print this list of commands

`n` evaluate the next statement, stepping over function calls. For byte compiled functions interrupted by browser calls, `n` is equivalent to `c`.

`s` evaluate the next statement, stepping into function calls. Again, byte compiled functions make `s` equivalent to `c`.

`where` print a stack trace of all active function calls.

`Q` exit the browser and the current evaluation and return to the top-level prompt.

Leading and trailing whitespace is ignored, except for an empty line. Handling of empty lines depends on the "browserNLdisabled" option; if it is `TRUE`, empty lines are ignored. If not, an empty line is the same as `n` (or `s`, if it was used most recently).

Anything else entered at the browser prompt is interpreted as an R expression to be evaluated in the calling environment: in particular typing an object name will cause the object to be printed, and `ls()` lists the objects in the calling frame. (If you want to look at an object with a name such as `n`, print it explicitly.)

The number of lines printed for the deparsed call can be limited by setting `options(deparse.max.lines)`.

The browser prompt is of the form `Browse[n]>`: here `var{n}` indicates the 'browser level'. The browser can be called when browsing (and often is when `debug` is in use), and each recursive call increases the number. (The actual number is the number of 'contexts' on the context stack: this is usually 2 for the outer level of browsing and 1 when examining dumps in `debugger`.)

This is a primitive function but does argument matching in the standard way.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

See Also

[debug](#), and [traceback](#) for the stack on error. [browserText](#) for how to retrieve the text and condition.

browserText

Functions to Retrieve Values Supplied by Calls to the Browser

Description

A call to browser can provide context by supplying either a text argument or a condition argument. These functions can be used to retrieve either of these arguments.

Usage

```
browserText(n = 1)
browserCondition(n = 1)
browserSetDebug(n = 1)
```

Arguments

`n` The number of contexts to skip over, it must be non-negative.

Details

Each call to browser can supply either a text string or a condition. The functions `browserText` and `browserCondition` provide ways to retrieve those values. Since there can be multiple browser contexts active at any time we also support retrieving values from the different contexts. The innermost (most recently initiated) browser context is numbered 1; other contexts are numbered sequentially.

`browserSetDebug` provides a mechanism for initiating the browser in one of the calling functions. See [sys.frame](#) for a more complete discussion of the calling stack. To use `browserSetDebug` you select some calling function, determine how far back it is in the call stack and call `browserSetDebug` with `n` set to that value. Then, by typing `c` at the browser prompt you will cause evaluation to continue, and provided there are no intervening calls to browser or other interrupts, control will halt again once evaluation has returned to the closure specified. This is similar to the up functionality in gdb or the "step out" functionality in other debuggers.

Value

`browserText` returns the text, while `browserCondition` returns the condition from the specified browser context.

`browserSetDebug` returns NULL, invisibly.

Note

It may be of interest to allow for querying further up the set of browser contexts and this functionality may be added at a later date.

Author(s)

R. Gentleman

See Also

[browser](#)

`builtins`

Returns the Names of All Built-in Objects

Description

Return the names of all the built-in objects. These are fetched directly from the symbol table of the R interpreter.

Usage

```
builtins(internal = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`internal` a logical indicating whether only ‘internal’ functions (which can be called via [.Internal](#)) should be returned.

Details

`builtins()` returns an unsorted list of the objects in the symbol table, that is all the objects in the base environment. These are the built-in objects plus any that have been added subsequently when the base package was loaded. It is less confusing to use `ls(baseenv(), all = TRUE)`.

`builtins(TRUE)` returns an unsorted list of the names of internal functions, that is those which can be accessed as `.Internal(foo(args ...))` for `foo` in the list.

Value

A character vector.

Description

Function `by` is an object-oriented wrapper for [tapply](#) applied to data frames.

Usage

```
by(data, INDICES, FUN, ..., simplify = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>data</code>	an R object, normally a data frame, possibly a matrix.
<code>INDICES</code>	a factor or a list of factors, each of length <code>nrow(data)</code> .
<code>FUN</code>	a function to be applied to (usually data-frame) subsets of data.
<code>...</code>	further arguments to <code>FUN</code> .
<code>simplify</code>	logical: see tapply .

Details

A data frame is split by row into data frames subsetting by the values of one or more factors, and function `FUN` is applied to each subset in turn.

For the default method, an object with dimensions (e.g., a matrix) is coerced to a data frame and the data frame method applied. Other objects are also coerced to a data frame, but `FUN` is applied separately to (subsets of) each column of the data frame.

Value

An object of class `"by"`, giving the results for each subset. This is always a list if `simplify` is false, otherwise a list or array (see [tapply](#)).

See Also

[tapply](#), [simplify2array](#). [ave](#) also applies a function block-wise.

Examples

```
require(stats)
by(warpbreaks[, 1:2], warpbreaks[, "tension"], summary)
by(warpbreaks[, 1], warpbreaks[, -1], summary)
by(warpbreaks, warpbreaks[, "tension"],
   function(x) lm(breaks ~ wool, data = x))

## now suppose we want to extract the coefficients by group
tmp <- with(warpbreaks,
            by(warpbreaks, tension,
```

```

      function(x) lm(breaks ~ wool, data = x)))
sapply(tmp, coef)

```

c

Combine Values into a Vector or List

Description

This is a generic function which combines its arguments.

The default method combines its arguments to form a vector. All arguments are coerced to a common type which is the type of the returned value, and all attributes except names are removed.

Usage

```
c(..., recursive = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	objects to be concatenated.
<code>recursive</code>	logical. If <code>recursive = TRUE</code> , the function recursively descends through lists (and pairlists) combining all their elements into a vector.

Details

The output type is determined from the highest type of the components in the hierarchy `NULL < raw < logical < integer < double < complex < character < list < expression`. Pairlists are treated as lists, but non-vector components (such names and calls) are treated as one-element lists which cannot be unlisted even if `recursive = TRUE`.

`c` is sometimes used for its side effect of removing attributes except names, for example to turn an array into a vector. `as.vector` is a more intuitive way to do this, but also drops names. Note too that methods other than the default are not required to do this (and they will almost certainly preserve a class attribute).

This is a [primitive](#) function.

Value

NULL or an expression or a vector of an appropriate mode. (With no arguments the value is NULL.)

S4 methods

This function is S4 generic, but with argument list `(x, ..., recursive = FALSE)`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[unlist](#) and [as.vector](#) to produce attribute-free vectors.

Examples

```
c(1,7:9)
c(1:5, 10.5, "next")

## uses with a single argument to drop attributes
x <- 1:4
names(x) <- letters[1:4]
x
c(x)          # has names
as.vector(x)  # no names
dim(x) <- c(2,2)
x
c(x)
as.vector(x)

## append to a list:
ll <- list(A = 1, c = "C")
## do not use
c(ll, d = 1:3) # which is == c(ll, as.list(c(d = 1:3)))
## but rather
c(ll, d = list(1:3)) # c() combining two lists

c(list(A = c(B = 1)), recursive = TRUE)

c(options(), recursive = TRUE)
c(list(A = c(B = 1, C = 2), B = c(E = 7)), recursive = TRUE)
```

call

Function Calls

Description

Create or test for objects of mode "call".

Usage

```
call(name, ...)
is.call(x)
as.call(x)
```

Arguments

name	a non-empty character string naming the function to be called.
...	arguments to be part of the call.
x	an arbitrary R object.

Details

`call` returns an unevaluated function call, that is, an unevaluated expression which consists of the named function applied to the given arguments (name must be a quoted string which gives the name of a function to be called). Note that although the call is unevaluated, the arguments ... are evaluated.

`call` is a primitive, so the first argument is taken as name and the remaining arguments as arguments for the constructed call: if the first argument is named the name must partially match name.

`is.call` is used to determine whether `x` is a call (i.e., of mode "call").

Objects of mode "list" can be coerced to mode "call". The first element of the list becomes the function part of the call, so should be a function or the name of one (as a symbol; a quoted string will not do).

All three are [primitive](#) functions.

Warning

`call` should not be used to attempt to evade restrictions on the use of `.` Internal and other non-API calls.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[do.call](#) for calling a function by name and argument list; [Recall](#) for recursive calling of functions; further [is.language](#), [expression](#), [function](#).

Examples

```
is.call(call) #-> FALSE: Functions are NOT calls

## set up a function call to round with argument 10.5
cl <- call("round", 10.5)
is.call(cl) # TRUE
cl
## such a call can also be evaluated.
eval(cl) # [1] 10

A <- 10.5
call("round", A)          # round(10.5)
call("round", quote(A))  # round(A)
f <- "round"
call(f, quote(A))        # round(A)
## if we want to supply a function we need to use as.call or similar
f <- round
## Not run: call(f, quote(A)) # error: first arg must be character
(g <- as.call(list(f, quote(A))))
eval(g)
```

```
## alternatively but less transparently
g <- list(f, quote(A))
mode(g) <- "call"
g
eval(g)
## see also the examples in the help for do.call
```

`callCC`*Call With Current Continuation*

Description

A downward-only version of Scheme's call with current continuation.

Usage

```
callCC(fun)
```

Arguments

`fun` function of one argument, the exit procedure.

Details

`callCC` provides a non-local exit mechanism that can be useful for early termination of a computation. `callCC` calls `fun` with one argument, an *exit function*. The exit function takes a single argument, the intended return value. If the body of `fun` calls the exit function then the call to `callCC` immediately returns, with the value supplied to the exit function as the value returned by `callCC`.

Author(s)

Luke Tierney

Examples

```
# The following all return the value 1
callCC(function(k) 1)
callCC(function(k) k(1))
callCC(function(k) {k(1); 2})
callCC(function(k) repeat k(1))
```

Description

Functions to pass R objects to compiled C/C++ code that has been loaded into R.

Usage

```
.Call(.NAME, ..., PACKAGE)
.External(.NAME, ..., PACKAGE)
```

Arguments

<code>.NAME</code>	a character string giving the name of a C function, or an object of class <code>"NativeSymbolInfo"</code> , <code>"RegisteredNativeSymbol"</code> or <code>"NativeSymbol"</code> referring to such a name.
<code>...</code>	arguments to be passed to the compiled code. Up to 65 for <code>.Call</code> .
<code>PACKAGE</code>	if supplied, confine the search for a character string <code>.NAME</code> to the DLL given by this argument (plus the conventional extension, <code>‘.so’</code> , <code>‘.dll’</code> , ...). This argument follows <code>...</code> and so its name cannot be abbreviated. This is intended to add safety for packages, which can ensure by using this argument that no other package can override their external symbols, and also speeds up the search (see ‘Note’).

Details

The functions are used to call compiled code which makes use of internal R objects, passing the arguments to the code as a sequence of R objects. They assume C calling conventions, so can usually also be used of C++ code.

For details about how to write code to use with these functions see the chapter on ‘System and foreign language interfaces’ in the ‘Writing R Extensions’ manual. They differ in the way the arguments are passed to the C code: `.External` allows for a variable number of arguments.

These functions are [primitive](#), and `.NAME` is always matched to the first argument supplied (which should not be named). For clarity, avoid using names in the arguments passed to `...` that match or partially match `.NAME`.

Value

An R object constructed in the compiled code.

Header files for external code

Writing code for use with these functions will need to use internal R structures defined in `‘Rinternals.h’` and/or the macros in `‘Rdefines.h’`.

Note

If one of these functions is to be used frequently, do specify `PACKAGE` (to confine the search to a single DLL) or pass `.NAME` as one of the native symbol objects. Searching for symbols can take a long time, especially when many namespaces are loaded.

You may see `PACKAGE = "base"` for symbols linked into R. Do not use this in your own code: such symbols are not part of the API and may be changed without warning.

`PACKAGE = ""` used to be accepted (but was undocumented): it is now an error.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer. (.Call.)

See Also

[dyn.load](#), [.C](#), [.Fortran](#).

The ‘Writing R Extensions’ manual.

capabilities

Report Capabilities of this Build of R

Description

Report on the optional features which have been compiled into this build of R.

Usage

```
capabilities(what = NULL)
```

Arguments

what	character vector or NULL, specifying required components. NULL implies that all are required.
------	---

Value

A named logical vector. Current components are

jpeg	is the jpeg function operational?
png	is the png function operational?
tiff	is the tiff function operational?
tcltk	is the tcltk package operational? Note that to make use of Tk you will almost always need to check that "X11" is also available.
X11	are the X11 graphics device and the X11-based data editor available? This loads the X11 module if not already loaded, and checks that the default display can be contacted unless a X11 device has already been used.

aqua	is the quartz function operational? Only on some OS X builds, including CRAN binary distributions of R. Note that this is distinct from <code>.Platform\$GUI == "AQUA"</code> , which is true only when using the Mac R.app GUI console.
http/ftp	does the internal method for url and download.file support 'http://' and 'ftp://' URLs?
sockets	are make.socket and related functions available?
libxml	is there support for integrating libxml with the R event loop?
fifo	are FIFO connections supported?
cledit	is command-line editing available in the current R session? This is false in non-interactive sessions. It will be true for the command-line interface if <code>readline</code> support has been compiled in and ' <code>--no-readline</code> ' was <i>not</i> used when R was invoked. (If ' <code>--interactive</code> ' was used, command-line editing will not actually be available.)
iconv	is internationalization conversion via iconv supported? Always true in current R.
NLS	is there Natural Language Support (for message translations)?
profmem	is there support for memory profiling? See tracemem .
cairo	is there support for the svg , cairo_pdf and cairo_ps devices, and for <code>type = "cairo"</code> in the X11 , bmp , jpeg , png , and tiff devices?
ICU	is ICU available for collation? See the help on Comparison and icuSetCollate : it is never used for a C locale.
long.double	does this build use a C long double type which is longer than double? Some platforms do not have such a type, and on others its use can be suppressed by the configure option ' <code>--disable-long-double</code> '. Although not guaranteed, it is a reasonable assumption that if present long doubles will have at least as much range and accuracy as the ISO/IEC 60559 80-bit 'extended precision' format.
libcurl	is libcurl available in this build? Used by function curlGetHeaders and optionally by download.file and url .

Note to OS X users

Capabilities "jpeg", "png" and "tiff" refer to the X11-based versions of these devices. If `capabilities("aqua")` is true, then these devices with `type = "quartz"` will be available, and out-of-the-box will be the default type. Thus for example the [tiff](#) device will be available if `capabilities("aqua") || capabilities("tiff")` if the defaults are unchanged.

See Also

[.Platform](#) and [extSoftVersion](#) (and links there) for availability capabilities *external* to R but used from R functions.

Examples

```
capabilities()

if(!capabilities("http/ftp"))
  warning("internal download.file() method is not available")

## See also the examples for 'connections'.
```

cat

Concatenate and Print

Description

Outputs the objects, concatenating the representations. `cat` performs much less conversion than [print](#).

Usage

```
cat(... , file = "", sep = " ", fill = FALSE, labels = NULL,
    append = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	R objects (see ‘Details’ for the types of objects allowed).
<code>file</code>	A connection , or a character string naming the file to print to. If "" (the default), <code>cat</code> prints to the standard output connection, the console unless redirected by sink . If it is " cmd", the output is piped to the command given by ‘cmd’, by opening a pipe connection.
<code>sep</code>	a character vector of strings to append after each element.
<code>fill</code>	a logical or (positive) numeric controlling how the output is broken into successive lines. If FALSE (default), only newlines created explicitly by “\n” are printed. Otherwise, the output is broken into lines with print width equal to the option width if <code>fill</code> is TRUE, or the value of <code>fill</code> if this is numeric. Non-positive <code>fill</code> values are ignored, with a warning.
<code>labels</code>	character vector of labels for the lines printed. Ignored if <code>fill</code> is FALSE.
<code>append</code>	logical. Only used if the argument <code>file</code> is the name of file (and not a connection or " cmd"). If TRUE output will be appended to <code>file</code> ; otherwise, it will overwrite the contents of <code>file</code> .

Details

`cat` is useful for producing output in user-defined functions. It converts its arguments to character vectors, concatenates them to a single character vector, appends the given `sep = string(s)` to each element and then outputs them.

No linefeeds are output unless explicitly requested by “\n” or if generated by filling (if argument `fill` is TRUE or numeric).

If file is a connection and open for writing it is written from its current position. If it is not open, it is opened for the duration of the call in "wt" mode and then closed again.

Currently only `atomic` vectors and `names` are handled, together with `NULL` and other zero-length objects (which produce no output). Character strings are output 'as is' (unlike `print.default` which escapes non-printable characters and backslash — use `encodeString` if you want to output encoded strings using `cat`). Other types of R object should be converted (e.g., by `as.character` or `format`) before being passed to `cat`. That includes factors, which are output as integer vectors.

`cat` converts numeric/complex elements in the same way as `print` (and not in the same way as `as.character` which is used by the S equivalent), so `options` "digits" and "scipen" are relevant. However, it uses the minimum field width necessary for each element, rather than the same field width for all elements.

Value

None (invisible `NULL`).

Note

If any element of `sep` contains a newline character, it is treated as a vector of terminators rather than separators, an element being output after every vector element *and* a newline after the last. Entries are recycled as needed.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`print`, `format`, and `paste` which concatenates into a string.

Examples

```
iter <- stats::rpois(1, lambda = 10)
## print an informative message
cat("iteration = ", iter <- iter + 1, "\n")

## 'fill' and label lines:
cat(paste0("iteration = ", 1:10, "\n"))
```

cbind

Combine R Objects by Rows or Columns

Description

Take a sequence of vector, matrix or data-frame arguments and combine by columns or rows, respectively. These are generic functions with methods for other R classes.

Usage

```
cbind(..., deparse.level = 1)
rbind(..., deparse.level = 1)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
rbind(..., deparse.level = 1, make.row.names = TRUE,
       stringsAsFactors = default.stringsAsFactors())
```

Arguments

`...` (generalized) vectors or matrices. These can be given as named arguments. Other R objects may be coerced as appropriate, or S4 methods may be used: see sections ‘Details’ and ‘Value’. (For the “data.frame” method of `cbind` these can be further arguments to `data.frame` such as `stringsAsFactors`.)

`deparse.level` integer controlling the construction of labels in the case of non-matrix-like arguments (for the default method):
`deparse.level = 0` constructs no labels; the default,
`deparse.level = 1` or `2` constructs labels from the argument names, see the ‘Value’ section below.

`make.row.names` (only for data frame method:) logical indicating if unique and valid `row.names` should be constructed from the arguments.

`stringsAsFactors`
 logical, passed to `as.data.frame`; only has an effect when the `...` arguments contain a (non-data.frame) `character`.

Details

The functions `cbind` and `rbind` are S3 generic, with methods for data frames. The data frame method will be used if at least one argument is a data frame and the rest are vectors or matrices. There can be other methods; in particular, there is one for time series objects. See the section on ‘Dispatch’ for how the method to be used is selected. If some of the arguments are of an S4 class, i.e., `isS4(.)` is true, S4 methods are sought also, and the hidden `cbind` / `rbind` functions from package **methods** maybe called, which in turn build on `cbind2` or `rbind2`, respectively. In that case, `deparse.level` is obeyed, similarly to the default method.

In the default method, all the vectors/matrices must be atomic (see `vector`) or lists. Expressions are not allowed. Language objects (such as formulae and calls) and pairlists will be coerced to lists: other objects (such as names and external pointers) will be included as elements in a list result. Any classes the inputs might have are discarded (in particular, factors are replaced by their internal codes).

If there are several matrix arguments, they must all have the same number of columns (or rows) and this will be the number of columns (or rows) of the result. If all the arguments are vectors, the number of columns (rows) in the result is equal to the length of the longest vector. Values in shorter arguments are recycled to achieve this length (with a `warning` if they are recycled only *fractionally*).

When the arguments consist of a mix of matrices and vectors the number of columns (rows) of the result is determined by the number of columns (rows) of the matrix arguments. Any vectors have their values recycled or subsetting to achieve this length.

For `cbind` (`rbind`), vectors of zero length (including `NULL`) are ignored unless the result would have zero rows (columns), for S compatibility. (Zero-extent matrices do not occur in S3 and are not ignored in R.)

Matrices are restricted to less than 2^{31} rows and columns even on 64-bit systems. So input vectors have the same length restriction: as from R 3.2.0 input matrices with more elements (but meeting the row and column restrictions) are allowed.

Value

For the default method, a matrix combining the ... arguments column-wise or row-wise. (Exception: if there are no inputs or all the inputs are `NULL`, the value is `NULL`.)

The type of a matrix result determined from the highest type of any of the inputs in the hierarchy `raw < logical < integer < double < complex < character < list`.

For `cbind` (`rbind`) the column (row) names are taken from the `colnames` (`rownames`) of the arguments if these are matrix-like. Otherwise from the names of the arguments or where those are not supplied and `deparse.level > 0`, by deparsing the expressions given, for `deparse.level = 1` only if that gives a sensible name (a ‘symbol’, see [is.symbol](#)).

For `cbind` row names are taken from the first argument with appropriate names: `rownames` for a matrix, or names for a vector of length the number of rows of the result.

For `rbind` column names are taken from the first argument with appropriate names: `colnames` for a matrix, or names for a vector of length the number of columns of the result.

Data frame methods

The `cbind` data frame method is just a wrapper for `data.frame(..., check.names = FALSE)`. This means that it will split matrix columns in data frame arguments, and convert character columns to factors unless `stringsAsFactors = FALSE` is specified.

The `rbind` data frame method first drops all zero-column and zero-row arguments. (If that leaves none, it returns the first argument with columns otherwise a zero-column zero-row data frame.) It then takes the classes of the columns from the first data frame, and matches columns by name (rather than by position). Factors have their levels expanded as necessary (in the order of the levels of the levelsets of the factors encountered) and the result is an ordered factor if and only if all the components were ordered factors. (The last point differs from S-PLUS.) Old-style categories (integer vectors with levels) are promoted to factors.

Dispatch

The method dispatching is *not* done via `UseMethod()`, but by C-internal dispatching. Therefore there is no need for, e.g., `rbind.default`.

The dispatch algorithm is described in the source file (`‘.../src/main/bind.c’`) as

1. For each argument we get the list of possible class memberships from the class attribute.
2. We inspect each class in turn to see if there is an applicable method.
3. If we find an applicable method we make sure that it is identical to any method determined for prior arguments. If it is identical, we proceed, otherwise we immediately drop through to the default code.

If you want to combine other objects with data frames, it may be necessary to coerce them to data frames first. (Note that this algorithm can result in calling the data frame method if all the arguments are either data frames or vectors, and this will result in the coercion of character vectors to factors.)

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[c](#) to combine vectors (and lists) as vectors, [data.frame](#) to combine vectors and matrices as a data frame.

Examples

```
m <- cbind(1, 1:7) # the '1' (= shorter vector) is recycled
m
m <- cbind(m, 8:14)[, c(1, 3, 2)] # insert a column
m
cbind(1:7, diag(3)) # vector is subset -> warning

cbind(0, rbind(1, 1:3))
cbind(I = 0, X = rbind(a = 1, b = 1:3)) # use some names
xx <- data.frame(I = rep(0,2))
cbind(xx, X = rbind(a = 1, b = 1:3)) # named differently

cbind(0, matrix(1, nrow = 0, ncol = 4)) #> Warning (making sense)
dim(cbind(0, matrix(1, nrow = 2, ncol = 0))) #> 2 x 1

## deparse.level
dd <- 10
rbind(1:4, c = 2, "a++" = 10, dd, deparse.level = 0) # middle 2 rownames
rbind(1:4, c = 2, "a++" = 10, dd, deparse.level = 1) # 3 rownames (default)
rbind(1:4, c = 2, "a++" = 10, dd, deparse.level = 2) # 4 rownames

## cheap row names:
b0 <- gl(3,4, labels=letters[1:3])
bf <- setNames(b0, paste0("o", seq_along(b0)))
df <- data.frame(a = 1, B = b0, f = gl(4,3))
df. <- data.frame(a = 1, B = bf, f = gl(4,3))
new <- data.frame(a = 8, B = "B", f = "1")
(df1 <- rbind(df, new))
(df.1 <- rbind(df., new))
stopifnot(identical(df1, rbind(df, new, make.row.names=FALSE)),
           identical(df.1, rbind(df., new, make.row.names=FALSE)))
```

char.expand

Expand a String with Respect to a Target Table

Description

Seeks a unique match of its first argument among the elements of its second. If successful, it returns this element; otherwise, it performs an action specified by the third argument.

Usage

```
char.expand(input, target, nomatch = stop("no match"))
```

Arguments

input	a character string to be expanded.
target	a character vector with the values to be matched against.
nomatch	an R expression to be evaluated in case expansion was not possible.

Details

This function is particularly useful when abbreviations are allowed in function arguments, and need to be uniquely expanded with respect to a target table of possible values.

Value

A length-one character vector, one of the elements of `target` (unless `nomatch` is changed to be a non-error, when it can be a zero-length character string).

See Also

[charmatch](#) and [pmatch](#) for performing partial string matching.

Examples

```
locPars <- c("mean", "median", "mode")
char.expand("me", locPars, warning("Could not expand!"))
char.expand("mo", locPars)
```

character

Character Vectors

Description

Create or test for objects of type "character".

Usage

```
character(length = 0)
as.character(x, ...)
is.character(x)
```

Arguments

length	A non-negative integer specifying the desired length. Double values will be coerced to integer: supplying an argument of length other than one is an error.
x	object to be coerced or tested.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

`as.character` and `is.character` are generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#). Further, for `as.character` the default method calls `as.vector`, so dispatch is first on methods for `as.character` and then for methods for `as.vector`.

`as.character` represents real and complex numbers to 15 significant digits (technically the compiler's setting of the ISO C constant `DBL_DIG`, which will be 15 on machines supporting IEC60559 arithmetic according to the C99 standard). This ensures that all the digits in the result will be reliable (and not the result of representation error), but does mean that conversion to character and back to numeric may change the number. If you want to convert numbers to character with the maximum possible precision, use `format`.

Value

`character` creates a character vector of the specified length. The elements of the vector are all equal to "".

`as.character` attempts to coerce its argument to character type; like `as.vector` it strips attributes including names. For lists and pairlists (including [language objects](#) such as calls) it deparses the elements individually, except that it extracts the first element of length-one character vectors.

`is.character` returns TRUE or FALSE depending on whether its argument is of character type or not.

Note

`as.character` breaks lines in language objects at 500 characters, and inserts newlines. Prior to 2.15.0 lines were truncated.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[options](#): option `scipen` affects the conversion of numbers.

[paste](#), [substr](#) and [strsplit](#) for character concatenation and splitting, [chartr](#) for character translation and casefolding (e.g., upper to lower case) and [sub](#), [grep](#) etc for string matching and substitutions. Note that `help.search(keyword = "character")` gives even more links.

[deparse](#), which is normally preferable to `as.character` for [language objects](#).

Examples

```
form <- y ~ a + b + c
as.character(form) ## length 3
deparse(form)      ## like the input

a0 <- 11/999          # has a repeating decimal representation
(a1 <- as.character(a0))
format(a0, digits = 16) # shows one more digit
a2 <- as.numeric(a1)
a2 - a0                # normally around -1e-17
as.character(a2)       # normally different from a1
print(c(a0, a2), digits = 16)
```

charmatch

Partial String Matching

Description

`charmatch` seeks matches for the elements of its first argument among those of its second.

Usage

```
charmatch(x, table, nomatch = NA_integer_)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	the values to be matched: converted to a character vector by as.character . Long vectors are supported.
<code>table</code>	the values to be matched against: converted to a character vector. Long vectors are not supported.
<code>nomatch</code>	the (integer) value to be returned at non-matching positions.

Details

Exact matches are preferred to partial matches (those where the value to be matched has an exact match to the initial part of the target, but the target is longer).

If there is a single exact match or no exact match and a unique partial match then the index of the matching value is returned; if multiple exact or multiple partial matches are found then \emptyset is returned and if no match is found then `nomatch` is returned.

NA values are treated as the string constant "NA".

Value

An integer vector of the same length as `x`, giving the indices of the elements in `table` which matched, or `nomatch`.

Author(s)

This function is based on a C function written by Terry Therneau.

See Also

[pmatch](#), [match](#).

[grep](#) or [regexpr](#) for more general (regexp) matching of strings.

Examples

```
charmatch("", "") # returns 1
charmatch("m", c("mean", "median", "mode")) # returns 0
charmatch("med", c("mean", "median", "mode")) # returns 2
```

chartr

Character Translation and Casefolding

Description

Translate characters in character vectors, in particular from upper to lower case or vice versa.

Usage

```
chartr(old, new, x)
tolower(x)
toupper(x)
casefold(x, upper = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	a character vector, or an object that can be coerced to character by as.character .
old	a character string specifying the characters to be translated. If a character vector of length 2 or more is supplied, the first element is used with a warning.
new	a character string specifying the translations. If a character vector of length 2 or more is supplied, the first element is used with a warning.
upper	logical: translate to upper or lower case?.

Details

chartr translates each character in x that is specified in old to the corresponding character specified in new. Ranges are supported in the specifications, but character classes and repeated characters are not. If old contains more characters than new, an error is signaled; if it contains fewer characters, the extra characters at the end of new are ignored.

tolower and toupper convert upper-case characters in a character vector to lower-case, or vice versa. Non-alphabetic characters are left unchanged.

casefold is a wrapper for tolower and toupper provided for compatibility with S-PLUS.

Value

A character vector of the same length and with the same attributes as x (after possible coercion).

Elements of the result will have the encoding declared as that of the current locale (see [Encoding](#) if the corresponding input had a declared encoding and the current locale is either Latin-1 or UTF-8. The result will be in the current locale's encoding unless the corresponding input was in UTF-8, when it will be in UTF-8 when the system has Unicode wide characters.

See Also

[sub](#) and [gsub](#) for other substitutions in strings.

Examples

```
x <- "MiXeD cAsE 123"
chartr("iXs", "why", x)
chartr("a-cX", "D-Fw", x)
tolower(x)
toupper(x)

## "Mixed Case" Capitalizing - toupper( every first letter of a word ) :

.simpleCap <- function(x) {
  s <- strsplit(x, " ")[[1]]
  paste(toupper(substring(s, 1, 1)), substring(s, 2),
        sep = "", collapse = " ")
}
.simpleCap("the quick red fox jumps over the lazy brown dog")
## -> [1] "The Quick Red Fox Jumps Over The Lazy Brown Dog"
```

```
## and the better, more sophisticated version:
capwords <- function(s, strict = FALSE) {
  cap <- function(s) paste(toupper(substring(s, 1, 1)),
    {s <- substring(s, 2); if(strict) tolower(s) else s},
    sep = "", collapse = " " )
  sapply(strsplit(s, split = " "), cap, USE.NAMES = !is.null(names(s)))
}
capwords(c("using AIC for model selection"))
## -> [1] "Using AIC For Model Selection"
capwords(c("using AIC", "for MODEL selection"), strict = TRUE)
## -> [1] "Using Aic" "For Model Selection"
##           ^^^           ^^^^^
##           'bad'         'good'

## -- Very simple insecure crypto --
rot <- function(ch, k = 13) {
  p0 <- function(...) paste(c(...), collapse = "")
  A <- c(letters, LETTERS, " ")
  I <- seq_len(k); chartr(p0(A), p0(c(A[-I], A[I])), ch)
}

pw <- "my secret pass phrase"
(cryp <- rot(pw, 13)) #-> you can send this off

## now ``decrypt`` :
rot(cryp, 54 - 13) # -> the original:
stopifnot(identical(pw, rot(cryp, 54 - 13)))
```

chol

The Choleski Decomposition

Description

Compute the Choleski factorization of a real symmetric positive-definite square matrix.

Usage

```
chol(x, ...)
```

```
## Default S3 method:
```

```
chol(x, pivot = FALSE, LINPACK = FALSE, tol = -1, ...)
```

Arguments

x	an object for which a method exists. The default method applies to numeric (or logical) symmetric, positive-definite matrices.
...	arguments to be based to or from methods.
pivot	Should pivoting be used?

LINPACK logical. Should LINPACK be used (now ignored)?
 tol A numeric tolerance for use with pivot = TRUE.

Details

chol is generic: the description here applies to the default method.

Note that only the upper triangular part of x is used, so that $R'R = x$ when x is symmetric.

If pivot = FALSE and x is not non-negative definite an error occurs. If x is positive semi-definite (i.e., some zero eigenvalues) an error will also occur as a numerical tolerance is used.

If pivot = TRUE, then the Choleski decomposition of a positive semi-definite x can be computed. The rank of x is returned as attr(Q, "rank"), subject to numerical errors. The pivot is returned as attr(Q, "pivot"). It is no longer the case that $t(Q) \%*\% Q$ equals x . However, setting `pivot <- attr(Q, "pivot")` and `oo <- order(pivot)`, it is true that $t(Q[, oo]) \%*\% Q[, oo]$ equals x , or, alternatively, $t(Q) \%*\% Q$ equals $x[pivot, pivot]$. See the examples.

The value of tol is passed to LAPACK, with negative values selecting the default tolerance of (usually) $nrow(x) * .Machine$double.neg.eps * \max(\text{diag}(x))$. The algorithm terminates once the pivot is less than tol.

Unsuccessful results from the underlying LAPACK code will result in an error giving a positive error code: these can only be interpreted by detailed study of the FORTRAN code.

Value

The upper triangular factor of the Choleski decomposition, i.e., the matrix R such that $R'R = x$ (see example).

If pivoting is used, then two additional attributes "pivot" and "rank" are also returned.

Warning

The code does not check for symmetry.

If pivot = TRUE and x is not non-negative definite then there will be a warning message but a meaningless result will occur. So only use pivot = TRUE when x is non-negative definite by construction.

Source

This is an interface to the LAPACK routines DPOTRF and DPSTRF,

LAPACK is from <http://www.netlib.org/lapack> and its guide is listed in the references.

References

Anderson. E. and ten others (1999) *LAPACK Users' Guide*. Third Edition. SIAM.
 Available on-line at http://www.netlib.org/lapack/lug/lapack_lug.html.

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[chol2inv](#) for its *inverse* (without pivoting), [backsolve](#) for solving linear systems with upper triangular left sides.

[qr](#), [svd](#) for related matrix factorizations.

Examples

```
( m <- matrix(c(5,1,1,3),2,2) )
( cm <- chol(m) )
t(cm) %*% cm #-- = 'm'
crossprod(cm) #-- = 'm'

# now for something positive semi-definite
x <- matrix(c(1:5, (1:5)^2), 5, 2)
x <- cbind(x, x[, 1] + 3*x[, 2])
colnames(x) <- letters[20:22]
m <- crossprod(x)
qr(m)$rank # is 2, as it should be

# chol() may fail, depending on numerical rounding:
# chol() unlike qr() does not use a tolerance.
try(chol(m))

(Q <- chol(m, pivot = TRUE))
## we can use this by
pivot <- attr(Q, "pivot")
crossprod(Q[, order(pivot)]) # recover m

## now for a non-positive-definite matrix
( m <- matrix(c(5,-5,-5,3), 2, 2) )
try(chol(m)) # fails
(Q <- chol(m, pivot = TRUE)) # warning
crossprod(Q) # not equal to m
```

chol2inv

*Inverse from Choleski (or QR) Decomposition***Description**

Invert a symmetric, positive definite square matrix from its Choleski decomposition. Equivalently, compute $(X'X)^{-1}$ from the (*R* part) of the QR decomposition of *X*.

Usage

```
chol2inv(x, size = NCOL(x), LINPACK = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a matrix. The first <code>size</code> columns of the upper triangle contain the Choleski decomposition of the matrix to be inverted.
<code>size</code>	the number of columns of <code>x</code> containing the Choleski decomposition.
<code>LINPACK</code>	logical. Defunct and ignored (with a warning for true value).

Value

The inverse of the matrix whose Choleski decomposition was given.

Unsuccessful results from the underlying LAPACK code will result in an error giving a positive error code: these can only be interpreted by detailed study of the FORTRAN code.

Source

This is an interface to the LAPACK routine DPOTRI. LAPACK is from <http://www.netlib.org/lapack> and its guide is listed in the references.

References

Anderson. E. and ten others (1999) *LAPACK Users' Guide*. Third Edition. SIAM. Available on-line at http://www.netlib.org/lapack/lug/lapack_lug.html.

Dongarra, J. J., Bunch, J. R., Moler, C. B. and Stewart, G. W. (1978) *LINPACK Users Guide*. Philadelphia: SIAM Publications.

See Also

[chol](#), [solve](#).

Examples

```
cma <- chol(ma <- cbind(1, 1:3, c(1,3,7)))
ma %%% chol2inv(cma)
```

class

Object Classes

Description

R possesses a simple generic function mechanism which can be used for an object-oriented style of programming. Method dispatch takes place based on the class of the first argument to the generic function.

Usage

```

class(x)
class(x) <- value
unclass(x)
inherits(x, what, which = FALSE)

oldClass(x)
oldClass(x) <- value

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a R object
<code>what</code> , <code>value</code>	a character vector naming classes. <code>value</code> can also be <code>NULL</code> .
<code>which</code>	logical affecting return value: see ‘Details’.

Details

Here, we describe the so called “S3” classes (and methods). For “S4” classes (and methods), see ‘Formal classes’ below.

Many R objects have a class attribute, a character vector giving the names of the classes from which the object *inherits*. If the object does not have a class attribute, it has an implicit class, “matrix”, “array” or the result of `mode(x)` (except that integer vectors have implicit class “integer”). (Functions `oldClass` and `oldClass<-` get and set the attribute, which can also be done directly.)

When a generic function `fun` is applied to an object with class attribute `c("first", "second")`, the system searches for a function called `fun.first` and, if it finds it, applies it to the object. If no such function is found, a function called `fun.second` is tried. If no class name produces a suitable function, the function `fun.default` is used (if it exists). If there is no class attribute, the implicit class is tried, then the default method.

The function `class` prints the vector of names of classes an object inherits from. Correspondingly, `class<-` sets the classes an object inherits from. Assigning `NULL` removes the class attribute.

`unclass` returns (a copy of) its argument with its class attribute removed. (It is not allowed for objects which cannot be copied, namely environments and external pointers.)

`inherits` indicates whether its first argument inherits from any of the classes specified in the `what` argument. If `which` is `TRUE` then an integer vector of the same length as `what` is returned. Each element indicates the position in the `class(x)` matched by the element of `what`; zero indicates no match. If `which` is `FALSE` then `TRUE` is returned by `inherits` if any of the names in `what` match with any class.

All but `inherits` are [primitive](#) functions.

Formal classes

An additional mechanism of *formal* classes, nicknamed “S4”, is available in package **methods** which is attached by default. For objects which have a formal class, its name is returned by `class` as a character vector of length one and method dispatch can happen on *several* arguments, instead of only the first. However, S3 method selection attempts to treat objects from an S4 class as if they

had the appropriate S3 class attribute, as does `inherits`. Therefore, S3 methods can be defined for S4 classes. See the ‘[Classes](#)’ and ‘[Methods](#)’ help pages for details.

The replacement version of the function sets the class to the value provided. For classes that have a formal definition, directly replacing the class this way is strongly deprecated. The expression `as(object, value)` is the way to coerce an object to a particular class.

The analogue of `inherits` for formal classes is `is`. The two functions behave consistently with one exception: S4 classes can have conditional inheritance, with an explicit test. In this case, `is` will test the condition, but `inherits` ignores all conditional superclasses.

Note

Functions `oldClass` and `oldClass<-` behave in the same way as functions of those names in S-PLUS 5/6, *but* in R `UseMethod` dispatches on the class as returned by `class` (with some interpolated classes: see the link) rather than `oldClass`. *However*, `group generics` dispatch on the `oldClass` for efficiency, and `internal generics` only dispatch on objects for which `is.object` is true.

In some versions of R, assigning a zero-length vector with `class` removes the class: in others it is an error (whereas it works for `oldClass`). It is clearer to always assign `NULL` to remove the class.

See Also

[UseMethod](#), [NextMethod](#), ‘[group generic](#)’, ‘[internal generic](#)’

Examples

```
x <- 10
class(x) # "numeric"
oldClass(x) # NULL
inherits(x, "a") #FALSE
class(x) <- c("a", "b")
inherits(x,"a") #TRUE
inherits(x, "a", TRUE) # 1
inherits(x, c("a", "b", "c"), TRUE) # 1 2 0
```

col

Column Indexes

Description

Returns a matrix of integers indicating their column number in a matrix-like object, or a factor of column labels.

Usage

```
col(x, as.factor = FALSE)
```

Arguments

- `x` a matrix-like object, that is one with a two-dimensional dim.
- `as.factor` a logical value indicating whether the value should be returned as a factor of column labels (created if necessary) rather than as numbers.

Value

An integer (or factor) matrix with the same dimensions as `x` and whose `i j`-th element is equal to `j` (or the `j`-th column label).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[row](#) to get rows.

Examples

```
# extract an off-diagonal of a matrix
ma <- matrix(1:12, 3, 4)
ma[row(ma) == col(ma) + 1]

# create an identity 5-by-5 matrix
x <- matrix(0, nrow = 5, ncol = 5)
x[row(x) == col(x)] <- 1
```

Colon	<i>Colon Operator</i>
-------	-----------------------

Description

Generate regular sequences.

Usage

```
from:to
a:b
```

Arguments

- `from` starting value of sequence.
- `to` (maximal) end value of the sequence.
- `a, b` [factors](#) of the same length.

Details

The binary operator `:` has two meanings: for factors `a:b` is equivalent to `interaction(a, b)` (but the levels are ordered and labelled differently).

For other arguments `from:to` is equivalent to `seq(from, to)`, and generates a sequence from `from` to `to` in steps of 1 or -1. Value `to` will be included if it differs from `from` by an integer up to a numeric fuzz of about $1e-7$. Non-numeric arguments are coerced internally (hence without dispatching methods) to numeric—complex values will have their imaginary parts discarded with a warning.

Value

For numeric arguments, a numeric vector. This will be of type `integer` if `from` is integer-valued and the result is representable in the R integer type, otherwise of type `"double"` (aka `mode "numeric"`).

For factors, an unordered factor with levels labelled as `1a:1b` and ordered lexicographically (that is, `1b` varies fastest).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

(for numeric arguments: S does not have `:` for factors.)

See Also

`seq` (a *generalization* of `from:to`).

As an alternative to using `:` for factors, `interaction`.

For `:` used in the formal representation of an interaction, see `formula`.

Examples

```
1:4
pi:6 # real
6:pi # integer

f1 <- gl(2, 3); f1
f2 <- gl(3, 2); f2
f1:f2 # a factor, the "cross" f1 x f2
```

colSums

Form Row and Column Sums and Means

Description

Form row and column sums and means for numeric arrays.

Usage

```
colSums(x, na.rm = FALSE, dims = 1)
rowSums(x, na.rm = FALSE, dims = 1)
colMeans(x, na.rm = FALSE, dims = 1)
rowMeans(x, na.rm = FALSE, dims = 1)

.colSums(X, m, n, na.rm = FALSE)
.rowSums(X, m, n, na.rm = FALSE)
.colMeans(X, m, n, na.rm = FALSE)
.rowMeans(X, m, n, na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an array of two or more dimensions, containing numeric, complex, integer or logical values, or a numeric data frame.
<code>na.rm</code>	logical. Should missing values (including NaN) be omitted from the calculations?
<code>dims</code>	integer: Which dimensions are regarded as ‘rows’ or ‘columns’ to sum over. For <code>row*</code> , the sum or mean is over dimensions <code>dims+1, ...</code> ; for <code>col*</code> it is over dimensions <code>1:dims</code> .
<code>X</code>	a numeric matrix.
<code>m, n</code>	the dimensions of <code>X</code> .

Details

These functions are equivalent to use of [apply](#) with `FUN = mean` or `FUN = sum` with appropriate margins, but are a lot faster. As they are written for speed, they blur over some of the subtleties of NaN and NA. If `na.rm = FALSE` and either NaN or NA appears in a sum, the result will be one of NaN or NA, but which might be platform-dependent.

Notice that omission of missing values is done on a per-column or per-row basis, so column means may not be over the same set of rows, and vice versa. To use only complete rows or columns, first select them with [na.omit](#) or [complete.cases](#) (possibly on the transpose of `x`).

The versions with an initial dot in the name are ‘bare-bones’ versions for use in programming: they apply only to numeric matrices and do not name the result.

Value

A numeric or complex array of suitable size, or a vector if the result is one-dimensional. For the first four functions the `dimnames` (or names for a vector result) are taken from the original array.

If there are no values in a range to be summed over (after removing missing values with `na.rm = TRUE`), that component of the output is set to 0 (`*Sums`) or NaN (`*Means`), consistent with [sum](#) and [mean](#).

See Also

[apply](#), [rowsum](#)

Examples

```
## Compute row and column sums for a matrix:
x <- cbind(x1 = 3, x2 = c(4:1, 2:5))
rowSums(x); colSums(x)
dimnames(x)[[1]] <- letters[1:8]
rowSums(x); colSums(x); rowMeans(x); colMeans(x)
x[] <- as.integer(x)
rowSums(x); colSums(x)
x[] <- x < 3
rowSums(x); colSums(x)
x <- cbind(x1 = 3, x2 = c(4:1, 2:5))
x[3, ] <- NA; x[4, 2] <- NA
rowSums(x); colSums(x); rowMeans(x); colMeans(x)
rowSums(x, na.rm = TRUE); colSums(x, na.rm = TRUE)
rowMeans(x, na.rm = TRUE); colMeans(x, na.rm = TRUE)

## an array
dim(UCBAdmissions)
rowSums(UCBAdmissions); rowSums(UCBAdmissions, dims = 2)
colSums(UCBAdmissions); colSums(UCBAdmissions, dims = 2)

## complex case
x <- cbind(x1 = 3 + 2i, x2 = c(4:1, 2:5) - 5i)
x[3, ] <- NA; x[4, 2] <- NA
rowSums(x); colSums(x); rowMeans(x); colMeans(x)
rowSums(x, na.rm = TRUE); colSums(x, na.rm = TRUE)
rowMeans(x, na.rm = TRUE); colMeans(x, na.rm = TRUE)
```

commandArgs

Extract Command Line Arguments

Description

Provides access to a copy of the command line arguments supplied when this R session was invoked.

Usage

```
commandArgs(trailingOnly = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`trailingOnly` logical. Should only arguments after ‘--args’ be returned?

Details

These arguments are captured before the standard R command line processing takes place. This means that they are the unmodified values. This is especially useful with the ‘--args’ command-line flag to R, as all of the command line after that flag is skipped.

Value

A character vector containing the name of the executable and the user-supplied command line arguments. The first element is the name of the executable by which R was invoked. The exact form of this element is platform dependent: it may be the fully qualified name, or simply the last component (or basename) of the application, or for an embedded R it can be anything the programmer supplied.

If `trailingOnly = TRUE`, a character vector of those arguments (if any) supplied after ‘--args’.

See Also

[Startup BATCH](#)

Examples

```
commandArgs()
## Spawn a copy of this application as it was invoked,
## subject to shell quoting issues
## system(paste(commandArgs(), collapse = " "))
```

comment

Query or Set a "comment" Attribute

Description

These functions set and query a *comment* attribute for any R objects. This is typically useful for [data.frames](#) or model fits.

Contrary to other [attributes](#), the comment is not printed (by [print](#) or [print.default](#)).

Assigning NULL or a zero-length character vector removes the comment.

Usage

```
comment(x)
comment(x) <- value
```

Arguments

x	any R object
value	a character vector, or NULL.

See Also

[attributes](#) and [attr](#) for other attributes.

Examples

```
x <- matrix(1:12, 3, 4)
comment(x) <- c("This is my very important data from experiment #0234",
               "Jun 5, 1998")

x
comment(x)
```

Comparison

Relational Operators

Description

Binary operators which allow the comparison of values in atomic vectors.

Usage

```
x < y
x > y
x <= y
x >= y
x == y
x != y
```

Arguments

x, y	atomic vectors, symbols, calls, or other objects for which methods have been written.
------	---

Details

The binary comparison operators are generic functions: methods can be written for them individually or via the [Ops](#) group generic function. (See [Ops](#) for how dispatch is computed.)

Comparison of strings in character vectors is lexicographic within the strings using the collating sequence of the locale in use: see [locales](#). The collating sequence of locales such as ‘en_US’ is normally different from ‘C’ (which should use ASCII) and can be surprising. Beware of making *any* assumptions about the collation order: e.g. in Estonian Z comes between S and T, and collation is not necessarily character-by-character – in Danish aa sorts as a single letter, after z. In Welsh ng may or may not be a single sorting unit: if it is it follows g. Some platforms may not respect the locale and always sort in numerical order of the bytes in an 8-bit locale, or in Unicode code-point order for a UTF-8 locale (and may not sort in the same order for the same language in different character sets). Collation of non-letters (spaces, punctuation signs, hyphens, fractions and so on) is even more problematic.

Character strings can be compared with different marked encodings (see [Encoding](#)): they are translated to UTF-8 before comparison.

Raw vectors should not really be considered to have an order, but the numeric order of the byte representation is used.

At least one of `x` and `y` must be an atomic vector, but if the other is a list `R` attempts to coerce it to the type of the atomic vector: this will succeed if the list is made up of elements of length one that can be coerced to the correct type.

If the two arguments are atomic vectors of different types, one is coerced to the type of the other, the (decreasing) order of precedence being character, complex, numeric, integer, logical and raw.

Missing values (`NA`) and `NaN` values are regarded as non-comparable even to themselves, so comparisons involving them will always result in `NA`. Missing values can also result when character strings are compared and one is not valid in the current collation locale.

Language objects such as symbols and calls are deparsed to character strings before comparison.

Value

A logical vector indicating the result of the element by element comparison. The elements of shorter vectors are recycled as necessary.

Objects such as arrays or time-series can be compared this way provided they are conformable.

S4 methods

These operators are members of the S4 `Compare` group generic, and so methods can be written for them individually as well as for the group generic (or the `Ops` group generic), with arguments `c(e1, e2)`.

Note

Do not use `==` and `!=` for tests, such as in `if` expressions, where you must get a single `TRUE` or `FALSE`. Unless you are absolutely sure that nothing unusual can happen, you should use the `identical` function instead.

For numerical and complex values, remember `==` and `!=` do not allow for the finite representation of fractions, nor for rounding error. Using `all.equal` with `identical` is almost always preferable. See the examples. (This also applies to the other comparison operators.)

These operators are sometimes called as functions as e.g. ``<`(x, y)`: see the description of how argument-matching is done in `Ops`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Collation of character strings is a complex topic. For an introduction see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collating_sequence. The *Unicode Collation Algorithm* (<http://unicode.org/reports/tr10/>) is likely to be increasingly influential. Where available `R` by default makes use of ICU (<http://site.icu-project.org/>) for collation (except in a `C` locale).

See Also

`factor` for the behaviour with factor arguments.

`Syntax` for operator precedence.

`capabilities` for whether ICU is available, and `icuSetCollate` to tune the string collation algorithm when it is.

Examples

```

x <- stats::rnorm(20)
x < 1
x[x > 0]

x1 <- 0.5 - 0.3i
x2 <- 0.3 - 0.1i
x1 == x2 # FALSE on most machines
identical(all.equal(x1, x2), TRUE) # TRUE everywhere

# range of most 8-bit charsets, as well as of Latin-1 in Unicode
z <- c(32:126, 160:255)
x <- if(l10n_info()$MBCS) {
  intToUtf8(z, multiple = TRUE)
} else rawToChar(as.raw(z), multiple = TRUE)
## by number
writeLines(strwrap(paste(x, collapse=" "), width = 60))
## by locale collation
writeLines(strwrap(paste(sort(x), collapse=" "), width = 60))

```

complex

*Complex Vectors***Description**

Basic functions which support complex arithmetic in R.

Usage

```

complex(length.out = 0, real = numeric(), imaginary = numeric(),
        modulus = 1, argument = 0)
as.complex(x, ...)
is.complex(x)

```

```

Re(z)
Im(z)
Mod(z)
Arg(z)
Conj(z)

```

Arguments

length.out	numeric. Desired length of the output vector, inputs being recycled as needed.
real	numeric vector.
imaginary	numeric vector.
modulus	numeric vector.

argument	numeric vector.
x	an object, probably of mode complex.
z	an object of mode complex, or one of a class for which a methods has been defined.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Complex vectors can be created with `complex`. The vector can be specified either by giving its length, its real and imaginary parts, or modulus and argument. (Giving just the length generates a vector of complex zeroes.)

`as.complex` attempts to coerce its argument to be of complex type: like `as.vector` it strips attributes including names. All forms of NA and NaN are coerced to a complex NA, for which both the real and imaginary parts are NA.

Note that `is.complex` and `is.numeric` are never both TRUE.

The functions `Re`, `Im`, `Mod`, `Arg` and `Conj` have their usual interpretation as returning the real part, imaginary part, modulus, argument and complex conjugate for complex values. The modulus and argument are also called the *polar coordinates*. If $z = x + iy$ with real x and y , for $r = \text{Mod}(z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, and $\phi = \text{Arg}(z)$, $x = r * \cos(\phi)$ and $y = r * \sin(\phi)$. They are all [internal generic primitive](#) functions: methods can be defined for them individually or *via* the [Complex](#) group generic.

In addition, the elementary trigonometric, logarithmic, exponential, square root and hyperbolic functions are implemented for complex values.

Internally, complex numbers are stored as a pair of [double](#) precision numbers, either or both of which can be [NaN](#) or plus or minus infinity.

S4 methods

`as.complex` is primitive and can have S4 methods set.

`Re`, `Im`, `Mod`, `Arg` and `Conj` constitute the S4 group generic [Complex](#) and so S4 methods can be set for them individually or via the group generic.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

0i ^ (-3:3)

matrix(1i ^ (-6:5), nrow = 4) #- all columns are the same
0 ^ 1i # a complex NaN

## create a complex normal vector
z <- complex(real = stats::rnorm(100), imaginary = stats::rnorm(100))
```

```
## or also (less efficiently):
z2 <- 1:2 + 1i*(8:9)

## The Arg(.) is an angle:
zz <- (rep(1:4, len = 9) + 1i*(9:1))/10
zz.shift <- complex(modulus = Mod(zz), argument = Arg(zz) + pi)
plot(zz, xlim = c(-1,1), ylim = c(-1,1), col = "red", asp = 1,
     main = expression(paste("Rotation by ", " ", pi == 180^o)))
abline(h = 0, v = 0, col = "blue", lty = 3)
points(zz.shift, col = "orange")
```

conditions

Condition Handling and Recovery

Description

These functions provide a mechanism for handling unusual conditions, including errors and warnings.

Usage

```
tryCatch(expr, ..., finally)
withCallingHandlers(expr, ...)

signalCondition(cond)

simpleCondition(message, call = NULL)
simpleError      (message, call = NULL)
simpleWarning    (message, call = NULL)
simpleMessage    (message, call = NULL)

## S3 method for class 'condition'
as.character(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'error'
as.character(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'condition'
print(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'restart'
print(x, ...)

conditionCall(c)
## S3 method for class 'condition'
conditionCall(c)
conditionMessage(c)
## S3 method for class 'condition'
conditionMessage(c)

withRestarts(expr, ...)
```

```
computeRestarts(cond = NULL)
findRestart(name, cond = NULL)
invokeRestart(r, ...)
invokeRestartInteractively(r)

isRestart(x)
restartDescription(r)
restartFormals(r)

.signalSimpleWarning(msg, call)
.handleSimpleError(h, msg, call)
```

Arguments

c	a condition object.
call	call expression.
cond	a condition object.
expr	expression to be evaluated.
finally	expression to be evaluated before returning or exiting.
h	function.
message	character string.
msg	character string.
name	character string naming a restart.
r	restart object.
x	object.
...	additional arguments; see details below.

Details

The condition system provides a mechanism for signaling and handling unusual conditions, including errors and warnings. Conditions are represented as objects that contain information about the condition that occurred, such as a message and the call in which the condition occurred. Currently conditions are S3-style objects, though this may eventually change.

Conditions are objects inheriting from the abstract class `condition`. Errors and warnings are objects inheriting from the abstract subclasses `error` and `warning`. The class `simpleError` is the class used by `stop` and all internal error signals. Similarly, `simpleWarning` is used by `warning`, and `simpleMessage` is used by `message`. The constructors by the same names take a string describing the condition as argument and an optional call. The functions `conditionMessage` and `conditionCall` are generic functions that return the message and call of a condition.

Conditions are signaled by `signalCondition`. In addition, the `stop` and `warning` functions have been modified to also accept condition arguments.

The function `tryCatch` evaluates its expression argument in a context where the handlers provided in the `...` argument are available. The `finally` expression is then evaluated in the context in which

`tryCatch` was called; that is, the handlers supplied to the current `tryCatch` call are not active when the `finally` expression is evaluated.

Handlers provided in the `...` argument to `tryCatch` are established for the duration of the evaluation of `expr`. If no condition is signaled when evaluating `expr` then `tryCatch` returns the value of the expression.

If a condition is signaled while evaluating `expr` then established handlers are checked, starting with the most recently established ones, for one matching the class of the condition. When several handlers are supplied in a single `tryCatch` then the first one is considered more recent than the second. If a handler is found then control is transferred to the `tryCatch` call that established the handler, the handler found and all more recent handlers are disestablished, the handler is called with the condition as its argument, and the result returned by the handler is returned as the value of the `tryCatch` call.

Calling handlers are established by `withCallingHandlers`. If a condition is signaled and the applicable handler is a calling handler, then the handler is called by `signalCondition` in the context where the condition was signaled but with the available handlers restricted to those below the handler called in the handler stack. If the handler returns, then the next handler is tried; once the last handler has been tried, `signalCondition` returns `NULL`.

User interrupts signal a condition of class `interrupt` that inherits directly from class `condition` before executing the default interrupt action.

Restarts are used for establishing recovery protocols. They can be established using `withRestarts`. One pre-established restart is an abort restart that represents a jump to top level.

`findRestart` and `computeRestarts` find the available restarts. `findRestart` returns the most recently established restart of the specified name. `computeRestarts` returns a list of all restarts. Both can be given a condition argument and will then ignore restarts that do not apply to the condition.

`invokeRestart` transfers control to the point where the specified restart was established and calls the restart's handler with the arguments, if any, given as additional arguments to `invokeRestart`. The restart argument to `invokeRestart` can be a character string, in which case `findRestart` is used to find the restart.

New restarts for `withRestarts` can be specified in several ways. The simplest is in `name = function` form where the function is the handler to call when the restart is invoked. Another simple variant is as `name = string` where the string is stored in the `description` field of the restart object returned by `findRestart`; in this case the handler ignores its arguments and returns `NULL`. The most flexible form of a restart specification is as a list that can include several fields, including `handler`, `description`, and `test`. The `test` field should contain a function of one argument, a condition, that returns `TRUE` if the restart applies to the condition and `FALSE` if it does not; the default function returns `TRUE` for all conditions.

One additional field that can be specified for a restart is `interactive`. This should be a function of no arguments that returns a list of arguments to pass to the restart handler. The list could be obtained by interacting with the user if necessary. The function `invokeRestartInteractively` calls this function to obtain the arguments to use when invoking the restart. The default `interactive` method queries the user for values for the formal arguments of the handler function.

`.signalSimpleWarning` and `.handleSimpleError` are used internally and should not be called directly.

References

The tryCatch mechanism is similar to Java error handling. Calling handlers are based on Common Lisp and Dylan. Restarts are based on the Common Lisp restart mechanism.

See Also

[stop](#) and [warning](#) signal conditions, and [try](#) is essentially a simplified version of tryCatch. [assertCondition](#) in package **tools** tests that conditions are signalled and works with several of the above handlers.

Examples

```
tryCatch(1, finally = print("Hello"))
e <- simpleError("test error")
## Not run:
  stop(e)
  tryCatch(stop(e), finally = print("Hello"))
  tryCatch(stop("fred"), finally = print("Hello"))

## End(Not run)
tryCatch(stop(e), error = function(e) e, finally = print("Hello"))
tryCatch(stop("fred"), error = function(e) e, finally = print("Hello"))
withCallingHandlers({ warning("A"); 1+2 }, warning = function(w) {})
## Not run:
  { withRestarts(stop("A"), abort = function() {}); 1 }

## End(Not run)
withRestarts(invokerRestart("foo", 1, 2), foo = function(x, y) {x + y})

##--> More examples are part of
##--> demo(error.catching)
```

conflicts

Search for Masked Objects on the Search Path

Description

conflicts reports on objects that exist with the same name in two or more places on the [search](#) path, usually because an object in the user's workspace or a package is masking a system object of the same name. This helps discover unintentional masking.

Usage

```
conflicts(where = search(), detail = FALSE)
```

Arguments

where	A subset of the search path, by default the whole search path.
detail	If TRUE, give the masked or masking functions for all members of the search path.

Value

If `detail = FALSE`, a character vector of masked objects. If `detail = TRUE`, a list of character vectors giving the masked or masking objects in that member of the search path. Empty vectors are omitted.

Examples

```
lm <- 1:3
conflicts(, TRUE)
## gives something like
# $.GlobalEnv
# [1] "lm"
#
# $package:base
# [1] "lm"

## Remove things from your "workspace" that mask others:
remove(list = conflicts(detail = TRUE)$GlobalEnv)
```

connections

Functions to Manipulate Connections (Files, URLs, ...)

Description

Functions to create, open and close connections, i.e., “generalized files”, such as possibly compressed files, URLs, pipes, etc.

Usage

```
file(description = "", open = "", blocking = TRUE,
      encoding = getOption("encoding"), raw = FALSE)

url(description, open = "", blocking = TRUE,
     encoding = getOption("encoding"), method)

gzfile(description, open = "", encoding = getOption("encoding"),
       compression = 6)

bzfile(description, open = "", encoding = getOption("encoding"),
       compression = 9)

xzfile(description, open = "", encoding = getOption("encoding"),
       compression = 6)

unz(description, filename, open = "", encoding = getOption("encoding"))

pipe(description, open = "", encoding = getOption("encoding"))
```

```

fifo(description, open = "", blocking = FALSE,
      encoding = getOption("encoding"))

socketConnection(host = "localhost", port, server = FALSE,
                 blocking = FALSE, open = "a+",
                 encoding = getOption("encoding"),
                 timeout = getOption("timeout"))

open(con, ...)
## S3 method for class 'connection'
open(con, open = "r", blocking = TRUE, ...)

close(con, ...)
## S3 method for class 'connection'
close(con, type = "rw", ...)

flush(con)

isOpen(con, rw = "")
isIncomplete(con)

```

Arguments

description	character string. A description of the connection: see ‘Details’.
open	character string. A description of how to open the connection (if it should be opened initially). See section ‘Modes’ for possible values.
blocking	logical. See the ‘Blocking’ section.
encoding	The name of the encoding to be assumed. See the ‘Encoding’ section.
raw	logical. If true, a ‘raw’ interface is used which will be more suitable for arguments which are not regular files, e.g. character devices. This suppresses the check for a compressed file when opening for text-mode reading, and asserts that the ‘file’ may not be seekable.
method	character string, partially matched to c("default", "internal", "wininet", "libcurl"): see ‘Details’.
compression	integer in 0–9. The amount of compression to be applied when writing, from none to maximal available. For xzfile can also be negative: see the ‘Compression’ section.
timeout	numeric: the timeout (in seconds) to be used for this connection. Beware that some OSes may treat very large values as zero: however the POSIX standard requires values up to 31 days to be supported.
filename	a filename within a zip file.
host	character string. Host name for the port.
port	integer. The TCP port number.
server	logical. Should the socket be a client or a server?
con	a connection.

type	character string. Currently ignored.
rw	character string. Empty or "read" or "write", partial matches allowed.
...	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The first nine functions create connections. By default the connection is not opened (except for a `socketConnection`), but may be opened by setting a non-empty value of argument `open`.

For `file` the description is a path to the file to be opened or a complete URL (when it is the same as calling `url`), or "" (the default) or "clipboard" (see the 'Clipboard' section). Use "stdin" to refer to the C-level 'standard input' of the process (which need not be connected to anything in a console or embedded version of R, and is not in RGui on Windows). See also `stdin()` for the subtly different R-level concept of `stdin`.

For `url` the description is a complete URL including scheme (such as 'http://', 'https://', 'ftp://' or 'file://'). Method "internal" is that available since connections were introduced, method "wininet" is only available on Windows and method "libcurl" is optionally supported as from R 3.2.0. Method "default" (as from R 3.2.0) selects a suitable method depending on the URL scheme, e.g. method "libcurl" for 'https://' and 'ftps://' URLs and "internal" otherwise. The default method can be changed *via* `options(url.method =)` (including for when URLs are passed to `file`): if unset it is method "default". Proxies can be specified: see [download.file](#).

For `gzfile` the description is the path to a file compressed by gzip: it can also open for reading uncompressed files and those compressed by bzip2, xz or lzma.

For `bzfile` the description is the path to a file compressed by bzip2.

For `xzfile` the description is the path to a file compressed by xz (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xz>) or (for reading only) lzma (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/LZMA>).

`unz` reads (only) single files within zip files, in binary mode. The description is the full path to the zip file, with '.zip' extension if required.

For `pipe` the description is the command line to be piped to or from. This is run in a shell, on Windows that specified by the COMSPEC environment variable.

For `fifo` the description is the path of the fifo.

All platforms support `file`, `pipe`, `gzfile`, `bzfile`, `xzfile`, `unz` and `url("file://")` connections. The other connections may be partially implemented or not implemented at all. (They do work on most Unix platforms, and all on Windows.)

The intention is that `file` and `gzfile` can be used generally for text input (from files, 'http://' and 'https://' URLs) and binary input respectively.

`open`, `close` and `seek` are generic functions: the following applies to the methods relevant to connections.

`open` opens a connection. In general functions using connections will open them if they are not open, but then close them again, so to leave a connection open call `open` explicitly.

`close` closes and destroys a connection. This will happen automatically in due course (with a warning) if there is no longer an R object referring to the connection.

A maximum of 128 connections can be allocated (not necessarily open) at any one time. Three of these are pre-allocated (see `stdout`). The OS will impose limits on the numbers of connections of various types, but these are usually larger than 125.

`flush` flushes the output stream of a connection open for write/append (where implemented, currently for file and clipboard connections, `stdout` and `stderr`).

If for a file or (on most platforms) a fifo connection the description is `"`, the file/fifo is immediately opened (in `"w+"` mode unless `open = "w+b"` is specified) and unlinked from the file system. This provides a temporary file/fifo to write to and then read from.

Value

`file`, `pipe`, `fifo`, `url`, `gzfile`, `bzfile`, `xzfile`, `unz` and `socketConnection` return a connection object which inherits from class `"connection"` and has a first more specific class.

`open` and `flush` return `NULL`, invisibly.

`close` returns either `NULL` or an integer status, invisibly. The status is from when the connection was last closed and is available only for some types of connections (e.g., pipes, files and fifos): typically zero values indicate success.

`isOpen` returns a logical value, whether the connection is currently open.

`isIncomplete` returns a logical value, whether the last read attempt was blocked, or for an output text connection whether there is unflushed output.

URLs

`url` and `file` support URL schemes `'http://'`, `'https://'`, `'ftp://'` and `'file://'`: the first three require OS support (which all known R platforms have).

`method = "libcurl"` allows more schemes: exactly which schemes is platform-dependent (see [libcurlVersion](#)), but most platforms will support `'https://'` and `'ftps://'`.

Most methods do not percent-encode special characters such as spaces in `'http://'` URLs (see [URLencode](#)), but it seems the `"wininet"` method does.

A note on `'file://'` URLs. The most general form (from RFC1738) is `'file://host/path/to/file'`, but R only accepts the form with an empty host field referring to the local machine.

On a Unix-alike, this is then `'file:///path/to/file'`, where `'path/to/file'` is relative to `'/'`. So although the third slash is strictly part of the specification not part of the path, this can be regarded as a way to specify the file `'/path/to/file'`. It is not possible to specify a relative path using a file URL.

In this form the path is relative to the root of the filesystem, not a Windows concept. The standard form on Windows is `'file:///d:/R/repos'`: for compatibility with earlier versions of R and Unix versions, any other form is parsed as R as `'file://'` plus `path_to_file`. Also, backslashes are accepted within the path even though RFC1738 does not allow them.

No attempt is made to decode a percent-encoded `'file:'` URL: call [URLdecode](#) if necessary.

The `"internal"` method does not follow re-directed HTTP URLs: both methods `"wininet"` (the default on Windows) and `"libcurl"` do (including for HTTPS URLs).

Server-side cached data is always accepted.

Function [download.file](#) and contributed package **RCurl** provide more comprehensive facilities to download from URLs.

Modes

Possible values for the argument `open` are

- `"r"` **or** `"rt"` Open for reading in text mode.
- `"w"` **or** `"wt"` Open for writing in text mode.
- `"a"` **or** `"at"` Open for appending in text mode.
- `"rb"` Open for reading in binary mode.
- `"wb"` Open for writing in binary mode.
- `"ab"` Open for appending in binary mode.
- `"r+"`, `"r+b"` Open for reading and writing.
- `"w+"`, `"w+b"` Open for reading and writing, truncating file initially.
- `"a+"`, `"a+b"` Open for reading and appending.

Not all modes are applicable to all connections: for example URLs can only be opened for reading. Only file and socket connections can be opened for both reading and writing. An unsupported mode is usually silently substituted.

If a file or fifo is created on a Unix-alike, its permissions will be the maximal allowed by the current setting of `umask` (see [Sys.umask](#)).

For many connections there is little or no difference between text and binary modes. For file-like connections on Windows, translation of line endings (between LF and CRLF) is done in text mode only (but text read operations on connections such as [readLines](#), [scan](#) and [source](#) work for any form of line ending). Various R operations are possible in only one of the modes: for example [pushBack](#) is text-oriented and is only allowed on connections open for reading in text mode, and binary operations such as [readBin](#), [load](#) and [save](#) can only be done on binary-mode connections.

The mode of a connection is determined when actually opened, which is deferred if `open = ""` is given (the default for all but socket connections). An explicit call to `open` can specify the mode, but otherwise the mode will be `"r"`. (`gzfile`, `bzfile` and `xzfile` connections are exceptions, as the compressed file always has to be opened in binary mode and no conversion of line-endings is done even on Windows, so the default mode is interpreted as `"rb"`.) Most operations that need write access or text-only or binary-only mode will override the default mode of a non-yet-open connection.

Append modes need to be considered carefully for compressed-file connections. They do **not** produce a single compressed stream on the file, but rather append a new compressed stream to the file. Readers may or may not read beyond end of the first stream: currently R does so for `gzfile`, `bzfile` and `xzfile` connections.

Compression

R supports `gzip`, `bzip2` and `xz` compression (added in R 2.10.0: also read-only support for its precursor `lzma` compression).

For reading, the type of compression (if any) can be determined from the first few bytes of the file. Thus for `file(raw = FALSE)` connections, if `open` is `"", "r"` or `"rt"` the connection can read any of the compressed file types as well as uncompressed files. (Using `"rb"` will allow compressed files to be read byte-by-byte.) Similarly, `gzfile` connections can read any of the forms of compression and uncompressed files in any read mode.

(The type of compression is determined when the connection is created if open is unspecified and a file of that name exists. If the intention is to open the connection to write a file with a *different* form of compression under that name, specify open = "w" when the connection is created or `unlink` the file before creating the connection.)

For write-mode connections, compress specifies how hard the compressor works to minimize the file size, and higher values need more CPU time and more working memory (up to ca 800Mb for `xzfile(compress = 9)`). For `xzfile` negative values of compress correspond to adding the xz argument '-e': this takes more time (double?) to compress but may achieve (slightly) better compression. The default (6) has good compression and modest (100Mb memory) usage: but if you are using xz compression you are probably looking for high compression.

Choosing the type of compression involves tradeoffs: gzip, bzip2 and xz are successively less widely supported, need more resources for both compression and decompression, and achieve more compression (although individual files may buck the general trend). Typical experience is that bzip2 compression is 15% better on text files than gzip compression, and xz with maximal compression 30% better. The experience with R `save` files is similar, but on some large '.rda' files xz compression is much better than the other two. With current computers decompression times even with compress = 9 are typically modest and reading compressed files is usually faster than uncompressed ones because of the reduction in disc activity.

Encoding

The encoding of the input/output stream of a connection can be specified by name in the same way as it would be given to `iconv`: see that help page for how to find out what encoding names are recognized on your platform. Additionally, "" and "native.enc" both mean the 'native' encoding, that is the internal encoding of the current locale and hence no translation is done.

Re-encoding only works for connections in text mode: reading from a connection with re-encoding specified in binary mode will read the stream of bytes, but mixing text and binary mode reads (e.g., mixing calls to `readLines` and `readChar`) is likely to lead to incorrect results.

The encodings "UCS-2LE" and "UTF-16LE" are treated specially, as they are appropriate values for Windows 'Unicode' text files. If the first two bytes are the Byte Order Mark 0xFEFF then these are removed as some implementations of `iconv` do not accept BOMs. Note that whereas most implementations will handle BOMs using encoding "UCS-2" and choose the appropriate byte order, some (including earlier versions of glibc) will not. There is a subtle distinction between "UTF-16" and "UCS-2" (see <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/UTF-16>: the use of characters in the 'Supplementary Planes' which need surrogate pairs is very rare so "UCS-2LE" is an appropriate first choice (as it is more widely implemented).

As from R 3.0.0 the encoding "UTF-8-BOM" is accepted for reading and will remove a Byte Order Mark if present (which it often is for files and webpages generated by Microsoft applications). If a BOM is required (it is not recommended) when writing it should be written explicitly, e.g. by `writeChar("\u0000", con, eos = NULL)` or `writeBin(as.raw(c(0xef, 0xbb, 0xbf)), binary_con)`

Encoding names "utf8", "mac" and "macroman" are not portable, and not supported on all current R platforms. "UTF-8" is portable and "macintosh" is the official (and most widely supported) name for 'Mac Roman'.

Requesting a conversion that is not supported is an error, reported when the connection is opened. Exactly what happens when the requested translation cannot be done for invalid input is in general

undocumented. On output the result is likely to be that up to the error, with a warning. On input, it will most likely be all or some of the input up to the error.

It may be possible to deduce the current native encoding from `Sys.getlocale("LC_CTYPE")`, but not all OSes record it.

Blocking

Whether or not the connection blocks can be specified for file, url (default yes), fifo and socket connections (default not).

In blocking mode, functions using the connection do not return to the R evaluator until the read/write is complete. In non-blocking mode, operations return as soon as possible, so on input they will return with whatever input is available (possibly none) and for output they will return whether or not the write succeeded.

The function `readLines` behaves differently in respect of incomplete last lines in the two modes: see its help page.

Even when a connection is in blocking mode, attempts are made to ensure that it does not block the event loop and hence the operation of GUI parts of R. These do not always succeed, and the whole R process will be blocked during a DNS lookup on Unix, for example.

Most blocking operations on HTTP/FTP URLs and on sockets are subject to the timeout set by `options("timeout")`. Note that this is a timeout for no response, not for the whole operation. The timeout is set at the time the connection is opened (more precisely, when the last connection of that type – ‘http:’, ‘ftp:’ or socket – was opened).

Fifos

Fifos default to non-blocking. That follows S version 4 and is probably most natural, but it does have some implications. In particular, opening a non-blocking fifo connection for writing (only) will fail unless some other process is reading on the fifo.

Opening a fifo for both reading and writing (in any mode: one can only append to fifos) connects both sides of the fifo to the R process, and provides an similar facility to `file()`.

Clipboard

`file` can be used with `description = "clipboard"` in mode "r" only. This reads the X11 primary selection (see <http://standards.freedesktop.org/clipboards-spec/clipboards-latest.txt>), which can also be specified as "X11_primary" and the secondary selection as "X11_secondary". On most systems the clipboard selection (that used by ‘Copy’ from an ‘Edit’ menu) can be specified as "X11_clipboard".

When a clipboard is opened for reading, the contents are immediately copied to internal storage in the connection.

Unix users wishing to *write* to one of the X11 selections may be able to do so via `xclip` (<http://sourceforge.net/projects/xclip/>) or `xsel` (<http://www.vergenet.net/~conrad/software/xsel/>), for example by `pipe("xclip -i", "w")` for the primary selection.

OS X users can use `pipe("pbpaste")` and `pipe("pbcopy", "w")` to read from and write to that system’s clipboard.

Note

R's connections are modelled on those in S version 4 (see Chambers, 1998). However R goes well beyond the S model, for example in output text connections and URL, compressed and socket connections.

The default open mode in R is "r" except for socket connections. This differs from S, where it is the equivalent of "r+", known as "*".

On (rare) platforms where vsnprintf does not return the needed length of output there is a 100,000 byte output limit on the length of a line for text output on fifo, gzfile, bzfile and xzfile connections: longer lines will be truncated with a warning.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

Ripley, B. D. (2001) Connections. *R News*, 1/1, 16–7. https://www.r-project.org/doc/Rnews/Rnews_2001-1.pdf

See Also

[textConnection](#), [seek](#), [showConnections](#), [pushBack](#).

Functions making direct use of connections are (text-mode) [readLines](#), [writeLines](#), [cat](#), [sink](#), [scan](#), [parse](#), [read.dcf](#), [dput](#), [dump](#) and (binary-mode) [readBin](#), [readChar](#), [writeBin](#), [writeChar](#), [load](#) and [save](#).

[capabilities](#) to see if HTTP/FTP url, fifo and socketConnection are supported by this build of R.

[gzcon](#) to wrap gzip (de)compression around a connection.

[options](#) HTTPUserAgent, internet.info and timeout are used by some of the methods for URL connections.

[memCompress](#) for more ways to (de)compress and references on data compression.

Examples

```
zz <- file("ex.data", "w") # open an output file connection
cat("TITLE extra line", "2 3 5 7", "", "11 13 17", file = zz, sep = "\n")
cat("One more line\n", file = zz)
close(zz)
readLines("ex.data")
unlink("ex.data")
```

```
zz <- gzfile("ex.gz", "w") # compressed file
cat("TITLE extra line", "2 3 5 7", "", "11 13 17", file = zz, sep = "\n")
close(zz)
readLines(zz <- gzfile("ex.gz"))
close(zz)
unlink("ex.gz")
```

```
zz <- bzfile("ex.bz2", "w") # bzip2-ed file
cat("TITLE extra line", "2 3 5 7", "", "11 13 17", file = zz, sep = "\n")
```

```

close(zz)
print(readLines(zz <- bzfile("ex.bz2")))
close(zz)
unlink("ex.bz2")

## An example of a file open for reading and writing
Tfile <- file("test1", "w+")
c(isOpen(Tfile, "r"), isOpen(Tfile, "w")) # both TRUE
cat("abc\ndef\n", file = Tfile)
readLines(Tfile)
seek(Tfile, 0, rw = "r") # reset to beginning
readLines(Tfile)
cat("ghi\n", file = Tfile)
readLines(Tfile)
close(Tfile)
unlink("test1")

## We can do the same thing with an anonymous file.
Tfile <- file()
cat("abc\ndef\n", file = Tfile)
readLines(Tfile)
close(Tfile)

## Not run: ## fifo example -- may hang even with OS support for fifos
if(capabilities("fifo")) {
  zz <- fifo("foo-fifo", "w+")
  writeLines("abc", zz)
  print(readLines(zz))
  close(zz)
  unlink("foo-fifo")
}
## End(Not run)

## Unix examples of use of pipes

# read listing of current directory
readLines(pipe("ls -l"))

# remove trailing commas. Suppose

## Not run: % cat data2_
450, 390, 467, 654, 30, 542, 334, 432, 421,
357, 497, 493, 550, 549, 467, 575, 578, 342,
446, 547, 534, 495, 979, 479
## End(Not run)
# Then read this by
scan(pipe("sed -e s/,,$// data2_"), sep = ",")

# convert decimal point to comma in output: see also write.table
# both R strings and (probably) the shell need \ doubled
zz <- pipe(paste("sed s/\\\\\\. />", "outfile"), "w")
cat(format(round(stats::rnorm(48), 4)), fill = 70, file = zz)

```

```

close(zz)
file.show("outfile", delete.file = TRUE)

## Not run:
## example for a machine running a finger daemon

con <- socketConnection(port = 79, blocking = TRUE)
writeLines(paste0(system("whoami", intern = TRUE), "\r"), con)
gsub(" *$", "", readLines(con))
close(con)

## End(Not run)

## Not run:
## Two R processes communicating via non-blocking sockets
# R process 1
con1 <- socketConnection(port = 6011, server = TRUE)
writeLines(LETTERS, con1)
close(con1)

# R process 2
con2 <- socketConnection(Sys.info()["nodename"], port = 6011)
# as non-blocking, may need to loop for input
readLines(con2)
while(isIncomplete(con2)) {
  Sys.sleep(1)
  z <- readLines(con2)
  if(length(z)) print(z)
}
close(con2)

## examples of use of encodings
# write a file in UTF-8
cat(x, file = (con <- file("foo", "w", encoding = "UTF-8"))); close(con)
# read a 'Windows Unicode' file
A <- read.table(con <- file("students", encoding = "UCS-2LE")); close(con)

## End(Not run)

```

Constants

Built-in Constants

Description

Constants built into R.

Usage

```

LETTERS
letters

```



```
month.abb  
month.name  
pi
```

Details

R has a small number of built-in constants.

The following constants are available:

- `LETTERS`: the 26 upper-case letters of the Roman alphabet;
- `letters`: the 26 lower-case letters of the Roman alphabet;
- `month.abb`: the three-letter abbreviations for the English month names;
- `month.name`: the English names for the months of the year;
- `pi`: the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter.

These are implemented as variables in the base namespace taking appropriate values.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[data](#), [DateTimeClasses](#).

[Quotes](#) for the parsing of character constants, [NumericConstants](#) for numeric constants.

Examples

```
## John Machin (ca 1706) computed pi to over 100 decimal places  
## using the Taylor series expansion of the second term of  
pi - 4*(4*atan(1/5) - atan(1/239))  
  
## months in English  
month.name  
## months in your current locale  
format(ISOdate(2000, 1:12, 1), "%B")  
format(ISOdate(2000, 1:12, 1), "%b")
```

 contributors

R Project Contributors

Description

The R Who-is-who, describing who made significant contributions to the development of R.

Usage

```
contributors()
```

Control

Control Flow

Description

These are the basic control-flow constructs of the R language. They function in much the same way as control statements in any Algol-like language. They are all [reserved](#) words.

Usage

```
if(cond) expr
if(cond) cons.expr else alt.expr

for(var in seq) expr
while(cond) expr
repeat expr
break
next
```

Arguments

cond	A length-one logical vector that is not NA. Conditions of length greater than one are accepted with a warning, but only the first element is used. Other types are coerced to logical if possible, ignoring any class.
var	A syntactical name for a variable.
seq	An expression evaluating to a vector (including a list and an expression) or to a pairlist or NULL. A factor value will be coerced to a character vector.
expr, cons.expr, alt.expr	An <i>expression</i> in a formal sense. This is either a simple expression or a so called <i>compound expression</i> , usually of the form { expr1 ; expr2 }.

Details

`break` breaks out of a `for`, `while` or `repeat` loop; control is transferred to the first statement outside the inner-most loop. `next` halts the processing of the current iteration and advances the looping index. Both `break` and `next` apply only to the innermost of nested loops.

Note that it is a common mistake to forget to put braces (`{ ... }`) around your statements, e.g., after `if(...)` or `for(...)`. In particular, you should not have a newline between `}` and `else` to avoid a syntax error in entering a `if ... else` construct at the keyboard or via source. For that reason, one (somewhat extreme) attitude of defensive programming is to always use braces, e.g., for `if` clauses.

The `seq` in a `for` loop is evaluated at the start of the loop; changing it subsequently does not affect the loop. If `seq` has length zero the body of the loop is skipped. Otherwise the variable `var` is assigned in turn the value of each element of `seq`. You can assign to `var` within the body of the loop, but this will not affect the next iteration. When the loop terminates, `var` remains as a variable containing its latest value.

Value

`if` returns the value of the expression evaluated, or `NULL` invisibly if none was (which may happen if there is no `else`).

`for`, `while` and `repeat` return `NULL` invisibly. `for` sets `var` to the last used element of `seq`, or to `NULL` if it was of length zero.

`break` and `next` do not return a value as they transfer control within the loop.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[Syntax](#) for the basic R syntax and operators, [Paren](#) for parentheses and braces.

[ifelse](#), [switch](#) for other ways to control flow.

Examples

```
for(i in 1:5) print(1:i)
for(n in c(2,5,10,20,50)) {
  x <- stats::rnorm(n)
  cat(n, ": ", sum(x^2), "\n", sep = " ")
}
f <- factor(sample(letters[1:5], 10, replace = TRUE))
for(i in unique(f)) print(i)
```

copyright

*Copyrights of Files Used to Build R***Description**

R is released under the ‘GNU Public License’: see [license](#) for details. The license describes your right to use R. Copyright is concerned with ownership of intellectual rights, and some of the software used has conditions that the copyright must be explicitly stated: see the ‘Details’ section. We are grateful to these people and other contributors (see [contributors](#)) for the ability to use their work.

Details

The file ‘[R_HOME](#)/COPYRIGHTS’ lists the copyrights in full detail.

crossprod

*Matrix Crossproduct***Description**

Given matrices x and y as arguments, return a matrix cross-product. This is formally equivalent to (but usually slightly faster than) the call `t(x) %*% y` (`crossprod`) or `x %*% t(y)` (`tcrossprod`).

Usage

```
crossprod(x, y = NULL)
```

```
tcrossprod(x, y = NULL)
```

Arguments

x , y numeric or complex matrices (or vectors): $y = \text{NULL}$ is taken to be the same matrix as x . Vectors are promoted to single-column or single-row matrices, depending on the context.

Value

A double or complex matrix, with appropriate `dimnames` taken from x and y .

Note

When x or y are not matrices, they are treated as column or row matrices, but their [names](#) are usually **not** promoted to [dimnames](#). Hence, currently, the last example has empty `dimnames`.

In the same situation, these matrix products (also `%*%`) are more flexible in promotion of vectors to row or column matrices, such that more cases are allowed, since R 3.2.0.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[%*%](#) and outer product [%O%](#).

Examples

```
(z <- crossprod(1:4))      # = sum(1 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2)
drop(z)                    # scalar
x <- 1:4; names(x) <- letters[1:4]; x
tcrossprod(as.matrix(x)) # is
identical(tcrossprod(as.matrix(x)),
           crossprod(t(x)))
tcrossprod(x)              # no dimnames

m <- matrix(1:6, 2,3) ; v <- 1:3; v2 <- 2:1
stopifnot(identical(tcrossprod(v, m), v %*% t(m)),
           identical(tcrossprod(v, m), crossprod(v, t(m))),
           identical(crossprod(m, v2), t(m) %*% v2))
```

Cstack_info

Report Information on C Stack Size and Usage

Description

Report information on the C stack size and usage (if available).

Usage

```
Cstack_info()
```

Details

On most platforms, C stack information is recorded when R is initialized and used for stack-checking. If this information is unavailable, the size will be returned as NA, and stack-checking is not performed.

The information on the stack base address is thought to be accurate on Windows, Linux (using glibc), OS X and FreeBSD but a heuristic is used on other platforms. Because this might be slightly inaccurate, the current usage could be estimated as negative. (The heuristic is not used on embedded uses of R on platforms where the stack base information is not thought to be accurate.)

The ‘evaluation depth’ is the number of nested R expressions currently under evaluation: this has a limit controlled by [options\("expressions"\)](#).

Value

- An integer vector. This has named elements
- size The size of the stack (in bytes), or NA if unknown.
 - current The estimated current usage (in bytes), possibly NA.
 - direction 1 (stack grows down, the usual case) or -1 (stack grows up).
 - eval_depth The current evaluation depth (including two calls for the call to Cstack_info).

Examples

```
Cstack_info()
```

cumsum	<i>Cumulative Sums, Products, and Extremes</i>
--------	--

Description

Returns a vector whose elements are the cumulative sums, products, minima or maxima of the elements of the argument.

Usage

```
cumsum(x)
cumprod(x)
cummax(x)
cummin(x)
```

Arguments

- x a numeric or complex (not cummin or cummax) object, or an object that can be coerced to one of these.

Details

These are generic functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic.

Value

A vector of the same length and type as x (after coercion), except that cumprod returns a numeric vector for integer input (for consistency with *). Names are preserved.

An NA value in x causes the corresponding and following elements of the return value to be NA, as does integer overflow in cumsum (with a warning).

S4 methods

cumsum and cumprod are S4 generic functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic. cummax and cummin are individually S4 generic functions.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (cumsum only.)

Examples

```
cumsum(1:10)
cumprod(1:10)
cummin(c(3:1, 2:0, 4:2))
cummax(c(3:1, 2:0, 4:2))
```

curlGetHeaders	<i>Retrieve Headers from URLs</i>
----------------	-----------------------------------

Description

Retrieve the headers for a URL for a supported protocol such as http://, ftp://, https:// and ftps://. An optional function not supported on all platforms.

Usage

```
curlGetHeaders(url, redirect = TRUE, verify = TRUE)
```

Arguments

url	character string specifying the URL.
redirect	logical: should redirections be followed?
verify	logical: should certificates be verified as valid and applying to that host?

Details

This reports what `curl -I -L` or `curl -I` would report. For a ftp:// URL the ‘headers’ are a record of the conversation between client and server before data transfer.

Only 500 header lines will be reported: there is a limit of 20 redirections so this should suffice (and even 20 would indicate problems).

It uses `getOption("timeout")` for the connection timeout: that defaults to 60 seconds. As this cannot be interrupted you may want to consider a shorter value.

To see all the details of the interaction with the server(s) set `options(internet.info = 1)`.

HTTP[S] servers are allowed to refuse requests to read the headers and some do: this will result in a status of 405.

For possible issues with secure URLs (especially on Windows) see [download.file](#).

There is a security risk in not verifying certificates, but as only the headers are captured it is slight. Usually looking at the URL in a browser will reveal what the problem is (and it may well be machine-specific).

Value

A character vector with integer attribute "status" (the last-received 'status' code). If redirection occurs this will include the headers for all the URLs visited.

For the interpretation of 'status' codes see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_HTTP_status_codes and https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_FTP_server_return_codes. A successful FTP connection will usually have status 250 or 350.

See Also

[capabilities](#)("libcurl") to see if this is supported.

[options](#) HTTPUserAgent and timeout are used.

Examples

```
## needs Internet access, results vary
curlGetHeaders("http://bugs.r-project.org") ## this redirects to https://
curlGetHeaders("https://httpbin.org/status/404") ## returns status
curlGetHeaders("ftp://cran.r-project.org")

## Not run: ## a not-always-available site:
curlGetHeaders("https://test.rebex.net/readme.txt")

## End(Not run)
```

cut

Convert Numeric to Factor

Description

cut divides the range of x into intervals and codes the values in x according to which interval they fall. The leftmost interval corresponds to level one, the next leftmost to level two and so on.

Usage

```
cut(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
cut(x, breaks, labels = NULL,
     include.lowest = FALSE, right = TRUE, dig.lab = 3,
     ordered_result = FALSE, ...)
```


Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector which is to be converted to a factor by cutting.
<code>breaks</code>	either a numeric vector of two or more unique cut points or a single number (greater than or equal to 2) giving the number of intervals into which <code>x</code> is to be cut.
<code>labels</code>	labels for the levels of the resulting category. By default, labels are constructed using "(a,b]" interval notation. If <code>labels = FALSE</code> , simple integer codes are returned instead of a factor.
<code>include.lowest</code>	logical, indicating if an ' <code>x[i]</code> ' equal to the lowest (or highest, for <code>right = FALSE</code>) ' <code>breaks</code> ' value should be included.
<code>right</code>	logical, indicating if the intervals should be closed on the right (and open on the left) or vice versa.
<code>dig.lab</code>	integer which is used when labels are not given. It determines the number of digits used in formatting the break numbers.
<code>ordered_result</code>	logical: should the result be an ordered factor?
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

When `breaks` is specified as a single number, the range of the data is divided into `breaks` pieces of equal length, and then the outer limits are moved away by 0.1% of the range to ensure that the extreme values both fall within the break intervals. (If `x` is a constant vector, equal-length intervals are created, one of which includes the single value.)

If a `labels` parameter is specified, its values are used to name the factor levels. If none is specified, the factor level labels are constructed as "(b1, b2]", "(b2, b3]" etc. for `right = TRUE` and as "[b1, b2)", ... if `right = FALSE`. In this case, `dig.lab` indicates the minimum number of digits should be used in formatting the numbers `b1`, `b2`, A larger value (up to 12) will be used if needed to distinguish between any pair of endpoints: if this fails labels such as "Range3" will be used. Formatting is done by [formatC](#).

The default method will sort a numeric vector of `breaks`, but other methods are not required to and labels will correspond to the intervals after sorting.

As from R 3.2.0, `getOption("OutDec")` is consulted when labels are constructed for `labels = NULL`.

Value

A [factor](#) is returned, unless `labels = FALSE` which results in an integer vector of level codes.

Values which fall outside the range of `breaks` are coded as NA, as are NaN and NA values.

Note

Instead of `table(cut(x, br)), hist(x, br, plot = FALSE)` is more efficient and less memory hungry. Instead of `cut(*, labels = FALSE)`, [findInterval\(\)](#) is more efficient.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[split](#) for splitting a variable according to a group factor; [factor](#), [tabulate](#), [table](#), [findInterval](#).

[quantile](#) for ways of choosing breaks of roughly equal content (rather than length).

[.bincode](#) for a bare-bones version.

Examples

```
Z <- stats::rnorm(10000)
table(cut(Z, breaks = -6:6))
sum(table(cut(Z, breaks = -6:6, labels = FALSE)))
sum(graphics::hist(Z, breaks = -6:6, plot = FALSE)$counts)

cut(rep(1,5), 4) #-- dummy
tx0 <- c(9, 4, 6, 5, 3, 10, 5, 3, 5)
x <- rep(0:8, tx0)
stopifnot(table(x) == tx0)

table( cut(x, b = 8))
table( cut(x, breaks = 3*(-2:5)))
table( cut(x, breaks = 3*(-2:5), right = FALSE))

##--- some values OUTSIDE the breaks :
table(cx <- cut(x, breaks = 2*(0:4)))
table(cxl <- cut(x, breaks = 2*(0:4), right = FALSE))
which(is.na(cx)); x[is.na(cx)] #-- the first 9 values 0
which(is.na(cxl)); x[is.na(cxl)] #-- the last 5 values 8

## Label construction:
y <- stats::rnorm(100)
table(cut(y, breaks = pi/3*(-3:3)))
table(cut(y, breaks = pi/3*(-3:3), dig.lab = 4))

table(cut(y, breaks = 1*(-3:3), dig.lab = 4))
# extra digits don't "harm" here
table(cut(y, breaks = 1*(-3:3), right = FALSE))
#- the same, since no exact INT!

## sometimes the default dig.lab is not enough to be avoid confusion:
aaa <- c(1,2,3,4,5,2,3,4,5,6,7)
cut(aaa, 3)
cut(aaa, 3, dig.lab = 4, ordered = TRUE)

## one way to extract the breakpoints
labs <- levels(cut(aaa, 3))
```

```
cbind(lower = as.numeric( sub("\\((.+),.*", "\\1", labs) ),
      upper = as.numeric( sub("[^,]*(^[^,]*)\\]", "\\1", labs) ))
```

cut.POSIXt

*Convert a Date or Date-Time Object to a Factor***Description**

Method for `cut` applied to date-time objects.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
cut(x, breaks, labels = NULL, start.on.monday = TRUE,
    right = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'Date'
cut(x, breaks, labels = NULL, start.on.monday = TRUE,
    right = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object inheriting from class "POSIXt" or "Date".
<code>breaks</code>	a vector of cut points <i>or</i> number giving the number of intervals which <code>x</code> is to be cut into <i>or</i> an interval specification, one of "sec", "min", "hour", "day", "DSTday", "week", "month", "quarter" or "year", optionally preceded by an integer and a space, or followed by "s". (For "Date" objects only interval specifications using "day", "week", "month", "quarter" and "year" are allowed.)
<code>labels</code>	labels for the levels of the resulting category. By default, labels are constructed from the left-hand end of the intervals (which are included for the default value of <code>right</code>). If <code>labels = FALSE</code> , simple integer codes are returned instead of a factor.
<code>start.on.monday</code>	logical. If <code>breaks = "weeks"</code> , should the week start on Mondays or Sundays?
<code>right, ...</code>	arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

Note that the default for `right` differs from the [default method](#). Using `include.lowest = TRUE` will include both ends of the range of dates.

Using `breaks = "quarter"` will create intervals of 3 calendar months, with the intervals beginning on January 1, April 1, July 1 or October 1 (based upon `min(x)`) as appropriate.

A vector of `breaks` will be sorted before use: `labels` should correspond to the sorted vector.

Value

A factor is returned, unless `labels = FALSE` which returns the integer level codes.

Values which fall outside the range of breaks are coded as NA, as are and NA values.

See Also

[seq.POSIXt](#), [seq.Date](#), [cut](#)

Examples

```
## random dates in a 10-week period
cut(ISOdate(2001, 1, 1) + 70*86400*stats::runif(100), "weeks")
cut(as.Date("2001/1/1") + 70*stats::runif(100), "weeks")

# The standards all have midnight as the start of the day, but some
# people incorrectly interpret it at the end of the previous day ...
tm <- seq(as.POSIXct("2012-06-01 06:00"), by = "6 hours", length.out = 24)
aggregate(1:24, list(day = cut(tm, "days")), mean)
# and a version with midnight included in the previous day:
aggregate(1:24, list(day = cut(tm, "days", right = TRUE)), mean)
```

data.class

Object Classes

Description

Determine the class of an arbitrary R object.

Usage

```
data.class(x)
```

Arguments

`x` an R object.

Value

character string giving the *class* of `x`.

The class is the (first element) of the [class](#) attribute if this is non-NULL, or inferred from the object's `dim` attribute if this is non-NULL, or `mode(x)`.

Simply speaking, `data.class(x)` returns what is typically useful for method dispatching. (Or, what the basic creator functions already and maybe eventually all will attach as a class attribute.)

Note

For compatibility reasons, there is one exception to the rule above: When `x` is [integer](#), the result of `data.class(x)` is "numeric" even when `x` is classed.

See Also

[class](#)

Examples

```
x <- LETTERS
data.class(factor(x))           # has a class attribute
data.class(matrix(x, ncol = 13)) # has a dim attribute
data.class(list(x))             # the same as mode(x)
data.class(x)                   # the same as mode(x)

stopifnot(data.class(1:2) == "numeric") # compatibility "rule"
```

data.frame	<i>Data Frames</i>
------------	--------------------

Description

This function creates data frames, tightly coupled collections of variables which share many of the properties of matrices and of lists, used as the fundamental data structure by most of R’s modeling software.

Usage

```
data.frame(..., row.names = NULL, check.rows = FALSE,
           check.names = TRUE,
           stringsAsFactors = default.stringsAsFactors())

default.stringsAsFactors()
```

Arguments

...	these arguments are of either the form value or tag = value. Component names are created based on the tag (if present) or the deparsed argument itself.
row.names	NULL or a single integer or character string specifying a column to be used as row names, or a character or integer vector giving the row names for the data frame.
check.rows	if TRUE then the rows are checked for consistency of length and names.
check.names	logical. If TRUE then the names of the variables in the data frame are checked to ensure that they are syntactically valid variable names and are not duplicated. If necessary they are adjusted (by make.names) so that they are.
stringsAsFactors	logical: should character vectors be converted to factors? The ‘factory-fresh’ default is TRUE, but this can be changed by setting options (stringsAsFactors = FALSE).

Details

A data frame is a list of variables of the same number of rows with unique row names, given class "data.frame". If no variables are included, the row names determine the number of rows.

The column names should be non-empty, and attempts to use empty names will have unsupported results. Duplicate column names are allowed, but you need to use `check.names = FALSE` for `data.frame` to generate such a data frame. However, not all operations on data frames will preserve duplicated column names: for example matrix-like subsetting will force column names in the result to be unique.

`data.frame` converts each of its arguments to a data frame by calling `as.data.frame(optional = TRUE)`. As that is a generic function, methods can be written to change the behaviour of arguments according to their classes: R comes with many such methods. Character variables passed to `data.frame` are converted to factor columns unless protected by `I` or argument `stringsAsFactors` is false. If a list or data frame or matrix is passed to `data.frame` it is as if each component or column had been passed as a separate argument (except for matrices of class "model.matrix" and those protected by `I`).

Objects passed to `data.frame` should have the same number of rows, but atomic vectors (see `is.vector`), factors and character vectors protected by `I` will be recycled a whole number of times if necessary (including as elements of list arguments).

If row names are not supplied in the call to `data.frame`, the row names are taken from the first component that has suitable names, for example a named vector or a matrix with `rownames` or a data frame. (If that component is subsequently recycled, the names are discarded with a warning.) If `row.names` was supplied as `NULL` or no suitable component was found the row names are the integer sequence starting at one (and such row names are considered to be 'automatic', and not preserved by `as.matrix`).

If row names are supplied of length one and the data frame has a single row, the `row.names` is taken to specify the row names and not a column (by name or number).

Names are removed from vector inputs not protected by `I`.

`default.stringsAsFactors` is a utility that takes `getOption("stringsAsFactors")` and ensures the result is `TRUE` or `FALSE` (or throws an error if the value is not `NULL`).

Value

A data frame, a matrix-like structure whose columns may be of differing types (numeric, logical, factor and character and so on).

How the names of the data frame are created is complex, and the rest of this paragraph is only the basic story. If the arguments are all named and simple objects (not lists, matrices of data frames) then the argument names give the column names. For an unnamed simple argument, a deparsed version of the argument is used as the name (with an enclosing `I(...)` removed). For a named matrix/list/data frame argument with more than one named column, the names of the columns are the name of the argument followed by a dot and the column name inside the argument: if the argument is unnamed, the argument's column names are used. For a named or unnamed matrix/list/data frame argument that contains a single column, the column name in the result is the column name in the argument. Finally, the names are adjusted to be unique and syntactically valid unless `check.names = FALSE`.

Note

In versions of R prior to 2.4.0 `row.names` had to be character: to ensure compatibility with such versions of R, supply a character vector as the `row.names` argument.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Data for models*. Chapter 3 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[I](#), [plot.data.frame](#), [print.data.frame](#), [row.names](#), [names](#) (for the column names), [\[.data.frame](#) for subsetting methods, [Math.data.frame](#) etc, about *Group* methods for data.frames; [read.table](#), [make.names](#).

Examples

```
L3 <- LETTERS[1:3]
fac <- sample(L3, 10, replace = TRUE)
(d <- data.frame(x = 1, y = 1:10, fac = fac))
## The "same" with automatic column names:
data.frame(1, 1:10, sample(L3, 10, replace = TRUE))

is.data.frame(d)

## do not convert to factor, using I() :
(dd <- cbind(d, char = I(letters[1:10])))
rbind(class = sapply(dd, class), mode = sapply(dd, mode))

stopifnot(1:10 == row.names(d)) # {coercion}

(d0 <- d[, FALSE]) # data frame with 0 columns and 10 rows
(d.0 <- d[FALSE, ]) # <0 rows> data frame (3 named cols)
(d00 <- d0[FALSE, ]) # data frame with 0 columns and 0 rows
```

data.matrix

Convert a Data Frame to a Numeric Matrix

Description

Return the matrix obtained by converting all the variables in a data frame to numeric mode and then binding them together as the columns of a matrix. Factors and ordered factors are replaced by their internal codes.

Usage

```
data.matrix(frame, rownames.force = NA)
```

Arguments

`frame` a data frame whose components are logical vectors, factors or numeric vectors.

`rownames.force` logical indicating if the resulting matrix should have character (rather than NULL) [rownames](#). The default, NA, uses NULL rownames if the data frame has 'auto-matic' row.names or for a zero-row data frame.

Details

Logical and factor columns are converted to integers. Any other column which is not numeric (according to [is.numeric](#)) is converted by [as.numeric](#) or, for S4 objects, [as](#)(, "numeric"). If all columns are integer (after conversion) the result is an integer matrix, otherwise a numeric (double) matrix.

Value

If `frame` inherits from class "data.frame", an integer or numeric matrix of the same dimensions as `frame`, with `dimnames` taken from the `row.names` (or NULL, depending on `rownames.force`) and `names`.

Otherwise, the result of [as.matrix](#).

Note

The default behaviour for data frames differs from R < 2.5.0 which always gave the result character rownames.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Data for models*. Chapter 3 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[as.matrix](#), [data.frame](#), [matrix](#).

Examples

```
DF <- data.frame(a = 1:3, b = letters[10:12],
                 c = seq(as.Date("2004-01-01"), by = "week", len = 3),
                 stringsAsFactors = TRUE)
data.matrix(DF[1:2])
data.matrix(DF)
```

date	<i>System Date and Time</i>
------	-----------------------------

Description

Returns a character string of the current system date and time.

Usage

```
date()
```

Value

The string has the form "Fri Aug 20 11:11:00 1999", i.e., length 24, since it relies on POSIX's ctime ensuring the above fixed format. Timezone and Daylight Saving Time are taken account of, but *not* indicated in the result.

The day and month abbreviations are always in English, irrespective of locale.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[Sys.Date](#) and [Sys.time](#); [Date](#) and [DateTimeClasses](#) for objects representing date and time.

Examples

```
(d <- date())
nchar(d) == 24

## something similar in the current locale
format(Sys.time(), "%a %b %d %H:%M:%S %Y")
```

Dates	<i>Date Class</i>
-------	-------------------

Description

Description of the class "Date" representing calendar dates.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'Date'
summary(object, digits = 12, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	An object summarized.
<code>digits</code>	Number of significant digits for the computations.
<code>...</code>	Further arguments to be passed from or to other methods.

Details

Dates are represented as the number of days since 1970-01-01, with negative values for earlier dates. They are always printed following the rules of the current Gregorian calendar, even though that calendar was not in use long ago (it was adopted in 1752 in Great Britain and its colonies).

It is intended that the date should be an integer, but this is not enforced in the internal representation. Fractional days will be ignored when printing. It is possible to produce fractional days via the `mean` method or by adding or subtracting (see [Ops.Date](#)).

The print methods respect `options("max.print")`.

See Also

[Sys.Date](#) for the current date.
[Ops.Date](#) for operators on "Date" objects.
[format.Date](#) for conversion to and from character strings.
[axis.Date](#) and [hist.Date](#) for plotting.
[weekdays](#) for convenience extraction functions.
[seq.Date](#), [cut.Date](#), [round.Date](#) for utility operations.
[DateTimeClasses](#) for date-time classes.

Examples

```
(today <- Sys.Date())
format(today, "%d %b %Y") # with month as a word
(tenweeks <- seq(today, length.out=10, by="1 week")) # next ten weeks
weekdays(today)
months(tenweeks)
as.Date(.leap.seconds)
```

DateTimeClasses

Date-Time Classes

Description

Description of the classes "POSIXlt" and "POSIXct" representing calendar dates and times.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'POSIXct'
print(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'POSIXct'
summary(object, digits = 15, ...)

time + z
z + time
time - z
time1 lop time2
```

Arguments

<code>x, object</code>	An object to be printed or summarized from one of the date-time classes.
<code>digits</code>	Number of significant digits for the computations: should be high enough to represent the least important time unit exactly.
<code>...</code>	Further arguments to be passed from or to other methods.
<code>time</code>	date-time objects
<code>time1, time2</code>	date-time objects or character vectors. (Character vectors are converted by as.POSIXct.)
<code>z</code>	a numeric vector (in seconds)
<code>lop</code>	One of <code>==</code> , <code>!=</code> , <code><</code> , <code><=</code> , <code>></code> or <code>>=</code> .

Details

There are two basic classes of date/times. Class "POSIXct" represents the (signed) number of seconds since the beginning of 1970 (in the UTC time zone) as a numeric vector. Class "POSIXlt" is a named list of vectors representing

`sec` 0–61: seconds.

`min` 0–59: minutes.

`hour` 0–23: hours.

`mday` 1–31: day of the month

`mon` 0–11: months after the first of the year.

`year` years since 1900.

`wday` 0–6 day of the week, starting on Sunday.

`yday` 0–365: day of the year.

`isdst` Daylight Saving Time flag. Positive if in force, zero if not, negative if unknown.

`zone` (Optional.) The abbreviation for the time zone in force at that time: "" if unknown (but "" might also be used for UTC).

`gmtoff` (Optional.) The offset in seconds from GMT: positive values are East of the meridian. Usually NA if unknown, but 0 could mean unknown.

(The last two components are not present for times in UTC and are platform-dependent: they are supported on platforms based on BSD or glibc (including Linux and OS X) and those using the tzcode implementation shipped with R (including Windows). But they are not necessarily set.). Note that the internal list structure is somewhat hidden, as many methods (including `length(x)`, `print()` and `str`) apply to the abstract date-time vector, as for "POSIXct". The classes correspond to the POSIX/C99 constructs of 'calendar time' (the `time_t` data type) and 'local time' (or broken-down time, the `struct tm` data type), from which they also inherit their names. The components of "POSIXlt" are integer vectors, except `sec` and `zone`.

"POSIXct" is more convenient for including in data frames, and "POSIXlt" is closer to human-readable forms. A virtual class "POSIXt" exists from which both of the classes inherit: it is used to allow operations such as subtraction to mix the two classes.

Components `wday` and `yday` of "POSIXlt" are for information, and are not used in the conversion to calendar time. However, `isdst` is needed to distinguish times at the end of DST: typically 1am to 2am occurs twice, first in DST and then in standard time. At all other times `isdst` can be deduced from the first six values, but the behaviour if it is set incorrectly is platform-dependent.

Logical comparisons and some arithmetic operations are available for both classes. One can add or subtract a number of seconds from a date-time object, but not add two date-time objects. Subtraction of two date-time objects is equivalent to using `difftime`. Be aware that "POSIXlt" objects will be interpreted as being in the current time zone for these operations unless a time zone has been specified.

"POSIXlt" objects will often have an attribute "tzone", a character vector of length 3 giving the time zone name from the TZ environment variable and the names of the base time zone and the alternate (daylight-saving) time zone. Sometimes this may just be of length one, giving the `time zone` name.

"POSIXct" objects may also have an attribute "tzone", a character vector of length one. If set to a non-empty value, it will determine how the object is converted to class "POSIXlt" and in particular how it is printed. This is usually desirable, but if you want to specify an object in a particular time zone but to be printed in the current time zone you may want to remove the "tzone" attribute (e.g., by `c(x)`).

Unfortunately, the conversion is complicated by the operation of time zones and leap seconds (26 days have been 86401 seconds long so far, the last at the time of writing being added in 2015: the times of the extra seconds are in the object `.leap.seconds`). The details of this are entrusted to the OS services where possible. It seems that some rare systems used to use leap seconds, but all known current platforms ignore them (as required by POSIX). This is detected and corrected for at build time, so "POSIXct" times used by R do not include leap seconds on any platform.

Using `c` on "POSIXlt" objects converts them to the current time zone, and on "POSIXct" objects drops any "tzone" attributes (even if they are all marked with the same time zone).

A few times have specific issues. First, the leap seconds are ignored, and real times such as "2005-12-31 23:59:60" are (probably) treated as the next second. However, they will never be generated by R, and are unlikely to arise as input. Second, on some OSes there is a problem in the POSIX/C99 standard with "1969-12-31 23:59:59 UTC", which is -1 in calendar time and that value is on those OSes also used as an error code. Thus `as.POSIXct("1969-12-31 23:59:59", format = "%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S", tz = "UTC")` may give NA, and hence `as.POSIXct("1969-12-31 23:59:59", tz = "UTC")` will give "1969-12-31 23:59:00". Other OSes (including the code used by R on Windows) report errors separately and so are able to handle that time as valid.

The print methods respect `options("max.print")`.

Sub-second Accuracy

Classes "POSIXct" and "POSIXlt" are able to express fractions of a second. (Conversion of fractions between the two forms may not be exact, but will have better than microsecond accuracy.)

Fractional seconds are printed only if `options("digits.secs")` is set: see `strftime`.

Valid ranges for times

The "POSIXlt" class can represent a very wide range of times (up to billions of years), but such times can only be interpreted with reference to a time zone.

The concept of time zones was first adopted in the nineteenth century, and the Gregorian calendar was introduced in 1582 but not universally adopted until 1927. OS services almost invariably assume the Gregorian calendar and may assume that the time zone that was first enacted for the location was in force before that date. (The earliest legislated time zone seems to have been London on 1847-12-01.) Some OSes assume the previous use of 'local time' based on the longitude of a location within the time zone.

Most operating systems represent POSIXct times as C type long. This means that on 32-bit OSes this covers the period 1902 to 2037. On all known 64-bit platforms and for the code we use on 32-bit Windows, the range of representable times is billions of years: however, not all can convert correctly times before 1902 or after 2037. A few benighted OSes used a unsigned type and so cannot represent times before 1970.

Where possible the platform limits are detected, and outside the limits we use our own C code. This uses the offset from GMT in use either for 1902 (when there was no DST) or that predicted for one of 2030 to 2037 (chosen so that the likely DST transition days are Sundays), and uses the alternate (daylight-saving) time zone only if `isdst` is positive or (if -1) if DST was predicted to be in operation in the 2030s on that day.

Note that there are places (e.g., Rome) whose offset from UTC varied in the years prior to 1902, and these will be handled correctly only where there is OS support.

There is no reason to suppose that the DST rules will remain the same in the future, and indeed the US legislated in 2005 to change its rules as from 2007, with a possible future reversion. So conversions for times more than a year or two ahead are speculative.

Warnings

Some Unix-like systems (especially Linux ones) do not have environment variable TZ set, yet have internal code that expects it (as does POSIX). We have tried to work around this, but if you get unexpected results try setting TZ. See `Sys.timezone` for valid settings.

Great care is needed when comparing objects of class "POSIXlt". Not only are components and attributes optional; several components may have values meaning 'not yet determined' and the same time represented in different time zones will look quite different.

References

Ripley, B. D. and Hornik, K. (2001) Date-time classes. *R News*, **1/2**, 8–11. https://www.r-project.org/doc/Rnews/Rnews_2001-2.pdf

See Also

[Dates](#) for dates without times.

[as.POSIXct](#) and [as.POSIXlt](#) for conversion between the classes.

[strptime](#) for conversion to and from character representations.

[Sys.time](#) for clock time as a "POSIXct" object.

[difftime](#) for time intervals.

[cut.POSIXt](#), [seq.POSIXt](#), [round.POSIXt](#) and [trunc.POSIXt](#) for methods for these classes.

[weekdays](#) for convenience extraction functions.

Examples

```
(z <- Sys.time())           # the current date, as class "POSIXct"

Sys.time() - 3600           # an hour ago

as.POSIXlt(Sys.time(), "GMT") # the current time in GMT
format(.leap.seconds)        # the leap seconds in your time zone
print(.leap.seconds, tz = "PST8PDT") # and in Seattle's

## look at *internal* representation of "POSIXlt" :
leapS <- as.POSIXlt(.leap.seconds)
names(leapS) ; is.list(leapS)
## str() "too smart" --> need unclass(.):
utils::str(unclass(leapS), vec.len = 7)
```

dcf

Read and Write Data in DCF Format

Description

Reads or writes an R object from/to a file in Debian Control File format.

Usage

```
read.dcf(file, fields = NULL, all = FALSE, keep.white = NULL)

write.dcf(x, file = "", append = FALSE,
          indent = 0.1 * getOption("width"),
          width = 0.9 * getOption("width"),
          keep.white = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	either a character string naming a file or a connection . <code>""</code> indicates output to the console. For <code>read.dcf</code> this can name a compressed file (see gzfile).
<code>fields</code>	Fields to read from the DCF file. Default is to read all fields.
<code>all</code>	a logical indicating whether in case of multiple occurrences of a field in a record, all these should be gathered. If <code>all</code> is false (default), only the last such occurrence is used.
<code>keep.white</code>	a character string with the names of the fields for which whitespace should be kept as is, or NULL (default) indicating that there are no such fields. Coerced to character if possible. For fields where whitespace is not to be kept as is, <code>read.dcf</code> removes leading and trailing whitespace, and <code>write.dcf</code> folds using strwrap .
<code>x</code>	the object to be written, typically a data frame. If not, it is attempted to coerce <code>x</code> to a data frame.
<code>append</code>	logical. If TRUE, the output is appended to the file. If FALSE, any existing file of the name is destroyed.
<code>indent</code>	a positive integer specifying the indentation for continuation lines in output entries.
<code>width</code>	a positive integer giving the target column for wrapping lines in the output.

Details

DCF is a simple format for storing databases in plain text files that can easily be directly read and written by humans. DCF is used in various places to store R system information, like descriptions and contents of packages.

The DCF rules as implemented in R are:

1. A database consists of one or more records, each with one or more named fields. Not every record must contain each field. Fields may appear more than once in a record.
2. Regular lines start with a non-whitespace character.
3. Regular lines are of form `tag:value`, i.e., have a name `tag` and a value for the field, separated by `:` (only the first `:` counts). The value can be empty (i.e., whitespace only).
4. Lines starting with whitespace are continuation lines (to the preceding field) if at least one character in the line is non-whitespace. Continuation lines where the only non-whitespace character is a `'.'` are taken as blank lines (allowing for multi-paragraph field values).
5. Records are separated by one or more empty (i.e., whitespace only) lines.
6. Individual lines may not be arbitrarily long; prior to R 3.0.2 the length limit was approximately 8191 bytes per line.

Note that `read.dcf(all = FALSE)` reads the file byte-by-byte. This allows a 'DESCRIPTION' file to be read and only its ASCII fields used, or its 'Encoding' field used to re-encode the remaining fields.

`write.dcf` does not write NA fields.

Value

The default `read.dcf(all = FALSE)` returns a character matrix with one row per record and one column per field. Leading and trailing whitespace of field values is ignored unless a field is listed in `keep.white`. If a tag name is specified in the file, but the corresponding value is empty, then an empty string is returned. If the tag name of a field is specified in `fields` but never used in a record, then the corresponding value is `NA`. If fields are repeated within a record, the last one encountered is returned. Malformed lines lead to an error.

For `read.dcf(all = TRUE)` a data frame is returned, again with one row per record and one column per field. The columns are lists of character vectors for fields with multiple occurrences, and character vectors otherwise.

Note that an empty file is a valid DCF file, and `read.dcf` will return a zero-row matrix or data frame.

For `write.dcf`, invisible `NULL`.

References

<https://www.debian.org/doc/debian-policy/ch-controlfields.html>.

Note that R does not require encoding in UTF-8, which is a recent Debian requirement. Nor does it use the Debian-specific sub-format which allows comment lines starting with `#`.

See Also

[write.table](#).

[available.packages](#), which uses `read.dcf` to read the indices of package repositories.

Examples

```
## Create a reduced version of the DESCRIPTION file in package 'splines'
x <- read.dcf(file = system.file("DESCRIPTION", package = "splines"),
              fields = c("Package", "Version", "Title"))
write.dcf(x)

## An online DCF file with multiple records
con <- url("http://cran.r-project.org/src/contrib/PACKAGES")
y <- read.dcf(con, all = TRUE)
close(con)
utils::str(y)
```

debug

Debug a Function

Description

Set, unset or query the debugging flag on a function. The `text` and `condition` arguments are the same as those that can be supplied via a call to `browser`. They can be retrieved by the user once the browser has been entered, and provide a mechanism to allow users to identify which breakpoint has been activated.

Usage

```
debug(fun, text = "", condition = NULL)
debugonce(fun, text = "", condition = NULL)
undebug(fun)
isdebugged(fun)
debuggingState(on = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>fun</code>	any interpreted R function.
<code>text</code>	a text string that can be retrieved when the browser is entered.
<code>condition</code>	a condition that can be retrieved when the browser is entered.
<code>on</code>	logical; a call to the support function <code>debuggingState</code> returns TRUE if debugging is globally turned on, FALSE otherwise. An argument of one or the other of those values sets the state. If the debugging state is FALSE, none of the debugging actions will occur (but explicit browser calls in functions will continue to work).

Details

When a function flagged for debugging is entered, normal execution is suspended and the body of function is executed one statement at a time. A new browser context is initiated for each step (and the previous one destroyed).

At the debug prompt the user can enter commands or R expressions, followed by a newline. The commands are described in the [browser](#) help topic.

To debug a function which is defined inside another function, single-step though to the end of its definition, and then call `debug` on its name.

If you want to debug a function not starting at the very beginning, use [trace](#)(..., at = *) or [setBreakpoint](#).

Using `debug` is persistent, and unless debugging is turned off the debugger will be entered on every invocation (note that if the function is removed and replaced the debug state is not preserved). Use `debugonce` to enter the debugger only the next time the function is invoked.

In order to debug S4 methods (see [Methods](#)), you need to use [trace](#), typically calling [browser](#), e.g., as

```
trace("plot", browser, exit = browser, signature = c("track", "missing"))
```

The number of lines printed for the deparsed call when a function is entered for debugging can be limited by setting [options](#)(deparse.max.lines).

When debugging is enabled on a byte compiled function then the interpreted version of the function will be used until debugging is disabled.

See Also

[browser](#), [trace](#); [traceback](#) to see the stack after an Error: ... message; [recover](#) for another debugging approach.

Defunct	<i>Marking Objects as Defunct</i>
---------	-----------------------------------

Description

When a function is removed from R it should be replaced by a function which calls `.Defunct`.

Usage

```
.Defunct(new, package = NULL, msg)
```

Arguments

<code>new</code>	character string: A suggestion for a replacement function.
<code>package</code>	character string: The package to be used when suggesting where the defunct function might be listed.
<code>msg</code>	character string: A message to be printed, if missing a default message is used.

Details

`.Defunct` is called from defunct functions. Functions should be listed in `help("pkg-defunct")` for an appropriate pkg, including base (with the alias added to the respective Rd file).

See Also

[Deprecated.](#)

`base-defunct` and so on which list the defunct functions in the packages.

delayedAssign	<i>Delay Evaluation</i>
---------------	-------------------------

Description

`delayedAssign` creates a *promise* to evaluate the given expression if its value is requested. This provides direct access to the *lazy evaluation* mechanism used by R for the evaluation of (interpreted) functions.

Usage

```
delayedAssign(x, value, eval.env = parent.frame(1),
              assign.env = parent.frame(1))
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a variable name (given as a quoted string in the function call)
<code>value</code>	an expression to be assigned to <code>x</code>
<code>eval.env</code>	an environment in which to evaluate <code>value</code>
<code>assign.env</code>	an environment in which to assign <code>x</code>

Details

Both `eval.env` and `assign.env` default to the currently active environment.

The expression assigned to a promise by `delayedAssign` will not be evaluated until it is eventually ‘forced’. This happens when the variable is first accessed.

When the promise is eventually forced, it is evaluated within the environment specified by `eval.env` (whose contents may have changed in the meantime). After that, the value is fixed and the expression will not be evaluated again.

Value

This function is invoked for its side effect, which is assigning a promise to evaluate `value` to the variable `x`.

See Also

[substitute](#), to see the expression associated with a promise, if `assign.env` is not the `.GlobalEnv`.

Examples

```
msg <- "old"
delayedAssign("x", msg)
substitute(x) # shows only 'x', as it is in the global env.
msg <- "new!"
x # new!

delayedAssign("x", {
  for(i in 1:3)
    cat("yippee!\n")
  10
})

x^2 #- yippee
x^2 #- simple number

ne <- new.env()
delayedAssign("x", pi + 2, assign.env = ne)
## See the promise {without "forcing" (i.e. evaluating) it}:
substitute(x, ne) # 'pi + 2'

### Promises in an environment [for advanced users]: -----
```

```
e <- (function(x, y = 1, z) environment())(cos, "y", {cat(" H0!\n"); pi+2})
## How can we look at all promises in an env (w/o forcing them)?
gete <- function(e_)
  lapply(lapply(ls(e_), as.name),
         function(n) eval(substitute(substitute(X, e_), list(X=n))))

(exps <- gete(e))
sapply(exps, typeof)

(1e <- as.list(e)) # evaluates ("force"s) the promises
stopifnot(identical(unname(1e), lapply(exps, eval))) # and another "Ho!"
```

deparse	<i>Expression Deparsing</i>
---------	-----------------------------

Description

Turn unevaluated expressions into character strings.

Usage

```
deparse(expr, width.cutoff = 60L,
        backtick = mode(expr) %in%
          c("call", "expression", "(", "function"),
        control = c("keepInteger", "showAttributes", "keepNA"),
        nlines = -1L)
```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	any R expression.
<code>width.cutoff</code>	integer in $[20, 500]$ determining the cutoff (in bytes) at which line-breaking is tried.
<code>backtick</code>	logical indicating whether symbolic names should be enclosed in backticks if they do not follow the standard syntax.
<code>control</code>	character vector of deparsing options. See .deparseOpts .
<code>nlines</code>	integer: the maximum number of lines to produce. Negative values indicate no limit.

Details

This function turns unevaluated expressions (where ‘expression’ is taken in a wider sense than the strict concept of a vector of mode “expression” used in [expression](#)) into character strings (a kind of inverse to [parse](#)).

A typical use of this is to create informative labels for data sets and plots. The example shows a simple use of this facility. It uses the functions `deparse` and `substitute` to create labels for a plot which are character string versions of the actual arguments to the function `myplot`.

The default for the `backtick` option is not to quote single symbols but only composite expressions. This is a compromise to avoid breaking existing code.

Using `control = "all"` comes closest to making `deparse()` an inverse of `parse()`. However, not all objects are `deparse`-able even with this option and a warning will be issued if the function recognizes that it is being asked to do the impossible.

Numeric and complex vectors are converted using 15 significant digits: see [as.character](#) for more details.

`width.cutoff` is a lower bound for the line lengths: deparsing a line proceeds until at least `width.cutoff bytes` have been output and e.g. `arg = value` expressions will not be split across lines.

Note

To avoid the risk of a source attribute out of sync with the actual function definition, the source attribute of a function will never be `deparse`d as an attribute.

Deparsing internal structures may not be accurate: for example the graphics display list recorded by [recordPlot](#) is not intended to be `deparse`d and `.` Internal calls will be shown as primitive calls.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[substitute](#), [parse](#), [expression](#).

Quotes for quoting conventions, including backticks.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)

deparse(args(lm))
deparse(args(lm), width = 500)
myplot <-
function(x, y) {
  plot(x, y, xlab = deparse(substitute(x)),
       ylab = deparse(substitute(y)))
}
e <- quote(`foo bar`)
deparse(e)
deparse(e, backtick = TRUE)
e <- quote(`foo bar`+1)
deparse(e)
deparse(e, control = "all")
```

deparseOpts
Options for Expression Deparsing

Description

Process the deparsing options for `deparse`, `dput` and `dump`.

Usage

```
.deparseOpts(control)
```

Arguments

`control` character vector of deparsing options.

Details

This is called by `deparse`, `dput` and `dump` to process their `control` argument.

The `control` argument is a vector containing zero or more of the following strings. Partial string matching is used.

`keepInteger` Either surround integer vectors by `as.integer()` or use suffix `L`, so they are not converted to type `double` when parsed. This includes making sure that integer NAs are preserved (via `NA_integer_` if there are no non-NA values in the vector, unless `"S_compatible"` is set).

`quoteExpressions` Surround expressions with `quote()`, so they are not evaluated when re-parsed.

`showAttributes` If the object has attributes (other than a source attribute), use `structure()` to display them as well as the object value. This is the default for `deparse` and `dput`.

`useSource` If the object has a source attribute, display that instead of deparsing the object. Currently only applies to function definitions.

`warnIncomplete` Some exotic objects such as `environments`, external pointers, etc. can not be deparsed properly. This option causes a warning to be issued if the deparser recognizes one of these situations.

Also, the parser in `R < 2.7.0` would only accept strings of up to 8192 bytes, and this option gives a warning for longer strings.

`keepNA` Integer, real and character NAs are surrounded by coercion functions where necessary to ensure that they are parsed to the same type. Since e.g. `NA_real_` can be output in `R`, this is mainly used in connection with `S_compatible`.

`all` An abbreviated way to specify all of the options listed above. This is the default for `dump`, and the options used by `edit` (which are fixed).

`delayPromises` Deparse promises in the form `<promise: expression>` rather than evaluating them. The value and the environment of the promise will not be shown and the deparsed code cannot be sourced.

S_compatible Make deparsing as far as possible compatible with S and R < 2.5.0. For compatibility with S, integer values of double vectors are deparsed with a trailing decimal point. Backticks are not used.

hexNumeric Real and finite complex numbers are output in “%a” format as binary fractions (coded as hexadecimal: see [sprintf](#)) with maximal opportunity to be recorded exactly to full precision. Complex numbers with one or both non-finite components are output as if this option were not set.

(This relies on that format being correctly supported: known problems on Windows are worked around as from R 3.1.2.)

digits17 Real and finite complex numbers are output using format “%.17g” which may give more precision than the default (but the output will depend on the platform and there may be loss of precision when read back). Complex numbers with one or both non-finite components are output as if this option were not set.

For the most readable (but perhaps incomplete) display, use `control = NULL`. This displays the object’s value, but not its attributes. The default in [deparse](#) is to display the attributes as well, but not to use any of the other options to make the result parseable. ([dput](#) and [dump](#) do use more default options, and printing of functions without sources uses `c("keepInteger", "keepNA")`.)

Using `control = "all"` comes closest to making `deparse()` an inverse of `parse()`. However, not all objects are deparse-able even with this option. A warning will be issued if the function recognizes that it is being asked to do the impossible. Also, representing double and complex numbers as decimals may well not be exact.

Only one of "hexNumeric" and "digits17" can be specified.

Value

A numerical value corresponding to the options selected.

Deprecated

Marking Objects as Deprecated

Description

When an object is about to be removed from R it is first deprecated and should include a call to `.Deprecated`.

Usage

```
.Deprecated(new, package=NULL, msg,
            old = as.character(sys.call(sys.parent()))[1L])
```

Arguments

new	character string: A suggestion for a replacement function.
package	character string: The package to be used when suggesting where the deprecated function might be listed.
msg	character string: A message to be printed, if missing a default message is used.
old	character string specifying the function (default) or usage which is being deprecated.

Details

`.Deprecated("<new name>")` is called from deprecated functions. The original help page for these functions is often available at `help("oldName-deprecated")` (note the quotes). Functions should be listed in `help("pkg-deprecated")` for an appropriate pkg, including base.

See Also

[Defunct](#)

base-deprecated and so on which list the deprecated functions in the packages.

det

Calculate the Determinant of a Matrix

Description

`det` calculates the determinant of a matrix. `determinant` is a generic function that returns separately the modulus of the determinant, optionally on the logarithm scale, and the sign of the determinant.

Usage

```
det(x, ...)
determinant(x, logarithm = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

x	numeric matrix: logical matrices are coerced to numeric.
logarithm	logical; if TRUE (default) return the logarithm of the modulus of the determinant.
...	Optional arguments. At present none are used. Previous versions of <code>det</code> allowed an optional method argument. This argument will be ignored but will not produce an error.

Details

The `determinant` function uses an LU decomposition and the `det` function is simply a wrapper around a call to `determinant`.

Often, computing the determinant is *not* what you should be doing to solve a given problem.

Value

For `det`, the determinant of `x`. For `determinant`, a list with components

<code>modulus</code>	a numeric value. The modulus (absolute value) of the determinant if <code>logarithm</code> is <code>FALSE</code> ; otherwise the logarithm of the modulus.
<code>sign</code>	integer; either <code>+1</code> or <code>-1</code> according to whether the determinant is positive or negative.

Examples

```
(x <- matrix(1:4, ncol = 2))
unlist(determinant(x))
det(x)

det(print(cbind(1, 1:3, c(2,0,1))))
```

<code>detach</code>	<i>Detach Objects from the Search Path</i>
---------------------	--

Description

Detach a database, i.e., remove it from the `search()` path of available **R** objects. Usually this is either a `data.frame` which has been `attached` or a package which was attached by `library`.

Usage

```
detach(name, pos = 2L, unload = FALSE, character.only = FALSE,
       force = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>name</code>	The object to detach. Defaults to <code>search()[pos]</code> . This can be an unquoted name or a character string but <i>not</i> a character vector. If a number is supplied this is taken as <code>pos</code> .
<code>pos</code>	Index position in <code>search()</code> of the database to detach. When <code>name</code> is a number, <code>pos = name</code> is used.
<code>unload</code>	A logical value indicating whether or not to attempt to unload the namespace when a package is being detached. If the package has a namespace and <code>unload</code> is <code>TRUE</code> , then detach will attempt to unload the namespace <i>via</i> <code>unloadNamespace</code> : if the namespace is imported by another namespace or <code>unload</code> is <code>FALSE</code> , no unloading will occur.
<code>character.only</code>	a logical indicating whether <code>name</code> can be assumed to be a character string.
<code>force</code>	logical: should a package be detached even though other attached packages depend on it?

Details

This is most commonly used with a single number argument referring to a position on the search list, and can also be used with a unquoted or quoted name of an item on the search list such as `package:tools`.

If a package has a namespace, detaching it does not by default unload the namespace (and may not even with `unload = TRUE`), and detaching will not in general unload any dynamically loaded compiled code (DLLs). Further, registered S3 methods from the namespace will not be removed. If you use `library` on a package whose namespace is loaded, it attaches the exports of the already loaded namespace. So detaching and re-attaching a package may not refresh some or all components of the package, and is inadvisable.

Value

The return value is `invisible`. It is `NULL` when a package is detached, otherwise the environment which was returned by `attach` when the object was attached (incorporating any changes since it was attached).

Good practice

`detach()` without an argument removes the first item on the search path after the workspace. It is all too easy to call it too many or too few times, or to not notice that the search path has changed since an `attach` call.

Use of `attach/detach` is best avoided in functions (see the help for `attach`) and in interactive use and scripts it is prudent to detach by name.

Note

You cannot detach either the workspace (position 1) nor the **base** package (the last item in the search list), and attempting to do so will throw an error.

Unloading some namespaces has undesirable side effects: e.g. unloading **grid** closes all graphics devices, and on some systems **tcltk** cannot be reloaded once it has been unloaded and may crash R if this is attempted.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`attach`, `library`, `search`, `objects`, `unloadNamespace`, `library.dynam.unload`.

Examples

```
require(splines) # package
detach(package:splines)
## or also
library(splines)
pkg <- "package:splines"
```

```

detach(pkg, character.only = TRUE)

## careful: do not do this unless 'splines' is not already attached.
library(splines)
detach(2) # 'pos' used for 'name'

## an example of the name argument to attach
## and of detaching a database named by a character vector
attach_and_detach <- function(db, pos = 2)
{
  name <- deparse(substitute(db))
  attach(db, pos = pos, name = name)
  print(search()[pos])
  detach(name, character.only = TRUE)
}
attach_and_detach(women, pos = 3)

```

diag

*Matrix Diagonals***Description**

Extract or replace the diagonal of a matrix, or construct a diagonal matrix.

Usage

```

diag(x = 1, nrow, ncol)
diag(x) <- value

```

Arguments

x	a matrix, vector or 1D array, or missing.
nrow, ncol	Optional dimensions for the result when x is not a matrix.
value	either a single value or a vector of length equal to that of the current diagonal. Should be of a mode which can be coerced to that of x.

Details

diag has four distinct usages:

1. x is a matrix, when it extracts the diagonal.
2. x is missing and nrow is specified, it returns an identity matrix.
3. x is a scalar (length-one vector) and the only argument, it returns a square identity matrix of size given by the scalar.
4. x is a numeric vector, either of length at least 2 or there were further arguments. This returns a matrix with the given diagonal and zero off-diagonal entries.

It is an error to specify nrow or ncol in the first case.

Value

If `x` is a matrix then `diag(x)` returns the diagonal of `x`. The resulting vector will have `names` if the matrix `x` has matching column and rownames.

The replacement form sets the diagonal of the matrix `x` to the given value(s).

In all other cases the value is a diagonal matrix with `nrow` rows and `ncol` columns (if `ncol` is not given the matrix is square). Here `nrow` is taken from the argument if specified, otherwise inferred from `x`: if that is a vector (or 1D array) of length two or more, then its length is the number of rows, but if it is of length one and neither `nrow` nor `ncol` is specified, `nrow = as.integer(x)`.

When a diagonal matrix is returned, the diagonal elements are one except in the fourth case, when `x` gives the diagonal elements: it will be recycled or truncated as needed, but fractional recycling and truncation will give a warning.

Note

Using `diag(x)` can have unexpected effects if `x` is a vector that could be of length one. Use `diag(x, nrow = length(x))` for consistent behaviour.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`upper.tri`, `lower.tri`, `matrix`.

Examples

```
require(stats)
dim(diag(3))
diag(10, 3, 4) # guess what?
all(diag(1:3) == {m <- matrix(0,3,3); diag(m) <- 1:3; m})

diag(var(M <- cbind(X = 1:5, Y = stats::rnorm(5))))
#-> vector with names "X" and "Y"

rownames(M) <- c(colnames(M), rep("", 3));
M; diag(M) # named as well
```

Description

Returns suitably lagged and iterated differences.

Usage

```
diff(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
diff(x, lag = 1, differences = 1, ...)

## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
diff(x, lag = 1, differences = 1, ...)

## S3 method for class 'Date'
diff(x, lag = 1, differences = 1, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector or matrix containing the values to be differenced.
lag	an integer indicating which lag to use.
differences	an integer indicating the order of the difference.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

diff is a generic function with a default method and ones for classes "[ts](#)", "[POSIXt](#)" and "[Date](#)".
[NA](#)'s propagate.

Value

If x is a vector of length n and differences = 1, then the computed result is equal to the successive differences $x[(1+lag):n] - x[1:(n-lag)]$.

If difference is larger than one this algorithm is applied recursively to x. Note that the returned value is a vector which is shorter than x.

If x is a matrix then the difference operations are carried out on each column separately.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[diff.ts](#), [diffinv](#).

Examples

```
diff(1:10, 2)
diff(1:10, 2, 2)
x <- cumsum(cumsum(1:10))
diff(x, lag = 2)
diff(x, differences = 2)
```

```
diff(.leap.seconds)
```

difftime

Time Intervals

Description

Time intervals creation, printing, and some arithmetic.

Usage

```
time1 - time2

difftime(time1, time2, tz,
          units = c("auto", "secs", "mins", "hours",
                    "days", "weeks"))

as.difftime(tim, format = "%X", units = "auto")

## S3 method for class 'difftime'
format(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'difftime'
units(x)
## S3 replacement method for class 'difftime'
units(x) <- value
## S3 method for class 'difftime'
as.double(x, units = "auto", ...)

## Group methods, notably for round(), signif(), floor(),
## ceiling(), trunc(), abs(); called directly, *not* as Math():
## S3 method for class 'difftime'
Math(x, ...)
```

Arguments

time1, time2	date-time or date objects.
tz	an optional time zone specification to be used for the conversion, mainly for "POSIXlt" objects.
units	character string. Units in which the results are desired. Can be abbreviated.
value	character string. Like units, except that abbreviations are not allowed.
tim	character string or numeric value specifying a time interval.
format	character specifying the format of tim: see strptime . The default is a locale-specific time format.
x	an object inheriting from class "difftime".
...	arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

Function `difftime` calculates a difference of two date/time objects and returns an object of class `"difftime"` with an attribute indicating the units. The `Math` group method provides `round`, `signif`, `floor`, `ceiling`, `trunc`, `abs`, and `sign` methods for objects of this class, and there are methods for the group-generic (see `Ops`) logical and arithmetic operations.

If `units = "auto"`, a suitable set of units is chosen, the largest possible (excluding `"weeks"`) in which all the absolute differences are greater than one.

Subtraction of date-time objects gives an object of this class, by calling `difftime` with `units = "auto"`. Alternatively, `as.difftime()` works on character-coded or numeric time intervals; in the latter case, units must be specified, and `format` has no effect.

Limited arithmetic is available on `"difftime"` objects: they can be added or subtracted, and multiplied or divided by a numeric vector. In addition, adding or subtracting a numeric vector by a `"difftime"` object implicitly converts the numeric vector to a `"difftime"` object with the same units as the `"difftime"` object. There are methods for `mean` and `sum` (via the `Summary` group generic).

The units of a `"difftime"` object can be extracted by the `units` function, which also has a replacement form. If the units are changed, the numerical value is scaled accordingly. The replacement version keeps attributes such as names and dimensions.

Note that `units = "days"` means a period of 24 hours, hence takes no account of Daylight Savings Time. Differences in objects of class `"Date"` are computed as if in the UTC time zone.

The `as.double` method returns the numeric value expressed in the specified units. Using `units = "auto"` means the units of the object.

The `format` method simply formats the numeric value and appends the units as a text string.

Note

Units such as `"months"` are not possible as they are not of constant length. To create intervals of months, quarters or years use `seq.Date` or `seq.POSIXt`.

See Also

[DateTimeClasses](#).

Examples

```
(z <- Sys.time() - 3600)
Sys.time() - z           # just over 3600 seconds.

## time interval between release days of R 1.2.2 and 1.2.3.
ISOdate(2001, 4, 26) - ISOdate(2001, 2, 26)

as.difftime(c("0:3:20", "11:23:15"))
as.difftime(c("3:20", "23:15", "2:"), format = "%H:%M") # 3rd gives NA
(z <- as.difftime(c(0,30,60), units = "mins"))
as.numeric(z, units = "secs")
as.numeric(z, units = "hours")
format(z)
```

dim	<i>Dimensions of an Object</i>
-----	--------------------------------

Description

Retrieve or set the dimension of an object.

Usage

```
dim(x)
dim(x) <- value
```

Arguments

x	an R object, for example a matrix, array or data frame.
value	For the default method, either NULL or a numeric vector, which is coerced to integer (by truncation).

Details

The functions `dim` and `dim<-` are [internal generic primitive](#) functions.

`dim` has a method for [data.frames](#), which returns the lengths of the `row.names` attribute of `x` and of `x` (as the numbers of rows and columns respectively).

Value

For an array (and hence in particular, for a matrix) `dim` retrieves the `dim` attribute of the object. It is NULL or a vector of mode [integer](#).

The replacement method changes the "dim" attribute (provided the new value is compatible) and removes any "dimnames" *and* "names" attributes.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[ncol](#), [nrow](#) and [dimnames](#).

Examples

```
x <- 1:12 ; dim(x) <- c(3,4)
x

# simple versions of nrow and ncol could be defined as follows
nrow0 <- function(x) dim(x)[1]
ncol0 <- function(x) dim(x)[2]
```

dimnames

Dimnames of an Object

Description

Retrieve or set the dimnames of an object.

Usage

```
dimnames(x)
dimnames(x) <- value

provideDimnames(x, sep = "", base = list(LETTERS), unique = TRUE)
```

Arguments

x	an R object, for example a matrix, array or data frame.
value	a possible value for dimnames(x): see the ‘Value’ section.
sep	a character string, used to separate base symbols and digits in the constructed dimnames.
base	a non-empty list of character vectors. The list components are used in turn (and recycled when needed) to construct replacements for empty dimnames components. See also the examples.
unique	logical indicating that the dimnames constructed are unique within each dimension in the sense of make.unique .

Details

The functions dimnames and dimnames<- are generic.

For an [array](#) (and hence in particular, for a [matrix](#)), they retrieve or set the dimnames attribute (see [attributes](#)) of the object. A list value can have names, and these will be used to label the dimensions of the array where appropriate.

The replacement method for arrays/matrices coerces vector and factor elements of value to character, but does not dispatch methods for `as.character`. It coerces zero-length elements to NULL, and a zero-length list to NULL. If value is a list shorter than the number of dimensions, it is extended with NULLs to the needed length.

Both have methods for data frames. The dimnames of a data frame are its [row.names](#) and its [names](#). For the replacement method each component of value will be coerced by `as.character`.

For a 1D matrix the [names](#) are the same thing as the (only) component of the dimnames.

Both are [primitive](#) functions.

`provideDimnames(x)` provides dimnames where “missing”, such that its result has [character](#) dimnames for each component. If unique is true as by default, they are unique within each component via `make.unique(*, sep=sep)`.

Value

The dimnames of a matrix or array can be NULL (which is not stored) or a list of the same length as `dim(x)`. If a list, its components are either NULL or a character vector with positive length of the appropriate dimension of `x`. The list can have names. It is possible that all components are NULL: such dimnames may get converted to NULL.

For the "data.frame" method both dimnames are character vectors, and the rownames must contain no duplicates nor missing values.

`provideDimnames(x)` returns `x`, with "NULL - free" dimnames, i.e. each component a character vector of correct length.

Note

Setting components of the dimnames, e.g., `dimnames(A)[[1]] <- value` is a common paradigm, but note that it will not work if the value assigned is NULL. Use [rownames](#) instead, or (as it does) manipulate the whole dimnames list.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[rownames](#), [colnames](#); [array](#), [matrix](#), [data.frame](#).

Examples

```
## simple versions of rownames and colnames
## could be defined as follows
rownames0 <- function(x) dimnames(x)[[1]]
colnames0 <- function(x) dimnames(x)[[2]]

(dn <- dimnames(A <- provideDimnames(N <- array(1:24, dim = 2:4))))
A0 <- A; dimnames(A)[2:3] <- list(NULL)
stopifnot(identical(A0, provideDimnames(A)))
strd <- function(x) utils::str(dimnames(x))
strd(provideDimnames(A, base= list(letters[-(1:9)], tail(LETTERS))))
strd(provideDimnames(N, base= list(letters[-(1:9)], tail(LETTERS)))) # recycling
strd(provideDimnames(A, base= list(c("AA","BB")))) # recycling on both levels
## set "empty dimnames":
provideDimnames(rbind(1, 2:3), base = list(""), unique=FALSE)
```

`do.call`*Execute a Function Call*

Description

`do.call` constructs and executes a function call from a name or a function and a list of arguments to be passed to it.

Usage

```
do.call(what, args, quote = FALSE, envir = parent.frame())
```

Arguments

<code>what</code>	either a function or a non-empty character string naming the function to be called.
<code>args</code>	a <i>list</i> of arguments to the function call. The <code>names</code> attribute of <code>args</code> gives the argument names.
<code>quote</code>	a logical value indicating whether to quote the arguments.
<code>envir</code>	an environment within which to evaluate the call. This will be most useful if <code>what</code> is a character string and the arguments are symbols or quoted expressions.

Details

If `quote` is `FALSE`, the default, then the arguments are evaluated (in the calling environment, not in `envir`). If `quote` is `TRUE` then each argument is quoted (see [quote](#)) so that the effect of argument evaluation is to remove the quotes – leaving the original arguments unevaluated when the call is constructed.

The behavior of some functions, such as [substitute](#), will not be the same for functions evaluated using `do.call` as if they were evaluated from the interpreter. The precise semantics are currently undefined and subject to change.

Value

The result of the (evaluated) function call.

Warning

This should not be used to attempt to evade restrictions on the use of `.` Internal and other non-API calls.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[call](#) which creates an unevaluated call.

Examples

```
do.call("complex", list(imag = 1:3))

## if we already have a list (e.g., a data frame)
## we need c() to add further arguments
tmp <- expand.grid(letters[1:2], 1:3, c("+", "-"))
do.call("paste", c(tmp, sep = ""))

do.call(paste, list(as.name("A"), as.name("B")), quote = TRUE)

## examples of where objects will be found.
A <- 2
f <- function(x) print(x^2)
env <- new.env()
assign("A", 10, envir = env)
assign("f", f, envir = env)
f <- function(x) print(x)
f(A) # 2
do.call("f", list(A)) # 2
do.call("f", list(A), envir = env) # 4
do.call(f, list(A), envir = env) # 2
do.call("f", list(quote(A)), envir = env) # 100
do.call(f, list(quote(A)), envir = env) # 10
do.call("f", list(as.name("A")), envir = env) # 100

eval(call("f", A)) # 2
eval(call("f", quote(A))) # 2
eval(call("f", A), envir = env) # 4
eval(call("f", quote(A)), envir = env) # 100
```

dontCheck

Identity Function to Suppress Checking

Description

The dontCheck function is the same as [identity](#), but is interpreted by R CMD check code analysis as a directive to suppress checking of x. Currently this is only used by [checkFF](#)(registration = TRUE) when checking the .NAME argument of foreign function calls.

Usage

```
dontCheck(x)
```

Arguments

x an R object.

See Also

`suppressForeignCheck` which explains why `that` and `dontCheck` are undesirable and should be avoided if at all possible.

double

Double-Precision Vectors

Description

Create, coerce to or test for a double-precision vector.

Usage

```
double(length = 0)
as.double(x, ...)
is.double(x)

single(length = 0)
as.single(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>length</code>	A non-negative integer specifying the desired length. Double values will be coerced to integer: supplying an argument of length other than one is an error.
<code>x</code>	object to be coerced or tested.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

`double` creates a double-precision vector of the specified length. The elements of the vector are all equal to 0. It is identical to `numeric`.

`as.double` is a generic function. It is identical to `as.numeric`. Methods should return an object of base type "double".

`is.double` is a test of double [type](#).

R has no single precision data type. All real numbers are stored in double precision format. The functions `as.single` and `single` are identical to `as.double` and `double` except they set the attribute `Csingle` that is used in the [.C](#) and [.Fortran](#) interface, and they are intended only to be used in that context.

Value

`double` creates a double-precision vector of the specified length. The elements of the vector are all equal to 0.

`as.double` attempts to coerce its argument to be of double type: like [as.vector](#) it strips attributes including names. (To ensure that an object is of double type without stripping attributes, use

`storage.mode`.) Character strings containing optional whitespace followed by either a decimal representation or a hexadecimal representation (starting with `0x` or `0X`) can be converted, as can special values such as `"NA"`, `"NaN"`, `"Inf"` and `"infinity"`, irrespective of case.

`as.double` for factors yields the codes underlying the factor levels, not the numeric representation of the labels, see also `factor`.

`is.double` returns TRUE or FALSE depending on whether its argument is of double `type` or not.

Double-precision values

All R platforms are required to work with values conforming to the IEC 60559 (also known as IEEE 754) standard. This basically works with a precision of 53 bits, and represents to that precision a range of absolute values from about 2×10^{-308} to 2×10^{308} . It also has special values `NaN` (many of them), plus and minus infinity and plus and minus zero (although R acts as if these are the same). There are also *denormal(ized)* (or *subnormal*) numbers with absolute values above or below the range given above but represented to less precision.

See `.Machine` for precise information on these limits. Note that ultimately how double precision numbers are handled is down to the CPU/FPU and compiler.

In IEEE 754-2008/IEC60559:2011 this is called ‘binary64’ format.

Note on names

It is a historical anomaly that R has two names for its floating-point vectors, `double` and `numeric` (and formerly had `real`).

`double` is the name of the `type`. `numeric` is the name of the `mode` and also of the implicit `class`. As an S4 formal class, use `"numeric"`.

The potential confusion is that R has used `mode "numeric"` to mean ‘double or integer’, which conflicts with the S4 usage. Thus `is.numeric` tests the mode, not the class, but `as.numeric` (which is identical to `as.double`) coerces to the class.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/IEEE_754-1985, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/IEEE_754-2008, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Double_precision, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Denormal_number.

<http://grouper.ieee.org/groups/754/> for links to information on the standards.

See Also

`integer`, `numeric`, `storage.mode`.

Examples

```
is.double(1)
all(double(3) == 0)
```

dput

*Write an Object to a File or Recreate it***Description**

Writes an ASCII text representation of an R object to a file or connection, or uses one to recreate the object.

Usage

```
dput(x, file = "",
      control = c("keepNA", "keepInteger", "showAttributes"))
```

```
dget(file, keep.source = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	an object.
file	either a character string naming a file or a connection . "" indicates output to the console.
control	character vector indicating deparsing options. See .deparseOpts for their description.
keep.source	logical: should the source formatting be retained when parsing functions, if possible?

Details

dput opens file and deparses the object x into that file. The object name is not written (unlike dump). If x is a function the associated environment is stripped. Hence scoping information can be lost.

Deparsing an object is difficult, and not always possible. With the default control, dput() attempts to deparse in a way that is readable, but for more complex or unusual objects (see [dump](#), not likely to be parsed as identical to the original. Use control = "all" for the most complete deparsing; use control = NULL for the simplest deparsing, not even including attributes.

dput will warn if fewer characters were written to a file than expected, which may indicate a full or corrupt file system.

To display saved source rather than deparsing the internal representation include "useSource" in control. R currently saves source only for function definitions. If you do not care about source representation (e.g., for a data object), for speed set options(keep.source = FALSE) when calling source.

Value

For dput, the first argument invisibly.

For dget, the object created.

Note

This is **not** a good way to transfer objects between R sessions. [dump](#) is better, but the function [save](#) is designed to be used for transporting R data, and will work with R objects that dput does not handle correctly as well as being much faster.

To avoid the risk of a source attribute out of sync with the actual function definition, the source attribute of a function will never be written as an attribute.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[deparse](#), [dump](#), [write](#).

Examples

```
## Write an ASCII version of function mean to the file "foo"
dput(mean, "foo")
## And read it back into 'bar'
bar <- dget("foo")
## Create a function with comments
baz <- function(x) {
  # Subtract from one
  1-x
}
## and display it
dput(baz)
## and now display the saved source
dput(baz, control = "useSource")

## Numeric values:
xx <- pi^(1:3)
dput(xx)
dput(xx, control = "digits17")
dput(xx, control = "hexNumeric")
dput(xx, "foo"); dget("foo") - xx # slight rounding on all platforms
dput(xx, "foo", control = "digits17")
dget("foo") - xx # slight rounding on some platforms
dput(xx, "foo", control = "hexNumeric"); dget("foo") - xx
unlink("foo")
```

drop

Drop Redundant Extent Information

Description

Delete the dimensions of an array which have only one level.

Usage

```
drop(x)
```

Arguments

`x` an array (including a matrix).

Value

If `x` is an object with a `dim` attribute (e.g., a matrix or [array](#)), then `drop` returns an object like `x`, but with any extents of length one removed. Any accompanying `dimnames` attribute is adjusted and returned with `x`: if the result is a vector the names are taken from the `dimnames` (if any). If the result is a length-one vector, the names are taken from the first dimension with a `dimname`.

Array subsetting ([\[\]](#)) performs this reduction unless used with `drop = FALSE`, but sometimes it is useful to invoke `drop` directly.

See Also

[drop1](#) which is used for dropping terms in models.

Examples

```
dim(drop(array(1:12, dim = c(1,3,1,1,2,1,2)))) # = 3 2 2
drop(1:3 %*% 2:4) # scalar product
```

droplevels

droplevels

Description

The function `droplevels` is used to drop unused levels from a factor or, more commonly, from factors in a data frame.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'factor'
droplevels(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
droplevels(x, except, ...)
```

Arguments

`x` an object from which to drop unused factor levels.

`...` further arguments passed to methods

`except` indices of columns from which *not* to drop levels

Details

The method for class "factor" is essentially equivalent to `factor(x)`.

The `except` argument follow the usual indexing rules.

Value

`droplevels` returns an object of the same class as `x`

Note

This function was introduced in R 2.12.0. It is primarily intended for cases where one or more factors in a data frame contains only elements from a reduced level set after subsetting. (Notice that subsetting does *not* in general drop unused levels). By default, levels are dropped from all factors in a data frame, but the `except` argument allows you to specify columns for which this is not wanted.

See Also

[subset](#) for subsetting data frames. [factor](#) for definition of factors. [drop](#) for dropping array dimensions. [drop1](#) for dropping terms from a model. [\[.factor\]](#) for subsetting of factors.

Examples

```
aq <- transform(airquality, Month = factor(Month, labels = month.abb[5:9]))
aq <- subset(aq, Month != "Jul")
table(aq$Month)
table(droplevels(aq)$Month)
```

 dump

Text Representations of R Objects

Description

This function takes a vector of names of R objects and produces text representations of the objects on a file or connection. A dump file can usually be [sourced](#) into another R session.

Usage

```
dump(list, file = "dumpdata.R", append = FALSE,
      control = "all", envir = parent.frame(), evaluate = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>list</code>	character vector. The names of one or more R objects to be dumped.
<code>file</code>	either a character string naming a file or a connection . "" indicates output to the console.
<code>append</code>	if TRUE and <code>file</code> is a character string, output will be appended to file; otherwise, it will overwrite the contents of file.

control	character vector indicating deparsing options. See .deparseOpts for their description.
envir	the environment to search for objects.
evaluate	logical. Should promises be evaluated?

Details

If some of the objects named do not exist (in scope), they are omitted, with a warning. If file is a file and no objects exist then no file is created.

sourcing may not produce an identical copy of dumped objects. A warning is issued if it is likely that problems will arise, for example when dumping exotic or complex objects (see the Note).

dump will also warn if fewer characters were written to a file than expected, which may indicate a full or corrupt file system.

A dump file can be [sourced](#) into another R (or perhaps S) session, but the function [save](#) is designed to be used for transporting R data, and will work with R objects that dump does not handle. For maximal reproducibility use `control = c("all", "hexNumeric")`.

To produce a more readable representation of an object, use `control = NULL`. This will skip attributes, and will make other simplifications that make source less likely to produce an identical copy. See [deparse](#) for details.

To deparse the internal representation of a function rather than displaying the saved source, use `control = c("keepInteger", "warnIncomplete", "keepNA")`. This will lose all formatting and comments, but may be useful in those cases where the saved source is no longer correct.

Promises will normally only be encountered by users as a result of lazy-loading (when the default `evaluate = TRUE` is essential) and after the use of [delayedAssign](#), when `evaluate = FALSE` might be intended.

Value

An invisible character vector containing the names of the objects which were dumped.

Note

As dump is defined in the base namespace, the **base** package will be searched *before* the global environment unless dump is called from the top level prompt or the `envir` argument is given explicitly.

To avoid the risk of a source attribute becoming out of sync with the actual function definition, the source attribute of a function will never be dumped as an attribute.

Currently environments, external pointers, weak references and objects of type S4 are not deparsed in a way that can be sourced. In addition, [language objects](#) are deparsed in a simple way whatever the value of `control`, and this includes not dumping their attributes (which will result in a warning).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[dput](#), [dget](#), [write](#).
[save](#) for a more reliable way to save R objects.

Examples

```
x <- 1; y <- 1:10
dump(ls(pattern = '[xyz]'), "xyz.Rdmped")
print(.Last.value)
unlink("xyz.Rdmped")
```

duplicated	<i>Determine Duplicate Elements</i>
------------	-------------------------------------

Description

`duplicated()` determines which elements of a vector or data frame are duplicates of elements with smaller subscripts, and returns a logical vector indicating which elements (rows) are duplicates.
`anyDuplicated(.)` is a “generalized” more efficient shortcut for `any(duplicated(.))`.

Usage

```
duplicated(x, incomparables = FALSE, ...)

## Default S3 method:
duplicated(x, incomparables = FALSE,
           fromLast = FALSE, nmax = NA, ...)

## S3 method for class 'array'
duplicated(x, incomparables = FALSE, MARGIN = 1,
           fromLast = FALSE, ...)

anyDuplicated(x, incomparables = FALSE, ...)
## Default S3 method:
anyDuplicated(x, incomparables = FALSE,
              fromLast = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'array'
anyDuplicated(x, incomparables = FALSE,
              MARGIN = 1, fromLast = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a vector or a data frame or an array or NULL.
<code>incomparables</code>	a vector of values that cannot be compared. FALSE is a special value, meaning that all values can be compared, and may be the only value accepted for methods other than the default. It will be coerced internally to the same type as <code>x</code> .

<code>fromLast</code>	logical indicating if duplication should be considered from the reverse side, i.e., the last (or rightmost) of identical elements would correspond to <code>duplicated = FALSE</code> .
<code>nmax</code>	the maximum number of unique items expected (greater than one).
<code>...</code>	arguments for particular methods.
<code>MARGIN</code>	the array margin to be held fixed: see apply , and note that <code>MARGIN = 0</code> maybe useful.

Details

These are generic functions with methods for vectors (including lists), data frames and arrays (including matrices).

For the default methods, and whenever there are equivalent method definitions for `duplicated` and `anyDuplicated`, `anyDuplicated(x, ...)` is a “generalized” shortcut for `any(duplicated(x, ...))`, in the sense that it returns the *index* `i` of the first duplicated entry `x[i]` if there is one, and `0` otherwise. Their behaviours may be different when at least one of `duplicated` and `anyDuplicated` has a relevant method.

`duplicated(x, fromLast = TRUE)` is equivalent to but faster than `rev(duplicated(rev(x)))`.

The data frame method works by pasting together a character representation of the rows separated by `\r`, so may be imperfect if the data frame has characters with embedded carriage returns or columns which do not reliably map to characters.

The array method calculates for each element of the sub-array specified by `MARGIN` if the remaining dimensions are identical to those for an earlier (or later, when `fromLast = TRUE`) element (in row-major order). This would most commonly be used to find duplicated rows (the default) or columns (with `MARGIN = 2`). Note that `MARGIN = 0` returns an array of the same dimensionality attributes as `x`.

Missing values are regarded as equal, but `NaN` is not equal to `NA_real_`.

Values in `incomparables` will never be marked as duplicated. This is intended to be used for a fairly small set of values and will not be efficient for a very large set.

When used on a data frame with more than one column, or an array or matrix when comparing dimensions of length greater than one, this tests for identity of character representations. This will catch people who unwisely rely on exact equality of floating-point numbers!

Character strings will be compared as byte sequences if any input is marked as “bytes” (see [Encoding](#)).

Except for factors, logical and raw vectors the default `nmax = NA` is equivalent to `nmax = length(x)`. Since a hash table of size `8*nmax` bytes is allocated, setting `nmax` suitably can save large amounts of memory. For factors it is automatically set to the smaller of `length(x)` and the number of levels plus one (for `NA`). If `nmax` is set too small there is liable to be an error: `nmax = 1` is silently ignored.

[Long vectors](#) are supported for the default method of `duplicated`, but may only be usable if `nmax` is supplied.

Value

`duplicated()`: For a vector input, a logical vector of the same length as `x`. For a data frame, a logical vector with one element for each row. For a matrix or array, and when `MARGIN = 0`, a logical array with the same dimensions and dimnames.

`anyDuplicated()`: an integer or real vector of length one with value the 1-based index of the first duplicate if any, otherwise 0.

Warning

Using this for lists is potentially slow, especially if the elements are not atomic vectors (see [vector](#)) or differ only in their attributes. In the worst case it is $O(n^2)$.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[unique](#).

Examples

```
x <- c(9:20, 1:5, 3:7, 0:8)
## extract unique elements
(xu <- x[!duplicated(x)])
## similar, same elements but different order:
(xu2 <- x[!duplicated(x, fromLast = TRUE)])

## xu == unique(x) but unique(x) is more efficient
stopifnot(identical(xu, unique(x)),
          identical(xu2, unique(x, fromLast = TRUE)))

duplicated(iris)[140:143]

duplicated(iris3, MARGIN = c(1, 3))
anyDuplicated(iris) ## 143

anyDuplicated(x)
anyDuplicated(x, fromLast = TRUE)
```

Description

Load or unload DLLs (also known as shared objects), and test whether a C function or Fortran subroutine is available.

Usage

```
dyn.load(x, local = TRUE, now = TRUE, ...)
dyn.unload(x)
```

```
is.loaded(symbol, PACKAGE = "", type = "")
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a character string giving the pathname to a DLL, also known as a dynamic shared object. (See ‘Details’ for what these terms mean.)
<code>local</code>	a logical value controlling whether the symbols in the DLL are stored in their own local table and not shared across DLLs, or added to the global symbol table. Whether this has any effect is system-dependent.
<code>now</code>	a logical controlling whether all symbols are resolved (and relocated) immediately the library is loaded or deferred until they are used. This control is useful for developers testing whether a library is complete and has all the necessary symbols, and for users to ignore missing symbols. Whether this has any effect is system-dependent.
<code>...</code>	other arguments for future expansion.
<code>symbol</code>	a character string giving a symbol name.
<code>PACKAGE</code>	if supplied, confine the search for the name to the DLL given by this argument (plus the conventional extension, ‘.so’, ‘.sl’, ‘.dll’, ...). This is intended to add safety for packages, which can ensure by using this argument that no other package can override their external symbols. This is used in the same way as in .C , .Call , .Fortran and .External functions.
<code>type</code>	The type of symbol to look for: can be any (“”, the default), “Fortran”, “Call” or “External”.

Details

The objects `dyn.load` loads are called ‘dynamically loadable libraries’ (abbreviated to ‘DLL’) on all platforms except OS X, which uses the term for a different sort of object. On Unix-alikes they are also called ‘dynamic shared objects’ (‘DSO’), or ‘shared objects’ for short. (The POSIX standards use ‘executable object file’, but no one else does.)

See ‘See Also’ and the ‘Writing R Extensions’ and ‘R Installation and Administration’ manuals for how to create and install a suitable DLL.

Unfortunately a very few platforms (e.g., Compaq Tru64) do not handle the `PACKAGE` argument correctly, and may incorrectly find symbols linked into R.

The additional arguments to `dyn.load` mirror the different aspects of the `mode` argument to the `dlopen()` routine on POSIX systems. They are available so that users can exercise greater control over the loading process for an individual library. In general, the default values are appropriate and you should override them only if there is good reason and you understand the implications.

The `local` argument allows one to control whether the symbols in the DLL being attached are visible to other DLLs. While maintaining the symbols in their own namespace is good practice, the ability to share symbols across related ‘chapters’ is useful in many cases. Additionally, on certain

platforms and versions of an operating system, certain libraries must have their symbols loaded globally to successfully resolve all symbols.

One should be careful of the potential side-effect of using lazy loading via the `now` argument as `FALSE`. If a routine is called that has a missing symbol, the process will terminate immediately. The intended use is for library developers to call with value `TRUE` to check that all symbols are actually resolved and for regular users to call with `FALSE` so that missing symbols can be ignored and the available ones can be called.

The initial motivation for adding these was to avoid such termination in the `_init()` routines of the Java virtual machine library. However, symbols loaded locally may not be (read probably) available to other DLLs. Those added to the global table are available to all other elements of the application and so can be shared across two different DLLs.

Some (very old) systems do not provide (explicit) support for local/global and lazy/eager symbol resolution. This can be the source of subtle bugs. One can arrange to have warning messages emitted when unsupported options are used. This is done by setting either of the options `verbose` or `warn` to be non-zero via the `options` function.

There is a short discussion of these additional arguments with some example code available at <http://cm.bell-labs.com/stat/duncan/R/dynload>.

Value

The function `dyn.load` is used for its side effect which links the specified DLL to the executing R image. Calls to `.C`, `.Call`, `.Fortran` and `.External` can then be used to execute compiled C functions or Fortran subroutines contained in the library. The return value of `dyn.load` is an object of class `DLLInfo`. See `getLoadedDLLs` for information about this class.

The function `dyn.unload` unlinks the DLL. Note that unloading a DLL and then re-loading a DLL of the same name may or may not work: on Solaris it uses the first version loaded.

`is.loaded` checks if the symbol name is loaded *and searchable* and hence available for use as a character string value for argument `.NAME` in `.C` or `.Fortran` or `.Call` or `.External`. It will succeed if any one of the four calling functions would succeed in using the entry point unless type is specified. (See `.Fortran` for how Fortran symbols are mapped.) Note that symbols in base packages are not searchable, and other packages can be so marked.

Warning

Do not use `dyn.unload` on a DLL loaded by `library.dynam`: use `library.dynam.unload`. This is needed for system housekeeping.

Note

`is.loaded` requires the name you would give to `.C` etc and **not** (as in S) that remapped by the defunct functions `symbol.C` or `symbol.For`.

The creation of DLLs and the runtime linking of them into executing programs is very platform dependent. In recent years there has been some simplification in the process because the C subroutine call `dlopen` has become the POSIX standard for doing this. Under Unix-alikes `dyn.load` uses the `dlopen` mechanism and should work on all platforms which support it. On Windows it uses the standard mechanism (`LoadLibrary`) for loading DLLs.

The original code for loading DLLs in Unix-alikes was provided by Heiner Schwarte.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`library.dynam` to be used inside a package's `.onLoad` initialization.

`SHLIB` for how to create suitable DLLs.

`.C`, `.Fortran`, `.External`, `.Call`.

Examples

```
## expect all of these to be false in R >= 3.0.0.
is.loaded("supsmu") # Fortran entry point in stats
is.loaded("supsmu", "stats", "Fortran")
is.loaded("PDF", type = "External") # pdf() device in grDevices
```

eapply

Apply a Function Over Values in an Environment

Description

`eapply` applies `FUN` to the named values from an [environment](#) and returns the results as a list. The user can request that all named objects are used (normally names that begin with a dot are not). The output is not sorted and no enclosing environments are searched.

This is a [primitive](#) function.

Usage

```
eapply(env, FUN, ..., all.names = FALSE, USE.NAMES = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>env</code>	environment to be used.
<code>FUN</code>	the function to be applied, found <i>via</i> match.fun . In the case of functions like <code>+</code> , <code>%*%</code> , etc., the function name must be backquoted or quoted.
<code>...</code>	optional arguments to <code>FUN</code> .
<code>all.names</code>	a logical indicating whether to apply the function to all values.
<code>USE.NAMES</code>	logical indicating whether the resulting list should have names .

Value

A named (unless `USE.NAMES = FALSE`) list. Note that the order of the components is arbitrary for hashed environments.

See Also

[environment](#), [lapply](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)

env <- new.env(hash = FALSE) # so the order is fixed
env$a <- 1:10
env$beta <- exp(-3:3)
env$logic <- c(TRUE, FALSE, FALSE, TRUE)
# what have we there?
utils::ls.str(env)

# compute the mean for each list element
eapply(env, mean)
unlist(eapply(env, mean, USE.NAMES = FALSE))

# median and quartiles for each element (making use of "... " passing):
eapply(env, quantile, probs = 1:3/4)
eapply(env, quantile)
```

eigen

Spectral Decomposition of a Matrix

Description

Computes eigenvalues and eigenvectors of numeric (double, integer, logical) or complex matrices.

Usage

```
eigen(x, symmetric, only.values = FALSE, EISPACK = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric or complex matrix whose spectral decomposition is to be computed. Logical matrices are coerced to numeric.
symmetric	if TRUE, the matrix is assumed to be symmetric (or Hermitian if complex) and only its lower triangle (diagonal included) is used. If <code>symmetric</code> is not specified, the matrix is inspected for symmetry.
only.values	if TRUE, only the eigenvalues are computed and returned, otherwise both eigenvalues and eigenvectors are returned.
EISPACK	logical. Defunct and ignored.

Details

If `symmetric` is unspecified, the code attempts to determine if the matrix is symmetric up to plausible numerical inaccuracies. It is faster and surer to set the value yourself.

Computing the eigenvectors is the slow part for large matrices.

Computing the eigendecomposition of a matrix is subject to errors on a real-world computer: the definitive analysis is Wilkinson (1965). All you can hope for is a solution to a problem suitably close to x . So even though a real asymmetric x may have an algebraic solution with repeated real eigenvalues, the computed solution may be of a similar matrix with complex conjugate pairs of eigenvalues.

Unsuccessful results from the underlying LAPACK code will result in an error giving a positive error code (most often 1): these can only be interpreted by detailed study of the FORTRAN code.

Value

The spectral decomposition of x is returned as components of a list with components

values	a vector containing the p eigenvalues of x , sorted in <i>decreasing</i> order, according to <code>Mod(values)</code> in the asymmetric case when they might be complex (even for real matrices). For real asymmetric matrices the vector will be complex only if complex conjugate pairs of eigenvalues are detected.
vectors	either a $p \times p$ matrix whose columns contain the eigenvectors of x , or <code>NULL</code> if only <code>values</code> is <code>TRUE</code> . The vectors are normalized to unit length. Recall that the eigenvectors are only defined up to a constant: even when the length is specified they are still only defined up to a scalar of modulus one (the sign for real matrices).

If `r <- eigen(A)`, and `V <- r$vectors`; `lam <- r$values`, then

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

(up to numerical fuzz), where $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\text{lam})$.

Source

`eigen` uses the LAPACK routines `DSYEV`, `DGEEV`, `ZHEEV` and `ZGEEV`.

LAPACK is from <http://www.netlib.org/lapack> and its guide is listed in the references.

References

- Anderson, E. and ten others (1999) *LAPACK Users' Guide*. Third Edition. SIAM. Available on-line at http://www.netlib.org/lapack/lug/lapack_lug.html.
- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. Springer-Verlag Lecture Notes in Computer Science **6**.
- Wilkinson, J. H. (1965) *The Algebraic Eigenvalue Problem*. Clarendon Press, Oxford.

See Also

[svd](#), a generalization of [eigen](#); [qr](#), and [chol](#) for related decompositions.

To compute the determinant of a matrix, the [qr](#) decomposition is much more efficient: [det](#).

Examples

```
eigen(cbind(c(1,-1), c(-1,1)))
eigen(cbind(c(1,-1), c(-1,1)), symmetric = FALSE)
# same (different algorithm).

eigen(cbind(1, c(1,-1)), only.values = TRUE)
eigen(cbind(-1, 2:1)) # complex values
eigen(print(cbind(c(0, 1i), c(-1i, 0)))) # Hermite ==> real Eigenvalues
## 3 x 3:
eigen(cbind( 1, 3:1, 1:3))
eigen(cbind(-1, c(1:2,0), 0:2)) # complex values
```

encodeString	<i>Encode Character Vector as for Printing</i>
--------------	--

Description

`encodeString` escapes the strings in a character vector in the same way `print.default` does, and optionally fits the encoded strings within a field width.

Usage

```
encodeString(x, width = 0, quote = "", na.encode = TRUE,
             justify = c("left", "right", "centre", "none"))
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A character vector, or an object that can be coerced to one by as.character .
<code>width</code>	integer: the minimum field width. If <code>NULL</code> or <code>NA</code> , this is taken to be the largest field width needed for any element of <code>x</code> .
<code>quote</code>	character: quoting character, if any.
<code>na.encode</code>	logical: should NA strings be encoded?
<code>justify</code>	character: partial matches are allowed. If padding to the minimum field width is needed, how should spaces be inserted? <code>justify == "none"</code> is equivalent to <code>width = 0</code> , for consistency with <code>format.default</code> .

Details

This escapes backslash and the control characters ‘\a’ (bell), ‘\b’ (backspace), ‘\f’ (formfeed), ‘\n’ (line feed), ‘\r’ (carriage return), ‘\t’ (tab) and ‘\v’ (vertical tab) as well as any non-printable characters in a single-byte locale, which are printed in octal notation (‘\xyz’ with leading zeroes).

Which characters are non-printable depends on the current locale. Windows’ reporting of printable characters is unreliable, so there all other control characters are regarded as non-printable, and all characters with codes 32–255 as printable in a single-byte locale. See [print.default](#) for how non-printable characters are handled in multi-byte locales.

If quote is a single or double quote any embedded quote of the same type is escaped. Note that justification is of the quoted string, hence spaces are added outside the quotes.

Value

A character vector of the same length as x, with the same attributes (including names and dimensions) but with no class set.

As from R 3.0.0, marked UTF-8 encodings are preserved.

Note

The default for width is different from `format.default`, which does similar things for character vectors but without encoding using escapes.

See Also

[print.default](#)

Examples

```
x <- "ab\\bc\\ndef"
print(x)
cat(x) # interprets escapes
cat(encodeString(x), "\\n", sep = "") # similar to print()

factor(x) # makes use of this to print the levels

x <- c("a", "ab", "abcde")
encodeString(x, width = NA) # left justification
encodeString(x, width = NA, justify = "c")
encodeString(x, width = NA, justify = "r")
encodeString(x, width = NA, quote = "'", justify = "r")
```

Encoding

Read or Set the Declared Encodings for a Character Vector

Description

Read or set the declared encodings for a character vector.

Usage

```
Encoding(x)
```

```
Encoding(x) <- value
```

```
enc2native(x)
```

```
enc2utf8(x)
```

Arguments

x	A character vector.
value	A character vector of positive length.

Details

Character strings in R can be declared to be encoded in "latin1" or "UTF-8" or as "bytes". These declarations can be read by `Encoding`, which will return a character vector of values "latin1", "UTF-8" "bytes" or "unknown", or set, when `value` is recycled as needed and other values are silently treated as "unknown". ASCII strings will never be marked with a declared encoding, since their representation is the same in all supported encodings. Strings marked as "bytes" are intended to be non-ASCII strings which should be manipulated as bytes, and never converted to a character encoding (so writing them to a text file is not supported).

`enc2native` and `enc2utf8` convert elements of character vectors to the native encoding or UTF-8 respectively, taking any marked encoding into account. They are [primitive](#) functions, designed to do minimal copying.

There are other ways for character strings to acquire a declared encoding apart from explicitly setting it (and these have changed as R has evolved). Functions [scan](#), [read.table](#), [readLines](#), and [parse](#) have an encoding argument that is used to declare encodings, [iconv](#) declares encodings from its `to` argument, and console input in suitable locales is also declared. [intToUtf8](#) declares its output as "UTF-8", and output text connections (see [textConnection](#)) are marked if running in a suitable locale. Under some circumstances (see its help page) [source\(encoding=\)](#) will mark encodings of character strings it outputs.

Most character manipulation functions will set the encoding on output strings if it was declared on the corresponding input. These include [chartr](#), [strsplit](#)(`useBytes` = FALSE), [tolower](#) and [toupper](#) as well as [sub](#)(`useBytes` = FALSE) and [gsub](#)(`useBytes` = FALSE). Note that such functions do not *preserve* the encoding, but if they know the input encoding and that the string has been successfully re-encoded (to the current encoding or UTF-8), they mark the output.

`substr` does preserve the encoding, and `chartr`, `tolower` and `toupper` preserve UTF-8 encoding on systems with Unicode wide characters. With their `fixed` and `perl` options, `strsplit`, `sub` and `gsub` will give a marked UTF-8 result if any of the inputs are UTF-8.

`paste` and `sprintf` return elements marked as bytes if any of the corresponding inputs is marked as bytes, and otherwise marked as UTF-8 if any of the inputs is marked as UTF-8.

`match`, `pmatch`, `charmatch`, `duplicated` and `unique` all match in UTF-8 if any of the elements are marked as UTF-8.

Value

A character vector.

For `enc2utf8` encodings are always marked: they are for `enc2native` in UTF-8 and Latin-1 locales.

Examples

```
## x is intended to be in latin1
x <- "fa\xE7ile"
Encoding(x)
Encoding(x) <- "latin1"
x
xx <- iconv(x, "latin1", "UTF-8")
Encoding(c(x, xx))
c(x, xx)
Encoding(xx) <- "bytes"
xx # will be encoded in hex
cat("xx = ", xx, "\n", sep = "")
```

environment

Environment Access

Description

Get, set, test for and create environments.

Usage

```
environment(fun = NULL)
environment(fun) <- value
```

```
is.environment(x)
```

```
.GlobalEnv
globalenv()
.BaseNamespaceEnv
```

```
emptyenv()
baseenv()
```

```
new.env(hash = TRUE, parent = parent.frame(), size = 29L)
```

```
parent.env(env)
parent.env(env) <- value
```

```
environmentName(env)
```

```
env.profile(env)
```

Arguments

<code>fun</code>	a function , a formula , or <code>NULL</code> , which is the default.
<code>value</code>	an environment to associate with the function
<code>x</code>	an arbitrary R object.
<code>hash</code>	a logical, if <code>TRUE</code> the environment will use a hash table.
<code>parent</code>	an environment to be used as the enclosure of the environment created.
<code>env</code>	an environment
<code>size</code>	an integer specifying the initial size for a hashed environment. An internal default value will be used if <code>size</code> is <code>NA</code> or zero. This argument is ignored if <code>hash</code> is <code>FALSE</code> .

Details

Environments consist of a *frame*, or collection of named objects, and a pointer to an *enclosing environment*. The most common example is the frame of variables local to a function call; its *enclosure* is the environment where the function was defined (unless changed subsequently). The enclosing environment is distinguished from the *parent frame*: the latter (returned by [parent.frame](#)) refers to the environment of the caller of a function. Since confusion is so easy, it is best never to use ‘parent’ in connection with an environment (despite the presence of the function `parent.env`).

When [get](#) or [exists](#) search an environment with the default `inherits = TRUE`, they look for the variable in the frame, then in the enclosing frame, and so on.

The global environment `.GlobalEnv`, more often known as the user’s workspace, is the first item on the search path. It can also be accessed by `globalenv()`. On the search path, each item’s enclosure is the next item.

The object `.BaseNamespaceEnv` is the namespace environment for the base package. The environment of the base package itself is available as `baseenv()`.

If one follows the chain of enclosures found by repeatedly calling `parent.env` from any environment, eventually one reaches the empty environment `emptyenv()`, into which nothing may be assigned.

The replacement function `parent.env<-` is extremely dangerous as it can be used to destructively change environments in ways that violate assumptions made by the internal C code. It may be removed in the near future.

The replacement form of environment, `is.environment`, `baseenv`, `emptyenv` and `globalenv` are [primitive](#) functions.

System environments, such as the base, global and empty environments, have names as do the package and namespace environments and those generated by `attach()`. Other environments can be named by giving a "name" attribute, but this needs to be done with care as environments have unusual copying semantics.

Value

If `fun` is a function or a formula then `environment(fun)` returns the environment associated with that function or formula. If `fun` is `NULL` then the current evaluation environment is returned.

The replacement form sets the environment of the function or formula `fun` to the value given.

`is.environment(obj)` returns `TRUE` if and only if `obj` is an environment.

`new.env` returns a new (empty) environment with (by default) enclosure the parent frame.

`parent.env` returns the enclosing environment of its argument.

`parent.env<-` sets the enclosing environment of its first argument.

`environmentName` returns a character string, that given when the environment is printed or "" if it is not a named environment.

`env.profile` returns a list with the following components: `size` the number of chains that can be stored in the hash table, `nchains` the number of non-empty chains in the table (as reported by `HASHPRI`), and `counts` an integer vector giving the length of each chain (zero for empty chains). This function is intended to assess the performance of hashed environments. When `env` is a non-hashed environment, `NULL` is returned.

See Also

For the performance implications of hashing or not, see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hash_table.

The `envir` argument of `eval`, `get`, and `exists`.

`ls` may be used to view the objects in an environment, and hence `ls.str` may be useful for an overview.

`sys.source` can be used to populate an environment.

Examples

```
f <- function() "top level function"

##-- all three give the same:
environment()
environment(f)
.GlobalEnv

ls(envir = environment(stats::approxfun(1:2, 1:2, method = "const")))

is.environment(.GlobalEnv) # TRUE

e1 <- new.env(parent = baseenv()) # this one has enclosure package:base.
e2 <- new.env(parent = e1)
assign("a", 3, envir = e1)
```

```
ls(e1)
ls(e2)
exists("a", envir = e2)  # this succeeds by inheritance
exists("a", envir = e2, inherits = FALSE)
exists("+", envir = e2)  # this succeeds by inheritance

eh <- new.env(hash = TRUE, size = NA)
with(env.profile(eh), stopifnot(size == length(counts)))
```

EnvVar

Environment Variables

Description

Details of some of the environment variables which affect an R session.

Details

It is impossible to list all the environment variables which can affect an R session: some affect the OS system functions which R uses, and others will affect add-on packages. But here are notes on some of the more important ones. Those that set the defaults for options are consulted only at startup (as are some of the others).

HOME: The user's 'home' directory.

LANGUAGE: Optional. The language(s) to be used for message translations. This is consulted when needed.

LC_ALL: (etc) Optional. Use to set various aspects of the locale – see [Sys.getlocale](#). Consulted at startup.

MAKEINDEX: The path to makeindex. If unset to a value determined when R was built. Used by the emulation mode of [texi2dvi](#) and [texi2pdf](#).

R_BATCH: Optional – set in a batch session, that is one started by R CMD [BATCH](#). Most often set to "", so test by something like `!is.na(Sys.getenv("R_BATCH", NA))`.

R_BROWSER: The path to the default browser. Used to set the default value of [options\("browser"\)](#).

R_COMPLETION: Optional. If set to FALSE, command-line completion is not used. (Not used by OS X GUI.)

R_DEFAULT_PACKAGES: A comma-separated list of packages which are to be attached in every session. See [options](#).

R_DOC_DIR: The location of the R 'doc' directory. Set by R.

R_ENVIRON: Optional. The path to the site environment file: see [Startup](#). Consulted at startup.

R_GSCMD: Optional. The path to Ghostscript, used by [dev2bitmap](#), [bitmap](#) and [embedFonts](#). Consulted when those functions are invoked. Since it will be treated as if passed to [system](#), spaces and shell metacharacters should be escaped.

R_HISTFILE: Optional. The path of the history file: see [Startup](#). Consulted at startup and when the history is saved.

R_HISTSIZE: Optional. The maximum size of the history file, in lines. Exactly how this is used depends on the interface. For the readline command-line interface it takes effect when the history is saved (by [savehistory](#) or at the end of a session).

R_HOME: The top-level directory of the R installation: see [R.home](#). Set by R.

R_INCLUDE_DIR: The location of the R ‘include’ directory. Set by R.

R_LIBS: Optional. Used for initial setting of [.libPaths](#).

R_LIBS_SITE: Optional. Used for initial setting of [.libPaths](#).

R_LIBS_USER: Optional. Used for initial setting of [.libPaths](#).

R_PAPERSIZE: Optional. Used to set the default for [options\("papersize"\)](#), e.g. used by [pdf](#) and [postscript](#).

R_PDFVIEWER: The path to the default PDF viewer. Used by R CMD Rd2pdf.

R_PLATFORM: The platform – a string of the form *cpu-vendor-os*, see [R.Version](#).

R_PROFILE: Optional. The path to the site profile file: see [Startup](#). Consulted at startup.

R_RD4PDF: Options for pdf_latex processing of Rd files. Used by R CMD Rd2pdf.

R_SHARE_DIR: The location of the R ‘share’ directory. Set by R.

R_TEXI2DVICMD: The path to `texi2dvi`. Defaults to the value of `TEXI2DVI`, and if that is unset to a value determined when R was built. Consulted at startup to set the default for [options\("texi2dvi"\)](#), used by [texi2dvi](#) and [texi2pdf](#) in package **tools**.

R_UNZIPCMD: The path to `unzip`. Sets the initial value for [options\("unzip"\)](#) on a Unix-alike when namespace **utils** is loaded.

R_ZIPCMD: The path to `zip`. Used by [zip](#) and by R CMD INSTALL --build on Windows.

TMPDIR, TMP, TEMP: Consulted (in that order) when setting the temporary directory for the session: see [tempdir](#). `TMPDIR` is also used by some of the utilities see the help for [build](#).

TZ: Optional. The current time zone. See [Sys.timezone](#) for the system-specific formats. Consulted as needed.

no_proxy, http_proxy, ftp_proxy: (and more). Optional. Settings for [download.file](#): see its help for further details.

Unix-specific

Some variables set on Unix-alikes, and not (in general) on Windows.

DISPLAY: Optional: used by [X11](#), Tk (in package **tktk**), the data editor and various packages.

EDITOR: The path to the default editor: sets the default for [options\("editor"\)](#) when namespace **utils** is loaded.

PAGER: The path to the pager with the default setting of [options\("pager"\)](#). The default value is chosen at configuration, usually as the path to `less`.

R_PRINTCMD: Sets the default for [options\("printcmd"\)](#), which sets the default print command to be used by [postscript](#).

See Also

[Sys.getenv](#) and [Sys.setenv](#) to read and set environmental variables in an R session.

[gctorture](#) for environment variables controlling garbage collection.

eval	<i>Evaluate an (Unevaluated) Expression</i>
------	---

Description

Evaluate an R expression in a specified environment.

Usage

```
eval(expr, envir = parent.frame(),
      enclos = if(is.list(envir) || is.pairlist(envir))
                 parent.frame() else baseenv())
evalq(expr, envir, enclos)
eval.parent(expr, n = 1)
local(expr, envir = new.env())
```

Arguments

expr	an object to be evaluated. See ‘Details’.
envir	the environment in which expr is to be evaluated. May also be NULL, a list, a data frame, a pairlist or an integer as specified to sys.call .
enclos	Relevant when envir is a (pair)list or a data frame. Specifies the enclosure, i.e., where R looks for objects not found in envir. This can be NULL (interpreted as the base package environment, baseenv()) or an environment.
n	number of parent generations to go back

Details

eval evaluates the expr argument in the environment specified by envir and returns the computed value. If envir is not specified, then the default is [parent.frame\(\)](#) (the environment where the call to eval was made).

Objects to be evaluated can be of types [call](#) or [expression](#) or [name](#) (when the name is looked up in the current scope and its binding is evaluated), a [promise](#) or any of the basic types such as vectors, functions and environments (which are returned unchanged).

The evalq form is equivalent to eval([quote\(expr\)](#), ...). eval evaluates its first argument in the current scope before passing it to the evaluator: evalq avoids this.

eval.parent(expr, n) is a shorthand for eval(expr, [parent.frame\(n\)](#)).

If envir is a list (such as a data frame) or pairlist, it is copied into a temporary environment (with enclosure enclos), and the temporary environment is used for evaluation. So if expr changes any of the components named in the (pair)list, the changes are lost.

If envir is NULL it is interpreted as an empty list so no values could be found in envir and look-up goes directly to enclos.

local evaluates an expression in a local environment. It is equivalent to evalq except that its default argument creates a new, empty environment. This is useful to create anonymous recursive functions and as a kind of limited namespace feature since variables defined in the environment are not visible from the outside.

Value

The result of evaluating the object: for an expression vector this is the result of evaluating the last element.

Note

Due to the difference in scoping rules, there are some differences between R and S in this area. In particular, the default enclosure in S is the global environment.

When evaluating expressions in a data frame that has been passed as an argument to a function, the relevant enclosure is often the caller's environment, i.e., one needs `eval(x, data, parent.frame())`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (eval only.)

See Also

[expression](#), [quote](#), [sys.frame](#), [parent.frame](#), [environment](#).

Further, [force](#) to *force* evaluation, typically of function arguments.

Examples

```
eval(2 ^ 2 ^ 3)
mEx <- expression(2^2^3); mEx; 1 + eval(mEx)
eval({ xx <- pi; xx^2 }) ; xx

a <- 3 ; aa <- 4 ; evalq(evalq(a+b+aa, list(a = 1)), list(b = 5)) # == 10
a <- 3 ; aa <- 4 ; evalq(evalq(a+b+aa, -1), list(b = 5))          # == 12

ev <- function() {
  e1 <- parent.frame()
  ## Evaluate a in e1
  aa <- eval(expression(a), e1)
  ## evaluate the expression bound to a in e1
  a <- expression(x+y)
  list(aa = aa, eval = eval(a, e1))
}
tst.ev <- function(a = 7) { x <- pi; y <- 1; ev() }
tst.ev() #-> aa : 7,  eval : 4.14

a <- list(a = 3, b = 4)
with(a, a <- 5) # alters the copy of a from the list, discarded.

##
## Example of evalq()
##

N <- 3
```

```

env <- new.env()
assign("N", 27, envir = env)
## this version changes the visible copy of N only, since the argument
## passed to eval is '4'.
eval(N <- 4, env)
N
get("N", envir = env)
## this version does the assignment in env, and changes N only there.
evalq(N <- 5, env)
N
get("N", envir = env)

##
## Uses of local()
##

# Mutually recursive.
# gg gets value of last assignment, an anonymous version of f.

gg <- local({
  k <- function(y)f(y)
  f <- function(x) if(x) x*k(x-1) else 1
})
gg(10)
sapply(1:5, gg)

# Nesting locals: a is private storage accessible to k
gg <- local({
  k <- local({
    a <- 1
    function(y){print(a <- a+1);f(y)}
  })
  f <- function(x) if(x) x*k(x-1) else 1
})
sapply(1:5, gg)

ls(envir = environment(gg))
ls(envir = environment(get("k", envir = environment(gg))))

```

exists

Is an Object Defined?

Description

Look for an R object of the given name and possibly return it

Usage

```
exists(x, where = -1, envir = , frame, mode = "any",
```

```

        inherits = TRUE)

get0(x, envir = pos.to.env(-1L), mode = "any", inherits = TRUE,
     ifnotfound = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a variable name (given as a character string).
<code>where</code>	where to look for the object (see the details section); if omitted, the function will search as if the name of the object appeared unquoted in an expression.
<code>envir</code>	an alternative way to specify an environment to look in, but it is usually simpler to just use the <code>where</code> argument.
<code>frame</code>	a frame in the calling list. Equivalent to giving <code>where</code> as <code>sys.frame(frame)</code> .
<code>mode</code>	the mode or type of object sought: see the ‘Details’ section.
<code>inherits</code>	should the enclosing frames of the environment be searched?
<code>ifnotfound</code>	the return value of <code>get0(x, *)</code> when <code>x</code> does not exist.

Details

The `where` argument can specify the environment in which to look for the object in any of several ways: as an integer (the position in the [search](#) list); as the character string name of an element in the search list; or as an [environment](#) (including using `sys.frame` to access the currently active function calls). The `envir` argument is an alternative way to specify an environment, but is primarily there for back compatibility.

This function looks to see if the name `x` has a value bound to it in the specified environment. If `inherits` is `TRUE` and a value is not found for `x` in the specified environment, the enclosing frames of the environment are searched until the name `x` is encountered. See [environment](#) and the ‘R Language Definition’ manual for details about the structure of environments and their enclosures.

Warning: `inherits = TRUE` is the default behaviour for `R` but not for `S`.

If `mode` is specified then only objects of that type are sought. The `mode` may specify one of the collections `"numeric"` and `"function"` (see [mode](#)): any member of the collection will suffice. (This is true even if a member of a collection is specified, so for example `mode = "special"` will seek any type of function.)

Value

`exists()`: Logical, true if and only if an object of the correct name and mode is found.

`get0()`: The object—as from `get(x, *)`—if `exists(x, *)` is true, otherwise `ifnotfound`.

Note

With `get0()`, instead of the easy to read but somewhat inefficient

```

if (exists(myVarName, envir = myEnvir)) {
  r <- get(myVarName, envir = myEnvir)
  ## ... deal with r ...
}

```

you now can use the more efficient (and slightly harder to read)

```
if (!is.null(r <- get0(myVarName, envir = myEnvir))) {
  ## ... deal with r ...
}
```

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[get](#). For quite a different kind of “existence” checking, namely if function arguments were specified, [missing](#); and for yet a different kind, namely if a file exists, [file.exists](#).

Examples

```
## Define a substitute function if necessary:
if(!exists("some.fun", mode = "function"))
  some.fun <- function(x) { cat("some.fun(x)\n"); x }
search()
exists("ls", 2) # true even though ls is in pos = 3
exists("ls", 2, inherits = FALSE) # false

## These are true (in most circumstances):
identical(ls, get0("ls"))
identical(NULL, get0(".foo.bar.")) # default ifnotfound = NULL (!)
```

expand.grid

Create a Data Frame from All Combinations of Factors

Description

Create a data frame from all combinations of the supplied vectors or factors. See the description of the return value for precise details of the way this is done.

Usage

```
expand.grid(..., KEEP.OUT.ATTRS = TRUE, stringsAsFactors = TRUE)
```

Arguments

... vectors, factors or a list containing these.

KEEP.OUT.ATTRS a logical indicating the "out.attrs" attribute (see below) should be computed and returned.

stringsAsFactors logical specifying if character vectors are converted to factors.

Value

A data frame containing one row for each combination of the supplied factors. The first factors vary fastest. The columns are labelled by the factors if these are supplied as named arguments or named components of a list. The row names are 'automatic'.

Attribute "out.attrs" is a list which gives the dimension and dimnames for use by [predict](#) methods.

Note

Conversion to a factor is done with levels in the order they occur in the character vectors (and not alphabetically, as is most common when converting to factors).

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[combn](#) (package [utils](#)) for the generation of all combinations of *n* elements, taken *m* at a time.

Examples

```
require(utils)

expand.grid(height = seq(60, 80, 5), weight = seq(100, 300, 50),
            sex = c("Male", "Female"))

x <- seq(0, 10, length.out = 100)
y <- seq(-1, 1, length.out = 20)
d1 <- expand.grid(x = x, y = y)
d2 <- expand.grid(x = x, y = y, KEEP.OUT.ATTRS = FALSE)
object.size(d1) - object.size(d2)
##-> 5992 or 8832 (on 32- / 64-bit platform)
```

expression

Unevaluated Expressions

Description

Creates or tests for objects of mode "expression".

Usage

```
expression(...)

is.expression(x)
as.expression(x, ...)
```

Arguments

... expression: R objects, typically calls, symbols or constants.
 as.expression: arguments to be passed to methods.

x an arbitrary R object.

Details

'Expression' here is not being used in its colloquial sense, that of mathematical expressions. Those are calls (see [call](#)) in R, and an R expression vector is a list of calls, symbols etc, for example as returned by [parse](#).

As an object of mode "expression" is a list, it can be subsetted by [, [[or \$, the latter two extracting individual calls etc. The replacement forms of these operators can be used to replace or delete elements.

expression and is.expression are [primitive](#) functions. expression is 'special': it does not evaluate its arguments.

Value

expression returns a vector of type "expression" containing its arguments (unevaluated).

is.expression returns TRUE if expr is an expression object and FALSE otherwise.

as.expression attempts to coerce its argument into an expression object. It is generic, and only the default method is described here. (The default method calls `as.vector(type = "expression")` and so may dispatch methods for [as.vector](#).) NULL, calls, symbols (see [as.symbol](#)) and pairlists are returned as the element of a length-one expression vector. Atomic vectors are placed element-by-element into an expression vector (without using any names): lists are changed type to an expression vector (keeping all attributes). Other types are not currently supported.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[call](#), [eval](#), [function](#). Further, [text](#) and [legend](#) for plotting mathematical expressions.

Examples

```
length(ex1 <- expression(1 + 0:9)) # 1
ex1
eval(ex1) # 1:10

length(ex3 <- expression(u, v, 1+ 0:9)) # 3
mode(ex3 [3]) # expression
mode(ex3[[3]]) # call
rm(ex3)
```

Extract

*Extract or Replace Parts of an Object***Description**

Operators acting on vectors, matrices, arrays and lists to extract or replace parts.

Usage

```
x[i]
x[i, j, ... , drop = TRUE]
x[[i, exact = TRUE]]
x[[i, j, ..., exact = TRUE]]
x$name
getElement(object, name)

x[i] <- value
x[i, j, ...] <- value
x[[i]] <- value
x$i <- value
```

Arguments

<code>x</code> , <code>object</code>	object from which to extract element(s) or in which to replace element(s).
<code>i</code> , <code>j</code> , ...	<p>indices specifying elements to extract or replace. Indices are numeric or character vectors or empty (missing) or NULL. Numeric values are coerced to integer as by <code>as.integer</code> (and hence truncated towards zero). Character vectors will be matched to the <code>names</code> of the object (or for matrices/arrays, the <code>dimnames</code>); see ‘Character indices’ below for further details.</p> <p>For [-indexing only: <code>i</code>, <code>j</code>, ... can be logical vectors, indicating elements/slices to select. Such vectors are recycled if necessary to match the corresponding extent. <code>i</code>, <code>j</code>, ... can also be negative integers, indicating elements/slices to leave out of the selection.</p> <p>When indexing arrays by <code>[</code> a single argument <code>i</code> can be a matrix with as many columns as there are dimensions of <code>x</code>; the result is then a vector with elements corresponding to the sets of indices in each row of <code>i</code>.</p> <p>An index value of NULL is treated as if it were <code>integer(0)</code>.</p>
<code>name</code>	A literal character string or a <code>name</code> (possibly <code>backtick</code> quoted). For extraction, this is normally (see under ‘Environments’) partially matched to the <code>names</code> of the object.
<code>drop</code>	For matrices and arrays. If TRUE the result is coerced to the lowest possible dimension (see the examples). This only works for extracting elements, not for the replacement. See <code>drop</code> for further details.
<code>exact</code>	Controls possible partial matching of <code>[[</code> when extracting by a character vector (for most objects, but see under ‘Environments’). The default is no partial

	matching. Value NA allows partial matching but issues a warning when it occurs. Value FALSE allows partial matching without any warning.
value	typically an array-like R object of a similar class as x.

Details

These operators are generic. You can write methods to handle indexing of specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#) as well as [\[.data.frame](#) and [\[.factor](#). The descriptions here apply only to the default methods. Note that separate methods are required for the replacement functions `[<-`, `[[<-` and `$<-` for use when indexing occurs on the assignment side of an expression.

The most important distinction between `[`, `[[` and `$` is that the `[` can select more than one element whereas the other two select a single element.

The default methods work somewhat differently for atomic vectors, matrices/arrays and for recursive (list-like, see [is.recursive](#)) objects. `$` is only valid for recursive objects, and is only discussed in the section below on recursive objects.

Subsetting (except by an empty index) will drop all attributes except names, dim and dimnames.

Indexing can occur on the right-hand-side of an expression for extraction, or on the left-hand-side for replacement. When an index expression appears on the left side of an assignment (known as *subassignment*) then that part of x is set to the value of the right hand side of the assignment. In this case no partial matching of character indices is done, and the left-hand-side is coerced as needed to accept the values. For vectors, the answer will be of the higher of the types of x and value in the hierarchy raw < logical < integer < double < complex < character < list < expression. Attributes are preserved (although names, dim and dimnames will be adjusted suitably). Subassignment is done sequentially, so if an index is specified more than once the latest assigned value for an index will result.

It is an error to apply any of these operators to an object which is not subsettable (e.g., a function).

Atomic vectors

The usual form of indexing is `[`. `[[` can be used to select a single element *dropping names*, whereas `[` keeps them, e.g., in `c(abc = 123)[1]`.

The index object i can be numeric, logical, character or empty. Indexing by factors is allowed and is equivalent to indexing by the numeric codes (see [factor](#)) and not by the character values which are printed (for which use `[as.character(i)]`).

An empty index selects all values: this is most often used to replace all the entries but keep the [attributes](#).

Matrices and arrays

Matrices and arrays are vectors with a dimension attribute and so all the vector forms of indexing can be used with a single index. The result will be an unnamed vector unless x is one-dimensional when it will be a one-dimensional array.

The most common form of indexing a k-dimensional array is to specify k indices to `[`. As for vector indexing, the indices can be numeric, logical, character, empty or even factor. An empty index (a comma separated blank) indicates that all entries in that dimension are selected. The argument drop applies to this form of indexing.

A third form of indexing is via a numeric matrix with the one column for each dimension: each row of the index matrix then selects a single element of the array, and the result is a vector. Negative indices are not allowed in the index matrix. NA and zero values are allowed: rows of an index matrix containing a zero are ignored, whereas rows containing an NA produce an NA in the result.

Indexing via a character matrix with one column per dimensions is also supported if the array has dimension names. As with numeric matrix indexing, each row of the index matrix selects a single element of the array. Indices are matched against the appropriate dimension names. NA is allowed and will produce an NA in the result. Unmatched indices as well as the empty string ("") are not allowed and will result in an error.

A vector obtained by matrix indexing will be unnamed unless *x* is one-dimensional when the row names (if any) will be indexed to provide names for the result.

Recursive (list-like) objects

Indexing by `[]` is similar to atomic vectors and selects a list of the specified element(s).

Both `[[` and `$` select a single element of the list. The main difference is that `$` does not allow computed indices, whereas `[[` does. `x$name` is equivalent to `x[["name", exact = FALSE]]`. Also, the partial matching behavior of `[[` can be controlled using the `exact` argument.

`getElement(x, name)` is a version of `x[[name, exact = TRUE]]` which for formally classed (S4) objects returns `slot(x, name)`, hence providing access to even more general list-like objects.

`[]` and `[[` are sometimes applied to other recursive objects such as `calls` and `expressions`. Pairlists are coerced to lists for extraction by `[]`, but all three operators can be used for replacement.

`[[` can be applied recursively to lists, so that if the single index *i* is a vector of length *p*, `alist[[i]]` is equivalent to `alist[[i1]]...[[ip]]` providing all but the final indexing results in a list.

Note that in all three kinds of replacement, a value of `NULL` deletes the corresponding item of the list. To set entries to `NULL`, you need `x[i] <- list(NULL)`.

When `$<-` is applied to a `NULL` *x*, it first coerces *x* to `list()`. This is what also happens with `[[<-` if the replacement value *value* is of length greater than one: if *value* has length 1 or 0, *x* is first coerced to a zero-length vector of the type of *value*.

Environments

Both `$` and `[[` can be applied to environments. Only character indices are allowed and no partial matching is done. The semantics of these operations are those of `get(i, env = x, inherits = FALSE)`. If no match is found then `NULL` is returned. The replacement versions, `$<-` and `[[<-`, can also be used. Again, only character arguments are allowed. The semantics in this case are those of `assign(i, value, env = x, inherits = FALSE)`. Such an assignment will either create a new binding or change the existing binding in *x*.

NAs in indexing

When extracting, a numerical, logical or character NA index picks an unknown element and so returns NA in the corresponding element of a logical, integer, numeric, complex or character result, and `NULL` for a list. (It returns `00` for a raw result.)

When replacing (that is using indexing on the lhs of an assignment) NA does not select any element to be replaced. As there is ambiguity as to whether an element of the rhs should be used or not,

this is only allowed if the rhs value is of length one (so the two interpretations would have the same outcome). (The documented behaviour of S was that an NA replacement index ‘goes nowhere’ but uses up an element of value: Becker *et al* p. 359. However, that has not been true of other implementations.)

Argument matching

Note that these operations do not match their index arguments in the standard way: argument names are ignored and positional matching only is used. So `m[j = 2, i = 1]` is equivalent to `m[2, 1]` and **not** to `m[1, 2]`.

This may not be true for methods defined for them; for example it is not true for the `data.frame` methods described in [\[.data.frame\]](#) which warn if `i` or `j` is named and have undocumented behaviour in that case.

To avoid confusion, do not name index arguments (but `drop` and `exact` must be named).

S4 methods

These operators are also implicit S4 generics, but as primitives, S4 methods will be dispatched only on S4 objects `x`.

The implicit generics for the `$` and `$<-` operators do not have name in their signature because the grammar only allows symbols or string constants for the name argument.

Character indices

Character indices can in some circumstances be partially matched (see [pmatch](#)) to the names or dimnames of the object being subsetted (but never for subassignment). Unlike S (Becker *et al* p. 358), R never uses partial matching when extracting by `[`, and partial matching is not by default used by `[[` (see argument `exact`).

Thus the default behaviour is to use partial matching only when extracting from recursive objects (except environments) by `$`. Even in that case, warnings can be switched on by [options\(warnPartialMatchDollar = TRUE\)](#).

Neither empty (`""`) nor NA indices match any names, not even empty nor missing names. If any object has no names or appropriate dimnames, they are taken as all `""` and so match nothing.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[names](#) for details of matching to names, and [pmatch](#) for partial matching.

[list](#), [array](#), [matrix](#).

[\[.data.frame\]](#) and [\[.factor\]](#) for the behaviour when applied to `data.frame` and factors.

[Syntax](#) for operator precedence, and the ‘R Language Definition’ manual about indexing details.

[NULL](#) for details of indexing null objects.

Examples

```

x <- 1:12
m <- matrix(1:6, nrow = 2, dimnames = list(c("a", "b"), LETTERS[1:3]))
li <- list(pi = pi, e = exp(1))
x[10]           # the tenth element of x
x <- x[-1]      # delete the 1st element of x
m[1,]           # the first row of matrix m
m[1, , drop = FALSE] # is a 1-row matrix
m[,c(TRUE,FALSE,TRUE)]# logical indexing
m[cbind(c(1,2,1),3:1)]# matrix numeric index
ci <- cbind(c("a", "b", "a"), c("A", "C", "B"))
m[ci]           # matrix character index
m <- m[, -1]    # delete the first column of m
li[[1]]         # the first element of list li
y <- list(1, 2, a = 4, 5)
y[c(3, 4)]      # a list containing elements 3 and 4 of y
y$a            # the element of y named a

## non-integer indices are truncated:
(i <- 3.999999999) # "4" is printed
(1:5)[i] # 3

## named atomic vectors, compare "[" and "[[" :
nx <- c(abc = 123, pi = pi)
nx[1] ; nx["pi"] # keeps names, whereas "[" does not:
nx[[1]] ; nx[["pi"]]

## recursive indexing into lists
z <- list(a = list(b = 9, c = "hello"), d = 1:5)
unlist(z)
z[[c(1, 2)]]
z[[c(1, 2, 1)]] # both "hello"
z[[c("a", "b")]] <- "new"
unlist(z)

## check $ and [[ for environments
e1 <- new.env()
e1$a <- 10
e1[["a"]]
e1[["b"]] <- 20
e1$b
ls(e1)

## partial matching - possibly with warning :
stopifnot(identical(li$p, pi))
op <- options(warnPartialMatchDollar = TRUE)
stopifnot( identical(li$p, pi), #-- a warning
  inherits(tryCatch(li$p, warning = identity), "warning"))
## revert the warning option:
if(is.null(op[[1]])) op[[1]] <- FALSE; options(op)

```

Extract.data.frame	<i>Extract or Replace Parts of a Data Frame</i>
--------------------	---

Description

Extract or replace subsets of data frames.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
x[i, j, drop = ]
## S3 replacement method for class 'data.frame'
x[i, j] <- value
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
x[ [..., exact = TRUE]]
## S3 replacement method for class 'data.frame'
x[[i, j]] <- value
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
x$name
## S3 replacement method for class 'data.frame'
x$name <- value
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	data frame.
<code>i, j, ...</code>	elements to extract or replace. For <code>[</code> and <code>[[</code> , these are numeric or character or, for <code>[</code> only, empty. Numeric values are coerced to integer as if by as.integer . For replacement by <code>[</code> , a logical matrix is allowed.
<code>name</code>	A literal character string or a name (possibly backtick quoted).
<code>drop</code>	logical. If TRUE the result is coerced to the lowest possible dimension. The default is to drop if only one column is left, but not to drop if only one row is left.
<code>value</code>	A suitable replacement value: it will be repeated a whole number of times if necessary and it may be coerced: see the Coercion section. If NULL, deletes the column if a single column is selected.
<code>exact</code>	logical: see [, and applies to column names.

Details

Data frames can be indexed in several modes. When `[` and `[[` are used with a single vector index (`x[i]` or `x[[i]]`), they index the data frame as if it were a list. In this usage a drop argument is ignored, with a warning.

The `data.frame` method for `$`, treats `x` as a list, except that (as of R-3.1.0) partial matching of name to the names of `x` will generate a warning; this may become an error in future versions. The replacement method checks value for the correct number of rows, and replicates it if necessary.

When `[]` and `[[` are used with two indices (`x[i, j]` and `x[[i, j]]`) they act like indexing a matrix: `[[` can only be used to select one element. Note that for each selected column, `xj` say, typically (if it is not matrix-like), the resulting column will be `xj[i]`, and hence rely on the corresponding `[]` method, see the examples section.

If `[]` returns a data frame it will have unique (and non-missing) row names, if necessary transforming the row names using `make.unique`. Similarly, if columns are selected column names will be transformed to be unique if necessary (e.g., if columns are selected more than once, or if more than one column of a given name is selected if the data frame has duplicate column names).

When `drop = TRUE`, this is applied to the subsetting of any matrices contained in the data frame as well as to the data frame itself.

The replacement methods can be used to add whole column(s) by specifying non-existent column(s), in which case the column(s) are added at the right-hand edge of the data frame and numerical indices must be contiguous to existing indices. On the other hand, rows can be added at any row after the current last row, and the columns will be in-filled with missing values. Missing values in the indices are not allowed for replacement.

For `[]` the replacement value can be a list: each element of the list is used to replace (part of) one column, recycling the list as necessary. If columns specified by number are created, the names (if any) of the corresponding list elements are used to name the columns. If the replacement is not selecting rows, list values can contain NULL elements which will cause the corresponding columns to be deleted. (See the Examples.)

Matrix indexing (`x[i]` with a logical or a 2-column integer matrix `i`) using `[]` is not recommended. For extraction, `x` is first coerced to a matrix. For replacement, logical matrix indices must be of the same dimension as `x`. Replacements are done one column at a time, with multiple type coercions possibly taking place.

Both `[]` and `[[` extraction methods partially match row names. By default neither partially match column names, but `[[` will if `exact = FALSE` (and with a warning if `exact = NA`). If you want to exact matching on row names use `match`, as in the examples.

Value

For `[]` a data frame, list or a single column (the latter two only when dimensions have been dropped). If matrix indexing is used for extraction a vector results. If the result would be a data frame an error results if undefined columns are selected (as there is no general concept of a 'missing' column in a data frame). Otherwise if a single column is selected and this is undefined the result is NULL.

For `[[` a column of the data frame or NULL (extraction with one index) or a length-one vector (extraction with two indices).

For `$`, a column of the data frame (or NULL).

For `<-`, `[[<-` and `$<-`, a data frame.

Coercion

The story over when replacement values are coerced is a complicated one, and one that has changed during R's development. This section is a guide only.

When `[]` and `[[` are used to add or replace a whole column, no coercion takes place but value will be replicated (by calling the generic function `rep`) to the right length if an exact number of repeats can be used.

When `[]` is used with a logical matrix, each value is coerced to the type of the column into which it is to be placed.

When `[]` and `[[` are used with two indices, the column will be coerced as necessary to accommodate the value.

Note that when the replacement value is an array (including a matrix) it is *not* treated as a series of columns (as `data.frame` and `as.data.frame` do) but inserted as a single column.

Warning

The default behaviour when only one *row* is left is equivalent to specifying `drop = FALSE`. To drop from a data frame to a list, `drop = TRUE` has to be specified explicitly.

Arguments other than `drop` and `exact` should not be named: there is a warning if they are and the behaviour differs from the description here.

See Also

`subset` which is often easier for extraction, `data.frame`, `Extract`.

Examples

```
sw <- swiss[1:5, 1:4] # select a manageable subset

sw[1:3]      # select columns
sw[, 1:3]    # same
sw[4:5, 1:3] # select rows and columns
sw[1]        # a one-column data frame
sw[, 1, drop = FALSE] # the same
sw[, 1]      # a (unnamed) vector
sw[[1]]      # the same

sw[1,]       # a one-row data frame
sw[1,, drop = TRUE] # a list

sw["C", ] # partially matches
sw[match("C", row.names(sw)), ] # no exact match
try(sw[, "Ferti"]) # column names must match exactly

swiss[ c(1, 1:2), ] # duplicate row, unique row names are created

sw[sw <= 6] <- 6 # logical matrix indexing
sw

## adding a column
sw["new1"] <- LETTERS[1:5] # adds a character column
sw[["new2"]] <- letters[1:5] # ditto
sw[, "new3"] <- LETTERS[1:5] # ditto
sw$new4 <- 1:5
sapply(sw, class)
sw$new4 <- NULL # delete the column
sw
```

```

sw[6:8] <- list(letters[10:14], NULL, aa = 1:5)
# update col. 6, delete 7, append
sw

## matrices in a data frame
A <- data.frame(x = 1:3, y = I(matrix(4:6)), z = I(matrix(letters[1:9], 3, 3)))
A[1:3, "y"] # a matrix
A[1:3, "z"] # a matrix
A[, "y"]    # a matrix

## keeping special attributes: use a class with a
## "as.data.frame" and "[" method:

as.data.frame.avector <- as.data.frame.vector

`[.avector` <- function(x,i,...) {
  r <- NextMethod("[")
  mostattributes(r) <- attributes(x)
  r
}

d <- data.frame(i = 0:7, f = gl(2,4),
                u = structure(11:18, unit = "kg", class = "avector"))
str(d[2:4, -1]) # 'u' keeps its "unit"

```

Extract.factor

Extract or Replace Parts of a Factor

Description

Extract or replace subsets of factors.

Usage

```

## S3 method for class 'factor'
x[... , drop = FALSE]
## S3 method for class 'factor'
x[[...]]
## S3 replacement method for class 'factor'
x[...] <- value
## S3 replacement method for class 'factor'
x[[...]] <- value

```

Arguments

x a factor
... a specification of indices – see [Extract](#).

drop	logical. If true, unused levels are dropped.
value	character: a set of levels. Factor values are coerced to character.

Details

When unused levels are dropped the ordering of the remaining levels is preserved.
If value is not in levels(x), a missing value is assigned with a warning.
Any contrasts assigned to the factor are preserved unless drop = TRUE.
The [[method supports argument exact.

Value

A factor with the same set of levels as x unless drop = TRUE.

See Also

[factor](#), [Extract](#).

Examples

```
## following example(factor)
(ff <- factor(substring("statistics", 1:10, 1:10), levels = letters))
ff[, drop = TRUE]
factor(letters[7:10])[2:3, drop = TRUE]
```

Extremes	<i>Maxima and Minima</i>
----------	--------------------------

Description

Returns the (parallel) maxima and minima of the input values.

Usage

```
max(..., na.rm = FALSE)
min(..., na.rm = FALSE)

pmax(..., na.rm = FALSE)
pmin(..., na.rm = FALSE)

pmax.int(..., na.rm = FALSE)
pmin.int(..., na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

...	numeric or character arguments (see Note).
na.rm	a logical indicating whether missing values should be removed.

Details

`max` and `min` return the maximum or minimum of *all* the values present in their arguments, as [integer](#) if all are logical or integer, as [double](#) if all are numeric, and character otherwise.

If `na.rm` is `FALSE` an NA value in any of the arguments will cause a value of NA to be returned, otherwise NA values are ignored.

The minimum and maximum of a numeric empty set are `+Inf` and `-Inf` (in this order!) which ensures *transitivity*, e.g., `min(x1, min(x2)) == min(x1, x2)`. For numeric `x` `max(x) == -Inf` and `min(x) == +Inf` whenever `length(x) == 0` (after removing missing values if requested). However, `pmax` and `pmin` return NA if all the parallel elements are NA even for `na.rm = TRUE`.

`pmax` and `pmin` take one or more vectors (or matrices) as arguments and return a single vector giving the ‘parallel’ maxima (or minima) of the vectors. The first element of the result is the maximum (minimum) of the first elements of all the arguments, the second element of the result is the maximum (minimum) of the second elements of all the arguments and so on. Shorter inputs (of non-zero length) are recycled if necessary. Attributes (see [attributes](#): such as `names` or `dim`) are copied from the first argument (if applicable).

`pmax.int` and `pmin.int` are faster internal versions only used when all arguments are atomic vectors and there are no classes: they drop all attributes. (Note that all versions fail for raw and complex vectors since these have no ordering.)

`max` and `min` are generic functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Summary](#) group generic. For this to work properly, the arguments . . . should be unnamed, and dispatch is on the first argument.

By definition the min/max of a numeric vector containing an NaN is NaN, except that the min/max of any vector containing an NA is NA even if it also contains an NaN. Note that `max(NA, Inf) == NA` even though the maximum would be `Inf` whatever the missing value actually is.

Character versions are sorted lexicographically, and this depends on the collating sequence of the locale in use: the help for ‘[Comparison](#)’ gives details. The max/min of an empty character vector is defined to be character NA. (One could argue that as `""` is the smallest character element, the maximum should be `""`, but there is no obvious candidate for the minimum.)

Value

For `min` or `max`, a length-one vector. For `pmin` or `pmax`, a vector of length the longest of the input vectors, or length zero if one of the inputs had zero length.

The type of the result will be that of the highest of the inputs in the hierarchy `integer < double < character`.

For `min` and `max` if there are only numeric inputs and all are empty (after possible removal of NAs), the result is double (`Inf` or `-Inf`).

S4 methods

`max` and `min` are part of the S4 [Summary](#) group generic. Methods for them must use the signature `x, ..., na.rm`.

Note

'Numeric' arguments are vectors of type integer and numeric, and logical (coerced to integer). For historical reasons, NULL is accepted as equivalent to `integer(0)`.

`pmax` and `pmin` will also work on classed objects with appropriate methods for comparison, `is.na` and `rep` (if recycling of arguments is needed).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[range](#) (both min and max) and [which.min](#) ([which.max](#)) for the *arg min*, i.e., the location where an extreme value occurs.

[plotmath](#) for the use of min in plot annotation.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
min(5:1, pi) #-> one number
pmin(5:1, pi) #-> 5 numbers

x <- sort(rnorm(100)); cH <- 1.35
pmin(cH, quantile(x)) # no names
pmin(quantile(x), cH) # has names
plot(x, pmin(cH, pmax(-cH, x)), type = "b", main = "Huber's function")

cut01 <- function(x) pmax(pmin(x, 1), 0)
curve(x^2 - 1/4, -1.4, 1.5, col = 2)
curve(cut01(x^2 - 1/4), col = "blue", add = TRUE, n = 500)
## pmax(), pmin() preserve attributes of *first* argument
D <- diag(x = (3:1)/4) ; n0 <- numeric()
stopifnot(identical(D, cut01(D) ),
           identical(n0, cut01(n0)),
           identical(n0, cut01(NULL)),
           identical(n0, pmax(3:1, n0, 2)),
           identical(n0, pmax(n0, 4)))
```

extSoftVersion

Report Versions of Third-Party Software

Description

Report versions of (external) third-party software used.

Usage

```
extSoftVersion()
```

Details

The reports the versions of third-party software libraries in use. These are often external but might have been compiled into R when it was installed.

With dynamic linking, these are the versions of the libraries linked to in this session: with static linking, of those compiled in.

Value

A named character vector, currently with components

zlib	The version of zlib in use.
bzlib	The version of bzlib (from bzip2) in use.
xz	The version of liblzma (from xz) in use.
PCRE	The version of PCRE in use.
ICU	The version of ICU in use (if any, otherwise "").
TRE	The version of libtre in use.
iconv	The implementation and version of the iconv library in use (if known).

Note that the values for bzlib and pcre normally contain a date as well as the version number, and that for tre includes several items separated by spaces, the version number being the second.

For iconv this will give the implementation as well as the version, for example "GNU libiconv 1.14", "glibc 2.18" or "win_iconv" (which has no version number).

See Also

[libcurlVersion](#) for the version of libCurl.

[La_version](#) for the version of LAPACK in use.

[grSoftVersion](#) for third-party graphics software.

[tclVersion](#) for the version of Tcl/Tk.

[pcre_config](#) for PCRE configuration options.

Examples

```
extSoftVersion()
## the PCRE version
sub(".*", "", extSoftVersion()["PCRE"])
```

factor

*Factors***Description**

The function `factor` is used to encode a vector as a factor (the terms ‘category’ and ‘enumerated type’ are also used for factors). If argument `ordered` is `TRUE`, the factor levels are assumed to be ordered. For compatibility with S there is also a function `ordered`.

`is.factor`, `is.ordered`, `as.factor` and `as.ordered` are the membership and coercion functions for these classes.

Usage

```
factor(x = character(), levels, labels = levels,
       exclude = NA, ordered = is.ordered(x), nmax = NA)
```

```
ordered(x, ...)
```

```
is.factor(x)
is.ordered(x)
```

```
as.factor(x)
as.ordered(x)
```

```
addNA(x, ifany = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a vector of data, usually taking a small number of distinct values.
<code>levels</code>	an optional vector of the values (as character strings) that <code>x</code> might have taken. The default is the unique set of values taken by <code>as.character(x)</code> , sorted into increasing order <i>of</i> <code>x</code> . Note that this set can be specified as smaller than <code>sort(unique(x))</code> .
<code>labels</code>	<i>either</i> an optional character vector of labels for the levels (in the same order as levels after removing those in <code>exclude</code>), <i>or</i> a character string of length 1.
<code>exclude</code>	a vector of values to be excluded when forming the set of levels. This should be of the same type as <code>x</code> , and will be coerced if necessary.
<code>ordered</code>	logical flag to determine if the levels should be regarded as ordered (in the order given).
<code>nmax</code>	an upper bound on the number of levels; see ‘Details’.
<code>...</code>	(in <code>ordered(.)</code>): any of the above, apart from <code>ordered</code> itself.
<code>ifany</code>	(only add an NA level if it is used, i.e. if <code>any(is.na(x))</code>).

Details

The type of the vector `x` is not restricted; it only must have an `as.character` method and be sortable (by `sort.list`).

Ordered factors differ from factors only in their class, but methods and the model-fitting functions treat the two classes quite differently.

The encoding of the vector happens as follows. First all the values in `exclude` are removed from `levels`. If `x[i]` equals `levels[j]`, then the *i*-th element of the result is *j*. If no match is found for `x[i]` in `levels` (which will happen for excluded values) then the *i*-th element of the result is set to `NA`.

Normally the ‘levels’ used as an attribute of the result are the reduced set of levels after removing those in `exclude`, but this can be altered by supplying `labels`. This should either be a set of new labels for the levels, or a character string, in which case the levels are that character string with a sequence number appended.

`factor(x, exclude = NULL)` applied to a factor is a no-operation unless there are unused levels: in that case, a factor with the reduced level set is returned. If `exclude` is used it should also be a factor with the same level set as `x` or a set of codes for the levels to be excluded.

The codes of a factor may contain `NA`. For a numeric `x`, set `exclude = NULL` to make `NA` an extra level (prints as `<NA>`); by default, this is the last level.

If `NA` is a level, the way to set a code to be missing (as opposed to the code of the missing level) is to use `is.na` on the left-hand-side of an assignment (as in `is.na(f)[i] <- TRUE`; indexing inside `is.na` does not work). Under those circumstances missing values are currently printed as `<NA>`, i.e., identical to entries of level `NA`.

`is.factor` is generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [Internal-Methods](#).

Where `levels` is not supplied, `unique` is called. Since factors typically have quite a small number of levels, for large vectors `x` it is helpful to supply `nmax` as an upper bound on the number of unique values.

Value

`factor` returns an object of class “factor” which has a set of integer codes the length of `x` with a “levels” attribute of mode `character` and unique (`!anyDuplicated(.)`) entries. If argument `ordered` is true (or `ordered()` is used) the result has class `c("ordered", "factor")`.

Applying `factor` to an ordered or unordered factor returns a factor (of the same type) with just the levels which occur: see also [\[.factor\]](#) for a more transparent way to achieve this.

`is.factor` returns TRUE or FALSE depending on whether its argument is of type factor or not. Correspondingly, `is.ordered` returns TRUE when its argument is an ordered factor and FALSE otherwise.

`as.factor` coerces its argument to a factor. It is an abbreviated form of `factor`.

`as.ordered(x)` returns `x` if this is ordered, and `ordered(x)` otherwise.

`addNA` modifies a factor by turning `NA` into an extra level (so that `NA` values are counted in tables, for instance).

Warning

The interpretation of a factor depends on both the codes and the "levels" attribute. Be careful only to compare factors with the same set of levels (in the same order). In particular, `as.numeric` applied to a factor is meaningless, and may happen by implicit coercion. To transform a factor `f` to approximately its original numeric values, `as.numeric(levels(f))[f]` is recommended and slightly more efficient than `as.numeric(as.character(f))`.

The levels of a factor are by default sorted, but the sort order may well depend on the locale at the time of creation, and should not be assumed to be ASCII.

There are some anomalies associated with factors that have NA as a level. It is suggested to use them sparingly, e.g., only for tabulation purposes.

Comparison operators and group generic methods

There are "factor" and "ordered" methods for the [group generic Ops](#) which provide methods for the [Comparison](#) operators, and for the `min`, `max`, and `range` generics in [Summary](#) of "ordered". (The rest of the groups and the [Math](#) group generate an error as they are not meaningful for factors.)

Only `==` and `!=` can be used for factors: a factor can only be compared to another factor with an identical set of levels (not necessarily in the same ordering) or to a character vector. Ordered factors are compared in the same way, but the general dispatch mechanism precludes comparing ordered and unordered factors.

All the comparison operators are available for ordered factors. Collation is done by the levels of the operands: if both operands are ordered factors they must have the same level set.

Note

In earlier versions of R, storing character data as a factor was more space efficient if there is even a small proportion of repeats. However, identical character strings now share storage, so the difference is small in most cases. (Integer values are stored in 4 bytes whereas each reference to a character string needs a pointer of 4 or 8 bytes.)

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[\[.factor\]](#) for subsetting of factors.

[gl](#) for construction of balanced factors and [C](#) for factors with specified contrasts. [levels](#) and [nlevels](#) for accessing the levels, and [unclass](#) to get integer codes.

Examples

```
(ff <- factor(substring("statistics", 1:10, 1:10), levels = letters))
as.integer(ff)      # the internal codes
(f. <- factor(ff))  # drops the levels that do not occur
ff[, drop = TRUE]   # the same, more transparently

factor(letters[1:20], labels = "letter")
```

```

class(ordered(4:1)) # "ordered", inheriting from "factor"
z <- factor(LETTERS[3:1], ordered = TRUE)
## and "relational" methods work:
stopifnot(sort(z)[c(1,3)] == range(z), min(z) < max(z))

## suppose you want "NA" as a level, and to allow missing values.
(x <- factor(c(1, 2, NA), exclude = NULL))
is.na(x)[2] <- TRUE
x # [1] 1 <NA> <NA>
is.na(x)
# [1] FALSE TRUE FALSE

## Using addNA()
Month <- airquality$Month
table(addNA(Month))
table(addNA(Month, ifany = TRUE))

```

file.access

Ascertain File Accessibility

Description

Utility function to access information about files on the user's file systems.

Usage

```
file.access(names, mode = 0)
```

Arguments

names	character vector containing file names. Tilde-expansion will be done: see path.expand .
mode	integer specifying access mode required: see 'Details'.

Details

The mode value can be the exclusive or of the following values

- 0** test for existence.
- 1** test for execute permission.
- 2** test for write permission.
- 4** test for read permission.

Permission will be computed for real user ID and real group ID (rather than the effective IDs).

Please note that it is not a good idea to use this function to test before trying to open a file. On a multi-tasking system, it is possible that the accessibility of a file will change between the time you call `file.access()` and the time you try to open the file. It is better to wrap file open attempts in [try](#).

Value

An integer vector with values 0 for success and -1 for failure.

Note

This is intended as a replacement for the S-PLUS function `access`, a wrapper for the C function of the same name, which explains the return value encoding. Note that the return value is **false** for **success**.

See Also

[file.info](#) for more details on permissions, [Sys.chmod](#) to change permissions, and [try](#) for a ‘test it and see’ approach.

[file_test](#) for shell-style file tests.

Examples

```
fa <- file.access(dir("."))
table(fa) # count successes & failures
```

file.choose	<i>Choose a File Interactively</i>
-------------	------------------------------------

Description

Choose a file interactively.

Usage

```
file.choose(new = FALSE)
```

Arguments

new	Logical: choose the style of dialog box presented to the user: at present only new = FALSE is used.
-----	---

Value

A character vector of length one giving the file path.

See Also

[list.files](#) for non-interactive selection.

file.info

*Extract File Information***Description**

Utility function to extract information about files on the user's file systems.

Usage

```
file.info(..., extra_cols = TRUE)
```

```
file.mode(...)
file.mtime(...)
file.size(...)
```

Arguments

... character vectors containing file paths. Tilde-expansion is done: see [path.expand](#).

extra_cols Logical: return all cols rather than just the first six.

Details

What constitutes a 'file' is OS-dependent but includes directories. (However, directory names must not include a trailing backslash or slash on Windows.) See also the section in the help for [file.exists](#) on case-insensitive file systems.

The file 'mode' follows POSIX conventions, giving three octal digits summarizing the permissions for the file owner, the owner's group and for anyone respectively. Each digit is the logical *or* of read (4), write (2) and execute/search (1) permissions.

On most systems symbolic links are followed, so information is given about the file to which the link points rather than about the link.

Value

For file.info, data frame with row names the file names and columns

size	double: File size in bytes.
isdir	logical: Is the file a directory?
mode	integer of class "octmode". The file permissions, printed in octal, for example 644.
mtime, ctime, atime	integer of class "POSIXct": file modification, 'last status change' and last access times.
uid	integer: the user ID of the file's owner.
gid	integer: the group ID of the file's group.

uname	character: uid interpreted as a user name.
grname	character: gid interpreted as a group name.

Unknown user and group names will be NA.

If `extra_cols` is false, only the first six columns are returned: as these can all be found from a single C system call this can be faster. (However, properly configured systems will use a ‘name service cache daemon’ to speed up the name lookups.)

Entries for non-existent or non-readable files will be NA. The `uid`, `gid`, `uname` and `grname` columns may not be supplied on a non-POSIX Unix-alike system, and will not be on Windows.

What is meant by the three file times depends on the OS and file system. On Windows native file systems `ctime` is the file creation time (something which is not recorded on most Unix-alike file systems). What is meant by ‘file access’ and hence the ‘last access time’ is system-dependent.

The times are reported to an accuracy of seconds, and perhaps more on some systems. However, many file systems only record times in seconds, and some (e.g., modification time on FAT systems) are recorded in increments of 2 or more seconds.

`file.mode`, `file.mtime` and `file.size` are convenience wrappers returning just one of the columns.

Note

Some systems allow files of more than 2Gb to be created but not accessed by the `stat` system call. Such files will show up as non-readable (and very likely not be readable by any of R’s input functions) – fortunately such file systems are becoming rare.

See Also

[Sys.readlink](#) to find out about symbolic links, [files](#), [file.access](#), [list.files](#), and [DateTimeClasses](#) for the date formats.

[Sys.chmod](#) to change permissions.

Examples

```
ncol(finf <- file.info(dir())) # at least six
finf # the whole list
## Those that are more than 100 days old :
finf <- file.info(dir(), extra_cols = FALSE)
finf[difftime(Sys.time(), finf[, "mtime"], units = "days") > 100, 1:4]

file.info("no-such-file-exists")
```

file.path	<i>Construct Path to File</i>
-----------	-------------------------------

Description

Construct the path to a file from components in a platform-independent way.

Usage

```
file.path(..., fsep = .Platform$file.sep)
```

Arguments

...	character vectors.
fsep	the path separator to use.

Details

The implementation is designed to be fast (faster than [paste](#)) as this function is used extensively in R itself.

It can also be used for environment paths such as PATH and R_LIBS with fsep = .Platform\$path.sep.

Trailing path separators are invalid for Windows file paths apart from '/' and 'd:/' (although some functions/utilities do accept them), so as from R 3.1.0 a trailing / or \ is removed.

Value

A character vector of the arguments concatenated term-by-term and separated by fsep if all arguments have positive length; otherwise, an empty character vector (unlike [paste](#)).

Note

The components are by default separated by / (not \) on Windows.

file.show	<i>Display One or More Text Files</i>
-----------	---------------------------------------

Description

Display one or more (plain) text files, in a platform specific way, typically via a 'pager'.

Usage

```
file.show(..., header = rep("", nfiles),
          title = "R Information",
          delete.file = FALSE, pager = getOption("pager"),
          encoding = "")
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	one or more character vectors containing the names of the files to be displayed. Paths with have tilde expansion .
<code>header</code>	character vector (of the same length as the number of files specified in <code>...</code>) giving a header for each file being displayed. Defaults to empty strings.
<code>title</code>	an overall title for the display. If a single separate window is used for the display, <code>title</code> will be used as the window title. If multiple windows are used, their titles should combine the title and the file-specific header.
<code>delete.file</code>	should the files be deleted after display? Used for temporary files.
<code>pager</code>	the pager to be used: not used on all platforms
<code>encoding</code>	character string giving the encoding to be assumed for the file(s).

Details

This function provides the core of the R help system, but it can be used for other purposes as well, such as [page](#).

How the pager is implemented is highly system-dependent.

The basic Unix version concatenates the files (using the headers) to a temporary file, and displays it in the pager selected by the `pager` argument, which is a character vector specifying a system command (a full path or a command found on the PATH) to run on the set of files. The ‘factory-fresh’ default is to use ‘R_HOME/bin/pager’, which is a shell script running the command-line specified by the environment variable `PAGER` whose default is set at configuration, usually to `less`. On a Unix-alike `more` is used if `pager` is empty.

Most GUI systems will use a separate pager window for each file, and let the user leave it up while R continues running. The selection of such pagers could either be done using special pager names being intercepted by lower-level code (such as “internal” and “console” on Windows), or by letting `pager` be an R function which will be called with arguments (`files`, `header`, `title`, `delete.file`) corresponding to the first four arguments of `file.show` and take care of interfacing to the GUI.

The R.app GUI on OS X uses its internal pager irrespective of the setting of `pager`.

Not all implementations will honour `delete.file`. In particular, using an external pager on Windows does not, as there is no way to know when the external application has finished with the file.

Author(s)

Ross Ihaka, Brian Ripley.

See Also

[files](#), [list.files](#), [help](#); [RShowDoc](#) call `file.show()` for type = “text”. Consider `getOption(“pdfviewer”)` and e.g., [system](#) for displaying pdf files.
[file.edit](#).

Examples

```
file.show(file.path(R.home("doc"), "COPYRIGHTS"))
```

files

File Manipulation

Description

These functions provide a low-level interface to the computer's file system.

Usage

```
file.create(..., showWarnings = TRUE)
file.exists(...)
file.remove(...)
file.rename(from, to)
file.append(file1, file2)
file.copy(from, to, overwrite = recursive, recursive = FALSE,
          copy.mode = TRUE, copy.date = FALSE)
file.symlink(from, to)
file.link(from, to)
```

Arguments

..., file1, file2	character vectors, containing file names or paths.
from, to	character vectors, containing file names or paths. For <code>file.copy</code> and <code>file.symlink</code> to can alternatively be the path to a single existing directory.
overwrite	logical; should existing destination files be overwritten?
showWarnings	logical; should the warnings on failure be shown?
recursive	logical. If <code>to</code> is a directory, should directories in <code>from</code> be copied (and their contents)? (Like <code>cp -R</code> on POSIX OSes.)
copy.mode	logical: should file permission bits be copied where possible?
copy.date	logical: should file dates be preserved where possible? See Sys.setFileTime .

Details

The ... arguments are concatenated to form one character string: you can specify the files separately or as one vector. All of these functions expand path names: see [path.expand](#).

`file.create` creates files with the given names if they do not already exist and truncates them if they do. They are created with the maximal read/write permissions allowed by the 'umask' setting (where relevant). By default a warning is given (with the reason) if the operation fails.

`file.exists` returns a logical vector indicating whether the files named by its argument exist. (Here 'exists' is in the sense of the system's `stat` call: a file will be reported as existing only if you

have the permissions needed by `stat`. Existence can also be checked by `file.access`, which might use different permissions and so obtain a different result. Note that the existence of a file does not imply that it is readable: for that use `file.access`.) What constitutes a ‘file’ is system-dependent, but should include directories. (However, directory names must not include a trailing backslash or slash on Windows.) Note that if the file is a symbolic link on a Unix-alike, the result indicates if the link points to an actual file, not just if the link exists. Lastly, note the *different* function `exists` which checks for existence of R objects.

`file.remove` attempts to remove the files named in its argument. On most Unix platforms ‘file’ includes *empty* directories, symbolic links, fifos and sockets. On Windows, ‘file’ means a regular file and not, say, an empty directory.

`file.rename` attempts to rename files (and from and to must be of the same length). Where file permissions allow this will overwrite an existing element of to. This is subject to the limitations of the OS’s corresponding system call (see something like `man 2 rename` on a Unix-alike): in particular in the interpretation of ‘file’: most platforms will not rename files across file systems. (On Windows, `file.rename` can move files but not directories between volumes.) On platforms which allow directories to be renamed, typically neither or both of from and to must a directory, and if to exists it must be an empty directory.

`file.append` attempts to append the files named by its second argument to those named by its first. The R subscript recycling rule is used to align names given in vectors of different lengths.

`file.copy` works in a similar way to `file.append` but with the arguments in the natural order for copying. Copying to existing destination files is skipped unless `overwrite = TRUE`. The to argument can specify a single existing directory. If `copy.mode = TRUE` file read/write/execute permissions are copied where possible, restricted by ‘`umask`’. (On Windows this applies only to files.) Other security attributes such as ACLs are not copied. On a POSIX filesystem the targets of symbolic links will be copied rather than the links themselves, and hard links are copied separately.

`file.symlink` and `file.link` make symbolic and hard links on those file systems which support them. For `file.symlink` the to argument can specify a single existing directory. (Unix and OS X native filesystems support both. Windows has hard links to files on NTFS file systems and concepts related to symbolic links on recent versions: see the section below on the Windows version of this help page. What happens on a FAT or SMB-mounted file system is OS-specific.)

Value

These functions return a logical vector indicating which operation succeeded for each of the files attempted. Using a missing value for a file or path name will always be regarded as a failure.

If `showWarnings = TRUE`, `file.create` will give a warning for an unexpected failure.

Case-insensitive file systems

Case-insensitive file systems are the norm on Windows and OS X, but can be found on all OSes (for example a FAT-formatted USB drive is probably case-insensitive).

These functions will most likely match existing files regardless of case on such file systems: however this is an OS function and it is possible that file names might be mapped to upper or lower case.

Author(s)

Ross Ihaka, Brian Ripley

See Also

[file.info](#), [file.access](#), [file.path](#), [file.show](#), [list.files](#), [unlink](#), [basename](#), [path.expand](#).

[dir.create](#).

[Sys.glob](#) to expand wildcards in file specifications.

[file_test](#), [Sys.readlink](#).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hard_link and https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Symbolic_link for the concepts of links and their limitations.

Examples

```
cat("file A\n", file = "A")
cat("file B\n", file = "B")
file.append("A", "B")
file.create("A")
file.append("A", rep("B", 10))
if(interactive()) file.show("A")
file.copy("A", "C")
dir.create("tmp")
file.copy(c("A", "B"), "tmp")
list.files("tmp")
setwd("tmp")
file.remove("B")
file.symlink(file.path("..", c("A", "B")), ".")
setwd("..")
unlink("tmp", recursive = TRUE)
file.remove("A", "B", "C")
```

files2

Manipulation of Directories and File Permissions

Description

These functions provide a low-level interface to the computer's file system.

Usage

```
dir.exists(paths)
dir.create(path, showWarnings = TRUE, recursive = FALSE, mode = "0777")
Sys.chmod(paths, mode = "0777", use_umask = TRUE)
Sys.umask(mode = NA)
```

Arguments

<code>path</code>	a character vector containing a single path name. Tilde expansion (see path.expand) is done.
<code>paths</code>	character vectors containing file or directory paths. Tilde expansion (see path.expand) is done.
<code>showWarnings</code>	logical; should the warnings on failure be shown?
<code>recursive</code>	logical. Should elements of the path other than the last be created? If true, like the Unix command <code>mkdir -p</code> .
<code>mode</code>	the mode to be used on Unix-alikes: it will be coerced by as.octmode . For <code>Sys.chmod</code> it is recycled along paths.
<code>use_umask</code>	logical: should the mode be restricted by the umask setting?

Details

`dir.create` creates the last element of the path, unless `recursive = TRUE`. Trailing path separators are discarded. The mode will be modified by the umask setting in the same way as for the system function `mkdir`. What modes can be set is OS-dependent, and it is unsafe to assume that more than three octal digits will be used. For more details see your OS's documentation on the system call `mkdir`, e.g. `man 2 mkdir` (and not that on the command-line utility of that name).

One of the idiosyncrasies of Windows is that directory creation may report success but create a directory with a different name, for example `dir.create("G.S.")` creates `"G.S"`. This is undocumented, and what are the precise circumstances is unknown (and might depend on the version of Windows). Also avoid directory names with a trailing space.

`Sys.chmod` sets the file permissions of one or more files. It may not be supported on a system (when a warning is issued). See the comments for `dir.create` for how modes are interpreted. Changing mode on a symbolic link is unlikely to work (nor be necessary). For more details see your OS's documentation on the system call `chmod`, e.g. `man 2 chmod` (and not that on the command-line utility of that name). Whether this changes the permission of a symbolic link or its target is OS-dependent (although to change the target is more common, and POSIX does not support modes for symbolic links: BSD-based Unices do, though).

`Sys.umask` sets the umask and returns the previous value: as a special case `mode = NA` just returns the current value. It may not be supported (when a warning is issued and `"0"` is returned). For more details see your OS's documentation on the system call `umask`, e.g. `man 2 umask`.

How modes are handled depends on the file system, even on Unix-alikes (although their documentation is often written assuming a POSIX file system). So treat documentation cautiously if you are using, say, a FAT/FAT32 or network-mounted file system.

Value

`dir.exists` returns a logical vector of TRUE or FALSE values (without names).

`dir.create` and `Sys.chmod` return invisibly a logical vector indicating if the operation succeeded for each of the files attempted. Using a missing value for a path name will always be regarded as a failure. `dir.create` indicates failure if the directory already exists. If `showWarnings = TRUE`, `dir.create` will give a warning for an unexpected failure (e.g., not for a missing value nor for an already existing component for `recursive = TRUE`).

Sys.umask returns the previous value of the umask, as a length-one object of class "octmode": the visibility flag is off unless mode is NA.

See also the section in the help for [file.exists](#) on case-insensitive file systems for the interpretation of path and paths.

Author(s)

Ross Ihaka, Brian Ripley

See Also

[file.info](#), [file.exists](#), [file.path](#), [list.files](#), [unlink](#), [basename](#), [path.expand](#).

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Fix up maximal allowed permissions in a file tree
Sys.chmod(list.dirs("."), "777")
f <- list.files(".", all.files = TRUE, full.names = TRUE, recursive = TRUE)
Sys.chmod(f, (file.info(f)$mode | "664"))

## End(Not run)
```

find.package

Find Packages

Description

Find the paths to one or more packages.

Usage

```
find.package(package, lib.loc = NULL, quiet = FALSE,
             verbose = getOption("verbose"))
```

```
path.package(package, quiet = FALSE)
```

Arguments

package	character vector: the names of packages.
lib.loc	a character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to checking the loaded namespace, then all libraries currently known in .libPaths() .
quiet	logical. Should this not give warnings or an error if the package is not found?
verbose	a logical. If TRUE, additional diagnostics are printed.

Details

`find.package` returns path to the locations where the given packages are found. If `lib.loc` is `NULL`, then loaded namespaces are searched before the libraries. If a package is found more than once, the first match is used. Unless `quiet = TRUE` a warning will be given about the named packages which are not found, and an error if none are. If `verbose` is true, warnings about packages found more than once are given. For a package to be returned it must contain a either a ‘Meta’ subdirectory or a ‘DESCRIPTION’ file containing a valid version field, but it need not be installed (it could be a source package if `lib.loc` was set suitably).

`find.package` is not usually the right tool to find out if a package is available for use: the only way to do that is to use `require` to try to load it. It need not be installed for the correct platform, it might have a version requirement not met by the running version of `R`, there might be dependencies which are not available, ...

`path.package` returns the paths from which the named packages were loaded, or if none were named, for all currently attached packages. Unless `quiet = TRUE` it will warn if some of the packages named are not attached, and given an error if none are.

Value

A character vector of paths of package directories.

findInterval	<i>Find Interval Numbers or Indices</i>
--------------	---

Description

Given a vector of non-decreasing breakpoints in `vec`, find the interval containing each element of `x`; i.e., if `i <- findInterval(x, v)`, for each index `j` in `x` $v_{i_j} \leq x_j < v_{i_j+1}$ where $v_0 := -\infty$, $v_{N+1} := +\infty$, and `N <- length(v)`. At the two boundaries, the returned index may differ by 1, depending on the optional arguments `rightmost.closed` and `all.inside`.

Usage

```
findInterval(x, vec, rightmost.closed = FALSE, all.inside = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	numeric.
<code>vec</code>	numeric, sorted (weakly) increasingly, of length <code>N</code> , say.
<code>rightmost.closed</code>	logical; if true, the rightmost interval, <code>vec[N-1] .. vec[N]</code> is treated as <i>closed</i> , see below.
<code>all.inside</code>	logical; if true, the returned indices are coerced into <code>1, ..., N-1</code> , i.e., <code>0</code> is mapped to <code>1</code> and <code>N</code> to <code>N-1</code> .

Details

The function `findInterval` finds the index of one vector `x` in another, `vec`, where the latter must be non-decreasing. Where this is trivial, equivalent to `apply(outer(x, vec, ">="), 1, sum)`, as a matter of fact, the internal algorithm uses interval search ensuring $O(n \log N)$ complexity where $n \leftarrow \text{length}(x)$ (and $N \leftarrow \text{length}(vec)$). For (almost) sorted `x`, it will be even faster, basically $O(n)$.

This is the same computation as for the empirical distribution function, and indeed, `findInterval(t, sort(X))` is *identical* to $nF_n(t; X_1, \dots, X_n)$ where F_n is the empirical distribution function of X_1, \dots, X_n .

When `rightmost.closed = TRUE`, the result for `x[j] = vec[N]` ($= \max vec$), is `N - 1` as for all other values in the last interval.

Value

vector of length `length(x)` with values in $0:N$ (and NA) where $N \leftarrow \text{length}(vec)$, or values coerced to $1:(N-1)$ if and only if `all.inside = TRUE` (equivalently coercing all `x` values *inside* the intervals). Note that [NAs](#) are propagated from `x`, and [Inf](#) values are allowed in both `x` and `vec`.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

[approx](#)(*, `method = "constant"`) which is a generalization of `findInterval()`, [ecdf](#) for computing the empirical distribution function which is (up to a factor of n) also basically the same as `findInterval(.)`.

Examples

```
x <- 2:18
v <- c(5, 10, 15) # create two bins [5,10) and [10,15)
cbind(x, findInterval(x, v))

N <- 100
X <- sort(round(stats::rt(N, df = 2), 2))
tt <- c(-100, seq(-2, 2, len = 201), +100)
it <- findInterval(tt, X)
tt[it < 1 | it >= N] # only first and last are outside range(X)
```

force

Force Evaluation of an Argument

Description

Forces the evaluation of a function argument.

Usage

```
force(x)
```

Arguments

x a formal argument of the enclosing function.

Details

force forces the evaluation of a formal argument. This can be useful if the argument will be captured in a closure by the lexical scoping rules and will later be altered by an explicit assignment or an implicit assignment in a loop or an apply function.

Note

This is semantic sugar: just evaluating the symbol will do the same thing (see the examples).

force does not force the evaluation of other [promises](#). (It works by forcing the promise that is created when the actual arguments of a call are matched to the formal arguments of a closure, the mechanism which implements *lazy evaluation*.)

Examples

```
f <- function(y) function() y
lf <- vector("list", 5)
for (i in seq_along(lf)) lf[[i]] <- f(i)
lf[[1]]() # returns 5

g <- function(y) { force(y); function() y }
lg <- vector("list", 5)
for (i in seq_along(lg)) lg[[i]] <- g(i)
lg[[1]]() # returns 1

## This is identical to
g <- function(y) { y; function() y }
```

forceAndCall

Call a function with Some Arguments Forced

Description

Call a function with a specified number of leading arguments forced before the call if the function is a closure.

Usage

```
forceAndCall(n, FUN, ...)
```


Arguments

n	number of leading arguments to force.
FUN	function to call.
...	arguments to FUN.

Details

`forceAndCall` calls the function `FUN` with arguments specified in `...`. If the value of `FUN` is a closure then the first `n` arguments to the function are evaluated (i.e. their delayed evaluation promises are forced) before executing the function body. If the value of `FUN` is a primitive then the call `FUN(...)` is evaluated in the usual way.

`forceAndCall` is intended to help defining higher order functions like [apply](#) to behave more reasonably when the result returned by the function applied is a closure that captured its arguments.

See Also

[force](#), [promise](#), [closure](#).

Foreign

Foreign Function Interface

Description

Functions to make calls to compiled code that has been loaded into R.

Usage

```
.C(.NAME, ..., NAOK = FALSE, DUP = TRUE, PACKAGE, ENCODING)
.Fortran(.NAME, ..., NAOK = FALSE, DUP = TRUE, PACKAGE, ENCODING)
```

Arguments

.NAME	a character string giving the name of a C function or Fortran subroutine, or an object of class " NativeSymbolInfo ", " RegisteredNativeSymbol " or " NativeSymbol " referring to such a name.
...	arguments to be passed to the foreign function. Up to 65.
NAOK	if TRUE then any NA or NaN or Inf values in the arguments are passed on to the foreign function. If FALSE, the presence of NA or NaN or Inf values is regarded as an error.
PACKAGE	if supplied, confine the search for a character string .NAME to the DLL given by this argument (plus the conventional extension, <code>'so'</code> , <code>'dll'</code> , ...). This is intended to add safety for packages, which can ensure by using this argument that no other package can override their external symbols, and also speeds up the search (see 'Note').
DUP, ENCODING	For back-compatibility, accepted but ignored.

Details

These functions can be used to make calls to compiled C and Fortran 77 code. Later interfaces are `.Call` and `.External` which are more flexible and have better performance.

These functions are `primitive`, and `.NAME` is always matched to the first argument supplied (which should not be named). The other named arguments follow `...` and so cannot be abbreviated. For clarity, should avoid using names in the arguments passed to `...` that match or partially match `.NAME`.

Value

A list similar to the `...` list of arguments passed in (including any names given to the arguments), but reflecting any changes made by the C or Fortran code.

Argument types

The mapping of the types of R arguments to C or Fortran arguments is

R	C	Fortran
integer	int *	integer
numeric	double *	double precision
– or –	float *	real
complex	Rcomplex *	double complex
logical	int *	integer
character	char **	[see below]
raw	unsigned char *	not allowed
list	SEXP *	not allowed
other	SEXP	not allowed

Note: The C types corresponding to integer and logical are int, not long as in S. This difference matters on most 64-bit platforms, where int is 32-bit and long is 64-bit (but not on 64-bit Windows).

Note: The Fortran type corresponding to logical is integer, not logical: the difference matters on some Fortran compilers.

Numeric vectors in R will be passed as type double * to C (and as double precision to Fortran) unless the argument has attribute Csingle set to TRUE (use `as.single` or `single`). This mechanism is only intended to be used to facilitate the interfacing of existing C and Fortran code.

The C type Rcomplex is defined in 'Complex.h' as a typedef struct {double r; double i;}. It may or may not be equivalent to the C99 double complex type, depending on the compiler used.

Logical values are sent as 0 (FALSE), 1 (TRUE) or INT_MIN = -2147483648 (NA, but only if NAOK = TRUE), and the compiled code should return one of these three values: however non-zero values other than INT_MIN are mapped to TRUE.

Missing (NA) string values are passed to .C as the string "NA". As the C char type can represent all possible bit patterns there appears to be no way to distinguish missing strings from the string "NA". If this distinction is important use `.Call`.

`.Fortran` passes the first (only) character string of a character vector as a C character array to Fortran: that may be usable as `character*255` if its true length is passed separately. Only up to 255 characters of the string are passed back. (How well this works, and even if it works at all, depends on the C and Fortran compilers and the platform.)

Lists, functions and other R objects can (for historical reasons) be passed to `.C`, but the `.Call` interface is much preferred. All inputs apart from atomic vectors should be regarded as read-only, and all apart from vectors (including lists), functions and environments are now deprecated.

Fortran symbol names

All Fortran compilers known to be usable to compile R map symbol names to lower case, and so does `.Fortran`.

Symbol names containing underscores are not valid Fortran 77 (although they are valid in Fortran 9x). Many Fortran 77 compilers will allow them but may translate them in a different way to names not containing underscores. Such names will often work with `.Fortran` (since how they are translated is detected when R is built and the information used by `.Fortran`), but portable code should not use Fortran names containing underscores.

Use `.Fortran` with care for compiled Fortran 9x code: it may not work if the Fortran 9x compiler used differs from the Fortran 77 compiler used when configuring R, especially if the subroutine name is not lower-case or includes an underscore. It is possible to use `.C` and do any necessary symbol-name translation yourself.

Copying of arguments

Character vectors are copied before calling the compiled code and to collect the results. For other atomic vectors the argument is copied before calling the compiled code if it is otherwise used in the calling code.

Non-atomic-vector objects are read-only to the C code and are never copied.

This behaviour can be changed by setting `options(CBoundsCheck = TRUE)`. In that case raw, logical, integer, double and complex vector arguments are copied both before and after calling the compiled code. The first copy made is extended at each end by guard bytes, and on return it is checked that these are unaltered. For `.C`, each element of a character vector uses guard bytes.

Note

If one of these functions is to be used frequently, do specify `PACKAGE` (to confine the search to a single DLL) or pass `.NAME` as one of the native symbol objects. Searching for symbols can take a long time, especially when many namespaces are loaded.

You may see `PACKAGE = "base"` for symbols linked into R. Do not use this in your own code: such symbols are not part of the API and may be changed without warning.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[dyn.load](#), [.Call](#).

The ‘Writing R Extensions’ manual.

formals

Access to and Manipulation of the Formal Arguments

Description

Get or set the formal arguments of a function.

Usage

```
formals(fun = sys.function(sys.parent()))  
formals(fun, envir = environment(fun)) <- value
```

Arguments

fun	a function object, or see ‘Details’.
envir	environment in which the function should be defined.
value	a list (or pairlist) of R expressions.

Details

For the first form, fun can also be a character string naming the function to be manipulated, which is searched for from the parent frame. If it is not specified, the function calling formals is used.

Only *closures* have formals, not primitive functions.

Value

formals returns the formal argument list of the function specified, as a [pairlist](#), or NULL for a non-function or primitive.

The replacement form sets the formals of a function to the list/pairlist on the right hand side, and (potentially) resets the environment of the function.

See Also

[args](#) for a human-readable version, [alist](#), [body](#), [function](#).

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)  
length(formals(lm))      # the number of formal arguments  
names(formals(boxplot))  # formal arguments names  
  
f <- function(x) a+b  
formals(f) <- alist(a = , b = 3) # function(a, b = 3) a+b  
f(2) # result = 5
```

format

*Encode in a Common Format***Description**

Format an R object for pretty printing.

Usage

```
format(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
format(x, trim = FALSE, digits = NULL, nsmall = 0L,
       justify = c("left", "right", "centre", "none"),
       width = NULL, na.encode = TRUE, scientific = NA,
       big.mark = "", big.interval = 3L,
       small.mark = "", small.interval = 5L,
       decimal.mark = getOption("OutDec"),
       zero.print = NULL, drop0trailing = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
format(x, ..., justify = "none")

## S3 method for class 'factor'
format(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'AsIs'
format(x, width = 12, ...)
```

Arguments

x	any R object (conceptually); typically numeric.
trim	logical; if FALSE, logical, numeric and complex values are right-justified to a common width: if TRUE the leading blanks for justification are suppressed.
digits	how many significant digits are to be used for numeric and complex x. The default, NULL, uses <code>getOption("digits")</code> . This is a suggestion: enough decimal places will be used so that the smallest (in magnitude) number has this many significant digits, and also to satisfy <code>nsmall</code> . (For the interpretation for complex numbers see <code>signif</code> .)
nsmall	the minimum number of digits to the right of the decimal point in formatting real/complex numbers in non-scientific formats. Allowed values are <code>0 <= nsmall <= 20</code> .
justify	should a <i>character</i> vector be left-justified (the default), right-justified, centred or left alone. Can be abbreviated.

width	default method: the <i>minimum</i> field width or NULL or 0 for no restriction. AsIs method: the <i>maximum</i> field width for non-character objects. NULL corresponds to the default 12.
na.encode	logical: should NA strings be encoded? Note this only applies to elements of character vectors, not to numerical, complex nor logical NAs, which are always encoded as "NA".
scientific	Either a logical specifying whether elements of a real or complex vector should be encoded in scientific format, or an integer penalty (see options("scipen")). Missing values correspond to the current default penalty.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.
big.mark, big.interval, small.mark, small.interval, decimal.mark, zero.print, drop0trailing	used for prettying (longish) numerical and complex sequences. Passed to prettyNum : that help page explains the details.

Details

`format` is a generic function. Apart from the methods described here there are methods for dates (see [format.Date](#)), date-times (see [format.POSIXct](#)) and for other classes such as `format.octmode` and `format.dist`.

`format.data.frame` formats the data frame column by column, applying the appropriate method of `format` for each column. Methods for columns are often similar to `as.character` but offer more control. Matrix and data-frame columns will be converted to separate columns in the result, and character columns (normally all) will be given class "[AsIs](#)".

`format.factor` converts the factor to a character vector and then calls the default method (and so `justify` applies).

`format.AsIs` deals with columns of complicated objects that have been extracted from a data frame. Character objects are passed to the default method (and so `width` does not apply). Otherwise it calls [toString](#) to convert the object to character (if a vector or list, element by element) and then right-justifies the result.

Justification for character vectors (and objects converted to character vectors by their methods) is done on display width (see [nchar](#)), taking double-width characters and the rendering of special characters (as escape sequences, including escaping backslash but not double quote: see [print.default](#)) into account. Thus the width is as displayed by `print(quote = FALSE)` and not as displayed by `cat`. Character strings are padded with blanks to the display width of the widest. (If `na.encode = FALSE` missing character strings are not included in the width computations and are not encoded.)

Numeric vectors are encoded with the minimum number of decimal places needed to display all the elements to at least the `digits` significant digits. However, if all the elements then have trailing zeroes, the number of decimal places is reduced until `nsmall` is reached or at least one element has a non-zero final digit; see also the argument documentation for `big.*`, `small.*` etc, above. See the note in [print.default](#) about `digits >= 16`.

Raw vectors are converted to their 2-digit hexadecimal representation by [as.character](#).

The internal code respects the option [getOption\("OutDec"\)](#) for the 'decimal mark', so if this is set to something other than "." then it takes precedence over argument `decimal.mark`.

Value

An object of similar structure to `x` containing character representations of the elements of the first argument `x` in a common format, and in the current locale's encoding.

For character, numeric, complex or factor `x`, `dims` and `dimnames` are preserved on matrices/arrays and names on vectors: no other attributes are copied.

If `x` is a list, the result is a character vector obtained by applying `format.default(x, ...)` to each element of the list (after [unlisting](#) elements which are themselves lists), and then collapsing the result for each element with `paste(collapse = ", ")`. The defaults in this case are `trim = TRUE`, `justify = "none"` since one does not usually want alignment in the collapsed strings.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[format.info](#) indicates how an atomic vector would be formatted.

[formatC](#), [paste](#), [as.character](#), [sprintf](#), [print](#), [prettyNum](#), [toString](#), [encodeString](#).

Examples

```
format(1:10)
format(1:10, trim = TRUE)

zz <- data.frame("(row names)"= c("aaaaa", "b"), check.names = FALSE)
format(zz)
format(zz, justify = "left")

## use of nsmall
format(13.7)
format(13.7, nsmall = 3)
format(c(6.0, 13.1), digits = 2)
format(c(6.0, 13.1), digits = 2, nsmall = 1)

## use of scientific
format(2^31-1)
format(2^31-1, scientific = TRUE)

## a list
z <- list(a = letters[1:3], b = (-pi+0i)^((-2:2)/2), c = c(1,10,100,1000),
          d = c("a", "longer", "character", "string"),
          q = quote( a + b ), e = expression(1+x))
## can you find the "2" small differences?
(f1 <- format(z, digits = 2))
(f2 <- format(z, digits = 2, justify = "left", trim = FALSE))
f1 == f2 ## 2 FALSE, 4 TRUE
```

format.info	<i>format(.) Information</i>
-------------	------------------------------

Description

Information is returned on how `format(x, digits, nsmall)` would be formatted.

Usage

```
format.info(x, digits = NULL, nsmall = 0)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an atomic vector; a potential argument of <code>format(x, ...)</code> .
<code>digits</code>	how many significant digits are to be used for numeric and complex <code>x</code> . The default, <code>NULL</code> , uses <code>getOption("digits")</code> .
<code>nsmall</code>	(see <code>format(..., nsmall)</code>).

Value

An [integer vector](#) of length 1, 3 or 6, say `r`.

For logical, integer and character vectors a single element, the width which would be used by `format` if `width = NULL`.

For numeric vectors:

<code>r[1]</code>	width (in characters) used by <code>format(x)</code>
<code>r[2]</code>	number of digits after decimal point.
<code>r[3]</code>	in <code>0:2</code> ; if ≥ 1 , <i>exponential</i> representation would be used, with exponent length of <code>r[3]+1</code> .

For a complex vector the first three elements refer to the real parts, and there are three further elements corresponding to the imaginary parts.

See Also

[format](#) (notably about `digits >= 16`), [formatC](#).

Examples

```
dd <- options("digits") ; options(digits = 7) #-- for the following
format.info(123)   # 3 0 0
format.info(pi)    # 8 6 0
format.info(1e8)   # 5 0 1 - exponential "1e+08"
format.info(1e222) # 6 0 2 - exponential "1e+222"

x <- pi*10^c(-10,-2,0:2,8,20)
names(x) <- formatC(x, width = 1, digits = 3, format = "g")
```



```

cbind(sapply(x, format))
t(sapply(x, format.info))

## using at least 8 digits right of "."
t(sapply(x, format.info, nsmall = 8))

# Reset old options:
options(dd)

```

format.pval

*Format P Values***Description**

format.pval is intended for formatting p-values.

Usage

```
format.pval(pv, digits = max(1, getOption("digits") - 2),
            eps = .Machine$double.eps, na.form = "NA", ...)
```

Arguments

pv	a numeric vector.
digits	how many significant digits are to be used.
eps	a numerical tolerance: see ‘Details’.
na.form	character representation of NAs.
...	further arguments to be passed to format such as nsmall.

Details

format.pval is mainly an auxiliary function for [print.summary.lm](#) etc., and does separate formatting for fixed, floating point and very small values; those less than eps are formatted as "< [eps]" (where ‘[eps]’ stands for format(eps, digits)).

Value

A character vector.

Examples

```
format.pval(c(stats::runif(5), pi^-100, NA))
format.pval(c(0.1, 0.0001, 1e-27))
```

formatC

*Formatting Using C-style Formats***Description**

Formatting numbers individually and flexibly, `formatC()` using C style format specifications.

`prettyNum()` is used for “prettifying” (possibly formatted) numbers, also in `format.default`.

`.format.zeros()`, an auxiliary function of `prettyNum()` re-formats the zeros in a vector `x` of formatted numbers.

Usage

```
formatC(x, digits = NULL, width = NULL,
        format = NULL, flag = "", mode = NULL,
        big.mark = "", big.interval = 3L,
        small.mark = "", small.interval = 5L,
        decimal.mark = getOption("OutDec"),
        preserve.width = "individual", zero.print = NULL,
        drop0trailing = FALSE)

prettyNum(x, big.mark = "", big.interval = 3L,
          small.mark = "", small.interval = 5L,
          decimal.mark = getOption("OutDec"), input.d.mark = decimal.mark,
          preserve.width = c("common", "individual", "none"),
          zero.print = NULL, drop0trailing = FALSE, is.cmplx = NA,
          ...)

.format.zeros(x, zero.print, nx = suppressWarnings(as.numeric(x)))
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an atomic numerical or character object, possibly <code>complex</code> only for <code>prettyNum()</code> , typically a vector of real numbers. Any class is discarded, with a warning.
<code>digits</code>	the desired number of digits after the decimal point (<code>format = "f"</code>) or <i>significant</i> digits (<code>format = "g"</code> , <code>"e"</code> or <code>"fg"</code>). Default: 2 for integer, 4 for real numbers. If less than 0, the C default of 6 digits is used. If specified as more than 50, 50 will be used with a warning unless <code>format = "f"</code> where it is limited to typically 324. (Not more than 15–21 digits need be accurate, depending on the OS and compiler used. This limit is just a precaution against segfaults in the underlying C runtime.)
<code>width</code>	the total field width; if both <code>digits</code> and <code>width</code> are unspecified, <code>width</code> defaults to 1, otherwise to <code>digits + 1</code> . <code>width = 0</code> will use <code>width = digits</code> , <code>width < 0</code> means left justify the number in this field (equivalent to <code>flag = "-"</code>). If necessary, the result will have more characters than <code>width</code> . For character data this is interpreted in characters (not bytes nor display width).

format	<p>equal to "d" (for integers), "f", "e", "E", "g", "G", "fg" (for reals), or "s" (for strings). Default is "d" for integers, "g" for reals.</p> <p>"f" gives numbers in the usual xxx.xxx format; "e" and "E" give n.ddde+nn or n.dddE+nn (scientific format); "g" and "G" put x[i] into scientific format only if it saves space to do so.</p> <p>"fg" uses fixed format as "f", but digits as the minimum number of <i>significant</i> digits. This can lead to quite long result strings, see examples below. Note that unlike signif this prints large numbers with more significant digits than digits. Trailing zeros are <i>dropped</i> in this format, unless flag contains "#".</p>
flag	For formatC, a character string giving a format modifier as in Kernighan and Ritchie (1988, page 243). "0" pads leading zeros; "-" does left adjustment, others are "+", " ", and "#". There can be more than one of these, in any order.
mode	"double" (or "real"), "integer" or "character". Default: Determined from the storage mode of x.
big.mark	character; if not empty used as mark between every big.interval decimals <i>before</i> (hence big) the decimal point.
big.interval	see big.mark above; defaults to 3.
small.mark	character; if not empty used as mark between every small.interval decimals <i>after</i> (hence small) the decimal point.
small.interval	see small.mark above; defaults to 5.
decimal.mark	the character to be used to indicate the numeric decimal point.
input.d.mark	if x is character , the character known to have been used as the numeric decimal point in x.
preserve.width	string specifying if the string widths should be preserved where possible in those cases where marks (big.mark or small.mark) are added. "common", the default, corresponds to format -like behavior whereas "individual" is the default in formatC(). Value can be abbreviated.
zero.print	logical, character string or NULL specifying if and how <i>zeros</i> should be formatted specially. Useful for pretty printing 'sparse' objects.
drop0trailing	logical, indicating if trailing zeros, i.e., "0" <i>after</i> the decimal mark, should be removed; also drops "e+00" in exponential formats.
is.cmplx	optional logical, to be used when x is " character " to indicate if it stems from complex vector or not. By default (NA), x is checked to 'look like' complex.
...	arguments passed to format.
nx	numeric vector of the same length as x, typically the numbers of which the character vector x is the pre-format.

Details

If you set format it overrides the setting of mode, so formatC(123.45, mode = "double", format = "d") gives 123.

The rendering of scientific format is platform-dependent: some systems use n.ddde+nnn or n.dddenn rather than n.ddde+nn.

formatC does not necessarily align the numbers on the decimal point, so `formatC(c(6.11, 13.1), digits = 2, format = "fg")` gives `c("6.1", " 13")`. If you want common formatting for several numbers, use `format`.

`prettyNum` is the utility function for prettifying `x`. `x` can be complex (or `format(<complex>)`, here. If `x` is not a character, `format(x[i], ...)` is applied to each element, and then it is left unchanged if all the other arguments are at their defaults. Use the `input.d.mark` argument for `prettyNum(x)` when `x` is a character vector not resulting from something like `format(<number>)` with a period as decimal mark.

Because `gsub` is used to insert the `big.mark` and `small.mark`, special characters need escaping. In particular, to insert a single backslash, use `"\\\\"`.

The C doubles used for R numerical vectors have signed zeros, which `formatC` may output as `-0`, `-0.000`....

There is a warning if `big.mark` and `decimal.mark` are the same: that would be confusing to those reading the output.

Value

A character object of same size and attributes as `x` (after discarding any class), in the current locale's encoding.

Unlike `format`, each number is formatted individually. Looping over each element of `x`, the C function `sprintf(...)` is called for numeric inputs (inside the C function `str_signif`).

`formatC`: for character `x`, do simple (left or right) padding with white space.

Note

Prior to R 3.0.2 this copied the class of `x` to the return value and could easily create invalid objects.

The default for `decimal.mark` in `formatC()` was changed in R 3.2.0: for use within `print` methods in packages which might be used with earlier versions: use `decimal.mark = getOption("OutDec")` explicitly.

Author(s)

`formatC` was originally written by Bill Dunlap for S-PLUS, later much improved by Martin Maechler.

It was first adapted for R by Friedrich Leisch and since much improved by the R Core team.

References

Kernighan, B. W. and Ritchie, D. M. (1988) *The C Programming Language*. Second edition. Prentice Hall.

See Also

`format`.

`sprintf` for more general C-like formatting.

Examples

```
xx <- pi * 10^(-5:4)
cbind(format(xx, digits = 4), formatC(xx))
cbind(formatC(xx, width = 9, flag = "-"))
cbind(formatC(xx, digits = 5, width = 8, format = "f", flag = "0"))
cbind(format(xx, digits = 4), formatC(xx, digits = 4, format = "fg"))

formatC(c("a", "Abc", "no way"), width = -7) # <=> flag = "-"
formatC(c((-1:1)/0, c(1, 100)*pi), width = 8, digits = 1)

## note that some of the results here depend on the implementation
## of long-double arithmetic, which is platform-specific.
xx <- c(1e-12, -3.98765e-10, 1.45645e-69, 1e-70, pi*1e37, 3.44e4)
##      1      2      3      4      5      6
formatC(xx)
formatC(xx, format = "fg") # special "fixed" format.
formatC(xx[1:4], format = "f", digits = 75) #>> even longer strings

formatC(c(3.24, 2.3e-6), format = "f", digits = 11, drop0trailing = TRUE)

r <- c("76491283764.97430", "29.12345678901", "-7.1234", "-100.1", "1123")
## American:
prettyNum(r, big.mark = ",")
## Some Europeans:
prettyNum(r, big.mark = "'", decimal.mark = ",")

(dd <- sapply(1:10, function(i) paste((9:0)[1:i], collapse = "")))
prettyNum(dd, big.mark = "'")

## examples of 'small.mark'
pN <- stats::pnorm(1:7, lower.tail = FALSE)
cbind(format(pN, small.mark = " ", digits = 15))
cbind(formatC(pN, small.mark = " ", digits = 17, format = "f"))

cbind(ff <- format(1.2345 + 10^(0:5), width = 11, big.mark = "'"))
## all with same width (one more than the specified minimum)

## individual formatting to common width:
fc <- formatC(1.234 + 10^(0:8), format = "fg", width = 11, big.mark = "'")
cbind(fc)
## Powers of two, stored exactly, formatted individually:
pow.2 <- formatC(2^-(1:32), digits = 24, width = 1, format = "fg")
## nicely printed (the last line showing 5^32 exactly):
noquote(cbind(pow.2))

## complex numbers:
r <- 10.0000001; rv <- (r/10)^(1:10)
(zv <- (rv + 1i*rv))
op <- options(digits = 7) ## (system default)
(pnv <- prettyNum(zv))
stopifnot(pnv == "1+1i", pnv == format(zv),
          pnv == prettyNum(zv, drop0trailing = TRUE))
```

```
## more digits change the picture:
options(digits = 8)
head(fv <- format(zv), 3)
prettyNum(fv)
prettyNum(fv, drop0trailing = TRUE) # a bit nicer
options(op)
```

formatDL

*Format Description Lists***Description**

Format vectors of items and their descriptions as 2-column tables or LaTeX-style description lists.

Usage

```
formatDL(x, y, style = c("table", "list"),
        width = 0.9 * getOption("width"), indent = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a vector giving the items to be described, or a list of length 2 or a matrix with 2 columns giving both items and descriptions.
<code>y</code>	a vector of the same length as <code>x</code> with the corresponding descriptions. Only used if <code>x</code> does not already give the descriptions.
<code>style</code>	a character string specifying the rendering style of the description information. Can be abbreviated. If "table", a two-column table with items and descriptions as columns is produced (similar to Texinfo's @table environment. If "list", a LaTeX-style tagged description list is obtained.
<code>width</code>	a positive integer giving the target column for wrapping lines in the output.
<code>indent</code>	a positive integer specifying the indentation of the second column in table style, and the indentation of continuation lines in list style. Must not be greater than <code>width/2</code> , and defaults to <code>width/3</code> for table style and <code>width/9</code> for list style.

Details

After extracting the vectors of items and corresponding descriptions from the arguments, both are coerced to character vectors.

In table style, items with more than `indent - 3` characters are displayed on a line of their own.

Value

a character vector with the formatted entries.

Examples

```
## Provide a nice summary of the numerical characteristics of the
## machine R is running on:
writeLines(formatDL(unlist(.Machine)))
## Inspect Sys.getenv() results in "list" style (by default, these are
## printed in "table" style):
writeLines(formatDL(Sys.getenv(), style = "list"))
```

function

Function Definition

Description

These functions provide the base mechanisms for defining new functions in the R language.

Usage

```
function( arglist ) expr
return(value)
```

Arguments

arglist	Empty or one or more name or name=expression terms.
expr	An expression.
value	An expression.

Details

The names in an argument list can be back-quoted non-standard names (see ‘[backquote](#)’).

If value is missing, NULL is returned. If it is a single expression, the value of the evaluated expression is returned. (The expression is evaluated as soon as return is called, in the evaluation frame of the function and before any [on.exit](#) expression is evaluated.)

If the end of a function is reached without calling return, the value of the last evaluated expression is returned.

Technical details

This type of function is not the only type in R: they are called *closures* (a name with origins in LISP) to distinguish them from [primitive](#) functions.

A closure has three components, its [formals](#) (its argument list), its [body](#) (expr in the ‘Usage’ section) and its [environment](#) which provides the enclosure of the evaluation frame when the closure is used.

There is an optional further component if the closure has been byte-compiled. This is not normally user-visible, but it indicated when functions are printed.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[args](#).

[formals](#), [body](#) and [environment](#) for accessing the component parts of a function.

[debug](#) for debugging; using [invisible](#) inside `return(.)` for returning *invisibly*.

Examples

```
norm <- function(x) sqrt(x**x)
norm(1:4)

## An anonymous function:
(function(x, y){ z <- x^2 + y^2; x+y+z })(0:7, 1)
```

funprog

Common Higher-Order Functions in Functional Programming Languages

Description

Reduce uses a binary function to successively combine the elements of a given vector and a possibly given initial value. Filter extracts the elements of a vector for which a predicate (logical) function gives true. Find and Position give the first or last such element and its position in the vector, respectively. Map applies a function to the corresponding elements of given vectors. Negate creates the negation of a given function.

Usage

```
Reduce(f, x, init, right = FALSE, accumulate = FALSE)
Filter(f, x)
Find(f, x, right = FALSE, nomatch = NULL)
Map(f, ...)
Negate(f)
Position(f, x, right = FALSE, nomatch = NA_integer_)
```

Arguments

f	a function of the appropriate arity (binary for Reduce, unary for Filter, Find and Position, k -ary for Map if this is called with k arguments). An arbitrary predicate function for Negate.
x	a vector.
init	an R object of the same kind as the elements of x.

<code>right</code>	a logical indicating whether to proceed from left to right (default) or from right to left.
<code>accumulate</code>	a logical indicating whether the successive reduce combinations should be accumulated. By default, only the final combination is used.
<code>nomatch</code>	the value to be returned in the case when “no match” (no element satisfying the predicate) is found.
<code>...</code>	vectors.

Details

If `init` is given, Reduce logically adds it to the start (when proceeding left to right) or the end of `x`, respectively. If this possibly augmented vector v has $n > 1$ elements, Reduce successively applies f to the elements of v from left to right or right to left, respectively. I.e., a left reduce computes $l_1 = f(v_1, v_2)$, $l_2 = f(l_1, v_3)$, etc., and returns $l_{n-1} = f(l_{n-2}, v_n)$, and a right reduce does $r_{n-1} = f(v_{n-1}, v_n)$, $r_{n-2} = f(v_{n-2}, r_{n-1})$ and returns $r_1 = f(v_1, r_2)$. (E.g., if v is the sequence (2, 3, 4) and f is division, left and right reduce give $(2/3)/4 = 1/6$ and $2/(3/4) = 8/3$, respectively.) If v has only a single element, this is returned; if there are no elements, NULL is returned. Thus, it is ensured that f is always called with 2 arguments.

The current implementation is non-recursive to ensure stability and scalability.

Reduce is patterned after Common Lisp’s `reduce`. A reduce is also known as a fold (e.g., in Haskell) or an accumulate (e.g., in the C++ Standard Template Library). The accumulative version corresponds to Haskell’s scan functions.

Filter applies the unary predicate function f to each element of `x`, coercing to logical if necessary, and returns the subset of `x` for which this gives true. Note that possible NA values are currently always taken as false; control over NA handling may be added in the future. Filter corresponds to `filter` in Haskell or `remove-if-not` in Common Lisp.

Find and Position are patterned after Common Lisp’s `find-if` and `position-if`, respectively. If there is an element for which the predicate function gives true, then the first or last such element or its position is returned depending on whether `right` is false (default) or true, respectively. If there is no such element, the value specified by `nomatch` is returned. The current implementation is not optimized for performance.

Map is a simple wrapper to `mapply` which does not attempt to simplify the result, similar to Common Lisp’s `mapcar` (with arguments being recycled, however). Future versions may allow some control of the result type.

Negate corresponds to Common Lisp’s `complement`. Given a (predicate) function f , it creates a function which returns the logical negation of what f returns.

See Also

Function `clusterMap` and `mcmapply` (not Windows) in package **parallel** provide parallel versions of Map.

Examples

```
## A general-purpose adder:
add <- function(x) Reduce("+", x)
add(list(1, 2, 3))
```

```

## Like sum(), but can also used for adding matrices etc., as it will
## use the appropriate '+' method in each reduction step.
## More generally, many generics meant to work on arbitrarily many
## arguments can be defined via reduction:
F00 <- function(...) Reduce(F002, list(...))
F002 <- function(x, y) UseMethod("F002")
## F00() methods can then be provided via F002() methods.

## A general-purpose cumulative adder:
cadd <- function(x) Reduce("+", x, accumulate = TRUE)
cadd(seq_len(7))

## A simple function to compute continued fractions:
cfrac <- function(x) Reduce(function(u, v) u + 1 / v, x, right = TRUE)
## Continued fraction approximation for pi:
cfrac(c(3, 7, 15, 1, 292))
## Continued fraction approximation for Euler's number (e):
cfrac(c(2, 1, 2, 1, 1, 4, 1, 1, 6, 1, 1, 8))

## Iterative function application:
Funcall <- function(f, ...) f(...)
## Compute log(exp(acos(cos(0)))
Reduce(Funcall, list(log, exp, acos, cos), 0, right = TRUE)
## n-fold iterate of a function, functional style:
Iterate <- function(f, n = 1)
  function(x) Reduce(Funcall, rep.int(list(f), n), x, right = TRUE)
## Continued fraction approximation to the golden ratio:
Iterate(function(x) 1 + 1 / x, 30)(1)
## which is the same as
cfrac(rep.int(1, 31))
## Computing square root approximations for x as fixed points of the
## function t |> (t + x / t) / 2, as a function of the initial value:
asqrt <- function(x, n) Iterate(function(t) (t + x / t) / 2, n)
asqrt(2, 30)(10) # Starting from a positive value => +sqrt(2)
asqrt(2, 30)(-1) # Starting from a negative value => -sqrt(2)

## A list of all functions in the base environment:
funs <- Filter(is.function, sapply(ls(baseenv()), get, baseenv()))
## Functions in base with more than 10 arguments:
names(Filter(function(f) length(formals(args(f))) > 10, funs))
## Number of functions in base with a '...' argument:
length(Filter(function(f)
  any(names(formals(args(f))) %in% "..."),
  funs))

## Find all objects in the base environment which are *not* functions:
Filter(Negate(is.function), sapply(ls(baseenv()), get, baseenv()))

```

Description

A call of `gc` causes a garbage collection to take place. `gcinfo` sets a flag so that automatic collection is either silent (`verbose = FALSE`) or prints memory usage statistics (`verbose = TRUE`).

Usage

```
gc(verbose = getOption("verbose"), reset = FALSE)
gcinfo(verbose)
```

Arguments

<code>verbose</code>	logical; if <code>TRUE</code> , the garbage collection prints statistics about cons cells and the space allocated for vectors.
<code>reset</code>	logical; if <code>TRUE</code> the values for maximum space used are reset to the current values.

Details

A call of `gc` causes a garbage collection to take place. This will also take place automatically without user intervention, and the primary purpose of calling `gc` is for the report on memory usage.

However, it can be useful to call `gc` after a large object has been removed, as this may prompt `R` to return memory to the operating system.

`R` allocates space for vectors in multiples of 8 bytes: hence the report of "Vcells", a relict of an earlier allocator (that used a vector heap).

When `gcinfo(TRUE)` is in force, messages are sent to the message connection at each garbage collection of the form

```
Garbage collection 12 = 10+0+2 (level 0) ...
6.4 Mbytes of cons cells used (58%)
2.0 Mbytes of vectors used (32%)
```

Here the last two lines give the current memory usage rounded up to the next 0.1Mb and as a percentage of the current trigger value. The first line gives a breakdown of the number of garbage collections at various levels (for an explanation see the 'R Internals' manual).

Value

`gc` returns a matrix with rows "Ncells" (*cons cells*), usually 28 bytes each on 32-bit systems and 56 bytes on 64-bit systems, and "Vcells" (*vector cells*, 8 bytes each), and columns "used" and "gc trigger", each also interpreted in megabytes (rounded up to the next 0.1Mb).

If maxima have been set for either "Ncells" or "Vcells", a fifth column is printed giving the current limits in Mb (with NA denoting no limit).

The final two columns show the maximum space used since the last call to `gc(reset = TRUE)` (or since `R` started).

`gcinfo` returns the previous value of the flag.

See Also

The ‘R Internals’ manual.

[Memory](#) on R’s memory management, and [gctorture](#) if you are an R developer.

[reg.finalizer](#) for actions to happen at garbage collection.

Examples

```
gc() #- do it now
gcinfo(TRUE) #-- in the future, show when R does it
x <- integer(100000); for(i in 1:18) x <- c(x, i)
gcinfo(verbose = FALSE) #-- don't show it anymore

gc(TRUE)

gc(reset = TRUE)
```

gc.time

Report Time Spent in Garbage Collection

Description

This function reports the time spent in garbage collection so far in the R session while GC timing was enabled.

Usage

```
gc.time(on = TRUE)
```

Arguments

on logical; if TRUE, GC timing is enabled.

Details

Due to timer resolution this may be under-estimate.

This is a [primitive](#).

Value

A numerical vector of length 5 giving the user CPU time, the system CPU time, the elapsed time and children’s user and system CPU times (normally both zero), of time spent doing garbage collection whilst GC timing was enabled.

Times of child processes are not available on Windows and will always be given as NA.

See Also

[gc](#), [proc.time](#) for the timings for the session.

Examples

```
gc.time()
```

gctorture	<i>Torture Garbage Collector</i>
-----------	----------------------------------

Description

Provokes garbage collection on (nearly) every memory allocation. Intended to ferret out memory protection bugs. Also makes R run *very* slowly, unfortunately.

Usage

```
gctorture(on = TRUE)
gctorture2(step, wait = step, inhibit_release = FALSE)
```

Arguments

on	logical; turning it on/off.	
step	integer; run GC every step allocations; step	= 0 turns the GC torture off.
wait	integer; number of allocations to wait before starting GC torture.	
inhibit_release	logical; do not release free objects for re-use: use with caution.	

Details

Calling `gctorture(TRUE)` instructs the memory manager to force a full GC on every allocation. `gctorture2` provides a more refined interface that allows the start of the GC torture to be deferred and also gives the option of running a GC only every step allocations.

The third argument to `gctorture2` is only used if R has been configured with a strict write barrier enabled. When this is the case all garbage collections are full collections, and the memory manager marks free nodes and enables checks in many situations that signal an error when a free node is used. This can help greatly in isolating unprotected values in C code. It does not detect the case where a node becomes free and is reallocated. The `inhibit_release` argument can be used to prevent such reallocation. This will cause memory to grow and should be used with caution and in conjunction with operating system facilities to monitor and limit process memory use.

`gctorture2` can also be invoked via environment variables at the start of the R session. `R_GCTORTURE` corresponds to the `step` argument, `R_GCTORTURE_WAIT` to `wait`, and `R_GCTORTURE_INHIBIT_RELEASE` to `inhibit_release`.

Value

Previous value of first argument.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard and Luke Tierney

get

Return the Value of a Named Object

Description

Search by name for an object (`get`) or zero or more objects (`mget`).

Usage

```
get(x, pos = -1, envir = as.environment(pos), mode = "any",
    inherits = TRUE)
```

```
mget(x, envir = as.environment(-1), mode = "any", ifnotfound,
     inherits = FALSE)
```

```
dynGet(x, ifnotfound = , minframe = 1L, inherits = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	For <code>get</code> , an object name (given as a character string). For <code>mget</code> , a character vector of object names.
<code>pos, envir</code>	where to look for the object (see ‘Details’); if omitted search as if the name of the object appeared unquoted in an expression.
<code>mode</code>	the mode or type of object sought: see the ‘Details’ section.
<code>inherits</code>	should the enclosing frames of the environment be searched?
<code>ifnotfound</code>	For <code>mget</code> , a list of values to be used if the item is not found: it will be coerced to a list if necessary. For <code>dynGet</code> any R object, e.g., a call to stop() .
<code>minframe</code>	integer specifying the minimal frame number to look into.

Details

The `pos` argument can specify the environment in which to look for the object in any of several ways: as a positive integer (the position in the [search](#) list); as the character string name of an element in the search list; or as an [environment](#) (including using `sys.frame` to access the currently active function calls). The default of `-1` indicates the current environment of the call to `get`. The `envir` argument is an alternative way to specify an environment.

These functions look to see if each of the name(s) `x` have a value bound to it in the specified environment. If `inherits` is `TRUE` and a value is not found for `x` in the specified environment, the enclosing frames of the environment are searched until the name `x` is encountered. See [environment](#) and the ‘R Language Definition’ manual for details about the structure of environments and their enclosures.

If mode is specified then only objects of that type are sought. mode here is a mixture of the meanings of `typeof` and `mode`: "function" covers primitive functions and operators, "numeric", "integer" and "double" all refer to any numeric type, "symbol" and "name" are equivalent *but* "language" must be used (and not "call" or "(").

For `mget`, the values of mode and `ifnotfound` can be either the same length as `x` or of length 1. The argument `ifnotfound` must be a list containing either the value to use if the requested item is not found or a function of one argument which will be called if the item is not found, with argument the name of the item being requested.

`dynGet()` is somewhat experimental and to be used *inside* another function. It looks for an object in the callers, i.e., the `sys.frame()`s of the function. Use with caution.

Value

For `get`, the object found. If no object is found an error results.

For `mget`, a named list of objects (found or specified *via* `ifnotfound`).

Note

The reverse (or "inverse") of `a <- get(nam)` is `assign(nam, a)`, assigning `a` to name `nam`.

`inherits = TRUE` is the default for `get` in R but not for S where it had a different meaning.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`exists` for checking whether an object exists; `get0` for an efficient way of both checking existence and getting an object.

`assign`, the inverse of `get()`, see above.

Use `getAnywhere` for searching for an object anywhere, including in other namespaces, and `getFromNamespace` to find an object in a specific namespace.

Examples

```
get("%o%")

## test mget
e1 <- new.env()
mget(letters, e1, ifnotfound = as.list(LETTERS))
```

getDLLRegisteredRoutines

Reflectance Information for C/Fortran routines in a DLL

Description

This function allows us to query the set of routines in a DLL that are registered with R to enhance dynamic lookup, error handling when calling native routines, and potentially security in the future. This function provides a description of each of the registered routines in the DLL for the different interfaces, i.e. `.C`, `.Call`, `.Fortran` and `.External`.

Usage

```
getDLLRegisteredRoutines(dll, addNames = TRUE)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|----------|---|
| dll | <p>a character string or DLLInfo object. The character string specifies the file name of the DLL of interest, and is given without the file name extension (e.g., the <code>' .dll'</code> or <code>' .so'</code>) and with no directory/path information. So a file <code>'MyPackage/libs/MyPackage.so'</code> would be specified as <code>'MyPackage'</code>.</p> <p>The DLLInfo objects can be obtained directly in calls to <code>dyn.load</code> and <code>library.dynam</code>, or can be found after the DLL has been loaded using <code>getLoadedDLLs</code>, which returns a list of DLLInfo objects (index-able by DLL file name).</p> <p>The DLLInfo approach avoids any ambiguities related to two DLLs having the same name but corresponding to files in different directories.</p> |
| addNames | <p>a logical value. If this is TRUE, the elements of the returned lists are named using the names of the routines (as seen by R via registration or raw name). If FALSE, these names are not computed and assigned to the lists. As a result, the call should be quicker. The name information is also available in the NativeSymbolInfo objects in the lists.</p> |

Details

This takes the registration information after it has been registered and processed by the R internals. In other words, it uses the extended information.

There is print methods for the class, which prints only the types which have registered routines.

Value

A list of class `"DLLRegisteredRoutines"` with four elements corresponding to the routines registered for the `.C`, `.Call`, `.Fortran` and `.External` interfaces. Each is a list with as many elements as there were routines registered for that interface.

Each element identifies a routine and is an object of class `"NativeSymbolInfo"`. An object of this class has the following fields:

name	the registered name of the routine (not necessarily the name in the C code).
address	the memory address of the routine as resolved in the loaded DLL. This may be NULL if the symbol has not yet been resolved.
dll	an object of class DLLInfo describing the DLL. This is same for all elements returned.
numParameters	the number of arguments the native routine is to be called with. In the future, we will provide information about the types of the parameters also.

Author(s)

Duncan Temple Lang <duncan@wald.ucdavis.edu>

References

‘Writing R Extensions Manual’ for symbol registration.

R News, Volume 1/3, September 2001. "In search of C/C++ & Fortran Symbols"

See Also

[getLoadedDLLs](#), [getNativeSymbolInfo](#) for information on the entry points listed.

Examples

```
dlls <- getLoadedDLLs()
getDLLRegisteredRoutines(dlls[["base"]])

getDLLRegisteredRoutines("stats")
```

getLoadedDLLs

Get DLLs Loaded in Current Session

Description

This function provides a way to get a list of all the DLLs (see [dyn.load](#)) that are currently loaded in the R session.

Usage

```
getLoadedDLLs()
```

Details

This queries the internal table that manages the DLLs.

Value

An object of class "DLLInfoList" which is a list with an element corresponding to each DLL that is currently loaded in the session. Each element is an object of class "DLLInfo" which has the following entries.

name	the abbreviated name.
path	the fully qualified name of the loaded DLL.
dynamicLookup	a logical value indicating whether R uses only the registration information to resolve symbols or whether it searches the entire symbol table of the DLL.
handle	a reference to the C-level data structure that provides access to the contents of the DLL. This is an object of class "DLLHandle".

Note that the class DLLInfo has an overloaded method for \$ which can be used to resolve native symbols within that DLL. Therefore, one must access the R-level elements described above using `[[, e.g. x[["name"]]` or `x[["handle"]]`.

Note

We are starting to use the handle elements in the DLL object to resolve symbols more directly in R.

Author(s)

Duncan Temple Lang <duncan@wald.ucdavis.edu>.

See Also

[getDLLRegisteredRoutines](#), [getNativeSymbolInfo](#)

Examples

```
getLoadedDLLs()
```

getNativeSymbolInfo *Obtain a Description of one or more Native (C/Fortran) Symbols*

Description

This finds and returns a description of one or more dynamically loaded or ‘exported’ built-in native symbols. For each name, it returns information about the name of the symbol, the library in which it is located and, if available, the number of arguments it expects and by which interface it should be called (i.e. `.Call`, `.C`, `.Fortran`, or `.External`). Additionally, it returns the address of the symbol and this can be passed to other C routines. Specifically, this provides a way to explicitly share symbols between different dynamically loaded package libraries. Also, it provides a way to query where symbols were resolved, and aids diagnosing strange behavior associated with dynamic resolution.

Usage

```
getNativeSymbolInfo(name, PACKAGE, unlist = TRUE,
                    withRegistrationInfo = FALSE)
```

Arguments

name	the name(s) of the native symbol(s).
PACKAGE	an optional argument that specifies to which DLL to restrict the search for this symbol. If this is "base", we search in the R executable itself.
unlist	a logical value which controls how the result is returned if the function is called with the name of a single symbol. If unlist is TRUE and the number of symbol names in name is one, then the NativeSymbolInfo object is returned. If it is FALSE, then a list of NativeSymbolInfo objects is returned. This is ignored if the number of symbols passed in name is more than one. To be compatible with earlier versions of this function, this defaults to TRUE.
withRegistrationInfo	a logical value indicating whether, if TRUE, to return information that was registered with R about the symbol and its parameter types if such information is available, or if FALSE to return just the address of the symbol.

Details

This uses the same mechanism for resolving symbols as is used in all the native interfaces (`.Call`, etc.). If the symbol has been explicitly registered by the DLL in which it is contained, information about the number of arguments and the interface by which it should be called will be returned. Otherwise, a generic native symbol object is returned.

Value

Generally, a list of NativeSymbolInfo elements whose elements can be indexed by the elements of name in the call. Each NativeSymbolInfo object is a list containing the following elements:

name	the name of the symbol, as given by the name argument.
address	if withRegistrationInfo is FALSE, this is the native memory address of the symbol which can be used to invoke the routine, and also to compare with other symbol addresses. This is an external pointer object and of class NativeSymbol. If withRegistrationInfo is TRUE and registration information is available for the symbol, then this is an object of class RegisteredNativeSymbol and is a reference to an internal data type that has access to the routine pointer and registration information. This too can be used in calls to <code>.Call</code> , <code>.C</code> , <code>.Fortran</code> and <code>.External</code> .
package	a list containing 3 elements: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> name the short form of the library name which can be used as the value of the PACKAGE argument in the different native interface functions. path the fully qualified name of the DLL. dynamicLookup a logical value indicating whether dynamic resolution is used when looking for symbols in this library, or only registered routines can be located.

If the routine was explicitly registered by the dynamically loaded library, the list contains a fourth field

`numParameters` the number of arguments that should be passed in a call to this routine.

Additionally, the list will have an additional class, being `CRoutine`, `CallRoutine`, `FortranRoutine` or `ExternalRoutine` corresponding to the R interface by which it should be invoked.

If any of the symbols is not found, an error is raised.

If `name` contains only one symbol name and `unlist` is `TRUE`, then the single `NativeSymbolInfo` is returned rather than the list containing that one element.

Note

One motivation for accessing this reflectance information is to be able to pass native routines to C routines as function pointers in C. This allows us to treat native routines and R functions in a similar manner, such as when passing an R function to C code that makes callbacks to that function at different points in its computation (e.g., [nls](#)). Additionally, we can resolve the symbol just once and avoid resolving it repeatedly or using the internal cache.

Author(s)

Duncan Temple Lang

References

For information about registering native routines, see “In Search of C/C++ & FORTRAN Routines”, R-News, volume 1, number 3, 2001, p20–23 (https://www.r-project.org/doc/Rnews/Rnews_2001-3.pdf).

See Also

[getDLLRegisteredRoutines](#), [is.loaded](#), [.C](#), [.Fortran](#), [.External](#), [.Call](#), [dyn.load](#).

gettext

Translate Text Messages

Description

If Native Language Support was enabled in this build of R, attempt to translate character vectors or set where the translations are to be found.

Usage

```
gettext(..., domain = NULL)
```

```
ngettext(n, msg1, msg2, domain = NULL)
```

```
bindtextdomain(domain, dirname = NULL)
```



```

n))

## Not run:
## for translation, those strings should appear in R-pkg.pot as
msgid      "%d variable has missing values"
msgid_plural "%d variables have missing values"
msgstr[0]   ""
msgstr[1]   ""

## End(Not run)

miss <- c("one", "or", "another")
cat(ngettext(length(miss), "variable", "variables"),
    paste(sQuote(miss), collapse = ", "),
    ngettext(length(miss), "contains", "contain"), "missing values\n")

## better for translators would be to use
cat(sprintf(ngettext(length(miss),
    "variable %s contains missing values\n",
    "variables %s contain missing values\n"),
    paste(sQuote(miss), collapse = ", ")))

```

getwd

Get or Set Working Directory

Description

getwd returns an absolute filepath representing the current working directory of the R process; setwd(dir) is used to set the working directory to dir.

Usage

```

getwd()
setwd(dir)

```

Arguments

dir A character string: [tilde expansion](#) will be done.

Value

getwd returns a character string or NULL if the working directory is not available. On Windows the path returned will use / as the path separator and be encoded in UTF-8. The path will not have a trailing / unless it is the root directory (of a drive or share on Windows).

setwd returns the current directory before the change, invisibly and with the same conventions as getwd. It will give an error if it does not succeed (including if it is not implemented).

Note

Note that the return value is said to be **an** absolute filepath: there can be more than one representation of the path to a directory and on some OSES the value returned can differ after changing directories and changing back to the same directory (for example if symbolic links have been traversed).

See Also

[list.files](#) for the *contents* of a directory.
[normalizePath](#) for a ‘canonical’ path name.

Examples

```
(WD <- getwd())
if (!is.null(WD)) setwd(WD)
```

gl	<i>Generate Factor Levels</i>
----	-------------------------------

Description

Generate factors by specifying the pattern of their levels.

Usage

```
gl(n, k, length = n*k, labels = seq_len(n), ordered = FALSE)
```

Arguments

n	an integer giving the number of levels.
k	an integer giving the number of replications.
length	an integer giving the length of the result.
labels	an optional vector of labels for the resulting factor levels.
ordered	a logical indicating whether the result should be ordered or not.

Value

The result has levels from 1 to n with each value replicated in groups of length k out to a total length of length.

gl is modelled on the *GLIM* function of the same name.

See Also

The underlying [factor\(\)](#).

Examples

```
## First control, then treatment:
gl(2, 8, labels = c("Control", "Treat"))
## 20 alternating 1s and 2s
gl(2, 1, 20)
## alternating pairs of 1s and 2s
gl(2, 2, 20)
```

grep

Pattern Matching and Replacement

Description

grep, grepl, regexpr, gregexpr and regexexec search for matches to argument pattern within each element of a character vector: they differ in the format of and amount of detail in the results.

sub and gsub perform replacement of the first and all matches respectively.

Usage

```
grep(pattern, x, ignore.case = FALSE, perl = FALSE, value = FALSE,
      fixed = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE, invert = FALSE)
```

```
grepl(pattern, x, ignore.case = FALSE, perl = FALSE,
      fixed = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

```
sub(pattern, replacement, x, ignore.case = FALSE, perl = FALSE,
    fixed = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

```
gsub(pattern, replacement, x, ignore.case = FALSE, perl = FALSE,
    fixed = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

```
regexpr(pattern, text, ignore.case = FALSE, perl = FALSE,
    fixed = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

```
gregexpr(pattern, text, ignore.case = FALSE, perl = FALSE,
    fixed = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

```
regexexec(pattern, text, ignore.case = FALSE,
    fixed = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

Arguments

pattern	character string containing a regular expression (or character string for <code>fixed = TRUE</code>) to be matched in the given character vector. Coerced by as.character to a character string if possible. If a character vector of length 2 or more is supplied, the first element is used with a warning. Missing values are allowed except for <code>regexpr</code> and <code>gregexpr</code> .
---------	---

<code>x, text</code>	a character vector where matches are sought, or an object which can be coerced by <code>as.character</code> to a character vector. Long vectors are supported.
<code>ignore.case</code>	if FALSE, the pattern matching is <i>case sensitive</i> and if TRUE, case is ignored during matching.
<code>perl</code>	logical. Should Perl-compatible regexps be used?
<code>value</code>	if FALSE, a vector containing the (integer) indices of the matches determined by <code>grep</code> is returned, and if TRUE, a vector containing the matching elements themselves is returned.
<code>fixed</code>	logical. If TRUE, <code>pattern</code> is a string to be matched as is. Overrides all conflicting arguments.
<code>useBytes</code>	logical. If TRUE the matching is done byte-by-byte rather than character-by-character. See ‘Details’.
<code>invert</code>	logical. If TRUE return indices or values for elements that do <i>not</i> match.
<code>replacement</code>	a replacement for matched pattern in <code>sub</code> and <code>gsub</code> . Coerced to character if possible. For <code>fixed = FALSE</code> this can include backreferences <code>"\1"</code> to <code>"\9"</code> to parenthesized subexpressions of <code>pattern</code> . For <code>perl = TRUE</code> only, it can also contain <code>"\U"</code> or <code>"\L"</code> to convert the rest of the replacement to upper or lower case and <code>"\E"</code> to end case conversion. If a character vector of length 2 or more is supplied, the first element is used with a warning. If NA, all elements in the result corresponding to matches will be set to NA.

Details

Arguments which should be character strings or character vectors are coerced to character if possible.

Each of these functions (apart from `regexexec`, which currently does not support Perl-style regular expressions) operates in one of three modes:

1. `fixed = TRUE`: use exact matching.
2. `perl = TRUE`: use Perl-style regular expressions.
3. `fixed = FALSE`, `perl = FALSE`: use POSIX 1003.2 extended regular expressions.

See the help pages on [regular expression](#) for details of the different types of regular expressions.

The two `*sub` functions differ only in that `sub` replaces only the first occurrence of a pattern whereas `gsub` replaces all occurrences. If `replacement` contains backreferences which are not defined in `pattern` the result is undefined (but most often the backreference is taken to be `"`).

For `regexpr`, `gregexpr` and `regexexec` it is an error for `pattern` to be NA, otherwise NA is permitted and gives an NA match.

The main effect of `useBytes` is to avoid errors/warnings about invalid inputs and spurious matches in multibyte locales, but for `regexpr` it changes the interpretation of the output. It inhibits the conversion of inputs with marked encodings, and is forced if any input is found which is marked as “bytes” see [Encoding](#)).

Caseless matching does not make much sense for bytes in a multibyte locale, and you should expect it only to work for ASCII characters if `useBytes = TRUE`.

`regexpr` and `gregexpr` with `perl = TRUE` allow Python-style named captures, but not for *long vector* inputs.

Invalid inputs in the current locale are warned about up to 5 times.

Caseless matching with `PERL = TRUE` for non-ASCII characters depends on the PCRE library being compiled with ‘Unicode property support’: an external library might not be.

Value

`grep(value = FALSE)` returns a vector of the indices of the elements of `x` that yielded a match (or not, for `invert = TRUE`). This will be an integer vector unless the input is a *long vector*, when it will be a double vector.

`grep(value = TRUE)` returns a character vector containing the selected elements of `x` (after coercion, preserving names but no other attributes).

`grepl` returns a logical vector (match or not for each element of `x`).

For `sub` and `gsub` return a character vector of the same length and with the same attributes as `x` (after possible coercion to character). Elements of character vectors `x` which are not substituted will be returned unchanged (including any declared encoding). If `useBytes = FALSE` a non-ASCII substituted result will often be in UTF-8 with a marked encoding (e.g., if there is a UTF-8 input, and in a multibyte locale unless `fixed = TRUE`). Such strings can be re-encoded by [enc2native](#).

`regexpr` returns an integer vector of the same length as `text` giving the starting position of the first match or `-1` if there is none, with attribute `"match.length"`, an integer vector giving the length of the matched text (or `-1` for no match). The match positions and lengths are in characters unless `useBytes = TRUE` is used, when they are in bytes. If named capture is used there are further attributes `"capture.start"`, `"capture.length"` and `"capture.names"`.

`gregexpr` returns a list of the same length as `text` each element of which is of the same form as the return value for `regexpr`, except that the starting positions of every (disjoint) match are given.

`regexexec` returns a list of the same length as `text` each element of which is either `-1` if there is no match, or a sequence of integers with the starting positions of the match and all substrings corresponding to parenthesized subexpressions of `pattern`, with attribute `"match.length"` a vector giving the lengths of the matches (or `-1` for no match).

Warning

POSIX 1003.2 mode of `gsub` and `gregexpr` does not work correctly with repeated word-boundaries (e.g., `pattern = "\\b"`). Use `perl = TRUE` for such matches (but that may not work as expected with non-ASCII inputs, as the meaning of ‘word’ is system-dependent).

Performance considerations

If you are doing a lot of regular expression matching, including on very long strings, you will want to consider the options used. Generally PCRE will be faster than the default regular expression engine, and `fixed = TRUE` faster still (especially when each pattern is matched only a few times).

If you are working in a single-byte locale and have marked UTF-8 strings that are representable in that locale, convert them first as just one UTF-8 string will force all the matching to be done in Unicode, which attracts a penalty of around $3 \times$ for the default POSIX 1003.2 mode.

If you can make use of `useBytes = TRUE`, the strings will not be checked before matching, and the actual matching will be faster. Often byte-based matching suffices in a UTF-8 locale since byte patterns of one character never match part of another.

Source

The C code for POSIX-style regular expression matching has changed over the years. As from R 2.10.0 the TRE library of Ville Laurikari (<http://laurikari.net/tre/>) is used. The POSIX standard does give some room for interpretation, especially in the handling of invalid regular expressions and the collation of character ranges, so the results will have changed slightly over the years.

For Perl-style matching PCRE (<http://www.pcre.org>) is used.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole (grep)

See Also

[regular expression](#) (aka [regex](#)) for the details of the pattern specification.

[regmatches](#) for extracting matched substrings based on the results of `regexpr`, `gregexpr` and `regexec`.

[glob2rx](#) to turn wildcard matches into regular expressions.

[agrep](#) for approximate matching.

[charmatch](#), [pmatch](#) for partial matching, [match](#) for matching to whole strings.

[tolower](#), [toupper](#) and [chartr](#) for character translations.

[apropos](#) uses regexps and has more examples.

[grepRaw](#) for matching raw vectors.

Examples

```
grep("[a-z]", letters)

txt <- c("arm", "foot", "lefroo", "bafoobar")
if(length(i <- grep("foo", txt)))
  cat("'foo' appears at least once in\n\t", txt, "\n")
i # 2 and 4
txt[i]

## Double all 'a' or 'b's; "\" must be escaped, i.e., 'doubled'
gsub("([ab])", "\\1_\\1_", "abc and ABC")

txt <- c("The", "licenses", "for", "most", "software", "are",
  "designed", "to", "take", "away", "your", "freedom",
  "to", "share", "and", "change", "it.",
  "", "By", "contrast,", "the", "GNU", "General", "Public", "License",
  "is", "intended", "to", "guarantee", "your", "freedom", "to",
```

```

    "share", "and", "change", "free", "software", "--",
    "to", "make", "sure", "the", "software", "is",
    "free", "for", "all", "its", "users")
( i <- grep("[gu]", txt) ) # indices
stopifnot( txt[i] == grep("[gu]", txt, value = TRUE) )

## Note that in locales such as en_US this includes B as the
## collation order is aAbBcCdEe ...
(ot <- sub("[b-e]", ".", txt))
txt[ot != gsub("[b-e]", ".", txt)]#- gsub does "global" substitution

txt[gsub("g", "#", txt) !=
     gsub("g", "#", txt, ignore.case = TRUE)] # the "G" words

regexpr("en", txt)

gregexpr("e", txt)

## Using grepl() for filtering
## Find functions with argument names matching "warn":
findArgs <- function(env, pattern) {
  nms <- ls(envir = as.environment(env))
  nms <- nms[is.na(match(nms, c("F", "T")))] # <-- work around "checking hack"
  aa <- sapply(nms, function(.) { o <- get(.)
    if(is.function(o)) names(formals(o)) })
  iw <- sapply(aa, function(a) any(grepl(pattern, a, ignore.case=TRUE)))
  aa[iw]
}
findArgs("package:base", "warn")

## trim trailing white space
str <- "Now is the time      "
sub(" +$", "", str) ## spaces only
## what is considered 'white space' depends on the locale.
sub("[:,space:]+$", "", str) ## white space, POSIX-style
## what PCRE considered white space changed in version 8.34: see ?regex
sub("\\s+$", "", str, perl = TRUE) ## PCRE-style white space

## capitalizing
txt <- "a test of capitalizing"
gsub("(\\w)(\\w*)", "\\U\\1\\L\\2", txt, perl=TRUE)
gsub("(\\b(\\w)", "\\U\\1", txt, perl=TRUE)

txt2 <- "useRs may fly into JFK or laGuardia"
gsub("(\\w)(\\w*)(\\w)", "\\U\\1\\E\\2\\U\\3", txt2, perl=TRUE)
sub("(\\w)(\\w*)(\\w)", "\\U\\1\\E\\2\\U\\3", txt2, perl=TRUE)

## named capture
notables <- c(" Ben Franklin and Jefferson Davis",
              "\tMillard Fillmore")
# name groups 'first' and 'last'
name.rex <- "(?<first>[:,upper:]][:,lower:]]+)(?<last>[:,upper:]][:,lower:]]+)"
(parsed <- regexpr(name.rex, notables, perl = TRUE))

```

```

gregexpr(name.rex, notables, perl = TRUE)[[2]]
parse.one <- function(res, result) {
  m <- do.call(rbind, lapply(seq_along(res), function(i) {
    if(result[i] == -1) return("")
    st <- attr(result, "capture.start")[i, ]
    substring(res[i], st, st + attr(result, "capture.length")[i, ] - 1)
  }))
  colnames(m) <- attr(result, "capture.names")
  m
}
parse.one(notables, parsed)

## Decompose a URL into its components.
## Example by LT (http://www.cs.uiowa.edu/~luke/R/regexp.html).
x <- "http://stat.umn.edu:80/xyz"
m <- regexec("^(([^\:]+)://)?([^\:\/]+)(:([0-9]+))?(/.*)", x)
m
regmatches(x, m)
## Element 3 is the protocol, 4 is the host, 6 is the port, and 7
## is the path. We can use this to make a function for extracting the
## parts of a URL:
URL_parts <- function(x) {
  m <- regexec("^(([^\:]+)://)?([^\:\/]+)(:([0-9]+))?(/.*)", x)
  parts <- do.call(rbind,
    lapply(regmatches(x, m), `[`, c(3L, 4L, 6L, 7L)))
  colnames(parts) <- c("protocol", "host", "port", "path")
  parts
}
URL_parts(x)

## There is no gregexec() yet, but one can emulate it by running
## regexec() on the regmatches obtained via gregexpr(). E.g.:
pattern <- "([[:alpha:]]+)([[:digit:]]+)"
s <- "Test: A1 BC23 DEF456"
lapply(regmatches(s, gregexpr(pattern, s)),
  function(e) regmatches(e, regexec(pattern, e)))

```

Description

grepRaw searches for substring pattern matches within a raw vector x.

Usage

```

grepRaw(pattern, x, offset = 1L, ignore.case = FALSE,
  value = FALSE, fixed = FALSE, all = FALSE, invert = FALSE)

```

Arguments

pattern	raw vector containing a regular expression (or fixed pattern for <code>fixed = TRUE</code>) to be matched in the given raw vector. Coerced by charToRaw to a character string if possible.
x	a raw vector where matches are sought, or an object which can be coerced by charToRaw to a raw vector. Long vectors are not supported.
ignore.case	if <code>FALSE</code> , the pattern matching is <i>case sensitive</i> and if <code>TRUE</code> , case is ignored during matching.
offset	An integer specifying the offset from which the search should start. Must be positive. The beginning of line is defined to be at that offset so <code>"^"</code> will match there.
value	logical. Determines the return value: see 'Value'.
fixed	logical. If <code>TRUE</code> , pattern is a pattern to be matched as is.
all	logical. If <code>TRUE</code> all matches are returned, otherwise just the first one.
invert	logical. If <code>TRUE</code> return indices or values for elements that do <i>not</i> match. Ignored (with a warning) unless <code>value = TRUE</code> .

Details

Unlike [grep](#), seeks matching patterns within the raw vector `x`. This has implications especially in the `all = TRUE` case, e.g., patterns matching empty strings are inherently infinite and thus may lead to unexpected results.

The argument `invert` is interpreted as asking to return the complement of the match, which is only meaningful for `value = TRUE`. Argument `offset` determines the start of the search, not of the complement. Note that `invert = TRUE` with `all = TRUE` will split `x` into pieces delimited by the pattern including leading and trailing empty strings (consequently the use of regular expressions with `"^"` or `"$"` in that case may lead to less intuitive results).

Some combinations of arguments such as `fixed = TRUE` with `value = TRUE` are supported but are less meaningful.

Value

`grepRaw(value = FALSE)` returns an integer vector of the offsets at which matches have occurred. If `all = FALSE` then it will be either of length zero (no match) or length one (first matching position).

`grepRaw(value = TRUE, all = FALSE)` returns a raw vector which is either empty (no match) or the matched part of `x`.

`grepRaw(value = TRUE, all = TRUE)` returns a (potentially empty) list of raw vectors corresponding to the matched parts.

Source

The TRE library of Ville Laurikari (<http://laurikari.net/tre/>) is used except for `fixed = TRUE`.

See Also

[regular expression](#) (aka [regexp](#)) for the details of the pattern specification.
[grep](#) for matching character vectors.

groupGeneric

*S3 Group Generic Functions***Description**

Group generic methods can be defined for four pre-specified groups of functions, Math, Ops, Summary and Complex. (There are no objects of these names in base R, but there are in the **methods** package.)

A method defined for an individual member of the group takes precedence over a method defined for the group as a whole.

Usage

```
## S3 methods for group generics have prototypes:
Math(x, ...)
Ops(e1, e2)
Complex(z)
Summary(..., na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`x, z, e1, e2` objects.
`...` further arguments passed to methods.
`na.rm` logical: should missing values be removed?

Details

There are four *groups* for which S3 methods can be written, namely the "Math", "Ops", "Summary" and "Complex" groups. These are not R objects in base R, but methods can be supplied for them and base R contains [factor](#), [data.frame](#) and [difftime](#) methods for the first three groups. (There is also a [ordered](#) method for Ops, [POSIXt](#) and [Date](#) methods for Math and Ops, [package_version](#) methods for Ops and Summary, as well as a [ts](#) method for Ops in package **stats**.)

1. Group "Math":

- `abs`, `sign`, `sqrt`,
`floor`, `ceiling`, `trunc`,
`round`, `signif`
- `exp`, `log`, `expm1`, `log1p`,
`cos`, `sin`, `tan`,
`cospi`, `sinpi`, `tanpi`,
`acos`, `asin`, `atan`
`cosh`, `sinh`, `tanh`,
`acosh`, `asinh`, `atanh`

- lgamma, gamma, digamma, trigamma
- cumsum, cumprod, cummax, cummin

Members of this group dispatch on `x`. Most members accept only one argument, but members `log`, `round` and `signif` accept one or two arguments, and `trunc` accepts one or more.

2. Group "Ops":

- "+", "-", "*", "/", "^", "%%", "%/%"
- "&", "|", "!"
- "==", "!=", "<", "<=", ">=", ">"

This group contains both binary and unary operators (+, - and !): when a unary operator is encountered the Ops method is called with one argument and `e2` is missing.

The classes of both arguments are considered in dispatching any member of this group. For each argument its vector of classes is examined to see if there is a matching specific (preferred) or Ops method. If a method is found for just one argument or the same method is found for both, it is used. If different methods are found, there is a warning about 'incompatible methods': in that case or if no method is found for either argument the internal method is used.

If the members of this group are called as functions, any argument names are removed to ensure that positional matching is always used.

3. Group "Summary":

- all, any
- sum, prod
- min, max
- range

Members of this group dispatch on the first argument supplied.

4. Group "Complex":

- Arg, Conj, Im, Mod, Re

Members of this group dispatch on `z`.

Note that a method will be used for one of these groups or one of its members *only* if it corresponds to a "class" attribute, as the internal code dispatches on `oldClass` and not on `class`. This is for efficiency: having to dispatch on, say, `Ops.integer` would be too slow.

The number of arguments supplied for primitive members of the "Math" group generic methods is not checked prior to dispatch.

There is no lazy evaluation of arguments for group-generic functions.

Technical Details

These functions are all primitive and [internal generic](#).

The details of method dispatch and variables such as `.Generic` are discussed in the help for [UseMethod](#). There are a few small differences:

- For the operators of group Ops, the object `.Method` is a length-two character vector with elements the methods selected for the left and right arguments respectively. (If no method was selected, the corresponding element is `""`.)
- Object `.Group` records the group used for dispatch (if a specific method is used this is `""`).

Note

Package **methods** does contain objects with these names, which it has re-used in confusing similar (but different) ways. See the help for that package.

References

Appendix A, *Classes and Methods* of
Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. eds (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[methods](#) for methods of non-internal generic functions.

[S4groupGeneric](#) for group generics for S4 methods.

Examples

```
require(utils)

d.fr <- data.frame(x = 1:9, y = stats::rnorm(9))
class(1 + d.fr) == "data.frame" ##-- add to d.f. ...

methods("Math")
methods("Ops")
methods("Summary")
methods("Complex") # none in base R
```

gzcon

(De)compress I/O Through Connections

Description

gzcon provides a modified connection that wraps an existing connection, and decompresses reads or compresses writes through that connection. Standard gzip headers are assumed.

Usage

```
gzcon(con, level = 6, allowNonCompressed = TRUE)
```

Arguments

con	a connection.
level	integer between 0 and 9, the compression level when writing.
allowNonCompressed	logical. When reading, should non-compressed input be allowed?

Details

If `con` is open then the modified connection is opened. Closing the wrapper connection will also close the underlying connection.

Reading from a connection which does not supply a gzip magic header is equivalent to reading from the original connection if `allowNonCompressed` is true, otherwise an error.

Compressed output will contain embedded NUL bytes, and so `con` is not permitted to be a [textConnection](#) opened with `open = "w"`. Use a writable [rawConnection](#) to compress data into a variable.

The original connection becomes unusable: any object pointing to it will now refer to the modified connection. For this reason, the new connection needs to be closed explicitly.

Value

An object inheriting from class `"connection"`. This is the same connection *number* as supplied, but with a modified internal structure. It has binary mode.

See Also

[gzfile](#)

Examples

```
## Uncompress a data file from a URL
z <- gzcon(url("http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/pub/datasets/csb/ch12.dat.gz"))
# read.table can only read from a text-mode connection.
raw <- textConnection(readLines(z))
close(z)
dat <- read.table(raw)
close(raw)
dat[1:4, ]
```

```
## gzfile and gzcon can inter-work.
## Of course here one would use gzfile, but file() can be replaced by
## any other connection generator.
zz <- gzfile("ex.gz", "w")
cat("TITLE extra line", "2 3 5 7", "", "11 13 17", file = zz, sep = "\n")
close(zz)
readLines(zz <- gzcon(file("ex.gz", "rb")))
close(zz)
unlink("ex.gz")
```

```
zz <- gzcon(file("ex2.gz", "wb"))
cat("TITLE extra line", "2 3 5 7", "", "11 13 17", file = zz, sep = "\n")
close(zz)
readLines(zz <- gzfile("ex2.gz"))
close(zz)
unlink("ex2.gz")
```

hexmode

*Display Numbers in Hexadecimal***Description**

Convert or print integers in hexadecimal format, with as many digits as are needed to display the largest, using leading zeroes as necessary.

Usage

```
as.hexmode(x)

## S3 method for class 'hexmode'
as.character(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'hexmode'
format(x, width = NULL, upper.case = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'hexmode'
print(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	An object, for the methods inheriting from class "hexmode".
<code>width</code>	NULL or a positive integer specifying the minimum field width to be used, with padding by leading zeroes.
<code>upper.case</code>	a logical indicating whether to use upper-case letters or lower-case letters (default).
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Class "hexmode" consists of integer vectors with that class attribute, used merely to ensure that they are printed in hex.

If `width = NULL` (the default), the output is padded with leading zeroes to the smallest width needed for all the non-missing elements.

`as.hexmode` can convert integers (of [type](#) "integer" or "double") and character vectors whose elements contain only 0-9, a-f, A-F (or are NA) to class "hexmode".

There is a [!](#) method and [|](#), [&](#) and [xor](#) methods: these recycle their arguments to the length of the longer and then apply the operators bitwise to each element.

See Also

[octmode](#), [sprintf](#) for other options in converting integers to hex, [strtoi](#) to convert hex strings to integers.

Examples

```
i <- as.hexmode("7fffffff")
i; class(i)
identical(as.integer(i), .Machine$integer.max)

hm <- as.hexmode(c(NA, 1)); hm
as.integer(hm)
```

Hyperbolic

*Hyperbolic Functions***Description**

These functions give the obvious hyperbolic functions. They respectively compute the hyperbolic cosine, sine, tangent, and their inverses, arc-cosine, arc-sine, arc-tangent (or ‘*area cosine*’, etc).

Usage

```
cosh(x)
sinh(x)
tanh(x)
acosh(x)
asinh(x)
atanh(x)
```

Arguments

x a numeric or complex vector

Details

These are [internal generic primitive](#) functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic.

Branch cuts are consistent with the inverse trigonometric functions as in *et seq*, and agree with those defined in Abramowitz and Stegun, figure 4.7, page 86. The behaviour actually on the cuts follows the C99 standard which requires continuity coming round the endpoint in a counter-clockwise direction.

S4 methods

All are S4 generic functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic.

References

Abramowitz, M. and Stegun, I. A. (1972) *Handbook of Mathematical Functions*. New York: Dover. Chapter 4. Elementary Transcendental Functions: Logarithmic, Exponential, Circular and Hyperbolic Functions

See Also

The trigonometric functions, [cos](#), [sin](#), [tan](#), and their inverses [acos](#), [asin](#), [atan](#).

The logistic distribution function [plogis](#) is a shifted version of `tanh()` for numeric `x`.

 iconv

Convert Character Vector between Encodings

Description

This uses system facilities to convert a character vector between encodings: the ‘i’ stands for ‘internationalization’.

Usage

```
iconv(x, from = "", to = "", sub = NA, mark = TRUE, toRaw = FALSE)
```

```
iconvlist()
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A character vector, or an object to be converted to a character vector by as.character , or a list with NULL and raw elements as returned by <code>iconv(toRaw = TRUE)</code> .
<code>from</code>	A character string describing the current encoding.
<code>to</code>	A character string describing the target encoding.
<code>sub</code>	character string. If not NA it is used to replace any non-convertible bytes in the input. (This would normally be a single character, but can be more.) If "byte", the indication is "<xx>" with the hex code of the byte.
<code>mark</code>	logical, for expert use. Should encodings be marked?
<code>toRaw</code>	logical. Should a list of raw vectors be returned rather than a character vector?

Details

The names of encodings and which ones are available are platform-dependent. All R platforms support "" (for the encoding of the current locale), "latin1" and "UTF-8". Generally case is ignored when specifying an encoding.

On most platforms `iconvlist` provides an alphabetical list of the supported encodings. On others, the information is on the man page for `iconv(5)` or elsewhere in the man pages (but beware that the system command `iconv` may not support the same set of encodings as the C functions R calls). Unfortunately, the names are rarely supported across all platforms.

Elements of `x` which cannot be converted (perhaps because they are invalid or because they cannot be represented in the target encoding) will be returned as NA unless `sub` is specified.

Most versions of `iconv` will allow transliteration by appending ‘//TRANSLIT’ to the `to` encoding: see the examples.

Encoding "ASCII" is accepted, and on most systems "C" and "POSIX" are synonyms for ASCII.

Any encoding bits (see [Encoding](#)) on elements of `x` are ignored: they will always be translated as if from encoding from even if declared otherwise. `enc2native` and `enc2utf8` provide alternatives which do take declared encodings into account.

Note that implementations of `iconv` typically do not do much validity checking and will often mis-convert inputs which are invalid in encoding from.

Value

If `toRaw = FALSE` (the default), the value is a character vector of the same length and the same attributes as `x` (after conversion to a character vector).

If `mark = TRUE` (the default) the elements of the result have a declared encoding if `to` is "latin1" or "UTF-8", or if `to = ""` and the current locale's encoding is detected as Latin-1 (or its superset CP1252 on Windows) or UTF-8.

If `toRaw = TRUE`, the value is a list of the same length and the same attributes as `x` whose elements are either NULL (if conversion fails) or a raw vector.

For `iconvlist()`, a character vector (typically of a few hundred elements) of known encoding names.

Implementation Details

There are three main implementations of `iconv` in use. Linux's C runtime 'glibc' contains one. Several platforms supply GNU 'libiconv', including OS X, FreeBSD and Cygwin, in some cases with additional encodings. On Windows we use a version of Yukihiro Nakadaira's 'win_iconv', which is based on Windows' codepages. (We have added many encoding names for compatibility with other systems.) All three have `iconvlist`, ignore case in encoding names and support '//TRANSLIT' (but with different results, and for 'win_iconv' currently a 'best fit' strategy is used except for `to = "ASCII"`).

Most commercial Unixes contain an implementation of `iconv` but none we have encountered have supported the encoding names we need: the "R Installation and Administration Manual" recommends installing GNU 'libiconv' on Solaris and AIX, for example.

There are other implementations, e.g. NetBSD has used one from the Citrus project (which does not support '//TRANSLIT') and there is an older FreeBSD port ('libiconv' is usually used there): it has not been reported whether or not these work with R.

Note that you cannot rely on invalid inputs being detected, especially for `to = "ASCII"` where some implementations allow 8-bit characters and pass them through unchanged or with transliteration.

Some of the implementations have interesting extra encodings: for example GNU 'libiconv' allows `to = "C99"` to use \uxxx escapes for non-ASCII characters.

Byte Order Marks

most commonly known as 'BOMs'.

Encodings using character units which are more than one byte in size can be written on a file in either big-endian or little-endian order: this applies most commonly to UCS-2, UTF-16 and UTF-32/UCS-4 encodings. Some systems will write the Unicode character U+FEFF at the beginning of a file in these encodings and perhaps also in UTF-8. In that usage the character is known as a BOM,

and should be handled during input (see the ‘Encodings’ section under [connection](#): re-encoded connections have some special handling of BOMs). The rest of this section applies when this has not been done so `x` starts with a BOM.

Implementations will generally interpret a BOM for `from` given as one of "UCS-2", "UTF-16" and "UTF-32". Implementations differ in how they treat BOMs in `x` in other `from` encodings: they may be discarded, returned as character `U+FEFF` or regarded as invalid.

Note

The only reasonably portable name for the ISO 8859-15 encoding, commonly known as ‘Latin 9’, is "latin-9": some platforms support "latin9" but GNU ‘libiconv’ does not.

Encoding names "utf8", "mac" and "macroman" are not portable. "utf8" is converted to "UTF-8" for `from` and `to` (as from R 3.0.3) by `iconv`, but not for e.g. `fileEncoding` arguments. "macintosh" is the official (and most widely supported) name for ‘Mac Roman’ (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mac_OS_Roman).

See Also

[localeToCharset](#), [file](#).

Examples

```
## In principle, as not all systems have iconvlist
try(utils::head(iconvlist(), n = 50))

## Not run:
## convert from Latin-2 to UTF-8: two of the glibc iconv variants.
iconv(x, "ISO_8859-2", "UTF-8")
iconv(x, "LATIN2", "UTF-8")

## End(Not run)

## Both x below are in latin1 and will only display correctly in a
## locale that can represent and display latin1.
x <- "fa\xE7ile"
Encoding(x) <- "latin1"
x
charToRaw(xx <- iconv(x, "latin1", "UTF-8"))
xx

iconv(x, "latin1", "ASCII")      # NA
iconv(x, "latin1", "ASCII", "?") # "fa?ile"
iconv(x, "latin1", "ASCII", "")  # "faile"
iconv(x, "latin1", "ASCII", "byte") # "fa<e7>ile"

## Extracts from old R help files (they are nowadays in UTF-8)
x <- c("Ekstr\xfbm", "J\xfbreskog", "bi\xdfchen Z\xfccher")
Encoding(x) <- "latin1"
x
try(iconv(x, "latin1", "ASCII//TRANSLIT")) # platform-dependent
iconv(x, "latin1", "ASCII", sub = "byte")
```

```
## and for Windows' 'Unicode'
str(xx <- iconv(x, "latin1", "UTF-16LE", toRaw = TRUE))
iconv(xx, "UTF-16LE", "UTF-8")
```

icuSetCollate	<i>Setup Collation by ICU</i>
---------------	-------------------------------

Description

Controls the way collation is done by ICU (an optional part of the R build).

Usage

```
icuSetCollate(...)

icuGetCollate(type = c("actual", "valid"))
```

Arguments

...	Named arguments, see ‘Details’.
type	character string: can be abbreviated. Either the actual locale in use for collation or the most specific locale which would be valid.

Details

Optionally, R can be built to collate character strings by ICU (<http://site.icu-project.org>). For such systems, `icuSetCollate` can be used to tune the way collation is done. On other builds calling this function does nothing, with a warning.

Possible arguments are

locale: A character string such as "da_DK" giving the language and country whose collation rules are to be used. If present, this should be the first argument.

case_first: "upper", "lower" or "default", asking for upper- or lower-case characters to be sorted first. The default is usually lower-case first, but not in all languages (not under the default settings for Danish, for example).

alternate_handling: Controls the handling of ‘variable’ characters (mainly punctuation and symbols). Possible values are "non_ignorable" (primary strength) and "shifted" (quaternary strength).

strength: Which components should be used? Possible values "primary", "secondary", "tertiary" (default), "quaternary" and "identical".

french_collation: In a French locale the way accents affect collation is from right to left, whereas in most other locales it is from left to right. Possible values "on", "off" and "default".

normalization: Should strings be normalized? Possible values are "on" and "off" (default). This affects the collation of composite characters.

case_level: An additional level between secondary and tertiary, used to distinguish large and small Japanese Kana characters. Possible values "on" and "off" (default).

hiragana_quaternary: Possible values "on" (sort Hiragana first at quaternary level) and "off".

Only the first three are likely to be of interest except to those with a detailed understanding of collation and specialized requirements.

Some special values are accepted for locale:

"none": ICU is not used for collation: the OS's collation services are used instead. (As from R 3.1.2.)

"ASCII": ICU is not used for collation: the C function `strcmp` is used instead, which should sort byte-by-byte in (unsigned) numerical order. (As from R 3.1.3.)

"default": obtains the locale from the OS as is done at the start of the session. If environment variable `R_ICU_LOCALE` is set to a non-empty value, its value is used rather than consulting the OS.

"" , "root": the 'root' collation: see http://www.unicode.org/reports/tr35/tr35-collation.html#Root_Collation.

For the specifications of 'real' ICU locales, see <http://userguide.icu-project.org/locale>. Note that ICU does not report that a locale is not supported, but falls back to its idea of 'best fit' (which could be rather different and is reported by `icuGetCollate("actual")`, often "root"). Most English locales fall back to "root" as although e.g. "en_GB" is a valid locale (at least on some platforms), it contains no special rules for collation. Note that "C" is not a supported ICU locale.

Some examples are `case_level = "on"`, `strength = "primary"` to ignore accent differences and `alternate_handling = "shifted"` to ignore space and punctuation characters.

Initially ICU will not be used for collation if the OS is set to use the C locale for collation. Once this function is called with a value for locale, ICU will be used until it is called again with `locale = "none"`.

All customizations are reset to the default for the locale if locale is specified: the collation engine is reset if the OS collation locale category is changed by [Sys.setlocale](#).

Value

For `icuGetCollate`, a character string describing the ICU locale in use (which may be reported as "ICU not in use"). The 'actual' locale may be simpler than the requested locale: for example "da" rather than "da_DK": English locales are likely to report "root".

Note

ICU is used by default wherever it is available: this include OS X, Solaris and many Linux installations. As it works internally in UTF-8, it will be most efficient in UTF-8 locales.

It is optional on Windows: if R has been built against ICU, it will only be used if environment variable `R_ICU_LOCALE` is set or once `icuSetCollate` is called to select the locale (as ICU and Windows differ in their idea of locale names). Note that `icuSetCollate(locale = "default")` should work reasonably well for R >= 3.2.0 and Windows Vista/Server 2008 and later (but finds the system default ignoring environment variables such as `LC_COLLATE`).

See Also

[Comparison, sort.](#)
[capabilities](#) for whether ICU is available; [extSoftVersion](#) for its version.
The ICU user guide chapter on collation (<http://userguide.icu-project.org/collation>).

Examples

```
## These examples depend on having ICU available, and on the locale.
## As we don't know the current settings, we can only reset to the default.
if(capabilities("ICU")) {
  print(icuGetCollate())
  print(icuGetCollate("valid"))
  x <- c("Aarhus", "aarhus", "safe", "test", "Zoo")
  print(sort(x))
  icuSetCollate(case_first = "upper"); print(sort(x))
  icuSetCollate(case_first = "lower"); print(sort(x))

  ## Danish collates upper-case-first and with 'aa' as a single letter
  icuSetCollate(locale = "da_DK", case_first = "default"); print(sort(x))
  ## Estonian collates Z between S and T
  icuSetCollate(locale = "et_EE"); print(sort(x))
  icuSetCollate(locale = "default"); print(icuGetCollate("valid"))
}
```

identical	<i>Test Objects for Exact Equality</i>
-----------	--

Description

The safe and reliable way to test two objects for being *exactly* equal. It returns TRUE in this case, FALSE in every other case.

Usage

```
identical(x, y, num.eq = TRUE, single.NA = TRUE, attrib.as.set = TRUE,
          ignore.bytecode = TRUE, ignore.environment = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x, y	any R objects.
num.eq	logical indicating if (double and complex non-NA) numbers should be compared using == ('equal'), or by bitwise comparison. The latter (non-default) differentiates between -0 and +0.
single.NA	logical indicating if there is conceptually just one numeric NA and one NaN; single.NA = FALSE differentiates bit patterns.

`attrib.as.set` logical indicating if `attributes` of `x` and `y` should be treated as *unordered* tagged pairlists (“sets”); this currently also applies to `slots` of S4 objects. It may well be too strict to set `attrib.as.set = FALSE`.

`ignore.bytecode` logical indicating if byte code should be ignored when comparing *closures*.

`ignore.environment` logical indicating if their environments should be ignored when comparing *closures*.

Details

A call to `identical` is the way to test exact equality in `if` and `while` statements, as well as in logical expressions that use `&&` or `||`. In all these applications you need to be assured of getting a single logical value.

Users often use the comparison operators, such as `==` or `!=`, in these situations. It looks natural, but it is not what these operators are designed to do in **R**. They return an object like the arguments. If you expected `x` and `y` to be of length 1, but it happened that one of them was not, you will *not* get a single `FALSE`. Similarly, if one of the arguments is `NA`, the result is also `NA`. In either case, the expression `if(x == y)...` won’t work as expected.

The function `all.equal` is also sometimes used to test equality this way, but was intended for something different: it allows for small differences in numeric results.

The computations in `identical` are also reliable and usually fast. There should never be an error. The only known way to kill `identical` is by having an invalid pointer at the C level, generating a memory fault. It will usually find inequality quickly. Checking equality for two large, complicated objects can take longer if the objects are identical or nearly so, but represent completely independent copies. For most applications, however, the computational cost should be negligible.

If `single.NA` is true, as by default, `identical` sees `NaN` as different from `NA_real_`, but all `NaN`s are equal (and all `NA` of the same type are equal).

Character strings are regarded as identical if they are in different marked encodings but would agree when translated to UTF-8.

If `attrib.as.set` is true, as by default, comparison of attributes view them as a set (and not a vector, so order is not tested).

If `ignore.bytecode` is true (the default), the compiled bytecode of a function (see `cmpfun`) will be ignored in the comparison. If it is false, functions will compare equal only if they are copies of the same compiled object (or both are uncompiled). To check whether two different compiles are equal, you should compare the results of `disassemble()`.

You almost never want to use `identical` on datetimes of class `"POSIXlt"`: not only can different times in the different time zones represent the same time and time zones have multiple names, but several of the components are optional.

Note that `identical(x, y, FALSE, FALSE, FALSE, FALSE)` pickily tests for exact equality.

Value

A single logical value, `TRUE` or `FALSE`, never `NA` and never anything other than a single value.

Author(s)

John Chambers and R Core

References

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

See Also

[all.equal](#) for descriptions of how two objects differ; [Comparison](#) for operators that generate elementwise comparisons. [isTRUE](#) is a simple wrapper based on `identical`.

Examples

```
identical(1, NULL) ## FALSE -- don't try this with ==
identical(1, 1.)  ## TRUE in R (both are stored as doubles)
identical(1, as.integer(1)) ## FALSE, stored as different types

x <- 1.0; y <- 0.999999999999
## how to test for object equality allowing for numeric fuzz :
(E <- all.equal(x, y))
isTRUE(E) # which is simply defined to just use
identical(TRUE, E)
## If all.equal thinks the objects are different, it returns a
## character string, and the above expression evaluates to FALSE

## even for unusual R objects :
identical(.GlobalEnv, environment())

### ----- Pickyness Flags : -----

## the infamous example:
identical(0., -0.) # TRUE, i.e. not differentiated
identical(0., -0., num.eq = FALSE)
## similar:
identical(NaN, -NaN) # TRUE
identical(NaN, -NaN, single.NA = FALSE) # differ on bit-level
## for functions:
f <- function(x) x
f
g <- compiler::cmpfun(f)
g
identical(f, g)
identical(f, g, ignore.bytecode = FALSE)
```

identity	<i>Identity Function</i>
----------	--------------------------

Description

A trivial identity function returning its argument.

Usage

```
identity(x)
```

Arguments

`x` an R object.

See Also

[diag](#) creates diagonal matrices, including identity ones.

ifelse	<i>Conditional Element Selection</i>
--------	--------------------------------------

Description

`ifelse` returns a value with the same shape as `test` which is filled with elements selected from either `yes` or `no` depending on whether the element of `test` is TRUE or FALSE.

Usage

```
ifelse(test, yes, no)
```

Arguments

<code>test</code>	an object which can be coerced to logical mode.
<code>yes</code>	return values for true elements of <code>test</code> .
<code>no</code>	return values for false elements of <code>test</code> .

Details

If `yes` or `no` are too short, their elements are recycled. `yes` will be evaluated if and only if any element of `test` is true, and analogously for `no`.

Missing values in `test` give missing values in the result.

Value

A vector of the same length and attributes (including dimensions and "class") as test and data values from the values of yes or no. The mode of the answer will be coerced from logical to accommodate first any values taken from yes and then any values taken from no.

Warning

The mode of the result may depend on the value of test (see the examples), and the class attribute (see `oldClass`) of the result is taken from test and may be inappropriate for the values selected from yes and no.

Sometimes it is better to use a construction such as

```
(tmp <- yes; tmp[!test] <- no[!test]; tmp)
```

, possibly extended to handle missing values in test.

Further note that `if(test) yes else no` is much more efficient and often much preferable to `ifelse(test, yes, no)` whenever test is a simple true/false result, i.e., when `length(test) == 1`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[if](#).

Examples

```
x <- c(6:-4)
sqrt(x) #- gives warning
sqrt(ifelse(x >= 0, x, NA)) # no warning

## Note: the following also gives the warning !
ifelse(x >= 0, sqrt(x), NA)

## ifelse() strips attributes
## This is important when working with Dates and factors
x <- seq(as.Date("2000-02-29"), as.Date("2004-10-04"), by = "1 month")
## has many "yyyy-mm-29", but a few "yyyy-03-01" in the non-leap years
y <- ifelse(as.POSIXlt(x)$mday == 29, x, NA)
head(y) # not what you expected ... ==> need restore the class attribute:
class(y) <- class(x)
y
## ==> Again a case where it is better *not* to use ifelse(), but
## both more efficient and clear:
y2 <- x
y2[as.POSIXlt(x)$mday != 29] <- NA
```

```
stopifnot(identical(y2, y))

## example of different return modes:
yes <- 1:3
no <- pi^(0:3)
typeof(ifelse(NA, yes, no)) # logical
typeof(ifelse(TRUE, yes, no)) # integer
typeof(ifelse(FALSE, yes, no)) # double
```

integer

*Integer Vectors***Description**

Creates or tests for objects of type "integer".

Usage

```
integer(length = 0)
as.integer(x, ...)
is.integer(x)
```

Arguments

length	A non-negative integer specifying the desired length. Double values will be coerced to integer: supplying an argument of length other than one is an error.
x	object to be coerced or tested.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Integer vectors exist so that data can be passed to C or Fortran code which expects them, and so that (small) integer data can be represented exactly and compactly.

Note that current implementations of R use 32-bit integers for integer vectors, so the range of representable integers is restricted to about $\pm 2 \times 10^9$: **doubles** can hold much larger integers exactly.

Value

`integer` creates a integer vector of the specified length. Each element of the vector is equal to 0.

`as.integer` attempts to coerce its argument to be of integer type. The answer will be NA unless the coercion succeeds. Real values larger in modulus than the largest integer are coerced to NA (unlike S which gives the most extreme integer of the same sign). Non-integral numeric values are truncated towards zero (i.e., `as.integer(x)` equals `trunc(x)` there), and imaginary parts of complex numbers are discarded (with a warning). Character strings containing optional whitespace followed by either a decimal representation or a hexadecimal representation (starting with 0x or 0X)

can be converted, as well as any allowed by the platform for real numbers. Like `as.vector` it strips attributes including names. (To ensure that an object `x` is of integer type without stripping attributes, use `storage.mode(x) <- "integer"`.)

`is.integer` returns TRUE or FALSE depending on whether its argument is of integer type or not, unless it is a factor when it returns FALSE.

Note

`is.integer(x)` does **not** test if `x` contains integer numbers! For that, use `round`, as in the function `is.wholenumber(x)` in the examples.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`numeric`, `storage.mode`.

`round` (and `ceiling` and `floor` on that help page) to convert to integral values.

Examples

```
## as.integer() truncates:
x <- pi * c(-1:1, 10)
as.integer(x)

is.integer(1) # is FALSE !

is.wholenumber <-
  function(x, tol = .Machine$double.eps^0.5) abs(x - round(x)) < tol
is.wholenumber(1) # is TRUE
(x <- seq(1, 5, by = 0.5) )
is.wholenumber( x ) #--> TRUE FALSE TRUE ...
```

interaction

Compute Factor Interactions

Description

`interaction` computes a factor which represents the interaction of the given factors. The result of `interaction` is always unordered.

Usage

```
interaction(..., drop = FALSE, sep = ".", lex.order = FALSE)
```


Arguments

<code>...</code>	the factors for which interaction is to be computed, or a single list giving those factors.
<code>drop</code>	if <code>drop</code> is <code>TRUE</code> , unused factor levels are dropped from the result. The default is to retain all factor levels.
<code>sep</code>	string to construct the new level labels by joining the constituent ones.
<code>lex.order</code>	logical indicating if the order of factor concatenation should be lexically ordered.

Value

A factor which represents the interaction of the given factors. The levels are labelled as the levels of the individual factors joined by `sep` which is `.` by default.

By default, when `lex.order = FALSE`, the levels are ordered so the level of the first factor varies fastest, then the second and so on. This is the reverse of lexicographic ordering (which you can get by `lex.order = TRUE`), and differs from `:.` (It is done this way for compatibility with S.)

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`factor; .` where `f:g` is similar to `interaction(f, g, sep = ":")` when `f` and `g` are factors.

Examples

```
a <- gl(2, 4, 8)
b <- gl(2, 2, 8, labels = c("ctrl", "treat"))
s <- gl(2, 1, 8, labels = c("M", "F"))
interaction(a, b)
interaction(a, b, s, sep = ":")
stopifnot(identical(a:s,
                    interaction(a, s, sep = ":", lex.order = TRUE)),
          identical(a:s:b,
                    interaction(a, s, b, sep = ":", lex.order = TRUE)))
```

 interactive

Is R Running Interactively?

Description

Return `TRUE` when `R` is being used interactively and `FALSE` otherwise.

Usage

```
interactive()
```

Details

An interactive R session is one in which it is assumed that there is a human operator to interact with, so for example R can prompt for corrections to incorrect input or ask what to do next or if it is OK to move to the next plot.

GUI consoles will arrange to start R in an interactive session. When R is run in a terminal (via Rterm.exe on Windows), it assumes that it is interactive if ‘stdin’ is connected to a (pseudo-)terminal and not if ‘stdin’ is redirected to a file or pipe. Command-line options ‘--interactive’ (Unix) and ‘--ess’ (Windows, Rterm.exe) override the default assumption. (On a Unix-alike, whether the readline command-line editor is used is **not** overridden by ‘--interactive’.)

Embedded uses of R can set a session to be interactive or not.

Internally, whether a session is interactive determines

- how some errors are handled and reported, e.g. see [stop](#) and [options\("showWarnCalls"\)](#).
- whether one of ‘--save’, ‘--no-save’ or ‘--vanilla’ is required, and if R ever asks whether to save the workspace.
- the choice of default graphics device launched when needed and by [dev.new](#): see [options\("device"\)](#)
- whether graphics devices ever ask for confirmation of a new page.

In addition, R’s own R code makes use of `interactive()`: for example [help](#), [debugger](#) and [install.packages](#) do.

Note

This is a [primitive](#) function.

See Also

[source](#), [.First](#)

Examples

```
.First <- function() if(interactive()) x11()
```

Internal

Call an Internal Function

Description

`.Internal` performs a call to an internal code which is built in to the R interpreter.

Only true R wizards should even consider using this function, and only R developers can add to the list of internal functions.

Usage

```
.Internal(call)
```

Arguments

`call` a call expression

See Also

[.Primitive](#), [.External](#) (the nearest equivalent available to users).

InternalMethods	<i>Internal Generic Functions</i>
-----------------	-----------------------------------

Description

Many R-internal functions are *generic* and allow methods to be written for.

Details

The following primitive and internal functions are *generic*, i.e., you can write [methods](#) for them:

[\[, \[\[, \\$, \[<-, \[\[<-, \\$<-,](#)
[length, length<-, dimnames, dimnames<-, dim, dim<-, names, names<-, levels<-,](#)
[c, unlist, cbind, rbind,](#)
[as.character, as.complex, as.double, as.integer, as.logical, as.raw, as.vector,](#)
[is.array, is.matrix, is.na, is.nan, is.numeric, rep, seq.int](#) (which dispatches methods
for "seq") and [xtfrm](#)

In addition, `is.name` is a synonym for `is.symbol` and dispatches methods for the latter.

Note that all of the [group generic](#) functions are also internal/primitive and allow methods to be written for them.

`.S3PrimitiveGenerics` is a character vector listing the primitives which are internal generic and not [group generic](#). Currently [as.vector](#), [cbind](#), [rbind](#) and [unlist](#) are the internal non-primitive functions which are internally generic.

For efficiency, internal dispatch only occurs on *objects*, that is those for which [is.object](#) returns true.

See Also

[methods](#) for the methods which are available.

`invisible`*Change the Print Mode to Invisible*

Description

Return a (temporarily) invisible copy of an object.

Usage

```
invisible(x)
```

Arguments

`x` an arbitrary R object.

Details

This function can be useful when it is desired to have functions return values which can be assigned, but which do not print when they are not assigned.

This is a [primitive](#) function.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[withVisible](#), [return](#), [function](#).

Examples

```
# These functions both return their argument
f1 <- function(x) x
f2 <- function(x) invisible(x)
f1(1) # prints
f2(1) # does not
```

`is.finite`*Finite, Infinite and NaN Numbers*

Description

`is.finite` and `is.infinite` return a vector of the same length as `x`, indicating which elements are finite (not infinite and not missing) or infinite.

`Inf` and `-Inf` are positive and negative infinity whereas `NaN` means ‘Not a Number’. (These apply to numeric values and real and imaginary parts of complex values but not to values of integer vectors.) `Inf` and `NaN` are [reserved](#) words in the R language.

Usage

```
is.finite(x)
is.infinite(x)
is.nan(x)
```

```
Inf
NaN
```

Arguments

`x` R object to be tested: the default methods handle atomic vectors.

Details

`is.finite` returns a vector of the same length as `x` the `j`th element of which is TRUE if `x[j]` is finite (i.e., it is not one of the values NA, NaN, `Inf` or `-Inf`) and FALSE otherwise. Complex numbers are finite if both the real and imaginary parts are.

`is.infinite` returns a vector of the same length as `x` the `j`th element of which is TRUE if `x[j]` is infinite (i.e., equal to one of `Inf` or `-Inf`) and FALSE otherwise. This will be false unless `x` is numeric or complex. Complex numbers are infinite if either the real or the imaginary part is.

`is.nan` tests if a numeric value is NaN. Do not test equality to NaN, or even use [identical](#), since systems typically have many different NaN values. One of these is used for the numeric missing value NA, and `is.nan` is false for that value. A complex number is regarded as NaN if either the real or imaginary part is NaN but not NA. All elements of logical, integer and raw vectors are considered not to be NaN.

All three functions accept NULL as input and return a length zero result. The default methods accept character and raw vectors, and return FALSE for all entries. Prior to R version 2.14.0 they accepted all input, returning FALSE for most non-numeric values; cases which are not atomic vectors are now signalled as errors.

All three functions are generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#).

Value

A logical vector of the same length as x: dim, dimnames and names attributes are preserved.

Note

In R, basically all mathematical functions (including basic [Arithmetic](#)), are supposed to work properly with +/- Inf and NaN as input or output.

The basic rule should be that calls and relations with Infs really are statements with a proper mathematical *limit*.

Computations involving NaN will return NaN or perhaps [NA](#): which of those two is not guaranteed and may depend on the R platform (since compilers may re-order computations).

References

The IEC 60559 standard, also known as the ANSI/IEEE 754 Floating-Point Standard.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/NaN>.

D. Goldberg (1991) *What Every Computer Scientist Should Know about Floating-Point Arithmetic* ACM Computing Surveys, **23**(1).

Postscript version available at <http://www.validlab.com/goldberg/paper.ps> Extended PDF version at <http://www.validlab.com/goldberg/paper.pdf>

The C99 function isfinite is used for is.finite.

See Also

[NA](#), ‘*Not Available*’ which is not a number as well, however usually used for missing values and applies to many modes, not just numeric and complex.

[Arithmetic](#), [double](#).

Examples

```
pi / 0 ## = Inf a non-zero number divided by zero creates infinity
0 / 0 ## = NaN

1/0 + 1/0 # Inf
1/0 - 1/0 # NaN

stopifnot(
  1/0 == Inf,
  1/Inf == 0
)
sin(Inf)
cos(Inf)
tan(Inf)
```

is.function	<i>Is an Object of Type (Primitive) Function?</i>
-------------	---

Description

Checks whether its argument is a (primitive) function.

Usage

```
is.function(x)
is.primitive(x)
```

Arguments

x an R object.

Details

is.primitive(x) tests if x is a primitive function (either a "builtin" or "special" as described for [typeof](#))? It is a [primitive](#) function.

Value

TRUE if x is a (primitive) function, and FALSE otherwise.

Examples

```
is.function(1) # FALSE
is.function(is.primitive) # TRUE: it is a function, but ..
is.primitive(is.primitive) # FALSE: it's not a primitive one, whereas
is.primitive(is.function) # TRUE: that one *is*
```

is.language	<i>Is an Object a Language Object?</i>
-------------	--

Description

is.language returns TRUE if x is a variable [name](#), a [call](#), or an [expression](#).

Usage

```
is.language(x)
```

Arguments

x object to be tested.

Note

This is a [primitive](#) function.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
ll <- list(a = expression(x^2 - 2*x + 1), b = as.name("Jim"),
          c = as.expression(exp(1)), d = call("sin", pi))
sapply(ll, typeof)
sapply(ll, mode)
stopifnot(sapply(ll, is.language))
```

is.object	<i>Is an Object 'internally classed'?</i>
-----------	---

Description

A function rather for internal use. It returns TRUE if the object x has the R internal OBJECT bit set, and FALSE otherwise. The OBJECT bit is set when a "class" attribute is added and removed when that attribute is removed, so this is a very efficient way to check if an object has a class attribute. (S4 objects always should.)

Usage

```
is.object(x)
```

Arguments

x object to be tested.

Note

This is a [primitive](#) function.

See Also

[class](#), and [methods](#).
[isS4](#).

Examples

```
is.object(1) # FALSE
is.object(as.factor(1:3)) # TRUE
```

is.R

Are we using R, rather than S?

Description

Test if running under R.

Usage

```
is.R()
```

Details

The function has been written such as to correctly run in all versions of R, S and S-PLUS. In order for code to be runnable in both R and S dialects previous to S-PLUS 8.0, your code must either define is.R or use it as

```
if (exists("is.R") && is.function(is.R) && is.R()) {
## R-specific code
} else {
## S-version of code
}
```

Value

is.R returns TRUE if we are using R and FALSE otherwise.

See Also

[R.version](#), [system](#).

Examples

```
x <- stats::runif(20); small <- x < 0.4
## In the early years of R, 'which()' only existed in R:
if(is.R()) which(small) else seq(along = small)[small]
```

is.recursive

Is an Object Atomic or Recursive?

Description

is.atomic returns TRUE if x is of an atomic type (or NULL) and FALSE otherwise.

is.recursive returns TRUE if x has a recursive (list-like) structure and FALSE otherwise.

Usage

```
is.atomic(x)
is.recursive(x)
```

Arguments

x object to be tested.

Details

is.atomic is true for the [atomic](#) types ("logical", "integer", "numeric", "complex", "character" and "raw") and NULL.

Most types of objects are regarded as recursive. Exceptions are the atomic types, NULL, symbols (as given by [as.name](#)), S4 objects with slots, external pointers, and—rarely visible from R—weak references and byte code, see [typeof](#).

It is common to call the atomic types ‘atomic vectors’, but note that [is.vector](#) imposes further restrictions: an object can be atomic but not a vector (in that sense).

These are [primitive](#) functions.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[is.list](#), [is.language](#), etc, and the demo("is.things").

Examples

```
require(stats)

is.a.r <- function(x) c(is.atomic(x), is.recursive(x))

is.a.r(c(a = 1, b = 3)) # TRUE FALSE
is.a.r(list())          # FALSE TRUE - a list is a list
is.a.r(list(2))         # FALSE TRUE
is.a.r(lm)              # FALSE TRUE
is.a.r(y ~ x)           # FALSE TRUE
is.a.r(expression(x+1)) # FALSE TRUE
is.a.r(quote(exp))      # FALSE FALSE
```

is.single

Is an Object of Single Precision Type?

Description

is.single reports an error. There are no single precision values in R.

Usage

```
is.single(x)
```

Arguments

x object to be tested.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

is.unsorted

Test if an Object is Not Sorted

Description

Test if an object is not sorted (in increasing order), without the cost of sorting it.

Usage

```
is.unsorted(x, na.rm = FALSE, strictly = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x an R object with a class or a numeric, complex, character, logical or raw vector.
na.rm logical. Should missing values be removed before checking?
strictly logical indicating if the check should be for *strictly* increasing values.

Value

A length-one logical value. All objects of length 0 or 1 are sorted. Otherwise, the result will be NA except for atomic vectors and objects with an S3 class (where the >= or > method is used to compare x[i] with x[i-1] for i in 2:length(x)) or with an S4 class where you have to provide a method for `is.unsorted()`.

Note

This function is designed for objects with one-dimensional indices, as described above. Data frames, matrices and other arrays may give surprising results.

Support for raw vectors was added in R 3.1.0.

See Also

[sort](#), [order](#).

ISOdatetime

Date-time Conversion Functions from Numeric Representations

Description

Convenience wrappers to create date-times from numeric representations.

Usage

```
ISOdatetime(year, month, day, hour, min, sec, tz = "")
ISOdate(year, month, day, hour = 12, min = 0, sec = 0, tz = "GMT")
```

Arguments

year, month, day	numerical values to specify a day.
hour, min, sec	numerical values for a time within a day. Fractional seconds are allowed.
tz	A time zone specification to be used for the conversion. "" is the current time zone and "GMT" is UTC. Invalid values are most commonly treated as UTC, on some platforms with a warning.

Details

ISOdatetime and ISOdate are convenience wrappers for `strptime` that differ only in their defaults and that ISOdate sets UTC as the time zone. For dates without times it would normally be better to use the ["Date"](#) class.

The main arguments will be recycled using the usual recycling rules.

Because these make use of [strptime](#), only years in the range 0:9999 are accepted.

Value

An object of class ["POSIXct"](#).

See Also

[DateTimeClasses](#) for details of the date-time classes; [strptime](#) for conversions from character strings.

`isS4`*Test for an S4 object*

Description

Tests whether the object is an instance of an S4 class.

Usage

```
isS4(object)
```

```
asS4(object, flag = TRUE, complete = TRUE)
```

```
asS3(object, flag = TRUE, complete = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	Any R object.
<code>flag</code>	Optional, logical: indicate direction of conversion.
<code>complete</code>	Optional, logical: whether conversion to S3 is completed. Not usually needed, but see the details section.

Details

Note that `isS4` does not rely on the **methods** package, so in particular it can be used to detect the need to [require](#) that package.

`asS3` uses the value of `complete` to control whether an attempt is made to transform `object` into a valid object of the implied S3 class. If `complete` is `TRUE`, then an object from an S4 class extending an S3 class will be transformed into an S3 object with the corresponding S3 class (see [S3Part](#)). This includes classes extending the pseudo-classes `array` and `matrix`: such objects will have their class attribute set to `NULL`.

`isS4` is [primitive](#).

Value

`isS4` always returns `TRUE` or `FALSE` according to whether the internal flag marking an S4 object has been turned on for this object.

`asS4` and `asS3` will turn this flag on or off, and `asS3` will set the class from the objects `.S3Class` slot if one exists. Note that `asS3` will *not* turn the object into an S3 object unless there is a valid conversion; that is, an object of type other than "S4" for which the S4 object is an extension, unless argument `complete` is `FALSE`.

See Also

[is.object](#) for a more general test; [Methods](#) for general information on S4.

Examples

```
isS4(pi) # FALSE
isS4(getClass("MethodDefinition")) # TRUE
```

isSymmetric

Test if a Matrix or other Object is Symmetric

Description

Generic function to test if object is symmetric or not. Currently only a matrix method is implemented.

Usage

```
isSymmetric(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'matrix'
isSymmetric(object, tol = 100 * .Machine$double.eps, ...)
```

Arguments

object	any R object; a matrix for the matrix method.
tol	numeric scalar ≥ 0 . Smaller differences are not considered, see all.equal.numeric .
...	further arguments passed to methods; the matrix method passes these to all.equal .

Details

The [matrix](#) method is used inside [eigen](#) by default to test symmetry of matrices *up to rounding error*, using [all.equal](#). It might not be appropriate in all situations.

Note that a matrix `m` is only symmetric if its rownames and colnames are identical. Consider using [unname\(m\)](#).

Value

logical indicating if object is symmetric or not.

See Also

[eigen](#) which calls `isSymmetric` when its `symmetric` argument is missing.

Examples

```
isSymmetric(D3 <- diag(3)) # -> TRUE

D3[2, 1] <- 1e-100
D3
isSymmetric(D3) # TRUE
isSymmetric(D3, tol = 0) # FALSE for zero-tolerance
```

jitter

'Jitter' (Add Noise) to Numbers

Description

Add a small amount of noise to a numeric vector.

Usage

```
jitter(x, factor = 1, amount = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	numeric vector to which <i>jitter</i> should be added.
factor	numeric.
amount	numeric; if positive, used as <i>amount</i> (see below), otherwise, if = 0 the default is <code>factor * z/50</code> . Default (NULL): <code>factor * d/5</code> where <i>d</i> is about the smallest difference between <i>x</i> values.

Details

The result, say *r*, is `r <- x + runif(n, -a, a)` where `n <- length(x)` and *a* is the amount argument (if specified).

Let `z <- max(x) - min(x)` (assuming the usual case). The amount *a* to be added is either provided as *positive* argument *amount* or otherwise computed from *z*, as follows:

If `amount == 0`, we set `a <- factor * z/50` (same as *S*).

If *amount* is NULL (*default*), we set `a <- factor * d/5` where *d* is the smallest difference between adjacent unique (apart from fuzz) *x* values.

Value

`jitter(x, ...)` returns a numeric of the same length as *x*, but with an amount of noise added in order to break ties.

Author(s)

Werner Stahel and Martin Maechler, ETH Zurich

References

Chambers, J. M., Cleveland, W. S., Kleiner, B. and Tukey, P.A. (1983) *Graphical Methods for Data Analysis*. Wadsworth; figures 2.8, 4.22, 5.4.

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[rug](#) which you may want to combine with jitter.

Examples

```
round(jitter(c(rep(1, 3), rep(1.2, 4), rep(3, 3))), 3)
## These two 'fail' with S-plus 3.x:
jitter(rep(0, 7))
jitter(rep(10000, 5))
```

kappa

Compute or Estimate the Condition Number of a Matrix

Description

The condition number of a regular (square) matrix is the product of the *norm* of the matrix and the norm of its inverse (or pseudo-inverse), and hence depends on the kind of matrix-norm.

kappa() computes by default (an estimate of) the 2-norm condition number of a matrix or of the *R* matrix of a *QR* decomposition, perhaps of a linear fit. The 2-norm condition number can be shown to be the ratio of the largest to the smallest *non-zero* singular value of the matrix.

rcond() computes an approximation of the **reciprocal condition** number, see the details.

Usage

```
kappa(z, ...)
## Default S3 method:
kappa(z, exact = FALSE,
      norm = NULL, method = c("qr", "direct"), ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
kappa(z, ...)
## S3 method for class 'qr'
kappa(z, ...)

.kappa_tri(z, exact = FALSE, LINPACK = TRUE, norm = NULL, ...)

rcond(x, norm = c("O", "I", "1"), triangular = FALSE, ...)
```


Arguments

<code>z, x</code>	A matrix or a the result of <code>qr</code> or a fit from a class inheriting from "lm".
<code>exact</code>	logical. Should the result be exact?
<code>norm</code>	character string, specifying the matrix norm with respect to which the condition number is to be computed, see also <code>norm</code> . For <code>rcond</code> , the default is "0", meaning the One - or 1-norm. The (currently only) other possible value is "I" for the infinity norm.
<code>method</code>	a partially matched character string specifying the method to be used; "qr" is the default for back-compatibility, mainly.
<code>triangular</code>	logical. If true, the matrix used is just the lower triangular part of <code>z</code> .
<code>LINPACK</code>	logical. If true and <code>z</code> is not complex, the LINPACK routine <code>dtrco()</code> is called; otherwise the relevant LAPACK routine is.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods; for <code>kappa.*()</code> , notably LINPACK when <code>norm</code> is not "2".

Details

For `kappa()`, if `exact = FALSE` (the default) the 2-norm condition number is estimated by a cheap approximation. However, the exact calculation (via `svd`) is also likely to be quick enough.

Note that the 1- and Inf-norm condition numbers are much faster to calculate, and `rcond()` computes these *reciprocal* condition numbers, also for complex matrices, using standard Lapack routines.

`kappa` and `rcond` are different interfaces to *partly* identical functionality.

`.kappa_tri` is an internal function called by `kappa.qr` and `kappa.default`.

Unsuccessful results from the underlying LAPACK code will result in an error giving a positive error code: these can only be interpreted by detailed study of the FORTRAN code.

Value

The condition number, *kappa*, or an approximation if `exact = FALSE`.

Author(s)

The design was inspired by (but differs considerably from) the S function of the same name described in Chambers (1992).

Source

The LAPACK routines `DTRCON` and `ZTRCON` and the LINPACK routine `DTRCO`.

LAPACK and LINPACK are from <http://www.netlib.org/lapack> and <http://www.netlib.org/linpack> and their guides are listed in the references.

References

- Anderson, E. and ten others (1999) *LAPACK Users' Guide*. Third Edition. SIAM.
Available on-line at http://www.netlib.org/lapack/lug/lapack_lug.html.
- Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Linear models*. Chapter 4 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Dongarra, J. J., Bunch, J. R., Moler, C. B. and Stewart, G. W. (1978) *LINPACK Users Guide*. Philadelphia: SIAM Publications.

See Also

[norm](#); [svd](#) for the singular value decomposition and [qr](#) for the *QR* one.

Examples

```
kappa(x1 <- cbind(1, 1:10)) # 15.71
kappa(x1, exact = TRUE)      # 13.68
kappa(x2 <- cbind(x1, 2:11)) # high! [x2 is singular!]

hilbert <- function(n) { i <- 1:n; 1 / outer(i - 1, i, "+") }
sv9 <- svd(h9 <- hilbert(9))$ d
kappa(h9) # pretty high!
kappa(h9, exact = TRUE) == max(sv9) / min(sv9)
kappa(h9, exact = TRUE) / kappa(h9) # 0.677 (i.e., rel.error = 32%)
```

kronecker

Kronecker Products on Arrays

Description

Computes the generalised kronecker product of two arrays, X and Y.

Usage

```
kronecker(X, Y, FUN = "*", make.dimnames = FALSE, ...)
X %x% Y
```

Arguments

X	A vector or array.
Y	A vector or array.
FUN	a function; it may be a quoted string.
make.dimnames	Provide dimnames that are the product of the dimnames of X and Y.
...	optional arguments to be passed to FUN.

Details

If X and Y do not have the same number of dimensions, the smaller array is padded with dimensions of size one. The returned array comprises submatrices constructed by taking X one term at a time and expanding that term as `FUN(x, Y, ...)`.

`%%` is an alias for `kronecker` (where `FUN` is hardwired to `"*"`).

Value

An array A with dimensions `dim(X) * dim(Y)`.

Author(s)

Jonathan Rougier

References

Shayle R. Searle (1982) *Matrix Algebra Useful for Statistics*. John Wiley and Sons.

See Also

[outer](#), on which `kronecker` is built and `%%` for usual matrix multiplication.

Examples

```
# simple scalar multiplication
( M <- matrix(1:6, ncol = 2) )
kronecker(4, M)
# Block diagonal matrix:
kronecker(diag(1, 3), M)

# ask for dimnames

fred <- matrix(1:12, 3, 4, dimnames = list(LETTERS[1:3], LETTERS[4:7]))
bill <- c("happy" = 100, "sad" = 1000)
kronecker(fred, bill, make.dimnames = TRUE)

bill <- outer(bill, c("cat" = 3, "dog" = 4))
kronecker(fred, bill, make.dimnames = TRUE)
```

l10n_info

Localization Information

Description

Report on localization information.

Usage

```
l10n_info()
```

Value

A list with three logical components:

MBCS	If a multi-byte character set in use?
UTF-8	Is this a UTF-8 locale?
Latin-1	Is this a Latin-1 locale?

See Also

[Sys.getlocale](#), [localeconv](#)

Examples

```
l10n_info()
```

labels	<i>Find Labels from Object</i>
--------	--------------------------------

Description

Find a suitable set of labels from an object for use in printing or plotting, for example. A generic function.

Usage

```
labels(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	Any R object: the function is generic.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

A character vector or list of such vectors. For a vector the results is the names or `seq_along(x)` and for a data frame or array it is the `dimnames` (with `NULL` expanded to `seq_len(d[i])`).

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

lapply

*Apply a Function over a List or Vector***Description**

lapply returns a list of the same length as X, each element of which is the result of applying FUN to the corresponding element of X.

sapply is a user-friendly version and wrapper of lapply by default returning a vector, matrix or, if simplify = "array", an array if appropriate, by applying simplify2array(). sapply(x, f, simplify = FALSE, USE.NAMES = FALSE) is the same as lapply(x, f).

vapply is similar to sapply, but has a pre-specified type of return value, so it can be safer (and sometimes faster) to use.

replicate is a wrapper for the common use of sapply for repeated evaluation of an expression (which will usually involve random number generation).

simplify2array() is the utility called from sapply() when simplify is not false and is similarly called from mapply().

Usage

```
lapply(X, FUN, ...)
```

```
sapply(X, FUN, ..., simplify = TRUE, USE.NAMES = TRUE)
```

```
vapply(X, FUN, FUN.VALUE, ..., USE.NAMES = TRUE)
```

```
replicate(n, expr, simplify = "array")
```

```
simplify2array(x, higher = TRUE)
```

Arguments

X	a vector (atomic or list) or an expression object. Other objects (including classed objects) will be coerced by <code>base::as.list</code> .
FUN	the function to be applied to each element of X: see ‘Details’. In the case of functions like <code>+</code> , <code>%*%</code> , the function name must be backquoted or quoted.
...	optional arguments to FUN.
simplify	logical or character string; should the result be simplified to a vector, matrix or higher dimensional array if possible? For sapply it must be named and not abbreviated. The default value, TRUE, returns a vector or matrix if appropriate, whereas if simplify = "array" the result may be an array of “rank” (<code>=length(dim(.))</code>) one higher than the result of <code>FUN(X[[i]])</code> .
USE.NAMES	logical; if TRUE and if X is character, use X as names for the result unless it had names already. Since this argument follows ... its name cannot be abbreviated.
FUN.VALUE	a (generalized) vector; a template for the return value from FUN. See ‘Details’.

n	integer: the number of replications.
expr	the expression (a language object , usually a call) to evaluate repeatedly.
x	a list, typically returned from <code>lapply()</code> .
higher	logical; if true, <code>simplify2array()</code> will produce a (“higher rank”) array when appropriate, whereas <code>higher = FALSE</code> would return a matrix (or vector) only. These two cases correspond to <code>sapply(*, simplify = "array")</code> or <code>simplify = TRUE</code> , respectively.

Details

FUN is found by a call to [match.fun](#) and typically is specified as a function or a symbol (e.g., a back-quoted name) or a character string specifying a function to be searched for from the environment of the call to `lapply`.

Function FUN must be able to accept as input any of the elements of X. If the latter is an atomic vector, FUN will always be passed a length-one vector of the same type as X.

Arguments in `...` cannot have the same name as any of the other arguments, and care may be needed to avoid partial matching to FUN. In general-purpose code it is good practice to name the first two arguments X and FUN if `...` is passed through: this both avoids partial matching to FUN and ensures that a sensible error message is given if arguments named X or FUN are passed through `...`

Simplification in `sapply` is only attempted if X has length greater than zero and if the return values from all elements of X are all of the same (positive) length. If the common length is one the result is a vector, and if greater than one is a matrix with a column corresponding to each element of X.

Simplification is always done in `vapply`. This function checks that all values of FUN are compatible with the FUN.VALUE, in that they must have the same length and type. (Types may be promoted to a higher type within the ordering `logical < integer < double < complex`, but not demoted.)

Users of S4 classes should pass a list to `lapply` and `vapply`: the internal coercion is done by the `as.list` in the base namespace and not one defined by a user (e.g., by setting S4 methods on the base function).

`lapply` and `vapply` are [primitive](#) functions.

Value

For `lapply`, `sapply(simplify = FALSE)` and `replicate(simplify = FALSE)`, a list.

For `sapply(simplify = TRUE)` and `replicate(simplify = TRUE)`: if X has length zero or `n = 0`, an empty list. Otherwise an atomic vector or matrix or list of the same length as X (of length n for `replicate`). If simplification occurs, the output type is determined from the highest type of the return values in the hierarchy `NULL < raw < logical < integer < double < complex < character < list < expression`, after coercion of pairlists to lists.

`vapply` returns a vector or array of type matching the FUN.VALUE. If `length(FUN.VALUE) == 1` a vector of the same length as X is returned, otherwise an array. If FUN.VALUE is not an [array](#), the result is a matrix with `length(FUN.VALUE)` rows and `length(X)` columns, otherwise an array a with `dim(a) == c(dim(FUN.VALUE), length(X))`.

The (Dim)names of the array value are taken from the FUN.VALUE if it is named, otherwise from the result of the first function call. Column names of the matrix or more generally the names of the last dimension of the array value or names of the vector value are set from X as in `sapply`.

Note

`sapply(*, simplify = FALSE, USE.NAMES = FALSE)` is equivalent to `lapply(*)`.

For historical reasons, the calls created by `lapply` are unevaluated, and code has been written (e.g., `bquote`) that relies on this. This means that the recorded call is always of the form `FUN(X[[i]], ...)`, with `i` replaced by the current (integer or double) index. This is not normally a problem, but it can be if `FUN` uses `sys.call` or `match.call` or if it is a primitive function that makes use of the call. This means that it is often safer to call primitive functions with a wrapper, so that e.g. `lapply(1:l, function(x) is.numeric(x))` is required to ensure that method dispatch for `is.numeric` occurs correctly.

If `expr` is a function call, be aware of assumptions about where it is evaluated, and in particular what `...` might refer to. You can pass additional named arguments to a function call as additional named arguments to replicate: see ‘Examples’.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`apply`, `tapply`, `mapply` for applying a function to multiple arguments, and `rapply` for a recursive version of `lapply()`, `eapply` for applying a function to each entry in an `environment`.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)

x <- list(a = 1:10, beta = exp(-3:3), logic = c(TRUE,FALSE,FALSE,TRUE))
# compute the list mean for each list element
lapply(x, mean)
# median and quartiles for each list element
lapply(x, quantile, probs = 1:3/4)
sapply(x, quantile)
i39 <- sapply(3:9, seq) # list of vectors
sapply(i39, fivenum)
vapply(i39, fivenum,
       c(Min. = 0, "1st Qu." = 0, Median = 0, "3rd Qu." = 0, Max. = 0))

## sapply(*, "array") -- artificial example
(v <- structure(10*(5:8), names = LETTERS[1:4]))
f2 <- function(x, y) outer(rep(x, length.out = 3), y)
(a2 <- sapply(v, f2, y = 2*(1:5), simplify = "array"))
a.2 <- vapply(v, f2, outer(1:3, 1:5), y = 2*(1:5))
stopifnot(dim(a2) == c(3,5,4), all.equal(a2, a.2),
          identical(dimnames(a2), list(NULL,NULL,LETTERS[1:4])))

hist(replicate(100, mean(rexp(10))))

## use of replicate() with parameters:
foo <- function(x = 1, y = 2) c(x, y)
```

```
# does not work: bar <- function(n, ...) replicate(n, foo(...))
bar <- function(n, x) replicate(n, foo(x = x))
bar(5, x = 3)
```

Last.value

Value of Last Evaluated Expression

Description

The value of the internal evaluation of a top-level R expression is always assigned to .Last.value (in package:base) before further processing (e.g., printing).

Usage

.Last.value

Details

The value of a top-level assignment *is* put in .Last.value, unlike S.

Do not assign to .Last.value in the workspace, because this will always mask the object of the same name in package:base.

See Also

[eval](#)

Examples

```
## These will not work correctly from example(),
## but they will in make check or if pasted in,
## as example() does not run them at the top level
gamma(1:15)      # think of some intensive calculation...
fac14 <- .Last.value # keep them

library("splines") # returns invisibly
.Last.value      # shows what library(.) above returned
```

`La_version`*LAPACK Version*

Description

Report the version of LAPACK in use.

Usage

```
La_version()
```

Value

A character vector of length one.

See Also

[extSoftVersion](#) for versions of other third-party software.

Examples

```
La_version()
```

`length`*Length of an Object*

Description

Get or set the length of vectors (including lists) and factors, and of any other R object for which a method has been defined.

Usage

```
length(x)  
length(x) <- value
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an R object. For replacement, a vector or factor.
<code>value</code>	a non-negative integer or double (which will be rounded down).

Details

Both functions are generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#). `length<-` has a "factor" method.

The replacement form can be used to reset the length of a vector. If a vector is shortened, extra values are discarded and when a vector is lengthened, it is padded out to its new length with [NAs](#) (nul for raw vectors).

Both are [primitive](#) functions.

Value

The default method for `length` currently returns a non-negative [integer](#) of length 1, except for vectors of more than $2^{31} - 1$ elements, when it returns a double.

For vectors (including lists) and factors the length is the number of elements. For an environment it is the number of objects in the environment, and NULL has length 0. For expressions and pairlists (including [language objects](#) and dotlists) it is the length of the pairlist chain. All other objects (including functions) have length one: note that for functions this differs from S.

The replacement form removes all the attributes of `x` except its names, which are adjusted (and if necessary extended by "").

Warning

Package authors have written methods that return a result of length other than one (**Formula**) and that return a vector of type [double](#) (**Matrix**), even with non-integer values (earlier versions of **sets**). Where a single double value is returned that can be represented as an integer it is returned as a length-one integer vector.

As from R 3.0.0, lengths can be returned as double in base R.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`nchar` for counting the number of characters in character vectors, [lengths](#) for getting the length of every element in a list.

Examples

```
length(diag(4)) # = 16 (4 x 4)
length(options()) # 12 or more
length(y ~ x1 + x2 + x3) # 3
length(expression(x, {y <- x^2; y+2}, x^y)) # 3

## from example(warpbreaks)
require(stats)

fm1 <- lm(breaks ~ wool * tension, data = warpbreaks)
```

```
length(fm1$call)      # 3, lm() and two arguments.
length(formula(fm1))  # 3, ~ lhs rhs
```

lengths
Lengths of List or Vector Elements

Description

Get the length of each element of a [list](#) or atomic vector ([is.atomic](#)) as an integer or numeric vector.

Usage

```
lengths(x, use.names = TRUE)
```

Arguments

`x` a [list](#), list-like such as an [expression](#) or an atomic vector (for which the result is trivial).

`use.names` logical indicating if the result should inherit the [names](#) from `x`.

Details

This function loops over `x` and returns a compatible vector containing the length of each element in `x`. Effectively, `length(x[[i]])` is called for all `i`, so any methods on `length` are considered.

Value

A non-negative [integer](#) of length `length(x)`, except when any element has a length of more than $2^{31} - 1$ elements, when it returns a double vector. When `use.names` is true, the names are taken from the names on `x`, if any.

Note

One raison d'être of `lengths(x)` is its use as a more efficient version of `sapply(x, length)` and similar `*apply` calls to [length](#). This is the reason why `x` may be an atomic vector, even though `lengths(x)` is trivial in that case.

See Also

[length](#) for getting the length of any R object.

Examples

```

require(stats)
## summarize by month
l <- split(airquality$Ozone, airquality$Month)
avgOz <- lapply(l, mean, na.rm=TRUE)
## merge result
airquality$avgOz <- rep(unlist(avgOz, use.names=FALSE), lengths(l))
## but this is safer and cleaner, but can be slower
airquality$avgOz <- unsplit(avgOz, airquality$Month)

## should always be true, except when a length does not fit in 32 bits
stopifnot(identical(lengths(l), vapply(l, length, integer(1L))))

## empty lists are not a problem
x <- list()
stopifnot(identical(lengths(x), integer()))

## nor are "list-like" expressions:
lengths(expression(u, v, 1+ 0:9))

## and we should dispatch to length methods
f <- c(rep(1, 3), rep(2, 6), 3)
dates <- split(as.POSIXlt(Sys.time() + 1:10), f)
stopifnot(identical(lengths(dates), vapply(dates, length, integer(1L))))

```

levels

Levels Attributes

Description

levels provides access to the levels attribute of a variable. The first form returns the value of the levels of its argument and the second sets the attribute.

Usage

```

levels(x)
levels(x) <- value

```

Arguments

x	an object, for example a factor.
value	A valid value for levels(x). For the default method, NULL or a character vector. For the factor method, a vector of character strings with length at least the number of levels of x, or a named list specifying how to rename the levels.

Details

Both the extractor and replacement forms are generic and new methods can be written for them. The most important method for the replacement function is that for [factors](#).

For the factor replacement method, a NA in value causes that level to be removed from the levels and the elements formerly with that level to be replaced by NA.

Note that for a factor, replacing the levels via `levels(x) <- value` is not the same as (and is preferred to) `attr(x, "levels") <- value`.

The replacement function is [primitive](#).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[nlevels](#), [relevel](#), [reorder](#).

Examples

```
## assign individual levels
x <- gl(2, 4, 8)
levels(x)[1] <- "low"
levels(x)[2] <- "high"
x

## or as a group
y <- gl(2, 4, 8)
levels(y) <- c("low", "high")
y

## combine some levels
z <- gl(3, 2, 12)
levels(z) <- c("A", "B", "A")
z

## same, using a named list
z <- gl(3, 2, 12)
levels(z) <- list(A = c(1,3), B = 2)
z

## we can add levels this way:
f <- factor(c("a","b"))
levels(f) <- c("c", "a", "b")
f

f <- factor(c("a","b"))
levels(f) <- list(C = "C", A = "a", B = "b")
f
```

libcurlVersion	<i>Report Version of libcurl</i>
----------------	----------------------------------

Description

Report version of libcurl in use.

Usage

```
libcurlVersion()
```

Value

A character string, with value the libcurl version in use or "" if none is. If libcurl is available, has attributes

ssl_version	A character string naming the SSL implementation and version, possibly "none". It is intended for the version of OpenSSL used, but not all implementations of libcurl use OpenSSL — for example OS X reports "SecureTransport", its wrapper for SSL/TLS.
libssh_version	A character string naming the libssh version, which may or may not be available (it is used for e.g. scp and sftp protocols). Where present, something like "libssh2/1.5.0".
protocols	A character vector of the names of supported protocols, also known as 'schemes' when part of a URL.

See Also

[extSoftVersion](#) for versions of other third-party software.

[curlGetHeaders](#), [download.file](#) and [url](#) for functions which (optionally) use libcurl.

<http://curl.haxx.se/docs/sslcerts.html> and <http://curl.haxx.se/docs/ssl-compared.html> for more details on SSL versions. Normally libcurl used with R uses SecureTransport on OS X, OpenSSL on Windows and GnuTLS, NSS or OpenSSL on Unix-alikes. (At the time of writing Debian-based Linuxen use GnuTLS, RedHat-based ones use NSS.)

Examples

```
libcurlVersion()
```

libPaths

*Search Paths for Packages***Description**

`.libPaths` gets/sets the library trees within which packages are looked for.

Usage

```
.libPaths(new)

.Library
.Library.site
```

Arguments

`new` a character vector with the locations of R library trees. Tilde expansion ([path.expand](#)) is done, and if any element contains one of `*?[]`, globbing is done where supported by the platform: see [Sys.glob](#).

Details

`.Library` is a character string giving the location of the default library, the ‘library’ subdirectory of `R_HOME`.

`.Library.site` is a (possibly empty) character vector giving the locations of the site libraries, by default the ‘site-library’ subdirectory of `R_HOME` (which may not exist).

`.libPaths` is used for getting or setting the library trees that R knows about (and hence uses when looking for packages). If called with argument `new`, the library search path is set to the existing directories in `unique(c(new, .Library.site, .Library))` and this is returned. If given no argument, a character vector with the currently active library trees is returned.

How paths `new` with a trailing slash are treated is OS-dependent. On a POSIX filesystem existing directories can usually be specified with a trailing slash: on Windows filepaths with a trailing slash (or backslash) are invalid and so will never be added to the library search path.

The library search path is initialized at startup from the environment variable `R_LIBS` (which should be a colon-separated list of directories at which R library trees are rooted) followed by those in environment variable `R_LIBS_USER`. Only directories which exist at the time will be included.

By default `R_LIBS` is unset, and `R_LIBS_USER` is set to directory ‘`R/R.version$platform-library/x.y`’ of the home directory (or ‘`Library/R/x.y/library`’ for CRAN OS X builds), for R `x.y.z`.

`.Library.site` can be set via the environment variable `R_LIBS_SITE` (as a non-empty colon-separated list of library trees).

Both `R_LIBS_USER` and `R_LIBS_SITE` feature possible expansion of specifiers for R version specific information as part of the startup process. The possible conversion specifiers all start with a ‘%’ and are followed by a single letter (use ‘%%’ to obtain ‘%’), with currently available conversion specifications as follows:

‘%V’ R version number including the patchlevel (e.g., ‘2.5.0’).
 ‘%v’ R version number excluding the patchlevel (e.g., ‘2.5’).
 ‘%p’ the platform for which R was built, the value of `R.version$platform`.
 ‘%o’ the underlying operating system, the value of `R.version$os`.
 ‘%a’ the architecture (CPU) R was built on/for, the value of `R.version$arch`.

(See [version](#) for details on R version information.)

Function `.libPaths` always uses the values of `.Library` and `.Library.site` in the base namespace. `.Library.site` can be set by the site in ‘`Rprofile.site`’, which should be followed by a call to `.libPaths(.libPaths())` to make use of the updated value.

For consistency, the paths are always normalized by `normalizePath(winslash = "/")`.

Value

A character vector of file paths.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[library](#)

Examples

```
.libPaths()           # all library trees R knows about
```

library	<i>Loading/Attaching and Listing of Packages</i>
---------	--

Description

`library` and `require` load and attach add-on packages.

Usage

```
library(package, help, pos = 2, lib.loc = NULL,
        character.only = FALSE, logical.return = FALSE,
        warn.conflicts = TRUE, quietly = FALSE,
        verbose = getOption("verbose"))

require(package, lib.loc = NULL, quietly = FALSE,
        warn.conflicts = TRUE,
        character.only = FALSE)
```


Arguments

<code>package, help</code>	the name of a package, given as a name or literal character string, or a character string, depending on whether <code>character.only</code> is <code>FALSE</code> (default) or <code>TRUE</code>).
<code>pos</code>	the position on the search list at which to attach the loaded namespace. Can also be the name of a position on the current search list as given by search() .
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through, or <code>NULL</code> . The default value of <code>NULL</code> corresponds to all libraries currently known to .libPaths() . Non-existent library trees are silently ignored.
<code>character.only</code>	a logical indicating whether <code>package</code> or <code>help</code> can be assumed to be character strings.
<code>logical.return</code>	logical. If it is <code>TRUE</code> , <code>FALSE</code> or <code>TRUE</code> is returned to indicate success.
<code>warn.conflicts</code>	logical. If <code>TRUE</code> , warnings are printed about conflicts from attaching the new package. A conflict is a function masking a function, or a non-function masking a non-function.
<code>verbose</code>	a logical. If <code>TRUE</code> , additional diagnostics are printed.
<code>quietly</code>	a logical. If <code>TRUE</code> , no message confirming package attaching is printed, and most often, no errors/warnings are printed if package attaching fails.

Details

`library(package)` and `require(package)` both load the namespace of the package with name `package` and attach it on the search list. `require` is designed for use inside other functions; it returns `FALSE` and gives a warning (rather than an error as `library()` does by default) if the package does not exist. Both functions check and update the list of currently attached packages and do not reload a namespace which is already loaded. (If you want to reload such a package, call [detach\(unload = TRUE\)](#) or [unloadNamespace](#) first.) If you want to load a package without attaching it on the search list, see [requireNamespace](#).

To suppress messages during the loading of packages use [suppressPackageStartupMessages](#): this will suppress all messages from R itself but not necessarily all those from package authors.

If `library` is called with no `package` or `help` argument, it lists all available packages in the libraries specified by `lib.loc`, and returns the corresponding information in an object of class `"libraryIQR"`. (The structure of this class may change in future versions.) Use [.packages\(all = TRUE\)](#) to obtain just the names of all available packages, and [installed.packages\(\)](#) for even more information.

`library(help = somename)` computes basic information about the package **somename**, and returns this in an object of class `"packageInfo"`. (The structure of this class may change in future versions.) When used with the default value (`NULL`) for `lib.loc`, the attached packages are searched before the libraries.

Value

Normally `library` returns (invisibly) the list of attached packages, but `TRUE` or `FALSE` if `logical.return` is `TRUE`. When called as `library()` it returns an object of class `"libraryIQR"`, and for `library(help=)`, one of class `"packageInfo"`.

`require` returns (invisibly) a logical indicating whether the required package is available.

Licenses

Some packages have restrictive licenses, and there is a mechanism to allow users to be aware of such licenses. If `getOption("checkPackageLicense") == TRUE`, then at first use of a package with a not-known-to-be-FOSS (see below) license the user is asked to view and accept the license: a list of accepted licenses is stored in file `~/.R/licensed`. In a non-interactive session it is an error to use such a package whose license has not already been accepted.

Free or Open Source Software (FOSS, e.g. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/FOSS>) packages are determined by the same filters used by `available.packages` but applied to just the current package, not its dependencies.

There can also be a site-wide file `'R_HOME/etc/licensed.site'` of packages (one per line).

Formal methods

`library` takes some further actions when package **methods** is attached (as it is by default). Packages may define formal generic functions as well as re-defining functions in other packages (notably **base**) to be generic, and this information is cached whenever such a namespace is loaded after **methods** and re-defined functions (**implicit generics**) are excluded from the list of conflicts. The caching and check for conflicts require looking for a pattern of objects; the search may be avoided by defining an object `.noGenerics` (with any value) in the namespace. Naturally, if the package *does* have any such methods, this will prevent them from being used.

Note

`library` and `require` can only load/attach an *installed* package, and this is detected by having a 'DESCRIPTION' file containing a 'Built:' field.

Under Unix-alikes, the code checks that the package was installed under a similar operating system as given by `R.version$platform` (the canonical name of the platform under which R was compiled), provided it contains compiled code. Packages which do not contain compiled code can be shared between Unix-alikes, but not to other OSes because of potential problems with line endings and OS-specific help files. If sub-architectures are used, the OS similarity is not checked since the OS used to build may differ (e.g. `i386-pc-linux-gnu` code can be built on an `x86_64-unknown-linux-gnu` OS).

The package name given to `library` and `require` must match the name given in the package's 'DESCRIPTION' file exactly, even on case-insensitive file systems such as are common on Windows and OS X.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`.libPaths`, `.packages`.

`attach`, `detach`, `search`, `objects`, `autoload`, `requireNamespace`, `library.dynam`, `data`, `install.packages` and `installed.packages`; `INSTALL`, `REMOVE`.

The initial set of packages attached is set by `options(defaultPackages=)`: see also `Startup`.

Examples

```

library()                # list all available packages
library(lib.loc = .Library) # list all packages in the default library
library(help = splines)    # documentation on package 'splines'
library(splines)          # attach package 'splines'
require(splines)          # the same
search()                  # "splines", too
detach("package:splines")

# if the package name is in a character vector, use
pkg <- "splines"
library(pkg, character.only = TRUE)
detach(pos = match(paste("package", pkg, sep = ":"), search()))

require(pkg, character.only = TRUE)
detach(pos = match(paste("package", pkg, sep = ":"), search()))

require(nonexistent)      # FALSE
## Not run:
## if you want to mask as little as possible, use
library(mypkg, pos = "package:base")

## End(Not run)

```

library.dynam

*Loading DLLs from Packages***Description**

Load the specified file of compiled code if it has not been loaded already, or unloads it.

Usage

```

library.dynam(chname, package, lib.loc,
              verbose = getOption("verbose"),
              file.ext = .Platform$dynlib.ext, ...)

library.dynam.unload(chname, libpath,
                    verbose = getOption("verbose"),
                    file.ext = .Platform$dynlib.ext)

.dynLibs(new)

```

Arguments

chname	a character string naming a DLL (also known as a dynamic shared object or library) to load.
package	a character vector with the name of package.

<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through.
<code>libpath</code>	the path to the loaded package whose DLL is to be unloaded.
<code>verbose</code>	a logical value indicating whether an announcement is printed on the console before loading the DLL. The default value is taken from the <code>verbose</code> entry in the system options .
<code>file.ext</code>	the extension (including ‘.’ if used) to append to the file name to specify the library to be loaded. This defaults to the appropriate value for the operating system.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments needed by some libraries that are passed to the call to dyn.load to control how the library and its dependencies are loaded.
<code>new</code>	a list of “DLLInfo” objects corresponding to the DLLs loaded by packages. Can be missing.

Details

See [dyn.load](#) for what sort of objects these functions handle.

`library.dynam` is designed to be used inside a package rather than at the command line, and should really only be used inside [.onLoad](#). The system-specific extension for DLLs (e.g., ‘.so’ or ‘.sl’ on Unix-alike systems, ‘.dll’ on Windows) should not be added.

`library.dynam.unload` is designed for use in [.onUnload](#): it unloads the DLL and updates the value of `.dynLibs()`

`.dynLibs` is used for getting (with no argument) or setting the DLLs which are currently loaded by packages (using `library.dynam`).

Value

If `cname` is not specified, `library.dynam` returns an object of class “[DLLInfoList](#)” corresponding to the DLLs loaded by packages.

If `cname` is specified, an object of class “[DLLInfo](#)” that identifies the DLL and which can be used in future calls is returned invisibly. Note that the class “[DLLInfo](#)” has a method for `$` which can be used to resolve native symbols within that DLL.

`library.dynam.unload` invisibly returns an object of class “[DLLInfo](#)” identifying the DLL successfully unloaded.

`.dynLibs` returns an object of class “[DLLInfoList](#)” corresponding corresponding to its current value.

Warning

Do not use [dyn.unload](#) on a DLL loaded by `library.dynam`: use `library.dynam.unload` to ensure that `.dynLibs` gets updated. Otherwise a subsequent call to `library.dynam` will be told the object is already loaded.

Note that whether or not it is possible to unload a DLL and then reload a revised version of the same file is OS-dependent: see the ‘Value’ section of the help for [dyn.unload](#).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[getLoadedDLLs](#) for information on "DLLInfo" and "DLLInfoList" objects.

[.onLoad](#), [library](#), [dyn.load](#), [.packages](#), [.libPaths](#)

[SHLIB](#) for how to create suitable DLLs.

Examples

```
## Which DLLs were dynamically loaded by packages?  
library.dynam()
```

license

The R License Terms

Description

The license terms under which R is distributed.

Usage

```
license()  
licence()
```

Details

R is distributed under the terms of the GNU GENERAL PUBLIC LICENSE, either Version 2, June 1991 or Version 3, June 2007. A copy of the version 2 license is in file '[R_HOME/doc/COPYING](#)' and can be viewed by `RShowDoc("COPYING")`. Version 3 of the license can be displayed by `RShowDoc("GPL-3")`.

A small number of files (some of the API header files) are distributed under the LESSER GNU GENERAL PUBLIC LICENSE, version 2.1 or later. A copy of this license is in file '`$R_SHARE_DIR/licenses/LGPL-2.1`' and can be viewed by `RShowDoc("LGPL-2.1")`. Version 3 of the license can be displayed by `RShowDoc("LGPL-3")`.

Description

Functions to construct, coerce and check for both kinds of R lists.

Usage

```
list(...)
pairlist(...)

as.list(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'environment'
as.list(x, all.names = FALSE, sorted = FALSE, ...)
as.pairlist(x)

is.list(x)
is.pairlist(x)

alist(...)
```

Arguments

...	objects, possibly named.
x	object to be coerced or tested.
all.names	a logical indicating whether to copy all values or (default) only those whose names do not begin with a dot.
sorted	a logical indicating whether the names of the resulting list should be sorted (increasingly). Note that this is somewhat costly, but may be useful for comparison of environments.

Details

Almost all lists in R internally are *Generic Vectors*, whereas traditional *dotted pair* lists (as in LISP) remain available but rarely seen by users (except as [formals](#) of functions).

The arguments to `list` or `pairlist` are of the form `value` or `tag = value`. The functions return a list or dotted pair list composed of its arguments with each value either tagged or untagged, depending on how the argument was specified.

`alist` handles its arguments as if they described function arguments. So the values are not evaluated, and tagged arguments with no value are allowed whereas `list` simply ignores them. `alist` is most often used in conjunction with [formals](#).

`as.list` attempts to coerce its argument to a list. For functions, this returns the concatenation of the list of formal arguments and the function body. For expressions, the list of constituent elements is returned. `as.list` is generic, and as the default method calls `as.vector(mode = "list")`

for a non-list, methods for `as.vector` may be invoked. `as.list` turns a factor into a list of one-element factors. Attributes may be dropped unless the argument already is a list or expression. (This is inconsistent with functions such as `as.character` which always drop attributes, and is for efficiency since lists can be expensive to copy.)

`is.list` returns TRUE if and only if its argument is a list *or* a pairlist of length > 0. `is.pairlist` returns TRUE if and only if the argument is a pairlist or NULL (see below).

The `"environment"` method for `as.list` copies the name-value pairs (for names not beginning with a dot) from an environment to a named list. The user can request that all named objects are copied. Unless `sorted = TRUE`, the list is in no particular order (the order depends on the order of creation of objects and whether the environment is hashed). No enclosing environments are searched. (Objects copied are duplicated so this can be an expensive operation.) Note that there is an inverse operation, the `as.environment()` method for list objects.

An empty pairlist, `pairlist()` is the same as `NULL`. This is different from `list()`.

`as.pairlist` is implemented as `as.vector(x, "pairlist")`, and hence will dispatch methods for the generic function `as.vector`. Lists are copied element-by-element into a pairlist and the names of the list used as tags for the pairlist: the return value for other types of argument is undocumented.

`list`, `is.list` and `is.pairlist` are `primitive` functions.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`vector("list", length)` for creation of a list with empty components; `c`, for concatenation; `formals.unlist` is an approximate inverse to `as.list()`.

`'plotmath'` for the use of list in plot annotation.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

# create a plotting structure
pts <- list(x = cars[,1], y = cars[,2])
plot(pts)

is.pairlist(.Options) # a user-level pairlist

## "pre-allocate" an empty list of length 5
vector("list", 5)

# Argument lists
f <- function() x
# Note the specification of a "..." argument:
formals(f) <- al <- alist(x = , y = 2+3, ... = )
f
al
```

```
## environment->list coercion

e1 <- new.env()
e1$a <- 10
e1$b <- 20
as.list(e1)
```

list.files

*List the Files in a Directory/Folder***Description**

These functions produce a character vector of the names of files or directories in the named directory.

Usage

```
list.files(path = ".", pattern = NULL, all.files = FALSE,
           full.names = FALSE, recursive = FALSE,
           ignore.case = FALSE, include.dirs = FALSE, no.. = FALSE)

dir(path = ".", pattern = NULL, all.files = FALSE,
    full.names = FALSE, recursive = FALSE,
    ignore.case = FALSE, include.dirs = FALSE, no.. = FALSE)

list.dirs(path = ".", full.names = TRUE, recursive = TRUE)
```

Arguments

path	a character vector of full path names; the default corresponds to the working directory, <code>getwd()</code> . Tilde expansion (see path.expand) is performed. Missing values will be ignored.
pattern	an optional regular expression . Only file names which match the regular expression will be returned.
all.files	a logical value. If FALSE, only the names of visible files are returned. If TRUE, all file names will be returned.
full.names	a logical value. If TRUE, the directory path is prepended to the file names to give a relative file path. If FALSE, the file names (rather than paths) are returned.
recursive	logical. Should the listing recurse into directories?
ignore.case	logical. Should pattern-matching be case-insensitive?
include.dirs	logical. Should subdirectory names be included in recursive listings? (They always are in non-recursive ones).
no..	logical. Should both "." and ".." be excluded also from non-recursive listings?

Value

A character vector containing the names of the files in the specified directories, or "" if there were no files. If a path does not exist or is not a directory or is unreadable it is skipped, with a warning.

The files are sorted in alphabetical order, on the full path if `full.names = TRUE`.

`list.dirs` implicitly has `all.files = TRUE`, and if `recursive = TRUE`, the answer includes path itself (provided it is a readable directory).

Note

File naming conventions are platform dependent. The pattern matching works with the case of file names as returned by the OS.

On a POSIX filesystem recursive listings will follow symbolic links to directories.

Author(s)

Ross Ihaka, Brian Ripley

See Also

[file.info](#), [file.access](#) and [files](#) for many more file handling functions and [file.choose](#) for interactive selection.

[glob2rx](#) to convert wildcards (as used by system file commands and shells) to regular expressions.

[Sys.glob](#) for wildcard expansion on file paths.

Examples

```
list.files(R.home())
## Only files starting with a-l or r
## Note that a-l is locale-dependent, but using case-insensitive
## matching makes it unambiguous in English locales
dir("../..", pattern = "[a-lr]", full.names = TRUE, ignore.case = TRUE)

list.dirs(R.home("doc"))
list.dirs(R.home("doc"), full.names = FALSE)
```

list2env

From A List, Build or Add To an Environment

Description

From a *named list* `x`, create an **environment** containing all list components as objects, or “multi-assign” from `x` into a pre-existing environment.

Usage

```
list2env(x, envir = NULL, parent = parent.frame(),
        hash = (length(x) > 100), size = max(29L, length(x)))
```

Arguments

x	a list , where names (x) must not contain empty ("") elements.
envir	an environment or NULL.
parent	(for the case <code>envir = NULL</code>): a parent frame aka enclosing environment, see new.env .
hash	(for the case <code>envir = NULL</code>): logical indicating if the created environment should use hashing, see new.env .
size	(in the case <code>envir = NULL</code> , <code>hash = TRUE</code>): hash size, see new.env .

Details

This will be very slow for large inputs unless hashing is used on the environment.

Environments must have uniquely named entries, but named lists need not: where the list has duplicate names it is the *last* element with the name that is used. Empty names throw an error.

Value

An [environment](#), either newly created (as by [new.env](#)) if the `envir` argument was NULL, otherwise the updated environment `envir`. Since environments are never duplicated, the argument `envir` is also changed.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

[environment](#), [new.env](#), [as.environment](#); further, [assign](#).

The (semantical) “inverse”: [as.list.environment](#).

Examples

```
L <- list(a = 1, b = 2:4, p = pi, ff = gl(3, 4, labels = LETTERS[1:3]))
e <- list2env(L)
ls(e)
stopifnot(ls(e) == sort(names(L)),
          identical(L$b, e$b)) # "$" working for environments as for lists

## consistency, when we do the inverse:
ll <- as.list(e) # -> dispatching to the as.list.environment() method
rbind(names(L), names(ll)) # not in the same order, typically,
# but the same content:
stopifnot(identical(L [sort.list(names(L))],
                  ll[sort.list(names(ll))]))

## now add to e -- can be seen as a fast "multi-assign":
list2env(list(abc = LETTERS, note = "just an example",
             df = data.frame(x = rnorm(20), y = rbinom(20, 1, pr = 0.2))),
envir = e)
```

```
utils::ls.str(e)
```

load

Reload Saved Datasets

Description

Reload datasets written with the function `save`.

Usage

```
load(file, envir = parent.frame(), verbose = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	a (readable binary-mode) connection or a character string giving the name of the file to load (when tilde expansion is done).
<code>envir</code>	the environment where the data should be loaded.
<code>verbose</code>	should item names be printed during loading?

Details

`load` can load R objects saved in the current or any earlier format. It can read a compressed file (see [save](#)) directly from a file or from a suitable connection (including a call to [url](#)).

A not-open connection will be opened in mode "rb" and closed after use. Any connection other than a [gzfile](#) or [gzcon](#) connection will be wrapped in [gzcon](#) to allow compressed saves to be handled: note that this leaves the connection in an altered state (in particular, binary-only), and that it needs to be closed explicitly (it will not be garbage-collected).

Only R objects saved in the current format (used since R 1.4.0) can be read from a connection. If no input is available on a connection a warning will be given, but any input not in the current format will result in an error.

Loading from an earlier version will give a warning about the 'magic number': magic numbers 1971:1977 are from R < 0.99.0, and RD[ABX]1 from R 0.99.0 to R 1.3.1. These are all obsolete, and you are strongly recommended to re-save such files in a current format.

The `verbose` argument is mainly intended for debugging. If it is TRUE, then as objects from the file are loaded, their names will be printed to the console. If `verbose` is set to an integer value greater than one, additional names corresponding to attributes and other parts of individual objects will also be printed. Larger values will print names to a greater depth.

Objects can be saved with references to namespaces, usually as part of the environment of a function or formula. As from R 3.1.0 such objects can be loaded even if the namespace is not available: it is replaced by a reference to the global environment with a warning. The warning identifies the first object with such a reference (but there may be more than one).

Value

A character vector of the names of objects created, invisibly.

Warning

Saved R objects are binary files, even those saved with `ascii = TRUE`, so ensure that they are transferred without conversion of end of line markers. `load` tries to detect such a conversion and gives an informative error message.

`load(<file>)` replaces all existing objects with the same names in the current environment (typically your workspace, `.GlobalEnv`) and hence potentially overwrites important data. It is considerably safer to use `envir =` to load into a different environment, or to `attach(file)` which `load()`s into a new entry in the `search` path.

See Also

[save](#), [download.file](#); further [attach](#) as wrapper for `load()`.

For other interfaces to the underlying serialization format, see [unserialize](#) and [readRDS](#).

Examples

```
## save all data
xx <- pi # to ensure there is some data
save(list = ls(all = TRUE), file= "all.RData")
rm(xx)

## restore the saved values to the current environment
local({
  load("all.RData")
  ls()
})

xx <- exp(1:3)
## restore the saved values to the user's workspace
load("all.RData") ## which is here *equivalent* to
## load("all.RData", .GlobalEnv)
## This however annihilates all objects in .GlobalEnv with the same names !
xx # no longer exp(1:3)
rm(xx)
attach("all.RData") # safer and will warn about masked objects w/ same name in .GlobalEnv
ls(pos = 2)
## also typically need to cleanup the search path:
detach("file:all.RData")

## clean up (the example):
unlink("all.RData")

## Not run:
con <- url("http://some.where.net/R/data/example.rda")
## print the value to see what objects were created.
print(load(con))
close(con) # url() always opens the connection

## End(Not run)
```

 locales

Query or Set Aspects of the Locale

Description

Get details of or set aspects of the locale for the R process.

Usage

```
Sys.getlocale(category = "LC_ALL")
Sys.setlocale(category = "LC_ALL", locale = "")
```

Arguments

category	character string. The following categories should always be supported: "LC_ALL", "LC_COLLATE", "LC_CTYPE", "LC_MONETARY", "LC_NUMERIC" and "LC_TIME". Some systems (not Windows) will also support "LC_MESSAGES", "LC_PAPER" and "LC_MEASUREMENT".
locale	character string. A valid locale name on the system in use. Normally "" (the default) will pick up the default locale for the system.

Details

The locale describes aspects of the internationalization of a program. Initially most aspects of the locale of R are set to "C" (which is the default for the C language and reflects North-American usage). R sets "LC_CTYPE" and "LC_COLLATE", which allow the use of a different character set and alphabetic comparisons in that character set (including the use of [sort](#)), "LC_MONETARY" (for use by [Sys.localeconv](#)) and "LC_TIME" may affect the behaviour of [as.POSIXlt](#) and [strptime](#) and functions which use them (but not [date](#)).

The first seven categories described here are those specified by POSIX. "LC_MESSAGES" will be "C" on systems that do not support message translation, and is not supported on Windows. Trying to use an unsupported category is an error for `Sys.setlocale`.

Note that setting category "LC_ALL" sets only "LC_COLLATE", "LC_CTYPE", "LC_MONETARY" and "LC_TIME".

Attempts to set an invalid locale are ignored. There may or may not be a warning, depending on the OS.

Attempts to change the character set (by `Sys.setlocale("LC_CTYPE",)`, if that implies a different character set) during a session may not work and are likely to lead to some confusion.

Note that the LANGUAGE environment variable has precedence over "LC_MESSAGES" in selecting the language for message translation on most R platforms.

On platforms where ICU is used for collation the locale used for collation can be reset by [icuSetCollate](#)). Except on Windows, the initial setting is taken from the "LC_COLLATE" category, and it is reset when this is changed by a call to `Sys.setlocale`.

Value

A character string of length one describing the locale in use (after setting for `Sys.setlocale`), or an empty character string if the current locale settings are invalid or NULL if locale information is unavailable.

For category = "LC_ALL" the details of the string are system-specific: it might be a single locale name or a set of locale names separated by "/" (Solaris, OS X) or ";" (Windows, Linux). For portability, it is best to query categories individually: it is not necessarily the case that the result of `foo <- Sys.getlocale()` can be used in `Sys.setlocale("LC_ALL", locale = foo)`.

Warning

Setting "LC_NUMERIC" may cause R to function anomalously, so gives a warning. Input conversions in R itself are unaffected, but the reading and writing of ASCII [save](#) files will be, as may packages.

Setting it temporarily on a Unix-alike to produce graphical or text output may work well enough, but `options(OutDec)` is often preferable.

Almost all the output routines used by R itself under Windows ignore the setting of "LC_NUMERIC" since they make use of the Trio library which is not internationalized.

Note

Changing the values of locale categories whilst R is running ought to be noticed by the OS services, and usually is but exceptions have been seen (usually in collation services).

See Also

[strptime](#) for uses of category = "LC_TIME". [Sys.localeconv](#) for details of numerical and monetary representations.

[l10n_info](#) gives some summary facts about the locale and its encoding.

The 'R Installation and Administration' manual for background on locales and how to find out locale names on your system.

Examples

```
Sys.getlocale()
Sys.getlocale("LC_TIME")
## Not run:
Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", "de")      # Solaris: details are OS-dependent
Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", "de_DE.utf8") # Modern Linux etc.
Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", "de_DE.UTF-8") # ditto
Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", "de_DE")   # OS X, in UTF-8
Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", "German")  # Windows

## End(Not run)
Sys.getlocale("LC_PAPER")           # may or may not be set

## Not run:
Sys.setlocale("LC_COLLATE", "C")    # turn off locale-specific sorting,
                                   # usually, but not on all platforms
## End(Not run)
```

log

*Logarithms and Exponentials***Description**

log computes logarithms, by default natural logarithms, log10 computes common (i.e., base 10) logarithms, and log2 computes binary (i.e., base 2) logarithms. The general form log(x, base) computes logarithms with base base.

log1p(x) computes $\log(1 + x)$ accurately also for $|x| \ll 1$.

exp computes the exponential function.

expm1(x) computes $\exp(x) - 1$ accurately also for $|x| \ll 1$.

Usage

```
log(x, base = exp(1))
logb(x, base = exp(1))
log10(x)
log2(x)

log1p(x)

exp(x)
expm1(x)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric or complex vector.
base	a positive or complex number: the base with respect to which logarithms are computed. Defaults to $e = \exp(1)$.

Details

All except logb are generic functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic.

log10 and log2 are only convenience wrappers, but logs to bases 10 and 2 (whether computed *via* log or the wrappers) will be computed more efficiently and accurately where supported by the OS. Methods can be set for them individually (and otherwise methods for log will be used).

logb is a wrapper for log for compatibility with S. If (S3 or S4) methods are set for log they will be dispatched. Do not set S4 methods on logb itself.

All except log are [primitive](#) functions.

Value

A vector of the same length as `x` containing the transformed values. `log(0)` gives `-Inf`, and `log(x)` for negative values of `x` is `NaN`. `exp(-Inf)` is `0`.

For complex inputs to the log functions, the value is a complex number with imaginary part in the range $[-\pi, \pi]$: which end of the range is used might be platform-specific.

S4 methods

`exp`, `expm1`, `log`, `log10`, `log2` and `log1p` are S4 generic and are members of the [Math](#) group generic.

Note that this means that the S4 generic for `log` has a signature with only one argument, `x`, but that base can be passed to methods (but will not be used for method selection). On the other hand, if you only set a method for the Math group generic then base argument of `log` will be ignored for your class.

Source

`log1p` and `expm1` may be taken from the operating system, but if not available there then they are based on the Fortran subroutine `dlrnrel` by W. Fullerton of Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory (see <http://www.netlib.org/slatec/fnlib/dlnrel.f> and (for small `x`) a single Newton step for the solution of `log1p(y) = x` respectively.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (for `log`, `log10` and `exp`.)

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer. (for `logb`.)

See Also

[Trig](#), [sqrt](#), [Arithmetic](#).

Examples

```
log(exp(3))
log10(1e7) # = 7

x <- 10^-(1+2*1:9)
cbind(x, log(1+x), log1p(x), exp(x)-1, expm1(x))
```

Description

These operators act on raw, logical and number-like vectors.

Usage

```
! x
x & y
x && y
x | y
x || y
xor(x, y)

isTRUE(x)
```

Arguments

`x, y` raw or logical or ‘number-like’ vectors (i.e., of types `double` (class `numeric`), `integer` and `complex`)), or objects for which methods have been written.

Details

`!` indicates logical negation (NOT).

`&` and `&&` indicate logical AND and `|` and `||` indicate logical OR. The shorter form performs elementwise comparisons in much the same way as arithmetic operators. The longer form evaluates left to right examining only the first element of each vector. Evaluation proceeds only until the result is determined. The longer form is appropriate for programming control-flow and typically preferred in `if` clauses.

`xor` indicates elementwise exclusive OR.

`isTRUE(x)` is an abbreviation of `identical(TRUE, x)`, and so is true if and only if `x` is a length-one logical vector whose only element is `TRUE` and which has no attributes (not even names).

Numeric and complex vectors will be coerced to logical values, with zero being false and all non-zero values being true. Raw vectors are handled without any coercion for `!`, `&`, `|` and `xor`, with these operators being applied bitwise (so `!` is the 1s-complement).

The operators `!`, `&` and `|` are generic functions: methods can be written for them individually or via the `Ops` (or S4 Logic, see below) group generic function. (See `Ops` for how dispatch is computed.)

`NA` is a valid logical object. Where a component of `x` or `y` is `NA`, the result will be `NA` if the outcome is ambiguous. In other words `NA & TRUE` evaluates to `NA`, but `NA & FALSE` evaluates to `FALSE`. See the examples below.

See `Syntax` for the precedence of these operators: unlike many other languages (including S) the AND and OR operators do not have the same precedence (the AND operators have higher precedence than the OR operators).

Value

For `!`, a logical or raw vector (for raw `x`) of the same length as `x`: names, dims and dimnames are copied from `x`, and all other attributes (including class) if no coercion is done.

For `|`, `&` and `xor` a logical or raw vector. If involving a zero-length vector the result has length zero. Otherwise, the elements of shorter vectors are recycled as necessary (with a `warning` when they are recycled only *fractionally*). The rules for determining the attributes of the result are rather complicated. Most attributes are taken from the longer argument, the first if they are of the same

length. Names will be copied from the first if it is the same length as the answer, otherwise from the second if that is. For time series, these operations are allowed only if the series are compatible, when the class and `tsp` attribute of whichever is a time series (the same, if both are) are used. For arrays (and an array result) the dimensions and dimnames are taken from first argument if it is an array, otherwise the second.

For `||`, `&&` and `isTRUE`, a length-one logical vector.

S4 methods

`!`, `&` and `|` are S4 generics, the latter two part of the `Logic` group generic (and hence methods need argument names `e1`, `e2`).

Note

The elementwise operators are sometimes called as functions as e.g. ``&`(x, y)`: see the description of how argument-matching is done in [Ops](#).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[TRUE](#) or [logical](#).

[any](#) and [all](#) for OR and AND on many scalar arguments.

[Syntax](#) for operator precedence.

[bitwAnd](#) for bitwise versions for integer vectors.

Examples

```
y <- 1 + (x <- stats::rpois(50, lambda = 1.5) / 4 - 1)
x[(x > 0) & (x < 1)] # all x values between 0 and 1
if (any(x == 0) || any(y == 0)) "zero encountered"

## construct truth tables :

x <- c(NA, FALSE, TRUE)
names(x) <- as.character(x)
outer(x, x, "&") ## AND table
outer(x, x, "|") ## OR table
```

logical

Logical Vectors

Description

Create or test for objects of type "logical", and the basic logical constants.

Usage

```
TRUE
FALSE
T; F

logical(length = 0)
as.logical(x, ...)
is.logical(x)
```

Arguments

length	A non-negative integer specifying the desired length. Double values will be coerced to integer: supplying an argument of length other than one is an error.
x	object to be coerced or tested.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

TRUE and FALSE are [reserved](#) words denoting logical constants in the R language, whereas T and F are global variables whose initial values set to these. All four are `logical(1)` vectors.

Logical vectors are coerced to integer vectors in contexts where a numerical value is required, with TRUE being mapped to 1L, FALSE to 0L and NA to NA_integer_.

Value

`logical` creates a logical vector of the specified length. Each element of the vector is equal to FALSE.

`as.logical` attempts to coerce its argument to be of logical type. For [factors](#), this uses the [levels](#) (labels). Like [as.vector](#) it strips attributes including names. Character strings `c("T", "TRUE", "True", "true")` are regarded as true, `c("F", "FALSE", "False", "false")` as false, and all others as NA.

`is.logical` returns TRUE or FALSE depending on whether its argument is of logical type or not.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[NA](#), the other logical constant.

LongVectors

Long Vectors

Description

Vectors of 2^{31} or more elements were added in R 3.0.0.

Details

Prior to R 3.0.0, all vectors in R were restricted to at most $2^{31} - 1$ elements and could be indexed by integer vectors.

Currently all [atomic](#) (raw, logical, integer, numeric, complex, character) vectors, [lists](#) and [expressions](#) can be much longer on 64-bit platforms: such vectors are referred to as ‘long vectors’ and have a slightly different internal structure. In theory up they can to 2^{52} elements, but address space limits of current CPUs and OSes will be much smaller. Such objects will have a [length](#) that is expressed as a double, and can be indexed by double vectors.

Arrays (including matrices) can be based on long vectors provided each of their dimensions is at most $2^{31} - 1$: thus there are no 1-dimensional long arrays.

R code typically only needs minor changes to work with long vectors, maybe only checking that `as.integer` is not used unnecessarily for e.g. lengths. However, compiled code typically needs quite extensive changes. Note that the [.C](#) and [.Fortran](#) interfaces do not accept long vectors, so [.Call](#) (or similar) has to be used.

Because of the storage requirements (a minimum of 64 bytes per character string), character vectors are only going to be usable if they have a small number of distinct elements, and even then factors will be more efficient (4 bytes per element rather than 8). So it is expected that most of the usage of long vectors will be integer vectors (including factors) and numeric vectors.

Matrix algebra

It is now possible to use $m \times n$ matrices with more than 2 billion elements. Whether matrix algebra (including [%*%](#), [crossprod](#), [svd](#), [qr](#), [solve](#) and [eigen](#) will actually work is somewhat implementation dependent, including the Fortran compiler used and if an external BLAS or LAPACK is used.

An efficient parallel BLAS implementation will often be important to obtain usable performance. For example on one particular platform `chol` on a 47,000 square matrix took about 5 hours with the internal BLAS, 21 minutes using an optimized BLAS on one core, and 2 minutes using an optimized BLAS on 16 cores.

lower.tri

Lower and Upper Triangular Part of a Matrix

Description

Returns a matrix of logicals the same size of a given matrix with entries TRUE in the lower or upper triangle.

Usage

```
lower.tri(x, diag = FALSE)
upper.tri(x, diag = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x a matrix.
diag logical. Should the diagonal be included?

See Also

[diag](#), [matrix](#).

Examples

```
(m2 <- matrix(1:20, 4, 5))
lower.tri(m2)
m2[lower.tri(m2)] <- NA
m2
```

ls

List Objects

Description

ls and objects return a vector of character strings giving the names of the objects in the specified environment. When invoked with no argument at the top level prompt, ls shows what data sets and functions a user has defined. When invoked with no argument inside a function, ls returns the names of the function's local variables: this is useful in conjunction with browser.

Usage

```
ls(name, pos = -1L, envir = as.environment(pos),
   all.names = FALSE, pattern, sorted = TRUE)
objects(name, pos = -1L, envir = as.environment(pos),
        all.names = FALSE, pattern, sorted = TRUE)
```

Arguments

name	which environment to use in listing the available objects. Defaults to the <i>current</i> environment. Although called name for back compatibility, in fact this argument can specify the environment in any form; see the ‘Details’ section.
pos	an alternative argument to name for specifying the environment as a position in the search list. Mostly there for back compatibility.
envir	an alternative argument to name for specifying the environment. Mostly there for back compatibility.
all.names	a logical value. If TRUE, all object names are returned. If FALSE, names which begin with a ‘.’ are omitted.
pattern	an optional regular expression . Only names matching pattern are returned. glob2rx can be used to convert wildcard patterns to regular expressions.
sorted	logical indicating if the resulting character should be sorted alphabetically. Note that this is part of <code>ls()</code> may take most of the time.

Details

The name argument can specify the environment from which object names are taken in one of several forms: as an integer (the position in the [search](#) list); as the character string name of an element in the search list; or as an explicit [environment](#) (including using `sys.frame` to access the currently active function calls). By default, the environment of the call to `ls` or `objects` is used. The `pos` and `envir` arguments are an alternative way to specify an environment, but are primarily there for back compatibility.

Note that the *order* of strings for `sorted = TRUE` is locale dependent, see [Sys.getlocale](#). If `sorted = FALSE` the order is arbitrary, depending if the environment is hashed, the order of insertion of objects,

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[glob2rx](#) for converting wildcard patterns to regular expressions.

[ls.str](#) for a long listing based on [str](#). [apropos](#) (or [find](#)) for finding objects in the whole search path; [grep](#) for more details on ‘regular expressions’; [class](#), [methods](#), etc., for object-oriented programming.

Examples

```
.Ob <- 1
ls(pattern = "0")
ls(pattern= "0", all.names = TRUE)    # also shows ".[foo]"

# shows an empty list because inside myfunc no variables are defined
myfunc <- function() {ls()}
```

```
myfunc()

# define a local variable inside myfunc
myfunc <- function() {y <- 1; ls()}
myfunc()           # shows "y"
```

make.names	<i>Make Syntactically Valid Names</i>
------------	---------------------------------------

Description

Make syntactically valid names out of character vectors.

Usage

```
make.names(names, unique = FALSE, allow_ = TRUE)
```

Arguments

names	character vector to be coerced to syntactically valid names. This is coerced to character if necessary.
unique	logical; if TRUE, the resulting elements are unique. This may be desired for, e.g., column names.
allow_	logical. For compatibility with R prior to 1.9.0.

Details

A syntactically valid name consists of letters, numbers and the dot or underline characters and starts with a letter or the dot not followed by a number. Names such as ".2way" are not valid, and neither are the [reserved](#) words.

The definition of a *letter* depends on the current locale, but only ASCII digits are considered to be digits.

The character "X" is prepended if necessary. All invalid characters are translated to ".". A missing value is translated to "NA". Names which match R keywords have a dot appended to them. Duplicated values are altered by [make.unique](#).

Value

A character vector of same length as names with each changed to a syntactically valid name, in the current locale's encoding.

Warning

Some OSes, notably FreeBSD, report extremely incorrect information about which characters are alphabetic in some locales (typically, all multi-byte locales including UTF-8 locales). However, R provides substitutes on Windows, OS X and AIX.

Note

Prior to R version 1.9.0, underscores were not valid in variable names, and code that relies on them being converted to dots will no longer work. Use `allow_ = FALSE` for back-compatibility.

`allow_ = FALSE` is also useful when creating names for export to applications which do not allow underline in names (for example, S-PLUS and some DBMSs).

See Also

[make.unique](#), [names](#), [character](#), [data.frame](#).

Examples

```
make.names(c("a and b", "a-and-b"), unique = TRUE)
# "a.and.b" "a.and.b.1"
make.names(c("a and b", "a_and_b"), unique = TRUE)
# "a.and.b" "a_and_b"
make.names(c("a and b", "a_and_b"), unique = TRUE, allow_ = FALSE)
# "a.and.b" "a.and.b.1"
make.names(c("", "X"), unique = TRUE)
# "X.1" "X" currently; R up to 3.0.2 gave "X" "X.1"

state.name[make.names(state.name) != state.name] # those 10 with a space
```

make.unique

Make Character Strings Unique

Description

Makes the elements of a character vector unique by appending sequence numbers to duplicates.

Usage

```
make.unique(names, sep = ".")
```

Arguments

<code>names</code>	a character vector
<code>sep</code>	a character string used to separate a duplicate name from its sequence number.

Details

The algorithm used by `make.unique` has the property that `make.unique(c(A, B)) == make.unique(c(make.unique(A), B))`.

In other words, you can append one string at a time to a vector, making it unique each time, and get the same result as applying `make.unique` to all of the strings at once.

If character vector `A` is already unique, then `make.unique(c(A, B))` preserves `A`.

Value

A character vector of same length as names with duplicates changed, in the current locale's encoding.

Author(s)

Thomas P. Minka

See Also

[make.names](#)

Examples

```
make.unique(c("a", "a", "a"))
make.unique(c(make.unique(c("a", "a")), "a"))

make.unique(c("a", "a", "a.2", "a"))
make.unique(c(make.unique(c("a", "a")), "a.2", "a"))

rbind(data.frame(x = 1), data.frame(x = 2), data.frame(x = 3))
rbind(rbind(data.frame(x = 1), data.frame(x = 2)), data.frame(x = 3))
```

mapply

Apply a Function to Multiple List or Vector Arguments

Description

mapply is a multivariate version of [sapply](#). mapply applies FUN to the first elements of each ... argument, the second elements, the third elements, and so on. Arguments are recycled if necessary.

Usage

```
mapply(FUN, ..., MoreArgs = NULL, SIMPLIFY = TRUE,
       USE.NAMES = TRUE)
```

Arguments

FUN	function to apply, found via match.fun .
...	arguments to vectorize over (vectors or lists of strictly positive length, or all of zero length). See also ‘Details’.
MoreArgs	a list of other arguments to FUN.
SIMPLIFY	logical or character string; attempt to reduce the result to a vector, matrix or higher dimensional array; see the <code>simplify</code> argument of sapply .
USE.NAMES	logical; use names if the first ... argument has names, or if it is a character vector, use that character vector as the names.

Details

mapply calls FUN for the values of ... (re-cycled to the length of the longest, unless any have length zero), followed by the arguments given in MoreArgs. The arguments in the call will be named if ... or MoreArgs are named.

Arguments with classes in ... will be accepted, and their subsetting and length methods will be used.

Value

A list, or for SIMPLIFY = TRUE, a vector, array or list.

See Also

[sapply](#), after which mapply() is modelled.

[outer](#), which applies a vectorized function to all combinations of two arguments.

Examples

```
mapply(rep, 1:4, 4:1)

mapply(rep, times = 1:4, x = 4:1)

mapply(rep, times = 1:4, MoreArgs = list(x = 42))

mapply(function(x, y) seq_len(x) + y,
       c(a = 1, b = 2, c = 3), # names from first
       c(A = 10, B = 0, C = -10))

word <- function(C, k) paste(rep.int(C, k), collapse = "")
utils::str(mapply(word, LETTERS[1:6], 6:1, SIMPLIFY = FALSE))
```

margin.table	<i>Compute table margin</i>
--------------	-----------------------------

Description

For a contingency table in array form, compute the sum of table entries for a given index.

Usage

```
margin.table(x, margin = NULL)
```

Arguments

- x an array
- margin index number (1 for rows, etc.)

Details

This is really just `apply(x, margin, sum)` packaged up for newbies, except that if `margin` has length zero you get `sum(x)`.

Value

The relevant marginal table. The class of `x` is copied to the output table, except in the summation case.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard

See Also

[prop.table](#) and [addmargins](#).

Examples

```
m <- matrix(1:4, 2)
margin.table(m, 1)
margin.table(m, 2)
```

`mat.or.vec`*Create a Matrix or a Vector*

Description

`mat.or.vec` creates an `nr` by `nc` zero matrix if `nc` is greater than 1, and a zero vector of length `nr` if `nc` equals 1.

Usage

```
mat.or.vec(nr, nc)
```

Arguments

`nr`, `nc` numbers of rows and columns.

Examples

```
mat.or.vec(3, 1)
mat.or.vec(3, 2)
```

match*Value Matching*

Description

`match` returns a vector of the positions of (first) matches of its first argument in its second.

`%in%` is a more intuitive interface as a binary operator, which returns a logical vector indicating if there is a match or not for its left operand.

Usage

```
match(x, table, nomatch = NA_integer_, incomparables = NULL)
```

```
x %in% table
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	vector or NULL: the values to be matched. Long vectors are supported.
<code>table</code>	vector or NULL: the values to be matched against. Long vectors are not supported.
<code>nomatch</code>	the value to be returned in the case when no match is found. Note that it is coerced to integer.
<code>incomparables</code>	a vector of values that cannot be matched. Any value in <code>x</code> matching a value in this vector is assigned the <code>nomatch</code> value. For historical reasons, <code>FALSE</code> is equivalent to <code>NULL</code> .

Details

`%in%` is currently defined as

```
"%in%" <- function(x, table) match(x, table, nomatch = 0) > 0
```

Factors, raw vectors and lists are converted to character vectors, and then `x` and `table` are coerced to a common type (the later of the two types in R's ordering, logical < integer < numeric < complex < character) before matching. If `incomparables` has positive length it is coerced to the common type.

Matching for lists is potentially very slow and best avoided except in simple cases.

Exactly what matches what is to some extent a matter of definition. For all types, NA matches NA and no other value. For real and complex values, NaN values are regarded as matching any other NaN value, but not matching NA.

That `%in%` never returns NA makes it particularly useful in `if` conditions.

Character strings will be compared as byte sequences if any input is marked as "bytes" (see [Encoding](#)).

Value

A vector of the same length as `x`.

`match`: An integer vector giving the position in `table` of the first match if there is a match, otherwise `nomatch`.

If `x[i]` is found to equal `table[j]` then the value returned in the *i*-th position of the return value is *j*, for the smallest possible *j*. If no match is found, the value is `nomatch`.

`%in%`: A logical vector, indicating if a match was located for each element of `x`: thus the values are TRUE or FALSE and never NA.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[pmatch](#) and [charmatch](#) for (*partial*) string matching, [match.arg](#), etc for function argument matching. [findInterval](#) similarly returns a vector of positions, but finds numbers within intervals, rather than exact matches.

[is.element](#) for an S-compatible equivalent of `%in%`.

Examples

```
## The intersection of two sets can be defined via match():
## Simple version:
## intersect <- function(x, y) y[match(x, y, nomatch = 0)]
intersect # the R function in base is slightly more careful
intersect(1:10, 7:20)

1:10 %in% c(1,3,5,9)
sstr <- c("c","ab","B","bba","c",NA,"@","bla","a","Ba","%")
sstr[sstr %in% c(letters, LETTERS)]

"%w/o%" <- function(x, y) x[!x %in% y] #-- x without y
(1:10) %w/o% c(3,7,12)
## Note that setdiff() is very similar and typically makes more sense:
c(1:6,7:2) %w/o% c(3,7,12) # -> keeps duplicates
setdiff(c(1:6,7:2), c(3,7,12)) # -> unique values
```

Description

`match.arg` matches `arg` against a table of candidate values as specified by `choices`, where NULL means to take the first one.

Usage

```
match.arg(arg, choices, several.ok = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>arg</code>	a character vector (of length one unless <code>several.ok</code> is TRUE) or NULL.
<code>choices</code>	a character vector of candidate values
<code>several.ok</code>	logical specifying if <code>arg</code> should be allowed to have more than one element.

Details

In the one-argument form `match.arg(arg)`, the choices are obtained from a default setting for the formal argument `arg` of the function from which `match.arg` was called. (Since default argument matching will set `arg` to `choices`, this is allowed as an exception to the ‘length one unless `several.ok` is TRUE’ rule, and returns the first element.)

Matching is done using [pmatch](#), so `arg` may be abbreviated.

Value

The unabbreviated version of the exact or unique partial match if there is one; otherwise, an error is signalled if `several.ok` is false, as per default. When `several.ok` is true and more than one element of `arg` has a match, all unabbreviated versions of matches are returned.

See Also

[pmatch](#), [match.fun](#), [match.call](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)
## Extends the example for 'switch'
center <- function(x, type = c("mean", "median", "trimmed")) {
  type <- match.arg(type)
  switch(type,
    mean = mean(x),
    median = median(x),
    trimmed = mean(x, trim = .1))
}
x <- rcauchy(10)
center(x, "t")      # Works
center(x, "med")     # Works
try(center(x, "m"))  # Error
stopifnot(identical(center(x),      center(x, "mean")),
           identical(center(x, NULL), center(x, "mean")) )

## Allowing more than one match:
match.arg(c("gauss", "rect", "ep"),
  c("gaussian", "epanechnikov", "rectangular", "triangular"),
  several.ok = TRUE)
```

match.call

*Argument Matching***Description**

match.call returns a call in which all of the specified arguments are specified by their full names.

Usage

```
match.call(definition = sys.function(sys.parent()),
           call = sys.call(sys.parent()),
           expand.dots = TRUE,
           envir = parent.frame(2L))
```

Arguments

definition	a function, by default the function from which match.call is called. See details.
call	an unevaluated call to the function specified by definition, as generated by call .
expand.dots	logical. Should arguments matching ... in the call be included or left as a ... argument?
envir	an environment, from which the ... in call are retrieved, if any.

Details

‘function’ on this help page means an interpreted function (also known as a ‘closure’): match.call does not support primitive functions (where argument matching is normally positional).

match.call is most commonly used in two circumstances:

- To record the call for later re-use: for example most model-fitting functions record the call as element call of the list they return. Here the default expand.dots = TRUE is appropriate.
- To pass most of the call to another function, often model.frame. Here the common idiom is that expand.dots = FALSE is used, and the ... element of the matched call is removed. An alternative is to explicitly select the arguments to be passed on, as is done in lm.

Calling match.call outside a function without specifying definition is an error.

Value

An object of class call.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

See Also

`sys.call()` is similar, but does *not* expand the argument names; `call`, `pmatch`, `match.arg`, `match.fun`.

Examples

```
match.call(get, call("get", "abc", i = FALSE, p = 3))
## -> get(x = "abc", pos = 3, inherits = FALSE)
fun <- function(x, lower = 0, upper = 1) {
  structure((x - lower) / (upper - lower), CALL = match.call())
}
fun(4 * atan(1), u = pi)
```

match.fun

*Extract a Function Specified by Name***Description**

When called inside functions that take a function as argument, extract the desired function object while avoiding undesired matching to objects of other types.

Usage

```
match.fun(FUN, descend = TRUE)
```

Arguments

FUN	item to match as function: a function, symbol or character string. See ‘Details’.
descend	logical; control whether to search past non-function objects.

Details

`match.fun` is not intended to be used at the top level since it will perform matching in the *parent* of the caller.

If FUN is a function, it is returned. If it is a symbol (for example, enclosed in backquotes) or a character vector of length one, it will be looked up using `get` in the environment of the parent of the caller. If it is of any other mode, it is attempted first to get the argument to the caller as a symbol (using `substitute` twice), and if that fails, an error is declared.

If `descend = TRUE`, `match.fun` will look past non-function objects with the given name; otherwise if FUN points to a non-function object then an error is generated.

This is used in base functions such as `apply`, `lapply`, `outer`, and `sweep`.

Value

A function matching FUN or an error is generated.

Bugs

The descend argument is a bit of misnomer and probably not actually needed by anything. It may go away in the future.

It is impossible to fully foolproof this. If one attaches a list or data frame containing a length-one character vector with the same name as a function, it may be used (although namespaces will help).

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard and Robert Gentleman, based on an earlier version by Jonathan Rougier.

See Also

[match.arg](#), [get](#)

Examples

```
# Same as get("*"):
match.fun("*")
# Overwrite outer with a vector
outer <- 1:5
try(match.fun(outer, descend = FALSE)) #-> Error: not a function
match.fun(outer) # finds it anyway
is.function(match.fun("outer")) # as well
```

MathFun

Miscellaneous Mathematical Functions

Description

`abs(x)` computes the absolute value of `x`, `sqrt(x)` computes the (principal) square root of `x`, \sqrt{x} .

The naming follows the standard for computer languages such as C or Fortran.

Usage

```
abs(x)
sqrt(x)
```

Arguments

`x` a numeric or [complex](#) vector or array.

Details

These are [internal generic primitive](#) functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic. For complex arguments (and the default method), `z`, `abs(z) == Mod(z)` and `sqrt(z) == z^0.5`.

`abs(x)` returns an [integer](#) vector when `x` is integer or [logical](#).

S4 methods

Both are S4 generic and members of the [Math](#) group generic.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[Arithmetic](#) for simple, [log](#) for logarithmic, [sin](#) for trigonometric, and [Special](#) for special mathematical functions.

'[plotmath](#)' for the use of sqrt in plot annotation.

Examples

```
require(stats) # for spline
require(graphics)
xx <- -9:9
plot(xx, sqrt(abs(xx)), col = "red")
lines(spline(xx, sqrt(abs(xx)), n=101), col = "pink")
```

matmult

Matrix Multiplication

Description

Multiplies two matrices, if they are conformable. If one argument is a vector, it will be promoted to either a row or column matrix to make the two arguments conformable. If both are vectors of the same length, it will return the inner product (as a matrix).

Usage

```
x %*% y
```

Arguments

x, y numeric or complex matrices or vectors.

Details

When a vector is promoted to a matrix, its names are not promoted to row or column names, unlike [as.matrix](#).

This operator is S4 generic but not S3 generic. S4 methods need to be written for a function of two arguments named x and y.

Value

A double or complex matrix product. Use [drop](#) to remove dimensions which have only one level.

Note

Since R 3.2.0, promotion of a vector to a 1-row or 1-column matrix happens in even more cases, when one of the two choices allows x and y to get conformable dimensions.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

For matrix *crossproducts*, [crossprod\(\)](#) and [tcrossprod\(\)](#) are typically preferable. [matrix](#), [Arithmetic](#), [diag](#).

Examples

```
x <- 1:4
(z <- x %>% x)    # scalar ("inner") product (1 x 1 matrix)
drop(z)          # as scalar

y <- diag(x)
z <- matrix(1:12, ncol = 3, nrow = 4)
y %>% z
y %>% x
x %>% z
```

matrix

Matrices

Description

`matrix` creates a matrix from the given set of values.

`as.matrix` attempts to turn its argument into a matrix.

`is.matrix` tests if its argument is a (strict) matrix.

Usage

```
matrix(data = NA, nrow = 1, ncol = 1, byrow = FALSE,
       dimnames = NULL)
```

```
as.matrix(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
as.matrix(x, rownames.force = NA, ...)
```

```
is.matrix(x)
```

Arguments

<code>data</code>	an optional data vector (including a list or expression vector). Non-atomic classed R objects are coerced by as.vector and all attributes discarded.
<code>nrow</code>	the desired number of rows.
<code>ncol</code>	the desired number of columns.
<code>byrow</code>	logical. If FALSE (the default) the matrix is filled by columns, otherwise the matrix is filled by rows.
<code>dimnames</code>	A dimnames attribute for the matrix: NULL or a list of length 2 giving the row and column names respectively. An empty list is treated as NULL, and a list of length one as row names. The list can be named, and the list names will be used as names for the dimensions.
<code>x</code>	an R object.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments to be passed to or from methods.
<code>rownames.force</code>	logical indicating if the resulting matrix should have character (rather than NULL) rownames . The default, NA, uses NULL rownames if the data frame has ‘automatic’ row.names or for a zero-row data frame.

Details

If one of `nrow` or `ncol` is not given, an attempt is made to infer it from the length of `data` and the other parameter. If neither is given, a one-column matrix is returned.

If there are too few elements in `data` to fill the matrix, then the elements in `data` are recycled. If `data` has length zero, NA of an appropriate type is used for atomic vectors (`0` for raw vectors) and NULL for lists.

`is.matrix` returns TRUE if `x` is a vector and has a “`dim`” attribute of length 2) and FALSE otherwise. Note that a [data.frame](#) is **not** a matrix by this test. The function is generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#).

`as.matrix` is a generic function. The method for data frames will return a character matrix if there is only atomic columns and any non-(numeric/logical/complex) column, applying [as.vector](#) to factors and [format](#) to other non-character columns. Otherwise, the usual coercion hierarchy (logical < integer < double < complex) will be used, e.g., all-logical data frames will be coerced to a logical matrix, mixed logical-integer will give a integer matrix, etc.

The default method for `as.matrix` calls `as.vector(x)`, and hence e.g. coerces factors to character vectors.

When coercing a vector, it produces a one-column matrix, and promotes the names (if any) of the vector to the rownames of the matrix.

`is.matrix` is a [primitive](#) function.

The print method for a matrix gives a rectangular layout with `dimnames` or indices. For a list matrix, the entries of length not one are printed in the form ‘integer,7’ indicating the type and length.

Note

If you just want to convert a vector to a matrix, something like

```
dim(x) <- c(nx, ny)
dimnames(x) <- list(row_names, col_names)
```

will avoid duplicating x.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[data.matrix](#), which attempts to convert to a numeric matrix.

A matrix is the special case of a two-dimensional [array](#).

Examples

```
is.matrix(as.matrix(1:10))
!is.matrix(warpbreaks) # data.frame, NOT matrix!
warpbreaks[1:10,]
as.matrix(warpbreaks[1:10,]) # using as.matrix.data.frame(.) method

## Example of setting row and column names
mdat <- matrix(c(1,2,3, 11,12,13), nrow = 2, ncol = 3, byrow = TRUE,
               dimnames = list(c("row1", "row2"),
                               c("C.1", "C.2", "C.3")))
mdat
```

maxCol

Find Maximum Position in Matrix

Description

Find the maximum position for each row of a matrix, breaking ties at random.

Usage

```
max.col(m, ties.method = c("random", "first", "last"))
```

Arguments

m	numerical matrix
ties.method	a character string specifying how ties are handled, "random" by default; can be abbreviated; see 'Details'.

Details

When `ties.method = "random"`, as per default, ties are broken at random. In this case, the determination of a tie assumes that the entries are probabilities: there is a relative tolerance of 10^{-5} , relative to the largest (in magnitude, omitting infinity) entry in the row.

If `ties.method = "first"`, `max.col` returns the column number of the *first* of several maxima in every row, the same as `unname(apply(m, 1, which.max))`.

Correspondingly, `ties.method = "last"` returns the *last* of possibly several indices.

Value

index of a maximal value for each row, an integer vector of length `nrow(m)`.

References

Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. New York: Springer (4th ed).

See Also

`which.max` for vectors.

Examples

```
table(mc <- max.col(swiss)) # mostly "1" and "5", 5 x "2" and once "4"
swiss[unique(print(mr <- max.col(t(swiss)))) , ] # 3 33 45 45 33 6

set.seed(1) # reproducible example:
(mm <- rbind(x = round(2*stats::runif(12)),
             y = round(5*stats::runif(12)),
             z = round(8*stats::runif(12))))

## Not run:
  [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10] [,11] [,12]
x    1    1    1    2    0    2    2    1    1    0    0    0
y    3    2    4    2    4    5    2    4    5    1    3    1
z    2    3    0    3    7    3    4    5    4    1    7    5

## End(Not run)
## column indices of all row maxima :
utils::str(lapply(1:3, function(i) which(mm[i,] == max(mm[i,]))))
max.col(mm) ; max.col(mm) # "random"
max.col(mm, "first") # -> 4 6 5
max.col(mm, "last") # -> 7 9 11
```

mean

*Arithmetic Mean***Description**

Generic function for the (trimmed) arithmetic mean.

Usage

```
mean(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
mean(x, trim = 0, na.rm = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	An R object. Currently there are methods for numeric/logical vectors and date , date-time and time interval objects. Complex vectors are allowed for <code>trim = 0</code> , only.
<code>trim</code>	the fraction (0 to 0.5) of observations to be trimmed from each end of <code>x</code> before the mean is computed. Values of <code>trim</code> outside that range are taken as the nearest endpoint.
<code>na.rm</code>	a logical value indicating whether NA values should be stripped before the computation proceeds.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

If `trim` is zero (the default), the arithmetic mean of the values in `x` is computed, as a numeric or complex vector of length one. If `x` is not logical (coerced to numeric), numeric (including integer) or complex, `NA_real_` is returned, with a warning.

If `trim` is non-zero, a symmetrically trimmed mean is computed with a fraction of `trim` observations deleted from each end before the mean is computed.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[weighted.mean](#), [mean.POSIXct](#), [colMeans](#) for row and column means.

Examples

```
x <- c(0:10, 50)
xm <- mean(x)
c(xm, mean(x, trim = 0.10))
```

memCompress

*In-memory Compression and Decompression***Description**

In-memory compression or decompression for raw vectors.

Usage

```
memCompress(from, type = c("gzip", "bzip2", "xz", "none"))

memDecompress(from,
               type = c("unknown", "gzip", "bzip2", "xz", "none"),
               asChar = FALSE)
```

Arguments

from	A raw vector. For memCompress a character vector will be converted to a raw vector with character strings separated by "\n".
type	character string, the type of compression. May be abbreviated to a single letter, defaults to the first of the alternatives.
asChar	logical: should the result be converted to a character string?

Details

type = "none" passes the input through unchanged, but may be useful if type is a variable.

type = "unknown" attempts to detect the type of compression applied (if any): this will always succeed for bzip2 compression, and will succeed for other forms if there is a suitable header. It will auto-detect the ‘magic’ header ("\x1f\x8b") added to files by the gzip program (and to files written by [gzfile](#)), but memCompress does not add such a header.

bzip2 compression always adds a header ("BZh").

Compressing with type = "xz" is equivalent to compressing a file with xz -9e (including adding the ‘magic’ header): decompression should cope with the contents of any file compressed with xz version 4.999 and some versions of lzma. There are other versions, in particular ‘raw’ streams, that are not currently handled.

All the types of compression can expand the input: for "gzip" and "bzip" the maximum expansion is known and so memCompress can always allocate sufficient space. For "xz" it is possible (but extremely unlikely) that compression will fail if the output would have been too large.

Value

A raw vector or a character string (if asChar = TRUE).

See Also

[connections](#).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data_compression for background on data compression, <http://zlib.net/>, <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gzip>, <http://www.bzip.org/>, <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bzip2>, <http://tukaani.org/xz/> and <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xz> for references about the particular schemes used.

Examples

```
txt <- readLines(file.path(R.home("doc"), "COPYING"))
sum(nchar(txt))
txt.gz <- memCompress(txt, "g")
length(txt.gz)
txt2 <- strsplit(memDecompress(txt.gz, "g", asChar = TRUE), "\n")[[1]]
stopifnot(identical(txt, txt2))
txt.bz2 <- memCompress(txt, "b")
length(txt.bz2)
## can auto-detect bzip2:
txt3 <- strsplit(memDecompress(txt.bz2, asChar = TRUE), "\n")[[1]]
stopifnot(identical(txt, txt3))

## xz compression is only worthwhile for large objects
txt.xz <- memCompress(txt, "x")
length(txt.xz)
txt3 <- strsplit(memDecompress(txt.xz, asChar = TRUE), "\n")[[1]]
stopifnot(identical(txt, txt3))
```

Memory

Memory Available for Data Storage

Description

How R manages its workspace.

Details

R has a variable-sized workspace. There are (rarely-used) command-line options to control its minimum size, but no longer any to control the maximum size.

R maintains separate areas for fixed and variable sized objects. The first of these is allocated as an array of *cons cells* (Lisp programmers will know what they are, others may think of them as the building blocks of the language itself, parse trees, etc.), and the second are thrown on a *heap* of ‘Vcells’ of 8 bytes each. Each cons cell occupies 28 bytes on a 32-bit build of R, (usually) 56 bytes on a 64-bit build.

The default values are (currently) an initial setting of 350k cons cells and 6Mb of vector heap. Note that the areas are not actually allocated initially: rather these values are the sizes for triggering garbage collection. These values can be set by the command line options ‘--min-nsz’ and ‘--min-vsize’ (or if they are not used, the environment variables R_NSZ and R_VSIZE) when R

is started. Thereafter R will grow or shrink the areas depending on usage, never decreasing below the initial values.

How much time R spends in the garbage collector will depend on these initial settings and on the trade-off the memory manager makes, when memory fills up, between collecting garbage to free up unused memory and growing these areas. The strategy used for growth can be specified by setting the environment variable `R_GC_MEM_GROW` to an integer value between 0 and 3. This variable is read at start-up. Higher values grow the heap more aggressively, thus reducing garbage collection time but using more memory.

You can find out the current memory consumption (the heap and cons cells used as numbers and megabytes) by typing `gc()` at the R prompt. Note that following `gcinfo(TRUE)`, automatic garbage collection always prints memory use statistics.

The command-line option ‘`--max-ppsize`’ controls the maximum size of the pointer protection stack. This defaults to 50000, but can be increased to allow deep recursion or large and complicated calculations to be done. *Note* that parts of the garbage collection process goes through the full reserved pointer protection stack and hence becomes slower when the size is increased. Currently the maximum value accepted is 500000.

See Also

An Introduction to R for more command-line options.

[Memory-limits](#) for the design limitations.

`gc` for information on the garbage collector and total memory usage, `object.size(a)` for the (approximate) size of R object `a`. [memory.profile](#) for profiling the usage of cons cells.

Memory-limits

Memory Limits in R

Description

R holds objects it is using in virtual memory. This help file documents the current design limitations on large objects: these differ between 32-bit and 64-bit builds of R.

Details

Currently R runs on 32- and 64-bit operating systems, and most 64-bit OSes (including Linux, Solaris, Windows and OS X) can run either 32- or 64-bit builds of R. The memory limits depends mainly on the build, but for a 32-bit build of R on Windows they also depend on the underlying OS version.

R holds all objects in virtual memory, and there are limits based on the amount of memory that can be used by all objects:

- There may be limits on the size of the heap and the number of cons cells allowed – see [Memory](#) – but these are usually not imposed.
- There is a limit on the (user) address space of a single process such as the R executable. This is system-specific, and can depend on the executable.

- The environment may impose limitations on the resources available to a single process: Windows' versions of R do so directly.

Error messages beginning `cannot allocate vector of size` indicate a failure to obtain memory, either because the size exceeded the address-space limit for a process or, more likely, because the system was unable to provide the memory. Note that on a 32-bit build there may well be enough free memory available, but not a large enough contiguous block of address space into which to map it.

There are also limits on individual objects. The storage space cannot exceed the address limit, and if you try to exceed that limit, the error message begins `cannot allocate vector of length`. The number of bytes in a character string is limited to $2^{31} - 1 \approx 2 \cdot 10^9$, which is also the limit on each dimension of an array.

Unix

The address-space limit is system-specific: 32-bit OSes imposes a limit of no more than 4Gb: it is often 3Gb. Running 32-bit executables on a 64-bit OS will have similar limits: 64-bit executables will have an essentially infinite system-specific limit (e.g., 128Tb for Linux on x86_64 cpus).

See the OS/shell's help on commands such as `limit` or `ulimit` for how to impose limitations on the resources available to a single process. For example a bash user could use

```
ulimit -t 600 -v 4000000
```

whereas a csh user might use

```
limit cputime 10m
limit vmemoryuse 4096m
```

to limit a process to 10 minutes of CPU time and (around) 4Gb of virtual memory. (There are other options to set the RAM in use, but they are not generally honoured.)

Windows

The address-space limit is 2Gb under 32-bit Windows unless the OS's default has been changed to allow more (up to 3Gb). See <https://www.microsoft.com/whdc/system/platform/server/PAE/PAEmem.msp> and [https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/bb613473\(VS.85\).aspx](https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/bb613473(VS.85).aspx). Under most 64-bit versions of Windows the limit for a 32-bit build of R is 4Gb: for the oldest ones it is 2Gb. The limit for a 64-bit build of R (imposed by the OS) is 8Tb.

It is not normally possible to allocate as much as 2Gb to a single vector in a 32-bit build of R even on 64-bit Windows because of preallocations by Windows in the middle of the address space.

Under Windows, R imposes limits on the total memory allocation available to a single session as the OS provides no way to do so: see [memory.size](#) and [memory.limit](#).

See Also

[object.size\(a\)](#) for the (approximate) size of R object `a`.

memory.profile

*Profile the Usage of Cons Cells***Description**

Lists the usage of the cons cells by SEXPREC type.

Usage

```
memory.profile()
```

Details

The current types and their uses are listed in the include file 'Rinternals.h'.

Value

A vector of counts, named by the types. See [typeof](#) for an explanation of types.

See Also

[gc](#) for the overall usage of cons cells. [Rprofmem](#) and [tracemem](#) allow memory profiling of specific code or objects, but need to be enabled at compile time.

Examples

```
memory.profile()
```

merge

*Merge Two Data Frames***Description**

Merge two data frames by common columns or row names, or do other versions of database *join* operations.

Usage

```
merge(x, y, ...)
```

```
## Default S3 method:
```

```
merge(x, y, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
```

```
merge(x, y, by = intersect(names(x), names(y)),
```

```
by.x = by, by.y = by, all = FALSE, all.x = all, all.y = all,
sort = TRUE, suffixes = c(".x", ".y"),
incomparables = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	data frames, or objects to be coerced to one.
<code>by, by.x, by.y</code>	specifications of the columns used for merging. See ‘Details’.
<code>all</code>	logical; <code>all = L</code> is shorthand for <code>all.x = L</code> and <code>all.y = L</code> , where <code>L</code> is either TRUE or FALSE .
<code>all.x</code>	logical; if TRUE , then extra rows will be added to the output, one for each row in <code>x</code> that has no matching row in <code>y</code> . These rows will have NAs in those columns that are usually filled with values from <code>y</code> . The default is FALSE , so that only rows with data from both <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> are included in the output.
<code>all.y</code>	logical; analogous to <code>all.x</code> .
<code>sort</code>	logical. Should the result be sorted on the <code>by</code> columns?
<code>suffixes</code>	a character vector of length 2 specifying the suffixes to be used for making unique the names of columns in the result which not used for merging (appearing in <code>by</code> etc).
<code>incomparables</code>	values which cannot be matched. See match . This is intended to be used for merging on one column, so these are incomparable values of that column.
<code>...</code>	arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

`merge` is a generic function whose principal method is for data frames: the default method coerces its arguments to data frames and calls the `"data.frame"` method.

By default the data frames are merged on the columns with names they both have, but separate specifications of the columns can be given by `by.x` and `by.y`. The rows in the two data frames that match on the specified columns are extracted, and joined together. If there is more than one match, all possible matches contribute one row each. For the precise meaning of ‘match’, see [match](#).

Columns to merge on can be specified by name, number or by a logical vector: the name `"row.names"` or the number `0` specifies the row names. If specified by name it must correspond uniquely to a named column in the input.

If `by` or both `by.x` and `by.y` are of length 0 (a length zero vector or `NULL`), the result, `r`, is the *Cartesian product* of `x` and `y`, i.e., `dim(r) = c(nrow(x)*nrow(y), ncol(x) + ncol(y))`.

If `all.x` is true, all the non matching cases of `x` are appended to the result as well, with NA filled in the corresponding columns of `y`; analogously for `all.y`.

If the columns in the data frames not used in merging have any common names, these have suffixes `".x"` and `".y"` by default) appended to try to make the names of the result unique. If this is not possible, an error is thrown.

The complexity of the algorithm used is proportional to the length of the answer.

In SQL database terminology, the default value of `all = FALSE` gives a *natural join*, a special case of an *inner join*. Specifying `all.x = TRUE` gives a *left (outer) join*, `all.y = TRUE` a *right (outer) join*, and both (`all = TRUE`) a *(full) outer join*. DBMSes do not match `NULL` records, equivalent to `incomparables = NA` in R.

Value

A data frame. The rows are by default lexicographically sorted on the common columns, but for `sort = FALSE` are in an unspecified order. The columns are the common columns followed by the remaining columns in `x` and then those in `y`. If the matching involved row names, an extra character column called `Row.names` is added at the left, and in all cases the result has 'automatic' row names.

Note

This is intended to work with data frames with vector-like columns: some aspects work with data frames containing matrices, but not all.

Currently long vectors are not accepted for inputs, which are thus restricted to less than 2^{31} rows. Prior to R 3.2.0 that restriction also applied to the result (and still does for 32-bit platforms).

See Also

[data.frame](#), [by](#), [cbind](#).

[dendrogram](#) for a class which has a merge method.

Examples

```
## use character columns of names to get sensible sort order
authors <- data.frame(
  surname = I(c("Tukey", "Venables", "Tierney", "Ripley", "McNeil")),
  nationality = c("US", "Australia", "US", "UK", "Australia"),
  deceased = c("yes", rep("no", 4)))
books <- data.frame(
  name = I(c("Tukey", "Venables", "Tierney",
            "Ripley", "Ripley", "McNeil", "R Core")),
  title = c("Exploratory Data Analysis",
            "Modern Applied Statistics ...",
            "LISP-STAT",
            "Spatial Statistics", "Stochastic Simulation",
            "Interactive Data Analysis",
            "An Introduction to R"),
  other.author = c(NA, "Ripley", NA, NA, NA, NA,
                  "Venables & Smith"))

(m1 <- merge(authors, books, by.x = "surname", by.y = "name"))
(m2 <- merge(books, authors, by.x = "name", by.y = "surname"))
stopifnot(as.character(m1[, 1]) == as.character(m2[, 1]),
  all.equal(m1[, -1], m2[, -1][ names(m1)[-1] ]),
  dim(merge(m1, m2, by = integer(0))) == c(36, 10))

## "R core" is missing from authors and appears only here :
merge(authors, books, by.x = "surname", by.y = "name", all = TRUE)

## example of using 'incomparables'
x <- data.frame(k1 = c(NA,NA,3,4,5), k2 = c(1,NA,NA,4,5), data = 1:5)
y <- data.frame(k1 = c(NA,2,NA,4,5), k2 = c(NA,NA,3,4,5), data = 1:5)
merge(x, y, by = c("k1","k2")) # NA's match
```

```
merge(x, y, by = "k1") # NA's match, so 6 rows
merge(x, y, by = "k2", incomparables = NA) # 2 rows
```

message

Diagnostic Messages

Description

Generate a diagnostic message from its arguments.

Usage

```
message(..., domain = NULL, appendLF = TRUE)
suppressMessages(expr)

packageStartupMessage(..., domain = NULL, appendLF = TRUE)
suppressPackageStartupMessages(expr)

.makeMessage(..., domain = NULL, appendLF = FALSE)
```

Arguments

...	zero or more objects which can be coerced to character (and which are pasted together with no separator) or (for message only) a single condition object.
domain	see gettext . If NA, messages will not be translated, see also the note in stop .
appendLF	logical: should messages given as a character string have a newline appended?
expr	expression to evaluate.

Details

message is used for generating ‘simple’ diagnostic messages which are neither warnings nor errors, but nevertheless represented as conditions. Unlike warnings and errors, a final newline is regarded as part of the message, and is optional. The default handler sends the message to the [stderr\(\)](#) connection.

If a condition object is supplied to message it should be the only argument, and further arguments will be ignored, with a warning.

While the message is being processed, a `muffleMessage` restart is available.

`suppressMessages` evaluates its expression in a context that ignores all ‘simple’ diagnostic messages.

`packageStartupMessage` is a variant whose messages can be suppressed separately by `suppressPackageStartupMessages`. (They are still messages, so can be suppressed by `suppressMessages`.)

`.makeMessage` is a utility used by `message`, `warning` and `stop` to generate a text message from the ... arguments by possible translation (see [gettext](#)) and concatenation (with no separator).

See Also

[warning](#) and [stop](#) for generating warnings and errors; [conditions](#) for condition handling and recovery.

[gettext](#) for the mechanisms for the automated translation of text.

Examples

```
message("ABC", "DEF")
suppressMessages(message("ABC"))

testit <- function() {
  message("testing package startup messages")
  packageStartupMessage("initializing ...", appendLF = FALSE)
  Sys.sleep(1)
  packageStartupMessage(" done")
}

testit()
suppressPackageStartupMessages(testit())
suppressMessages(testit())
```

missing

Does a Formal Argument have a Value?

Description

`missing` can be used to test whether a value was specified as an argument to a function.

Usage

```
missing(x)
```

Arguments

`x` a formal argument.

Details

`missing(x)` is only reliable if `x` has not been altered since entering the function: in particular it will *always* be false after `x <- match.arg(x)`.

The example shows how a plotting function can be written to work with either a pair of vectors giving `x` and `y` coordinates of points to be plotted or a single vector giving `y` values to be plotted against their indices.

Currently `missing` can only be used in the immediate body of the function that defines the argument, not in the body of a nested function or a local call. This may change in the future.

This is a ‘special’ [primitive](#) function: it must not evaluate its argument.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

See Also

[substitute](#) for argument expression; [NA](#) for missing values in data.

Examples

```
myplot <- function(x, y) {
  if(missing(y)) {
    y <- x
    x <- 1:length(y)
  }
  plot(x, y)
}
```

mode

The (Storage) Mode of an Object

Description

Get or set the type or storage mode of an object.

Usage

```
mode(x)
mode(x) <- value
storage.mode(x)
storage.mode(x) <- value
```

Arguments

x	any R object.
value	a character string giving the desired mode or ‘storage mode’ (type) of the object.

Details

Both `mode` and `storage.mode` return a character string giving the (storage) mode of the object — often the same — both relying on the output of `typeof(x)`, see the example below.

`mode(x) <- "newmode"` changes the mode of object `x` to `newmode`. This is only supported if there is an appropriate `as.newmode` function, for example "logical", "integer", "double", "complex", "raw", "character", "list", "expression", "name", "symbol" and "function". Attributes are preserved (but see below).

`storage.mode(x) <- "newmode"` is a more efficient [primitive](#) version of `mode<-`, which works for "newmode" which is one of the internal types (see [typeof](#)), but not for "single". Attributes are preserved.

As storage mode "single" is only a pseudo-mode in R, it will not be reported by `mode` or `storage.mode`: use `attr(object, "Csingle")` to examine this. However, `mode<-` can be used to set the mode to "single", which sets the real mode to "double" and the "Csingle" attribute to TRUE. Setting any other mode will remove this attribute.

Note (in the examples below) that some [calls](#) have mode "(" which is S compatible.

Mode names

Modes have the same set of names as types (see [typeof](#)) except that

- types "integer" and "double" are returned as "numeric".
- types "special" and "builtin" are returned as "function".
- type "symbol" is called mode "name".
- type "language" is returned as "(" or "call".

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[typeof](#) for the R-internal 'mode', [attributes](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)

sapply(options(), mode)

cex3 <- c("NULL", "1", "1:1", "1i", "list(1)", "data.frame(x = 1)",
  "pairlist(pi)", "c", "lm", "formals(lm)[[1]]", "formals(lm)[[2]]",
  "y ~ x", "expression((1))[[1]]", "(y ~ x)[[1]]",
  "expression(x <- pi)[[1]][[1]]")
lex3 <- sapply(cex3, function(x) eval(parse(text = x)))
mex3 <- t(sapply(lex3,
  function(x) c(typeof(x), storage.mode(x), mode(x))))
dimnames(mex3) <- list(cex3, c("typeof(.)", "storage.mode(.)", "mode(.)"))
mex3

## This also makes a local copy of 'pi':
storage.mode(pi) <- "complex"
storage.mode(pi)
rm(pi)
```

NA	<i>'Not Available' / Missing Values</i>
----	---

Description

NA is a logical constant of length 1 which contains a missing value indicator. NA can be coerced to any other vector type except raw. There are also constants NA_integer_, NA_real_, NA_complex_ and NA_character_ of the other atomic vector types which support missing values: all of these are [reserved](#) words in the R language.

The generic function is.na indicates which elements are missing.

The generic function is.na<- sets elements to NA.

The generic function anyNA implements any(is.na(x)) in a possibly faster way (especially for atomic vectors).

Usage

```
NA
is.na(x)
anyNA(x, recursive = FALSE)

## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
is.na(x)

is.na(x) <- value
```

Arguments

x	an R object to be tested: the default method for is.na handles atomic vectors, lists and pairlists; that for anyNA also handles NULL.
recursive	logical: should anyNA be applied recursively to lists and pairlists?
value	a suitable index vector for use with x.

Details

The NA of character type is distinct from the string "NA". Programmers who need to specify an explicit missing string should use NA_character_ (rather than "NA") or set elements to NA using is.na<-.

is.na and anyNA are generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#).

Function is.na<- may provide a safer way to set missingness. It behaves differently for factors, for example.

Numerical computations using NA will normally result in NA: a possible exception is where NaN is also involved, in which case either might result. Logical computations treat NA as a missing TRUE/FALSE value, and so may return TRUE or FALSE if the expression does not depend on the NA operand.

The default method for `anyNA` handles atomic vectors without a class and `NULL`. It calls `any(is.na(x))` on objects with classes and for `recursive = FALSE`, on lists and pairlists.

Value

The default method for `is.na` applied to an atomic vector returns a logical vector of the same length as its argument `x`, containing `TRUE` for those elements marked `NA` or, for numeric or complex vectors, `NaN`, and `FALSE` otherwise. (A complex value is regarded as `NA` if either its real or imaginary part is `NA` or `NaN`.) `dim`, `dimnames` and `names` attributes are copied to the result.

The default methods also work for lists and pairlists:

For `is.na`, elementwise the result is `false` unless that element is a length-one atomic vector and the single element of that vector is regarded as `NA` or `NaN` (note that any `is.na` method for the class of the element is ignored).

`anyNA(recursive = FALSE)` works the same way as `is.na`; `anyNA(recursive = TRUE)` applies `anyNA` (with method dispatch) to each element.

The data frame method for `is.na` returns a logical matrix with the same dimensions as the data frame, and with `dimnames` taken from the row and column names of the data frame.

`anyNA(NULL)` is `false`: `is.na(NULL)` is `logical(0)` with a warning.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

See Also

[NaN](#), [is.nan](#), etc., and the utility function [complete.cases](#).

[na.action](#), [na.omit](#), [na.fail](#) on how methods can be tuned to deal with missing values.

Examples

```
is.na(c(1, NA))           #> FALSE  TRUE
is.na(paste(c(1, NA)))    #> FALSE FALSE

(xx <- c(0:4))
is.na(xx) <- c(2, 4)
xx                #> 0 NA  2 NA  4
anyNA(xx)         # TRUE

# Some logical operations do not return NA
c(TRUE, FALSE) & NA
c(TRUE, FALSE) | NA

## Measure speed difference in a favourable case:
## the difference depends on the platform, on most ca 3x.
x <- 1:10000; x[5000] <- NaN # coerces x to be double
if(require("microbenchmark")) { # does not work reliably on all platforms
```

```

    print(microbenchmark(any(is.na(x)), anyNA(x)))
  } else {
    nSim <- 2^13
    print(rbind(is.na = system.time(replicate(nSim, any(is.na(x)))),
                anyNA = system.time(replicate(nSim, anyNA(x)))))
  }

## anyNA() can work recursively with list():
LL <- list(1:5, c(NA, 5:8), c("A", "NA"), c("a", NA_character_))
L2 <- LL[c(1,3)]
sapply(LL, anyNA); c(anyNA(LL), anyNA(LL, TRUE))
sapply(L2, anyNA); c(anyNA(L2), anyNA(L2, TRUE))

## ... lists, and hence data frames, too:
dN <- dd <- USJudgeRatings; dN[3,6] <- NA
anyNA(dd) # FALSE
anyNA(dN) # TRUE

```

name

Names and Symbols

Description

A ‘name’ (also known as a ‘symbol’) is a way to refer to R objects by name (rather than the value of the object, if any, bound to that name).

`as.name` and `as.symbol` are identical: they attempt to coerce the argument to a name.

`is.symbol` and the identical `is.name` return TRUE or FALSE depending on whether the argument is a name or not.

Usage

```

as.symbol(x)
is.symbol(x)

as.name(x)
is.name(x)

```

Arguments

x object to be coerced or tested.

Details

Names are limited to 10,000 bytes (and were to 256 bytes in versions of R before 2.13.0).

`as.name` first coerces its argument internally to a character vector (so methods for `as.character` are not used). It then takes the first element and provided it is not "", returns a symbol of that name (and if the element is `NA_character_`, the name is ``NA``).

`as.name` is implemented as `as.vector(x, "symbol")`, and hence will dispatch methods for the generic function `as.vector`.

`is.name` and `is.symbol` are [primitive](#) functions.

Value

For `as.name` and `as.symbol`, an R object of type "symbol" (see [typeof](#)).

For `is.name` and `is.symbol`, a length-one logical vector with value TRUE or FALSE.

Note

The term ‘symbol’ is from the LISP background of R, whereas ‘name’ has been the standard S term for this.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[call](#), [is.language](#). For the internal object mode, [typeof](#).

[plotmath](#) for another use of ‘symbol’.

Examples

```
an <- as.name("arrg")
is.name(an) # TRUE
mode(an)    # name
typeof(an)  # symbol
```

names

The Names of an Object

Description

Functions to get or set the names of an object.

Usage

```
names(x)
names(x) <- value
```

Arguments

`x` an R object.

`value` a character vector of up to the same length as `x`, or NULL.

Details

`names` is a generic accessor function, and `names<-` is a generic replacement function. The default methods get and set the "names" attribute of a vector (including a list) or pairlist.

For an `environment` `env`, `names(env)` gives the names of the corresponding list, i.e., `names(as.list(env, all.names = TRUE))` which are also given by `ls(env, all.names = TRUE, sorted = FALSE)`. If the environment is used as a hash table, `names(env)` are its "keys".

If value is shorter than x, it is extended by character NAs to the length of x.

It is possible to update just part of the names attribute via the general rules: see the examples. This works because the expression there is evaluated as `z <- "names<-"(z, "[<-"(names(z), 3, "c2"))`.

The name "" is special: it is used to indicate that there is no name associated with an element of a (atomic or generic) vector. Subscripting by "" will match nothing (not even elements which have no name).

A name can be character NA, but such a name will never be matched and is likely to lead to confusion.

Both are `primitive` functions.

Value

For `names`, NULL or a character vector of the same length as x. (NULL is given if the object has no names, including for objects of types which cannot have names.) For an environment, the length is the number of objects in the environment but the order of the names is arbitrary.

For `names<-`, the updated object. (Note that the value of `names(x) <- value` is that of the assignment, value, not the return value from the left-hand side.)

Note

For vectors, the names are one of the `attributes` with restrictions on the possible values. For pairlists, the names are the tags and converted to and from a character vector.

For a one-dimensional array the names attribute really is `dimnames[[1]]`.

Formally classed aka "S4" objects typically have `slotNames()` (and no `names()`).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`slotNames`, `dimnames`.

Examples

```
# print the names attribute of the islands data set
names(islands)
```

```
# remove the names attribute
names(islands) <- NULL
islands
rm(islands) # remove the copy made

z <- list(a = 1, b = "c", c = 1:3)
names(z)
# change just the name of the third element.
names(z)[3] <- "c2"
z

z <- 1:3
names(z)
## assign just one name
names(z)[2] <- "b"
z
```

nargs

The Number of Arguments to a Function

Description

When used inside a function body, `nargs` returns the number of arguments supplied to that function, *including* positional arguments left blank.

Usage

```
nargs()
```

Details

The count includes empty (missing) arguments, so that `foo(x, , z)` will be considered to have three arguments (see ‘Examples’). This can occur in rather indirect ways, so for example `x[]` might dispatch a call to ``[.some_method`(x,)` which is considered to have two arguments.

This is a [primitive](#) function.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[args](#), [formals](#) and [sys.call](#).

Examples

```
tst <- function(a, b = 3, ...) {nargs()}
tst() # 0
tst(clicketyclack) # 1 (even non-existing)
tst(c1, a2, rr3) # 3

foo <- function(x, y, z, w) {
  cat("call was ", deparse(match.call()), "\n", sep = "")
  nargs()
}
foo()      # 0
foo(, , 3) # 3
foo(z = 3) # 1, even though this is the same call

nargs() # not really meaningful
```

nchar	<i>Count the Number of Characters (or Bytes or Width)</i>
-------	---

Description

nchar takes a character vector as an argument and returns a vector whose elements contain the sizes of the corresponding elements of x.

nzchar is a fast way to find out if elements of a character vector are non-empty strings.

Usage

```
nchar(x, type = "chars", allowNA = FALSE, keepNA = FALSE)

nzchar(x, keepNA = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	character vector, or a vector to be coerced to a character vector. Giving a factor is an error.
type	character string: partial matching to one of c("bytes", "chars", "width"). See ‘Details’.
allowNA	logical: should NA be returned for invalid multibyte strings or "bytes"-encoded strings (rather than throwing an error)?
keepNA	logical: should NA be returned where ever x is NA? If false, the (implicit or explicit) default for nzchar() and for R versions $\leq 3.2.x$, nchar() returns 2, as that is the number of printing characters used when strings are written to output, and nzchar() is TRUE. From R version 3.3.0 on, for nchar() only, the default will be NA, which means to use keepNA = TRUE unless type is "width". Used to be (implicitly) hard coded to FALSE in R versions $\leq 3.2.0$.

Details

The ‘size’ of a character string can be measured in one of three ways (corresponding to the `type` argument):

`bytes` The number of bytes needed to store the string (plus in C a final terminator which is not counted).

`chars` The number of human-readable characters.

`width` The number of columns `cat` will use to print the string in a monospaced font. The same as `chars` if this cannot be calculated.

These will often be the same, and almost always will be in single-byte locales (but note how `type` may influence NA treatment for `keepNA = NA`). There will be differences between the first two with multibyte character sequences, e.g. in UTF-8 locales.

The internal equivalent of the default method of `as.character` is performed on `x` (so there is no method dispatch). If you want to operate on non-vector objects passing them through `deparse` first will be required.

Value

For `nchar`, an integer vector giving the sizes of each element. For missing values (i.e., NA, i.e., `NA_character_`), `nchar()` returns `NA_integer_` if `keepNA` is true, and 2, the number of printing characters, if false.

`type = "width"` gives (an approximation to) the number of columns used in printing each element in a terminal font, taking into account double-width, zero-width and ‘composing’ characters.

If `allowNA = TRUE` and an element is detected as invalid in a multi-byte character set such as UTF-8, its number of characters and the width will be NA. Otherwise the number of characters will be non-negative, so `!is.na(nchar(x, "chars", TRUE))` is a test of validity.

A character string marked with “bytes” encoding (see [Encoding](#)) has a number of bytes, but neither a known number of characters nor a width, so the latter two types are NA if `allowNA = TRUE`, otherwise an error.

Names, dims and dimnames are copied from the input.

For `nzchar`, a logical vector of the same length as `x`, true if and only if the element has non-zero length; if the element is NA, `nzchar()` is true when `keepNA` is false, as by default, and NA otherwise.

Note

This does **not** by default give the number of characters that will be used to `print()` the string. Use `encodeString` to find that. Where character strings have been marked as UTF-8, the number of characters and widths will be computed in UTF-8, even though printing may use escapes such as ‘<U+2642>’ in a non-UTF-8 locale.

The concept of ‘width’ is a slippery one even in a monospaced font. Some human languages have the concept of *combining* characters, in which two or more characters are rendered together: an example would be “y\u306”, which is two characters of width one: combining characters are given width zero, and there are other zero-width characters such as the zero-width space “\u200b”.

Some East Asian languages have ‘wide’ characters, ideographs which are conventionally printed across two columns when mixed with ASCII and other ‘narrow’ characters in those languages. The

problem is that whether a computer prints wide characters over two or one columns depends on the font, with it not being uncommon to use two columns in a font intended for East Asian users and a single column in a ‘Western’ font. Unicode has encodings for ‘fullwidth’ versions of ASCII characters and ‘halfwidth’ versions of Katakana (Japanese) and Hangul (Korean) characters. Then there is the ‘East Asian Ambiguous class’ (Greek, Cyrillic, signs, some accented Latin chars, etc), for which the historical practice was to use two columns in East Asia and one elsewhere. The width quoted by `nchar` for characters in that class (and some others) depends on the locale, being one except in some East Asian locales on some OSes (notably Windows).

Control characters are given width zero.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Unicode Standard Annex #11: *East Asian Width*. <http://www.unicode.org/reports/tr11/>

See Also

[strwidth](#) giving width of strings for plotting; [paste](#), [substr](#), [strsplit](#)

Examples

```
x <- c("asfef", "qwerty", "yuiop[", "b", "stuff.blah.yech")
nchar(x)
# 5 6 6 1 15

nchar(deparse(mean))
# 18 17 <-- unless mean differs from base::mean

x[3] <- NA; x
nchar(x, keepNA= TRUE) # 5 6 NA 1 15
nchar(x, keepNA=FALSE) # 5 6 2 1 15
stopifnot(identical(nchar(x, "w", keepNA = NA),
                    nchar(x, keepNA = FALSE)),
           identical(is.na(x), is.na(nchar(x, keepNA=NA))))
```

nlevels

The Number of Levels of a Factor

Description

Return the number of levels which its argument has.

Usage

```
nlevels(x)
```

Arguments

`x` an object, usually a factor.

Details

This is usually applied to a factor, but other objects can have levels.

The actual factor levels (if they exist) can be obtained with the [levels](#) function.

Value

The length of [levels](#)(`x`), which is zero if `x` has no levels.

See Also

[levels](#), [factor](#).

Examples

```
nlevels(gl(3, 7)) # = 3
```

noquote

Class for ‘no quote’ Printing of Character Strings

Description

Print character strings without quotes.

Usage

```
noquote(obj)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'noquote'
print(x, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'noquote'
c(..., recursive = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`obj` any R object, typically a vector of [character](#) strings.

`x` an object of class "noquote".

`...` further options passed to next methods, such as [print](#).

`recursive` for compatibility with the generic [c](#) function.

Details

noquote returns its argument as an object of class "noquote". There is a method for `c()` and subscript method (`"[.noquote"`) which ensures that the class is not lost by subsetting. The print method (`print.noquote`) prints character strings *without* quotes (`"..."`).

These functions exist both as utilities and as an example of using (S3) [class](#) and object orientation.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler <maechler@stat.math.ethz.ch>

See Also

[methods](#), [class](#), [print](#).

Examples

```
letters
nql <- noquote(letters)
nql
nql[1:4] <- "oh"
nql[1:12]

cmp.logical <- function(log.v)
{
  ## Purpose: compact printing of logicals
  log.v <- as.logical(log.v)
  noquote(if(length(log.v) == 0)"" else c(".", "|")[1 + log.v])
}
cmp.logical(stats::runif(20) > 0.8)
```

norm

Compute the Norm of a Matrix

Description

Computes a matrix norm of `x` using LAPACK. The norm can be the one ("O") norm, the infinity ("I") norm, the Frobenius ("F") norm, the maximum modulus ("M") among elements of a matrix, or the "spectral" or "2"-norm, as determined by the value of `type`.

Usage

```
norm(x, type = c("O", "I", "F", "M", "2"))
```

Arguments

- x** numeric matrix; note that packages such as **Matrix** define more `norm()` methods.
- type** character string, specifying the *type* of matrix norm to be computed. A character indicating the type of norm desired.
- "O", "o" **or** "1" specifies the **one** norm, (maximum absolute column sum);
- "I" **or** "i" specifies the **infinity** norm (maximum absolute row sum);
- "F" **or** "f" specifies the **Frobenius** norm (the Euclidean norm of x treated as if it were a vector);
- "M" **or** "m" specifies the **maximum** modulus of all the elements in x; and
- "2" specifies the "spectral" or 2-norm, which is the largest singular value ([svd](#)) of x.
- The default is "O". Only the first character of `type[1]` is used.

Details

The **base** method of `norm()` calls the Lapack function `dlange`.

Note that the 1-, Inf- and "M" norm is faster to calculate than the Frobenius one.

Unsuccessful results from the underlying LAPACK code will result in an error giving a positive error code: these can only be interpreted by detailed study of the FORTRAN code.

Value

The matrix norm, a non-negative number.

Source

Except for `norm = "2"`, the LAPACK routine `DLANGE`.

LAPACK is from <http://www.netlib.org/lapack>.

References

Anderson, E., *et al* (1994). *LAPACK User's Guide*, 2nd edition, SIAM, Philadelphia.

See Also

[rcond](#) for the (reciprocal) condition number.

Examples

```
(x1 <- cbind(1, 1:10))
norm(x1)
norm(x1, "I")
norm(x1, "M")
stopifnot(all.equal(norm(x1, "F"),
                     sqrt(sum(x1^2))))
```

```

hilbert <- function(n) { i <- 1:n; 1 / outer(i - 1, i, "+") }
h9 <- hilbert(9)
## all 5 types of norm:
(nTyp <- eval(formals(base::norm)$type))
sapply(nTyp, norm, x = h9)

```

normalizePath

Express File Paths in Canonical Form

Description

Convert file paths to canonical form for the platform, to display them in a user-understandable form and so that relative and absolute paths can be compared.

Usage

```
normalizePath(path, winslash = "\\", mustWork = NA)
```

Arguments

path	character vector of file paths.
winslash	the separator to be used on Windows – ignored elsewhere. Must be one of <code>c("/", "\\")</code> .
mustWork	logical: if TRUE then an error is given if the result cannot be determined; if NA then a warning.

Details

Tilde-expansion (see [path.expand](#)) is first done on paths.

Where the Unix-like platform supports it attempts to turn paths into absolute paths in their canonical form (no `'./'`, `'../'` nor symbolic links). It relies on the POSIX system function `realpath`: if the platform does not have that (we know of no current example) then the result will be an absolute path but might not be canonical. Even where `realpath` is used the canonical path need not be unique, for example *via* hard links or multiple mounts.

On Windows it converts relative paths to absolute paths, converts short names for path elements to long names and ensures the separator is that specified by `winslash`. It will match paths case-insensitively and return the canonical case. UTF-8-encoded paths not valid in the current locale can be used.

`mustWork = FALSE` is useful for expressing paths for use in messages.

Value

A character vector.

If an input is not a real path the result is system-dependent (unless `mustWork = TRUE`, when this should be an error). It will be either the corresponding input element or a transformation of it into an absolute path.

Converting to an absolute file path can fail for a large number of reasons. The most common are

- One of more components of the file path does not exist.
- A component before the last is not a directory, or there is insufficient permission to read the directory.
- For a relative path, the current directory cannot be determined.
- A symbolic link points to a non-existent place or links form a loop.
- The canonicalized path would exceed the maximum supported length of a file path.

Examples

```
# random tempdir
cat(normalizePath(c(R.home(), tempdir())) , sep = "\n")
```

NotYet

Not Yet Implemented Functions and Unused Arguments

Description

In order to pinpoint missing functionality, the R core team uses these functions for missing R functions and not yet used arguments of existing R functions (which are typically there for compatibility purposes).

You are very welcome to contribute your code ...

Usage

```
.NotYetImplemented()
.NotYetUsed(arg, error = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>arg</code>	an argument of a function that is not yet used.
<code>error</code>	a logical. If TRUE, an error is signalled; if FALSE; only a warning is given.

See Also

the contrary, [Deprecated](#) and [Defunct](#) for outdated code.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
barplot(1:5, inside = TRUE) # 'inside' is not yet used
```

nrow

The Number of Rows/Columns of an Array

Description

nrow and ncol return the number of rows or columns present in x. NCOL and NROW do the same treating a vector as 1-column matrix.

Usage

```
nrow(x)
ncol(x)
NCOL(x)
NROW(x)
```

Arguments

x a vector, array or data frame

Value

an [integer](#) of length 1 or `NULL`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole (ncol and nrow.)

See Also

[dim](#) which returns *all* dimensions; [array](#), [matrix](#).

Examples

```
ma <- matrix(1:12, 3, 4)
nrow(ma) # 3
ncol(ma) # 4

ncol(array(1:24, dim = 2:4)) # 3, the second dimension
NCOL(1:12) # 1
NROW(1:12) # 12
```

Description

Accessing exported and internal variables in a namespace.

Usage

```
pkg::name  
pkg:::name
```

Arguments

pkg	package name: symbol or literal character string.
name	variable name: symbol or literal character string.

Details

For a package **pkg**, `pkg::name` returns the value of the exported variable `name` in namespace `pkg`, whereas `pkg:::name` returns the value of the internal variable `name`. The namespace will be loaded if it was not loaded before the call, but the package will not be attached to the search path.

Specifying a variable or package that does not exist is an error.

Note that `pkg::name` does **not** access the objects in the environment `package:pkg` (which does not exist until the package's namespace is attached): the latter may contain objects not exported from the namespace. It can access datasets made available by lazy-loading.

Note

It is typically a design mistake to use `:::` in your code since the corresponding object has probably been kept internal for a good reason. Consider contacting the package maintainer if you feel the need to access the object for anything but mere inspection.

See Also

[get](#) to access an object masked by another of the same name.

Examples

```
base::log  
base::"+"  
  
## Beware -- use ':::' at your own risk! (see "Details")  
stats:::coef.default
```

Description

Packages can supply functions to be called when loaded, attached, detached or unloaded.

Usage

```
.onLoad(libname, pkgname)
.onAttach(libname, pkgname)
.onUnload(libpath)
.onDetach(libpath)
.Last.lib(libpath)
```

Arguments

libname	a character string giving the library directory where the package defining the namespace was found.
pkgname	a character string giving the name of the package.
libpath	a character string giving the complete path to the package.

Details

After loading, [loadNamespace](#) looks for a hook function named `.onLoad` and calls it (with two unnamed arguments) before sealing the namespace and processing exports.

When the package is attached (via [library](#) or [attachNamespace](#)), the hook function `.onAttach` is looked for and if found is called (with two unnamed arguments) before the package environment is sealed.

If a function `.onDetach` (as from R 3.0.0) is in the namespace or `.Last.lib` is exported from the package, it will be called (with a single argument) when the package is [detached](#). Beware that it might be called if `.onAttach` has failed, so it should be written defensively. (It is called within [tryCatch](#), so errors will not stop the package being detached.)

If a namespace is unloaded (via [unloadNamespace](#)), a hook function `.onUnload` is run (with a single argument) before final unloading.

Note that the code in `.onLoad` and `.onUnload` should not assume any package except the base package is on the search path. Objects in the current package will be visible (unless this is circumvented), but objects from other packages should be imported or the double colon operator should be used.

`.onLoad`, `.onUnload`, `.onAttach` and `.onDetach` are looked for as internal objects in the namespace and should not be exported (whereas `.Last.lib` should be).

Note that packages are not detached nor namespaces unloaded at the end of an R session unless the user arranges to do so (e.g., via [.Last](#)).

Anything needed for the functioning of the namespace should be handled at load/unload times by the `.onLoad` and `.onUnload` hooks. For example, DLLs can be loaded (unless done by a `useDynLib`

directive in the ‘NAMESPACE’ file) and initialized in `.onLoad` and unloaded in `.onUnload`. Use `.onAttach` only for actions that are needed only when the package becomes visible to the user (for example a start-up message) or need to be run after the package environment has been created.

Good practice

Loading a namespace should where possible be silent, with startup messages given by `.onAttach`. These messages (and any essential ones from `.onLoad`) should use `packageStartupMessage` so they can be silenced where they would be a distraction.

There should be no calls to `library` nor `require` in these hooks. The way for a package to load other packages is via the ‘Depends’ field in the ‘DESCRIPTION’ file: this ensures that the dependence is documented and packages are loaded in the correct order. Loading a namespace should not change the search path, so rather than attach a package, dependence of a namespace on another package should be achieved by (selectively) importing from the other package’s namespace.

Uses of `library` with argument `help` to display basic information about the package should use `format` on the computed package information object and pass this to `packageStartupMessage`.

There should be no calls to `installed.packages` in startup code: it is potentially very slow and may fail in versions of R before 2.14.2 if package installation is going on in parallel. See its help page for alternatives.

Compiled code should be loaded (e.g., via `library.dynam`) in `.onLoad` or a `useDynLib` directive in the ‘NAMESPACE’ file, and not in `.onAttach`. Similarly, compiled code should not be unloaded (e.g., via `library.dynam.unload`) in `.Last.lib` nor `.onDetach`, only in `.onUnload`.

See Also

`setHook` shows how users can set hooks on the same events, and lists the sequence of events involving all of the hooks.

`reg.finalizer` for hooks to be run at the end of a session.

`loadNamespace` for more about namespaces.

 ns-load

Loading and Unloading Name Spaces

Description

Functions to load and unload name spaces.

Usage

```
attachNamespace(ns, pos = 2L, depends = NULL)
loadNamespace(package, lib.loc = NULL,
               keep.source = getOption("keep.source.pkgs"),
               partial = FALSE, versionCheck = NULL)
requireNamespace(package, ..., quietly = FALSE)
loadedNamespaces()
unloadNamespace(ns)
isNamespaceLoaded(name)
```

Arguments

<code>ns</code>	string or name space object.
<code>pos</code>	integer specifying position to attach.
<code>depends</code>	NULL or a character vector of dependencies to be recorded in object <code>.Depends</code> in the package.
<code>package</code>	string naming the package/name space to load.
<code>lib.loc</code>	character vector specifying library search path.
<code>keep.source</code>	Now ignored except during package installation. For more details see this argument to library .
<code>partial</code>	logical; if true, stop just after loading code.
<code>versionCheck</code>	NULL or a version specification (a list with components <code>op</code> and <code>version</code>)).
<code>quietly</code>	logical: should progress and error messages be suppressed?
<code>name</code>	string or 'name', see as.symbol , of a package, e.g., "stats".
<code>...</code>	further arguments to be passed to <code>loadNamespace</code> .

Details

The functions `loadNamespace` and `attachNamespace` are usually called implicitly when [library](#) is used to load a name space and any imports needed. However it may be useful at times to call these functions directly.

`loadNamespace` loads the specified name space and registers it in an internal data base. A request to load a name space when one of that name is already loaded has no effect. The arguments have the same meaning as the corresponding arguments to [library](#), whose help page explains the details of how a particular installed package comes to be chosen. After loading, `loadNamespace` looks for a hook function named `.onLoad` as an internal variable in the name space (it should not be exported). Partial loading is used to support installation with lazy-loading.

`loadNamespace` does not attach the name space it loads to the search path. `attachNamespace` can be used to attach a frame containing the exported values of a name space to the search path (but this is almost always done *via* [library](#)). The hook function `.onAttach` is run after the name space exports are attached.

`requireNamespace` is a wrapper for `loadNamespace` analogous to [require](#) that returns a logical value.

`loadedNamespaces` returns a character vector of the names of the loaded name spaces.

`isNamespaceLoaded(pkg)` is equivalent to `pkg %in% loadedNamespaces()` but more efficient than `pkg %in% loadedNamespaces()`.

`unloadNamespace` can be used to attempt to force a name space to be unloaded. If the name space is attached, it is first [detached](#), thereby running a `.onDetach` or `.Last.lib` function in the name space if one is exported. An error is signaled and the name space is not unloaded if the name space is imported by other loaded name spaces. If defined, a hook function `.onUnload` is run before removing the name space from the internal registry.

See the comments in the help for [detach](#) about some issues with unloading and reloading name spaces.

Value

`attachNamespace` returns invisibly the package environment it adds to the search path.

`loadNamespace` returns the name space environment, either one already loaded or the one the function causes to be loaded.

`requireNamespace` returns TRUE if it succeeds or FALSE.

`loadedNamespaces` returns a [character](#) vector.

`unloadNamespace` returns NULL, invisibly.

Author(s)

Luke Tierney and R-core

References

The ‘Writing R Extensions’ manual, section “Package namespaces”.

See Also

[getNamespace](#), [asNamespace](#), [topenv](#), [.onLoad](#) (etc); further [environment](#).

Examples

```
(lns <- loadedNamespaces())
statL <- isNamespaceLoaded("stats")
stopifnot( identical(statL, "stats" %in% lns) )

## The string "foo" and the symbol 'foo' can be used interchangeably here:
stopifnot( identical(isNamespaceLoaded( "foo" ), FALSE),
           identical(isNamespaceLoaded(quote(foo)), FALSE),
           identical(isNamespaceLoaded(quote(stats)), statL))
```

ns-topenv

Top Level Environment

Description

Finding the top level [environment](#) from an environment `envir` and its enclosing environments.

Usage

```
topenv(envir = parent.frame(),
       matchThisEnv = getOption("topLevelEnvironment"))
```

Arguments

<code>envir</code>	environment.
<code>matchThisEnv</code>	return this environment, if it matches before any other criterion is satisfied. The default, the option ‘ <code>topLevelEnvironment</code> ’, is set by sys.source , which treats a specific environment as the top level environment. Supplying the argument as <code>NULL</code> means it will never match.

Details

`topenv` returns the first top level [environment](#) found when searching `envir` and its enclosing environments. An environment is considered top level if it is the internal environment of a namespace, a package environment in the [search](#) path, or [.GlobalEnv](#).

See Also

[environment](#), notably `parent.env()` on “enclosing environments”; [loadNamespace](#) for more on namespaces.

Examples

```
topenv(.GlobalEnv)
topenv(new.env()) # also global env
topenv(environment(ls))# namespace:base
topenv(environment(lm))# namespace:stats
```

NULL

The Null Object

Description

`NULL` represents the null object in R: it is a [reserved](#) word. `NULL` is often returned by expressions and functions whose value is undefined.

`as.null` ignores its argument and returns the value `NULL`.

`is.null` returns `TRUE` if its argument is `NULL` and `FALSE` otherwise.

Usage

```
NULL
as.null(x, ...)
is.null(x)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object to be tested or coerced.
<code>...</code>	ignored.

Details

NULL can be indexed (see [Extract](#)) in just about any syntactically legal way: whether it makes sense or not, the result is always NULL. Objects with value NULL can be changed by replacement operators and will be coerced to the type of the right-hand side.

NULL is also used as the empty [pairlist](#).

Note

`is.null` is a [primitive](#) function.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
is.null(list())      # FALSE (on purpose!)
is.null(integer(0)) # FALSE
is.null(logical(0)) # FALSE
as.null(list(a = 1, b = "c"))
```

numeric

Numeric Vectors

Description

Creates or coerces objects of type "numeric". `is.numeric` is a more general test of an object being interpretable as numbers.

Usage

```
numeric(length = 0)
as.numeric(x, ...)
is.numeric(x)
```

Arguments

<code>length</code>	A non-negative integer specifying the desired length. Double values will be coerced to integer: supplying an argument of length other than one is an error.
<code>x</code>	object to be coerced or tested.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

numeric is identical to [double](#) (and [real](#)). It creates a double-precision vector of the specified length with each element equal to 0.

as.numeric is a generic function, but S3 methods must be written for [as.double](#). It is identical to as.double.

is.numeric is an [internal generic](#) primitive function: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#). It is **not** the same as [is.double](#). Factors are handled by the default method, and there are methods for classes "[Date](#)", "[POSIXt](#)" and "[difftime](#)" (all of which return false). Methods for is.numeric should only return true if the base type of the class is double or integer *and* values can reasonably be regarded as numeric (e.g., arithmetic on them makes sense, and comparison should be done via the base type).

Value

for numeric and as.numeric see [double](#).

The default method for is.numeric returns TRUE if its argument is of [mode](#) "numeric" ([type](#) "double" or type "integer") and not a factor, and FALSE otherwise. That is, `is.integer(x) || is.double(x), or (mode(x) == "numeric") && !is.factor(x)`.

S4 methods

as.numeric and is.numeric are internally S4 generic and so methods can be set for them *via* `setMethod`.

To ensure that as.numeric and as.double remain identical, S4 methods can only be set for as.numeric.

Note on names

It is a historical anomaly that R has two names for its floating-point vectors, [double](#) and [numeric](#) (and formerly had [real](#)).

double is the name of the [type](#). numeric is the name of the [mode](#) and also of the implicit [class](#). As an S4 formal class, use "numeric".

The potential confusion is that R has used [mode](#) "numeric" to mean 'double or integer', which conflicts with the S4 usage. Thus is.numeric tests the mode, not the class, but as.numeric (which is identical to as.double) coerces to the class.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[double](#), [integer](#), [storage.mode](#).

Examples

```
as.numeric(c("-.1", " 2.7 ", "B")) # (-0.1, 2.7, NA) + warning
as.numeric(factor(5:10))
```

 NumericConstants

 Numeric Constants

Description

How R parses numeric constants.

Details

R parses numeric constants in its input in a very similar way to C99 floating-point constants.

`Inf` and `NaN` are numeric constants (with `typeof(.)` "double"). In text input (e.g., in `scan` and `as.double`), these are recognized ignoring case as is infinity as an alternative to `Inf`. `NA_real_` and `NA_integer_` are constants of types "double" and "integer" representing missing values. All other numeric constants start with a digit or period and are either a decimal or hexadecimal constant optionally followed by `L`.

Hexadecimal constants start with `0x` or `0X` followed by a nonempty sequence from `0-9 a-f A-F` . which is interpreted as a hexadecimal number, optionally followed by a binary exponent. A binary exponent consists of a `P` or `p` followed by an optional plus or minus sign followed by a non-empty sequence of (decimal) digits, and indicates multiplication by a power of two. Thus `0x123p456` is 291×2^{456} .

Decimal constants consist of a nonempty sequence of digits possibly containing a period (the decimal point), optionally followed by a decimal exponent. A decimal exponent consists of an `E` or `e` followed by an optional plus or minus sign followed by a non-empty sequence of digits, and indicates multiplication by a power of ten.

Values which are too large or too small to be representable will overflow to `Inf` or underflow to `0.0`.

A numeric constant immediately followed by `i` is regarded as an imaginary `complex` number.

An numeric constant immediately followed by `L` is regarded as an `integer` number when possible (and with a warning if it contains a " ").

Only the ASCII digits `0-9` are recognized as digits, even in languages which have other representations of digits. The 'decimal separator' is always a period and never a comma.

Note that a leading plus or minus is not regarded by the parser as part of a numeric constant but as a unary operator applied to the constant.

Note

When a string is parsed to input a numeric constant, the number may or may not be representable exactly in the C double type used. If not one of the nearest representable numbers will be returned.

R's own C code is used to convert constants to binary numbers, so the effect can be expected to be the same on all platforms implementing full IEC 600559 arithmetic (the most likely area of difference being the handling of numbers less than `.Machine$double.xmin`). The same code is used by `scan`.

See Also

[Syntax](#). For complex numbers, see [complex](#). [Quotes](#) for the parsing of character constants, [Reserved](#) for the “reserved words” in R.

Examples

```
## You can create numbers using fixed or scientific formatting.
2.1
2.1e10
-2.1E-10

## The resulting objects have class numeric and type double.
class(2.1)
typeof(2.1)

## This holds even if what you typed looked like an integer.
class(2)
typeof(2)

## If you actually wanted integers, use an "L" suffix.
class(2L)
typeof(2L)

## These are equal but not identical
2 == 2L
identical(2, 2L)

## You can write numbers between 0 and 1 without a leading "0"
## (but typically this makes code harder to read)
.1234

sqrt(1i) # remember elementary math?
utils::str(0xA0)
identical(1L, as.integer(1))

## You can combine the "0x" prefix with the "L" suffix :
identical(0xFL, as.integer(15))
```

numeric_version

Numeric Versions

Description

A simple S3 class for representing numeric versions including package versions, and associated methods.

Usage

```
numeric_version(x, strict = TRUE)
package_version(x, strict = TRUE)
R_system_version(x, strict = TRUE)
getRversion()
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a character vector with suitable numeric version strings (see ‘Details’); for <code>package_version</code> , alternatively an R version object as obtained by R.version .
<code>strict</code>	a logical indicating whether invalid numeric versions should results in an error (default) or not.

Details

Numeric versions are sequences of one or more non-negative integers, usually (e.g., in package ‘DESCRIPTION’ files) represented as character strings with the elements of the sequence concatenated and separated by single ‘.’ or ‘-’ characters. R package versions consist of at least two such integers, an R system version of exactly three (major, minor and patchlevel).

Functions `numeric_version`, `package_version` and `R_system_version` create a representation from such strings (if suitable) which allows for coercion and testing, combination, comparison, summaries (min/max), inclusion in data frames, subscripting, and printing. The classes can hold a vector of such representations.

`getRversion` returns the version of the running R as an R system version object.

The `[[` operator extracts or replaces a single version. To access the integers of a version use two indices: see the examples.

See Also

[compareVersion](#); [packageVersion](#) for the version of a specific R package. [R.version](#) etc for the version of R (and the information underlying `getRversion()`).

Examples

```
x <- package_version(c("1.2-4", "1.2-3", "2.1"))
x < "1.4-2.3"
c(min(x), max(x))
x[2, 2]
x$major
x$minor

if(getRversion() <= "2.5.0") { ## work around missing feature
  cat("Your version of R, ", as.character(getRversion()),
      ", is outdated.\n",
      "Now trying to work around that ...\n", sep = "")
}

x[[c(1, 3)]] # '4' as a numeric vector, same as x[1, 3]
x[1, 3]      # 4 as an integer
```

```
x[[2, 3]] <- 0 # zero the patchlevel
x[[c(2, 3)]] <- 0 # same
x
x[[3]] <- "2.2.3"; x
x <- c(x, package_version("0.0"))
is.na(x)[4] <- TRUE
stopifnot(identical(is.na(x), c(rep(FALSE,3), TRUE)),
  anyNA(x))
```

octmode

Display Numbers in Octal

Description

Convert or print integers in octal format, with as many digits as are needed to display the largest, using leading zeroes as necessary.

Usage

```
as.octmode(x)

## S3 method for class 'octmode'
as.character(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'octmode'
format(x, width = NULL, ...)

## S3 method for class 'octmode'
print(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	An object, for the methods inheriting from class "octmode".
<code>width</code>	NULL or a positive integer specifying the minimum field width to be used, with padding by leading zeroes.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Class "octmode" consists of integer vectors with that class attribute, used merely to ensure that they are printed in octal notation, specifically for Unix-like file permissions such as 755. Subsetting ([L](#)) works too.

If `width = NULL` (the default), the output is padded with leading zeroes to the smallest width needed for all the non-missing elements.

`as.octmode` can convert integers (of [type](#) "integer" or "double") and character vectors whose elements contain only digits 0–7 (or are NA) to class "octmode".

There is a [!](#) method and [|](#), [&](#) and [xor](#) methods: these recycle their arguments to the length of the longer and then apply the operators bitwise to each element.

See Also

These are auxiliary functions for [file.info](#).

[hexmode](#), [sprintf](#) for other options in converting integers to octal, [strtoi](#) to convert octal strings to integers.

Examples

```
(on <- as.octmode(c(16, 32, 127:129))) # "020" "040" "177" "200" "201"
unclass(on[3:4]) # subsetting

## manipulate file modes
fmode <- as.octmode("170")
(fmode | "644") & "755"

umask <- Sys.umask(NA) # depends on platform
c(fmode, "666", "755") & !umask
```

on.exit	<i>Function Exit Code</i>
---------	---------------------------

Description

`on.exit` records the expression given as its argument as needing to be executed when the current function exits (either naturally or as the result of an error). This is useful for resetting graphical parameters or performing other cleanup actions.

If no expression is provided, i.e., the call is `on.exit()`, then the current `on.exit` code is removed.

Usage

```
on.exit(expr = NULL, add = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	an expression to be executed.
<code>add</code>	if TRUE, add <code>expr</code> to be executed after any previously set expressions; otherwise (the default) <code>expr</code> will overwrite any previously set expressions.

Details

The `expr` argument passed to `on.exit` is recorded without evaluation. If it is not subsequently removed/replaced by another `on.exit` call in the same function, it is evaluated in the evaluation frame of the function when it exits (including during standard error handling). Thus any functions or variables in the expression will be looked for in the function and its environment at the time of exit: to capture the current value in `expr` use [substitute](#) or similar.

This is a 'special' [primitive](#) function: it only evaluates the argument `add`.

Value

Invisible NULL.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`sys.on.exit` which returns the expression stored for use by `on.exit()` in the function in which `sys.on.exit()` is evaluated.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

opar <- par(mai = c(1,1,1,1))
on.exit(par(opar))
```

Ops.Date

Operators on the Date Class

Description

Operators for the "[Date](#)" class.

There is an [Ops](#) method and specific methods for + and - for the [Date](#) class.

Usage

```
date + x
x + date
date - x
date1 lop date2
```

Arguments

date	date objects
date1, date2	date objects or character vectors. (Character vectors are converted by as.Date .)
x	a numeric vector (in days) <i>or</i> an object of class " difftime ", rounded to the nearest whole day.
lop	One of ==, !=, <, <=, > or >=.

Details

x does not need to be integer if specified as a numeric vector, but see the comments about fractional days in the help for [Dates](#).

Examples

```
(z <- Sys.Date())
z + 10
z < c("2009-06-01", "2010-01-01", "2015-01-01")
```

options	<i>Options Settings</i>
---------	-------------------------

Description

Allow the user to set and examine a variety of global *options* which affect the way in which R computes and displays its results.

Usage

```
options(...)

getOption(x, default = NULL)

.Options
```

Arguments

...	any options can be defined, using <code>name = value</code> . However, only the ones below are used in base R. Options can also be passed by giving a single unnamed argument which is a named list.
x	a character string holding an option name.
default	if the specified option is not set in the options list, this value is returned. This facilitates retrieving an option and checking whether it is set and setting it separately if not.

Details

Invoking `options()` with no arguments returns a list with the current values of the options. Note that not all options listed below are set initially. To access the value of a single option, one should use, e.g., `getOption("width")` rather than `options("width")` which is a *list* of length one.

Value

For `getOption`, the current value set for option `x`, or `NULL` if the option is unset.

For `options()`, a list of all set options sorted by name. For `options(name)`, a list of length one containing the set value, or `NULL` if it is unset. For uses setting one or more options, a list with the previous values of the options changed (returned invisibly).

Options used in base R

`add.smooth`: typically logical, defaulting to TRUE. Could also be set to an integer for specifying how many (simulated) smooths should be added. This is currently only used by `plot.lm`.

`browserNLdisabled`: logical: whether newline is disabled as a synonym for "n" in the browser.

`checkPackageLicense`: logical, not set by default. If true, `library` asks a user to accept any non-standard license at first use.

`check.bounds`: logical, defaulting to FALSE. If true, a `warning` is produced whenever a vector (atomic or `list`) is extended, by something like `x <- 1:3; x[5] <- 6`.

`CBoundsCheck`: logical, controlling whether `.C` and `.Fortran` make copies to check for array overruns on the atomic vector arguments.

Initially set from value of the environment variable `R_C_BOUNDS_CHECK` (set to yes to enable).

`continue`: a non-empty string setting the prompt used for lines which continue over one line.

`defaultPackages`: the packages that are attached by default when R starts up. Initially set from value of the environment variable `R_DEFAULT_PACKAGES`, or if that is unset to `c("datasets", "utils", "grDevices", "graphics", "stats", "methods")`. (Set `R_DEFAULT_PACKAGES` to NULL or a comma-separated list of package names.) It will not work to set this in a `‘.Rprofile’` file, as its value is consulted before that file is read.

`deparse.cutoff`: integer value controlling the printing of language constructs which are `deparsed`. Default 60.

`deparse.max.lines`: controls the number of lines used when deparsing in `traceback`, `browser`, and upon entry to a function whose debugging flag is set. Initially unset, and only used if set to a positive integer.

`digits`: controls the number of digits to print when printing numeric values. It is a suggestion only. Valid values are 1...22 with default 7. See the note in `print.default` about values greater than 15.

`digits.secs`: controls the maximum number of digits to print when formatting time values in seconds. Valid values are 0...6 with default 0. See `strftime`.

`download.file.extra`: Extra command-line argument(s) for non-default methods: see `download.file`.

`download.file.method`: Method to be used for `download.file`. Currently download methods "internal", "wininet" (Windows only), "libcurl", "wget" and "curl" are available. If not set, `method = "auto"` is chosen: see `download.file`.

`echo`: logical. Only used in non-interactive mode, when it controls whether input is echoed. Command-line option `‘--slave’` sets this to FALSE, but otherwise it starts the session as TRUE.

`encoding`: The name of an encoding, default "native.enc". See `connections`.

`error`: either a function or an expression governing the handling of non-catastrophic errors such as those generated by `stop` as well as by signals and internally detected errors. If the option is a function, a call to that function, with no arguments, is generated as the expression. The default value is NULL: see `stop` for the behaviour in that case. The functions `dump.frames` and `recover` provide alternatives that allow post-mortem debugging. Note that these need to be specified as e.g. `options(error = utils::recover)` in startup files such as `‘.Rprofile’`.

- expressions:** sets a limit on the number of nested expressions that will be evaluated. Valid values are 25...500000 with default 5000. If you increase it, you may also want to start R with a larger protection stack; see ‘--max-ppsize’ in [Memory](#). Note too that you may cause a segfault from overflow of the C stack, and on OSes where it is possible you may want to increase that. Once the limit is reached an error is thrown. The current number under evaluation can be found by calling [Cstack_info](#).
- keep.source:** When TRUE, the source code for functions (newly defined or loaded) is stored internally allowing comments to be kept in the right places. Retrieve the source by printing or using `deparse(fn, control = "useSource")`. The default is [interactive\(\)](#), i.e., TRUE for interactive use.
- keep.source.pkgs:** As for `keep.source`, used only when packages are installed. Defaults to FALSE unless the environment variable `R_KEEP_PKG_SOURCE` is set to yes.
- max.print:** integer, defaulting to 99999. [print](#) or [show](#) methods can make use of this option, to limit the amount of information that is printed, to something in the order of (and typically slightly less than) `max.print` *entries*.
- OutDec:** character string containing a single character. The preferred character to be used as the decimal point in output conversions, that is in printing, plotting, [format](#) and [as.character](#) but not when deparsing nor by [sprintf](#) nor [formatC](#) (which are sometimes used prior to printing.) Only single-byte characters were supported prior to R 3.2.0. In R 3.2.1 and earlier, multi- (or zero-) character `OutDec` were accepted, but always worked only partially.
- pager:** the command used for displaying text files by [file.show](#). Defaults to ‘[R_HOME](#)/bin/pager’, which is a shell script running the command-line specified by the environment variable `PAGER` whose default is set at configuration, usually to `less`. Can be a character string or an R function, in which case it needs to accept the arguments (`files`, `header`, `title`, `delete.file`) corresponding to the first four arguments of [file.show](#).
- papersize:** the default paper format used by [postscript](#); set by environment variable `R_PAPERSIZE` when R is started: if that is unset or invalid it defaults to a value derived from the locale category `LC_PAPER`, or if that is unavailable to a default set when R was built.
- pdfviewer:** default PDF viewer. The default is set from the environment variable `R_PDFVIEWER`, the default value of which is set when R is configured.
- printcmd:** the command used by [postscript](#) for printing; set by environment variable `R_PRINTCMD` when R is started. This should be a command that expects either input to be piped to ‘`stdin`’ or to be given a single filename argument. Usually set to “`lpr`” on a Unix-alike.
- prompt:** a non-empty string to be used for R’s prompt; should usually end in a blank (“ ”).
- rl_word_breaks:** Used for the readline-based terminal interface. Default value “`\t\n\"\\'`>=<=;%;,|&{()}`”. This is the set of characters use to break the input line into tokens for object- and file-name completion. Those who do not use spaces around operators may prefer “`\t\n\"\\'`>=<=+-*;%;,|&{()}`”
- save.defaults, save.image.defaults:** see [save](#).
- scipen:** integer. A penalty to be applied when deciding to print numeric values in fixed or exponential notation. Positive values bias towards fixed and negative towards scientific notation: fixed notation will be preferred unless it is more than `scipen` digits wider.

- showWarnCalls, showErrorCalls:** a logical. Should warning and error messages show a summary of the call stack? By default error calls are shown in non-interactive sessions.
- showNCalls:** integer. Controls how long the sequence of calls must be (in bytes) before ellipses are used. Defaults to 40 and should be at least 30 and no more than 500.
- show.error.locations:** Should source locations of errors be printed? If set to TRUE or "top", the source location that is highest on the stack (the most recent call) will be printed. "bottom" will print the location of the earliest call found on the stack.
- Integer values can select other entries. The value 0 corresponds to "top" and positive values count down the stack from there. The value -1 corresponds to "bottom" and negative values count up from there.
- show.error.messages:** a logical. Should error messages be printed? Intended for use with [try](#) or a user-installed error handler.
- stringsAsFactors:** The default setting for arguments of [data.frame](#) and [read.table](#).
- texi2dvi:** used by functions [texi2dvi](#) and [texi2pdf](#) in package **tools**. Set at startup from the environment variable R_TEXI2DVICMD, which defaults first to the value of environment variable TEXI2DVI, and then to a value set when R was installed (the full path to a texi2dvi script if one was found). If necessary, that environment variable can be set to "emulation".
- timeout:** integer. The timeout for some Internet operations, in seconds. Default 60 seconds. See [download.file](#) and [connections](#).
- topLevelEnvironment:** see [topenv](#) and [sys.source](#).
- url.method:** character string: the default method for [url](#). Normally unset, which is equivalent to "default", which is "internal" except on Windows.
- useFancyQuotes:** controls the use of directional quotes in [sQuote](#), [dQuote](#) and in rendering text help (see [Rd2txt](#) in package **tools**). Can be TRUE, FALSE, "TeX" or "UTF-8".
- verbose:** logical. Should R report extra information on progress? Set to TRUE by the command-line option '--verbose'.
- warn:** sets the handling of warning messages. If warn is negative all warnings are ignored. If warn is zero (the default) warnings are stored until the top-level function returns. If 10 or fewer warnings were signalled they will be printed otherwise a message saying how many were signalled. An object called `last.warning` is created and can be printed through the function [warnings](#). If warn is one, warnings are printed as they occur. If warn is two or larger all warnings are turned into errors.
- warnPartialMatchArgs:** logical. If true, warns if partial matching is used in argument matching.
- warnPartialMatchAttr:** logical. If true, warns if partial matching is used in extracting attributes via [attr](#).
- warnPartialMatchDollar:** logical. If true, warns if partial matching is used for extraction by `$`.
- warning.expression:** an R code expression to be called if a warning is generated, replacing the standard message. If non-null it is called irrespective of the value of option warn.
- warning.length:** sets the truncation limit for error and warning messages. A non-negative integer, with allowed values 100...8170, default 1000.
- nwarnings:** the limit for the number of warnings kept when warn = 0, default 50. This will discard messages if called whilst they are being collected.

width: controls the maximum number of columns on a line used in printing vectors, matrices and arrays, and when filling by `cat`.

Columns are normally the same as characters except in East Asian languages.

You may want to change this if you re-size the window that R is running in. Valid values are 10...10000 with default normally 80. (The limits on valid values are in file 'Print.h' and can be changed by re-compiling R.) Some R consoles automatically change the value when they are resized.

See the examples on [Startup](#) for one way to set this automatically from the terminal width when R is started.

The 'factory-fresh' default settings of some of these options are

<code>add.smooth</code>	<code>TRUE</code>
<code>check.bounds</code>	<code>FALSE</code>
<code>continue</code>	<code>" + "</code>
<code>digits</code>	<code>7</code>
<code>echo</code>	<code>TRUE</code>
<code>encoding</code>	<code>"native.enc"</code>
<code>error</code>	<code>NULL</code>
<code>expressions</code>	<code>5000</code>
<code>keep.source</code>	<code>interactive()</code>
<code>keep.source.pkgs</code>	<code>FALSE</code>
<code>max.print</code>	<code>99999</code>
<code>OutDec</code>	<code>". "</code>
<code>prompt</code>	<code>"> "</code>
<code>scipen</code>	<code>0</code>
<code>show.error.messages</code>	<code>TRUE</code>
<code>timeout</code>	<code>60</code>
<code>verbose</code>	<code>FALSE</code>
<code>warn</code>	<code>0</code>
<code>warning.length</code>	<code>1000</code>
<code>width</code>	<code>80</code>

Others are set from environment variables or are platform-dependent.

Options set in package **grDevices**

These will be set when package **grDevices** (or its namespace) is loaded if not already set.

bitmapType: (Unix-only) character. The default type for the bitmap devices such as [png](#). Defaults to "cairo" on systems where that is available, or to "quartz" on OS X where that is available.

device: a character string giving the name of a function, or the function object itself, which when called creates a new graphics device of the default type for that session. The value of this option defaults to the normal screen device (e.g., X11, windows or quartz) for an interactive session, and pdf in batch use or if a screen is not available. If set to the name of a device, the device is looked for first from the global environment (that is down the usual search path) and then in the **grDevices** namespace.

The default values in interactive and non-interactive sessions are configurable via environment variables `R_INTERACTIVE_DEVICE` and `R_DEFAULT_DEVICE` respectively.

The search logic for ‘the normal screen device’ is that this is windows on Windows, and quartz if available on OS X (running at the console, and compiled into the build). Otherwise X11 is used if environment variable `DISPLAY` is set.

`device.ask.default`: logical. The default for `devAskNewPage("ask")` when a device is opened.

`locatorBell`: logical. Should selection in locator and identify be confirmed by a bell? Default TRUE. Honoured at least on X11 and windows devices.

Other options used by package graphics

`max.contour.segments`: positive integer, defaulting to 25000 if not set. A limit on the number of segments in a single contour line in `contour` or `contourLines`.

Options set in package stats

These will be set when package **stats** (or its namespace) is loaded if not already set.

`contrasts`: the default `contrasts` used in model fitting such as with `ao` or `lm`. A character vector of length two, the first giving the function to be used with unordered factors and the second the function to be used with ordered factors. By default the elements are named `c("unordered", "ordered")`, but the names are unused.

`na.action`: the name of a function for treating missing values (NA’s) for certain situations.

`show.coef.Pvalues`: logical, affecting whether P values are printed in summary tables of coefficients. See `printCoefmat`.

`show.nls.convergence`: logical, should `nls` convergence messages be printed for successful fits?

`show.signif.stars`: logical, should stars be printed on summary tables of coefficients? See `printCoefmat`.

`ts.eps`: the relative tolerance for certain time series (`ts`) computations. Default 1e-05.

`ts.S.compat`: logical. Used to select S compatibility for plotting time-series spectra. See the description of argument `log` in `plot.spec`.

Options set in package utils

These will be set when package **utils** (or its namespace) is loaded if not already set.

`BioC_mirror`: The URL of a Bioconductor mirror for use by `setRepositories`, e.g. the default `"http://bioconductor.org"` or the European mirror `"http://bioconductor.statistik.tu-dortmund.de"`. Can be set by `chooseBioCmirror`.

`browser`: The HTML browser to be used by `browseURL`. This sets the default browser on UNIX or a non-default browser on Windows. Alternatively, an R function that is called with a URL as its argument. See `browseURL` for further details.

`ccaddress`: default Cc: address used by `create.post` (and hence `bug.report` and `help.request`). Can be FALSE or "".

`citation.bibtex.max`: default 1; the maximal number of bibentries (`bibentry`) in a `citation` for which the bibtex version is printed in addition to the text one.

- `de.cellwidth`: integer: the cell widths (number of characters) to be used in the data editor [dataentry](#). If this is unset (the default), 0, negative or NA, variable cell widths are used.
- `demo.ask`: default for the ask argument of [demo](#).
- `editor`: a non-empty string or a function that sets the default text editor, e.g., for [edit](#). Set from the environment variable EDITOR on UNIX, or if unset VISUAL or vi.
- `example.ask`: default for the ask argument of [example](#).
- `help.ports`: optional integer vector for setting ports of the internal HTTP server, see [startDynamicHelp](#).
- `help.search.types`: default types of documentation to be searched by [help.search](#) and [??](#).
- `help.try.all.packages`: default for an argument of [help](#).
- `help_type`: default for an argument of [help](#), used also as the help type by [?](#).
- `HTTPUserAgent`: string used as the user agent in HTTP(S) requests. If NULL, requests will be made without a user agent header. The default is R (<version> <platform> <arch> <os>).
- `install.lock`: logical: should per-directory package locking be used by [install.packages](#)? Most useful for binary installs on OS X and Windows, but can be used in a startup file for source installs *via* R CMD [INSTALL](#). For binary installs, can also be the character string "pkglock".
- `internet.info`: The minimum level of information to be printed on URL downloads etc, using the "internal" and "libcurl" methods. Default is 2, for failure causes. Set to 1 or 0 to get more detailed information (for the "internal" method 0 provides more information than 1).
- `install.packages.check.source`: Used by [install.packages](#) (and indirectly [update.packages](#)) on platforms which support binary packages. Possible values "yes" and "no", with unset being equivalent to "yes".
- `install.packages.compile.from.source`: Used by [install.packages](#)(type = "both") (and indirectly [update.packages](#)) on platforms which support binary packages. Possible values are "never", "interactive" (which means ask in interactive use and "never" in batch use) and "always". The default is taken from environment variable R_COMPILE_AND_INSTALL_PACKAGES, with default "interactive" if unset. However, [install.packages](#) uses "never" unless a make program is found, consulting the environment variable MAKE.
- `mailer`: default emailing method used by [create.post](#) and hence [bug.report](#) and [help.request](#).
- `menu.graphics`: Logical: should graphical menus be used if available?. Defaults to TRUE. Currently applies to [select.list](#), [chooseCRANmirror](#), [setRepositories](#) and to select from multiple (text) help files in [help](#).
- `pkgType`: The default type of packages to be downloaded and installed – see [install.packages](#). Possible values are "source" (the default except under a CRAN OS X build), "mac.binary.", "mac.binary.mavericks" and "both" (the default for CRAN OS X builds). Windows uses "win.binary". ("mac.binary.leopard" and "mac.binary.universal" are no longer in use.) Value "binary" is a synonym for the native binary type (if there is one); "both" is used by [install.packages](#) to choose between source and binary installs.

repos: URLs of the repositories for use by `update.packages`. Defaults to `c(CRAN="@CRAN@")`, a value that causes some utilities to prompt for a CRAN mirror. To avoid this do set the CRAN mirror, by something like `local({r <- getOption("repos"); r["CRAN"] <- "http://my.local.cran"; options(repos = r)})`.

Note that you can add more repositories (Bioconductor, R-Forge, Rforge.net ...) using `setRepositories`.

`SweaveHooks`, `SweaveSyntax`: see `Sweave`.

unzip: a character string used by `unzip`: the path of the external program `unzip` or `"internal"`. Defaults to the value of `R_UNZIPCMD`, which is set in `'etc/Renviron'` if an `unzip` command was found during configuration.

useHTTPS: logical. Used by `chooseCRANmirror`: are secure mirrors preferred? If not set, `TRUE` is assumed.

Options set in package `parallel`

These will be set when package `parallel` (or its namespace) is loaded if not already set.

mc.cores: an integer giving the maximum allowed number of *additional* R processes allowed to be run in parallel to the current R process. Defaults to the setting of the environment variable `MC_CORES` if set. Most applications which use this assume a limit of 2 if it is unset.

Options used on Unix only

dvipscmd: character string giving a command to be used in the (deprecated) off-line printing of help pages *via* PostScript. Defaults to `"dvips"`.

Options used on Windows only

warn.FPU: logical, by default undefined. If true, a *warning* is produced whenever `dyn.load` repairs the control word damaged by a buggy DLL.

Note

For compatibility with S there is a visible object `.Options` whose value is a pairlist containing the current `options()` (in no particular order). Assigning to it will make a local copy and not change the original.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
op <- options(); utils::str(op) # op is a named list

getOption("width") == options()$width # the latter needs more memory
options(digits = 15)
```

```

pi

# set the editor, and save previous value
old.o <- options(editor = "nedit")
old.o

options(check.bounds = TRUE, warn = 1)
x <- NULL; x[4] <- "yes" # gives a warning

options(digits = 5)
print(1e5)
options(scipen = 3); print(1e5)

options(op)      # reset (all) initial options
options("digits")

## Not run: ## set contrast handling to be like S
options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.poly"))

## End(Not run)

## Not run: ## on error, terminate the R session with error status 66
options(error = quote(q("no", status = 66, runLast = FALSE)))
stop("test it")

## End(Not run)

## Not run: ## Set error actions for debugging:
## enter browser on error, see ?recover:
options(error = recover)
## allows to call debugger() afterwards, see ?debugger:
options(error = dump.frames)
## A possible setting for non-interactive sessions
options(error = quote({dump.frames(to.file = TRUE); q()}))

## End(Not run)

# Compare the two ways to get an option and use it
# accounting for the possibility it might not be set.
if(as.logical(getOption("performCleanup", TRUE)))
  cat("do cleanup\n")

## Not run:
# a clumsier way of expressing the above w/o the default.
tmp <- getOption("performCleanup")
if(is.null(tmp))
  tmp <- TRUE
if(tmp)
  cat("do cleanup\n")

## End(Not run)

```

order	<i>Ordering Permutation</i>
-------	-----------------------------

Description

order returns a permutation which rearranges its first argument into ascending or descending order, breaking ties by further arguments. sort.list is the same, using only one argument. See the examples for how to use these functions to sort data frames, etc.

Usage

```
order(..., na.last = TRUE, decreasing = FALSE)

sort.list(x, partial = NULL, na.last = TRUE, decreasing = FALSE,
          method = c("shell", "quick", "radix"))
```

Arguments

...	a sequence of numeric, complex, character or logical vectors, all of the same length, or a classed R object.
x	an atomic vector.
partial	vector of indices for partial sorting. (Non-NULL values are not implemented.)
decreasing	logical. Should the sort order be increasing or decreasing?
na.last	for controlling the treatment of NAs. If TRUE, missing values in the data are put last; if FALSE, they are put first; if NA, they are removed (see ‘Note’.)
method	the method to be used: partial matches are allowed. The default is "shell" except for some special cases: see ‘Details’. For details of methods "shell" and "quick", see the help for sort .

Details

In the case of ties in the first vector, values in the second are used to break the ties. If the values are still tied, values in the later arguments are used to break the tie (see the first example). The sort used is *stable* (except for method = "quick"), so any unresolved ties will be left in their original ordering.

Complex values are sorted first by the real part, then the imaginary part.

The sort order for character vectors will depend on the collating sequence of the locale in use: see [Comparison](#).

The default method for sort.list is a good compromise. Method "quick" is only supported for numeric x with na.last = NA, and is not stable, but will be substantially faster for long vectors. Method "radix" is only implemented for integer x with a range of less than 100,000. For such x it is very fast (and stable), and hence is ideal for sorting factors—as from R 3.0.0 it is the default method for factors with less than 100,000 levels. (This is also known as *counting sorting*.)

partial = NULL is supported for compatibility with other implementations of S, but no other values are accepted and ordering is always complete.

For a classed **R** object, the sort order is taken from `xtfrm`: as its help page notes, this can be slow unless a suitable method has been defined or `is.numeric(x)` is true. For factors, this sorts on the internal codes, which is particularly appropriate for ordered factors.

Value

An integer vector unless any of the inputs has 2^{31} or more elements, when it is a double vector.

Warning

In programmatic use it is unsafe to name the `...` arguments, as the names could match current or future control arguments such as `decreasing`. A sometimes-encountered unsafe practice is to call `do.call('order', df_obj)` where `df_obj` might be a data frame: copy `df_obj` and remove any names.

Note

`sort.list` can get called by mistake as a method for `sort` with a list argument: it gives a suitable error message for list `x`.

There is a historical difference in behaviour for `na.last = NA`: `sort.list` removes the NAs and then computes the order amongst the remaining elements: `order` computes the order amongst the non-NA elements of the original vector. Thus

```
x[order(x, na.last = NA)]
zz <- x[!is.na(x)]; zz[sort.list(x, na.last = NA)]
```

both sort the non-NA values of `x`.

Prior to R 3.1.0 `method = "radix"` was only supported for non-negative integers.

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Knuth, D. E. (1998) *The Art of Computer Programming, Volume 3: Sorting and Searching*. 2nd ed. Addison-Wesley.

See Also

`sort`, `rank`, `xtfrm`.

Examples

```
require(stats)

(ii <- order(x <- c(1,1,3:1,1:4,3), y <- c(9,9:1), z <- c(2,1:9)))
## 6 5 2 1 7 4 10 8 3 9
rbind(x, y, z)[,ii] # shows the reordering (ties via 2nd & 3rd arg)

## Suppose we wanted descending order on y.
## A simple solution for numeric 'y' is
```

```

rbind(x, y, z)[, order(x, -y, z)]
## More generally we can make use of xtfrm
cy <- as.character(y)
rbind(x, y, z)[, order(x, -xtfrm(cy), z)]

## Sorting data frames:
dd <- transform(data.frame(x, y, z),
                 z = factor(z, labels = LETTERS[9:1]))
## Either as above {for factor 'z' : using internal coding}:
dd[ order(x, -y, z), ]
## or along 1st column, ties along 2nd, ... *arbitrary* no.{columns}:
dd[ do.call(order, dd), ]

set.seed(1) # reproducible example:
d4 <- data.frame(x = round( rnorm(100)), y = round(10*runif(100)),
                 z = round( 8*rnorm(100)), u = round(50*runif(100)))
(d4s <- d4[ do.call(order, d4), ])
(i <- which(diff(d4s[, 3]) == 0))
# in 2 places, needed 3 cols to break ties:
d4s[ rbind(i, i+1), ]

## rearrange matched vectors so that the first is in ascending order
x <- c(5:1, 6:8, 12:9)
y <- (x - 5)^2
o <- order(x)
rbind(x[o], y[o])

## tests of na.last
a <- c(4, 3, 2, NA, 1)
b <- c(4, NA, 2, 7, 1)
z <- cbind(a, b)
(o <- order(a, b)); z[o, ]
(o <- order(a, b, na.last = FALSE)); z[o, ]
(o <- order(a, b, na.last = NA)); z[o, ]

## speed examples for long vectors:
x <- factor(sample(letters, 1e6, replace = TRUE))
system.time(o <- sort.list(x)) ## 0.4 secs
stopifnot(!is.unsorted(x[o]))
system.time(o <- sort.list(x, method = "quick", na.last = NA)) # 0.1 sec
stopifnot(!is.unsorted(x[o]))
system.time(o <- sort.list(x, method = "radix")) # 0.01 sec
stopifnot(!is.unsorted(x[o]))
xx <- sample(1:26, 1e7, replace = TRUE)
system.time(o <- sort.list(xx, method = "radix")) # 0.1 sec
xx <- sample(1:100000, 1e7, replace = TRUE)
system.time(o <- sort.list(xx, method = "radix")) # 0.5 sec
system.time(o <- sort.list(xx, method = "quick", na.last = NA)) # 1.3 sec

```

Description

The outer product of the arrays `X` and `Y` is the array `A` with dimension `c(dim(X), dim(Y))` where element `A[c(arrayindex.x, arrayindex.y)] = FUN(X[arrayindex.x], Y[arrayindex.y], ...)`.

Usage

```
outer(X, Y, FUN = "*", ...)
X %o% Y
```

Arguments

<code>X, Y</code>	First and second arguments for function <code>FUN</code> . Typically a vector or array.
<code>FUN</code>	a function to use on the outer products, found <i>via</i> match.fun (except for the special case <code>"*"</code>).
<code>...</code>	optional arguments to be passed to <code>FUN</code> .

Details

`X` and `Y` must be suitable arguments for `FUN`. Each will be extended by [rep](#) to length the products of the lengths of `X` and `Y` before `FUN` is called.

`FUN` is called with these two extended vectors as arguments (plus any arguments in `...`). It must be a vectorized function (or the name of one) expecting at least two arguments and returning a value with the same length as the first (and the second).

Where they exist, the `[dim]names` of `X` and `Y` will be copied to the answer, and a dimension assigned which is the concatenation of the dimensions of `X` and `Y` (or lengths if dimensions do not exist).

`FUN = "*" is handled as a special case via as.vector(X) %*% t(as.vector(Y)), and is intended only for numeric vectors and arrays.`

`%o%` is binary operator providing a wrapper for `outer(x, y, "*")`.

Author(s)

Jonathan Rougier

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[%*%](#) for usual (*inner*) matrix vector multiplication; [kronecker](#) which is based on `outer`; [Vectorize](#) for vectorizing a non-vectorized function.

Examples

```
x <- 1:9; names(x) <- x
# Multiplication & Power Tables
x %o% x
y <- 2:8; names(y) <- paste(y, ":", sep = "")
outer(y, x, "^")

outer(month.abb, 1999:2003, FUN = "paste")

## three way multiplication table:
x %o% x %o% y[1:3]
```

Paren

Parentheses and Braces

Description

Open parenthesis, (, and open brace, {, are [.Primitive](#) functions in R.

Effectively, (is semantically equivalent to the identity function(x) x, whereas { is slightly more interesting, see examples.

Usage

```
( ... )

{ ... }
```

Value

For (, the result of evaluating the argument. This has visibility set, so will auto-print if used at top-level.

For {, the result of the last expression evaluated. This has the visibility of the last evaluation.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[if](#), [return](#), etc for other objects used in the R language itself.

[Syntax](#) for operator precedence.

Examples

```
f <- get("")
e <- expression(3 + 2 * 4)
identical(f(e), e)

do <- get("{")
do(x <- 3, y <- 2*x-3, 6-x-y); x; y

## note the differences
(2+3)
{2+3; 4+5}
(invisible(2+3))
{invisible(2+3)}
```

parse

Parse Expressions

Description

parse returns the parsed but unevaluated expressions in a list.

Usage

```
parse(file = "", n = NULL, text = NULL, prompt = "?",
      keep.source = getOption("keep.source"), srcfile,
      encoding = "unknown")
```

Arguments

file	a connection , or a character string giving the name of a file or a URL to read the expressions from. If file is "" and text is missing or NULL then input is taken from the console.
n	integer (or coerced to integer). The maximum number of expressions to parse. If n is NULL or negative or NA the input is parsed in its entirety.
text	character vector. The text to parse. Elements are treated as if they were lines of a file. Other R objects will be coerced to character if possible.
prompt	the prompt to print when parsing from the keyboard. NULL means to use R's prompt, <code>getOption("prompt")</code> .
keep.source	a logical value; if TRUE, keep source reference information.
srcfile	NULL, a character vector, or a srcfile object. See the 'Details' section.
encoding	encoding to be assumed for input strings. If the value is "latin1" or "UTF-8" it is used to mark character strings as known to be in Latin-1 or UTF-8: it is not used to re-encode the input. To do the latter, specify the encoding as part of the connection <code>con</code> or <i>via</i> options (<code>encoding=</code>): see the example under file .

Details

If text has length greater than zero (after coercion) it is used in preference to file.

All versions of R accept input from a connection with end of line marked by LF (as used on Unix), CRLF (as used on DOS/Windows) or CR (as used on classic Mac OS). The final line can be incomplete, that is missing the final EOL marker.

When input is taken from the console, `n = NULL` is equivalent to `n = 1`, and `n < 0` will read until an EOF character is read. (The EOF character is Ctrl-Z for the Windows front-ends.) The line-length limit is 4095 bytes when reading from the console (which may impose a lower limit: see ‘An Introduction to R’).

The default for `srcfile` is set as follows. If `keep.source` is not TRUE, `srcfile` defaults to a character string, either "`<text>`" or one derived from file. When `keep.source` is TRUE, if text is used, `srcfile` will be set to a [srcfilecopy](#) containing the text. If a character string is used for file, a [srcfile](#) object referring to that file will be used.

When `srcfile` is a character string, error messages will include the name, but source reference information will not be added to the result. When `srcfile` is a [srcfile](#) object, source reference information will be retained.

Value

An object of type "[expression](#)", with up to `n` elements if specified as a non-negative integer.

When `srcfile` is non-NULL, a "`srcref`" attribute will be attached to the result containing a list of [srcref](#) records corresponding to each element, a "`srcfile`" attribute will be attached containing a copy of `srcfile`, and a "`wholeSrcref`" attribute will be attached containing a [srcref](#) record corresponding to all of the parsed text. Detailed parse information will be stored in the "`srcfile`" attribute, to be retrieved by [getParseData](#).

A syntax error (including an incomplete expression) will throw an error.

Character strings in the result will have a declared encoding if encoding is "`latin1`" or "`UTF-8`", or if text is supplied with every element of known encoding in a Latin-1 or UTF-8 locale.

Partial parsing

When a syntax error occurs during parsing, `parse` signals an error. The partial parse data will be stored in the `srcfile` argument if it is a [srcfile](#) object and the `text` argument was used to supply the text. In other cases it will be lost when the error is triggered.

The partial parse data can be retrieved using [getParseData](#) applied to the `srcfile` object. Because parsing was incomplete, it will typically include references to "`parent`" entries that are not present.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murdoch, D. (2010). [Source References](#). *The R Journal* 2/2, 16-19.

See Also

[scan](#), [source](#), [eval](#), [deparse](#).

The source reference information can be used for debugging (see e.g. [setBreakpoint](#)) and profiling (see [Rprof](#)). It can be examined by [getSrcref](#) and related functions. More detailed information is available through [getParseData](#).

Examples

```
cat("x <- c(1, 4)\n x ^ 3 -10 ; outer(1:7, 5:9)\n", file = "xyz.Rdmped")
# parse 3 statements from the file "xyz.Rdmped"
parse(file = "xyz.Rdmped", n = 3)
unlink("xyz.Rdmped")

# A partial parse with a syntax error
txt <- "
x <- 1
an error
"

sf <- srcfile("txt")
try(parse(text = txt, srcfile = sf))
getParseData(sf)
```

paste

Concatenate Strings

Description

Concatenate vectors after converting to character.

Usage

```
paste(..., sep = " ", collapse = NULL)
paste0(..., collapse = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	one or more R objects, to be converted to character vectors.
<code>sep</code>	a character string to separate the terms. Not NA_character_ .
<code>collapse</code>	an optional character string to separate the results. Not NA_character_ .

Details

`paste` converts its arguments (via [as.character](#)) to character strings, and concatenates them (separating them by the string given by `sep`). If the arguments are vectors, they are concatenated term-by-term to give a character vector result. Vector arguments are recycled as needed, with zero-length arguments being recycled to `""`.

Note that `paste()` coerces `NA_character_`, the character missing value, to "NA" which may seem undesirable, e.g., when pasting two character vectors, or very desirable, e.g. in `paste("the value of p is ", p)`.

`paste0(..., collapse)` is equivalent to `paste(..., sep = "", collapse)`, slightly more efficiently.

If a value is specified for `collapse`, the values in the result are then concatenated into a single string, with the elements being separated by the value of `collapse`.

Value

A character vector of the concatenated values. This will be of length zero if all the objects are, unless `collapse` is non-NULL in which case it is a single empty string.

If any input into an element of the result is in UTF-8 (and none are declared with encoding "bytes", (see [Encoding](#)), that element will be in UTF-8, otherwise in the current encoding in which case the encoding of the element is declared if the current locale is either Latin-1 or UTF-8, at least one of the corresponding inputs (including separators) had a declared encoding and all inputs were either ASCII or declared.

If an input into an element is declared with encoding "bytes", no translation will be done of any of the elements and the resulting element will have encoding "bytes". If `collapse` is non-NULL, this applies also to the second, collapsing, phase, but some translation may have been done in pasting object together in the first phase.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`toString` typically calls `paste(*, collapse=", ")`. String manipulation with `as.character`, `substr`, `nchar`, `strsplit`; further, `cat` which concatenates and writes to a file, and `sprintf` for C like string construction.

'`plotmath`' for the use of `paste` in plot annotation.

Examples

```
## When passing a single vector, paste0 and paste work like as.character.
paste0(1:12)
paste(1:12)      # same
as.character(1:12) # same

## If you pass several vectors to paste0, they are concatenated in a
## vectorized way.
(nth <- paste0(1:12, c("st", "nd", "rd", rep("th", 9))))

## paste works the same, but separates each input with a space.
## Notice that the recycling rules make every input as long as the longest input.
paste(month.abb, "is the", nth, "month of the year.")
paste(month.abb, letters)
```

```
## You can change the separator by passing a sep argument
## which can be multiple characters.
paste(month.abb, "is the", nth, "month of the year.", sep = "_*_")

## To collapse the output into a single string, pass a collapse argument.
paste0(nth, collapse = ", ")

## For inputs of length 1, use the sep argument rather than collapse
paste("1st", "2nd", "3rd", collapse = ", ") # probably not what you wanted
paste("1st", "2nd", "3rd", sep = ", ")

## You can combine the sep and collapse arguments together.
paste(month.abb, nth, sep = ": ", collapse = "; ")

## Using paste() in combination with strwrap() can be useful
## for dealing with long strings.
(title <- paste(strwrap(
  "Stopping distance of cars (ft) vs. speed (mph) from Ezekiel (1930)",
  width = 30), collapse = "\n"))
plot(dist ~ speed, cars, main = title)
```

path.expand

Expand File Paths

Description

Expand a path name, for example by replacing a leading tilde by the user's home directory (if defined on that platform).

Usage

```
path.expand(path)
```

Arguments

path character vector containing one or more path names.

Details

On *some* Unix builds of R, a leading ~user will expand to the home directory of user, but not on Unix versions without readline installed, nor if R is invoked with '--no-readline'.

In an interactive session capabilities("cledit") will report if readline is available.

See Also

[basename](#), [normalizePath](#).

Examples

```
path.expand("~/foo")
```

pcre_config	<i>Report Configuration Options for PCRE</i>
-------------	--

Description

Report some of the configuration options of the version of PCRE in use in this R session.

Usage

```
pcre_config()
```

Value

A named logical vector, currently with elements

UTF-8	Support for UTF-8 inputs. Required.
Unicode properties	Support for ‘\p{xx}’ and ‘\P{xx}’ in regular expressions. Desirable and used by some CRAN packages.
JIT	Support for just-in-time compilation. Desirable for speed (but only available as compile-time option on certain architectures as from PCRE 8.20).

See Also

[extSoftVersion](#) for the PCRE version.

Examples

```
pcre_config()
```

pmatch	<i>Partial String Matching</i>
--------	--------------------------------

Description

pmatch seeks matches for the elements of its first argument among those of its second.

Usage

```
pmatch(x, table, nomatch = NA_integer_, duplicates.ok = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	the values to be matched: converted to a character vector by <code>as.character</code> . Long vectors are supported.
table	the values to be matched against: converted to a character vector. Long vectors are not supported.
nomatch	the value to be returned at non-matching or multiply partially matching positions. Note that it is coerced to integer.
duplicates.ok	should elements be in table be used more than once?

Details

The behaviour differs by the value of `duplicates.ok`. Consider first the case if this is true. First exact matches are considered, and the positions of the first exact matches are recorded. Then unique partial matches are considered, and if found recorded. (A partial match occurs if the whole of the element of `x` matches the beginning of the element of `table`.) Finally, all remaining elements of `x` are regarded as unmatched. In addition, an empty string can match nothing, not even an exact match to an empty string. This is the appropriate behaviour for partial matching of character indices, for example.

If `duplicates.ok` is FALSE, values of `table` once matched are excluded from the search for subsequent matches. This behaviour is equivalent to the R algorithm for argument matching, except for the consideration of empty strings (which in argument matching are matched after exact and partial matching to any remaining arguments).

[charmatch](#) is similar to `pmatch` with `duplicates.ok` true, the differences being that it differentiates between no match and an ambiguous partial match, it does match empty strings, and it does not allow multiple exact matches.

NA values are treated as if they were the string constant "NA".

Value

An integer vector (possibly including NA if `nomatch = NA`) of the same length as `x`, giving the indices of the elements in `table` which matched, or `nomatch`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

See Also

[match](#), [charmatch](#) and [match.arg](#), [match.fun](#), [match.call](#), for function argument matching etc., [grep](#) etc for more general (regex) matching of strings.

Examples

```

pmatch("", "") # returns NA
pmatch("m", c("mean", "median", "mode")) # returns NA
pmatch("med", c("mean", "median", "mode")) # returns 2

pmatch(c("", "ab", "ab"), c("abc", "ab"), dup = FALSE)
pmatch(c("", "ab", "ab"), c("abc", "ab"), dup = TRUE)
## compare
charmatch(c("", "ab", "ab"), c("abc", "ab"))

```

polyroot

*Find Zeros of a Real or Complex Polynomial***Description**

Find zeros of a real or complex polynomial.

Usage

```
polyroot(z)
```

Arguments

z the vector of polynomial coefficients in increasing order.

Details

A polynomial of degree $n - 1$,

$$p(x) = z_1 + z_2x + \cdots + z_nx^{n-1}$$

is given by its coefficient vector `z[1:n]`. `polyroot` returns the $n - 1$ complex zeros of $p(x)$ using the Jenkins-Traub algorithm.

If the coefficient vector `z` has zeroes for the highest powers, these are discarded.

There is no maximum degree, but numerical stability may be an issue for all but low-degree polynomials.

Value

A complex vector of length $n - 1$, where n is the position of the largest non-zero element of `z`.

Source

C translation by Ross Ihaka of Fortran code in the reference, with modifications by the R Core Team.

References

Jenkins and Traub (1972) TOMS Algorithm 419. *Comm. ACM*, **15**, 97–99.

See Also

[uniroot](#) for numerical root finding of arbitrary functions; [complex](#) and the zero example in the demos directory.

Examples

```
polyroot(c(1, 2, 1))
round(polyroot(choose(8, 0:8)), 11) # guess what!
for (n1 in 1:4) print(polyroot(1:n1), digits = 4)
polyroot(c(1, 2, 1, 0, 0)) # same as the first
```

pos.to.env

Convert Positions in the Search Path to Environments

Description

Returns the environment at a specified position in the search path.

Usage

```
pos.to.env(x)
```

Arguments

x an integer between 1 and `length(search())`, the length of the search path, or -1.

Details

Several R functions for manipulating objects in environments (such as [get](#) and [ls](#)) allow specifying environments via corresponding positions in the search path. `pos.to.env` is a convenience function for programmers which converts these positions to corresponding environments; users will typically have no need for it. It is [primitive](#).

-1 is interpreted as the environment the function is called from.

This is a [primitive](#) function.

Examples

```
pos.to.env(1) # R_GlobalEnv
# the next returns the base environment
pos.to.env(length(search()))
```

pretty

Pretty Breakpoints

Description

Compute a sequence of about $n+1$ equally spaced ‘round’ values which cover the range of the values in x . The values are chosen so that they are 1, 2 or 5 times a power of 10.

Usage

```
pretty(x, ...)
```

```
## Default S3 method:
```

```
pretty(x, n = 5, min.n = n %% 3, shrink.sml = 0.75,
      high.u.bias = 1.5, u5.bias = .5 + 1.5*high.u.bias,
      eps.correct = 0, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object coercible to numeric by <code>as.numeric</code> .
<code>n</code>	integer giving the <i>desired</i> number of intervals. Non-integer values are rounded down.
<code>min.n</code>	nonnegative integer giving the <i>minimal</i> number of intervals. If <code>min.n == 0</code> , <code>pretty(.)</code> may return a single value.
<code>shrink.sml</code>	positive numeric by which a default scale is shrunk in the case when <code>range(x)</code> is very small (usually 0).
<code>high.u.bias</code>	non-negative numeric, typically > 1 . The interval unit is determined as $\{1,2,5,10\}$ times b , a power of 10. Larger <code>high.u.bias</code> values favor larger units.
<code>u5.bias</code>	non-negative numeric multiplier favoring factor 5 over 2. Default and ‘optimal’: <code>u5.bias = .5 + 1.5*high.u.bias</code> .
<code>eps.correct</code>	integer code, one of $\{0,1,2\}$. If non-0, an <i>epsilon correction</i> is made at the boundaries such that the result boundaries will be outside <code>range(x)</code> ; in the <i>small</i> case, the correction is only done if <code>eps.correct</code> ≥ 2 .
<code>...</code>	further arguments for methods.

Details

`pretty` ignores non-finite values in x .

Let $d \leftarrow \max(x) - \min(x) \geq 0$. If d is not (very close) to 0, we let $c \leftarrow d/n$, otherwise more or less $c \leftarrow \max(\text{abs}(\text{range}(x))) \cdot \text{shrink.sml} / \text{min.n}$. Then, the *10 base* b is $10^{\lfloor \log_{10}(c) \rfloor}$ such that $b \leq c < 10b$.

Now determine the basic *unit* u as one of $\{1, 2, 5, 10\}b$, depending on $c/b \in [1, 10)$ and the two ‘*bias*’ coefficients, $h = \text{high.u.bias}$ and $f = \text{u5.bias}$.

.....

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[axTicks](#) for the computation of pretty axis tick locations in plots, particularly on the log scale.

Examples

```
pretty(1:15)           # 0  2  4  6  8 10 12 14 16
pretty(1:15, h = 2)    # 0  5 10 15
pretty(1:15, n = 4)    # 0  5 10 15
pretty(1:15 * 2)       # 0  5 10 15 20 25 30
pretty(1:20)           # 0  5 10 15 20
pretty(1:20, n = 2)    # 0 10 20
pretty(1:20, n = 10)   # 0  2  4 ... 20

for(k in 5:11) {
  cat("k=", k, ": "); print(diff(range(pretty(100 + c(0, pi*10^-k))))))}

##-- more bizarre, when min(x) == max(x):
pretty(pi)

add.names <- function(v) { names(v) <- paste(v); v}
utils::str(lapply(add.names(-10:20), pretty))
utils::str(lapply(add.names(0:20), pretty, min.n = 0))
sapply( add.names(0:20), pretty, min.n = 4)

pretty(1.234e100)
pretty(1001.1001)
pretty(1001.1001, shrink = 0.2)
for(k in -7:3)
  cat("shrink=", formatC(2^k, width = 9),":",
      formatC(pretty(1001.1001, shrink.sml = 2^k), width = 6),"\n")
```

 Primitive

Look Up a Primitive Function

Description

.Primitive looks up by name a ‘primitive’ (internally implemented) function.

Usage

```
.Primitive(name)
```

Arguments

name name of the R function.

Details

The advantage of `.Primitive` over `.Internal` functions is the potential efficiency of argument passing, and that positional matching can be used where desirable, e.g. in `switch`. For more details, see the ‘R Internals Manual’.

All primitive functions are in the base namespace.

This function is almost never used: ``name`` or, more carefully, `get(name, envir = baseenv())` work equally well and do not depend on knowing which functions are primitive (which does change as R evolves).

See Also

`.Internal`.

Examples

```
mysqrt <- .Primitive("sqrt")
c
.Internal # this one must be primitive!
`if` # need backticks
```

print

Print Values

Description

`print` prints its argument and returns it *invisibly* (via `invisible(x)`). It is a generic function which means that new printing methods can be easily added for new `classes`.

Usage

```
print(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'factor'
print(x, quote = FALSE, max.levels = NULL,
      width = getOption("width"), ...)

## S3 method for class 'table'
print(x, digits = getOption("digits"), quote = FALSE,
      na.print = "", zero.print = "0", justify = "none", ...)

## S3 method for class 'function'
print(x, useSource = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object used to select a method.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.
<code>quote</code>	logical, indicating whether or not strings should be printed with surrounding quotes.
<code>max.levels</code>	integer, indicating how many levels should be printed for a factor; if 0, no extra "Levels" line will be printed. The default, NULL, entails choosing <code>max.levels</code> such that the levels print on one line of width <code>width</code> .
<code>width</code>	only used when <code>max.levels</code> is NULL, see above.
<code>digits</code>	minimal number of <i>significant</i> digits, see print.default .
<code>na.print</code>	character string (or NULL) indicating NA values in printed output, see print.default .
<code>zero.print</code>	character specifying how zeros (0) should be printed; for sparse tables, using "." can produce more readable results, similar to printing sparse matrices in Matrix .
<code>justify</code>	character indicating if strings should left- or right-justified or left alone, passed to format .
<code>useSource</code>	logical indicating if internally stored source should be used for printing when present, e.g., if options (<code>keep.source</code> = TRUE) has been in use.

Details

The default method, [print.default](#) has its own help page. Use [methods](#)("print") to get all the methods for the print generic.

`print.factor` allows some customization and is used for printing [ordered](#) factors as well.

`print.table` for printing [tables](#) allows other customization. As of R 3.0.0, it only prints a description in case of a table with 0-extents (this can happen if a classifier has no valid data).

See [noquote](#) as an example of a class whose main purpose is a specific print method.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

The default method [print.default](#), and help for the methods above; further [options](#), [noquote](#).

For more customizable (but cumbersome) printing, see [cat](#), [format](#) or also [write](#). For a simple prototypical print method, see [.print.via.format](#) in package **tools**.

Examples

```
require(stats)

ts(1:20) #-- print is the "Default function" --> print.ts(.) is called
for(i in 1:3) print(1:i)
```

```
## Printing of factors
attenu$station ## 117 levels -> 'max.levels' depending on width

## ordered factors: levels  "l1 < l2 < .."
esoph$agegp[1:12]
esoph$alcgp[1:12]

## Printing of sparse (contingency) tables
set.seed(521)
t1 <- round(abs(rt(200, df = 1.8)))
t2 <- round(abs(rt(200, df = 1.4)))
table(t1, t2) # simple
print(table(t1, t2), zero.print = ".") # nicer to read

## same for non-integer "table":
T <- table(t2,t1)
T <- T * (1+round(rlnorm(length(T)))/4)
print(T, zero.print = ".") # quite nicer,
print.table(T[,2:8] * 1e9, digits=3, zero.print = ".")
## still slightly inferior to Matrix::Matrix(T) for larger T

## Corner cases with empty extents:
table(1, NA) # < table of extent 1 x 0 >
```

print.data.frame

Printing Data Frames

Description

Print a data frame.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
print(x, ..., digits = NULL,
      quote = FALSE, right = TRUE, row.names = TRUE)
```

Arguments

x	object of class <code>data.frame</code> .
...	optional arguments to print or plot methods.
digits	the minimum number of significant digits to be used: see print.default .
quote	logical, indicating whether or not entries should be printed with surrounding quotes.
right	logical, indicating whether or not strings should be right-aligned. The default is right-alignment.
row.names	logical (or character vector), indicating whether (or what) row names should be printed.

Details

This calls `format` which formats the data frame column-by-column, then converts to a character matrix and dispatches to the `print` method for matrices.

When `quote = TRUE` only the entries are quoted not the row names nor the column names.

See Also

`data.frame`.

Examples

```
(dd <- data.frame(x = 1:8, f = gl(2,4), ch = I(letters[1:8])))
# print() with defaults
print(dd, quote = TRUE, row.names = FALSE)
# suppresses row.names and quotes all entries
```

print.default

Default Printing

Description

`print.default` is the *default* method of the generic `print` function which prints its argument.

Usage

```
## Default S3 method:
print(x, digits = NULL, quote = TRUE,
      na.print = NULL, print.gap = NULL, right = FALSE,
      max = NULL, useSource = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	the object to be printed.
<code>digits</code>	a non-null value for <code>digits</code> specifies the minimum number of significant digits to be printed in values. The default, <code>NULL</code> , uses <code>getOption("digits")</code> . (For the interpretation for complex numbers see <code>signif</code> .) Non-integer values will be rounded down, and only values greater than or equal to 1 and no greater than 22 are accepted.
<code>quote</code>	logical, indicating whether or not strings (<code>characters</code>) should be printed with surrounding quotes.
<code>na.print</code>	a character string which is used to indicate <code>NA</code> values in printed output, or <code>NULL</code> (see ‘Details’).
<code>print.gap</code>	a non-negative integer ≤ 1024 , or <code>NULL</code> (meaning 1), giving the spacing between adjacent columns in printed vectors, matrices and arrays.
<code>right</code>	logical, indicating whether or not strings should be right aligned. The default is left alignment.

max	a non-null value for max specifies the approximate maximum number of entries to be printed. The default, NULL, uses <code>getOption("max.print")</code> ; see that help page for more details.
useSource	logical, indicating whether to use source references or copies rather than departing language objects . The default is to use the original source if it is available.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from other methods. They are ignored in this function.

Details

The default for printing NAs is to print NA (without quotes) unless this is a character NA *and* `quote = FALSE`, when `'<NA>'` is printed.

The same number of decimal places is used throughout a vector. This means that `digits` specifies the minimum number of significant digits to be used, and that at least one entry will be encoded with that minimum number. However, if all the encoded elements then have trailing zeroes, the number of decimal places is reduced until at least one element has a non-zero final digit. Decimal points are only included if at least one decimal place is selected.

Attributes are printed respecting their class(es), using the values of `digits` to `print.default`, but using the default values (for the methods called) of the other arguments.

Option `width` controls the printing of vectors, matrices and arrays, and option `deparse.cutoff` controls the printing of [language objects](#) such as calls and formulae.

When the **methods** package is attached, `print` will call `show` for R objects with formal classes if called with no optional arguments.

Large number of digits

Note that for large values of `digits`, currently for `digits >= 16`, the calculation of the number of significant digits will depend on the platform's internal (C library) implementation of `'sprintf()'` functionality.

Single-byte locales

If a non-printable character is encountered during output, it is represented as one of the ANSI escape sequences (`'\a'`, `'\b'`, `'\f'`, `'\n'`, `'\r'`, `'\t'`, `'\v'`, `'\'` and `'\0'`: see [Quotes](#)), or failing that as a 3-digit octal code: for example the UK currency pound sign in the C locale (if implemented correctly) is printed as `'\243'`. Which characters are non-printable depends on the locale. (Because some versions of Windows get this wrong, all bytes with the upper bit set are regarded as printable on Windows in a single-byte locale.)

Unicode and other multi-byte locales

In all locales, the characters in the ASCII range (`'0x00'` to `'0x7f'`) are printed in the same way, as-is if printable, otherwise via ANSI escape sequences or 3-digit octal escapes as described for single-byte locales.

Multi-byte non-printing characters are printed as an escape sequence of the form `'\uxxxx'` or `'\Uxxxxxxxx'` (in hexadecimal). This is the internal code for the wide-character representation of the character. If this is not known to be Unicode code points, a warning is issued. The only known

exceptions are certain Japanese ISO 2022 locales on commercial Unixes, which use a concatenation of the bytes: it is unlikely that R compiles on such a system.

It is possible to have a character string in a character vector that is not valid in the current locale. If a byte is encountered that is not part of a valid character it is printed in hex in the form ‘\xab’ and this is repeated until the start of a valid character. (This will rapidly recover from minor errors in UTF-8.)

See Also

The generic [print, options](#). The “[noquote](#)” class and print method.

[encodeString](#), which encodes a character vector the way it would be printed.

Examples

```
pi
print(pi, digits = 16)
LETTERS[1:16]
print(LETTERS, quote = FALSE)

M <- cbind(I = 1, matrix(1:10000, ncol = 10,
                        dimnames = list(NULL, LETTERS[1:10])))
utils::head(M)          # makes more sense than
print(M, max = 1000)    # prints 90 rows and a message about omitting 910
```

prmatrix

Print Matrices, Old-style

Description

An earlier method for printing matrices, provided for S compatibility.

Usage

```
prmatrix(x, rowlab =, collab =,
        quote = TRUE, right = FALSE, na.print = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

x	numeric or character matrix.
rowlab, collab	(optional) character vectors giving row or column names respectively. By default, these are taken from dimnames(x) .
quote	logical; if TRUE and x is of mode "character", <i>quotes</i> (‘”’) are used.
right	if TRUE and x is of mode "character", the output columns are <i>right</i> -justified.
na.print	how NAs are printed. If this is non-null, its value is used to represent NA.
...	arguments for print methods.

Details

prmatrix is an earlier form of print.matrix, and is very similar to the S function of the same name.

Value

Invisibly returns its argument, x.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[print.default](#), and other [print](#) methods.

Examples

```
prmatrix(m6 <- diag(6), rowlab = rep("", 6), collab = rep("", 6))

chm <- matrix(scan(system.file("help", "AnIndex", package = "splines"),
                           what = ""), , 2, byrow = TRUE)
chm # uses print.matrix()
prmatrix(chm, collab = paste("Column", 1:3), right = TRUE, quote = FALSE)
```

proc.time

Running Time of R

Description

proc.time determines how much real and CPU time (in seconds) the currently running R process has already taken.

Usage

```
proc.time()
```

Details

proc.time returns five elements for backwards compatibility, but its print method prints a named vector of length 3. The first two entries are the total user and system CPU times of the current R process and any child processes on which it has waited, and the third entry is the ‘real’ elapsed time since the process was started.

Value

An object of class "proc_time" which is a numeric vector of length 5, containing the user, system, and total elapsed times for the currently running R process, and the cumulative sum of user and system times of any child processes spawned by it on which it has waited. (The print method uses the summary method to combine the child times with those of the main process.)

The definition of 'user' and 'system' times is from your OS. Typically it is something like

The 'user time' is the CPU time charged for the execution of user instructions of the calling process. The 'system time' is the CPU time charged for execution by the system on behalf of the calling process.

Times of child processes are not available on Windows and will always be given as NA.

The resolution of the times will be system-specific and on Unix-alikes times are rounded down to milliseconds. On modern systems they will be that accurate, but on older systems they might be accurate to 1/100 or 1/60 sec. They are typically available to 10ms on Windows.

This is a [primitive](#) function.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[system.time](#) for timing an R expression, [gc.time](#) for how much of the time was spent in garbage collection.

Examples

```
## a way to time an R expression: system.time is preferred
ptm <- proc.time()
for (i in 1:50) mad(stats::runif(500))
proc.time() - ptm
```

prod

Product of Vector Elements

Description

prod returns the product of all the values present in its arguments.

Usage

```
prod(..., na.rm = FALSE)
```


Arguments

`...` numeric or complex or logical vectors.

`na.rm` logical. Should missing values be removed?

Details

If `na.rm` is `FALSE` an NA value in any of the arguments will cause a value of NA to be returned, otherwise NA values are ignored.

This is a generic function: methods can be defined for it directly or via the [Summary](#) group generic. For this to work properly, the arguments `...` should be unnamed, and dispatch is on the first argument.

Logical true values are regarded as one, false values as zero. For historical reasons, NULL is accepted and treated as if it were `numeric(0)`.

Value

The product, a numeric (of type "double") or complex vector of length one. **NB:** the product of an empty set is one, by definition.

S4 methods

This is part of the S4 [Summary](#) group generic. Methods for it must use the signature `x, ..., na.rm`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[sum](#), [cumprod](#), [cumsum](#).

'[plotmath](#)' for the use of `prod` in plot annotation.

Examples

```
print(prod(1:7)) == print(gamma(8))
```

prop.table

Express Table Entries as Fraction of Marginal Table

Description

This is really `sweep(x, margin, margin.table(x, margin), "/")` for newbies, except that if `margin` has length zero, then one gets `x/sum(x)`.

Usage

```
prop.table(x, margin = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	table
margin	index, or vector of indices to generate margin for

Value

Table like x expressed relative to margin

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard

See Also

[margin.table](#)

Examples

```
m <- matrix(1:4, 2)
m
prop.table(m, 1)
```

pushBack

Push Text Back on to a Connection

Description

Functions to push back text lines onto a [connection](#), and to enquire how many lines are currently pushed back.

Usage

```
pushBack(data, connection, newLine = TRUE,
          encoding = c("", "bytes", "UTF-8"))
pushBackLength(connection)
clearPushBack(connection)
```

Arguments

data	a character vector.
connection	A connection .
newLine	logical. If true, a newline is appended to each string pushed back.
encoding	character string, partially matched. See details.

Details

Several character strings can be pushed back on one or more occasions. The occasions form a stack, so the first line to be retrieved will be the first string from the last call to `pushBack`. Lines which are pushed back are read prior to the normal input from the connection, by the normal text-reading functions such as `readLines` and `scan`.

Pushback is only allowed for readable connections in text mode.

Not all uses of connections respect pushbacks, in particular the input connection is still wired directly, so for example parsing commands from the console and `scan("")` ignore pushbacks on `stdin`.

When character strings with a marked encoding (see [Encoding](#)) are pushed back they are converted to the current encoding if `encoding = ""`. This may involve representing characters as `'<U+xxxx>'` if they cannot be converted. They will be converted to UTF-8 if `encoding = "UTF-8"` or left as-is if `encoding = "bytes"`.

Value

`pushBack` and `clearPushBack()` return nothing, invisibly.

`pushBackLength` returns the number of lines currently pushed back.

See Also

[connections](#), [readLines](#).

Examples

```
zz <- textConnection(LETTERS)
readLines(zz, 2)
pushBack(c("aa", "bb"), zz)
pushBackLength(zz)
readLines(zz, 1)
pushBackLength(zz)
readLines(zz, 1)
readLines(zz, 1)
close(zz)
```

Description

qr computes the QR decomposition of a matrix.

Usage

```
qr(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
qr(x, tol = 1e-07 , LAPACK = FALSE, ...)

qr.coef(qr, y)
qr.qy(qr, y)
qr.qty(qr, y)
qr.resid(qr, y)
qr.fitted(qr, y, k = qr$rank)
qr.solve(a, b, tol = 1e-7)
## S3 method for class 'qr'
solve(a, b, ...)

is.qr(x)
as.qr(x)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric or complex matrix whose QR decomposition is to be computed. Logical matrices are coerced to numeric.
<code>tol</code>	the tolerance for detecting linear dependencies in the columns of <code>x</code> . Only used if LAPACK is false and <code>x</code> is real.
<code>qr</code>	a QR decomposition of the type computed by <code>qr</code> .
<code>y, b</code>	a vector or matrix of right-hand sides of equations.
<code>a</code>	a QR decomposition or (<code>qr.solve</code> only) a rectangular matrix.
<code>k</code>	effective rank.
<code>LAPACK</code>	logical. For real <code>x</code> , if true use LAPACK otherwise use LINPACK (the default).
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods

Details

The QR decomposition plays an important role in many statistical techniques. In particular it can be used to solve the equation $Ax = b$ for given matrix A , and vector b . It is useful for computing regression coefficients and in applying the Newton-Raphson algorithm.

The functions `qr.coef`, `qr.resid`, and `qr.fitted` return the coefficients, residuals and fitted values obtained when fitting `y` to the matrix with QR decomposition `qr`. (If pivoting is used, some of the coefficients will be NA.) `qr.qy` and `qr.qty` return $Q \%*\% y$ and $t(Q) \%*\% y$, where Q is the (complete) Q matrix.

All the above functions keep `dimnames` (and `names`) of `x` and `y` if there are any.

`solve.qr` is the method for `solve` for `qr` objects. `qr.solve` solves systems of equations via the QR decomposition: if `a` is a QR decomposition it is the same as `solve.qr`, but if `a` is a rectangular matrix the QR decomposition is computed first. Either will handle over- and under-determined systems, providing a least-squares fit if appropriate.

`is.qr` returns TRUE if `x` is a `list` with components named `qr`, `rank` and `qraux` and FALSE otherwise.

It is not possible to coerce objects to mode "qr". Objects either are QR decompositions or they are not.

The LINPACK interface is restricted to matrices x with less than 2^{31} elements.

`qr.fitted` and `qr.resid` only support the LINPACK interface.

Unsuccessful results from the underlying LAPACK code will result in an error giving a positive error code: these can only be interpreted by detailed study of the FORTRAN code.

Value

The QR decomposition of the matrix as computed by LINPACK or LAPACK. The components in the returned value correspond directly to the values returned by DQRDC/DGEQP3/ZGEQP3.

<code>qr</code>	a matrix with the same dimensions as x . The upper triangle contains the R of the decomposition and the lower triangle contains information on the Q of the decomposition (stored in compact form). Note that the storage used by DQRDC and DGEQP3 differs.
<code>graux</code>	a vector of length <code>ncol(x)</code> which contains additional information on Q .
<code>rank</code>	the rank of x as computed by the decomposition: always full rank in the LAPACK case.
<code>pivot</code>	information on the pivoting strategy used during the decomposition.

Non-complex QR objects computed by LAPACK have the attribute "useLAPACK" with value TRUE.

Note

To compute the determinant of a matrix (do you *really* need it?), the QR decomposition is much more efficient than using Eigen values ([eigen](#)). See [det](#).

Using LAPACK (including in the complex case) uses column pivoting and does not attempt to detect rank-deficient matrices.

Source

For `qr`, the LINPACK routine DQRDC and the LAPACK routines DGEQP3 and ZGEQP3. Further LINPACK and LAPACK routines are used for `qr.coef`, `qr.qy` and `qr.aty`.

LAPACK and LINPACK are from <http://www.netlib.org/lapack> and <http://www.netlib.org/linpack> and their guides are listed in the references.

References

Anderson, E. and ten others (1999) *LAPACK Users' Guide*. Third Edition. SIAM. Available on-line at http://www.netlib.org/lapack/lug/lapack_lug.html.

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Dongarra, J. J., Bunch, J. R., Moler, C. B. and Stewart, G. W. (1978) *LINPACK Users Guide*. Philadelphia: SIAM Publications.

See Also

[qr.Q](#), [qr.R](#), [qr.X](#) for reconstruction of the matrices. [lm.fit](#), [lsfit](#), [eigen](#), [svd](#).
[det](#) (using [qr](#)) to compute the determinant of a matrix.

Examples

```

hilbert <- function(n) { i <- 1:n; 1 / outer(i - 1, i, "+") }
h9 <- hilbert(9); h9
qr(h9)$rank          #--> only 7
qrh9 <- qr(h9, tol = 1e-10)
qrh9$rank             #--> 9
##-- Solve linear equation system H %*% x = y :
y <- 1:9/10
x <- qr.solve(h9, y, tol = 1e-10) # or equivalently :
x <- qr.coef(qrh9, y) #-- is == but much better than
                        #-- solve(h9) %*% y
h9 %*% x               # = y

## overdetermined system
A <- matrix(runif(12), 4)
b <- 1:4
qr.solve(A, b) # or solve(qr(A), b)
solve(qr(A, LAPACK = TRUE), b)
# this is a least-squares solution, cf. lm(b ~ 0 + A)

## underdetermined system
A <- matrix(runif(12), 3)
b <- 1:3
qr.solve(A, b)
solve(qr(A, LAPACK = TRUE), b)
# solutions will have one zero, not necessarily the same one

```

Description

Returns the original matrix from which the object was constructed or the components of the decomposition.

Usage

```

qr.X(qr, complete = FALSE, ncol =)
qr.Q(qr, complete = FALSE, Dvec =)
qr.R(qr, complete = FALSE, ...)

```

Arguments

<code>qr</code>	object representing a QR decomposition. This will typically have come from a previous call to <code>qr</code> or <code>lsfit</code> .
<code>complete</code>	logical expression of length 1. Indicates whether an arbitrary orthogonal completion of the \mathbf{Q} or \mathbf{X} matrices is to be made, or whether the \mathbf{R} matrix is to be completed by binding zero-value rows beneath the square upper triangle.
<code>ncol</code>	integer in the range <code>1:nrow(qr\$qr)</code> . The number of columns to be in the reconstructed \mathbf{X} . The default when <code>complete</code> is <code>FALSE</code> is the first <code>min(ncol(X), nrow(X))</code> columns of the original \mathbf{X} from which the <code>qr</code> object was constructed. The default when <code>complete</code> is <code>TRUE</code> is a square matrix with the original \mathbf{X} in the first <code>ncol(X)</code> columns and an arbitrary orthogonal completion (unitary completion in the complex case) in the remaining columns.
<code>Dvec</code>	vector (not matrix) of diagonal values. Each column of the returned \mathbf{Q} will be multiplied by the corresponding diagonal value. Defaults to all 1s.
<code>...</code>	potentially further arguments, passed potentially to non-default methods.

Value

`qr.X` returns \mathbf{X} , the original matrix from which the `qr` object was constructed, provided `ncol(X) <= nrow(X)`. If `complete` is `TRUE` or the argument `ncol` is greater than `ncol(X)`, additional columns from an arbitrary orthogonal (unitary) completion of \mathbf{X} are returned.

`qr.Q` returns part or all of \mathbf{Q} , the order-`nrow(X)` orthogonal (unitary) transformation represented by `qr`. If `complete` is `TRUE`, \mathbf{Q} has `nrow(X)` columns. If `complete` is `FALSE`, \mathbf{Q} has `ncol(X)` columns. When `Dvec` is specified, each column of \mathbf{Q} is multiplied by the corresponding value in `Dvec`.

Note that `qr.Q(qr, *)` is a special case of `qr.qy(qr, y)` (with a “diagonal” `y`), and `qr.X(qr, *)` is basically `qr.qy(qr, R)` (apart from pivoting and `dimnames` setting).

`qr.R` returns \mathbf{R} . This may be pivoted, e.g., if `a <- qr(x)` then `x[, a$pivot] = QR`. The number of rows of \mathbf{R} is either `nrow(X)` or `ncol(X)` (and may depend on whether `complete` is `TRUE` or `FALSE`).

See Also

`qr`, `qr.qy`.

Examples

```
p <- ncol(x <- LifeCycleSavings[, -1]) # not the 'sr'
qrstr <- qr(x) # dim(x) == c(n,p)
qrstr $ rank # = 4 = p
Q <- qr.Q(qrstr) # dim(Q) == dim(x)
R <- qr.R(qrstr) # dim(R) == ncol(x)
X <- qr.X(qrstr) # X == x
range(X - as.matrix(x)) # ~ < 6e-12
## X == Q %*% R if there has been no pivoting, as here:
all.equal(unname(X),
          unname(Q %*% R))

# example of pivoting
```

```

x <- cbind(int = 1,
           b1 = rep(1:0, each = 3), b2 = rep(0:1, each = 3),
           c1 = rep(c(1,0,0), 2), c2 = rep(c(0,1,0), 2), c3 = rep(c(0,0,1),2))
x # is singular, columns "b2" and "c3" are "extra"
a <- qr(x)
zapsmall(qr.R(a)) # columns are int b1 c1 c2 b2 c3
a$pivot
pivI <- sort.list(a$pivot) # the inverse permutation
all.equal(x, qr.Q(a) %*% qr.R(a)) # no, no
stopifnot(
  all.equal(x[, a$pivot], qr.Q(a) %*% qr.R(a)), # TRUE
  all.equal(x[, a$pivot], qr.Q(a) %*% qr.R(a)[, pivI])) # TRUE too!

```

quit

Terminate an R Session

Description

The function `quit` or its alias `q` terminate the current R session.

Usage

```

quit(save = "default", status = 0, runLast = TRUE)
q(save = "default", status = 0, runLast = TRUE)

```

Arguments

<code>save</code>	a character string indicating whether the environment (workspace) should be saved, one of "no", "yes", "ask" or "default".
<code>status</code>	the (numerical) error status to be returned to the operating system, where relevant. Conventionally 0 indicates successful completion.
<code>runLast</code>	should <code>.Last()</code> be executed?

Details

`save` must be one of "no", "yes", "ask" or "default". In the first case the workspace is not saved, in the second it is saved and in the third the user is prompted and can also decide *not* to quit. The default is to ask in interactive use but may be overridden by command-line arguments (which must be supplied in non-interactive use).

Immediately *before* normal termination, `.Last()` is executed if the function `.Last` exists and `runLast` is true. If in interactive use there are errors in the `.Last` function, control will be returned to the command prompt, so do test the function thoroughly. There is a system analogue, `.Last.sys()`, which is run after `.Last()` if `runLast` is true.

Exactly what happens at termination of an R session depends on the platform and GUI interface in use. A typical sequence is to run `.Last()` and `.Last.sys()` (unless `runLast` is false), to save the workspace if requested (and in most cases also to save the session history: see [savehistory](#)), then run any finalizers (see [reg.finalizer](#)) that have been set to be run on exit, close all open

graphics devices, remove the session temporary directory and print any remaining warnings (e.g., from `.Last()` and device closure).

Some error status values are used by R itself. The default error handler for non-interactive use effectively calls `q("no", 1, FALSE)` and returns error status 1. Error status 2 is used for R ‘suicide’, that is a catastrophic failure, and other small numbers are used by specific ports for initialization failures. It is recommended that users choose statuses of 10 or more.

Valid values of `status` are system-dependent, but 0:255 are normally valid. (Many OSes will report the last byte of the value, that is report the value modulo 256. But not all.)

Warning

The value of `.Last` is for the end user to control: as it can be replaced later in the session, it cannot safely be used programmatically, e.g. by a package. The other way to set code to be run at the end of the session is to use a *finalizer*: see [reg.finalizer](#).

Note

The R. app GUI on OS X has its own version of these functions with slightly different behaviour for the `save` argument (the GUI’s ‘Startup’ preferences for this action are taken into account).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[.First](#) for setting things on startup.

Examples

```
## Not run: ## Unix-flavour example
.Last <- function() {
  graphics.off() # close devices before printing
  cat("Now sending PDF graphics to the printer:\n")
  system("lpr Rplots.pdf")
  cat("bye bye...\n")
}
quit("yes")
## End(Not run)
```

Quotes

Quotes

Description

Descriptions of the various uses of quoting in R.

Details

Three types of quotes are part of the syntax of R: single and double quotation marks and the backtick (or back quote, ‘`’). In addition, backslash is used to escape the following character inside character constants.

Character constants

Single and double quotes delimit character constants. They can be used interchangeably but double quotes are preferred (and character constants are printed using double quotes), so single quotes are normally only used to delimit character constants containing double quotes.

Backslash is used to start an escape sequence inside character constants. Escaping a character not in the following table is an error.

Single quotes need to be escaped by backslash in single-quoted strings, and double quotes in double-quoted strings.

<code>‘\n’</code>	newline
<code>‘\r’</code>	carriage return
<code>‘\t’</code>	tab
<code>‘\b’</code>	backspace
<code>‘\a’</code>	alert (bell)
<code>‘\f’</code>	form feed
<code>‘\v’</code>	vertical tab
<code>‘\\’</code>	backslash ‘\’
<code>‘\’</code>	ASCII apostrophe ‘’
<code>‘\”</code>	ASCII quotation mark “”
<code>‘\`’</code>	ASCII grave accent (backtick) ‘`’
<code>‘\nnn’</code>	character with given octal code (1, 2 or 3 digits)
<code>‘\xnn’</code>	character with given hex code (1 or 2 hex digits)
<code>‘\unnnn’</code>	Unicode character with given code (1–4 hex digits)
<code>‘\Unnnnnnnn’</code>	Unicode character with given code (1–8 hex digits)

Alternative forms for the last two are `‘\u{nnnn}’` and `‘\U{nnnnnnnn}’`. All except the Unicode escape sequences are also supported when reading character strings by `scan` and `read.table` if `allowEscapes = TRUE`. Unicode escapes can be used to enter Unicode characters not in the current locale’s charset (when the string will be stored internally in UTF-8).

The parser does not allow the use of both octal/hex and Unicode escapes in a single string.

These forms will also be used by `print.default` when outputting non-printable characters (including backslash).

Embedded nuls are not allowed in character strings, so using escapes (such as `‘\0’`) for a nul will result in the string being truncated at that point (usually with a warning).

Names and Identifiers

Identifiers consist of a sequence of letters, digits, the period (.) and the underscore. They must not start with a digit nor underscore, nor with a period followed by a digit. **Reserved** words are not valid identifiers.

The definition of a *letter* depends on the current locale, but only ASCII digits are considered to be digits.

Such identifiers are also known as *syntactic names* and may be used directly in R code. Almost always, other names can be used provided they are quoted. The preferred quote is the backtick (``), and `deparse` will normally use it, but under many circumstances single or double quotes can be used (as a character constant will often be converted to a name). One place where backticks may be essential is to delimit variable names in formulae: see [formula](#).

See Also

[Syntax](#) for other aspects of the syntax.

[sQuote](#) for quoting English text.

[shQuote](#) for quoting OS commands.

The ‘R Language Definition’ manual.

R.Version

Version Information

Description

`R.Version()` provides detailed information about the version of R running.

`R.version` is a variable (a [list](#)) holding this information (and `version` is a copy of it for S compatibility).

Usage

```
R.Version()
R.version
R.version.string
version
```

Details

This gives details of the OS under which R was built, not the one under which it is currently running (for which see [Sys.info](#)).

Note that OS names might not be what you expect: for example OS X Mavericks 10.9.4 identifies itself as ‘darwin13.3.0’, Linux usually as ‘linux-gnu’ and Solaris 10 as ‘solaris2.10’.

Value

`R.Version` returns a list with character-string components

<code>platform</code>	the platform for which R was built. A triplet of the form CPU-VENDOR-OS, as determined by the configure script. E.g, "i686-unknown-linux-gnu" or "i386-pc-mingw32".
<code>arch</code>	the architecture (CPU) R was built on/for.

os	the underlying operating system.
system	CPU and OS, separated by a comma.
status	the status of the version (e.g., "alpha")
major	the major version number
minor	the minor version number, including the patchlevel
year	the year the version was released
month	the month the version was released
day	the day the version was released
svn rev	the Subversion revision number, which should be either "unknown" or a single number. (A range of numbers or a number with 'M' or 'S' appended indicates inconsistencies in the sources used to build this version of R.)
language	always "R".
version.string	a character string concatenating some of the info above, useful for plotting, etc.

R.version and version are lists of class "simple.list" which has a print method.

Note

Do *not* use R.version\$os to test the platform the code is running on: use .Platform\$OS.type instead. Slightly different versions of the OS may report different values of R.version\$os, as may different versions of R.

R.version.string is a copy of R.version\$version.string for simplicity and backwards compatibility.

See Also

[sessionInfo](#) which provides additional information; [getRversion](#) typically used inside R code, [.Platform](#), [Sys.info](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

R.version$os # to check how lucky you are ...
plot(0) # any plot
mtext(R.version.string, side = 1, line = 4, adj = 1) # a useful bottom-right note

## a good way to detect OS X:
if(grepl("^darwin", R.version$os)) message("running on OS X")
```

Description

`.Random.seed` is an integer vector, containing the random number generator (RNG) **state** for random number generation in R. It can be saved and restored, but should not be altered by the user.

`RNGkind` is a more friendly interface to query or set the kind of RNG in use.

`RNGversion` can be used to set the random generators as they were in an earlier R version (for reproducibility).

`set.seed` is the recommended way to specify seeds.

Usage

```
.Random.seed <- c(rng.kind, n1, n2, ...)

RNGkind(kind = NULL, normal.kind = NULL)
RNGversion(vstr)
set.seed(seed, kind = NULL, normal.kind = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>kind</code>	character or NULL. If <code>kind</code> is a character string, set R's RNG to the kind desired. Use "default" to return to the R default. See 'Details' for the interpretation of NULL.
<code>normal.kind</code>	character string or NULL. If it is a character string, set the method of Normal generation. Use "default" to return to the R default. NULL makes no change.
<code>seed</code>	a single value, interpreted as an integer, or NULL (see 'Details').
<code>vstr</code>	a character string containing a version number, e.g., "1.6.2"
<code>rng.kind</code>	integer code in 0:k for the above kind.
<code>n1, n2, ...</code>	integers. See the details for how many are required (which depends on <code>rng.kind</code>).

Details

The currently available RNG kinds are given below. `kind` is partially matched to this list. The default is "Mersenne-Twister".

"Wichmann-Hill" The seed, `.Random.seed[-1] == r[1:3]` is an integer vector of length 3, where each `r[i]` is in `1:(p[i] - 1)`, where `p` is the length 3 vector of primes, `p = (30269, 30307, 30323)`. The Wichmann-Hill generator has a cycle length of 6.9536×10^{12} ($= \text{prod}(p-1)/4$, see *Applied Statistics* (1984) **33**, 123 which corrects the original article).

"Marsaglia-Multicarry": A *multiply-with-carry* RNG is used, as recommended by George Marsaglia in his post to the mailing list 'sci.stat.math'. It has a period of more than 2^{60} and has passed all tests (according to Marsaglia). The seed is two integers (all values allowed).

"Super-Duper": Marsaglia's famous Super-Duper from the 70's. This is the original version which does *not* pass the MTUPLE test of the Diehard battery. It has a period of $\approx 4.6 \times 10^{18}$ for most initial seeds. The seed is two integers (all values allowed for the first seed: the second must be odd).

We use the implementation by Reeds *et al* (1982–84).

The two seeds are the Tausworthe and congruence long integers, respectively. A one-to-one mapping to S's `.Random.seed[1:12]` is possible but we will not publish one, not least as this generator is **not** exactly the same as that in recent versions of S-PLUS.

"Mersenne-Twister": From Matsumoto and Nishimura (1998). A twisted GFSR with period $2^{19937} - 1$ and equidistribution in 623 consecutive dimensions (over the whole period). The 'seed' is a 624-dimensional set of 32-bit integers plus a current position in that set.

"Knuth-TAOCP-2002": A 32-bit integer GFSR using lagged Fibonacci sequences with subtraction. That is, the recurrence used is

$$X_j = (X_{j-100} - X_{j-37}) \bmod 2^{30}$$

and the 'seed' is the set of the 100 last numbers (actually recorded as 101 numbers, the last being a cyclic shift of the buffer). The period is around 2^{129} .

"Knuth-TAOCP": An earlier version from Knuth (1997).

The 2002 version was not backwards compatible with the earlier version: the initialization of the GFSR from the seed was altered. R did not allow you to choose consecutive seeds, the reported 'weakness', and already scrambled the seeds.

Initialization of this generator is done in interpreted R code and so takes a short but noticeable time.

"L'Ecuyer-CMRG": A 'combined multiple-recursive generator' from L'Ecuyer (1999), each element of which is a feedback multiplicative generator with three integer elements: thus the seed is a (signed) integer vector of length 6. The period is around 2^{191} .

The 6 elements of the seed are internally regarded as 32-bit unsigned integers. Neither the first three nor the last three should be all zero, and they are limited to less than 4294967087 and 4294944443 respectively.

This is not particularly interesting of itself, but provides the basis for the multiple streams used in package **parallel**.

"user-supplied": Use a user-supplied generator. See [Random.user](#) for details.

`normal.kind` can be "Kinderman-Ramage", "Buggy Kinderman-Ramage" (not for `set.seed`), "Ahrens-Dieter", "Box-Muller", "Inversion" (the default), or "user-supplied". (For inversion, see the reference in [qnorm](#).) The Kinderman-Ramage generator used in versions prior to 1.7.0 (now called "Buggy") had several approximation errors and should only be used for reproduction of old results. The "Box-Muller" generator is stateful as pairs of normals are generated and returned sequentially. The state is reset whenever it is selected (even if it is the current normal generator) and when `kind` is changed.

`set.seed` uses a single integer argument to set as many seeds as are required. It is intended as a simple way to get quite different seeds by specifying small integer arguments, and also as a

way to get valid seed sets for the more complicated methods (especially "Mersenne-Twister" and "Knuth-TAOCP"). There is no guarantee that different values of seed will seed the RNG differently, although any exceptions would be extremely rare. If called with `seed = NULL` it re-initializes (see 'Note') as if no seed had yet been set.

The use of `kind = NULL` or `normal.kind = NULL` in `RNGkind` or `set.seed` selects the currently-used generator (including that used in the previous session if the workspace has been restored): if no generator has been used it selects "default".

Value

`.Random.seed` is an **integer** vector whose first element *codes* the kind of RNG and normal generator. The lowest two decimal digits are in $0:(k-1)$ where k is the number of available RNGs. The hundreds represent the type of normal generator (starting at 0).

In the underlying C, `.Random.seed[-1]` is unsigned; therefore in R `.Random.seed[-1]` can be negative, due to the representation of an unsigned integer by a signed integer.

`RNGkind` returns a two-element character vector of the RNG and normal kinds selected *before* the call, invisibly if either argument is not `NULL`. A type starts a session as the default, and is selected either by a call to `RNGkind` or by setting `.Random.seed` in the workspace.

`RNGversion` returns the same information as `RNGkind` about the defaults in a specific R version.

`set.seed` returns `NULL`, invisibly.

Note

Initially, there is no seed; a new one is created from the current time and the process ID when one is required. Hence different sessions will give different simulation results, by default. However, the seed might be restored from a previous session if a previously saved workspace is restored.

`.Random.seed` saves the seed set for the uniform random-number generator, at least for the system generators. It does not necessarily save the state of other generators, and in particular does not save the state of the Box-Muller normal generator. If you want to reproduce work later, call `set.seed` (preferably with explicit values for `kind` and `normal.kind`) rather than `set.Random.seed`.

The object `.Random.seed` is only looked for in the user's workspace.

Do not rely on randomness of low-order bits from RNGs. Most of the supplied uniform generators return 32-bit integer values that are converted to doubles, so they take at most 2^{32} distinct values and long runs will return duplicated values (Wichmann-Hill is the exception, and all give at least 30 varying bits.)

Author(s)

of `RNGkind`: Martin Maechler. Current implementation, B. D. Ripley

References

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- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (`set.seed`, storing in `.Random.seed`.)

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De Matteis, A. and Pagnutti, S. (1993) *Long-range Correlation Analysis of the Wichmann-Hill Random Number Generator*, *Statist. Comput.*, **3**, 67–70.

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Marsaglia, G. and Zaman, A. (1994) Some portable very-long-period random number generators. *Computers in Physics*, **8**, 117–121.

Matsumoto, M. and Nishimura, T. (1998) Mersenne Twister: A 623-dimensionally equidistributed uniform pseudo-random number generator, *ACM Transactions on Modeling and Computer Simulation*, **8**, 3–30.

Source code formerly at <http://www.math.keio.ac.jp/~matumoto/emt.html>.

Now see <http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/MT/VERSIONS/C-LANG/c-lang.html>.

Reeds, J., Hubert, S. and Abrahams, M. (1982–4) C implementation of SuperDuper, University of California at Berkeley. (Personal communication from Jim Reeds to Ross Ihaka.)

Wichmann, B. A. and Hill, I. D. (1982) *Algorithm AS 183: An Efficient and Portable Pseudo-random Number Generator*, *Applied Statistics*, **31**, 188–190; Remarks: **34**, 198 and **35**, 89.

See Also

[sample](#) for random sampling with and without replacement.

[Distributions](#) for functions for random-variate generation from standard distributions.

Examples

```
require(stats)

## the default random seed is 626 integers, so only print a few
runif(1); .Random.seed[1:6]; runif(1); .Random.seed[1:6]
## If there is no seed, a "random" new one is created:
rm(.Random.seed); runif(1); .Random.seed[1:6]

ok <- RNGkind()
RNGkind("Wich") # (partial string matching on 'kind')

## This shows how 'runif(.)' works for Wichmann-Hill,
## using only R functions:
```



```

p.WH <- c(30269, 30307, 30323)
a.WH <- c( 171,  172,  170)
next.WHseed <- function(i.seed = .Random.seed[-1])
  { (a.WH * i.seed) %% p.WH }
my.runif1 <- function(i.seed = .Random.seed)
  { ns <- next.WHseed(i.seed[-1]); sum(ns / p.WH) %% 1 }
rs <- .Random.seed
(WHs <- next.WHseed(rs[-1]))
u <- runif(1)
stopifnot(
  next.WHseed(rs[-1]) == .Random.seed[-1],
  all.equal(u, my.runif1(rs))
)

## ----
.Random.seed
RNGkind("Super") # matches "Super-Duper"
RNGkind()
.Random.seed # new, corresponding to Super-Duper

## Reset:
RNGkind(ok[1])

## ----
sum(duplicated(runif(1e6))) # around 110 for default generator
## and we would expect about almost sure duplicates beyond about
qbirthday(1 - 1e-6, classes = 2e9) # 235,000

```

Random.user

User-supplied Random Number Generation

Description

Function `RNGkind` allows user-coded uniform and normal random number generators to be supplied. The details are given here.

Details

A user-specified uniform RNG is called from entry points in dynamically-loaded compiled code. The user must supply the entry point `user_unif_rand`, which takes no arguments and returns a *pointer to a double*. The example below will show the general pattern.

Optionally, the user can supply the entry point `user_unif_init`, which is called with an unsigned int argument when `RNGkind` (or `set.seed`) is called, and is intended to be used to initialize the user's RNG code. The argument is intended to be used to set the 'seeds'; it is the seed argument to `set.seed` or an essentially random seed if `RNGkind` is called.

If only these functions are supplied, no information about the generator's state is recorded in `.Random.seed`. Optionally, functions `user_unif_nseed` and `user_unif_seedloc` can be supplied which are called with no arguments and should return pointers to the number of seeds and to an

integer (specifically, 'Int32') array of seeds. Calls to GetRNGstate and PutRNGstate will then copy this array to and from .Random.seed.

A user-specified normal RNG is specified by a single entry point user_norm_rand, which takes no arguments and returns a *pointer* to a double.

Warning

As with all compiled code, mis-specifying these functions can crash R. Do include the 'R_ext/Random.h' header file for type checking.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Marsaglia's congruential PRNG
#include <R_ext/Random.h>

static Int32 seed;
static double res;
static int nseed = 1;

double * user_unif_rand()
{
    seed = 69069 * seed + 1;
    res = seed * 2.32830643653869e-10;
    return &res;
}

void user_unif_init(Int32 seed_in) { seed = seed_in; }
int * user_unif_nseed() { return &nseed; }
int * user_unif_seedloc() { return (int *) &seed; }

/* ratio-of-uniforms for normal */
#include <math.h>
static double x;

double * user_norm_rand()
{
    double u, v, z;
    do {
        u = unif_rand();
        v = 0.857764 * (2. * unif_rand() - 1);
        x = v/u; z = 0.25 * x * x;
        if (z < 1. - u) break;
        if (z > 0.259/u + 0.35) continue;
    } while (z > -log(u));
    return &x;
}

## Use under Unix:
R CMD SHLIB urand.c
R
> dyn.load("urand.so")
```

```

> RNGkind("user")
> runif(10)
> .Random.seed
> RNGkind(, "user")
> rnorm(10)
> RNGkind()
[1] "user-supplied" "user-supplied"

## End(Not run)

```

range

*Range of Values***Description**

range returns a vector containing the minimum and maximum of all the given arguments.

Usage

```

range(..., na.rm = FALSE)

## Default S3 method:
range(..., na.rm = FALSE, finite = FALSE)

```

Arguments

...	any numeric or character objects.
na.rm	logical, indicating if NA 's should be omitted.
finite	logical, indicating if all non-finite elements should be omitted.

Details

range is a generic function: methods can be defined for it directly or via the [Summary](#) group generic. For this to work properly, the arguments ... should be unnamed, and dispatch is on the first argument.

If na.rm is FALSE, NA and NaN values in any of the arguments will cause NA values to be returned, otherwise NA values are ignored.

If finite is TRUE, the minimum and maximum of all finite values is computed, i.e., finite = TRUE *includes* na.rm = TRUE.

A special situation occurs when there is no (after omission of NAs) nonempty argument left, see [min](#).

S4 methods

This is part of the S4 [Summary](#) group generic. Methods for it must use the signature x, ..., na.rm.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[min](#), [max](#).
The [extendrange\(\)](#) utility in package **grDevices**.

Examples

```
(r.x <- range(stats::rnorm(100)))
diff(r.x) # the SAMPLE range

x <- c(NA, 1:3, -1:1/0); x
range(x)
range(x, na.rm = TRUE)
range(x, finite = TRUE)
```

rank	<i>Sample Ranks</i>
------	---------------------

Description

Returns the sample ranks of the values in a vector. Ties (i.e., equal values) and missing values can be handled in several ways.

Usage

```
rank(x, na.last = TRUE,
      ties.method = c("average", "first", "random", "max", "min"))
```

Arguments

- x a numeric, complex, character or logical vector.
- na.last for controlling the treatment of [NAs](#). If TRUE, missing values in the data are put last; if FALSE, they are put first; if NA, they are removed; if "keep" they are kept with rank NA.
- ties.method a character string specifying how ties are treated, see ‘Details’; can be abbreviated.

Details

If all components are different (and no NAs), the ranks are well defined, with values in `seq_along(x)`. With some values equal (called ‘ties’), the argument `ties.method` determines the result at the corresponding indices. The “first” method results in a permutation with increasing values at each index set of ties. The “random” method puts these in random order whereas the default, “average”, replaces them by their mean, and “max” and “min” replaces them by their maximum and minimum respectively, the latter being the typical sports ranking.

NA values are never considered to be equal: for `na.last = TRUE` and `na.last = FALSE` they are given distinct ranks in the order in which they occur in `x`.

NB: `rank` is not itself generic but `xtfrm` is, and `rank(xtfrm(x), ...)` will have the desired result if there is a `xtfrm` method. Otherwise, `rank` will make use of `==`, `>`, `is.na` and extraction methods for classed objects, possibly rather slowly.

Value

A numeric vector of the same length as `x` with names copied from `x` (unless `na.last = NA`, when missing values are removed). The vector is of integer type unless `x` is a long vector or `ties.method = "average"` when it is of double type (whether or not there are any ties).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[order](#) and [sort](#); [xtfrm](#), see above.

Examples

```
(r1 <- rank(x1 <- c(3, 1, 4, 15, 92)))
x2 <- c(3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5)
names(x2) <- letters[1:11]
(r2 <- rank(x2)) # ties are averaged

## rank() is "idempotent": rank(rank(x)) == rank(x) :
stopifnot(rank(r1) == r1, rank(r2) == r2)

## ranks without averaging
rank(x2, ties.method= "first") # first occurrence wins
rank(x2, ties.method= "random") # ties broken at random
rank(x2, ties.method= "random") # and again

## keep ties ties, no average
(rma <- rank(x2, ties.method= "max")) # as used classically
(rmi <- rank(x2, ties.method= "min")) # as in Sports
stopifnot(rma + rmi == round(r2 + r2))
```

rapply*Recursively Apply a Function to a List*

Description

rapply is a recursive version of [lapply](#).

Usage

```
rapply(object, f, classes = "ANY", deflt = NULL,  
       how = c("unlist", "replace", "list"), ...)
```

Arguments

object	A list.
f	A function of a single argument.
classes	A character vector of class names, or "ANY" to match any class.
deflt	The default result (not used if how = "replace").
how	A character string partially matching the three possibilities given: see 'Details'.
...	additional arguments passed to the call to f.

Details

This function has two basic modes. If how = "replace", each element of the list which is not itself a list and has a class included in classes is replaced by the result of applying f to the element.

If the mode is how = "list" or how = "unlist", the list is copied, all non-list elements which have a class included in classes are replaced by the result of applying f to the element and all others are replaced by deflt. Finally, if how = "unlist", `unlist(recursive = TRUE)` is called on the result.

The semantics differ in detail from [lapply](#): in particular the arguments are evaluated before calling the C code.

Value

If how = "unlist", a vector, otherwise a list of similar structure to object.

References

Chambers, J. A. (1998) *Programming with Data*. Springer.
(rapply is only described briefly there.)

See Also

[lapply](#), [dendrapply](#).

Examples

```
X <- list(list(a = pi, b = list(c = 1:1)), d = "a test")
rapply(X, function(x) x, how = "replace")
rapply(X, sqrt, classes = "numeric", how = "replace")
rapply(X, nchar, classes = "character",
       deflt = as.integer(NA), how = "list")
rapply(X, nchar, classes = "character",
       deflt = as.integer(NA), how = "unlist")
rapply(X, nchar, classes = "character", how = "unlist")
rapply(X, log, classes = "numeric", how = "replace", base = 2)
```

raw

Raw Vectors

Description

Creates or tests for objects of type "raw".

Usage

```
raw(length = 0)
as.raw(x)
is.raw(x)
```

Arguments

length	desired length.
x	object to be coerced.

Details

The raw type is intended to hold raw bytes. It is possible to extract subsequences of bytes, and to replace elements (but only by elements of a raw vector). The relational operators (see [Comparison](#), using the numerical order of the byte representation) work, as do the logical operators (see [Logic](#)) with a bitwise interpretation.

A raw vector is printed with each byte separately represented as a pair of hex digits. If you want to see a character representation (with escape sequences for non-printing characters) use [rawToChar](#).

Coercion to raw treats the input values as representing small (decimal) integers, so the input is first coerced to integer, and then values which are outside the range $[0 \dots 255]$ or are NA are set to 0 (the nul byte).

as.raw and is.raw are [primitive](#) functions.

Value

`raw` creates a raw vector of the specified length. Each element of the vector is equal to 0. Raw vectors are used to store fixed-length sequences of bytes.

`as.raw` attempts to coerce its argument to be of raw type. The (elementwise) answer will be 0 unless the coercion succeeds (or if the original value successfully coerces to 0).

`is.raw` returns true if and only if `typeof(x) == "raw"`.

See Also

[charToRaw](#), [rawShift](#), etc.

[&](#) for bitwise operations on raw vectors.

Examples

```
xx <- raw(2)
xx[1] <- as.raw(40)      # NB, not just 40.
xx[2] <- charToRaw("A")
xx

x <- "A test string"
(y <- charToRaw(x))
is.vector(y) # TRUE
rawToChar(y)
is.raw(x)
is.raw(y)

isASCII <- function(txt) all(charToRaw(txt) <= as.raw(127))
isASCII(x) # true
isASCII("\x9c25.63") # false (in Latin-1, this is an amount in UK pounds)
```

rawConnection

Raw Connections

Description

Input and output raw connections.

Usage

```
rawConnection(object, open = "r")
```

```
rawConnectionValue(con)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	character or raw vector. A description of the connection. For an input this is an R raw vector object, and for an output connection the name for the connection.
<code>open</code>	character. Any of the standard connection open modes.
<code>con</code>	An output raw connection.

Details

An input raw connection is opened and the raw vector is copied at the time the connection object is created, and `close` destroys the copy.

An output raw connection is opened and creates an R raw vector internally. The raw vector can be retrieved *via* `rawConnectionValue`.

If a connection is open for both input and output the initial raw vector supplied is copied when the connections is open

Value

For `rawConnection`, a connection object of class `"rawConnection"` which inherits from class `"connection"`.

For `rawConnectionValue`, a raw vector.

Note

As output raw connections keep the internal raw vector up to date call-by-call, they are relatively expensive to use (although over-allocation is used), and it may be better to use an anonymous `file()` connection to collect output.

On (rare) platforms where `vsprintf` does not return the needed length of output there is a 100,000 character limit on the length of line for output connections: longer lines will be truncated with a warning.

See Also

[connections](#), [showConnections](#).

Examples

```
zz <- rawConnection(raw(0), "r+") # start with empty raw vector
writeBin(LETTERS, zz)
seek(zz, 0)
readLines(zz) # raw vector has embedded nuls
seek(zz, 0)
writeBin(letters[1:3], zz)
rawConnectionValue(zz)
close(zz)
```

rawConversion

Convert to or from Raw Vectors

Description

Conversion and manipulation of objects of type `"raw"`.

Usage

```

charToRaw(x)
rawToChar(x, multiple = FALSE)

rawShift(x, n)

rawToBits(x)
intToBits(x)
packBits(x, type = c("raw", "integer"))

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	object to be converted or shifted.
<code>multiple</code>	logical: should the conversion be to a single character string or multiple individual characters?
<code>n</code>	the number of bits to shift. Positive numbers shift right and negative numbers shift left: allowed values are <code>-8 ... 8</code> .
<code>type</code>	the result type, partially matched.

Details

`packBits` accepts raw, integer or logical inputs, the last two without any NAs.

Note that ‘bytes’ are not necessarily the same as characters, e.g. in UTF-8 locales.

Value

`charToRaw` converts a length-one character string to raw bytes. It does so without taking into account any declared encoding (see [Encoding](#)).

`rawToChar` converts raw bytes either to a single character string or a character vector of single bytes (with `""` for `0`). (Note that a single character string could contain embedded nuls; only trailing nuls are allowed and will be removed.) In either case it is possible to create a result which is invalid in a multibyte locale, e.g. one using UTF-8. [Long vectors](#) are allowed if `multiple` is true.

`rawShift(x, n)` shift the bits in `x` by `n` positions to the right, see the argument `n`, above.

`rawToBits` returns a raw vector of 8 times the length of a raw vector with entries 0 or 1. `intToBits` returns a raw vector of 32 times the length of an integer vector with entries 0 or 1. (Non-integral numeric values are truncated to integers.) In both cases the unpacking is least-significant bit first.

`packBits` packs its input (using only the lowest bit for raw or integer vectors) least-significant bit first to a raw or integer vector.

Examples

```

x <- "A test string"
(y <- charToRaw(x))
is.vector(y) # TRUE

rawToChar(y)
rawToChar(y, multiple = TRUE)

```

```

(xx <- c(y, charToRaw("&"), charToRaw("more")))
rawToChar(xx)

rawShift(y, 1)
rawShift(y, -2)

rawToBits(y)

showBits <- function(r) stats::symnum(as.logical(rawToBits(r)))

z <- as.raw(5)
z ; showBits(z)
showBits(rawShift(z, 1)) # shift to right
showBits(rawShift(z, 2))
showBits(z)
showBits(rawShift(z, -1)) # shift to left
showBits(rawShift(z, -2)) # ..
showBits(rawShift(z, -3)) # shifted off entirely

```

RdUtils

Utilities for Processing Rd Files

Description

Utilities for converting files in R documentation (Rd) format to other formats or create indices from them, and for converting documentation in other formats to Rd format.

Usage

```

R CMD Rdconv [options] file
R CMD Rd2pdf [options] files

```

Arguments

file	the path to a file to be processed.
files	a list of file names specifying the R documentation sources to use, by either giving the paths to the files, or the path to a directory with the sources of a package.
options	further options to control the processing, or for obtaining information about usage and version of the utility.

Details

R CMD Rdconv converts Rd format to plain text, HTML or LaTeX formats: it can also extract the examples.

R CMD Rd2pdf is the user-level program for producing PDF output from Rd sources. It will make use of the environment variables R_PAPERSIZE (set by R CMD, with a default set when R was installed: values for R_PAPERSIZE are a4, letter, legal and executive) and R_PDFVIEWER (the PDF

viewer). Also, RD2PDF_INPUTENC can be set to inputenc to make use of the LaTeX package of that name rather than inputenc: this might be needed for better support of the UTF-8 encoding.

R CMD Rd2pdf calls `tools::texi2pdf` to produce its PDF file: see its help for the possibilities for the `texi2dvi` command which that function uses (and which can be overridden by setting environment variable `R_TEXI2DVICMD`).

Use `R CMD foo --help` to obtain usage information on utility *foo*.

See Also

The chapter “Processing Rd format” in the “Writing R Extensions” manual.

readBin	<i>Transfer Binary Data To and From Connections</i>
---------	---

Description

Read binary data from or write binary data to a connection or raw vector.

Usage

```
readBin(con, what, n = 1L, size = NA_integer_, signed = TRUE,
        endian = .Platform$endian)
```

```
writeBin(object, con, size = NA_integer_,
         endian = .Platform$endian, useBytes = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>con</code>	A connection object or a character string naming a file or a raw vector.
<code>what</code>	Either an object whose mode will give the mode of the vector to be read, or a character vector of length one describing the mode: one of "numeric", "double", "integer", "int", "logical", "complex", "character", "raw".
<code>n</code>	integer. The (maximal) number of records to be read. You can use an overestimate here, but not too large as storage is reserved for <code>n</code> items.
<code>size</code>	integer. The number of bytes per element in the byte stream. The default, <code>NA_integer_</code> , uses the natural size. Size changing is not supported for raw and complex vectors.
<code>signed</code>	logical. Only used for integers of sizes 1 and 2, when it determines if the quantity on file should be regarded as a signed or unsigned integer.
<code>endian</code>	The endian-ness ("big" or "little") of the target system for the file. Using "swap" will force swapping endian-ness.
<code>object</code>	An R object to be written to the connection.
<code>useBytes</code>	See writeLines .

Details

These functions are intended to be used with binary-mode connections. If `con` is a character string, the functions call `file` to obtain a binary-mode file connection which is opened for the duration of the function call.

If the connection is open it is read/written from its current position. If it is not open, it is opened for the duration of the call in an appropriate mode (binary read or write) and then closed again. An open connection must be in binary mode.

If `readBin` is called with `con` a raw vector, the data in the vector is used as input. If `writeBin` is called with `con` a raw vector, it is just an indication that a raw vector should be returned.

If `size` is specified and not the natural size of the object, each element of the vector is coerced to an appropriate type before being written or as it is read. Possible sizes are 1, 2, 4 and possibly 8 for integer or logical vectors, and 4, 8 and possibly 12/16 for numeric vectors. (Note that coercion occurs as signed types except if `signed = FALSE` when reading integers of sizes 1 and 2.) Changing sizes is unlikely to preserve NAs, and the extended precision sizes are unlikely to be portable across platforms.

`readBin` and `writeBin` read and write C-style zero-terminated character strings. Input strings are limited to 10000 characters. `readChar` and `writeChar` can be used to read and write fixed-length strings. No check is made that the string is valid in the current locale's encoding.

Handling R's missing and special (Inf, -Inf and NaN) values is discussed in the 'R Data Import/Export' manual.

Only $2^{31} - 1$ bytes can be written in a single call (and that is the maximum capacity of a raw vector on 32-bit platforms).

'Endian-ness' is relevant for `size > 1`, and should always be set for portable code (the default is only appropriate when writing and then reading files on the same platform).

Value

For `readBin`, a vector of appropriate mode and length the number of items read (which might be less than `n`).

For `writeBin`, a raw vector (if `con` is a raw vector) or invisibly NULL.

Note

Integer read/writes of size 8 will be available if either C type `long` is of size 8 bytes or C type `long long` exists and is of size 8 bytes.

Real read/writes of size `sizeof(long double)` (usually 12 or 16 bytes) will be available only if that type is available and different from `double`.

If `readBin(what = character())` is used incorrectly on a file which does not contain C-style character strings, warnings (usually many) are given. From a file or connection, the input will be broken into pieces of length 10000 with any final part being discarded.

Using these functions on a text-mode connection may work but should not be mixed with text-mode access to the connection, especially if the connection was opened with an encoding argument.

See Also

The ‘R Data Import/Export’ manual.

`readChar` to read/write fixed-length strings.

[connections](#), [readLines](#), [writeLines](#).

`.Machine` for the sizes of long, long long and long double.

Examples

```
zz <- file("testbin", "wb")
writeBin(1:10, zz)
writeBin(pi, zz, endian = "swap")
writeBin(pi, zz, size = 4)
writeBin(pi^2, zz, size = 4, endian = "swap")
writeBin(pi+3i, zz)
writeBin("A test of a connection", zz)
z <- paste("A very long string", 1:100, collapse = " + ")
writeBin(z, zz)
if(.Machine$sizeof.long == 8 || .Machine$sizeof.longlong == 8)
  writeBin(as.integer(5^(1:10)), zz, size = 8)
if((s <- .Machine$sizeof.longdouble) > 8)
  writeBin((pi/3)^(1:10), zz, size = s)
close(zz)

zz <- file("testbin", "rb")
readBin(zz, integer(), 4)
readBin(zz, integer(), 6)
readBin(zz, numeric(), 1, endian = "swap")
readBin(zz, numeric(), size = 4)
readBin(zz, numeric(), size = 4, endian = "swap")
readBin(zz, complex(), 1)
readBin(zz, character(), 1)
z2 <- readBin(zz, character(), 1)
if(.Machine$sizeof.long == 8 || .Machine$sizeof.longlong == 8)
  readBin(zz, integer(), 10, size = 8)
if((s <- .Machine$sizeof.longdouble) > 8)
  readBin(zz, numeric(), 10, size = s)
close(zz)
unlink("testbin")
stopifnot(z2 == z)

## signed vs unsigned ints
zz <- file("testbin", "wb")
x <- as.integer(seq(0, 255, 32))
writeBin(x, zz, size = 1)
writeBin(x, zz, size = 1)
x <- as.integer(seq(0, 60000, 10000))
writeBin(x, zz, size = 2)
writeBin(x, zz, size = 2)
close(zz)
zz <- file("testbin", "rb")
readBin(zz, integer(), 8, size = 1)
```

```

readBin(zz, integer(), 8, size = 1, signed = FALSE)
readBin(zz, integer(), 7, size = 2)
readBin(zz, integer(), 7, size = 2, signed = FALSE)
close(zz)
unlink("testbin")

## use of raw
z <- writeBin(pi^[1:5], raw(), size = 4)
readBin(z, numeric(), 5, size = 4)
z <- writeBin(c("a", "test", "of", "character"), raw())
readBin(z, character(), 4)

```

readChar

*Transfer Character Strings To and From Connections***Description**

Transfer character strings to and from connections, without assuming they are null-terminated on the connection.

Usage

```

readChar(con, nchars, useBytes = FALSE)

writeChar(object, con, nchars = nchar(object, type = "chars"),
          eos = "", useBytes = FALSE)

```

Arguments

con	A connection object, or a character string naming a file, or a raw vector.
nchars	integer vector, giving the lengths in characters of (unterminated) character strings to be read or written. Elements must be ≥ 0 and not NA.
useBytes	logical: For readChar, should nchars be regarded as a number of bytes not characters in a multi-byte locale? For writeChar, see writelines .
object	A character vector to be written to the connection, at least as long as nchars.
eos	‘end of string’: character string . The terminator to be written after each string, followed by an ASCII nul; use NULL for no terminator at all.

Details

These functions complement [readBin](#) and [writeBin](#) which read and write C-style zero-terminated character strings. They are for strings of known length, and can optionally write an end-of-string mark. They are intended only for character strings valid in the current locale.

These functions are intended to be used with binary-mode connections. If con is a character string, the functions call [file](#) to obtain a binary-mode file connection which is opened for the duration of the function call.

If the connection is open it is read/written from its current position. If it is not open, it is opened for the duration of the call in an appropriate mode (binary read or write) and then closed again. An open connection must be in binary mode.

If readChar is called with con a raw vector, the data in the vector is used as input. If writeChar is called with con a raw vector, it is just an indication that a raw vector should be returned.

Character strings containing ASCII nul(s) will be read correctly by readChar but truncated at the first nul with a warning.

If the character length requested for readChar is longer than the data available on the connection, what is available is returned. For writeChar if too many characters are requested the output is zero-padded, with a warning.

Missing strings are written as NA.

Value

For readChar, a character vector of length the number of items read (which might be less than length(nchars)).

For writeChar, a raw vector (if con is a raw vector) or invisibly NULL.

Note

Earlier versions of R allowed embedded nul bytes within character strings, but not R \geq 2.8.0. readChar was commonly used to read fixed-size zero-padded byte fields for which readBin was unsuitable. readChar can still be used for such fields if there are no embedded nuls: otherwise readBin(what = "raw") provides an alternative.

nchars will be interpreted in bytes not characters in a non-UTF-8 multi-byte locale, with a warning.

There is little validity checking of UTF-8 reads.

Using these functions on a text-mode connection may work but should not be mixed with text-mode access to the connection, especially if the connection was opened with an encoding argument.

See Also

The ‘R Data Import/Export’ manual.

[connections](#), [readLines](#), [writeLines](#), [readBin](#)

Examples

```
## test fixed-length strings
zz <- file("testchar", "wb")
x <- c("a", "this will be truncated", "abc")
nc <- c(3, 10, 3)
writeChar(x, zz, nc, eos = NULL)
writeChar(x, zz, eos = "\r\n")
close(zz)

zz <- file("testchar", "rb")
readChar(zz, nc)
readChar(zz, nchar(x)+3) # need to read the terminator explicitly
```



```
close(zz)
unlink("testchar")
```

readline

Read a Line from the Terminal

Description

readline reads a line from the terminal (in interactive use).

Usage

```
readline(prompt = "")
```

Arguments

prompt	the string printed when prompting the user for input. Should usually end with a space " ".
--------	--

Details

The prompt string will be truncated to a maximum allowed length, normally 256 chars (but can be changed in the source code).

This can only be used in an [interactive](#) session.

Value

A character vector of length one. Both leading and trailing spaces and tabs are stripped from the result.

In non-[interactive](#) use the result is as if the response was RETURN and the value is "".

See Also

[readLines](#) for reading text lines from connections, including files.

Examples

```
fun <- function() {
  ANSWER <- readline("Are you a satisfied R user? ")
  ## a better version would check the answer less cursorily, and
  ## perhaps re-prompt
  if (substr(ANSWER, 1, 1) == "n")
    cat("This is impossible. YOU LIED!\n")
  else
    cat("I knew it.\n")
}
if(interactive()) fun()
```

readLines

*Read Text Lines from a Connection***Description**

Read some or all text lines from a connection.

Usage

```
readLines(con = stdin(), n = -1L, ok = TRUE, warn = TRUE,
          encoding = "unknown", skipNul = FALSE)
```

Arguments

con	a connection object or a character string.
n	integer. The (maximal) number of lines to read. Negative values indicate that one should read up to the end of input on the connection.
ok	logical. Is it OK to reach the end of the connection before $n > 0$ lines are read? If not, an error will be generated.
warn	logical. Warn if a text file is missing a final EOL or if there are embedded nuls in the file.
encoding	encoding to be assumed for input strings. It is used to mark character strings as known to be in Latin-1 or UTF-8: it is not used to re-encode the input. To do the latter, specify the encoding as part of the connection con or via options (encoding=): see the examples.
skipNul	logical: should nuls be skipped?

Details

If the con is a character string, the function calls [file](#) to obtain a file connection which is opened for the duration of the function call. This can be a compressed file.

If the connection is open it is read from its current position. If it is not open, it is opened in "rt" mode for the duration of the call and then closed again.

If the final line is incomplete (no final EOL marker) the behaviour depends on whether the connection is blocking or not. For a non-blocking text-mode connection the incomplete line is pushed back, silently. For all other connections the line will be accepted, with a warning.

Whatever mode the connection is opened in, any of LF, CRLF or CR will be accepted as the EOL marker for a line.

Embedded nuls in the input stream will terminate the line currently being read, with a warning (unless skipNul = TRUE or warn = FALSE).

If con is a not-already-open [connection](#) with a non-default encoding argument, the text is converted to UTF-8 and declared as such (and the encoding argument to readLines is ignored). See the examples.

Value

A character vector of length the number of lines read.

The elements of the result have a declared encoding if encoding is "latin1" or "UTF-8",

Note

The default connection, `stdin`, may be different from `con = "stdin"`: see [file](#).

See Also

[connections](#), [writeLines](#), [readBin](#), [scan](#)

Examples

```
cat("TITLE extra line", "2 3 5 7", "", "11 13 17", file = "ex.data",
    sep = "\n")
readLines("ex.data", n = -1)
unlink("ex.data") # tidy up

## difference in blocking
cat("123\nabc", file = "test1")
readLines("test1") # line with a warning

con <- file("test1", "r", blocking = FALSE)
readLines(con) # empty
cat(" def\n", file = "test1", append = TRUE)
readLines(con) # gets both
close(con)

unlink("test1") # tidy up

## Not run:
# read a 'Windows Unicode' file
A <- readLines(con <- file("Unicode.txt", encoding = "UCS-2LE"))
close(con)
unique(Encoding(A)) # will most likely be UTF-8

## End(Not run)
```

readRDS

Serialization Interface for Single Objects

Description

Functions to write a single R object to a file, and to restore it.

Usage

```
saveRDS(object, file = "", ascii = FALSE, version = NULL,  
        compress = TRUE, refhook = NULL)  
  
readRDS(file, refhook = NULL)
```

Arguments

object	R object to serialize.
file	a connection or the name of the file where the R object is saved to or read from.
ascii	a logical. If TRUE or NA, an ASCII representation is written; otherwise (default), a binary one is used. See the comments in the help for save .
version	the workspace format version to use. NULL specifies the current default version (2). Versions prior to 2 are not supported, so this will only be relevant when there are later versions.
compress	a logical specifying whether saving to a named file is to use "gzip" compression, or one of "gzip", "bzip2" or "xz" to indicate the type of compression to be used. Ignored if file is a connection.
refhook	a hook function for handling reference objects.

Details

These functions provide the means to save a single R object to a connection (typically a file) and to restore the object, quite possibly under a different name. This differs from [save](#) and [load](#), which save and restore one or more named objects into an environment. They are widely used by R itself, for example to store metadata for a package and to store the [help.search](#) databases: the ".rds" file extension is most often used.

Functions [serialize](#) and [unserialize](#) provide a slightly lower-level interface to serialization: objects serialized to a connection by [serialize](#) can be read back by [readRDS](#) and conversely.

All of these interfaces use the same serialization format, which has been used since R 1.4.0 (but extended from time to time as new object types have been added to R). However, [save](#) writes a single line header (typically "RDxs\n") before the serialization of a single object (a pairlist of all the objects to be saved).

Compression is handled by the connection opened when file is a file name, so is only possible when file is a connection if handled by the connection. So e.g. [url](#) connections will need to be wrapped in a call to [gzcon](#).

If a connection is supplied it will be opened (in binary mode) for the duration of the function if not already open: if it is already open it must be in binary mode for [saveRDS](#)(ascii = FALSE) or to read non-ASCII saves.

Value

For [readRDS](#), an R object.

For [saveRDS](#), NULL invisibly.

See Also

[serialize](#), [save](#) and [load](#).

The ‘R Internals’ manual for details of the format used.

Examples

```
## save a single object to file
saveRDS(women, "women.rds")
## restore it under a different name
women2 <- readRDS("women.rds")
identical(women, women2)
## or examine the object via a connection, which will be opened as needed.
con <- gzfile("women.rds")
readRDS(con)
close(con)

## Less convenient ways to restore the object
## which demonstrate compatibility with unserialize()
con <- gzfile("women.rds", "rb")
identical(unserialize(con), women)
close(con)
con <- gzfile("women.rds", "rb")
wm <- readBin(con, "raw", n = 1e4) # size is a guess
close(con)
identical(unserialize(wm), women)

## Format compatibility with serialize():
con <- file("women2", "w")
serialize(women, con) # ASCII, uncompressed
close(con)
identical(women, readRDS("women2"))
con <- bzfile("women3", "w")
serialize(women, con) # binary, bzip2-compressed
close(con)
identical(women, readRDS("women2"))
```

readRenviron

Set Environment Variables from a File

Description

Read as file such as ‘.Renviron’ or ‘Renviron.site’ in the format described in the help for [Startup](#), and set environment variables as defined in the file.

Usage

```
readRenviron(path)
```

Arguments

`path` A length-one character vector giving the path to the file. Tilde-expansion is performed where supported.

Value

Scalar logical indicating if the file was read successfully. Returned invisibly. If the file cannot be opened for reading, a warning is given.

See Also

[Startup](#) for the file format.

Examples

```
## Not run:  
## re-read a startup file (or read it in a vanilla session)  
readRenviroN("~/RenviroN")  
  
## End(Not run)
```

Recall

Recursive Calling

Description

Recall is used as a placeholder for the name of the function in which it is called. It allows the definition of recursive functions which still work after being renamed, see example below.

Usage

```
Recall(...)
```

Arguments

`...` all the arguments to be passed.

Note

Recall will not work correctly when passed as a function argument, e.g. to the `apply` family of functions.

See Also

[do.call](#) and [call](#).

[local](#) for another way to write anonymous recursive functions.

Examples

```
## A trivial (but inefficient!) example:
fib <- function(n)
  if(n<=2) { if(n>=0) 1 else 0 } else Recall(n-1) + Recall(n-2)
fibonacci <- fib; rm(fib)
## renaming wouldn't work without Recall
fibonacci(10) # 55
```

reg.finalizer

Finalization of Objects

Description

Registers an R function to be called upon garbage collection of object or (optionally) at the end of an R session.

Usage

```
reg.finalizer(e, f, onexit = FALSE)
```

Arguments

e	Object to finalize. Must be an environment or an external pointer.
f	Function to call on finalization. Must accept a single argument, which will be the object to finalize.
onexit	logical: should the finalizer be run if the object is still uncollected at the end of the R session?

Details

The main purpose of this function is to allow objects that refer to external items (a temporary file, say) to perform cleanup actions when they are no longer referenced from within R. This only makes sense for objects that are never copied on assignment, hence the restriction to environments and external pointers.

Inter alia, it provides a way to program code to be run at the end of an R session without manipulating `.Last`. For use in a package, it is often a good idea to set a finalizer on an object in the namespace: then it will be called at the end of the session, or soon after the namespace is unloaded if that is done during the session.

Value

NULL.

Note

R's interpreter is not re-entrant and the finalizer could be run in the middle of a computation. So there are many functions which it is potentially unsafe to call from `f`: one example which caused trouble is [options](#). As from R 3.0.3 finalizers are scheduled at garbage collection but only run at a relatively safe time thereafter.

See Also

[gc](#) and [Memory](#) for garbage collection and memory management.

Examples

```
f <- function(e) print("cleaning...")
g <- function(x){ e <- environment(); reg.finalizer(e, f) }
g()
invisible(gc()) # trigger cleanup
```

 regex

Regular Expressions as used in R

Description

This help page documents the regular expression patterns supported by [grep](#) and related functions `grepl`, `regexpr`, `gregexpr`, `sub` and `gsub`, as well as by [strsplit](#).

Details

A ‘regular expression’ is a pattern that describes a set of strings. Two types of regular expressions are used in R, *extended* regular expressions (the default) and *Perl-like* regular expressions used by `perl = TRUE`. There is also `fixed = TRUE` which can be considered to use a *literal* regular expression.

Other functions which use regular expressions (often via the use of `grep`) include `apropos`, `browseEnv`, `help.search`, `list.files` and `ls`. These will all use *extended* regular expressions.

Patterns are described here as they would be printed by `cat`: (*do remember that backslashes need to be doubled when entering R character strings*, e.g. from the keyboard).

Long regular expressions may or may not be accepted: the POSIX standard only requires up to 256 *bytes*.

Extended Regular Expressions

This section covers the regular expressions allowed in the default mode of `grep`, `regexpr`, `gregexpr`, `sub`, `gsub` and `strsplit`. They use an implementation of the POSIX 1003.2 standard: that allows some scope for interpretation and the interpretations here are those currently used by R. The implementation supports some extensions to the standard.

Regular expressions are constructed analogously to arithmetic expressions, by using various operators to combine smaller expressions. The whole expression matches zero or more characters (read ‘character’ as ‘byte’ if `useBytes = TRUE`).

The fundamental building blocks are the regular expressions that match a single character. Most characters, including all letters and digits, are regular expressions that match themselves. Any metacharacter with special meaning may be quoted by preceding it with a backslash. The metacharacters in extended regular expressions are `., \ | () [{ ^ $ * + ?`, but note that whether these have a special meaning depends on the context.

Escaping non-metacharacters with a backslash is implementation-dependent. The current implementation interprets `\a` as ‘BEL’, `\e` as ‘ESC’, `\f` as ‘FF’, `\n` as ‘LF’, `\r` as ‘CR’ and `\t` as ‘TAB’. (Note that these will be interpreted by R’s parser in literal character strings.)

A *character class* is a list of characters enclosed between `[` and `]` which matches any single character in that list; unless the first character of the list is the caret `^`, when it matches any character *not* in the list. For example, the regular expression `[0123456789]` matches any single digit, and `[^abc]` matches anything except the characters ‘a’, ‘b’ or ‘c’. A range of characters may be specified by giving the first and last characters, separated by a hyphen. (Because their interpretation is locale- and implementation-dependent, character ranges are best avoided.) The only portable way to specify all ASCII letters is to list them all as the character class `[ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZabcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz]`.

(The current implementation uses numerical order of the encoding.)

Certain named classes of characters are predefined. Their interpretation depends on the *locale* (see [locales](#)); the interpretation below is that of the POSIX locale.

`[[:alnum:]]` Alphanumeric characters: `[[:alpha:]]` and `[[:digit:]]`.

`[[:alpha:]]` Alphabetic characters: `[[:lower:]]` and `[[:upper:]]`.

`[[:blank:]]` Blank characters: space and tab, and possibly other locale-dependent characters such as non-breaking space.

`[[:cntrl:]]` Control characters. In ASCII, these characters have octal codes 000 through 037, and 177 (DEL). In another character set, these are the equivalent characters, if any.

`[[:digit:]]` Digits: ‘0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9’.

`[[:graph:]]` Graphical characters: `[[:alnum:]]` and `[[:punct:]]`.

`[[:lower:]]` Lower-case letters in the current locale.

`[[:print:]]` Printable characters: `[[:alnum:]]`, `[[:punct:]]` and space.

`[[:punct:]]` Punctuation characters:

‘! " # \$ % & ' () * + , - . / : ; < = > ? @ [\] ^ _ ` { | } ~’.

`[[:space:]]` Space characters: tab, newline, vertical tab, form feed, carriage return, space and possibly other locale-dependent characters.

`[[:upper:]]` Upper-case letters in the current locale.

`[[:xdigit:]]` Hexadecimal digits:

‘0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F a b c d e f’.

For example, `[[:alnum:]]` means `[0-9A-Za-z]`, except the latter depends upon the locale and the character encoding, whereas the former is independent of locale and character set. (Note that the brackets in these class names are part of the symbolic names, and must be included in addition to the brackets delimiting the bracket list.) Most metacharacters lose their special meaning inside a character class. To include a literal `]`, place it first in the list. Similarly, to include a literal `^`, place it anywhere but first. Finally, to include a literal `-`, place it first or last (or, for `perl = TRUE` only, precede it by a backslash). (Only `^ - \]` are special inside character classes.)

The period `'.'` matches any single character. The symbol `'\w'` matches a ‘word’ character (a synonym for `'[[:alnum:]_]'`, an extension) and `'\W'` is its negation (`'[^ :alnum:]_]'`). Symbols `'\d'`, `'\s'`, `'\D'` and `'\S'` denote the digit and space classes and their negations (these are all extensions).

The caret `'^'` and the dollar sign `'$'` are metacharacters that respectively match the empty string at the beginning and end of a line. The symbols `'\<'` and `'\>'` match the empty string at the beginning and end of a word. The symbol `'\b'` matches the empty string at either edge of a word, and `'\B'` matches the empty string provided it is not at an edge of a word. (The interpretation of ‘word’ depends on the locale and implementation: these are all extensions.)

A regular expression may be followed by one of several repetition quantifiers:

`'?'` The preceding item is optional and will be matched at most once.

`'*'` The preceding item will be matched zero or more times.

`'+'` The preceding item will be matched one or more times.

`'{n}'` The preceding item is matched exactly *n* times.

`'{n,}'` The preceding item is matched *n* or more times.

`'{n,m}'` The preceding item is matched at least *n* times, but not more than *m* times.

By default repetition is greedy, so the maximal possible number of repeats is used. This can be changed to ‘minimal’ by appending `'?'` to the quantifier. (There are further quantifiers that allow approximate matching: see the TRE documentation.)

Regular expressions may be concatenated; the resulting regular expression matches any string formed by concatenating the substrings that match the concatenated subexpressions.

Two regular expressions may be joined by the infix operator `'|'`; the resulting regular expression matches any string matching either subexpression. For example, `'abba|cde'` matches either the string `abba` or the string `cde`. Note that alternation does not work inside character classes, where `'|'` has its literal meaning.

Repetition takes precedence over concatenation, which in turn takes precedence over alternation. A whole subexpression may be enclosed in parentheses to override these precedence rules.

The backreference `'\N'`, where `'N = 1 . . . 9'`, matches the substring previously matched by the *N*th parenthesized subexpression of the regular expression. (This is an extension for extended regular expressions: POSIX defines them only for basic ones.)

Perl-like Regular Expressions

The `perl = TRUE` argument to `grep`, `regexr`, `gregexpr`, `sub`, `gsub` and `strsplit` switches to the PCRE library that implements regular expression pattern matching using the same syntax and semantics as Perl 5.x, with just a few differences.

For complete details please consult the man pages for PCRE (and not PCRE2), especially `man pcrepattern` and `man pcreapi`, on your system or from the sources at <http://www.pcre.org>. If PCRE support was compiled from the sources within R (the default), the PCRE version is 8.37 as described here. (The version in use can be found by calling `extSoftVersion`.)

Perl regular expressions can be computed byte-by-byte or (UTF-8) character-by-character: the latter is used in all multibyte locales and if any of the inputs are marked as UTF-8 (see [Encoding](#)).

All the regular expressions described for extended regular expressions are accepted except `'\<'` and `'\>'`: in Perl all backslashed metacharacters are alphanumeric and backslashed symbols always are

interpreted as a literal character. ‘{’ is not special if it would be the start of an invalid interval specification. There can be more than 9 backreferences (but the replacement in [sub](#) can only refer to the first 9).

Character ranges are interpreted in the numerical order of the characters, either as bytes in a single-byte locale or as Unicode code points in UTF-8 mode. So in either case ‘[A-Za-z]’ specifies the set of ASCII letters.

In UTF-8 mode the named character classes only match ASCII characters: see ‘\p’ below for an alternative.

The construct ‘(?...)’ is used for Perl extensions in a variety of ways depending on what immediately follows the ‘?’.

Perl-like matching can work in several modes, set by the options ‘(?i)’ (caseless, equivalent to Perl’s ‘/i’), ‘(?m)’ (multiline, equivalent to Perl’s ‘/m’), ‘(?s)’ (single line, so a dot matches all characters, even new lines: equivalent to Perl’s ‘/s’) and ‘(?x)’ (extended, whitespace data characters are ignored unless escaped and comments are allowed: equivalent to Perl’s ‘/x’). These can be concatenated, so for example, ‘(?im)’ sets caseless multiline matching. It is also possible to unset these options by preceding the letter with a hyphen, and to combine setting and unsetting such as ‘(?im-sx)’. These settings can be applied within patterns, and then apply to the remainder of the pattern. Additional options not in Perl include ‘(?U)’ to set ‘ungreedy’ mode (so matching is minimal unless ‘?’ is used as part of the repetition quantifier, when it is greedy). Initially none of these options are set.

If you want to remove the special meaning from a sequence of characters, you can do so by putting them between ‘\Q’ and ‘\E’. This is different from Perl in that ‘\$’ and ‘@’ are handled as literals in ‘\Q... \E’ sequences in PCRE, whereas in Perl, ‘\$’ and ‘@’ cause variable interpolation.

The escape sequences ‘\d’, ‘\s’ and ‘\w’ represent any decimal digit, space character and ‘word’ character (letter, digit or underscore in the current locale: in UTF-8 mode only ASCII letters and digits are considered) respectively, and their upper-case versions represent their negation. Vertical tab was not regarded as a space character in a C locale before PCRE 8.34 (included in R 3.0.3). Sequences ‘\h’, ‘\v’, ‘\H’ and ‘\V’ match horizontal and vertical space or the negation. (In UTF-8 mode, these do match non-ASCII Unicode code points.)

There are additional escape sequences: ‘\cx’ is ‘cntrl-x’ for any ‘x’, ‘\ddd’ is the octal character (for up to three digits unless interpretable as a backreference, as ‘\1’ to ‘\7’ always are), and ‘\xhh’ specifies a character by two hex digits. In a UTF-8 locale, ‘\x{h...}’ specifies a Unicode code point by one or more hex digits. (Note that some of these will be interpreted by R’s parser in literal character strings.)

Outside a character class, ‘\A’ matches at the start of a subject (even in multiline mode, unlike ‘^’), ‘\Z’ matches at the end of a subject or before a newline at the end, ‘\z’ matches only at end of a subject. and ‘\G’ matches at first matching position in a subject (which is subtly different from Perl’s end of the previous match). ‘\C’ matches a single byte, including a newline, but its use is warned against. In UTF-8 mode, ‘\R’ matches any Unicode newline character (not just CR), and ‘\X’ matches any number of Unicode characters that form an extended Unicode sequence.

In UTF-8 mode, some Unicode properties may be supported via ‘\p{xx}’ and ‘\P{xx}’ which match characters with and without property ‘xx’ respectively. For a list of supported properties see the PCRE documentation, but for example ‘Lu’ is ‘upper case letter’ and ‘Sc’ is ‘currency symbol’. (This support depends on the PCRE library being compiled with ‘Unicode property support’: an external library might not be. It can be checked *via* [pcre_config](#).)

The sequence ‘(?’ marks the start of a comment which continues up to the next closing parenthesis. Nested parentheses are not permitted. The characters that make up a comment play no part at all in the pattern matching.

If the extended option is set, an unescaped ‘#’ character outside a character class introduces a comment that continues up to the next newline character in the pattern.

The pattern ‘(?:...)’ groups characters just as parentheses do but does not make a backreference.

Patterns ‘(?=...)’ and ‘(?!...)’ are zero-width positive and negative lookahead *assertions*: they match if an attempt to match the ... forward from the current position would succeed (or not), but use up no characters in the string being processed. Patterns ‘(?<=...)’ and ‘(?<!...)’ are the lookbehind equivalents: they do not allow repetition quantifiers nor ‘\C’ in ...

regexpr and gregexpr support ‘named capture’. If groups are named, e.g., “(?<first>[A-Z][a-z]+)” then the positions of the matches are also returned by name. (Named backreferences are not supported by sub.)

Atomic grouping, possessive qualifiers and conditional and recursive patterns are not covered here.

Author(s)

This help page is based on the TRE documentation and the POSIX standard, and the pcrepattern man page from PCRE 8.36.

See Also

[grep](#), [apropos](#), [browseEnv](#), [glob2rx](#), [help.search](#), [list.files](#), [ls](#) and [strsplit](#).

The TRE documentation at <http://laurikari.net/tre/documentation/regex-syntax/>.

The POSIX 1003.2 standard at http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/basedefs/V1_chap09.html

The pcrepattern man page (found as part of <http://www.pcre.org/original/pcre.txt>), and details of Perl’s own implementation at <http://perldoc.perl.org/perlre.html>.

regmatches

Extract or Replace Matched Substrings

Description

Extract or replace matched substrings from match data obtained by [regexpr](#), [gregexpr](#) or [regexec](#).

Usage

```
regmatches(x, m, invert = FALSE)
regmatches(x, m, invert = FALSE) <- value
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a character vector
<code>m</code>	an object with match data
<code>invert</code>	a logical: if TRUE, extract or replace the non-matched substrings.
<code>value</code>	an object with suitable replacement values for the matched or non-matched substrings (see Details).

Details

If `invert` is FALSE (default), `regmatches` extracts the matched substrings as specified by the match data. For vector match data (as obtained from [regexpr](#)), empty matches are dropped; for list match data, empty matches give empty components (zero-length character vectors).

If `invert` is TRUE, `regmatches` extracts the non-matched substrings, i.e., the strings are split according to the matches similar to [strsplit](#) (for vector match data, at most a single split is performed).

Note that the match data can be obtained from regular expression matching on a modified version of `x` with the same numbers of characters.

The replacement function can be used for replacing the matched or non-matched substrings. For vector match data, if `invert` is FALSE, `value` should be a character vector with length the number of matched elements in `m`. Otherwise, it should be a list of character vectors with the same length as `m`, each as long as the number of replacements needed. Replacement coerces values to character or list and generously recycles values as needed. Missing replacement values are not allowed.

Value

For `regmatches`, a character vector with the matched substrings if `m` is a vector and `invert` is FALSE. Otherwise, a list with the matched or non-matched substrings.

For `regmatches<-`, the updated character vector.

Examples

```
x <- c("A and B", "A, B and C", "A, B, C and D", "foobar")
pattern <- "[[:space:]]*(,|and)[[:space:]]"
## Match data from regexpr()
m <- regexpr(pattern, x)
regmatches(x, m)
regmatches(x, m, invert = TRUE)
## Match data from gregexpr()
m <- gregexpr(pattern, x)
regmatches(x, m)
regmatches(x, m, invert = TRUE)

## Consider
x <- "John (fishing, hunting), Paul (hiking, biking)"
## Suppose we want to split at the comma (plus spaces) between the
## persons, but not at the commas in the parenthesized hobby lists.
## One idea is to "blank out" the parenthesized parts to match the
## parts to be used for splitting, and extract the persons as the
## non-matched parts.
```

```
## First, match the parenthesized hobby lists.
m <- gregexpr("\\([^\)]*\)", x)
## Write a little utility for creating blank strings with given numbers
## of characters.
blanks <- function(n) {
  vapply(Map(rep.int, rep.int(" ", length(n))), n, USE.NAMES = FALSE),
    paste, "", collapse = "")
}
## Create a copy of x with the parenthesized parts blanked out.
s <- x
regmatches(s, m) <- Map(blanks, lapply(regmatches(s, m), nchar))
s
## Compute the positions of the split matches (note that we cannot call
## strsplit() on x with match data from s).
m <- gregexpr(" ", s)
## And finally extract the non-matched parts.
regmatches(x, m, invert = TRUE)
```

remove

*Remove Objects from a Specified Environment***Description**

remove and rm can be used to remove objects. These can be specified successively as character strings, or in the character vector list, or through a combination of both. All objects thus specified will be removed.

If envir is NULL then the currently active environment is searched first.

If inherits is TRUE then parents of the supplied directory are searched until a variable with the given name is encountered. A warning is printed for each variable that is not found.

Usage

```
remove(..., list = character(), pos = -1,
        envir = as.environment(pos), inherits = FALSE)

rm      (... , list = character(), pos = -1,
        envir = as.environment(pos), inherits = FALSE)
```

Arguments

...	the objects to be removed, as names (unquoted) or character strings (quoted).
list	a character vector naming objects to be removed.
pos	where to do the removal. By default, uses the current environment. See ‘details’ for other possibilities.
envir	the environment to use. See ‘details’.
inherits	should the enclosing frames of the environment be inspected?

Details

The `pos` argument can specify the environment from which to remove the objects in any of several ways: as an integer (the position in the [search](#) list); as the character string name of an element in the search list; or as an [environment](#) (including using [sys.frame](#) to access the currently active function calls). The `envir` argument is an alternative way to specify an environment, but is primarily there for back compatibility.

It is not allowed to remove variables from the base environment and base namespace, nor from any environment which is locked (see [lockEnvironment](#)).

Earlier versions of R incorrectly claimed that supplying a character vector in `...` removed the objects named in the character vector, but it removed the character vector. Use the `list` argument to specify objects *via* a character vector.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[ls](#), [objects](#)

Examples

```
tmp <- 1:4
## work with tmp and cleanup
rm(tmp)

## Not run:
## remove (almost) everything in the working environment.
## You will get no warning, so don't do this unless you are really sure.
rm(list = ls())

## End(Not run)
```

 rep

Replicate Elements of Vectors and Lists

Description

`rep` replicates the values in `x`. It is a generic function, and the (internal) default method is described [here](#).

`rep.int` and `rep.len` are faster simplified versions for two common cases. They are not generic.

Usage

```
rep(x, ...)

rep.int(x, times)

rep_len(x, length.out)
```

Arguments

x	a vector (of any mode including a list) or a factor or (for rep only) a POSIXct or POSIXlt or Date object; or an S4 object containing such an object.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from other methods. For the internal default method these can include:
times	A integer vector giving the (non-negative) number of times to repeat each element if of length length(x), or to repeat the whole vector if of length 1. Negative or NA values are an error.
length.out	non-negative integer. The desired length of the output vector. Other inputs will be coerced to an integer vector and the first element taken. Ignored if NA or invalid.
each	non-negative integer. Each element of x is repeated each times. Other inputs will be coerced to an integer vector and the first element taken. Treated as 1 if NA or invalid.
times	see
length.out	non-negative integer: the desired length of the output vector.

Details

The default behaviour is as if the call was

```
rep(x, times = 1, length.out = NA, each = 1)
```

. Normally just one of the additional arguments is specified, but if each is specified with either of the other two, its replication is performed first, and then that implied by times or length.out.

If times consists of a single integer, the result consists of the whole input repeated this many times. If times is a vector of the same length as x (after replication by each), the result consists of x[1] repeated times[1] times, x[2] repeated times[2] times and so on.

length.out may be given in place of times, in which case x is repeated as many times as is necessary to create a vector of this length. If both are given, length.out takes priority and times is ignored.

Non-integer values of times will be truncated towards zero. If times is a computed quantity it is prudent to add a small fuzz or use [round](#). And analogously for each.

If x has length zero and length.out is supplied and is positive, the values are filled in using the extraction rules, that is by an NA of the appropriate class for an atomic vector (∅ for raw vectors) and NULL for a list.

Value

An object of the same type as `x`.

`rep.int` and `rep.len` return no attributes (except the class if returning a factor).

The default method of `rep` gives the result names (which will almost always contain duplicates) if `x` had names, but retains no other attributes.

Note

Function `rep.int` is a simple case which was provided as a separate function partly for S compatibility and partly for speed (especially when names can be dropped). The performance of `rep` has been improved since, but `rep.int` is still at least twice as fast when `x` has names.

The name `rep.int` long precedes making `rep` generic.

Function `rep` is a primitive, but (partial) matching of argument names is performed as for normal functions.

For historical reasons `rep` (only) works on `NULL`: the result is always `NULL` even when `length.out` is positive.

Although it has never been documented, these functions have always worked on [expression](#) vectors.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[seq](#), [sequence](#), [replicate](#).

Examples

```
rep(1:4, 2)
rep(1:4, each = 2)      # not the same.
rep(1:4, c(2,2,2,2))    # same as second.
rep(1:4, c(2,1,2,1))
rep(1:4, each = 2, len = 4)  # first 4 only.
rep(1:4, each = 2, len = 10) # 8 integers plus two recycled 1's.
rep(1:4, each = 2, times = 3) # length 24, 3 complete replications

rep(1, 40*(1-.8)) # length 7 on most platforms
rep(1, 40*(1-.8)+1e-7) # better

## replicate a list
fred <- list(happy = 1:10, name = "squash")
rep(fred, 5)

# date-time objects
x <- .leap.seconds[1:3]
rep(x, 2)
rep(as.POSIXlt(x), rep(2, 3))
```

```
## named factor
x <- factor(LETTERS[1:4]); names(x) <- letters[1:4]
x
rep(x, 2)
rep(x, each = 2)
rep.int(x, 2) # no names
rep_len(x, 10)
```

replace*Replace Values in a Vector*

Description

replace replaces the values in `x` with indices given in `list` by those given in `values`. If necessary, the values in `values` are recycled.

Usage

```
replace(x, list, values)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	vector
<code>list</code>	an index vector
<code>values</code>	replacement values

Value

A vector with the values replaced.

Note

`x` is unchanged: remember to assign the result.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Reserved

Reserved Words in R

Description

The reserved words in R's parser are

`if else repeat while function for in next break`

`TRUE FALSE NULL Inf NaN NA NA_integer_ NA_real_ NA_complex_ NA_character_`

`...` and `..1`, `..2` etc, which are used to refer to arguments passed down from a calling function. See the 'Introduction to R' manual for usage of these syntactic elements, and [dotsMethods](#) for their use in formal methods.

Details

Reserved words outside [quotes](#) are always parsed to be references to the objects linked to in the 'Description', and hence they are not allowed as syntactic names (see [make.names](#)). They **are** allowed as non-syntactic names, e.g. inside [backtick](#) quotes.

rev

Reverse Elements

Description

`rev` provides a reversed version of its argument. It is generic function with a default method for vectors and one for [dendrograms](#).

Note that this is no longer needed (nor efficient) for obtaining vectors sorted into descending order, since that is now rather more directly achievable by [sort](#)(`x`, `decreasing` = `TRUE`).

Usage

```
rev(x)
```

Arguments

`x` a vector or another object for which reversal is defined.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[seq](#), [sort](#).

Examples

```
x <- c(1:5, 5:3)
## sort into descending order; first more efficiently:
stopifnot(sort(x, decreasing = TRUE) == rev(sort(x)))
stopifnot(rev(1:7) == 7:1) #- don't need 'rev' here
```

Rhome

Return the R Home Directory

Description

Return the R home directory, or the full path to a component of the R installation.

Usage

```
R.home(component = "home")
```

Arguments

component	As well as "home" which gives the R home directory, other known values are "bin", "doc", "etc", "include", "modules" and "share" giving the paths to the corresponding parts of an R installation.
-----------	--

Details

The R home directory is the top-level directory of the R installation being run.

The R home directory is often referred to as *R_HOME*, and is the value of an environment variable of that name in an R session. It can be found outside an R session by R [RHOME](#).

Value

A character string giving the R home directory or path to a particular component. Normally the components are all subdirectories of the R home directory, but this need not be the case in a Unix-like installation.

The value for "modules" and on Windows "bin" is a sub-architecture-specific location.

On a Unix-alike, the constructed paths are based on the current values of the environment variables *R_HOME* and where set *R_SHARE_DIR*, *R_DOC_DIR* and *R_INCLUDE_DIR* (these are set on startup and should not be altered).

On Windows the values of *R.home()* and *R_HOME* are switched to the 8.3 short form of path elements if required and if the Windows service to do that is enabled. The value of *R_HOME* is set to use forward slashes (since many package maintainers pass it unquoted to shells, for example in 'Makefile's).

rle	<i>Run Length Encoding</i>
-----	----------------------------

Description

Compute the lengths and values of runs of equal values in a vector – or the reverse operation.

Usage

```
rle(x)
inverse.rle(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'rle'
print(x, digits = getOption("digits"), prefix = "", ...)
```

Arguments

x	a vector (atomic, not a list) for <code>rle()</code> ; an object of class "rle" for <code>inverse.rle()</code> .
...	further arguments; ignored here.
digits	number of significant digits for printing, see print.default .
prefix	character string, prepended to each printed line.

Details

‘vector’ is used in the sense of [is.vector](#).

Missing values are regarded as unequal to the previous value, even if that is also missing.

`inverse.rle()` is the inverse function of `rle()`, reconstructing x from the runs.

Value

`rle()` returns an object of class "rle" which is a list with components:

lengths	an integer vector containing the length of each run.
values	a vector of the same length as lengths with the corresponding values.

`inverse.rle()` returns an atomic vector.

Examples

```
x <- rev(rep(6:10, 1:5))
rle(x)
## lengths [1:5]  5 4 3 2 1
## values  [1:5] 10 9 8 7 6

z <- c(TRUE, TRUE, FALSE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, TRUE, TRUE)
rle(z)
```

```

rle(as.character(z))
print(rle(z), prefix = "..| ")

N <- integer(0)
stopifnot(x == inverse.rle(rle(x)),
          identical(N, inverse.rle(rle(N))),
          z == inverse.rle(rle(z)))

```

Round

*Rounding of Numbers***Description**

`ceiling` takes a single numeric argument `x` and returns a numeric vector containing the smallest integers not less than the corresponding elements of `x`.

`floor` takes a single numeric argument `x` and returns a numeric vector containing the largest integers not greater than the corresponding elements of `x`.

`trunc` takes a single numeric argument `x` and returns a numeric vector containing the integers formed by truncating the values in `x` toward 0.

`round` rounds the values in its first argument to the specified number of decimal places (default 0).

`signif` rounds the values in its first argument to the specified number of significant digits.

Usage

```

ceiling(x)
floor(x)
trunc(x, ...)

round(x, digits = 0)
signif(x, digits = 6)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector. Or, for <code>round</code> and <code>signif</code> , a complex vector.
<code>digits</code>	integer indicating the number of decimal places (<code>round</code>) or significant digits (<code>signif</code>) to be used. Negative values are allowed (see ‘Details’).
<code>...</code>	arguments to be passed to methods.

Details

These are generic functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic.

Note that for rounding off a 5, the IEC 60559 standard is expected to be used, ‘*go to the even digit*’. Therefore `round(0.5)` is 0 and `round(-1.5)` is -2. However, this is dependent on OS services and on representation error (since e.g. 0.15 is not represented exactly, the rounding rule applies to the

represented number and not to the printed number, and so `round(0.15, 1)` could be either 0.1 or 0.2).

Rounding to a negative number of digits means rounding to a power of ten, so for example `round(x, digits = -2)` rounds to the nearest hundred.

For `signif` the recognized values of `digits` are 1...22, and non-missing values are rounded to the nearest integer in that range. Complex numbers are rounded to retain the specified number of digits in the larger of the components. Each element of the vector is rounded individually, unlike printing.

These are all primitive functions.

S4 methods

These are all (internally) S4 generic.

`ceiling`, `floor` and `trunc` are members of the `Math` group generic. As an S4 generic, `trunc` has only one argument.

`round` and `signif` are members of the `Math2` group generic.

Warning

The realities of computer arithmetic can cause unexpected results, especially with `floor` and `ceiling`. For example, we ‘know’ that `floor(log(x, base = 8))` for `x = 8` is 1, but 0 has been seen on an R platform. It is normally necessary to use a tolerance.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[as.integer](#).

Examples

```
round(.5 + -2:4) # IEEE rounding: -2 0 0 2 2 4 4
( x1 <- seq(-2, 4, by = .5) )
round(x1) #-- IEEE rounding !
x1[trunc(x1) != floor(x1)]
x1[round(x1) != floor(x1 + .5)]
(non.int <- ceiling(x1) != floor(x1))

x2 <- pi * 100^(-1:3)
round(x2, 3)
signif(x2, 3)
```

round.POSIXt*Round / Truncate Data-Time Objects*

Description

Round or truncate date-time objects.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
round(x, units = c("secs", "mins", "hours", "days"))
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
trunc(x, units = c("secs", "mins", "hours", "days"), ...)

## S3 method for class 'Date'
round(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'Date'
trunc(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x	an object inheriting from "POSIXt" or "Date".
units	one of the units listed. Can be abbreviated.
...	arguments to be passed to or from other methods, notably digits for round.

Details

The time is rounded or truncated to the second, minute, hour or day. Time zones are only relevant to days, when midnight in the current [time zone](#) is used.

The methods for class "Date" are of little use except to remove fractional days.

Value

An object of class "POSIXlt" or "Date".

See Also

[round](#) for the generic function and default methods.

[DateTimeClasses](#), [Date](#)

Examples

```
round(.leap.seconds + 1000, "hour")
trunc(Sys.time(), "day")
```

row*Row Indexes*

Description

Returns a matrix of integers indicating their row number in a matrix-like object, or a factor indicating the row labels.

Usage

```
row(x, as.factor = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a matrix-like object, that is one with a two-dimensional dim.
<code>as.factor</code>	a logical value indicating whether the value should be returned as a factor of row labels (created if necessary) rather than as numbers.

Value

An integer (or factor) matrix with the same dimensions as `x` and whose ij -th element is equal to i (or the i -th row label).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[col](#) to get columns.

Examples

```
x <- matrix(1:12, 3, 4)
# extract the diagonal of a matrix
dx <- x[row(x) == col(x)]
dx

# create an identity 5-by-5 matrix
x <- matrix(0, nrow = 5, ncol = 5)
x[row(x) == col(x)] <- 1
x
```

row+colnames *Row and Column Names*

Description

Retrieve or set the row or column names of a matrix-like object.

Usage

```
rownames(x, do.NULL = TRUE, prefix = "row")
rownames(x) <- value

colnames(x, do.NULL = TRUE, prefix = "col")
colnames(x) <- value
```

Arguments

x	a matrix-like R object, with at least two dimensions for colnames.
do.NULL	logical. If FALSE and names are NULL, names are created.
prefix	for created names.
value	a valid value for that component of <code>dimnames(x)</code> . For a matrix or array this is either NULL or a character vector of non-zero length equal to the appropriate dimension.

Details

The extractor functions try to do something sensible for any matrix-like object x. If the object has `dimnames` the first component is used as the row names, and the second component (if any) is used for the column names. For a data frame, `rownames` and `colnames` eventually call `row.names` and `names` respectively, but the latter are preferred.

If `do.NULL` is FALSE, a character vector (of length `NROW(x)` or `NCOL(x)`) is returned in any case, prepending `prefix` to simple numbers, if there are no `dimnames` or the corresponding component of the `dimnames` is NULL.

The replacement methods for arrays/matrices coerce vector and factor values of `value` to character, but do not dispatch methods for `as.character`.

For a data frame, `value` for `rownames` should be a character vector of non-duplicated and non-missing names (this is enforced), and for `colnames` a character vector of (preferably) unique syntactically-valid names. In both cases, `value` will be coerced by `as.character`, and setting `colnames` will convert the row names to character.

Note

If the replacement versions are called on a matrix without any existing `dimnames`, they will add suitable `dimnames`. But constructions such as

```
rownames(x)[3] <- "c"
```

may not work unless `x` already has `dimnames`, since this will create a length-3 value from the `NULL` value of `rownames(x)`.

See Also

[dimnames](#), [case.names](#), [variable.names](#).

Examples

```
m0 <- matrix(NA, 4, 0)
rownames(m0)

m2 <- cbind(1, 1:4)
colnames(m2, do.NULL = FALSE)
colnames(m2) <- c("x", "Y")
rownames(m2) <- rownames(m2, do.NULL = FALSE, prefix = "Obs.")
m2
```

row.names

Get and Set Row Names for Data Frames

Description

All data frames have a row names attribute, a character vector of length the number of rows with no duplicates nor missing values.

For convenience, these are generic functions for which users can write other methods, and there are default methods for arrays. The description here is for the `data.frame` method.

Usage

```
row.names(x)
row.names(x) <- value
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	object of class <code>"data.frame"</code> , or any other class for which a method has been defined.
<code>value</code>	an object to be coerced to character unless an integer vector. It should have (after coercion) the same length as the number of rows of <code>x</code> with no duplicated nor missing values. <code>NULL</code> is also allowed: see ‘Details’.

Details

A data frame has (by definition) a vector of *row names* which has length the number of rows in the data frame, and contains neither missing nor duplicated values. Where a row names sequence has been added by the software to meet this requirement, they are regarded as ‘automatic’.

Row names are currently allowed to be integer or character, but for backwards compatibility (with R <= 2.4.0) `row.names` will always return a character vector. (Use `attr(x, "row.names")` if you need to retrieve an integer-valued set of row names.)

Using `NULL` for the value resets the row names to `seq_len(nrow(x))`, regarded as ‘automatic’.

Value

`row.names` returns a character vector.

`row.names<-` returns a data frame with the row names changed.

Note

`row.names` is similar to `rownames` for arrays, and it has a method that calls `rownames` for an array argument.

Row names of the form `1:n` for `n > 2` are stored internally in a compact form, which might be seen from C code or by deparsing but never via `row.names` or `attr(x, "row.names")`. Additionally, some names of this sort are marked as ‘automatic’ and handled differently by `as.matrix` and `data.matrix` (and potentially other functions). (All zero-row data frames are regarded as having automatic `row.names`.)

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Data for models*. Chapter 3 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`data.frame`, `rownames`, `names`.

`.row_names_info` for the internal representations.

rowsum	<i>Give Column Sums of a Matrix or Data Frame, Based on a Grouping Variable</i>
--------	---

Description

Compute column sums across rows of a numeric matrix-like object for each level of a grouping variable. `rowsum` is generic, with a method for data frames and a default method for vectors and matrices.

Usage

```
rowsum(x, group, reorder = TRUE, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
```

```
rowsum(x, group, reorder = TRUE, na.rm = FALSE, ...)
```

```
## Default S3 method:
```

```
rowsum(x, group, reorder = TRUE, na.rm = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a matrix, data frame or vector of numeric data. Missing values are allowed. A numeric vector will be treated as a column vector.
<code>group</code>	a vector or factor giving the grouping, with one element per row of <code>x</code> . Missing values will be treated as another group and a warning will be given.
<code>reorder</code>	if <code>TRUE</code> , then the result will be in order of <code>sort(unique(group))</code> , if <code>FALSE</code> , it will be in the order that groups were encountered.
<code>na.rm</code>	logical (<code>TRUE</code> or <code>FALSE</code>). Should NA (including NaN) values be discarded?
<code>...</code>	other arguments to be passed to or from methods

Details

The default is to reorder the rows to agree with `tapply` as in the example below. Reordering should not add noticeably to the time except when there are very many distinct values of `group` and `x` has few columns.

The original function was written by Terry Therneau, but this is a new implementation using hashing that is much faster for large matrices.

To sum over all the rows of a matrix (ie, a single group) use `colSums`, which should be even faster.

For integer arguments, over/underflow in forming the sum results in NA.

Value

A matrix or data frame containing the sums. There will be one row per unique value of `group`.

See Also

[tapply](#), [aggregate](#), [rowSums](#)

Examples

```
require(stats)

x <- matrix(runif(100), ncol = 5)
group <- sample(1:8, 20, TRUE)
(xsum <- rowsum(x, group))
## Slower versions
tapply(x, list(group[row(x)], col(x)), sum)
t(sapply(split(as.data.frame(x), group), colSums))
aggregate(x, list(group), sum)[-1]
```

sample

*Random Samples and Permutations***Description**

sample takes a sample of the specified size from the elements of `x` using either with or without replacement.

Usage

```
sample(x, size, replace = FALSE, prob = NULL)
```

```
sample.int(n, size = n, replace = FALSE, prob = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	Either a vector of one or more elements from which to choose, or a positive integer. See ‘Details.’
<code>n</code>	a positive number, the number of items to choose from. See ‘Details.’
<code>size</code>	a non-negative integer giving the number of items to choose.
<code>replace</code>	Should sampling be with replacement?
<code>prob</code>	A vector of probability weights for obtaining the elements of the vector being sampled.

Details

If `x` has length 1, is numeric (in the sense of `is.numeric`) and `x >= 1`, sampling *via* `sample` takes place from `1:x`. *Note* that this convenience feature may lead to undesired behaviour when `x` is of varying length in calls such as `sample(x)`. See the examples.

Otherwise `x` can be any R object for which length and subsetting by integers make sense: S3 or S4 methods for these operations will be dispatched as appropriate.

For `sample` the default for `size` is the number of items inferred from the first argument, so that `sample(x)` generates a random permutation of the elements of `x` (or `1:x`).

It is allowed to ask for `size = 0` samples with `n = 0` or a length-zero `x`, but otherwise `n > 0` or positive `length(x)` is required.

Non-integer positive numerical values of `n` or `x` will be truncated to the next smallest integer, which has to be no larger than `.Machine$integer.max`.

The optional `prob` argument can be used to give a vector of weights for obtaining the elements of the vector being sampled. They need not sum to one, but they should be non-negative and not all zero. If `replace` is true, Walker’s alias method (Ripley, 1987) is used when there are more than 200 reasonably probable values: this gives results incompatible with those from R < 2.2.0.

If `replace` is false, these probabilities are applied sequentially, that is the probability of choosing the next item is proportional to the weights amongst the remaining items. The number of nonzero weights must be at least `size` in this case.

`sample.int` is a bare interface in which both `n` and `size` must be supplied as integers.

As from R 3.0.0, `n` can be larger than the largest integer of type `integer`, up to the largest representable integer in type `double`. Only uniform sampling is supported. Two random numbers are used to ensure uniform sampling of large integers.

Value

For `sample` a vector of length `size` with elements drawn from either `x` or from the integers `1:x`.

For `sample.int`, an integer vector of length `size` with elements from `1:n`, or a double vector if $n \geq 2^{31}$.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Ripley, B. D. (1987) *Stochastic Simulation*. Wiley.

See Also

[RNG](#) about random number generation.

CRAN package [sampling](#) for other methods of weighted sampling without replacement.

Examples

```
x <- 1:12
# a random permutation
sample(x)
# bootstrap resampling -- only if length(x) > 1 !
sample(x, replace = TRUE)

# 100 Bernoulli trials
sample(c(0,1), 100, replace = TRUE)

## More careful bootstrapping -- Consider this when using sample()
## programmatically (i.e., in your function or simulation)!

# sample()'s surprise -- example
x <- 1:10
  sample(x[x > 8]) # length 2
  sample(x[x > 9]) # oops -- length 10!
  sample(x[x > 10]) # length 0

resample <- function(x, ...) x[sample.int(length(x), ...)]
resample(x[x > 8]) # length 2
resample(x[x > 9]) # length 1
resample(x[x > 10]) # length 0

## R 3.x.y only
sample.int(1e10, 12, replace = TRUE)
sample.int(1e10, 12) # not that there is much chance of duplicates
```

save

*Save R Objects***Description**

save writes an external representation of R objects to the specified file. The objects can be read back from the file at a later date by using the function [load](#) or [attach](#) (or [data](#) in some cases).

save.image() is just a short-cut for ‘save my current workspace’, i.e., save(list = ls(all.names = TRUE), file = ".RData", envir = .GlobalEnv). It is also what happens with [q](#)("yes").

Usage

```
save(..., list = character(),
      file = stop("'file' must be specified"),
      ascii = FALSE, version = NULL, envir = parent.frame(),
      compress = isTRUE(!ascii), compression_level,
      eval.promises = TRUE, precheck = TRUE)
```

```
save.image(file = ".RData", version = NULL, ascii = FALSE,
            compress = !ascii, safe = TRUE)
```

Arguments

...	the names of the objects to be saved (as symbols or character strings).
list	A character vector containing the names of objects to be saved.
file	a (writable binary-mode) connection or the name of the file where the data will be saved (when tilde expansion is done). Must be a file name for save.image or version = 1.
ascii	if TRUE, an ASCII representation of the data is written. The default value of ascii is FALSE which leads to a binary file being written. If NA and version >= 2, a different ASCII representation is used which writes double/complex numbers as binary fractions.
version	the workspace format version to use. NULL specifies the current default format. The version used from R 0.99.0 to R 1.3.1 was version 1. The default format as from R 1.4.0 is version 2.
envir	environment to search for objects to be saved.
compress	logical or character string specifying whether saving to a named file is to use compression. TRUE corresponds to gzip compression, and character strings "gzip", "bzip2" or "xz" specify the type of compression. Ignored when file is a connection and for workspace format version 1.
compression_level	integer: the level of compression to be used. Defaults to 6 for gzip compression and to 9 for bzip2 or xz compression.

<code>eval.promises</code>	logical: should objects which are promises be forced before saving?
<code>precheck</code>	logical: should the existence of the objects be checked before starting to save (and in particular before opening the file/connection)? Does not apply to version 1 saves.
<code>safe</code>	logical. If TRUE, a temporary file is used for creating the saved workspace. The temporary file is renamed to file if the save succeeds. This preserves an existing workspace file if the save fails, but at the cost of using extra disk space during the save.

Details

The names of the objects specified either as symbols (or character strings) in ... or as a character vector in `list` are used to look up the objects from environment `envir`. By default [promises](#) are evaluated, but if `eval.promises = FALSE` promises are saved (together with their evaluation environments). (Promises embedded in objects are always saved unevaluated.)

All R platforms use the XDR (bigendian) representation of C ints and doubles in binary save-d files, and these are portable across all R platforms.

ASCII saves used to be useful for moving data between platforms but are now mainly of historical interest. They can be more compact than binary saves where compression is not used, but are almost always slower to both read and write: binary saves compress much better than ASCII ones. Further, decimal ASCII saves may not restore double/complex values exactly, and what value is restored may depend on the R platform.

Default values for the `ascii`, `compress`, `safe` and `version` arguments can be modified with the "save.defaults" option (used both by `save` and `save.image`), see also the 'Examples' section. If a "save.image.defaults" option is set it is used in preference to "save.defaults" for function `save.image` (which allows this to have different defaults). In addition, `compression_level` can be part of the "save.defaults" option.

A connection that is not already open will be opened in mode "wb". Supplying a connection which is open and not in binary mode gives an error.

Compression

Large files can be reduced considerably in size by compression. A particular 46MB R object was saved as 35MB without compression in 2 seconds, 22MB with `gzip` compression in 8 secs, 19MB with `bzip2` compression in 13 secs and 9.4MB with `xz` compression in 40 secs. The load times were 1.3, 2.8, 5.5 and 5.7 seconds respectively. These results are indicative, but the relative performances do depend on the actual file: `xz` compressed unusually well here.

It is possible to compress later (with `gzip`, `bzip2` or `xz`) a file saved with `compress = FALSE`: the effect is the same as saving with compression. Also, a saved file can be uncompressed and re-compressed under a different compression scheme (and see [resaveRdaFiles](#) for a way to do so from within R).

Parallel compression

That file can be a connection can be exploited to make use of an external parallel compression utility such as `pigz` (<http://zlib.net/pigz/>) or `pbzip2` (<http://compression.ca/pbzip2/>) via a [pipe](#) connection. For example, using 8 threads,

```

con <- pipe("pigz -p8 > fname.gz", "wb")
save(myObj, file = con); close(con)

con <- pipe("pbzip2 -p8 -9 > fname.bz2", "wb")
save(myObj, file = con); close(con)

con <- pipe("xz -T8 -6 -e > fname.xz", "wb")
save(myObj, file = con); close(con)

```

where the last requires xz 5.1.1 or later built with support for multiple threads (and parallel compression is only effective for large objects: at level 6 it will compress in serialized chunks of 12MB).

Warnings

The ... arguments only give the *names* of the objects to be saved: they are searched for in the environment given by the `envir` argument, and the actual objects given as arguments need not be those found.

Saved R objects are binary files, even those saved with `ascii = TRUE`, so ensure that they are transferred without conversion of end-of-line markers and of 8-bit characters. The lines are delimited by LF on all platforms.

Although the default version has not changed since R 1.4.0, this does not mean that saved files are necessarily backwards compatible. You will be able to load a saved image into an earlier version of R unless use is made of later additions (for example, raw vectors, external pointers and some S4 objects).

One such ‘later addition’ was long vectors, introduced in R 3.0.0 and loadable only on 64-bit platforms.

Loading files saved with `ASCII = NA` requires a C99-compliant C function `sscanf`: this is a problem on Windows, first worked around in R 3.1.2: they should be readable in earlier versions of R on all other platforms.

Note

The most common reason for failure is lack of write permission in the current directory. For `save.image` and for saving at the end of a session this will shown by messages like

```

Error in gzfile(file, "wb") : unable to open connection
In addition: Warning message:
In gzfile(file, "wb") :
  cannot open compressed file '.RDataTmp',
  probable reason 'Permission denied'

```

See Also

[dput](#), [dump](#), [load](#), [data](#).

For other interfaces to the underlying serialization format, see [serialize](#) and [saveRDS](#).

Examples

```
x <- stats::runif(20)
y <- list(a = 1, b = TRUE, c = "oops")
save(x, y, file = "xy.RData")
save.image()
unlink("xy.RData")
unlink(".RData")

# set save defaults using option:
options(save.defaults = list(ascii = TRUE, safe = FALSE))
save.image()
unlink(".RData")
```

scale

*Scaling and Centering of Matrix-like Objects***Description**

scale is generic function whose default method centers and/or scales the columns of a numeric matrix.

Usage

```
scale(x, center = TRUE, scale = TRUE)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric matrix(like object).
center	either a logical value or a numeric vector of length equal to the number of columns of x.
scale	either a logical value or a numeric vector of length equal to the number of columns of x.

Details

The value of center determines how column centering is performed. If center is a numeric vector with length equal to the number of columns of x, then each column of x has the corresponding value from center subtracted from it. If center is TRUE then centering is done by subtracting the column means (omitting NAs) of x from their corresponding columns, and if center is FALSE, no centering is done.

The value of scale determines how column scaling is performed (after centering). If scale is a numeric vector with length equal to the number of columns of x, then each column of x is divided by the corresponding value from scale. If scale is TRUE then scaling is done by dividing the (centered) columns of x by their standard deviations if center is TRUE, and the root mean square otherwise. If scale is FALSE, no scaling is done.

The root-mean-square for a (possibly centered) column is defined as $\sqrt{\sum(x^2)/(n-1)}$, where x is a vector of the non-missing values and n is the number of non-missing

values. In the case `center = TRUE`, this is the same as the standard deviation, but in general it is not. (To scale by the standard deviations without centering, use `scale(x, center = FALSE, scale = apply(x, 2, sd, na.rm = TRUE))`.)

Value

For `scale.default`, the centered, scaled matrix. The numeric centering and scalings used (if any) are returned as attributes `"scaled:center"` and `"scaled:scale"`

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[sweep](#) which allows centering (and scaling) with arbitrary statistics.

For working with the scale of a plot, see [par](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)
x <- matrix(1:10, ncol = 2)
(centered.x <- scale(x, scale = FALSE))
cov(centered.scaled.x <- scale(x)) # all 1
```

scan

Read Data Values

Description

Read data into a vector or list from the console or file.

Usage

```
scan(file = "", what = double(), nmax = -1, n = -1, sep = "",
      quote = if(identical(sep, "\n")) "" else "'", dec = ".",
      skip = 0, nlines = 0, na.strings = "NA",
      flush = FALSE, fill = FALSE, strip.white = FALSE,
      quiet = FALSE, blank.lines.skip = TRUE, multi.line = TRUE,
      comment.char = "", allowEscapes = FALSE,
      fileEncoding = "", encoding = "unknown", text, skipNul = FALSE)
```

Arguments

file	<p>the name of a file to read data values from. If the specified file is "", then input is taken from the keyboard (or whatever <code>stdin()</code> reads if input is redirected or R is embedded). (In this case input can be terminated by a blank line or an EOF signal, 'Ctrl-D' on Unix and 'Ctrl-Z' on Windows.)</p> <p>Otherwise, the file name is interpreted <i>relative</i> to the current working directory (given by <code>getwd()</code>), unless it specifies an <i>absolute</i> path. Tilde-expansion is performed where supported. When running R from a script, <code>file = "stdin"</code> can be used to refer to the process's stdin file stream.</p> <p>This can be a compressed file (see file).</p> <p>Alternatively, <code>file</code> can be a connection, which will be opened if necessary, and if so closed at the end of the function call. Whatever mode the connection is opened in, any of LF, CRLF or CR will be accepted as the EOL marker for a line and so will match <code>sep = "\n"</code>.</p> <p><code>file</code> can also be a complete URL. (For the supported URL schemes, see the 'URLs' section of the help for url.)</p> <p>To read a data file not in the current encoding (for example a Latin-1 file in a UTF-8 locale or conversely) use a file connection setting its encoding argument (or <code>scan</code>'s <code>fileEncoding</code> argument).</p>
what	<p>the type of what gives the type of data to be read. (Here 'type' is used in the sense of typeof.) The supported types are logical, integer, numeric, complex, character, raw and list. If <code>what</code> is a list, it is assumed that the lines of the data file are records each containing <code>length(what)</code> items ('fields') and the list components should have elements which are one of the first six (atomic) types listed or NULL, see section 'Details' below.</p>
nmax	<p>integer: the maximum number of data values to be read, or if <code>what</code> is a list, the maximum number of records to be read. If omitted or not positive or an invalid value for an integer (and <code>nlines</code> is not set to a positive value), <code>scan</code> will read to the end of file.</p>
n	<p>integer: the maximum number of data values to be read, defaulting to no limit. Invalid values will be ignored.</p>
sep	<p>by default, <code>scan</code> expects to read 'white-space' delimited input fields. Alternatively, <code>sep</code> can be used to specify a character which delimits fields. A field is always delimited by an end-of-line marker unless it is quoted.</p> <p>If specified this should be the empty character string (the default) or NULL or a character string containing just one single-byte character.</p>
quote	<p>the set of quoting characters as a single character string or NULL. In a multibyte locale the quoting characters must be ASCII (single-byte).</p>
dec	<p>decimal point character. This should be a character string containing just one single-byte character. (NULL and a zero-length character vector are also accepted, and taken as the default.)</p>
skip	<p>the number of lines of the input file to skip before beginning to read data values.</p>
nlines	<p>if positive, the maximum number of lines of data to be read.</p>

<code>na.strings</code>	character vector. Elements of this vector are to be interpreted as missing (NA) values. Blank fields are also considered to be missing values in logical, integer, numeric and complex fields.
<code>flush</code>	logical: if TRUE, scan will flush to the end of the line after reading the last of the fields requested. This allows putting comments after the last field, but precludes putting more than one record on a line.
<code>fill</code>	logical: if TRUE, scan will implicitly add empty fields to any lines with fewer fields than implied by what.
<code>strip.white</code>	vector of logical value(s) corresponding to items in the what argument. It is used only when sep has been specified, and allows the stripping of leading and trailing 'white space' from character fields (numeric fields are always stripped). Note: white space inside quoted strings is not stripped. If strip.white is of length 1, it applies to all fields; otherwise, if strip.white[i] is TRUE and the i-th field is of mode character (because what[i] is) then the leading and trailing unquoted white space from field i is stripped.
<code>quiet</code>	logical: if FALSE (default), scan() will print a line, saying how many items have been read.
<code>blank.lines.skip</code>	logical: if TRUE blank lines in the input are ignored, except when counting skip and nlines.
<code>multi.line</code>	logical. Only used if what is a list. If FALSE, all of a record must appear on one line (but more than one record can appear on a single line). Note that using fill = TRUE implies that a record will be terminated at the end of a line.
<code>comment.char</code>	character: a character vector of length one containing a single character or an empty string. Use "" to turn off the interpretation of comments altogether (the default).
<code>allowEscapes</code>	logical. Should C-style escapes such as '\n' be processed (the default) or read verbatim? Note that if not within quotes these could be interpreted as a delimiter (but not as a comment character). The escapes which are interpreted are the control characters '\a, \b, \f, \n, \r, \t, \v' and octal and hexadecimal representations like '\040' and '\0x2A'. Any other escaped character is treated as itself, including backslash. Note that Unicode escapes (starting '\u' or '\U': see Quotes) are never processed.
<code>fileEncoding</code>	character string: if non-empty declares the encoding used on a file (not a connection nor the keyboard) so the character data can be re-encoded. See the 'Encoding' section of the help for file , and the 'R Data Import/Export Manual'.
<code>encoding</code>	encoding to be assumed for input strings. If the value is "latin1" or "UTF-8" it is used to mark character strings as known to be in Latin-1 or UTF-8: it is not used to re-encode the input (see fileEncoding). See also 'Details'.
<code>text</code>	character string: if file is not supplied and this is, then data are read from the value of text via a text connection.
<code>skipNul</code>	logical: should nuls be skipped when reading character fields?

Details

The value of `what` can be a list of types, in which case `scan` returns a list of vectors with the types given by the types of the elements in `what`. This provides a way of reading columnar data. If any of the types is `NULL`, the corresponding field is skipped (but a `NULL` component appears in the result).

The type of `what` or its components can be one of the six atomic vector types or `NULL` (see [is.atomic](#)).

‘White space’ is defined for the purposes of this function as one or more contiguous characters from the set space, horizontal tab, carriage return and line feed. It does not include form feed nor vertical tab, but in Latin-1 and Windows 8-bit locales (but not UTF-8) ‘space’ includes the non-breaking space ‘`\xa0`’.

Empty numeric fields are always regarded as missing values. Empty character fields are scanned as empty character vectors, unless `na.strings` contains `""` when they are regarded as missing values.

The allowed input for a numeric field is optional whitespace followed either `NA` or an optional sign followed by a decimal or hexadecimal constant (see [NumericConstants](#)), or `NaN`, `Inf` or infinity (ignoring case). Out-of-range values are recorded as `Inf`, `-Inf` or `0`.

For an integer field the allowed input is optional whitespace, followed by either `NA` or an optional sign and one or more digits (`'0-9'`): all out-of-range values are converted to `NA_integer_`.

If `sep` is the default (`""`), the character `'\'` in a quoted string escapes the following character, so quotes may be included in the string by escaping them.

If `sep` is non-default, the fields may be quoted in the style of `'csv'` files where separators inside quotes (`' '` or `""`) are ignored and quotes may be put inside strings by doubling them. However, if `sep = "\n"` it is assumed by default that one wants to read entire lines verbatim.

Quoting is only interpreted in character fields and in `NULL` fields (which might be skipping character fields).

Note that since `sep` is a separator and not a terminator, reading a file by `scan("foo", sep = "\n", blank.lines.skip = FALSE)` will give an empty final line if the file ends in a linefeed and not if it does not. This might not be what you expected; see also [readLines](#).

If `comment.char` occurs (except inside a quoted character field), it signals that the rest of the line should be regarded as a comment and be discarded. Lines beginning with a comment character (possibly after white space with the default separator) are treated as blank lines.

There is a line-length limit of 4095 bytes when reading from the console (which may impose a lower limit: see ‘An Introduction to R’).

There is a check for a user interrupt every 1000 lines if `what` is a list, otherwise every 10000 items.

If `file` is a character string and `fileEncoding` is non-default, or if it is a not-already-open [connection](#) with a non-default encoding argument, the text is converted to UTF-8 and declared as such (and the encoding argument to `scan` is ignored). See the examples of [readLines](#).

Embedded nuls in the input stream will terminate the field currently being read, with a warning once per call to `scan`. Setting `skipNul = TRUE` causes them to be ignored.

Value

if `what` is a list, a list of the same length and same names (as any) as `what`.

Otherwise, a vector of the type of what.

Character strings in the result will have a declared encoding if encoding is "latin1" or "UTF-8".

Note

The default for `multi.line` differs from `S`. To read one record per line, use `flush = TRUE` and `multi.line = FALSE`. (Note that quoted character strings can still include embedded newlines.)

If number of items is not specified, the internal mechanism re-allocates memory in powers of two and so could use up to three times as much memory as needed. (It needs both old and new copies.) If you can, specify either `n` or `nmax` whenever inputting a large vector, and `nmax` or `nlines` when inputting a large list.

Using `scan` on an open connection to read partial lines can lose chars: use an explicit separator to avoid this.

Having nul bytes in fields (including `'\0'` if `allowEscapes = TRUE`) may lead to interpretation of the field being terminated at the nul. They not normally present in text files – see [readBin](#).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[read.table](#) for more user-friendly reading of data matrices; [readLines](#) to read a file a line at a time. [write](#).

Quotes for the details of C-style escape sequences.

[readChar](#) and [readBin](#) to read fixed or variable length character strings or binary representations of numbers a few at a time from a connection.

Examples

```
cat("TITLE extra line", "2 3 5 7", "11 13 17", file = "ex.data", sep = "\n")
pp <- scan("ex.data", skip = 1, quiet = TRUE)
scan("ex.data", skip = 1)
scan("ex.data", skip = 1, nlines = 1) # only 1 line after the skipped one
scan("ex.data", what = list("", "", "")) # flush is F -> read "7"
scan("ex.data", what = list("", "", ""), flush = TRUE)
unlink("ex.data") # tidy up

## "inline" usage
scan(text = "1 2 3")
```

search

Give Search Path for R Objects

Description

Gives a list of [attached packages](#) (see [library](#)), and R objects, usually [data.frames](#).

Usage

```
search()
searchpaths()
```

Value

A character vector, starting with `".GlobalEnv"`, and ending with `"package:base"` which is R's **base** package required always.

`searchpaths` gives a similar character vector, with the entries for packages being the path to the package used to load the code.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. ([search](#).)

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer. ([searchPaths](#).)

See Also

[.packages](#) to list just the packages on search path.

[loadedNamespaces](#) to list loaded namespaces.

[attach](#) and [detach](#) to change the search path, [objects](#) to find R objects in there.

Examples

```
search()
searchpaths()
```

Description

Functions to re-position connections.

Usage

```
seek(con, ...)
## S3 method for class 'connection'
seek(con, where = NA, origin = "start", rw = "", ...)

isSeekable(con)

truncate(con, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>con</code>	a connection .
<code>where</code>	numeric. A file position (relative to the origin specified by <code>origin</code>), or NA.
<code>rw</code>	character string. Empty or "read" or "write", partial matches allowed.
<code>origin</code>	character string. One of "start", "current", "end": see 'Details'.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

`seek` with `where = NA` returns the current byte offset of a connection (from the beginning), and with a non-missing `where` argument the connection is re-positioned (if possible) to the specified position. `isSeekable` returns whether the connection in principle supports `seek`: currently only (possibly gz-compressed) file connections do.

`where` is stored as a real but should represent an integer: non-integer values are likely to be truncated. Note that the possible values can exceed the largest representable number in an R integer on 64-bit builds, and on some 32-bit builds.

File connections can be open for both writing/appending, in which case R keeps separate positions for reading and writing. Which `seek` refers to can be set by its `rw` argument: the default is the last mode (reading or writing) which was used. Most files are only opened for reading or writing and so default to that state. If a file is open for both reading and writing but has not been used, the default is to give the reading position (0).

The initial file position for reading is always at the beginning. The initial position for writing is at the beginning of the file for modes "r+" and "r+b", otherwise at the end of the file. Some platforms only allow writing at the end of the file in the append modes. (The reported write position for a file opened in an append mode will typically be unreliable until the file has been written to.)

gzfile connections support `seek` with a number of limitations, using the file position of the uncompressed file. They do not support `origin = "end"`. When writing, seeking is only possible

forwards: when reading seeking backwards is supported by rewinding the file and re-reading from its start.

If seek is called with a non-NA value of where, any pushback on a text-mode connection is discarded.

truncate truncates a file opened for writing at its current position. It works only for file connections, and is not implemented on all platforms: on others (including Windows) it will not work for large (> 2Gb) files.

None of these should be expected to work on text-mode connections with re-encoding selected.

Value

seek returns the current position (before any move), as a (numeric) byte offset from the origin, if relevant, or 0 if not. Note that the position can exceed the largest representable number in an R integer on 64-bit builds, and on some 32-bit builds.

truncate returns NULL: it stops with an error if it fails (or is not implemented).

isSeekable returns a logical value, whether the connection supports seek.

Warning

Use of seek on Windows is discouraged. We have found so many errors in the Windows implementation of file positioning that users are advised to use it only at their own risk, and asked not to waste the R developers' time with bug reports on Windows' deficiencies.

See Also

[connections](#)

seq

Sequence Generation

Description

Generate regular sequences. seq is a standard generic with a default method. seq.int is a primitive which can be much faster but has a few restrictions. seq_along and seq_len are very fast primitives for two common cases.

Usage

```
seq(...)
```

```
## Default S3 method:
```

```
seq(from = 1, to = 1, by = ((to - from)/(length.out - 1)),
    length.out = NULL, along.with = NULL, ...)
```

```
seq.int(from, to, by, length.out, along.with, ...)
```

```
seq_along(along.with)
```

```
seq_len(length.out)
```

Arguments

...	arguments passed to or from methods.
from, to	the starting and (maximal) end values of the sequence. Of length 1 unless just from is supplied as an unnamed argument.
by	number: increment of the sequence.
length.out	desired length of the sequence. A non-negative number, which for seq and seq.int will be rounded up if fractional.
along.with	take the length from the length of this argument.

Details

Numerical inputs should all be [finite](#) (that is, not infinite, [NaN](#) or [NA](#)).

The interpretation of the unnamed arguments of seq and seq.int is *not* standard, and it is recommended always to name the arguments when programming.

seq is generic, and only the default method is described here. Note that it dispatches on the class of the **first** argument irrespective of argument names. This can have unintended consequences if it is called with just one argument intending this to be taken as along.with: it is much better to use seq_along in that case.

seq.int is an [internal generic](#) which dispatches on methods for "seq" based on the class of the first supplied argument (before argument matching).

Typical usages are

```
seq(from, to)
seq(from, to, by= )
seq(from, to, length.out= )
seq(along.with= )
seq(from)
seq(length.out= )
```

The first form generates the sequence from, from+/-1, ..., to (identical to from:to).

The second form generates from, from+by, ..., up to the sequence value less than or equal to to. Specifying to - from and by of opposite signs is an error. Note that the computed final value can go just beyond to to allow for rounding error, but is truncated to to. ('Just beyond' is by up to 10^{-10} times $\text{abs}(\text{from} - \text{to})$.)

The third generates a sequence of length.out equally spaced values from from to to. (length.out is usually abbreviated to length or len, and seq_len is much faster.)

The fourth form generates the integer sequence 1, 2, ..., length(along.with). (along.with is usually abbreviated to along, and seq_along is much faster.)

The fifth form generates the sequence 1, 2, ..., length(from) (as if argument along.with had been specified), *unless* the argument is numeric of length 1 when it is interpreted as 1:from (even for seq(0) for compatibility with S). Using either seq_along or seq_len is much preferred (unless strict S compatibility is essential).

The final form generates the integer sequence 1, 2, ..., length.out unless length.out = 0, when it generates integer(0).

Very small sequences (with from - to of the order of 10^{-14} times the larger of the ends) will return from.

For seq (only), up to two of from, to and by can be supplied as complex values provided length.out or along.with is specified. More generally, the default method of seq will handle classed objects with methods for the Math, Ops and Summary group generics.

seq.int, seq_along and seq_len are [primitive](#).

Value

seq.int and the default method of seq for numeric arguments return a vector of type "integer" or "double": programmers should not rely on which.

seq_along and seq_len return an integer vector, unless it is a *long vector* when it will be double.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

The methods [seq.Date](#) and [seq.POSIXt](#).

[:](#), [rep](#), [sequence](#), [row](#), [col](#).

Examples

```
seq(0, 1, length.out = 11)
seq(stats::rnorm(20)) # effectively 'along'
seq(1, 9, by = 2)      # matches 'end'
seq(1, 9, by = pi)     # stays below 'end'
seq(1, 6, by = 3)
seq(1.575, 5.125, by = 0.05)
seq(17) # same as 1:17, or even better seq_len(17)
```

seq.Date

Generate Regular Sequences of Dates

Description

The method for [seq](#) for objects of class class "[Date](#)" representing calendar dates.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'Date'
seq(from, to, by, length.out = NULL, along.with = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

from	starting date. Required
to	end date. Optional.
by	increment of the sequence. Optional. See ‘Details’.
length.out	integer, optional. Desired length of the sequence.
along.with	take the length from the length of this argument.
...	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

by can be specified in several ways.

- A number, taken to be in days.
- A object of class `difftime`
- A character string, containing one of "day", "week", "month", "quarter" or "year". This can optionally be preceded by a (positive or negative) integer and a space, or followed by "s". See [seq.POSIXt](#) for the details of "month".

Value

A vector of class "Date".

Note

Quarterly increments were specified by `by = "3 months"` prior to R 3.1.0.

See Also

[Date](#)

Examples

```
## first days of years
seq(as.Date("1910/1/1"), as.Date("1999/1/1"), "years")
## by month
seq(as.Date("2000/1/1"), by = "month", length.out = 12)
## quarters
seq(as.Date("2000/1/1"), as.Date("2003/1/1"), by = "quarter")

## find all 7th of the month between two dates, the last being a 7th.
st <- as.Date("1998-12-17")
en <- as.Date("2000-1-7")
ll <- seq(en, st, by = "-1 month")
rev(ll[ll > st & ll < en])
```

seq.POSIXt

*Generate Regular Sequences of Times***Description**

The method for [seq](#) for date-time classes.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
seq(from, to, by, length.out = NULL, along.with = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

from	starting date. Required.
to	end date. Optional.
by	increment of the sequence. Optional. See ‘Details’.
length.out	integer, optional. Desired length of the sequence.
along.with	take the length from the length of this argument.
...	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

by can be specified in several ways.

- A number, taken to be in seconds.
- A object of class [difftime](#)
- A character string, containing one of "sec", "min", "hour", "day", "DSTday", "week", "month", "quarter" or "year". This can optionally be preceded by a (positive or negative) integer and a space, or followed by "s".

The difference between "day" and "DSTday" is that the former ignores changes to/from daylight savings time and the latter takes the same clock time each day. ("week" ignores DST (it is a period of 144 hours), but "7 DSTdays") can be used as an alternative. "month" and "year" allow for DST.)

The [time zone](#) of the result is taken from from: remember that GMT means UTC (and not the time zone of Greenwich, England) and so does not have daylight savings time.

Using "month" first advances the month without changing the day: if this results in an invalid day of the month, it is counted forward into the next month: see the examples.

Value

A vector of class "POSIXct".

Note

Quarterly increments were specified by `by = "3 months"` prior to R 3.1.0.

See Also

[DateTimeClasses](#)

Examples

```
## first days of years
seq(ISoDate(1910,1,1), ISoDate(1999,1,1), "years")
## by month
seq(ISoDate(2000,1,1), by = "month", length.out = 12)
seq(ISoDate(2000,1,31), by = "month", length.out = 4)
## quarters
seq(ISoDate(1990,1,1), ISoDate(2000,1,1), by = "quarter") # or "3 months"
## days vs DSTdays: use c() to lose the time zone.
seq(c(ISoDate(2000,3,20)), by = "day", length.out = 10)
seq(c(ISoDate(2000,3,20)), by = "DSTday", length.out = 10)
seq(c(ISoDate(2000,3,20)), by = "7 DSTdays", length.out = 4)
```

sequence

Create A Vector of Sequences

Description

For each element of `nvec` the sequence `seq_len(nvec[i])` is created. These are concatenated and the result returned.

Usage

```
sequence(nvec)
```

Arguments

`nvec` a non-negative integer vector each element of which specifies the end point of a sequence.

Details

Earlier versions of `sequence` used to work for 0 or negative inputs as `seq(x) == 1:x`.

Note that `sequence <- function(nvec) unlist(lapply(nvec, seq_len))` and it mainly exists in reverence to the very early history of R.

See Also

[gl](#), [seq](#), [rep](#).

Examples

```
sequence(c(3, 2)) # the concatenated sequences 1:3 and 1:2.
#> [1] 1 2 3 1 2
```

serialize

Simple Serialization Interface

Description

A simple low-level interface for serializing to connections.

Usage

```
serialize(object, connection, ascii, xdr = TRUE,
          version = NULL, refhook = NULL)
```

```
unserialize(connection, refhook = NULL)
```

Arguments

object	R object to serialize.
connection	an open connection or (for <code>serialize</code>) <code>NULL</code> or (for <code>unserialize</code>) a raw vector (see ‘Details’).
ascii	a logical. If <code>TRUE</code> or <code>NA</code> , an ASCII representation is written; otherwise (default) a binary one. See also the comments in the help for save .
xdr	a logical: if a binary representation is used, should a big-endian one (XDR) be used?
version	the workspace format version to use. <code>NULL</code> specifies the current default version (2). Versions prior to 2 are not supported, so this will only be relevant when there are later versions.
refhook	a hook function for handling reference objects.

Details

The function `serialize` serializes `object` to the specified connection. If `connection` is `NULL` then `object` is serialized to a raw vector, which is returned as the result of `serialize`.

Sharing of reference objects is preserved within the object but not across separate calls to `serialize`.

`unserialize` reads an object (as written by `serialize`) from `connection` or a raw vector.

The `refhook` functions can be used to customize handling of non-system reference objects (all external pointers and weak references, and all environments other than namespace and package environments and `.GlobalEnv`). The hook function for `serialize` should return a character vector for references it wants to handle; otherwise it should return `NULL`. The hook for `unserialize` will be called with character vectors supplied to `serialize` and should return an appropriate object.

For a text-mode connection, the default value of `ascii` is set to `TRUE`: only ASCII representations can be written to text-mode connections and attempting to use `ascii = FALSE` will throw an error.

The format consists of a single line followed by the data: the first line contains a single character: `X` for binary serialization and `A` for ASCII serialization, followed by a new line. (The format used is identical to that used by [readRDS](#).)

The option of `xdr = FALSE` was introduced in R 2.15.0. As almost all systems in current use are little-endian, this can be used to avoid byte-shuffling at both ends when transferring data from one little-endian machine to another. Depending on the system, this can speed up serialization and unserialization by a factor of up to 3x.

Value

For `serialize`, `NULL` unless `connection = NULL`, when the result is returned in a raw vector.

For `unserialize` an R object.

Warning

These functions have provided a stable interface since R 2.4.0 (when the storage of serialized objects was changed from character to raw vectors). However, the serialization format may change in future versions of R, so this interface should not be used for long-term storage of R objects.

On 32-bit platforms a raw vector is limited to $2^{31} - 1$ bytes, but R objects can exceed this and their serializations will normally be larger than the objects.

See Also

[saveRDS](#) for a more convenient interface to serialize an object to a file or connection.

[save](#) and [load](#) to serialize and restore one or more named objects.

The ‘R Internals’ manual for details of the format used.

Examples

```
x <- serialize(list(1,2,3), NULL)
unserialize(x)

## see also the examples for saveRDS
```

Description

Performs **set** union, intersection, (asymmetric!) difference, equality and membership on two vectors.

Usage

```
union(x, y)
intersect(x, y)
setdiff(x, y)
setequal(x, y)

is.element(el, set)
```

Arguments

`x`, `y`, `el`, `set` vectors (of the same mode) containing a sequence of items (conceptually) with no duplicated values.

Details

Each of `union`, `intersect`, `setdiff` and `setequal` will discard any duplicated values in the arguments, and they apply [as.vector](#) to their arguments (and so in particular coerce factors to character vectors).

`is.element(x, y)` is identical to `x %in% y`.

Value

A vector of the same [mode](#) as `x` or `y` for `setdiff` and `intersect`, respectively, and of a common mode for `union`.

A logical scalar for `setequal` and a logical of the same length as `x` for `is.element`.

See Also

[%in%](#)

[‘plotmath’](#) for the use of `union` and `intersect` in plot annotation.

Examples

```
(x <- c(sort(sample(1:20, 9)), NA))
(y <- c(sort(sample(3:23, 7)), NA))
union(x, y)
intersect(x, y)
setdiff(x, y)
setdiff(y, x)
setequal(x, y)

## True for all possible x & y :
setequal( union(x, y),
          c(setdiff(x, y), intersect(x, y), setdiff(y, x)))

is.element(x, y) # length 10
is.element(y, x) # length 8
```

setTimeLimit	<i>Set CPU and/or Elapsed Time Limits</i>
--------------	---

Description

Functions to set CPU and/or elapsed time limits for top-level computations or the current session.

Usage

```
setTimeLimit(cpu = Inf, elapsed = Inf, transient = FALSE)
```

```
setSessionTimeLimit(cpu = Inf, elapsed = Inf)
```

Arguments

cpu, elapsed	double (of length one). Set a limit on the total or elapsed cpu time in seconds, respectively.
transient	logical. If TRUE, the limits apply only to the rest of the current computation.

Details

setTimeLimit sets limits which apply to each top-level computation, that is a command line (including any continuation lines) entered at the console or from a file. If it is called from within a computation the limits apply to the rest of the computation and (unless transient = TRUE) to subsequent top-level computations.

setSessionTimeLimit sets limits for the rest of the session. Once a session limit is reached it is reset to Inf.

Setting any limit has a small overhead – well under 1% on the systems measured.

Time limits are checked whenever a user interrupt could occur. This will happen frequently in R code and during [Sys.sleep](#), but only at points in compiled C and Fortran code identified by the code author.

‘Total cpu time’ includes that used by child processes where the latter is reported.

showConnections	<i>Display Connections</i>
-----------------	----------------------------

Description

Display aspects of [connections](#).

Usage

```

showConnections(all = FALSE)
getConnection(what)
closeAllConnections()

stdin()
stdout()
stderr()

isatty(con)

```

Arguments

<code>all</code>	logical: if true all connections, including closed ones and the standard ones are displayed. If false only open user-created connections are included.
<code>what</code>	integer: a row number of the table given by <code>showConnections</code> .
<code>con</code>	a connection.

Details

`stdin()`, `stdout()` and `stderr()` are standard connections corresponding to input, output and error on the console respectively (and not necessarily to file streams). They are text-mode connections of class "terminal" which cannot be opened or closed, and are read-only, write-only and write-only respectively. The `stdout()` and `stderr()` connections can be re-directed by [sink](#) (and in some circumstances the output from `stdout()` can be split: see the help page).

The encoding for [stdin\(\)](#) when redirected can be set by the command-line flag '--encoding'.

`showConnections` returns a matrix of information. If a connection object has been lost or forgotten, `getConnection` will take a row number from the table and return a connection object for that connection, which can be used to close the connection, for example. However, if there is no R level object referring to the connection it will be closed automatically at the next garbage collection (except for [gzcon](#) connections).

`closeAllConnections` closes (and destroys) all user connections, restoring all [sink](#) diversions as it does so.

`isatty` returns true if the connection is one of the class "terminal" connections and it is apparently connected to a terminal, otherwise false. This may not be reliable in embedded applications, including GUI consoles.

Value

`stdin()`, `stdout()` and `stderr()` return connection objects.

`showConnections` returns a character matrix of information with a row for each connection, by default only for open non-standard connections.

`getConnection` returns a connection object, or NULL.

Note

`stdin()` refers to the ‘console’ and not to the C-level ‘`stdin`’ of the process. The distinction matters in GUI consoles (which may not have an active ‘`stdin`’, and if they do it may not be connected to console input), and also in embedded applications. If you want access to the C-level file stream ‘`stdin`’, use `file("stdin")`.

When R is reading a script from a file, the *file* is the ‘console’: this is traditional usage to allow in-line data (see ‘An Introduction to R’ for an example).

See Also

[connections](#)

Examples

```
showConnections(all = TRUE)
## Not run:
textConnection(letters)
# oops, I forgot to record that one
showConnections()
# class      description      mode text  isopen  can read can write
#3 "letters" "textConnection" "r"  "text" "opened" "yes"    "no"
mycon <- getConnection(3)

## End(Not run)

c(isatty(stdin()), isatty(stdout()), isatty(stderr()))
```

shQuote

Quote Strings for Use in OS Shells

Description

Quote a string to be passed to an operating system shell.

Usage

```
shQuote(string, type = c("sh", "csh", "cmd", "cmd2"))
```

Arguments

<code>string</code>	a character vector, usually of length one.
<code>type</code>	character: the type of shell quoting. Partial matching is supported. "cmd" and "cmd2" refer to the Windows shell. "cmd" is the default under Windows.

Details

The default type of quoting supported under Unix-alikes is that for the Bourne shell `sh`. If the string does not contain single quotes, we can just surround it with single quotes. Otherwise, the string is surrounded in double quotes, which suppresses all special meanings of metacharacters except dollar, backquote and backslash, so these (and of course double quote) are preceded by backslash. This type of quoting is also appropriate for `bash`, `ksh` and `zsh`.

The other type of quoting is for the C-shell (`cs` and `tcsh`). Once again, if the string does not contain single quotes, we can just surround it with single quotes. If it does contain single quotes, we can use double quotes provided it does not contain dollar or backquote (and we need to escape backslash, exclamation mark and double quote). As a last resort, we need to split the string into pieces not containing single quotes and surround each with single quotes, and the single quotes with double quotes.

In Windows, command line interpretation is done by the application as well as the shell. It may depend on the compiler used: Microsoft's rules for the C run-time are given at <https://msdn.microsoft.com/library/ms880421>. It may depend on the whim of the programmer of the application: check its documentation. The type = "cmd" quoting surrounds the string by double quotes and escapes internal double quotes by a backslash. As Windows path names cannot contain double quotes, this makes `shQuote` safe for use with many applications when used with `system` or `system2`. The Windows `cmd.exe` shell (used by default with `shell`) uses type = "cmd2" quoting: special characters are prefixed with "^". In some cases, two types of quoting should be used: first for the application, and then type = "cmd2" for `cmd.exe`. See the examples below.

References

Loukides, M. *et al* (2002) *Unix Power Tools* Third Edition. O'Reilly. Section 27.12.
Discussion in [PR#16636](#).

See Also

[Quotes](#) for quoting R code.
[sQuote](#) for quoting English text.

Examples

```
test <- "abc$def`gh`i\\j"
cat(shQuote(test), "\n")
## Not run: system(paste("echo", shQuote(test)))
test <- "don't do it!"
cat(shQuote(test), "\n")

tryit <- paste("use the", sQuote("-c"), "switch\nlike this")
cat(shQuote(tryit), "\n")
## Not run: system(paste("echo", shQuote(tryit)))
cat(shQuote(tryit, type = "csh"), "\n")

## Windows-only example, assuming cmd.exe:
perlcmd <- 'print "Hello World\\n";'
## Not run:
shell(shQuote(paste("perl -e",
```

```

        shQuote(perlcmd, type = "cmd")),
    type = "cmd2"))

## End(Not run)

```

sign

Sign Function

Description

sign returns a vector with the signs of the corresponding elements of x (the sign of a real number is 1, 0, or -1 if the number is positive, zero, or negative, respectively).

Note that sign does not operate on complex vectors.

Usage

```
sign(x)
```

Arguments

x a numeric vector

Details

This is an [internal generic primitive](#) function: methods can be defined for it directly or via the [Math](#) group generic.

See Also

[abs](#)

Examples

```

sign(pi)    # == 1
sign(-2:3)  # -1 -1 0 1 1 1

```


Signals

Interrupting Execution of R

Description

On receiving SIGUSR1 R will save the workspace and quit. SIGUSR2 has the same result except that the `.Last` function and `on.exit` expressions will not be called.

Usage

```
kill -USR1 pid
kill -USR2 pid
```

Arguments

pid The process ID of the R process.

Details

The commands history will also be saved if would be at normal termination.

This is not available on Windows, and possibly on other OSes which do not support these signals.

Warning

It is possible that one or more R objects will be undergoing modification at the time the signal is sent. These objects could be saved in a corrupted form.

See Also

[Sys.getpid](#) to report the process ID for future use.

sink*Send R Output to a File*

Description

`sink` diverts R output to a connection.

`sink.number()` reports how many diversions are in use.

`sink.number(type = "message")` reports the number of the connection currently being used for error messages.

Usage

```
sink(file = NULL, append = FALSE, type = c("output", "message"),
      split = FALSE)
```

```
sink.number(type = c("output", "message"))
```

Arguments

file	a writable connection or a character string naming the file to write to, or NULL to stop sink-ing.
append	logical. If TRUE, output will be appended to file; otherwise, it will overwrite the contents of file.
type	character string. Either the output stream or the messages stream. The name will be partially matched so can be abbreviated.
split	logical: if TRUE, output will be sent to the new sink and to the current output stream, like the Unix program tee.

Details

sink diverts R output to a connection. If file is a character string, a file connection with that name will be established for the duration of the diversion.

Normal R output (to connection [stdout](#)) is diverted by the default type = "output". Only prompts and (most) messages continue to appear on the console. Messages sent to [stderr\(\)](#) (including those from [message](#), [warning](#) and [stop](#)) can be diverted by sink(type = "message") (see below).

sink() or sink(file = NULL) ends the last diversion (of the specified type). There is a stack of diversions for normal output, so output reverts to the previous diversion (if there was one). The stack is of up to 21 connections (20 diversions).

If file is a connection it will be opened if necessary (in "wt" mode) and closed once it is removed from the stack of diversions.

split = TRUE only splits R output (via Rvprintf) and the default output from [writeLines](#): it does not split all output that might be sent to [stdout\(\)](#).

Sink-ing the messages stream should be done only with great care. For that stream file must be an already open connection, and there is no stack of connections.

If file is a character string, the file will be opened using the current encoding. If you want a different encoding (e.g., to represent strings which have been stored in UTF-8), use a [file](#) connection — but some ways to produce R output will already have converted such strings to the current encoding.

Value

sink returns NULL.

For sink.number() the number (0, 1, 2, ...) of diversions of output in place.

For sink.number("message") the connection number used for messages, 2 if no diversion has been used.

Warning

Do not use a connection that is open for sink for any other purpose. The software will stop you closing one such inadvertently.

Do not sink the messages stream unless you understand the source code implementing it and hence the pitfalls.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

See Also

[capture.output](#)

Examples

```
sink("sink-examp.txt")
i <- 1:10
outer(i, i, "*")
sink()
unlink("sink-examp.txt")

## capture all the output to a file.
zz <- file("all.Rout", open = "wt")
sink(zz)
sink(zz, type = "message")
try(log("a"))
## back to the console
sink(type = "message")
sink()
file.show("all.Rout")
```

slice.index

Slice Indexes in an Array

Description

Returns a matrix of integers indicating the number of their slice in a given array.

Usage

```
slice.index(x, MARGIN)
```

Arguments

x	an array. If x has no dimension attribute, it is considered a one-dimensional array.
MARGIN	an integer giving the dimension number to slice by.

Value

An integer array y with dimensions corresponding to those of x such that all elements of slice number i with respect to dimension MARGIN have value i.

See Also

[row](#) and [col](#) for determining row and column indexes; in fact, these are special cases of `slice.index` corresponding to `MARGIN` equal to 1 and 2, respectively when `x` is a matrix.

Examples

```
x <- array(1 : 24, c(2, 3, 4))
slice.index(x, 2)
```

slotOp

Extract or Replace A Slot

Description

Extract or replace the contents of a slot in a object with a formal (S4) class structure.

Usage

```
object@name
object@name <- value
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	An object from a formally defined (S4) class.
<code>name</code>	The character-string name of the slot, quoted or not. Must be the name of a slot in the definition of the class of <code>object</code> .
<code>value</code>	A replacement value for the slot, which must be from a class compatible with the class defined for this slot in the definition of the class of <code>object</code> .

Details

These operators support the formal classes of package **methods**, and are enabled only when package **methods** is loaded (as per default). See [slot](#) for further details, in particular for the differences between `slot()` and the `@` operator.

It is checked that `object` is an S4 object (see [isS4](#)), and it is an error to attempt to use `@` on any other object. (There is an exception for name `.Data` for internal use only.) The replacement operator checks that the slot already exists on the object (which it should if the object is really from the class it claims to be).

Prior to R 3.0.0 the replacement operator was in package **methods** and had a different test for validity of name.

These are internal generic operators: see [InternalMethods](#).

Value

The current contents of the slot.

See Also[Extract](#), [slot](#)

socketSelect*Wait on Socket Connections*

Description

Waits for the first of several socket connections to become available.

Usage

```
socketSelect(socklist, write = FALSE, timeout = NULL)
```

Arguments

socklist	list of open socket connections
write	logical. If TRUE wait for corresponding socket to become available for writing; otherwise wait for it to become available for reading.
timeout	numeric or NULL. Time in seconds to wait for a socket to become available; NULL means wait indefinitely.

Details

The values in `write` are recycled if necessary to make up a logical vector the same length as `socklist`. Socket connections can appear more than once in `socklist`; this can be useful if you want to determine whether a socket is available for reading or writing.

Value

Logical the same length as `socklist` indicating whether the corresponding socket connection is available for output or input, depending on the corresponding value of `write`.

Examples

```
## Not run:  
## test whether socket connection s is available for writing or reading  
socketSelect(list(s, s), c(TRUE, FALSE), timeout = 0)  
  
## End(Not run)
```

solve	<i>Solve a System of Equations</i>
-------	------------------------------------

Description

This generic function solves the equation $a \cdot x = b$ for x , where b can be either a vector or a matrix.

Usage

```
solve(a, b, ...)
```

Default S3 method:

```
solve(a, b, tol, LINPACK = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>a</code>	a square numeric or complex matrix containing the coefficients of the linear system. Logical matrices are coerced to numeric.
<code>b</code>	a numeric or complex vector or matrix giving the right-hand side(s) of the linear system. If missing, <code>b</code> is taken to be an identity matrix and <code>solve</code> will return the inverse of <code>a</code> .
<code>tol</code>	the tolerance for detecting linear dependencies in the columns of <code>a</code> . The default is <code>.Machine\$double.eps</code> . Not currently used with complex matrices <code>a</code> .
<code>LINPACK</code>	logical. Defunct and ignored.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods

Details

`a` or `b` can be complex, but this uses double complex arithmetic which might not be available on all platforms.

The row and column names of the result are taken from the column names of `a` and of `b` respectively. If `b` is missing the column names of the result are the row names of `a`. No check is made that the column names of `a` and the row names of `b` are equal.

For back-compatibility `a` can be a (real) QR decomposition, although `qr.solve` should be called in that case. `qr.solve` can handle non-square systems.

Unsuccessful results from the underlying LAPACK code will result in an error giving a positive error code: these can only be interpreted by detailed study of the FORTRAN code.

Source

The default method is an interface to the LAPACK routines DGESV and ZGESV.
LAPACK is from <http://www.netlib.org/lapack>.

References

- Anderson. E. and ten others (1999) *LAPACK Users' Guide*. Third Edition. SIAM.
Available on-line at http://www.netlib.org/lapack/lug/lapack_lug.html.
- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[solve.qr](#) for the qr method, [chol2inv](#) for inverting from the Choleski factor [backsolve](#), [qr.solve](#).

Examples

```
hilbert <- function(n) { i <- 1:n; 1 / outer(i - 1, i, "+") }
h8 <- hilbert(8); h8
sh8 <- solve(h8)
round(sh8 %*% h8, 3)

A <- hilbert(4)
A[] <- as.complex(A)
## might not be supported on all platforms
try(solve(A))
```

sort

Sorting or Ordering Vectors

Description

Sort (or *order*) a vector or factor (partially) into ascending or descending order. For ordering along more than one variable, e.g., for sorting data frames, see [order](#).

Usage

```
sort(x, decreasing = FALSE, ...)

## Default S3 method:
sort(x, decreasing = FALSE, na.last = NA, ...)

sort.int(x, partial = NULL, na.last = NA, decreasing = FALSE,
         method = c("shell", "quick"), index.return = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x for sort an R object with a class or a numeric, complex, character or logical vector. For sort.int, a numeric, complex, character or logical vector, or a factor.

decreasing	logical. Should the sort be increasing or decreasing? Not available for partial sorting.
...	arguments to be passed to or from methods or (for the default methods and objects without a class) to <code>sort.int</code> .
na.last	for controlling the treatment of NAs. If TRUE, missing values in the data are put last; if FALSE, they are put first; if NA, they are removed.
partial	NULL or a vector of indices for partial sorting.
method	character string specifying the algorithm used. Not available for partial sorting. Can be abbreviated.
index.return	logical indicating if the ordering index vector should be returned as well; this is only available for a few cases, the default <code>na.last = NA</code> and full sorting of non-factors.

Details

`sort` is a generic function for which methods can be written, and `sort.int` is the internal method which is compatible with S if only the first three arguments are used.

The default `sort` method makes use of `order` for classed objects, which in turn makes use of the generic function `xtfrm` (and can be slow unless a `xtfrm` method has been defined or `is.numeric(x)` is true).

Complex values are sorted first by the real part, then the imaginary part.

The sort order for character vectors will depend on the collating sequence of the locale in use: see [Comparison](#). The sort order for factors is the order of their levels (which is particularly appropriate for ordered factors).

If `partial` is not NULL, it is taken to contain indices of elements of the result which are to be placed in their correct positions in the sorted array by partial sorting. For each of the result values in a specified position, any values smaller than that one are guaranteed to have a smaller index in the sorted array and any values which are greater are guaranteed to have a bigger index in the sorted array. (This is included for efficiency, and many of the options are not available for partial sorting. It is only substantially more efficient if `partial` has a handful of elements, and a full sort is done (a Quicksort if possible) if there are more than 10.) Names are discarded for partial sorting.

Method "shell" uses Shellsort (an $O(n^{4/3})$ variant from Sedgewick (1986)). If `x` has names a stable modification is used, so ties are not reordered. (This only matters if names are present.)

Method "quick" uses Singleton (1969)'s implementation of Hoare's Quicksort method and is only available when `x` is numeric (double or integer) and `partial` is NULL. (For other types of `x` Shellsort is used, silently.) It is normally somewhat faster than Shellsort (perhaps 50% faster on vectors of length a million and twice as fast at a billion) but has poor performance in the rare worst case. (Peto's modification using a pseudo-random midpoint is used to make the worst case rarer.) This is not a stable sort, and ties may be reordered.

Factors with less than 100,000 levels are sorted by radix sorting when `method` is not supplied: see [sort.list](#).

Value

For `sort`, the result depends on the S3 method which is dispatched. If `x` does not have a class `sort.int` is used and its description applies. For classed objects which do not have a specific

method the default method will be used and is equivalent to `x[order(x, ...)]`: this depends on the class having a suitable method for `[]` (and also that `order` will work, which is not the case for a class based on a list).

For `sort.int` the value is the sorted vector unless `index.return` is true, when the result is a list with components named `x` and `ix` containing the sorted numbers and the ordering index vector. In the latter case, if `method == "quick"` ties may be reversed in the ordering (unlike `sort.list`) as quicksort is not stable. NB: the index vector refers to element numbers *after removal of NAs*: see [order](#) if you want the original element numbers.

All attributes are removed from the return value (see Becker *et al*, 1988, p.146) except names, which are sorted. (If `partial` is specified even the names are removed.) Note that this means that the returned value has no class, except for factors and ordered factors (which are treated specially and whose result is transformed back to the original class).

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Knuth, D. E. (1998) *The Art of Computer Programming, Volume 3: Sorting and Searching*. 2nd ed. Addison-Wesley.
- Sedgewick, R. (1986) A new upper bound for Shell sort. *J. Algorithms* **7**, 159–173.
- Singleton, R. C. (1969) An efficient algorithm for sorting with minimal storage: Algorithm 347. *Communications of the ACM* **12**, 185–187.

See Also

[‘Comparison’](#) for how character strings are collated.

[order](#) for sorting on or reordering multiple variables.

[is.unsorted.rank](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)

x <- swiss$Education[1:25]
x; sort(x); sort(x, partial = c(10, 15))

## illustrate 'stable' sorting (of ties):
sort(c(10:3, 2:12), method = "sh", index.return = TRUE) # is stable
## $x : 2 3 3 4 4 5 5 6 6 7 7 8 8 9 9 10 10 11 12
## $ix: 9 8 10 7 11 6 12 5 13 4 14 3 15 2 16 1 17 18 19
sort(c(10:3, 2:12), method = "qu", index.return = TRUE) # is not
## $x : 2 3 3 4 4 5 5 6 6 7 7 8 8 9 9 10 10 11 12
## $ix: 9 10 8 7 11 6 12 5 13 4 14 3 15 16 2 17 1 18 19

x <- c(1:3, 3:5, 10)
is.unsorted(x) # FALSE: is sorted
is.unsorted(x, strictly = TRUE) # TRUE : is not (and cannot be)
# sorted strictly
```

```
## Not run:
## Small speed comparison simulation:
N <- 2000
Sim <- 20
rep <- 1000 # << adjust to your CPU
c1 <- c2 <- numeric(Sim)
for(is in seq_len(Sim)){
  x <- rnorm(N)
  c1[is] <- system.time(for(i in 1:rep) sort(x, method = "shell"))[1]
  c2[is] <- system.time(for(i in 1:rep) sort(x, method = "quick"))[1]
  stopifnot(sort(x, method = "s") == sort(x, method = "q"))
}
rbind(ShellSort = c1, QuickSort = c2)
cat("Speedup factor of quick sort():\n")
summary({qq <- c1 / c2; qq[is.finite(qq)]})

## A larger test
x <- rnorm(1e7)
system.time(x1 <- sort(x, method = "shell"))
system.time(x2 <- sort(x, method = "quick"))
stopifnot(identical(x1, x2))

## End(Not run)
```

source

Read R Code from a File or a Connection

Description

source causes R to accept its input from the named file or URL or connection. Input is read and [parsed](#) from that file until the end of the file is reached, then the parsed expressions are evaluated sequentially in the chosen environment.

Usage

```
source(file, local = FALSE, echo = verbose, print.eval = echo,
       verbose = getOption("verbose"),
       prompt.echo = getOption("prompt"),
       max.deparse.length = 150, chdir = FALSE,
       encoding = getOption("encoding"),
       continue.echo = getOption("continue"),
       skip.echo = 0, keep.source = getOption("keep.source"))
```

Arguments

file a [connection](#) or a character string giving the pathname of the file or URL to read from. "" indicates the connection [stdin\(\)](#).

<code>local</code>	TRUE, FALSE or an environment, determining where the parsed expressions are evaluated. FALSE (the default) corresponds to the user's workspace (the global environment) and TRUE to the environment from which <code>source</code> is called.
<code>echo</code>	logical; if TRUE, each expression is printed after parsing, before evaluation.
<code>print.eval</code>	logical; if TRUE, the result of <code>eval(i)</code> is printed for each expression <code>i</code> ; defaults to the value of <code>echo</code> .
<code>verbose</code>	if TRUE, more diagnostics (than just <code>echo = TRUE</code>) are printed during parsing and evaluation of input, including extra info for each expression.
<code>prompt.echo</code>	character; gives the prompt to be used if <code>echo = TRUE</code> .
<code>max.deparse.length</code>	integer; is used only if <code>echo</code> is TRUE and gives the maximal number of characters output for the deparse of a single expression.
<code>chdir</code>	logical; if TRUE and <code>file</code> is a pathname, the R working directory is temporarily changed to the directory containing <code>file</code> for evaluating.
<code>encoding</code>	character vector. The encoding(s) to be assumed when <code>file</code> is a character string: see file . A possible value is "unknown" when the encoding is guessed: see the 'Encodings' section.
<code>continue.echo</code>	character; gives the prompt to use on continuation lines if <code>echo = TRUE</code> .
<code>skip.echo</code>	integer; how many comment lines at the start of the file to skip if <code>echo = TRUE</code> .
<code>keep.source</code>	logical: should the source formatting be retained when echoing expressions, if possible?

Details

Note that running code via `source` differs in a few respects from entering it at the R command line. Since expressions are not executed at the top level, auto-printing is not done. So you will need to include explicit `print` calls for things you want to be printed (and remember that this includes plotting by **[lattice](#)**, FAQ Q7.22). Since the complete file is parsed before any of it is run, syntax errors result in none of the code being run. If an error occurs in running a syntactically correct script, anything assigned into the workspace by code that has been run will be kept (just as from the command line), but diagnostic information such as `traceback()` will contain additional calls to `withVisible`.

All versions of R accept input from a connection with end of line marked by LF (as used on Unix), CRLF (as used on DOS/Windows) or CR (as used on classic Mac OS) and map this to newline. The final line can be incomplete, that is missing the final end-of-line marker.

If `keep.source` is true (the default in interactive use), the source of functions is kept so they can be listed exactly as input.

Unlike input from a console, lines in the file or on a connection can contain an unlimited number of characters.

When `skip.echo > 0`, that many comment lines at the start of the file will not be echoed. This does not affect the execution of the code at all. If there are executable lines within the first `skip.echo` lines, echoing will start with the first of them.

If `echo` is true and a deparsed expression exceeds `max.deparse.length`, that many characters are output followed by `... [TRUNCATED]`.

Encodings

By default the input is read and parsed in the current encoding of the R session. This is usually what it required, but occasionally re-encoding is needed, e.g. if a file from a UTF-8-using system is to be read on Windows (or *vice versa*).

The rest of this paragraph applies if file is an actual filename or URL (and not "" nor a connection). If encoding = "unknown", an attempt is made to guess the encoding: the result of `localeToCharset()` is used as a guide. If encoding has two or more elements, they are tried in turn until the file/URL can be read without error in the trial encoding. If an actual encoding is specified (rather than the default or "unknown") in a Latin-1 or UTF-8 locale then character strings in the result will be translated to the current encoding and marked as such (see [Encoding](#)).

If file is a connection (including one specified by "", it is not possible to re-encode the input inside source, and so the encoding argument is just used to mark character strings in the parsed input in Latin-1 and UTF-8 locales: see [parse](#).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[demo](#) which uses `source`; [eval](#), [parse](#) and [scan](#); `options("keep.source")`.

[sys.source](#) which is a streamlined version to source a file into an environment.

'The R Language Definition' for a discussion of source directives.

Examples

```
## If you want to source() a bunch of files, something like
## the following may be useful:
sourceDir <- function(path, trace = TRUE, ...) {
  for (nm in list.files(path, pattern = "[.]RrSsQq$")) {
    if(trace) cat(nm,":")
    source(file.path(path, nm), ...)
    if(trace) cat("\n")
  }
}
```

Description

Special mathematical functions related to the beta and gamma functions.

Usage

```

beta(a, b)
lbeta(a, b)

gamma(x)
lgamma(x)
psigamma(x, deriv = 0)
digamma(x)
trigamma(x)

choose(n, k)
lchoose(n, k)
factorial(x)
lfactorial(x)

```

Arguments

a, b	non-negative numeric vectors.
x, n	numeric vectors.
k, deriv	integer vectors.

Details

The functions `beta` and `lbeta` return the beta function and the natural logarithm of the beta function,

$$B(a, b) = \frac{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)}.$$

The formal definition is

$$B(a, b) = \int_0^1 t^{a-1}(1-t)^{b-1} dt$$

(Abramowitz and Stegun section 6.2.1, page 258). Note that it is only defined in **R** for non-negative *a* and *b*, and is infinite if either is zero.

The functions `gamma` and `lgamma` return the gamma function $\Gamma(x)$ and the natural logarithm of *the absolute value of* the gamma function. The gamma function is defined by (Abramowitz and Stegun section 6.1.1, page 255)

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$$

for all real *x* except zero and negative integers (when `NaN` is returned). There will be a warning on possible loss of precision for values which are too close (within about 10^{-8}) to a negative integer less than `-10`.

`factorial(x)` ($x!$ for non-negative integer *x*) is defined to be `gamma(x+1)` and `lfactorial` to be `lgamma(x+1)`.

The functions `digamma` and `trigamma` return the first and second derivatives of the logarithm of the gamma function. `psigamma(x, deriv)` (`deriv >= 0`) computes the *deriv*-th derivative of $\psi(x)$.

$$\text{digamma}(x) = \psi(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \ln \Gamma(x) = \frac{\Gamma'(x)}{\Gamma(x)}$$

ψ and its derivatives, the `psigamma()` functions, are often called the ‘polygamma’ functions, e.g. in Abramowitz and Stegun (section 6.4.1, page 260); and higher derivatives (`deriv = 2:4`) have occasionally been called ‘tetragamma’, ‘pentagamma’, and ‘hexagamma’.

The functions `choose` and `lchoose` return binomial coefficients and the logarithms of their absolute values. Note that `choose(n, k)` is defined for all real numbers n and integer k . For $k \geq 1$ it is defined as $n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1)/k!$, as 1 for $k = 0$ and as 0 for negative k . Non-integer values of k are rounded to an integer, with a warning.

`choose(*, k)` uses direct arithmetic (instead of `[1]gamma` calls) for small k , for speed and accuracy reasons. Note the function `combn` (package `utils`) for enumeration of all possible combinations.

The `gamma`, `lgamma`, `digamma` and `trigamma` functions are [internal generic primitive](#) functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the `Math` group generic.

Source

`gamma`, `lgamma`, `beta` and `lbeta` are based on C translations of Fortran subroutines by W. Fullerton of Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory (now available as part of SLATEC).

`digamma`, `trigamma` and `psigamma` are based on

Amos, D. E. (1983). A portable Fortran subroutine for derivatives of the psi function, Algorithm 610, *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software* **9**(4), 494–502.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (For `gamma` and `lgamma`.)

Abramowitz, M. and Stegun, I. A. (1972) *Handbook of Mathematical Functions*. New York: Dover. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abramowitz_and_Stegun provides links to the full text which is in public domain.

Chapter 6: Gamma and Related Functions.

See Also

[Arithmetic](#) for simple, [sqrt](#) for miscellaneous mathematical functions and [Bessel](#) for the real Bessel functions.

For the incomplete gamma function see [pgamma](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

choose(5, 2)
for (n in 0:10) print(choose(n, k = 0:n))

factorial(100)
lfactorial(10000)

## gamma has 1st order poles at 0, -1, -2, ...
## this will generate loss of precision warnings, so turn off
op <- options("warn")
```

```

options(warn = -1)
x <- sort(c(seq(-3, 4, length.out = 201), outer(0:-3, (-1:1)*1e-6, "+")))
plot(x, gamma(x), ylim = c(-20,20), col = "red", type = "l", lwd = 2,
     main = expression(Gamma(x)))
abline(h = 0, v = -3:0, lty = 3, col = "midnightblue")
options(op)

x <- seq(0.1, 4, length.out = 201); dx <- diff(x)[1]
par(mfrow = c(2, 3))
for (ch in c("", "l", "di", "tri", "tetra", "penta")) {
  is.deriv <- nchar(ch) >= 2
  nm <- paste0(ch, "gamma")
  if (is.deriv) {
    dy <- diff(y) / dx # finite difference
    der <- which(ch == c("di", "tri", "tetra", "penta")) - 1
    nm2 <- paste0("psigamma(*, deriv = ", der, ")")
    nm <- if(der >= 2) nm2 else paste(nm, nm2, sep = " ==\n")
    y <- psigamma(x, deriv = der)
  } else {
    y <- get(nm)(x)
  }
  plot(x, y, type = "l", main = nm, col = "red")
  abline(h = 0, col = "lightgray")
  if (is.deriv) lines(x[-1], dy, col = "blue", lty = 2)
}
par(mfrow = c(1, 1))

## "Extended" Pascal triangle:
fN <- function(n) formatC(n, width=2)
for (n in -4:10) {
  cat(fN(n), ":", fN(choose(n, k = -2:max(3, n+2))))
  cat("\n")
}

## R code version of choose() [simplistic; warning for k < 0]:
mychoose <- function(r, k)
  ifelse(k <= 0, (k == 0),
        sapply(k, function(k) prod(r:(r-k+1))) / factorial(k))
k <- -1:6
cbind(k = k, choose(1/2, k), mychoose(1/2, k))

## Binomial theorem for n = 1/2 ;
## sqrt(1+x) = (1+x)^(1/2) = sum_{k=0}^Inf choose(1/2, k) * x^k :
k <- 0:10 # 10 is sufficient for ~ 9 digit precision:
sqrt(1.25)
sum(choose(1/2, k) * .25^k)

```

Description

`split` divides the data in the vector `x` into the groups defined by `f`. The replacement forms replace values corresponding to such a division. `unsplit` reverses the effect of `split`.

Usage

```
split(x, f, drop = FALSE, ...)  
split(x, f, drop = FALSE, ...) <- value  
unsplit(value, f, drop = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	vector or data frame containing values to be divided into groups.
<code>f</code>	a ‘factor’ in the sense that <code>as.factor(f)</code> defines the grouping, or a list of such factors in which case their interaction is used for the grouping.
<code>drop</code>	logical indicating if levels that do not occur should be dropped (if <code>f</code> is a factor or a list).
<code>value</code>	a list of vectors or data frames compatible with a splitting of <code>x</code> . Recycling applies if the lengths do not match.
<code>...</code>	further potential arguments passed to methods.

Details

`split` and `split<-` are generic functions with default and `data.frame` methods. The data frame method can also be used to split a matrix into a list of matrices, and the replacement form likewise, provided they are invoked explicitly.

`unsplit` works with lists of vectors or data frames (assumed to have compatible structure, as if created by `split`). It puts elements or rows back in the positions given by `f`. In the data frame case, row names are obtained by unsplitting the row name vectors from the elements of `value`.

`f` is recycled as necessary and if the length of `x` is not a multiple of the length of `f` a warning is printed.

Any missing values in `f` are dropped together with the corresponding values of `x`.

The default method calls `interaction`. If the levels of the factors contain ‘.’ they may not be split as expected, so the method has argument `sep` which is use to join the levels.

Value

The value returned from `split` is a list of vectors containing the values for the groups. The components of the list are named by the levels of `f` (after converting to a factor, or if already a factor and `drop = TRUE`, dropping unused levels).

The replacement forms return their right hand side. `unsplit` returns a vector or data frame for which `split(x, f)` equals `value`

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[cut](#) to categorize numeric values.

[strsplit](#) to split strings.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
n <- 10; nn <- 100
g <- factor(round(n * runif(n * nn)))
x <- rnorm(n * nn) + sqrt(as.numeric(g))
xg <- split(x, g)
boxplot(xg, col = "lavender", notch = TRUE, varwidth = TRUE)
sapply(xg, length)
sapply(xg, mean)

### Calculate 'z-scores' by group (standardize to mean zero, variance one)
z <- unsplit(lapply(split(x, g), scale), g)

# or

zz <- x
split(zz, g) <- lapply(split(x, g), scale)

# and check that the within-group std dev is indeed one
tapply(z, g, sd)
tapply(zz, g, sd)

### data frame variation

## Notice that assignment form is not used since a variable is being added

g <- airquality$Month
l <- split(airquality, g)
l <- lapply(l, transform, Oz.Z = scale(Ozone))
aq2 <- unsplit(l, g)
head(aq2)
with(aq2, tapply(Oz.Z, Month, sd, na.rm = TRUE))

### Split a matrix into a list by columns
ma <- cbind(x = 1:10, y = (-4:5)^2)
split(ma, col(ma))

split(1:10, 1:2)
```

Description

A wrapper for the C function `sprintf`, that returns a character vector containing a formatted combination of text and variable values.

Usage

```
sprintf(fmt, ...)
gettextf(fmt, ..., domain = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>fmt</code>	a character vector of format strings, each of up to 8192 bytes.
<code>...</code>	values to be passed into <code>fmt</code> . Only logical, integer, real and character vectors are supported, but some coercion will be done: see the ‘Details’ section. Up to 100.
<code>domain</code>	see gettext .

Details

`sprintf` is a wrapper for the system `sprintf` C-library function. Attempts are made to check that the mode of the values passed match the format supplied, and R’s special values (NA, Inf, -Inf and NaN) are handled correctly.

`gettextf` is a convenience function which provides C-style string formatting with possible translation of the format string.

The arguments (including `fmt`) are recycled if possible a whole number of times to the length of the longest, and then the formatting is done in parallel. Zero-length arguments are allowed and will give a zero-length result. All arguments are evaluated even if unused, and hence some types (e.g., “symbol” or “language”, see [typeof](#)) are not allowed.

The following is abstracted from Kernighan and Ritchie (see References): however the actual implementation will follow the C99 standard and fine details (especially the behaviour under user error) may depend on the platform.

The string `fmt` contains normal characters, which are passed through to the output string, and also conversion specifications which operate on the arguments provided through `...`. The allowed conversion specifications start with a % and end with one of the letters in the set `aA difeEgGosXX%`. These letters denote the following types:

- `d, i, o, x, X` Integer value, `o` being octal, `x` and `X` being hexadecimal (using the same case for `a-f` as the code). Numeric variables with exactly integer values will be coerced to integer. Formats `d` and `i` can also be used for logical variables, which will be converted to `0`, `1` or `NA`.
- `f` Double precision value, in “fixed point” decimal notation of the form “[-]mmm.ddd”. The number of decimal places (“d”) is specified by the precision: the default is 6; a precision of 0 suppresses the decimal point. Non-finite values are converted to `NA`, `NaN` or (perhaps a sign followed by) `Inf`.
- `e, E` Double precision value, in “exponential” decimal notation of the form “[-]m.ddde[+-]xx or [-]m.dddE[+-]xx”.

g, G Double precision value, in %e or %E format if the exponent is less than -4 or greater than or equal to the precision, and %f format otherwise. (The precision (default 6) specifies the number of *significant* digits here, whereas in %f, %e, it is the number of digits after the decimal point.)

a, A Double precision value, in binary notation of the form [-]0xh.hhhp[+-]d. This is a binary fraction expressed in hex multiplied by a (decimal) power of 2. The number of hex digits after the decimal point is specified by the precision: the default is enough digits to represent exactly the internal binary representation. Non-finite values are converted to NA, NaN or (perhaps a sign followed by) Inf. Format %a uses lower-case for x, p and the hex values: format %A uses upper-case.

This should be supported on all platforms as it is a feature of C99. The format is not uniquely defined: although it would be possible to make the leading h always zero or one, this is not always done. Most systems will suppress trailing zeros, but a few do not. On a well-written platform, for normal numbers there will be a leading one before the decimal point plus (by default) 13 hexadecimal digits, hence 53 bits. The treatment of denormalized (aka ‘subnormal’) numbers is very platform-dependent.

s Character string. Character NAs are converted to "NA".

% Literal % (none of the extra formatting characters given below are permitted in this case).

Conversion by `as.character` is used for non-character arguments with s and by `as.double` for non-double arguments with f, e, E, g, G. NB: the length is determined before conversion, so do not rely on the internal coercion if this would change the length. The coercion is done only once, so if `length(fmt) > 1` then all elements must expect the same types of arguments.

In addition, between the initial % and the terminating conversion character there may be, in any order:

m, n Two numbers separated by a period, denoting the field width (m) and the precision (n).

- Left adjustment of converted argument in its field.

+ Always print number with sign: by default only negative numbers are printed with a sign.

a space Prefix a space if the first character is not a sign.

0 For numbers, pad to the field width with leading zeros. For characters, this zero-pads on some platforms and is ignored on others.

specifies “alternate output” for numbers, its action depending on the type: For x or X, 0x or 0X will be prefixed to a non-zero result. For e, e, f, g and G, the output will always have a decimal point; for g and G, trailing zeros will not be removed.

Further, immediately after % may come 1\$ to 99\$ to refer to a numbered argument: this allows arguments to be referenced out of order and is mainly intended for translators of error messages. If this is done it is best if all formats are numbered: if not the unnumbered ones process the arguments in order. See the examples. This notation allows arguments to be used more than once, in which case they must be used as the same type (integer, double or character).

A field width or precision (but not both) may be indicated by an asterisk *: in this case an argument specifies the desired number. A negative field width is taken as a '-' flag followed by a positive field width. A negative precision is treated as if the precision were omitted. The argument should be integer, but a double argument will be coerced to integer.

There is a limit of 8192 bytes on elements of `fmt`, and on strings included from a single *%letter* conversion specification.

Field widths and precisions of %s conversions are interpreted as bytes, not characters, as described in the C standard.

The C doubles used for R numerical vectors have signed zeros, which sprintf may output as -0, -0.000

Value

A character vector of length that of the longest input. If any element of fmt or any character argument is declared as UTF-8, the element of the result will be in UTF-8 and have the encoding declared as UTF-8. Otherwise it will be in the current locale's encoding.

Warning

The format string is passed down the OS's sprintf function, and incorrect formats can cause the latter to crash the R process. R does perform sanity checks on the format, but not all possible user errors on all platforms have been tested, and some might be terminal.

The behaviour on inputs not documented here is 'undefined', which means it is allowed to differ by platform.

Author(s)

Original code by Jonathan Rougier.

References

Kernighan, B. W. and Ritchie, D. M. (1988) *The C Programming Language*. Second edition, Prentice Hall. Describes the format options in table B-1 in the Appendix.

The C Standards, especially ISO/IEC 9899:1999 for 'C99'. Links can be found at <https://developer.r-project.org/Portability.html>.

man sprintf on a Unix-alike system.

See Also

[formatC](#) for a way of formatting vectors of numbers in a similar fashion.

[paste](#) for another way of creating a vector combining text and values.

[gettext](#) for the mechanisms for the automated translation of text.

Examples

```
## be careful with the format: most things in R are floats
## only integer-valued reals get coerced to integer.

sprintf("%s is %f feet tall\n", "Sven", 7.1)      # OK
try(sprintf("%s is %i feet tall\n", "Sven", 7.1)) # not OK
  sprintf("%s is %i feet tall\n", "Sven", 7 )    # OK

## use a literal % :

sprintf("%.0f%% said yes (out of a sample of size %.0f)", 66.666, 3)
```

```

## various formats of pi :

sprintf("%f", pi)
sprintf("%.3f", pi)
sprintf("%1.0f", pi)
sprintf("%5.1f", pi)
sprintf("%05.1f", pi)
sprintf("%+f", pi)
sprintf("% f", pi)
sprintf("%-10f", pi) # left justified
sprintf("%e", pi)
sprintf("%E", pi)
sprintf("%g", pi)
sprintf("%g", 1e6 * pi) # -> exponential
sprintf("%.9g", 1e6 * pi) # -> "fixed"
sprintf("%G", 1e-6 * pi)

## no truncation:
sprintf("%1.f", 101)

## re-use one argument three times, show difference between %x and %X
xx <- sprintf("%1$d %1$x %1$X", 0:15)
xx <- matrix(xx, dimnames = list(rep("", 16), "%d%x%X"))
noquote(format(xx, justify = "right"))

## More sophisticated:

sprintf("min 10-char string '%10s'",
       c("a", "ABC", "and an even longer one"))

## Platform-dependent bad example from qdapTools 1.0.0:
## may pad with spaces or zeroes.
sprintf("%09s", month.name)

n <- 1:18
sprintf(paste0("e with %2d digits = %.", n, "g"), n, exp(1))

## Using arguments out of order
sprintf("second %2$1.0f, first %1$5.2f, third %3$1.0f", pi, 2, 3)

## Using asterisk for width or precision
sprintf("precision %.*f, width '%*.3f'", 3, pi, 8, pi)

## Asterisk and argument re-use, 'e' example reiterated:
sprintf("e with %1$2d digits = %2$.*1$g", n, exp(1))

## re-cycle arguments
sprintf("%s %d", "test", 1:3)

## binary output showing rounding/representation errors
x <- seq(0, 1.0, 0.1); y <- c(0,.1,.2,.3,.4,.5,.6,.7,.8,.9,1)
cbind(x, sprintf("%a", x), sprintf("%a", y))

```

sQuote*Quote Text*

Description

Single or double quote text by combining with appropriate single or double left and right quotation marks.

Usage

```
sQuote(x)
dQuote(x)
```

Arguments

`x` an R object, to be coerced to a character vector.

Details

The purpose of the functions is to provide a simple means of markup for quoting text to be used in the R output, e.g., in warnings or error messages.

The choice of the appropriate quotation marks depends on both the locale and the available character sets. Older Unix/X11 fonts displayed the grave accent (ASCII code 0x60) and the apostrophe (0x27) in a way that they could also be used as matching open and close single quotation marks. Using modern fonts, or non-Unix systems, these characters no longer produce matching glyphs. Unicode provides left and right single quotation mark characters (U+2018 and U+2019); if Unicode markup cannot be assumed to be available, it seems good practice to use the apostrophe as a non-directional single quotation mark.

Similarly, Unicode has left and right double quotation mark characters (U+201C and U+201D); if only ASCII's typewriter characteristics can be employed, then the ASCII quotation mark (0x22) should be used as both the left and right double quotation mark.

Some other locales also have the directional quotation marks, notably on Windows. TeX uses grave and apostrophe for the directional single quotation marks, and doubled grave and doubled apostrophe for the directional double quotation marks.

What rendering is used depend on the `options` setting for `useFancyQuotes`. If this is `FALSE` then the undirectional ASCII quotation style is used. If this is `TRUE` (the default), Unicode directional quotes are used where available (currently, UTF-8 locales on Unix-alikes and all Windows locales except C): if set to "UTF-8" UTF-8 markup is used (whatever the current locale). If set to "TeX", TeX-style markup is used. Finally, if this is set to a character vector of length four, the first two entries are used for beginning and ending single quotes and the second two for beginning and ending double quotes: this can be used to implement non-English quoting conventions such as the use of guillemets.

Where fancy quotes are used, you should be aware that they may not be rendered correctly as not all fonts include the requisite glyphs: for example some have directional single quotes but not directional double quotes.

Value

A character vector of the same length as `x` (after any coercion) in the current locale's encoding.

References

Markus Kuhn, "ASCII and Unicode quotation marks". <https://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/~mgk25/ucs/quotes.html>

See Also

[Quotes](#) for quoting R code.

[shQuote](#) for quoting OS commands.

Examples

```
op <- options("useFancyQuotes")
paste("argument", sQuote("x"), "must be non-zero")
options(useFancyQuotes = FALSE)
cat("\ndistinguish plain", sQuote("single"), "and",
    dQuote("double"), "quotes\n")
options(useFancyQuotes = TRUE)
cat("\ndistinguish fancy", sQuote("single"), "and",
    dQuote("double"), "quotes\n")
options(useFancyQuotes = "TeX")
cat("\ndistinguish TeX", sQuote("single"), "and",
    dQuote("double"), "quotes\n")
if(l10n_info()$`Latin-1`) {
  options(useFancyQuotes = c("\xab", "\xbb", "\xbf", "?"))
  cat("\n", sQuote("guillemet"), "and",
      dQuote("Spanish question"), "styles\n")
} else if(l10n_info()$`UTF-8`) {
  options(useFancyQuotes = c("\xc2\xab", "\xc2\xbb", "\xc2\xbf", "?"))
  cat("\n", sQuote("guillemet"), "and",
      dQuote("Spanish question"), "styles\n")
}
options(op)
```

srcfile

References to source files

Description

These functions are for working with source files.

Usage

```

srcfile(filename, encoding = getOption("encoding"), Enc = "unknown")
srcfilecopy(filename, lines, timestamp = Sys.time(), isFile = FALSE)
srcfilealias(filename, srcfile)
getSrcLines(srcfile, first, last)
srcref(srcfile, lloc)
## S3 method for class 'srcfile'
print(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'srcfile'
summary(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'srcfile'
open(con, line, ...)
## S3 method for class 'srcfile'
close(con, ...)
## S3 method for class 'srcref'
print(x, useSource = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'srcref'
summary(object, useSource = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'srcref'
as.character(x, useSource = TRUE, to = x, ...)
.isOpen(srcfile)

```

Arguments

filename	The name of a file.
encoding	The character encoding to assume for the file.
Enc	The encoding with which to make strings: see the encoding argument of parse .
lines	A character vector of source lines. Other R objects will be coerced to character.
timestamp	The timestamp to use on a copy of a file.
isFile	Is this srcfilecopy known to come from a file system file?
srcfile	A srcfile object.
first, last, line	Line numbers.
lloc	A vector of four, six or eight values giving a source location; see ‘Details’.
x, object, con	An object of the appropriate class.
useSource	Whether to read the srcfile to obtain the text of a srcref.
to	An optional second srcref object to mark the end of the character range.
...	Additional arguments to the methods; these will be ignored.

Details

These functions and classes handle source code references.

The `srcfile` function produces an object of class `srcfile`, which contains the name and directory of a source code file, along with its timestamp, for use in source level debugging (not yet

implemented) and source echoing. The encoding of the file is saved; see [file](#) for a discussion of encodings, and [iconvlist](#) for a list of allowable encodings on your platform.

The `srcfilecopy` function produces an object of the descendant class `srcfilecopy`, which saves the source lines in a character vector. It copies the value of the `isFile` argument, to help debuggers identify whether this text comes from a real file in the file system.

The `srcfilealias` function produces an object of the descendant class `srcfilealias`, which gives an alternate name to another `srcfile`. This is produced by the parser when a `#line` directive is used.

The `getSrcLines` function reads the specified lines from `srcfile`.

The `srcref` function produces an object of class `srcref`, which describes a range of characters in a `srcfile`. The `lloc` value gives the following values:

```
c(first_line, first_byte, last_line, last_byte, first_column,
  last_column, first_parsed, last_parsed)
```

Bytes (elements 2, 4) and columns (elements 5, 6) may be different due to multibyte characters. If only four values are given, the columns and bytes are assumed to match. Lines (elements 1, 3) and parsed lines (elements 7, 8) may differ if a `#line` directive is used in code: the former will respect the directive, the latter will just count lines. If only 4 or 6 elements are given, the parsed lines will be assumed to match the lines.

Methods are defined for `print`, `summary`, `open`, and `close` for classes `srcfile` and `srcfilecopy`. The `open` method opens its internal [file](#) connection at a particular line; if it was already open, it will be repositioned to that line.

Methods are defined for `print`, `summary` and `as.character` for class `srcref`. The `as.character` method will read the associated source file to obtain the text corresponding to the reference. If the `to` argument is given, it should be a second `srcref` that follows the first, in the same file; they will be treated as one reference to the whole range. The exact behaviour depends on the class of the source file. If the source file inherits from class `srcfilecopy`, the lines are taken from the saved copy using the “parsed” line counts. If not, an attempt is made to read the file, and the original line numbers of the `srcref` record (i.e., elements 1 and 3) are used. If an error occurs (e.g., the file no longer exists), text like `<srcref: "file" chars 1:1 to 2:10>` will be returned instead, indicating the line:column ranges of the first and last character. The `summary` method defaults to this type of display.

Lists of `srcref` objects may be attached to expressions as the `"srcref"` attribute. (The list of `srcref` objects should be the same length as the expression.) By default, expressions are printed by `print.default` using the associated `srcref`. To see deparsed code instead, call `print` with argument `useSource = FALSE`. If a `srcref` object is printed with `useSource = FALSE`, the `<srcref: ...>` record will be printed.

`.isOpen` is intended for internal use: it checks whether the connection associated with a `srcfile` object is open.

Value

`srcfile` returns a `srcfile` object.

`srcfilecopy` returns a `srcfilecopy` object.

`getSrcLines` returns a character vector of source code lines.

`srcref` returns a `srcref` object.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

See Also[getSrcFilename](#) for extracting information from a source reference.**Examples**

```
# has timestamp
src <- srcfile(system.file("DESCRIPTION", package = "base"))
summary(src)
getSrcLines(src, 1, 4)
ref <- srcref(src, c(1, 1, 2, 1000))
ref
print(ref, useSource = FALSE)
```

Startup*Initialization at Start of an R Session*

Description

In R, the startup mechanism is as follows.

Unless ‘--no-envir’ was given on the command line, R searches for site and user files to process for setting environment variables. The name of the site file is the one pointed to by the environment variable `R_ENVIRON`; if this is unset, ‘[R_HOME](#)/etc/Renviron.site’ is used (if it exists, which it does not in a ‘factory-fresh’ installation). The name of the user file can be specified by the `R_ENVIRON_USER` environment variable; if this is unset, the files searched for are ‘.Renviron’ in the current or in the user’s home directory (in that order). See ‘Details’ for how the files are read.

Then R searches for the site-wide startup profile file of R code unless the command line option ‘--no-site-file’ was given. The path of this file is taken from the value of the `R_PROFILE` environment variable (after [tilde expansion](#)). If this variable is unset, the default is ‘[R_HOME](#)/etc/Rprofile.site’, which is used if it exists (which it does not in a ‘factory-fresh’ installation). This code is sourced into the **base** package. Users need to be careful not to unintentionally overwrite objects in **base**, and it is normally advisable to use [local](#) if code needs to be executed: see the examples.

Then, unless ‘--no-init-file’ was given, R searches for a user profile, a file of R code. The path of this file can be specified by the `R_PROFILE_USER` environment variable (and [tilde expansion](#) will be performed). If this is unset, a file called ‘.Rprofile’ is searched for in the current directory or in the user’s home directory (in that order). The user profile file is sourced into the workspace.

Note that when the site and user profile files are sourced only the **base** package is loaded, so objects in other packages need to be referred to by e.g. `utils::dump.frames` or after explicitly loading the package concerned.

R then loads a saved image of the user workspace from ‘.RData’ in the current directory if there is one (unless ‘--no-restore-data’ or ‘--no-restore’ was specified on the command line).

Next, if a function `.First` is found on the search path, it is executed as `.First()`. Finally, function `.First.sys()` in the **base** package is run. This calls `require` to attach the default packages specified by `options("defaultPackages")`. If the **methods** package is included, this will have been attached earlier (by function `.OptRequireMethods()`) so that namespace initializations such as those from the user workspace will proceed correctly.

A function `.First` (and `.Last`) can be defined in appropriate `.Rprofile` or `Rprofile.site` files or have been saved in `.RData`. If you want a different set of packages than the default ones when you start, insert a call to `options` in the `.Rprofile` or `Rprofile.site` file. For example, `options(defaultPackages = character())` will attach no extra packages on startup (only the **base** package) (or set `R_DEFAULT_PACKAGES=NULL` as an environment variable before running R). Using `options(defaultPackages = "")` or `R_DEFAULT_PACKAGES=""` enforces the R *system* default.

On front-ends which support it, the commands history is read from the file specified by the environment variable `R_HISTFILE` (default `.Rhistory` in the current directory) unless `--no-restore-history` or `--no-restore` was specified.

The command-line option `--vanilla` implies `--no-site-file`, `--no-init-file`, `--no-envIRON` and (except for R CMD) `--no-restore`.

Details

Note that there are two sorts of files used in startup: *environment files* which contain lists of environment variables to be set, and *profile files* which contain R code.

Lines in a site or user environment file should be either comment lines starting with `#`, or lines of the form `name=value`. The latter sets the environmental variable *name* to *value*, overriding an existing value. If *value* contains an expression of the form `${foo-bar}`, the value is that of the environmental variable `foo` if that exists and is set to a non-empty value, otherwise `bar`. (If it is of the form `${foo}`, the default is `""`.) This construction can be nested, so `bar` can be of the same form (as in `${foo-${bar-blah}}`). Note that the braces are essential: for example `$HOME` will not be interpreted.

Leading and trailing white space in *value* are stripped. *value* is then processed in a similar way to a Unix shell: in particular the outermost level of (single or double) quotes is stripped, and backslashes are removed except inside quotes.

On systems with sub-architectures (mainly Windows), the files `'RenvIRON.site'` and `'Rprofile.site'` are looked for first in architecture-specific directories, e.g. `'R_HOME/etc/i386/RenvIRON.site'`. And e.g. `'RenvIRON.i386'` will be used in preference to `'RenvIRON'`.

Note

It is not intended that there be interaction with the user during startup code. Attempting to do so can crash the R process, especially so prior to R 3.0.2.

On Unix versions of R there is also a file `'R_HOME/etc/RenvIRON'` which is read very early in the start-up processing. It contains environment variables set by R in the configure process. Values in that file can be overridden in site or user environment files: do not change `'R_HOME/etc/RenvIRON'` itself. Note that this is distinct from `'R_HOME/etc/RenvIRON.site'`.

Command-line options may well not apply to alternative front-ends: they do not apply to R.app on OS X.

R CMD check and R CMD build do not always read the standard startup files, but they do always read specific ‘Renviron’ files. The location of these can be controlled by the environment variables R_CHECK_ENVIRON and R_BUILD_ENVIRON. If these are set their value is used as the path for the ‘Renviron’ file; otherwise, files ‘~/R/check.Renviron’ or ‘~/R/build.Renviron’ or sub-architecture-specific versions are employed.

If you want ‘~/Renviron’ or ‘~/Rprofile’ to be ignored by child R processes (such as those run by R CMD check and R CMD build), set the appropriate environment variable R_ENVIRON_USER or R_PROFILE_USER to (if possible, which it is not on Windows) "" or to the name of a non-existent file.

See Also

For the definition of the ‘home’ directory on Windows see the ‘rw-FAQ’ Q2.14. It can be found from a running R by `Sys.getenv("R_USER")`.

[.Last](#) for final actions at the close of an R session. [commandArgs](#) for accessing the command line arguments.

There are examples of using startup files to set defaults for graphics devices in the help for [X11](#) and [quartz](#).

An Introduction to R for more command-line options: those affecting memory management are covered in the help file for [Memory](#).

[readRenviron](#) to read ‘.Renviron’ files.

For profiling code, see [Rprof](#).

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Example ~/.Renviron on Unix
R_LIBS=~R/library
PAGER=/usr/local/bin/less

## Example .Renviron on Windows
R_LIBS=C:/R/library
MY_TCLTK="c:/Program Files/Tcl/bin"

## Example of setting R_DEFAULT_PACKAGES (from R CMD check)
R_DEFAULT_PACKAGES='utils,grDevices,graphics,stats'
# this loads the packages in the order given, so they appear on
# the search path in reverse order.

## Example of .Rprofile
options(width=65, digits=5)
options(show.signif.stars=FALSE)
setHook(packageEvent("grDevices", "onLoad"),
        function(...) grDevices::ps.options(horizontal=FALSE))
set.seed(1234)
.First <- function() cat("\n Welcome to R!\n\n")
```

```
.Last <- function() cat("\n Goodbye!\n\n")

## Example of Rprofile.site
local({
  # add MASS to the default packages, set a CRAN mirror
  old <- getOption("defaultPackages"); r <- getOption("repos")
  r["CRAN"] <- "http://my.local.cran"
  options(defaultPackages = c(old, "MASS"), repos = r)
  ## (for Unix terminal users) set the width from COLUMNS if set
  cols <- Sys.getenv("COLUMNS")
  if(nzchar(cols)) options(width = as.integer(cols))
  # interactive sessions get a fortune cookie (needs fortunes package)
  if (interactive())
    fortunes::fortune()
})

## if .Renviron contains
FOOBAR="coo\bar"doh\ex"abc\"def'"

## then we get
# > cat(Sys.getenv("FOOBAR"), "\n")
# coo\bardoh\exabc"def'

## End(Not run)
```

stop

Stop Function Execution

Description

stop stops execution of the current expression and executes an error action.
 geterrmessage gives the last error message.

Usage

```
stop(..., call. = TRUE, domain = NULL)
geterrmessage()
```

Arguments

...	zero or more objects which can be coerced to character (and which are pasted together with no separator) or a single condition object.
call.	logical, indicating if the call should become part of the error message.
domain	see gettext . If NA, messages will not be translated.

Details

The error action is controlled by error handlers established within the executing code and by the current default error handler set by `options(error=)`. The error is first signaled as if using `signalCondition()`. If there are no handlers or if all handlers return, then the error message is printed (if `options("show.error.messages")` is true) and the default error handler is used. The default behaviour (the NULL error-handler) in interactive use is to return to the top level prompt or the top level browser, and in non-interactive use to (effectively) call `q("no", status = 1, runLast = FALSE)`. The default handler stores the error message in a buffer; it can be retrieved by `geterrmessage()`. It also stores a trace of the call stack that can be retrieved by `traceback()`.

Errors will be truncated to `getOption("warning.length")` characters, default 1000.

If a condition object is supplied it should be the only argument, and further arguments will be ignored, with a warning.

Value

`geterrmessage` gives the last error message, as a character string ending in `"\n"`.

Note

Use `domain = NA` whenever ... contain a result from `gettextf()` as that is translated already.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`warning`, `try` to catch errors and retry, and `options` for setting error handlers. `stopifnot` for validity testing. `tryCatch` and `withCallingHandlers` can be used to establish custom handlers while executing an expression.

`gettext` for the mechanisms for the automated translation of messages.

Examples

```
iter <- 12
try(if(iter > 10) stop("too many iterations"))

tst1 <- function(...) stop("dummy error")
try(tst1(1:10, long, calling, expression))

tst2 <- function(...) stop("dummy error", call. = FALSE)
try(tst2(1:10, longcalling, expression, but.not.seen.in.Error))
```

stopifnot

Ensure the Truth of R Expressions

Description

If any of the expressions in ... are not **all** TRUE, **stop** is called, producing an error message indicating the *first* of the elements of ... which were not true.

Usage

```
stopifnot(...)
```

Arguments

... any number of (**logical**) R expressions, which should evaluate to **TRUE**.

Details

This function is intended for use in regression tests or also argument checking of functions, in particular to make them easier to read.

stopifnot(A, B) is conceptually equivalent to

```
{  if(any(is.na(A)) || !all(A)) stop(...) ;
    if(any(is.na(B)) || !all(B)) stop(...) }
```

Value

(**NULL** if all statements in ... are TRUE.)

See Also

stop, **warning**; **assertCondition** in package **tools** complements stopifnot() for testing warnings and errors.

Examples

```
stopifnot(1 == 1, all.equal(pi, 3.14159265), 1 < 2) # all TRUE

m <- matrix(c(1,3,3,1), 2, 2)
stopifnot(m == t(m), diag(m) == rep(1, 2)) # all(.) |> TRUE

op <- options(error = expression(NULL))
# "disable stop(.)" << Use with CARE! >>

stopifnot(all.equal(pi, 3.141593), 2 < 2, all(1:10 < 12), "a" < "b")
stopifnot(all.equal(pi, 3.1415927), 2 < 2, all(1:10 < 12), "a" < "b")

options(op) # revert to previous error handler
```

Description

Functions to convert between character representations and objects of classes "POSIXlt" and "POSIXct" representing calendar dates and times.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'POSIXct'
format(x, format = "", tz = "", usetz = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'POSIXlt'
format(x, format = "", usetz = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
as.character(x, ...)

strftime(x, format = "", tz = "", usetz = FALSE, ...)
strptime(x, format, tz = "")
```

Arguments

x	An object to be converted: a character vector for <code>strptime</code> , an object which can be converted to "POSIXlt" for <code>strftime</code> .
tz	A character string specifying the time zone to be used for the conversion. System-specific (see as.POSIXlt), but "" is the current time zone, and "GMT" is UTC. Invalid values are most commonly treated as UTC, on some platforms with a warning.
format	A character string. The default for the format methods is "%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S" if any element has a time component which is not midnight, and "%Y-%m-%d" otherwise. If options("digits.secs") is set, up to the specified number of digits will be printed for seconds.
...	Further arguments to be passed from or to other methods.
usetz	logical. Should the time zone abbreviation be appended to the output? This is used in printing times, and more reliable than using "%Z".

Details

The `format` and `as.character` methods and `strftime` convert objects from the classes "POSIXlt" and "POSIXct" to character vectors.

`strptime` converts character vectors to class "POSIXlt": its input `x` is first converted by [as.character](#). Each input string is processed as far as necessary for the format specified: any trailing characters are ignored.

strptime is a wrapper for format.POSIXlt, and it and format.POSIXct first convert to class "POSIXlt" by calling as.POSIXlt (so they also work for class "Date"). Note that only that conversion depends on the time zone.

The usual vector re-cycling rules are applied to x and format so the answer will be of length of the longer of these vectors.

Locale-specific conversions to and from character strings are used where appropriate and available. This affects the names of the days and months, the AM/PM indicator (if used) and the separators in formats such as %x and %X, via the setting of the LC_TIME locale category. The 'current locale' of the descriptions might mean the locale in use at the start of the R session or when these functions are first used.

The details of the formats are platform-specific, but the following are likely to be widely available: most are defined by the POSIX standard. A *conversion specification* is introduced by %, usually followed by a single letter or O or E and then a single letter. Any character in the format string not part of a conversion specification is interpreted literally (and %% gives %). Widely implemented conversion specifications include

- %a Abbreviated weekday name in the current locale on this platform. (Also matches full name on input: in some locales there are no abbreviations of names.)
- %A Full weekday name in the current locale. (Also matches abbreviated name on input.)
- %b Abbreviated month name in the current locale on this platform. (Also matches full name on input: in some locales there are no abbreviations of names.)
- %B Full month name in the current locale. (Also matches abbreviated name on input.)
- %c Date and time. Locale-specific on output, "%a %b %e %H:%M:%S %Y" on input.
- %C Century (00–99): the integer part of the year divided by 100.
- %d Day of the month as decimal number (01–31).
- %D Date format such as %m/%d/%y: the C99 standard says it should be that exact format (but not all OSes comply).
- %e Day of the month as decimal number (1–31), with a leading space for a single-digit number.
- %F Equivalent to %Y-%m-%d (the ISO 8601 date format).
- %g The last two digits of the week-based year (see %V). (Accepted but ignored on input.)
- %G The week-based year (see %V) as a decimal number. (Accepted but ignored on input.)
- %h Equivalent to %b.
- %H Hours as decimal number (00–23). As a special exception strings such as '24:00:00' are accepted for input, since ISO 8601 allows these.
- %I Hours as decimal number (01–12).
- %j Day of year as decimal number (001–366).
- %m Month as decimal number (01–12).
- %M Minute as decimal number (00–59).
- %n Newline on output, arbitrary whitespace on input.
- %p AM/PM indicator in the locale. Used in conjunction with %I and **not** with %H. An empty string in some locales (and the behaviour is undefined if used for input in such a locale).
Some platforms accept %P for output, which uses a lower-case version: others will output P.

- %r The 12-hour clock time (using the locale's AM or PM). Only defined in some locales.
- %R Equivalent to %H:%M.
- %S Second as integer (00–61), allowing for up to two leap-seconds (but POSIX-compliant implementations will ignore leap seconds).
- %t Tab on output, arbitrary whitespace on input.
- %T Equivalent to %H:%M:%S.
- %u Weekday as a decimal number (1–7, Monday is 1).
- %U Week of the year as decimal number (00–53) using Sunday as the first day 1 of the week (and typically with the first Sunday of the year as day 1 of week 1). The US convention.
- %V Week of the year as decimal number (01–53) as defined in ISO 8601. If the week (starting on Monday) containing 1 January has four or more days in the new year, then it is considered week 1. Otherwise, it is the last week of the previous year, and the next week is week 1. (Accepted but ignored on input.)
- %w Weekday as decimal number (0–6, Sunday is 0).
- %W Week of the year as decimal number (00–53) using Monday as the first day of week (and typically with the first Monday of the year as day 1 of week 1). The UK convention.
- %x Date. Locale-specific on output, "%y/%m/%d" on input.
- %X Time. Locale-specific on output, "%H:%M:%S" on input.
- %y Year without century (00–99). On input, values 00 to 68 are prefixed by 20 and 69 to 99 by 19 – that is the behaviour specified by the 2004 and 2008 POSIX standards, but they do also say 'it is expected that in a future version the default century inferred from a 2-digit year will change'.
- %Y Year with century. Note that whereas there was no zero in the original Gregorian calendar, ISO 8601:2004 defines it to be valid (interpreted as 1BC): see [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/0_\(year\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/0_(year)). Note that the standards also say that years before 1582 in its calendar should only be used with agreement of the parties involved.
For input, only years 0:9999 are accepted.
- %z Signed offset in hours and minutes from UTC, so -0800 is 8 hours behind UTC. Values up to +1400 are accepted as from R 3.1.1: previous versions only accepted up to +1200. (Standard only for output.)
- %Z (Output only.) Time zone abbreviation as a character string (empty if not available). This may not be reliable when a time zone has changed abbreviations over the years.

Where leading zeros are shown they will be used on output but are optional on input. Names are matched case-insensitively on input: whether they are capitalized on output depends on the platform and the locale. Note that abbreviated names are platform-specific (although the standards specify that in the 'C' locale they must be the first three letters of the capitalized English name: this convention is widely used in English-language locales but for example the French month abbreviations are not the same on any two of Linux, OS X, Solaris and Windows). Knowing what the abbreviations are is essential if you wish to use %a, %b or %h as part of an input format: see the examples for how to check.

When %z or %Z is used for output with an object with an assigned time zone an attempt is made to use the values for that time zone — but it is not guaranteed to succeed.

Not in the standards and less widely implemented are

%k The 24-hour clock time with single digits preceded by a blank.

%l The 12-hour clock time with single digits preceded by a blank.

%s (Output only.) The number of seconds since the epoch.

%+ (Output only.) Similar to %c, often "%a %b %e %H:%M:%S %Z %Y". May depend on the locale.

For output there are also %O[dHImUVwWy] which may emit numbers in an alternative locale-dependent format (e.g., roman numerals), and %E[cCyYxX] which can use an alternative 'era' (e.g., a different religious calendar). Which of these are supported is OS-dependent. These are accepted for input, but with the standard interpretation.

Specific to R is %OSn, which for output gives the seconds truncated to $0 \leq n \leq 6$ decimal places (and if %OS is not followed by a digit, it uses the setting of `getOption("digits.secs")`, or if that is unset, $n = 3$). Further, for strptime %OS will input seconds including fractional seconds. Note that %S does not read fractional parts on output.

The behaviour of other conversion specifications (and even if other character sequences commencing with % are conversion specifications) is system-specific. Some systems document that the use of multi-byte characters in format is unsupported: UTF-8 locales are unlikely to cause a problem.

Value

The format methods and strptime return character vectors representing the time. NA times are returned as NA_character_. The elements are restricted to 256 bytes, plus a time zone abbreviation if usetz is true. (On known platforms longer strings are truncated at 255 or 256 bytes, but this is not guaranteed by the C99 standard.)

strptime turns character representations into an object of class "POSIXlt". The time zone is used to set the isdst component and to set the "tzzone" attribute if tz != "". If the specified time is invalid (for example "2010-02-30 08:00") all the components of the result are NA. (NB: this does mean exactly what it says – if it is an invalid time, not just a time that does not exist in some time zone.)

Printing years

Everyone agrees that years from 1000 to 9999 should be printed with 4 digits, but the standards do not define what is to be done outside that range. For years 0 to 999 most OSes pad with zeros or spaces to 4 characters, and Linux outputs just the number.

OS facilities will probably not print years before 1 CE (aka 1 AD) 'correctly' (they tend to assume the existence of a year 0: see [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/0_\(year\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/0_(year))), and some OSes get them completely wrong). Common formats are -45 and -045.

Years after 9999 and before -999 are normally printed with five or more characters.

Some platforms support modifiers from POSIX 2008 (and others). On Linux the format "%04Y" assures a minimum of four characters and zero-padding. The internal code (as used on Windows and by default on OS X) uses zero-padding by default, and formats %_4Y and %_Y can be used for space padding and no padding.

Time zone offsets

Offsets from GMT (also known as UTC) are part of the conversion between timezones and to/from class "POSIXct", but cause difficulties as they often computed incorrectly.

They conventionally have the opposite sign from time-zone specifications (see [Sys.timezone](#)): positive values are East of the meridian. Although there have been time zones with offsets like 00:09:21 (Paris in 1900), and 00:44:30 (Liberia until 1972), offsets are usually treated as whole numbers of minutes, and are most often seen in RFC 822 email headers in forms like -0800 (e.g., used on the Pacific coast of the US in winter).

Format %z can be used for input or output: it is a character string, conventionally plus or minus followed by two digits for hours and two for minutes: the standards say that an empty string should be output if the offset is unknown, but some systems use the offsets for the time zone in use for the current year.

Note

The default formats follow the rules of the ISO 8601 international standard which expresses a day as "2001-02-28" and a time as "14:01:02" using leading zeroes as here. (The ISO form uses no space to separate dates and times: R does by default.)

For `strptime` the input string need not specify the date completely: it is assumed that unspecified seconds, minutes or hours are zero, and an unspecified year, month or day is the current one. (However, if a month is specified, the day of that month has to be specified by %d or %e since the current day of the month need not be valid for the specified month.) Some components may be returned as NA (but an unknown tzone component is represented by an empty string).

If the time zone specified is invalid on your system, what happens is system-specific but it will probably be ignored.

Remember that in most time zones some times do not occur and some occur twice because of transitions to/from 'daylight saving' (also known as 'summer') time. `strptime` does not validate such times (it does not assume a specific time zone), but conversion by [as.POSIXct](#) will do so. Conversion by `strptime` and formatting/printing uses OS facilities and may return nonsensical results for non-existent times at DST transitions.

Much less comprehensive support for output specifications was provided on Windows before R 3.1.0.

In a C locale %c is required to be "%a %b %e %H:%M:%S %Y". As Windows does not comply (and uses a date format not understood outside N. America), that format is used by R on Windows in all locales.

That %A %a %B %b on input match both full and abbreviated names caused problems in some locales prior to R 3.0.3: e.g. in French on OS X 'juillet' was matched by jui, the abbreviation for June.

References

International Organization for Standardization (2004, 2000, ...) *ISO 8601. Data elements and interchange formats – Information interchange – Representation of dates and times*. For links to versions available on-line see (at the time of writing) http://dotat.at/tmp/ISO_8601-2004_E.pdf and <http://www.qsl.net/g1smd/isopdf.htm>; for information on the current official version, see <http://www.iso.org/iso/iso8601>.

The POSIX 1003.1 standard, which is in some respects stricter than ISO 8601.

See Also

[DateTimeClasses](#) for details of the date-time classes; [locales](#) to query or set a locale.

Your system's help page on `strptime` to see how to specify their formats. (On some systems, including Windows, `strptime` is replaced by more comprehensive internal code.)

Examples

```
## locale-specific version of date()
format(Sys.time(), "%a %b %d %X %Y %Z")

## time to sub-second accuracy (if supported by the OS)
format(Sys.time(), "%H:%M:%OS3")

## read in date info in format 'ddmmYYYY'
## This will give NA(s) in some locales; setting the C locale
## as in the commented lines will overcome this on most systems.
## lct <- Sys.getlocale("LC_TIME"); Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", "C")
x <- c("1jan1960", "2jan1960", "31mar1960", "30jul1960")
z <- strptime(x, "%d%b%Y")
## Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", lct)
z

## read in date/time info in format 'm/d/y h:m:s'
dates <- c("02/27/92", "02/27/92", "01/14/92", "02/28/92", "02/01/92")
times <- c("23:03:20", "22:29:56", "01:03:30", "18:21:03", "16:56:26")
x <- paste(dates, times)
strptime(x, "%m/%d/%y %H:%M:%S")

## time with fractional seconds
z <- strptime("20/2/06 11:16:16.683", "%d/%m/%y %H:%M:%OS")
z # prints without fractional seconds
op <- options(digits.secs = 3)
z
options(op)

## time zones name are not portable, but 'EST5EDT' comes pretty close.
(x <- strptime(c("2006-01-08 10:07:52", "2006-08-07 19:33:02"),
               "%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S", tz = "EST5EDT"))
attr(x, "tzone")

## An RFC 822 header (Eastern Canada, during DST)
strptime("Tue, 23 Mar 2010 14:36:38 -0400", "%a, %d %b %Y %H:%M:%S %z")

## Make sure you know what the abbreviated names are for you if you wish
## to use them for input (they are matched case-insensitively):
format(seq.Date(as.Date('1978-01-01'), by = 'day', len = 7), "%a")
format(seq.Date(as.Date('2000-01-01'), by = 'month', len = 12), "%b")
```

strsplit

*Split the Elements of a Character Vector***Description**

Split the elements of a character vector `x` into substrings according to the matches to substring `split` within them.

Usage

```
strsplit(x, split, fixed = FALSE, perl = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	character vector, each element of which is to be split. Other inputs, including a factor, will give an error.
<code>split</code>	character vector (or object which can be coerced to such) containing regular expression (s) (unless <code>fixed = TRUE</code>) to use for splitting. If empty matches occur, in particular if <code>split</code> has length 0, <code>x</code> is split into single characters. If <code>split</code> has length greater than 1, it is re-cycled along <code>x</code> .
<code>fixed</code>	logical. If <code>TRUE</code> match <code>split</code> exactly, otherwise use regular expressions. Has priority over <code>perl</code> .
<code>perl</code>	logical. Should Perl-compatible regexps be used?
<code>useBytes</code>	logical. If <code>TRUE</code> the matching is done byte-by-byte rather than character-by-character, and inputs with marked encodings are not converted. This is forced (with a warning) if any input is found which is marked as "bytes" (see Encoding).

Details

Argument `split` will be coerced to character, so you will see uses with `split = NULL` to mean `split = character(0)`, including in the examples below.

Note that splitting into single characters can be done *via* `split = character(0)` or `split = ""`; the two are equivalent. The definition of 'character' here depends on the locale: in a single-byte locale it is a byte, and in a multi-byte locale it is the unit represented by a 'wide character' (almost always a Unicode code point).

A missing value of `split` does not split the corresponding element(s) of `x` at all.

The algorithm applied to each input string is

```
repeat {
  if the string is empty
    break.
  if there is a match
    add the string to the left of the match to the output.
    remove the match and all to the left of it.
```

```

    else
      add the string to the output.
      break.
  }

```

Note that this means that if there is a match at the beginning of a (non-empty) string, the first element of the output is "", but if there is a match at the end of the string, the output is the same as with the match removed.

Invalid inputs in the current locale are warned about up to 5 times.

Value

A list of the same length as `x`, the *i*-th element of which contains the vector of splits of `x[i]`.

If any element of `x` or `split` is declared to be in UTF-8 (see [Encoding](#)), all non-ASCII character strings in the result will be in UTF-8 and have their encoding declared as UTF-8. For `perl = TRUE`, `useBytes = FALSE` all non-ASCII strings in a multibyte locale are translated to UTF-8.

See Also

[paste](#) for the reverse, [grep](#) and [sub](#) for string search and manipulation; also [nchar](#), [substr](#).
 ‘[regular expression](#)’ for the details of the pattern specification.

Examples

```

noquote(strsplit("A text I want to display with spaces", NULL)[[1]])

x <- c(as = "asfef", qu = "qwerty", "yuiop[", "b", "stuff.blah.yech")
# split x on the letter e
strsplit(x, "e")

unlist(strsplit("a.b.c", "."))
## [1] "" "" "" "" "" ""
## Note that 'split' is a regexp!
## If you really want to split on '.', use
unlist(strsplit("a.b.c", "[.]"))
## [1] "a" "b" "c"
## or
unlist(strsplit("a.b.c", ".", fixed = TRUE))

## a useful function: rev() for strings
strReverse <- function(x)
  sapply(lapply(strsplit(x, NULL), rev), paste, collapse = "")
strReverse(c("abc", "Statistics"))

## get the first names of the members of R-core
a <- readLines(file.path(R.home("doc"), "AUTHORS"))[-(1:8)]
a <- a[(0:2)-length(a)]
(a <- sub(".*", "", a))
# and reverse them

```

```

strReverse(a)

## Note that final empty strings are not produced:
strsplit(paste(c("", "a", ""), collapse="#"), split="#")[[1]]
# [1] "" "a"
## and also an empty string is only produced before a definite match:
strsplit("", " ")[[1]] # character(0)
strsplit(" ", " ")[[1]] # [1] ""

```

strtoi

Convert Strings to Integers

Description

Convert strings to integers according to the given base using the C function `strtol`, or choose a suitable base following the C rules.

Usage

```
strtoi(x, base = 0L)
```

Arguments

`x` a character vector, or something coercible to this by [as.character](#).
`base` an integer which is between 2 and 36 inclusive, or zero (default).

Details

Conversion is based on the C library function `strtol`.

For the default `base = 0L`, the base chosen from the string representation of that element of `x`, so different elements can have different bases (see the first example). The standard C rules for choosing the base are that octal constants (prefix `0` not followed by `x` or `X`) and hexadecimal constants (prefix `0x` or `0X`) are interpreted as base 8 and 16; all other strings are interpreted as base 10.

For a base greater than 10, letters `a` to `z` (or `A` to `Z`) are used to represent 10 to 35.

Value

An integer vector of the same length as `x`. Values which cannot be interpreted as integers or would overflow are returned as [NA_integer_](#).

See Also

For decimal strings [as.integer](#) is equally useful.

Examples

```

strtoi(c("0xff", "077", "123"))
strtoi(c("ffff", "FFFF"), 16L)
strtoi(c("177", "377"), 8L)

```

strtrim

Trim Character Strings to Specified Display Widths

Description

Trim character strings to specified display widths.

Usage

```
strtrim(x, width)
```

Arguments

x a character vector, or an object which can be coerced to a character vector by [as.character](#).

width Positive integer values: recycled to the length of x.

Details

‘Width’ is interpreted as the display width in a monospaced font. What happens with non-printable characters (such as backspace, tab) is implementation-dependent and may depend on the locale (e.g., they may be included in the count or they may be omitted).

Using this function rather than [substr](#) is important when there might be double-width (e.g., Chinese/Japanese/Korean) characters in the character vector.

Value

A character vector of the same length and with the same attributes as x (after possible coercion).

Elements of the result will have the encoding declared as that of the current locale (see [Encoding](#)) if the corresponding input had a declared encoding and the current locale is either Latin-1 or UTF-8.

Examples

```
strtrim(c("abcdef", "abcdef", "abcdef"), c(1,5,10))
```

structure

Attribute Specification

Description

structure returns the given object with further [attributes](#) set.

Usage

```
structure(.Data, ...)
```

Arguments

`.Data` an object which will have various attributes attached to it.
`...` attributes, specified in `tag = value` form, which will be attached to data.

Details

Adding a class `"factor"` will ensure that numeric codes are given integer storage mode.

For historical reasons (these names are used when deparsing), attributes `".Dim"`, `".Dimnames"`, `".Names"`, `".Tsp"` and `".Label"` are renamed to `"dim"`, `"dimnames"`, `"names"`, `"tsp"` and `"levels"`.

It is possible to give the same tag more than once, in which case the last value assigned wins. As with other ways of assigning attributes, using `tag = NULL` removes attribute `tag` from `.Data` if it is present.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[attributes](#), [attr](#).

Examples

```
structure(1:6, dim = 2:3)
```

strwrap

Wrap Character Strings to Format Paragraphs

Description

Each character string in the input is first split into paragraphs (or lines containing whitespace only). The paragraphs are then formatted by breaking lines at word boundaries. The target columns for wrapping lines and the indentation of the first and all subsequent lines of a paragraph can be controlled independently.

Usage

```
strwrap(x, width = 0.9 * getOption("width"), indent = 0,  
      exdent = 0, prefix = "", simplify = TRUE, initial = prefix)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a character vector, or an object which can be converted to a character vector by as.character .
<code>width</code>	a positive integer giving the target column for wrapping lines in the output.
<code>indent</code>	a non-negative integer giving the indentation of the first line in a paragraph.
<code>exdent</code>	a non-negative integer specifying the indentation of subsequent lines in paragraphs.
<code>prefix, initial</code>	a character string to be used as prefix for each line except the first, for which <code>initial</code> is used.
<code>simplify</code>	a logical. If TRUE, the result is a single character vector of line text; otherwise, it is a list of the same length as <code>x</code> the elements of which are character vectors of line text obtained from the corresponding element of <code>x</code> . (Hence, the result in the former case is obtained by unlisting that of the latter.)

Details

Whitespace (space, tab or newline characters) in the input is destroyed. Double spaces after periods, question and explanation marks (thought as representing sentence ends) are preserved. Currently, possible sentence ends at line breaks are not considered specially.

Indentation is relative to the number of characters in the prefix string.

Value

A character vector in the current locale's encoding (if `simplify` is TRUE), or a list of such character vectors.

Examples

```
## Read in file 'THANKS'.
x <- paste(readLines(file.path(R.home("doc"), "THANKS")), collapse = "\n")
## Split into paragraphs and remove the first three ones
x <- unlist(strsplit(x, "\n[ \t\n]*\n"))[-(1:3)]
## Join the rest
x <- paste(x, collapse = "\n\n")
## Now for some fun:
writeLines(strwrap(x, width = 60))
writeLines(strwrap(x, width = 60, indent = 5))
writeLines(strwrap(x, width = 60, exdent = 5))
writeLines(strwrap(x, prefix = "THANKS> "))

## Note that messages are wrapped AT the target column indicated by
## 'width' (and not beyond it).
## From an R-devel posting by J. Hosking <jh910@juno.com>.
x <- paste(sapply(sample(10, 100, replace = TRUE),
  function(x) substring("aaaaaaaaa", 1, x)), collapse = " ")
sapply(10:40,
  function(m)
    c(target = m, actual = max(nchar(strwrap(x, m)))))
```

subset

Subsetting Vectors, Matrices and Data Frames

Description

Return subsets of vectors, matrices or data frames which meet conditions.

Usage

```
subset(x, ...)  
  
## Default S3 method:  
subset(x, subset, ...)  
  
## S3 method for class 'matrix'  
subset(x, subset, select, drop = FALSE, ...)  
  
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'  
subset(x, subset, select, drop = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

x	object to be subsetting.
subset	logical expression indicating elements or rows to keep: missing values are taken as false.
select	expression, indicating columns to select from a data frame.
drop	passed on to [indexing operator.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

This is a generic function, with methods supplied for matrices, data frames and vectors (including lists). Packages and users can add further methods.

For ordinary vectors, the result is simply `x[subset & !is.na(subset)]`.

For data frames, the `subset` argument works on the rows. Note that `subset` will be evaluated in the data frame, so columns can be referred to (by name) as variables in the expression (see the examples).

The `select` argument exists only for the methods for data frames and matrices. It works by first replacing column names in the selection expression with the corresponding column numbers in the data frame and then using the resulting integer vector to index the columns. This allows the use of the standard indexing conventions so that for example ranges of columns can be specified easily, or single columns can be dropped (see the examples).

The `drop` argument is passed on to the indexing method for matrices and data frames: note that the default for matrices is different from that for indexing.

Factors may have empty levels after subsetting; unused levels are not automatically removed. See [droplevels](#) for a way to drop all unused levels from a data frame.

Value

An object similar to `x` contain just the selected elements (for a vector), rows and columns (for a matrix or data frame), and so on.

Warning

This is a convenience function intended for use interactively. For programming it is better to use the standard subsetting functions like `[`, and in particular the non-standard evaluation of argument `subset` can have unanticipated consequences.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard and Brian Ripley

See Also

[\[](#), [transform](#) [droplevels](#)

Examples

```
subset(airquality, Temp > 80, select = c(Ozone, Temp))
subset(airquality, Day == 1, select = -Temp)
subset(airquality, select = Ozone:Wind)

with(airquality, subset(Ozone, Temp > 80))

## sometimes requiring a logical 'subset' argument is a nuisance
nm <- rownames(state.x77)
start_with_M <- nm %in% grep("^M", nm, value = TRUE)
subset(state.x77, start_with_M, Illiteracy:Murder)
# but in recent versions of R this can simply be
subset(state.x77, grepl("^M", nm), Illiteracy:Murder)
```

substitute

Substituting and Quoting Expressions

Description

`substitute` returns the parse tree for the (unevaluated) expression `expr`, substituting any variables bound in `env`.

`quote` simply returns its argument. The argument is not evaluated and can be any R expression.

`enquote` is a simple one-line utility which transforms a call of the form `Foo(...)` into the call `quote(Foo(...))`. This is typically used to protect a [call](#) from early evaluation.

Usage

```
substitute(expr, env)
quote(expr)
enquote(cl)
```

Arguments

expr	any syntactically valid R expression
cl	a call , i.e., an R object of class (and mode) "call".
env	an environment or a list object. Defaults to the current evaluation environment.

Details

The typical use of `substitute` is to create informative labels for data sets and plots. The `myplot` example below shows a simple use of this facility. It uses the functions [deparse](#) and `substitute` to create labels for a plot which are character string versions of the actual arguments to the function `myplot`.

Substitution takes place by examining each component of the parse tree as follows: If it is not a bound symbol in `env`, it is unchanged. If it is a promise object, i.e., a formal argument to a function or explicitly created using [delayedAssign\(\)](#), the expression slot of the promise replaces the symbol. If it is an ordinary variable, its value is substituted, unless `env` is `.GlobalEnv` in which case the symbol is left unchanged.

Both `quote` and `substitute` are ‘special’ [primitive](#) functions which do not evaluate their arguments.

Value

The [mode](#) of the result is generally "call" but may in principle be any type. In particular, single-variable expressions have mode "name" and constants have the appropriate base mode.

Note

`substitute` works on a purely lexical basis. There is no guarantee that the resulting expression makes any sense.

Substituting and quoting often cause confusion when the argument is `expression(...)`. The result is a call to the [expression](#) constructor function and needs to be evaluated with [eval](#) to give the actual expression object.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[missing](#) for argument ‘missingness’, [bquote](#) for partial substitution, [sQuote](#) and [dQuote](#) for adding quotation marks to strings,

[all.names](#) to retrieve the symbol names from an expression or call.

Examples

```

require(graphics)
(s.e <- substitute(expression(a + b), list(a = 1))) #> expression(1 + b)
(s.s <- substitute( a + b,          list(a = 1))) #> 1 + b
c(mode(s.e), typeof(s.e)) #  "call", "language"
c(mode(s.s), typeof(s.s)) #  (the same)
# but:
(e.s.e <- eval(s.e))      #> expression(1 + b)
c(mode(e.s.e), typeof(e.s.e)) #  "expression", "expression"

substitute(x <- x + 1, list(x = 1)) # nonsense

myplot <- function(x, y)
  plot(x, y, xlab = deparse(substitute(x)),
       ylab = deparse(substitute(y)))

## Simple examples about lazy evaluation, etc:

f1 <- function(x, y = x)      { x <- x + 1; y }
s1 <- function(x, y = substitute(x)) { x <- x + 1; y }
s2 <- function(x, y) { if(missing(y)) y <- substitute(x); x <- x + 1; y }
a <- 10
f1(a) # 11
s1(a) # 11
s2(a) # a
typeof(s2(a)) # "symbol"

```

substr

*Substrings of a Character Vector***Description**

Extract or replace substrings in a character vector.

Usage

```

substr(x, start, stop)
substring(text, first, last = 1000000L)
substr(x, start, stop) <- value
substring(text, first, last = 1000000L) <- value

```

Arguments

<code>x, text</code>	a character vector.
<code>start, first</code>	integer. The first element to be replaced.
<code>stop, last</code>	integer. The last element to be replaced.
<code>value</code>	a character vector, recycled if necessary.

Details

substring is compatible with S, with `first` and `last` instead of `start` and `stop`. For vector arguments, it expands the arguments cyclically to the length of the longest *provided* none are of zero length.

When extracting, if `start` is larger than the string length then "" is returned.

For the extraction functions, `x` or `text` will be converted to a character vector by [as.character](#) if it is not already one.

For the replacement functions, if `start` is larger than the string length then no replacement is done. If the portion to be replaced is longer than the replacement string, then only the portion the length of the string is replaced.

If any argument is an NA element, the corresponding element of the answer is NA.

Elements of the result will have the encoding declared as that of the current locale (see [Encoding](#) if the corresponding input had a declared Latin-1 or UTF-8 encoding and the current locale is either Latin-1 or UTF-8).

If an input element has declared "bytes" encoding (see [Encoding](#)), the subsetting is done in units of bytes not characters.

Value

For `substr`, a character vector of the same length and with the same attributes as `x` (after possible coercion).

For `substring`, a character vector of length the longest of the arguments. This will have names taken from `x` (if it has any after coercion, repeated as needed), and other attributes copied from `x` if it is the longest of the arguments).

Elements of `x` with a declared encoding (see [Encoding](#)) will be returned with the same encoding.

Note

The S4 version of `substring<-` ignores `last`; this version does not.

These functions are often used with [nchar](#) to truncate a display. That does not really work (you want to limit the width, not the number of characters, so it would be better to use [strtrim](#)), but at least make sure you use the default `nchar(type = "c")`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (`substring`.)

See Also

[strsplit](#), [paste](#), [nchar](#).

Examples

```
substr("abcdef", 2, 4)
substring("abcdef", 1:6, 1:6)
## strsplit is more efficient ...

substr(rep("abcdef", 4), 1:4, 4:5)
x <- c("asfef", "qwerty", "yuiop[", "b", "stuff.blah.yech")
substr(x, 2, 5)
substring(x, 2, 4:6)

substring(x, 2) <- c("..", "+++")
x
```

sum

Sum of Vector Elements

Description

sum returns the sum of all the values present in its arguments.

Usage

```
sum(..., na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

...	numeric or complex or logical vectors.
na.rm	logical. Should missing values (including NaN) be removed?

Details

This is a generic function: methods can be defined for it directly or via the [Summary](#) group generic. For this to work properly, the arguments ... should be unnamed, and dispatch is on the first argument.

If na.rm is FALSE an NA or NaN value in any of the arguments will cause a value of NA or NaN to be returned, otherwise NA and NaN values are ignored.

Logical true values are regarded as one, false values as zero. For historical reasons, NULL is accepted and treated as if it were integer(0).

Loss of accuracy can occur when summing values of different signs: this can even occur for sufficiently long integer inputs if the partial sums would cause integer overflow. Where possible extended-precision accumulators are used, but this is platform-dependent.

Value

The sum. If all of ... are of type integer or logical, then the sum is integer, and in that case the result will be NA (with a warning) if integer overflow occurs. Otherwise it is a length-one numeric or complex vector.

NB: the sum of an empty set is zero, by definition.

S4 methods

This is part of the S4 [Summary](#) group generic. Methods for it must use the signature `x, ..., na.rm`.
'[plotmath](#)' for the use of `sum` in plot annotation.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[colSums](#) for row and column sums.

Examples

```
## Pass a vector to sum, and it will add the elements together.
sum(1:5)

## Pass several numbers to sum, and it also adds the elements.
sum(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

## In fact, you can pass vectors into several arguments, and everything gets added.
sum(1:2, 3:5)

## If there are missing values, the sum is unknown, i.e., also missing, ....
sum(1:5, NA)
## ... unless we exclude missing values explicitly:
sum(1:5, NA, na.rm = TRUE)
```

summary

Object Summaries

Description

`summary` is a generic function used to produce result summaries of the results of various model fitting functions. The function invokes particular [methods](#) which depend on the [class](#) of the first argument.

Usage

```
summary(object, ...)

## Default S3 method:
summary(object, ..., digits = max(3, getOption("digits")-3))
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
summary(object, maxsum = 7,
        digits = max(3, getOption("digits")-3), ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'factor'
summary(object, maxsum = 100, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'matrix'
summary(object, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	an object for which a summary is desired.
<code>maxsum</code>	integer, indicating how many levels should be shown for factors .
<code>digits</code>	integer, used for number formatting with signif() (for <code>summary.default</code>) or format() (for <code>summary.data.frame</code>).
<code>...</code>	additional arguments affecting the summary produced.

Details

For [factors](#), the frequency of the first `maxsum - 1` most frequent levels is shown, and the less frequent levels are summarized in "(Others)" (resulting in at most `maxsum` frequencies).

The functions `summary.lm` and `summary.glm` are examples of particular methods which summarize the results produced by [lm](#) and [glm](#).

Value

The form of the value returned by `summary` depends on the class of its argument. See the documentation of the particular methods for details of what is produced by that method.

The default method returns an object of class `c("summaryDefault", "table")` which has a specialized print method. The [factor](#) method returns an integer vector.

The matrix and data frame methods return a matrix of class `"table"`, obtained by applying `summary` to each column and collating the results.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[anova](#), [summary.glm](#), [summary.lm](#).

Examples

```
summary(attenu, digits = 4) #-> summary.data.frame(...), default precision
summary(attenu $ station, maxsum = 20) #-> summary.factor(...)
```

```
lst <- unclass(attenu$station) > 20 # logical with NAs
## summary.default() for logicals -- different from *.factor:
summary(lst)
summary(as.factor(lst))
```

svd

*Singular Value Decomposition of a Matrix***Description**

Compute the singular-value decomposition of a rectangular matrix.

Usage

```
svd(x, nu = min(n, p), nv = min(n, p), LINPACK = FALSE)
```

```
La.svd(x, nu = min(n, p), nv = min(n, p))
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric or complex matrix whose SVD decomposition is to be computed. Logical matrices are coerced to numeric.
<code>nu</code>	the number of left singular vectors to be computed. This must be between 0 and <code>n = nrow(x)</code> .
<code>nv</code>	the number of right singular vectors to be computed. This must be between 0 and <code>p = ncol(x)</code> .
<code>LINPACK</code>	logical. Defunct and ignored.

Details

The singular value decomposition plays an important role in many statistical techniques. `svd` and `La.svd` provide two interfaces which differ in their return values.

Computing the singular vectors is the slow part for large matrices. The computation will be more efficient if both `nu <= min(n, p)` and `nv <= min(n, p)`, and even more so if both are zero.

Unsuccessful results from the underlying LAPACK code will result in an error giving a positive error code (most often 1): these can only be interpreted by detailed study of the FORTRAN code but mean that the algorithm failed to converge.

Value

The SVD decomposition of the matrix as computed by LAPACK,

$$X = UDV',$$

where U and V are orthogonal, V' means V *transposed* (and conjugated for complex input), and D is a diagonal matrix with the singular values D_{ii} . Equivalently, $D = U'XV$, which is verified in the examples.

The returned value is a list with components

<code>d</code>	a vector containing the singular values of <code>x</code> , of length <code>min(n, p)</code> .
----------------	--

u a matrix whose columns contain the left singular vectors of x , present if $nu > 0$.
Dimension $c(n, nu)$.

v a matrix whose columns contain the right singular vectors of x , present if $nv > 0$.
Dimension $c(p, nv)$.

Recall that the singular vectors are only defined up to sign (a constant of modulus one in the complex case). If a left singular vector has its sign changed, changing the sign of the corresponding right vector gives an equivalent decomposition.

For `La.svd` the return value replaces v by vt , the (conjugated if complex) transpose of v .

Source

The main functions used are the LAPACK routines DGESDD and ZGESDD.

LAPACK is from <http://www.netlib.org/lapack> and its guide is listed in the references.

References

Anderson. E. and ten others (1999) *LAPACK Users' Guide*. Third Edition. SIAM.
Available on-line at http://www.netlib.org/lapack/lug/lapack_lug.html.

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[eigen](#), [qr](#).

Examples

```
hilbert <- function(n) { i <- 1:n; 1 / outer(i - 1, i, "+") }
X <- hilbert(9)[, 1:6]
(s <- svd(X))
D <- diag(s$d)
s$u %%% D %%% t(s$v) # X = U D V'
t(s$u) %%% X %%% s$v # D = U' X V
```

sweep

Sweep out Array Summaries

Description

Return an array obtained from an input array by sweeping out a summary statistic.

Usage

```
sweep(x, MARGIN, STATS, FUN = "-", check.margin = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an array.
<code>MARGIN</code>	a vector of indices giving the extent(s) of <code>x</code> which correspond to <code>STATS</code> .
<code>STATS</code>	the summary statistic which is to be swept out.
<code>FUN</code>	the function to be used to carry out the sweep.
<code>check.margin</code>	logical. If TRUE (the default), warn if the length or dimensions of <code>STATS</code> do not match the specified dimensions of <code>x</code> . Set to FALSE for a small speed gain when you <i>know</i> that dimensions match.
<code>...</code>	optional arguments to <code>FUN</code> .

Details

`FUN` is found by a call to `match.fun`. As in the default, binary operators can be supplied if quoted or backquoted.

`FUN` should be a function of two arguments: it will be called with arguments `x` and an array of the same dimensions generated from `STATS` by `aperm`.

The consistency check among `STATS`, `MARGIN` and `x` is stricter if `STATS` is an array than if it is a vector. In the vector case, some kinds of recycling are allowed without a warning. Use `sweep(x, MARGIN, as.array(STATS))` if `STATS` is a vector and you want to be warned if any recycling occurs.

Value

An array with the same shape as `x`, but with the summary statistics swept out.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`apply` on which `sweep` used to be based; `scale` for centering and scaling.

Examples

```
require(stats) # for median
med.att <- apply(attitude, 2, median)
sweep(data.matrix(attitude), 2, med.att) # subtract the column medians

## More sweeping:
A <- array(1:24, dim = 4:2)

## no warnings in normal use
sweep(A, 1, 5)
(A.min <- apply(A, 1, min)) # == 1:4
sweep(A, 1, A.min)
sweep(A, 1:2, apply(A, 1:2, median))
```

```
## warnings when mismatch
sweep(A, 1, 1:3) # STATS does not recycle
sweep(A, 1, 6:1) # STATS is longer

## exact recycling:
sweep(A, 1, 1:2) # no warning
sweep(A, 1, as.array(1:2)) # warning
```

switch	<i>Select One of a List of Alternatives</i>
--------	---

Description

switch evaluates EXPR and accordingly chooses one of the further arguments (in ...).

Usage

```
switch(EXPR, ...)
```

Arguments

EXPR	an expression evaluating to a number or a character string.
...	the list of alternatives. If it is intended that EXPR has a character-string value these will be named, perhaps except for one alternative to be used as a 'default' value.

Details

switch works in two distinct ways depending whether the first argument evaluates to a character string or a number.

If the value of EXPR is not a character string it is coerced to integer. Note that this also happens for [factors](#), with a warning, as typically the character level is meant. If the integer is between 1 and `nargs()-1` then the corresponding element of ... is evaluated and the result returned: thus if the first argument is 3 then the fourth argument is evaluated and returned.

If EXPR evaluates to a character string then that string is matched (exactly) to the names of the elements in If there is a match then that element is evaluated unless it is missing, in which case the next non-missing element is evaluated, so for example `switch("cc", a = 1, cc =, cd =, d = 2)` evaluates to 2. If there is more than one match, the first matching element is used. In the case of no match, if there is a unnamed element of ... its value is returned. (If there is more than one such argument an error is returned.)

The first argument is always taken to be EXPR: if it is named its name must (partially) match.

This is implemented as a [primitive](#) function that only evaluates its first argument and one other if one is selected.

Value

The value of one of the elements of `...`, or `NULL`, invisibly (whenever no element is selected).

The result has the visibility (see [invisible](#)) of the element evaluated.

Warning

It is possible to write calls to `switch` that can be confusing and may not work in the same way in earlier versions of R. For compatibility (and clarity), always have `EXPR` as the first argument, naming it if partial matching is a possibility. For the character-string form, have a single unnamed argument as the default after the named values.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
require(stats)
centre <- function(x, type) {
  switch(type,
    mean = mean(x),
    median = median(x),
    trimmed = mean(x, trim = .1))
}
x <- rcauchy(10)
centre(x, "mean")
centre(x, "median")
centre(x, "trimmed")

ccc <- c("b", "QQ", "a", "A", "bb")
# note: cat() produces no output for NULL
for(ch in ccc)
  cat(ch, ":", switch(EXPR = ch, a = 1, b = 2:3), "\n")
for(ch in ccc)
  cat(ch, ":", switch(EXPR = ch, a =, A = 1, b = 2:3, "Otherwise: last"), "\n")

## switch(f, *) with a factor f
ff <- gl(3, 1, labels=LETTERS[3:1])
ff[1] # C
## so one might expect " is C" here, but
switch(ff[1], A = "I am A", B="Bb..", C=" is C")# -> "A"
## so we give a warning

## Numeric EXPR does not allow a default value to be specified
## -- it is always NULL
for(i in c(-1:3, 9)) print(switch(i, 1, 2, 3, 4))

## visibility
switch(1, invisible(pi), pi)
switch(2, invisible(pi), pi)
```


Description

Outlines R syntax and gives the precedence of operators.

Details

The following unary and binary operators are defined. They are listed in precedence groups, from highest to lowest.

:: :::	access variables in a namespace
\$ @	component / slot extraction
[[]	indexing
^	exponentiation (right to left)
- +	unary minus and plus
:	sequence operator
%any%	special operators (including %% and %/%)
* /	multiply, divide
+ -	(binary) add, subtract
< > <= >= == !=	ordering and comparison
!	negation
& &&	and
	or
~	as in formulae
-> ->>	rightwards assignment
<- <<-	assignment (right to left)
=	assignment (right to left)
?	help (unary and binary)

Within an expression operators of equal precedence are evaluated from left to right except where indicated. (Note that = is not necessarily an operator.)

The binary operators ::, :::, \$ and @ require names or string constants on the right hand side, and the first two also require them on the left.

The links in the **See Also** section cover most other aspects of the basic syntax.

Note

There are substantial precedence differences between R and S. In particular, in S ? has the same precedence as (binary) + - and & && | || have equal precedence.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[Arithmetic](#), [Comparison](#), [Control](#), [Extract](#), [Logic](#), [NumericConstants](#), [Paren](#), [Quotes](#), [Reserved](#).

The ‘R Language Definition’ manual.

Examples

```
## Logical AND ("&&") has higher precedence than OR ("||"):
TRUE || TRUE && FALSE  # is the same as
TRUE || (TRUE && FALSE) # and different from
(TRUE || TRUE) && FALSE

## Special operators have higher precedence than "!" (logical NOT).
## You can use this for %in% :
! 1:10 %in% c(2, 3, 5, 7) # same as !(1:10 %in% c(2, 3, 5, 7))
## but we strongly advise to use the "!( ... )" form in this case!

## '=' has lower precedence than '<-' ... so you should not mix them
##      (and '<-' is considered better style anyway):
## Consequently, this gives a ("non-catchable") error
x <- y = 5  #-> Error in (x <- y) = 5 : ....
```

Sys.getenv

Get Environment Variables

Description

Sys.getenv obtains the values of the environment variables.

Usage

```
Sys.getenv(x = NULL, unset = "", names = NA)
```

Arguments

x	a character vector, or NULL.
unset	a character string.
names	logical: should the result be named? If NA (the default) single-element results are not named whereas multi-element results are.

Details

Both arguments will be coerced to character if necessary.

Setting unset = NA will enable unset variables and those set to the value "" to be distinguished, *if the OS does*. POSIX requires the OS to distinguish, and all known current R platforms do.

Value

A vector of the same length as `x`, with (if `names == TRUE`) the variable names as its `names` attribute. Each element holds the value of the environment variable named by the corresponding component of `x` (or the value of `unset` if no environment variable with that name was found).

On most platforms `Sys.getenv()` will return a named vector giving the values of all the environment variables, sorted in the current locale. It may be confused by names containing `=` which some platforms allow but POSIX does not. (Windows is such a platform: there names including `=` are truncated just before the first `=`.)

When `x` is missing and `names` is not false, the result is of class `"Dlist"` in order to get a nice `print` method.

See Also

`Sys.setenv`, `Sys.getlocale` for the locale in use, `getwd` for the working directory.

The help for `'environment variables'` lists many of the environment variables used by R.

Examples

```
## whether HOST is set will be shell-dependent e.g. Solaris' csh does not.
Sys.getenv(c("R_HOME", "R_PAPERSIZE", "R_PRINTCMD", "HOST"))

names(s <- Sys.getenv()) # all settings (the values could be very long)
head(s, 12) # using the Dlist print() method

## Language and Locale settings -- but rather use Sys.getlocale()
s[grepl("^L(C|ANG)", names(s))]
```

`Sys.getpid`

Get the Process ID of the R Session

Description

Get the process ID of the R Session. It is guaranteed by the operating system that two R sessions running simultaneously will have different IDs, but it is possible that R sessions running at different times will have the same ID.

Usage

```
Sys.getpid()
```

Value

An integer, often between 1 and 32767 under Unix-alikes (but for example FreeBSD and OS X use IDs up to 99999) and a positive integer (up to 32767) under Windows.

Examples

```
Sys.getpid()
```

```
Sys.glob
```

```
Wildcard Expansion on File Paths
```

Description

Function to do wildcard expansion (also known as ‘globbing’) on file paths.

Usage

```
Sys.glob(paths, dirmark = FALSE)
```

Arguments

paths	character vector of patterns for relative or absolute filepaths. Missing values will be ignored.
dirmark	logical: should matches to directories from patterns that do not already end in / have a slash appended? May not be supported on all platforms.

Details

This expands wildcards in file paths. For precise details, see your system’s documentation on the glob system call. There is a POSIX 1003.2 standard (see <http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/functions/glob.html>) but some Oses will go beyond this. The R implementation will always do [tilde expansion](#).

All systems should interpret * (match zero or more characters), ? (match a single character) and (probably) [(begin a character class or range). The handling of paths ending with a separator is system-dependent. On a POSIX-2008 compliant OS they will match directories (only), but as they are not valid filepaths on Windows, they match nothing there. (Earlier POSIX standards allowed them to match files.)

The rest of these details are indicative (and based on the POSIX standard).

If a filename starts with . this may need to be matched explicitly: for example Sys.glob("*.RData") may or may not match ‘.RData’ but will not usually match ‘.aa.RData’. Note that this is platform-dependent: e.g. on Solaris Sys.glob("*.*) matches ‘.’ and ‘..’.

[begins a character class. If the first character in [...] is not !, this is a character class which matches a single character against any of the characters specified. The class cannot be empty, so] can be included provided it is first. If the first character is !, the character class matches a single character which is *none* of the specified characters. Whether . in a character class matches a leading . in the filename is OS-dependent.

Character classes can include ranges such as [A-Z]: include – as a character by having it first or last in a class. (The interpretation of ranges should be locale-specific, so the example is not a good idea in an Estonian locale.)

One can remove the special meaning of ?, * and [by preceding them by a backslash (except within a character class).

Value

A character vector of matched file paths. The order is system-specific (but in the order of the elements of paths): it is normally collated in either the current locale or in byte (ASCII) order; however, on Windows collation is in the order of Unicode points.

Directory errors are normally ignored, so the matches are to accessible file paths (but not necessarily accessible files).

See Also

[path.expand](#).

[Quotes](#) for handling backslashes in character strings.

Examples

```
Sys.glob(file.path(R.home(), "library", "*", "R", "*.rdx"))
```

Sys.info

Extract System and User Information

Description

Reports system and user information.

Usage

```
Sys.info()
```

Details

This uses POSIX or Windows system calls. Note that OS names might not be what you expect: for example OS X identifies itself as ‘Darwin’ and Solaris as ‘SunOS’.

`Sys.info()` returns details of the platform R is running on, whereas [R.version](#) gives details of the platform R was built on: the release and version may well be different.

Value

A character vector with fields

sysname	The operating system name.
release	The OS release.
version	The OS version.
nodename	A name by which the machine is known on the network (if any).
machine	A concise description of the hardware, often the CPU type.
login	The user’s login name, or “unknown” if it cannot be ascertained.

`user` The name of the real user ID, or "unknown" if it cannot be ascertained.

`effective_user` The name of the effective user ID, or "unknown" if it cannot be ascertained. This may differ from the real user in 'set-user-ID' processes.

The first five fields come from the `uname(2)` system call. The login name comes from `getlogin(2)`, and the user names from `getpwuid(getuid())` and `getpwuid(geteuid())`

Note

The meaning of `release` and `version` is system-dependent: on a Unix-alike they normally refer to the kernel. There, usually `release` contains a numeric version and `version` gives additional information. Examples for `release`:

```
"4.1.3-100.fc21.x86_64"  # Linux (Fedora)
"3.2.0-4-amd64"          # Linux (Debian)
"14.5.0"                 # OS X 10.10.5
"5.11"                   # Solaris
```

There is no guarantee that the node or login or user names will be what you might reasonably expect. (In particular on some Linux distributions the login name is unknown from sessions with re-directed inputs.)

The use of alternatives such as `system("whoami")` is not portable: the POSIX command `system("id")` is much more portable on Unix-alikes, provided only the POSIX options are used (and not the many BSD and GNU extensions).

See Also

[.Platform](#), and [R.version](#). [sessionInfo\(\)](#) gives a synopsis of both your system and the R session (and gives the OS version in a human-readable form).

Examples

```
Sys.info()
## An alternative (and probably better) way to get the login name on Unix
Sys.getenv("LOGNAME")
```

Sys.localeconv	<i>Find Details of the Numerical and Monetary Representations in the Current Locale</i>
----------------	---

Description

Get details of the numerical and monetary representations in the current locale.

Usage

```
Sys.localeconv()
```

Details

Normally R is run without looking at the value of LC_NUMERIC, so the decimal point remains '.'. So the first three of these components will only be useful if you have set the locale category LC_NUMERIC using Sys.setlocale in the current R session (when R may not work correctly).

The monetary components will only be set to non-default values (see the 'Examples' section if the LC_MONETARY category is set. It often is not set: set the examples for how to trigger setting it.

Value

A character vector with 18 named components. See your ISO C documentation for details of the meaning.

It is possible to compile R without support for locales, in which case the value will be NULL.

See Also

[Sys.setlocale](#) for ways to set locales.

Examples

```
Sys.localeconv()
## The results in the C locale are
##   decimal_point   thousands_sep      grouping   int_curr_symbol
##           "."           ""           ""           ""
## currency_symbol mon_decimal_point mon_thousands_sep   mon_grouping
##           ""           ""           ""           ""
##   positive_sign   negative_sign   int_frac_digits   frac_digits
##           ""           ""           "127"           "127"
##   p_cs_precedes   p_sep_by_space   n_cs_precedes   n_sep_by_space
##           "127"           "127"           "127"           "127"
##   p_sign_posn     n_sign_posn
##           "127"           "127"

## Now try your default locale (which might be "C").
old <- Sys.getlocale()
## The category may not be set:
## the following may do so, but it might not be supported.
Sys.setlocale("LC_MONETARY", locale = "")
Sys.localeconv()
## or set an appropriate value yourself, e.g.
Sys.setlocale("LC_MONETARY", "de_AT")
Sys.localeconv()
Sys.setlocale(locale = old)

## Not run: read.table("foo", dec=Sys.localeconv()["decimal_point"])
```

Description

These functions provide access to [environments](#) ('frames' in S terminology) associated with functions further up the calling stack.

Usage

```
sys.call(which = 0)
sys.frame(which = 0)
sys.nframe()
sys.function(which = 0)
sys.parent(n = 1)
```

```
sys.calls()
sys.frames()
sys.parents()
sys.on.exit()
sys.status()
parent.frame(n = 1)
```

Arguments

which	the frame number if non-negative, the number of frames to go back if negative.
n	the number of generations to go back. (See the 'Details' section.)

Details

[.GlobalEnv](#) is given number 0 in the list of frames. Each subsequent function evaluation increases the frame stack by 1 and the call, function definition and the environment for evaluation of that function are returned by `sys.call`, `sys.function` and `sys.frame` with the appropriate index.

`sys.call`, `sys.frame` and `sys.function` accept integer values for the argument `which`. Non-negative values of `which` are frame numbers whereas negative values are counted back from the frame number of the current evaluation.

The parent frame of a function evaluation is the environment in which the function was called. It is not necessarily numbered one less than the frame number of the current evaluation, nor is it the environment within which the function was defined. `sys.parent` returns the number of the parent frame if `n` is 1 (the default), the grandparent if `n` is 2, and so on. See also the 'Note'.

`sys.nframe` returns an integer, the number of the current frame as described in the first paragraph.

`sys.calls` and `sys.frames` give a pairlist of all the active calls and frames, respectively, and `sys.parents` returns an integer vector of indices of the parent frames of each of those frames.

Notice that even though the `sys.xxx` functions (except `sys.status`) are interpreted, their contexts are not counted nor are they reported. There is no access to them.

`sys.status()` returns a list with components `sys.calls`, `sys.parents` and `sys.frames`, the results of calls to those three functions (which this will include the call to `sys.status`: see the first example).

`sys.on.exit()` returns the expression stored for use by `on.exit` in the function currently being evaluated. (Note that this differs from `S`, which returns a list of expressions for the current frame and its parents.)

`parent.frame(n)` is a convenient shorthand for `sys.frame(sys.parent(n))` (implemented slightly more efficiently).

Value

`sys.call` returns a call, `sys.function` a function definition, and `sys.frame` and `parent.frame` return an environment.

For the other functions, see the ‘Details’ section.

Note

Strictly, `sys.parent` and `parent.frame` refer to the *context* of the parent interpreted function. So internal functions (which may or may not set contexts and so may or may not appear on the call stack) may not be counted, and `S3` methods can also do surprising things.

Beware of the effect of lazy evaluation: these two functions look at the call stack at the time they are evaluated, not at the time they are called. Passing calls to them as function arguments is unlikely to be a good idea.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (Not `parent.frame`.)

See Also

`eval` for a usage of `sys.frame` and `parent.frame`.

Examples

```
require(utils)

## Note: the first two examples will give different results
## if run by example().
ff <- function(x) gg(x)
gg <- function(y) sys.status()
str(ff(1))

gg <- function(y) {
  ggg <- function() {
    cat("current frame is", sys.nframe(), "\n")
    cat("parents are", sys.parents(), "\n")
    print(sys.function(0)) # ggg
    print(sys.function(2)) # gg
  }
}
```

```

    }
    if(y > 0) gg(y-1) else ggg()
  }
  gg(3)

t1 <- function() {
  aa <- "here"
  t2 <- function() {
    ## in frame 2 here
    cat("current frame is", sys.nframe(), "\n")
    str(sys.calls()) ## list with two components t1() and t2()
    cat("parents are frame numbers", sys.parents(), "\n") ## 0 1
    print(ls(envir = sys.frame(-1))) ## [1] "aa" "t2"
    invisible()
  }
  t2()
}
t1()

test.sys.on.exit <- function() {
  on.exit(print(1))
  ex <- sys.on.exit()
  str(ex)
  cat("exiting...\n")
}
test.sys.on.exit()
## gives 'language print(1)', prints 1 on exit

## An example where the parent is not the next frame up the stack
## since method dispatch uses a frame.
as.double.foo <- function(x)
{
  str(sys.calls())
  print(sys.frames())
  print(sys.parents())
  print(sys.frame(-1)); print(parent.frame())
  x
}
t2 <- function(x) as.double(x)
a <- structure(pi, class = "foo")
t2(a)

```

Description

Find out if a file path is a symbolic link, and if so what it is linked to, *via* the system call `readlink`. Symbolic links are a POSIX concept, not implemented on Windows but for most filesystems on Unix-alikes.

Usage

```
Sys.readlink(paths)
```

Arguments

paths character vector of file paths. Tilde expansion is done: see [path.expand](#).

Value

A character vector of the same length as paths. The entries are the path of the file linked to, "" if the path is not a symbolic link, and NA if there is an error (e.g., the path does not exist).

On platforms without the readlink system call, all elements are "".

See Also

[file.smlink](#) for the creation of symbolic links (and their Windows analogues), [file.info](#)

Sys.setenv

Set or Unset Environment Variables

Description

Sys.setenv sets environment variables (for other processes called from within R or future calls to [Sys.getenv](#) from this R process).

Sys.unsetenv removes environment variables.

Usage

```
Sys.setenv(...)
```

```
Sys.unsetenv(x)
```

Arguments

... named arguments with values coercible to a character string.

x a character vector, or an object coercible to character.

Details

Non-standard R names must be quoted in Sys.setenv: see the examples. Most platforms (and POSIX) do not allow names containing "=". Windows does, but the facilities provided by R may not handle these correctly so they should be avoided. Most platforms allow setting an environment variable to "", but Windows does not, and there Sys.setenv(F00 = "") unsets F00.

There may be system-specific limits on the maximum length of the values of individual environment variables or of all environment variables.

Value

A logical vector, with elements being true if (un)setting the corresponding variable succeeded. (For `Sys.unsetenv` this includes attempting to remove a non-existent variable.)

Note

If `Sys.unsetenv` is not supported, it will at least try to set the value of the environment variable to "", with a warning.

See Also

[Sys.getenv](#), [Startup](#) for ways to set environment variables for the R session.

[setwd](#) for the working directory.

The help for ‘[environment variables](#)’ lists many of the environment variables used by R.

Examples

```
print(Sys.setenv(R_TEST = "testit", "A+C" = 123)) # `A+C` could also be used
Sys.getenv("R_TEST")
Sys.unsetenv("R_TEST") # may warn and not succeed
Sys.getenv("R_TEST", unset = NA)
```

Sys.setFileTime

Set File Time

Description

Uses system calls to set the times on a file or directory.

Usage

```
Sys.setFileTime(path, time)
```

Arguments

path	A length-one character vector specifying the path to a file or directory.
time	A date-time of class " POSIXct " or an object which can be coerced to one. Fractions of a second are ignored.

Details

This attempts sets the file time to the value specified.

On a Unix-alike it uses the system call `utimes` if that is available, otherwise `utime`. On a POSIX file system it sets both the last-access and modification times.

On Windows it uses the system call `SetFileTime` to set the ‘last write time’. Some Windows file systems only record the time at a resolution of two seconds.

Value

Logical, invisibly. An indication if the operation succeeded.

Sys.sleep

Suspend Execution for a Time Interval

Description

Suspend execution of R expressions for a specified time interval.

Usage

```
Sys.sleep(time)
```

Arguments

`time` The time interval to suspend execution for, in seconds.

Details

Using this function allows R to temporarily be given very low priority and hence not to interfere with more important foreground tasks. A typical use is to allow a process launched from R to set itself up and read its input files before R execution is resumed.

The intention is that this function suspends execution of R expressions but wakes the process up often enough to respond to GUI events, typically every half second. It can be interrupted (e.g. by ‘Ctrl-C’ or ‘Esc’ at the R console).

There is no guarantee that the process will sleep for the whole of the specified interval (sleep might be interrupted), and it may well take slightly longer in real time to resume execution.

`time` must be non-negative (and not NA nor NaN): Inf is allowed (and might be appropriate if the intention is to wait indefinitely for an interrupt). The resolution of the time interval is system-dependent, but will normally be 20ms or better. (On modern Unix-alikes it will be better than 1ms.)

Value

Invisible NULL.

Note

Despite its name, this is not currently implemented using the `sleep` system call (although on Windows it does make use of `Sleep`).

Examples

```
testit <- function(x)
{
  p1 <- proc.time()
  Sys.sleep(x)
  proc.time() - p1 # The cpu usage should be negligible
}
testit(3.7)
```

sys.source

Parse and Evaluate Expressions from a File

Description

Parses expressions in the given file, and then successively evaluates them in the specified environment.

Usage

```
sys.source(file, envir = baseenv(), chdir = FALSE,
           keep.source = getOption("keep.source.pkgs"))
```

Arguments

file	a character string naming the file to be read from
envir	an R object specifying the environment in which the expressions are to be evaluated. May also be a list or an integer. The default value NULL corresponds to evaluation in the base environment. This is probably not what you want; you should typically supply an explicit <code>envir</code> argument.
chdir	logical; if TRUE, the R working directory is changed to the directory containing file for evaluating.
keep.source	logical. If TRUE, functions keep their source including comments, see options (keep.source = *) for more details.

Details

For large files, `keep.source = FALSE` may save quite a bit of memory.

In order for the code being evaluated to use the correct environment (for example, in global assignments), source code in packages should call [topenv\(\)](#), which will return the namespace, if any, the environment set up by `sys.source`, or the global environment if a saved image is being used.

See Also

[source](#), and [library](#) which uses `sys.source`.

Examples

```
## a simple way to put some objects in an environment
## high on the search path
tmp <- tempfile()
writeLines("aaa <- pi", tmp)
env <- attach(NULL, name = "myenv")
sys.source(tmp, env)
unlink(tmp)
search()
aaa
detach("myenv")
```

Sys.time

Get Current Date and Time

Description

Sys.time and Sys.Date returns the system's idea of the current date with and without time.

Usage

```
Sys.time()
Sys.Date()
```

Details

Sys.time returns an absolute date-time value which can be converted to various time zones and may return different days.

Sys.Date returns the current day in the current [time zone](#).

Value

Sys.time returns an object of class "POSIXct" (see [DateTimeClasses](#)). On almost all systems it will have sub-second accuracy, possibly microseconds or better. On Windows it increments in clock ticks (usually 1/60 of a second) reported to millisecond accuracy.

Sys.Date returns an object of class "Date" (see [Date](#)).

Note

Sys.time may return fractional seconds, but they are ignored by the default conversions (e.g., printing) for class "POSIXct". See the examples and [format.POSIXct](#) for ways to reveal them.

See Also

[date](#) for the system time in a fixed-format character string.

[Sys.timezone](#).

[system.time](#) for measuring elapsed/CPU time of expressions.

Examples

```
Sys.time()
## print with possibly greater accuracy:
op <- options(digits.secs = 6)
Sys.time()
options(op)

## locale-specific version of date()
format(Sys.time(), "%a %b %d %X %Y")

Sys.Date()
```

Sys.which

Find Full Paths to Executables

Description

This is an interface to the system command which, or to an emulation on Windows.

Usage

```
Sys.which(names)
```

Arguments

names Character vector of names or paths of possible executables.

Details

The system command which reports on the full path names of an executable (including an executable script) as would be executed by a shell, accepting either absolute paths or looking on the path.

On Windows an ‘executable’ is a file with extension ‘.exe’, ‘.com’, ‘.cmd’ or ‘.bat’. Such files need not actually be executable, but they are what [system](#) tries.

On a Unix-alike the full path to which (usually ‘/usr/bin/which’) is found when R is installed.

Value

A character vector of the same length as names, named by names. The elements are either the full path to the executable or some indication that no executable of that name was found. Typically the indication is “”, but this does depend on the OS (and the known exceptions are changed to “”). Missing values in names have missing return values (as from R 3.0.0).

On Windows the paths will be short paths (8+3 components, no spaces) with \ as the path delimiter.

Note

Except on Windows this calls the system command which: since that is not part of e.g. the POSIX standards, exactly what it does is OS-dependent. It will usually do tilde-expansion and it may make use of csh aliases.

In R 2.x.y, arguments containing spaces or other metacharacters needed to be escaped as they would be for a shell: for example Windows paths containing spaces needed to be enclosed in double quotes.

Examples

```
## the first two are likely to exist everywhere
## texi2dvi exists on most Unix-alikes and under MiKTeX
Sys.which(c("ftp", "ping", "texi2dvi", "this-does-not-exist"))
```

system	<i>Invoke a System Command</i>
--------	--------------------------------

Description

system invokes the OS command specified by command.

Usage

```
system(command, intern = FALSE,
        ignore.stdout = FALSE, ignore.stderr = FALSE,
        wait = TRUE, input = NULL, show.output.on.console = TRUE,
        minimized = FALSE, invisible = TRUE)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|--|--|
| command | the system command to be invoked, as a character string. |
| intern | a logical (not NA) which indicates whether to capture the output of the command as an R character vector. |
| ignore.stdout, ignore.stderr | a logical (not NA) indicating whether messages written to ‘stdout’ or ‘stderr’ should be ignored. |
| wait | a logical (not NA) indicating whether the R interpreter should wait for the command to finish, or run it asynchronously. This will be ignored (and the interpreter will always wait) if intern = TRUE. |
| input | if a character vector is supplied, this is copied one string per line to a temporary file, and the standard input of command is redirected to the file. |
| show.output.on.console, minimized, invisible | arguments that are accepted on Windows but ignored on this platform, with a warning. |

Details

This interface has become rather complicated over the years: see [system2](#) for a more portable and flexible interface which is recommended for new code.

command is parsed as a command plus arguments separated by spaces. So if the path to the command (or a single argument such as a file path) contains spaces, it must be quoted e.g. by [shQuote](#). Unix-alikes pass the command line to a shell (normally `/bin/sh`, and POSIX requires that shell), so command can be anything the shell regards as executable, including shell scripts, and it can contain multiple commands separated by `;`.

On Windows, system does not use a shell and there is a separate function `shell` which passes command lines to a shell.

If `intern` is `TRUE` then `popen` is used to invoke the command and the output collected, line by line, into an R [character](#) vector. If `intern` is `FALSE` then the C function `system` is used to invoke the command.

`wait` is implemented by appending `&` to the command: this is in principle shell-dependent, but required by POSIX and so widely supported.

The ordering of arguments after the first two has changed from time to time: it is recommended to name all arguments after the first.

There are many pitfalls in using `system` to ascertain if a command can be run — [Sys.which](#) is more suitable.

Value

If `intern = TRUE`, a character vector giving the output of the command, one line per character string. (Output lines of more than 8095 bytes will be split.) If the command could not be run an R error is generated. If command runs but gives a non-zero exit status this will be reported with a warning and in the attribute `"status"` of the result: an attribute `"errmsg"` may also be available

If `intern = FALSE`, the return value is an error code (`0` for success), given the invisible attribute (so needs to be printed explicitly). If the command could not be run for any reason, the value is `127`. Otherwise if `wait = TRUE` the value is the exit status returned by the command, and if `wait = FALSE` it is `0` (the conventional success value).

Stdout and stderr

For command-line R, error messages written to `'stderr'` will be sent to the terminal unless `ignore.stderr = TRUE`. They can be captured (in the most likely shells) by

```
system("some command 2>&1", intern = TRUE)
```

For GUIs, what happens to output sent to `'stdout'` or `'stderr'` if `intern = FALSE` is interface-specific, and it is unsafe to assume that such messages will appear on a GUI console (they do on the OS X GUI's console, but not on some others).

Differences between Unix and Windows

How processes are launched differs fundamentally between Windows and Unix-alike operating systems, as do the higher-level OS functions on which this R function is built. So it should not be

surprising that there are many differences between OSes in how `system` behaves. For the benefit of programmers, the more important ones are summarized in this section.

- The most important difference is that on a Unix-alike `system` launches a shell which then runs command. On Windows the command is run directly – use `shell` for an interface which runs command *via* a shell (by default the Windows shell `cmd.exe`, which has many differences from a POSIX shell).
This means that it cannot be assumed that redirection or piping will work in `system` (redirection sometimes does, but we have seen cases where it stopped working after a Windows security patch), and `system2` (or `shell`) must be used on Windows.
- What happens to `stdout` and `stderr` when not captured depends on how R is running: Windows batch commands behave like a Unix-alike, but from the Windows GUI they are generally lost. `system(intern = TRUE)` captures ‘`stderr`’ when run from the Windows GUI console unless `ignore.stderr = TRUE`.
- The behaviour on error is different in subtle ways (and has differed between R versions).
- The quoting conventions for command differ, but `shQuote` is a portable interface.
- Arguments `show.output.on.console`, `minimized`, `invisible` only do something on Windows (and are most relevant to Rgui there).

See Also

`man system` and `man sh` for how this is implemented on the OS in use.

`.Platform` for platform-specific variables.

`pipe` to set up a pipe connection.

Examples

```
# list all files in the current directory using the -F flag
## Not run: system("ls -F")

# t1 is a character vector, each element giving a line of output from who
# (if the platform has who)
t1 <- try(system("who", intern = TRUE))

try(system("ls fizzlipuzzli", intern = TRUE, ignore.stderr = TRUE))
# zero-length result since file does not exist, and will give warning.
```

system.file

Find Names of R System Files

Description

Finds the full file names of files in packages etc.

Usage

```
system.file(..., package = "base", lib.loc = NULL,
            mustWork = FALSE)
```

Arguments

...	character vectors, specifying subdirectory and file(s) within some package. The default, none, returns the root of the package. Wildcards are not supported.
package	a character string with the name of a single package. An error occurs if more than one package name is given.
lib.loc	a character vector with path names of R libraries. See 'Details' for the meaning of the default value of NULL.
mustWork	logical. If TRUE, an error is given if there are no matching files.

Details

This checks the existence of the specified files with `file.exists`. So file paths are only returned if there are sufficient permissions to establish their existence.

The unnamed arguments in ... are usually character strings, but if character vectors they are recycled to the same length.

This uses `find.package` to find the package, and hence with the default `lib.loc = NULL` looks first for attached packages then in each library listed in `.libPaths()`. Note that if a namespace is loaded but the package is not attached, this will look only on `.libPaths()`.

Value

A character vector of positive length, containing the file paths that matched ..., or the empty string, "", if none matched (unless `mustWork = TRUE`).

If matching the root of a package, there is no trailing separator.

`system.file()` with no arguments gives the root of the **base** package.

See Also

[R.home](#) for the root directory of the R installation, [list.files](#).

[Sys.glob](#) to find paths via wildcards.

Examples

```
system.file()           # The root of the 'base' package
system.file(package = "stats") # The root of package 'stats'
system.file("INDEX")
system.file("help", "AnIndex", package = "splines")
```

system.time

CPU Time Used

Description

Return CPU (and other) times that `expr` used.

Usage

```
system.time(expr, gcFirst = TRUE)
unix.time(expr, gcFirst = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	Valid R expression to be timed.
<code>gcFirst</code>	Logical - should a garbage collection be performed immediately before the timing? Default is TRUE.

Details

`system.time` calls the function `proc.time`, evaluates `expr`, and then calls `proc.time` once more, returning the difference between the two `proc.time` calls.

`unix.time` is an alias of `system.time`, for compatibility with S.

Timings of evaluations of the same expression can vary considerably depending on whether the evaluation triggers a garbage collection. When `gcFirst` is TRUE a garbage collection (`gc`) will be performed immediately before the evaluation of `expr`. This will usually produce more consistent timings.

Value

A object of class "proc_time": see `proc.time` for details.

See Also

`proc.time`, `time` which is for time series.

`Sys.time` to get the current date & time.

Examples

```
require(stats)
system.time(for(i in 1:100) mad(runif(1000)))
## Not run:
exT <- function(n = 10000) {
  # Purpose: Test if system.time works ok;  n: loop size
  system.time(for(i in 1:n) x <- mean(rt(1000, df = 4)))
}
#-- Try to interrupt one of the following (using Ctrl-C / Escape):
```

```
exT()          #- about 4 secs on a 2.5GHz Xeon
system.time(exT())  #- +/- same

## End(Not run)
```

system2

Invoke a System Command

Description

system2 invokes the OS command specified by command.

Usage

```
system2(command, args = character(),
        stdout = "", stderr = "", stdin = "", input = NULL,
        env = character(), wait = TRUE,
        minimized = FALSE, invisible = TRUE)
```

Arguments

command	the system command to be invoked, as a character string.
args	a character vector of arguments to command.
stdout, stderr	where output to ‘stdout’ or ‘stderr’ should be sent. Possible values are “”, to the R console (the default), NULL or FALSE (discard output), TRUE (capture the output in a character vector) or a character string naming a file.
stdin	should input be diverted? “” means the default, alternatively a character string naming a file. Ignored if input is supplied.
input	if a character vector is supplied, this is copied one string per line to a temporary file, and the standard input of command is redirected to the file.
env	character vector of name=value strings to set environment variables.
wait	a logical (not NA) indicating whether the R interpreter should wait for the command to finish, or run it asynchronously. This will be ignored (and the interpreter will always wait) if stdout = TRUE.
minimized, invisible	arguments that are accepted on Windows but ignored on this platform, with a warning.

Details

Unlike [system](#), command is always quoted by [shQuote](#), so it must be a single command without arguments.

For details of how command is found see [system](#).

On Windows, env is only supported for commands such as R and make which accept environment variables on their command line.

Some Unix commands (such as some implementations of `ls`) change their output if they consider it to be piped or redirected: `stdout = TRUE` uses a pipe whereas `stdout = "some_file_name"` uses redirection.

Because of the way it is implemented, on a Unix-alike `stderr = TRUE` implies `stdout = TRUE`: a warning is given if this is not what was specified.

Value

If `stdout = TRUE` or `stderr = TRUE`, a character vector giving the output of the command, one line per character string. (Output lines of more than 8095 bytes will be split.) If the command could not be run an R error is generated. If command runs but gives a non-zero exit status this will be reported with a warning and in the attribute `"status"` of the result: an attribute `"errmsg"` may also be available.

In other cases, the return value is an error code (0 for success), given the `invisible` attribute (so needs to be printed explicitly). If the command could not be run for any reason, the value is 127. Otherwise if `wait = TRUE` the value is the exit status returned by the command, and if `wait = FALSE` it is 0 (the conventional success value).

Note

`system2` is a more portable and flexible interface than `system`, introduced in R 2.12.0. It allows redirection of output without needing to invoke a shell on Windows, a portable way to set environment variables for the execution of command, and finer control over the redirection of `stdout` and `stderr`. Conversely, `system` (and `shell` on Windows) allows the invocation of arbitrary command lines.

There is no guarantee that if `stdout` and `stderr` are both `TRUE` or the same file that the two streams will be interleaved in order. This depends on both the buffering used by the command and the OS.

See Also

[system](#).

t

Matrix Transpose

Description

Given a matrix or `data.frame` `x`, `t` returns the transpose of `x`.

Usage

`t(x)`

Arguments

`x` a matrix or data frame, typically.

Details

This is a generic function for which methods can be written. The description here applies to the default and "data.frame" methods.

A data frame is first coerced to a matrix: see [as.matrix](#). When x is a vector, it is treated as a column, i.e., the result is a 1-row matrix.

Value

A matrix, with dim and dimnames constructed appropriately from those of x, and other attributes except names copied across.

Note

The *conjugate* transpose of a complex matrix A , denoted A^H or A^* , is computed as [Conj](#)([t](#)(A)).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[aperm](#) for permuting the dimensions of arrays.

Examples

```
a <- matrix(1:30, 5, 6)
ta <- t(a) ##-- i.e., a[i, j] == ta[j, i] for all i,j :
for(j in seq(ncol(a)))
  if(! all(a[, j] == ta[j, ])) stop("wrong transpose")
```

table	<i>Cross Tabulation and Table Creation</i>
-------	--

Description

table uses the cross-classifying factors to build a contingency table of the counts at each combination of factor levels.

Usage

```
table(..., exclude = if (useNA == "no") c(NA, NaN), useNA = c("no",
  "ifany", "always"), dnn = list.names(...), deparse.level = 1)

as.table(x, ...)
is.table(x)

## S3 method for class 'table'
```



```
as.data.frame(x, row.names = NULL, ...,
              responseName = "Freq", stringsAsFactors = TRUE,
              sep = "", base = list(LETTERS))
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	one or more objects which can be interpreted as factors (including character strings), or a list (or data frame) whose components can be so interpreted. (For <code>as.table</code> , arguments passed to specific methods; for <code>as.data.frame</code> , unused.)
<code>exclude</code>	levels to remove for all factors in <code>...</code> . If set to <code>NULL</code> , it implies <code>useNA = "always"</code> . See ‘Details’ for its interpretation for non-factor arguments.
<code>useNA</code>	whether to include NA values in the table. See ‘Details’. Can be abbreviated.
<code>dnn</code>	the names to be given to the dimensions in the result (the <i>dimnames names</i>).
<code>deparse.level</code>	controls how the default <code>dnn</code> is constructed. See ‘Details’.
<code>x</code>	an arbitrary R object, or an object inheriting from class <code>"table"</code> for the <code>as.data.frame</code> method. Note that <code>as.data.frame.table(x, *)</code> may be called explicitly for non-table <code>x</code> for “reshaping” arrays .
<code>row.names</code>	a character vector giving the row names for the data frame.
<code>responseName</code>	The name to be used for the column of table entries, usually counts.
<code>stringsAsFactors</code>	logical: should the classifying factors be returned as factors (the default) or character vectors?
<code>sep, base</code>	passed to provideDimnames .

Details

If the argument `dnn` is not supplied, the internal function `list.names` is called to compute the ‘dimname names’. If the arguments in `...` are named, those names are used. For the remaining arguments, `deparse.level = 0` gives an empty name, `deparse.level = 1` uses the supplied argument if it is a symbol, and `deparse.level = 2` will deparse the argument.

Only when `exclude` is specified and non-`NULL` (i.e., not by default), will `table` potentially drop levels of factor arguments.

`useNA` controls if the table includes counts of NA values: the allowed values correspond to never, only if the count is positive and even for zero counts. This is overridden by specifying `exclude = NULL`. Note that levels specified in `exclude` are mapped to NA and so included in NA counts.

Both `exclude` and `useNA` operate on an “all or none” basis. If you want to control the dimensions of a multiway table separately, modify each argument using [factor](#) or [addNA](#).

It is best to supply factors rather than rely on coercion. In particular, `exclude` will be used in coercion to a factor, and so values (not levels) which appear in `exclude` before coercion will be mapped to NA rather than be discarded.

The summary method for class `"table"` (used for objects created by `table` or [xtabs](#)) which gives basic information and performs a chi-squared test for independence of factors (note that the function [chisq.test](#) currently only handles 2-d tables).

Value

`table()` returns a *contingency table*, an object of class "table", an array of integer values. Note that unlike S the result is always an array, a 1D array if one factor is given.

`as.table` and `is.table` coerce to and test for contingency table, respectively.

The `as.data.frame` method for objects inheriting from class "table" can be used to convert the array-based representation of a contingency table to a data frame containing the classifying factors and the corresponding entries (the latter as component named by `responseName`). This is the inverse of `xtabs`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`tabulate` is the underlying function and allows finer control.

Use `ftable` for printing (and more) of multidimensional tables. `margin.table`, `prop.table`, `addmargins`.

`xtabs` for cross tabulation of data frames with a formula interface.

Examples

```
require(stats) # for rpois and xtabs
## Simple frequency distribution
table(rpois(100, 5))
## Check the design:
with(warpbreaks, table(wool, tension))
table(state.division, state.region)

# simple two-way contingency table
with(airquality, table(cut(Temp, quantile(Temp)), Month))

a <- letters[1:3]
table(a, sample(a)) # dnn is c("a", "")
table(a, sample(a), deparse.level = 0) # dnn is c("", "")
table(a, sample(a), deparse.level = 2) # dnn is c("a", "sample(a)")

## xtabs() <-> as.data.frame.table() :
UCBAdmissions ## already a contingency table
DF <- as.data.frame(UCBAdmissions)
class(tab <- xtabs(Freq ~ ., DF)) # xtabs & table
## tab *is* "the same" as the original table:
all(tab == UCBAdmissions)
all.equal(dimnames(tab), dimnames(UCBAdmissions))

a <- rep(c(NA, 1/0:3), 10)
table(a)
table(a, exclude = NULL)
b <- factor(rep(c("A", "B", "C"), 10))
```

```

table(b)
table(b, exclude = "B")
d <- factor(rep(c("A","B","C"), 10), levels = c("A","B","C","D","E"))
table(d, exclude = "B")
print(table(b, d), zero.print = ".")

## NA counting:
is.na(d) <- 3:4
d. <- addNA(d)
d.[1:7]
table(d.) # ", exclude = NULL" is not needed
## i.e., if you want to count the NA's of 'd', use
table(d, useNA = "ifany")

## Two-way tables with NA counts. The 3rd variant is absurd, but shows
## something that cannot be done using exclude or useNA.
with(airquality,
     table(OzHi = Ozone > 80, Month, useNA = "ifany"))
with(airquality,
     table(OzHi = Ozone > 80, Month, useNA = "always"))
with(airquality,
     table(OzHi = Ozone > 80, addNA(Month)))

```

tabulate

Tabulation for Vectors

Description

tabulate takes the integer-valued vector `bin` and counts the number of times each integer occurs in it.

Usage

```
tabulate(bin, nbins = max(1, bin), na.rm = TRUE))
```

Arguments

<code>bin</code>	a numeric vector (of positive integers), or a factor. Long vectors are supported.
<code>nbins</code>	the number of bins to be used.

Details

tabulate is the workhorse for the [table](#) function.

If `bin` is a factor, its internal integer representation is tabulated.

If the elements of `bin` are numeric but not integers, they are truncated by [as.integer](#).

Value

An integer vector (without names). There is a bin for each of the values 1, ..., nbins; values outside that range and NAs are (silently) ignored.

On 64-bit platforms bin can have 2^{31} or more elements and hence a count could exceed the maximum integer: this is currently an error.

See Also

[table](#), [factor](#).

Examples

```
tabulate(c(2,3,5))
tabulate(c(2,3,3,5), nbins = 10)
tabulate(c(-2,0,2,3,3,5)) # -2 and 0 are ignored
tabulate(c(-2,0,2,3,3,5), nbins = 3)
tabulate(factor(letters[1:10]))
```

tapply	<i>Apply a Function Over a Ragged Array</i>
--------	---

Description

Apply a function to each cell of a ragged array, that is to each (non-empty) group of values given by a unique combination of the levels of certain factors.

Usage

```
tapply(X, INDEX, FUN = NULL, ..., simplify = TRUE)
```

Arguments

X	an atomic object, typically a vector.
INDEX	list of one or more factors, each of same length as X. The elements are coerced to factors by as.factor .
FUN	the function to be applied, or NULL. In the case of functions like +, %*%, etc., the function name must be backquoted or quoted. If FUN is NULL, tapply returns a vector which can be used to subscript the multi-way array tapply normally produces.
...	optional arguments to FUN: the Note section.
simplify	If FALSE, tapply always returns an array of mode "list". If TRUE (the default), then if FUN always returns a scalar, tapply returns an array with the mode of the scalar.

Value

If FUN is not NULL, it is passed to `match.fun`, and hence it can be a function or a symbol or character string naming a function.

When FUN is present, tapply calls FUN for each cell that has any data in it. If FUN returns a single atomic value for each such cell (e.g., functions `mean` or `var`) and when `simplify` is TRUE, tapply returns a multi-way array containing the values, and NA for the empty cells. The array has the same number of dimensions as INDEX has components; the number of levels in a dimension is the number of levels (`nlevels()`) in the corresponding component of INDEX. Note that if the return value has a class (e.g., an object of class `"Date"`) the class is discarded.

Note that contrary to S, `simplify = TRUE` always returns an array, possibly 1-dimensional.

If FUN does not return a single atomic value, tapply returns an array of mode `list` whose components are the values of the individual calls to FUN, i.e., the result is a list with a `dim` attribute.

When there is an array answer, its `dimnames` are named by the names of INDEX and are based on the levels of the grouping factors (possibly after coercion).

For a list result, the elements corresponding to empty cells are NULL.

Note

Optional arguments to FUN supplied by the `...` argument are not divided into cells. It is therefore inappropriate for FUN to expect additional arguments with the same length as X.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

the convenience functions `by` and `aggregate` (using `tapply`); `apply`, `lapply` with its versions `sapply` and `mapply`.

Examples

```
require(stats)
groups <- as.factor(rbinom(32, n = 5, prob = 0.4))
tapply(groups, groups, length) #- is almost the same as
table(groups)

## contingency table from data.frame : array with named dimnames
tapply(warpbreaks$breaks, warpbreaks[, -1], sum)
tapply(warpbreaks$breaks, warpbreaks[, 3, drop = FALSE], sum)

n <- 17; fac <- factor(rep(1:3, length = n), levels = 1:5)
table(fac)
tapply(1:n, fac, sum)
tapply(1:n, fac, sum, simplify = FALSE)
tapply(1:n, fac, range)
tapply(1:n, fac, quantile)
```

```
## example of ... argument: find quarterly means
tapply(presidents, cycle(presidents), mean, na.rm = TRUE)

ind <- list(c(1, 2, 2), c("A", "A", "B"))
table(ind)
tapply(1:3, ind) #-> the split vector
tapply(1:3, ind, sum)
```

taskCallback

Add or Remove a Top-Level Task Callback

Description

`addTaskCallback` registers an R function that is to be called each time a top-level task is completed. `removeTaskCallback` un-registers a function that was registered earlier via `addTaskCallback`.

These provide low-level access to the internal/native mechanism for managing task-completion actions. One can use [taskCallbackManager](#) at the S-language level to manage S functions that are called at the completion of each task. This is easier and more direct.

Usage

```
addTaskCallback(f, data = NULL, name = character())
removeTaskCallback(id)
```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	the function that is to be invoked each time a top-level task is successfully completed. This is called with 5 or 4 arguments depending on whether data is specified or not, respectively. The return value should be a logical value indicating whether to keep the callback in the list of active callbacks or discard it.
<code>data</code>	if specified, this is the 5-th argument in the call to the callback function <code>f</code> .
<code>id</code>	a string or an integer identifying the element in the internal callback list to be removed. Integer indices are 1-based, i.e the first element is 1. The names of currently registered handlers is available using getTaskCallbackNames and is also returned in a call to addTaskCallback .
<code>name</code>	character: names to be used.

Details

Top-level tasks are individual expressions rather than entire lines of input. Thus an input line of the form `expression1 ; expression2` will give rise to 2 top-level tasks.

A top-level task callback is called with the expression for the top-level task, the result of the top-level task, a logical value indicating whether it was successfully completed or not (always TRUE at present), and a logical value indicating whether the result was printed or not. If the data argument was specified in the call to `addTaskCallback`, that value is given as the fifth argument.

The callback function should return a logical value. If the value is FALSE, the callback is removed from the task list and will not be called again by this mechanism. If the function returns TRUE, it is kept in the list and will be called on the completion of the next top-level task.

Value

`addTaskCallback` returns an integer value giving the position in the list of task callbacks that this new callback occupies. This is only the current position of the callback. It can be used to remove the entry as long as no other values are removed from earlier positions in the list first.

`removeTaskCallback` returns a logical value indicating whether the specified element was removed. This can fail (i.e., return FALSE) if an incorrect name or index is given that does not correspond to the name or position of an element in the list.

Note

There is also C-level access to top-level task callbacks to allow C routines rather than R functions be used.

See Also

`getTaskCallbackNames` `taskCallbackManager` <https://developer.r-project.org/TaskHandlers.pdf>

Examples

```
times <- function(total = 3, str = "Task a") {
  ctr <- 0

  function(expr, value, ok, visible) {
    ctr <-< ctr + 1
    cat(str, ctr, "\n")
    if(ctr == total) {
      cat("handler removing itself\n")
    }
    return(ctr < total)
  }
}

# add the callback that will work for
# 4 top-level tasks and then remove itself.
n <- addTaskCallback(times(4))

# now remove it, assuming it is still first in the list.
removeTaskCallback(n)

## Not run:
# There is no point in running this
# as
addTaskCallback(times(4))

sum(1:10)
sum(1:10)
sum(1:10)
sum(1:10)
sum(1:10)
```

```
## End(Not run)
```

taskCallbackManager	<i>Create an R-level Task Callback Manager</i>
---------------------	--

Description

This provides an entirely S-language mechanism for managing callbacks or actions that are invoked at the conclusion of each top-level task. Essentially, we register a single R function from this manager with the underlying, native task-callback mechanism and this function handles invoking the other R callbacks under the control of the manager. The manager consists of a collection of functions that access shared variables to manage the list of user-level callbacks.

Usage

```
taskCallbackManager(handlers = list(), registered = FALSE,
                    verbose = FALSE)
```

Arguments

handlers	this can be a list of callbacks in which each element is a list with an element named "f" which is a callback function, and an optional element named "data" which is the 5-th argument to be supplied to the callback when it is invoked. Typically this argument is not specified, and one uses <code>add</code> to register callbacks after the manager is created.
registered	a logical value indicating whether the evaluate function has already been registered with the internal task callback mechanism. This is usually FALSE and the first time a callback is added via the <code>add</code> function, the evaluate function is automatically registered. One can control when the function is registered by specifying TRUE for this argument and calling <code>addTaskCallback</code> manually.
verbose	a logical value, which if TRUE, causes information to be printed to the console about certain activities this dispatch manager performs. This is useful for debugging callbacks and the handler itself.

Value

A list containing 6 functions:

add	register a callback with this manager, giving the function, an optional 5-th argument, an optional name by which the callback is stored in the list, and a register argument which controls whether the evaluate function is registered with the internal C-level dispatch mechanism if necessary.
remove	remove an element from the manager's collection of callbacks, either by name or position/index.
evaluate	the 'real' callback function that is registered with the C-level dispatch mechanism and which invokes each of the R-level callbacks within this manager's control.

suspend	a function to set the suspend state of the manager. If it is suspended, none of the callbacks will be invoked when a task is completed. One sets the state by specifying a logical value for the status argument.
register	a function to register the evaluate function with the internal C-level dispatch mechanism. This is done automatically by the add function, but can be called manually.
callbacks	returns the list of callbacks being maintained by this manager.

See Also

`addTaskCallback`, `removeTaskCallback`, `getTaskCallbackNames` \ <https://developer.r-project.org/TaskHandlers.pdf>

Examples

```
# create the manager
h <- taskCallbackManager()

# add a callback
h$add(function(expr, value, ok, visible) {
  cat("In handler\n")
  return(TRUE)
}, name = "simpleHandler")

# look at the internal callbacks.
getTaskCallbackNames()

# look at the R-level callbacks
names(h$callbacks())

getTaskCallbackNames()
removeTaskCallback("R-taskCallbackManager")
```

taskCallbackNames	<i>Query the Names of the Current Internal Top-Level Task Callbacks</i>
-------------------	---

Description

This provides a way to get the names (or identifiers) for the currently registered task callbacks that are invoked at the conclusion of each top-level task. These identifiers can be used to remove a callback.

Usage

```
getTaskCallbackNames()
```

Value

A character vector giving the name for each of the registered callbacks which are invoked when a top-level task is completed successfully. Each name is the one used when registering the callbacks and returned as the in the call to [addTaskCallback](#).

Note

One can use [taskCallbackManager](#) to manage user-level task callbacks, i.e., S-language functions, entirely within the S language and access the names more directly.

See Also

[addTaskCallback](#), [removeTaskCallback](#), [taskCallbackManager](#) \ <https://developer.r-project.org/TaskHandlers.pdf>

Examples

```
n <- addTaskCallback(function(expr, value, ok, visible) {
  cat("In handler\n")
  return(TRUE)
}, name = "simpleHandler")

getTaskCallbackNames()

# now remove it by name
removeTaskCallback("simpleHandler")

h <- taskCallbackManager()
h$add(function(expr, value, ok, visible) {
  cat("In handler\n")
  return(TRUE)
}, name = "simpleHandler")
getTaskCallbackNames()
removeTaskCallback("R-taskCallbackManager")
```

tempfile

Create Names for Temporary Files

Description

tempfile returns a vector of character strings which can be used as names for temporary files.

Usage

```
tempfile(pattern = "file", tmpdir = tempdir(), fileext = "")
tempdir()
```

Arguments

<code>pattern</code>	a non-empty character vector giving the initial part of the name.
<code>tmpdir</code>	a non-empty character vector giving the directory name
<code>fileext</code>	a non-empty character vector giving the file extension

Details

The length of the result is the maximum of the lengths of the three arguments; values of shorter arguments are recycled.

The names are very likely to be unique among calls to `tempfile` in an R session and across simultaneous R sessions (unless `tmpdir` is specified). The filenames are guaranteed not to be currently in use.

The file name is made by concatenating the path given by `tmpdir`, the pattern string, a random string in hex and a suffix of `fileext`.

By default, `tmpdir` will be the directory given by `tempdir()`. This will be a subdirectory of the per-session temporary directory found by the following rule when the R session is started. The environment variables `TMPDIR`, `TMP` and `TEMP` are checked in turn and the first found which points to a writable directory is used; if none succeeds `/tmp` is used. The path should not contain spaces. Note that setting any of these environment variables in the R session has no effect on `tempdir()`: the per-session temporary directory is created before the interpreter is started.

Value

For `tempfile` a character vector giving the names of possible (temporary) files. Note that no files are generated by `tempfile`.

For `tempdir`, the path of the per-session temporary directory.

Note on parallel

R processes forked by functions such as `mclapply` in package **parallel** (or **multicore**) share a per-session temporary directory. Further, the ‘guaranteed not to be currently in use’ applies only at the time of asking, and two children could ask simultaneously. This is circumvented by ensuring that `tempfile` calls in different children try different names.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[unlink](#) for deleting files.

Examples

```
tempfile(c("ab", "a b c")) # give file name with spaces in!

tempfile("plot", fileext = c(".ps", ".pdf"))

tempdir() # works on all platforms with a platform-dependent result
```

textConnection	<i>Text Connections</i>
----------------	-------------------------

Description

Input and output text connections.

Usage

```
textConnection(object, open = "r", local = FALSE,
               encoding = c("", "bytes", "UTF-8"))

textConnectionValue(con)
```

Arguments

object	character. A description of the connection . For an input this is an R character vector object, and for an output connection the name for the R character vector to receive the output, or NULL (for none).
open	character string. Either "r" (or equivalently "") for an input connection or "w" or "a" for an output connection.
local	logical. Used only for output connections. If TRUE, output is assigned to a variable in the calling environment. Otherwise the global environment is used.
encoding	character string, partially matched. Used only for input connections. How marked strings in object should be handled: converted to the current locale, used byte-by-byte or translated to UTF-8.
con	An output text connection.

Details

An input text connection is opened and the character vector is copied at time the connection object is created, and `close` destroys the copy. `object` should be the name of a character vector: however, short expressions will be accepted provided they [deparse](#) to less than 60 bytes.

An output text connection is opened and creates an R character vector of the given name in the user's workspace or in the calling environment, depending on the value of the `local` argument. This object will at all times hold the completed lines of output to the connection, and [isIncomplete](#) will indicate if there is an incomplete final line. Closing the connection will output the final line, complete or not. (A line is complete once it has been terminated by end-of-line, represented by "\n")

in R.) The output character vector has locked bindings (see [lockBinding](#)) until `close` is called on the connection. The character vector can also be retrieved *via* `textConnectionValue`, which is the only way to do so if `object = NULL`. If the current locale is detected as Latin-1 or UTF-8, non-ASCII elements of the character vector will be marked accordingly (see [Encoding](#)).

Opening a text connection with `mode = "a"` will attempt to append to an existing character vector with the given name in the user's workspace or the calling environment. If none is found (even if an object exists of the right name but the wrong type) a new character vector will be created, with a warning.

You cannot seek on a text connection, and `seek` will always return zero as the position.

Text connections have slightly unusual semantics: they are always open, and throwing away an input text connection without closing it (so it get garbage-collected) does not give a warning.

Value

For `textConnection`, a connection object of class `"textConnection"` which inherits from class `"connection"`.

For `textConnectionValue`, a character vector.

Note

As output text connections keep the character vector up to date line-by-line, they are relatively expensive to use, and it is often better to use an anonymous [file\(\)](#) connection to collect output.

On (rare) platforms where `vsprintf` does not return the needed length of output there is a 100,000 character limit on the length of line for output connections: longer lines will be truncated with a warning.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.
[S has input text connections only.]

See Also

[connections](#), [showConnections](#), [pushBack](#), [capture.output](#).

Examples

```
zz <- textConnection(LETTERS)
readLines(zz, 2)
scan(zz, "", 4)
pushBack(c("aa", "bb"), zz)
scan(zz, "", 4)
close(zz)

zz <- textConnection("foo", "w")
writeLines(c("testit1", "testit2"), zz)
cat("testit3 ", file = zz)
isIncomplete(zz)
cat("testit4\n", file = zz)
```

```
isIncomplete(zz)
close(zz)
foo

# capture R output: use part of example from help(lm)
zz <- textConnection("foo", "w")
ctl <- c(4.17, 5.58, 5.18, 6.11, 4.5, 4.61, 5.17, 4.53, 5.33, 5.14)
trt <- c(4.81, 4.17, 4.41, 3.59, 5.87, 3.83, 6.03, 4.89, 4.32, 4.69)
group <- gl(2, 10, 20, labels = c("Ctl", "Trt"))
weight <- c(ctl, trt)
sink(zz)
anova(lm.D9 <- lm(weight ~ group))
cat("\nSummary of Residuals:\n\n")
summary(resid(lm.D9))
sink()
close(zz)
cat(foo, sep = "\n")
```

tilde

Tilde Operator

Description

Tilde is used to separate the left- and right-hand sides in a model formula.

Usage

`y ~ model`

Arguments

`y`, `model` symbolic expressions.

Details

The left-hand side is optional, and one-sided formulae are used in some contexts.

A formula has [mode call](#). It can be subsetting by `[]`: the components are `~`, the left-hand side (if present) and the right-hand side *in that order*.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical models*. Chapter 2 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[formula](#)

timezones

*Time Zones***Description**

Information about time zones in R. `Sys.timezone` returns the name of the current time zone.

Usage

```
Sys.timezone(location = TRUE)
```

```
OlsonNames()
```

Arguments

`location` logical: should an attempt be made to find the location name as used in the Olson/IANA database? (See ‘Time zone names’ below.)

Details

Time zones are a system-specific topic, but these days almost all R platforms use similar underlying code, used by Linux, OS X, Solaris, AIX, FreeBSD, Sun Java ≥ 1.4 and Tcl ≥ 8.5 , and installed with R on Windows. Unfortunately there are many system-specific errors in the implementations. It is possible to use R’s own version of the code on Unix-alikes as well as on Windows: this is the default for OS X and recommended for Solaris.

It should be possible to set the time zone via the environment variable TZ: see the section on ‘Time zone names’ for suitable values. `Sys.timezone()` will return the value of TZ if set (and on some OSes it is always set), otherwise it will try to retrieve a value which if set for TZ would give the current time zone. This is not in general possible, and `Sys.timezone(FALSE)` on Windows will retrieve the abbreviation used for the current time.

If TZ is set but empty or invalid, most platforms default to ‘UTC’, the time zone colloquially known as ‘GMT’ (see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Coordinated_Universal_Time). (Some but not all platforms will give a warning for invalid time zones.)

Time zones did not come into use until the second half of the nineteenth century and were not widely adopted until the twentieth, and *daylight saving time* (DST, also known as *summer time*) was first introduced in the early twentieth century, most widely in 1916. Over the last 100 years places have changed their affiliation between major time zones, have opted out of (or in to) DST in various years or adopted DST rule changes late or not at all.

A quite common system implementation of POSIXct is as signed 32-bit integers and so only goes back to the end of 1901: on such systems R assumes that dates prior to that are in the same time zone as they were in 1902. Most of the world had not adopted time zones by 1902 (so used local ‘mean time’ based on longitude) but for a few places there had been time-zone changes before then. 64-bit representations are becoming common; unfortunately on some 64-bit OSes (notably OS X) the database information is 32-bit and so only available for the range 1901–2038, and incompletely for the end years.

Value

`Sys.timezone` returns an OS-specific character string, possibly NA or an empty string (which on some OSes means 'UTC'). For the default `location = TRUE` this will be a location such as "Europe/London" if one can be ascertained. For `location = FALSE` this may be an abbreviation such as "EST" or "CEST" on Windows.

`OlsonNames` returns a character vector.

Time zone names

Names "UTC" and its synonym "GMT" are accepted on all platforms.

Where OSes describe their valid time zones can be obscure. The help for the C function `tzset` can be helpful, but it can also be inaccurate. There is a cumbersome POSIX specification (listed under environment variable TZ at http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/basedefs/V1_chap08.html#tag_08), which is often at least partially supported, but there are other more user-friendly ways to specify time zones.

Almost all R platforms make use of a time-zone database originally compiled by Arthur David Olson and now managed by IANA, in which the preferred way to refer to a time zone is by a location (typically of a city), e.g., Europe/London, America/Los_Angeles, Pacific/Easter. Some traditional designations are also allowed such as EST5EDT or GB. (Beware that some of these designations may not be what you expect: in particular EST is a time zone used in Canada *without* daylight saving time, and not EST5EDT nor (Australian) Eastern Standard Time.) The designation can also be an optional colon prepended to the path to a file giving complied zone information (and the examples above are all files in a system-specific location). See <http://www.twinsun.com/tz/tz-link.htm> for more details and references. By convention, regions with a unique time-zone history since 1970 have specific names in the database, but those with different earlier histories may not. Each time zone has one or two (the second for DST) *abbreviations* used when formatting times.

The abbreviations used have changed over the years: for example France used 'PMT' ('Paris Mean Time') from 1891 to 1911 then 'WET/WEST' up to 1940 and 'CET/CEST' from 1946. (In almost all time zones the abbreviations have been stable since 1970.) The POSIX standard allows only one or two abbreviations per time zone, so you may see the current abbreviation(s) used for older times.

The function `OlsonNames` returns the time-zone names known to the Olson/IANA database on the current system. The system-specific location in the file system varies, e.g. '/usr/share/zoneinfo' (Linux, OS X, FreeBSD), '/usr/share/lib/zoneinfo' (Solaris, AIX), It is likely that there is a file named something like 'zone.tab' under that directory listing the locations known as time-zone names (but not for example EST5EDT): this is read by `OlsonNames`. See also <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zone.tab>.

Where R was configured with option '--with-internal-tzcode' (the default on OS X and Windows: recommended on Solaris), the database at `file.path(R.home("share"), "zoneinfo")` is used by default: file 'VERSION' in that directory states the version. Environment variable TZDIR can be used to point to a different 'zoneinfo' directory: this is also supported by the native services on some OSes, e.g. Linux).

Most platforms support time zones of the form 'GMT+n' and 'GMT-n', which assume at a fixed offset from UTC (hence no DST). Contrary to some expectations (but consistent with names such as 'PST8PDT'), negative offsets are times ahead of (east of) UTC, positive offsets are times behind (west of) UTC.

Immediately prior to the advent of legislated time zones, most people used time based on their longitude (or that of a nearby town), known as ‘Local Mean Time’ and abbreviated as ‘LMT’ in the databases: in many countries that was codified with a specific name before the switch to a standard time. For example, Paris codified its LMT as ‘Paris Mean Time’ in 1891 (to be used throughout mainland France) and switched to ‘GMT+0’ in 1911.

Some systems (notably Linux) have `tzselect` command which allows the interactive selection of a supported time zone name.

Warning

There is a system-specific upper limit on the number of bytes in (abbreviated) time-zone names which can be as low as 6 (as required by POSIX). Some OSes allow the setting of time zones with names which exceed their limit, and that can crash the R session.

Note

Since 2007 there has been considerable disruption over changes to the timings of the DST transitions, aimed at energy conservation. These often have short notice and time-zone databases may not be up to date. (Morocco in 2013 announced a change to the end of DST at *a days* notice, and in 2015 North Korea gave imprecise information about a change a week in advance.)

On platforms with case-insensitive file systems, time zone names will be case-insensitive. They may or may not be on other platforms and so, for example, “gmt” is valid on some platforms and not on others.

Note that except where replaced, the operation of time zones is an OS service, and even where replaced a third-party database is used and can be updated (see the section on ‘Time zone names’). Incorrect results will never be an R issue, so please ensure that you have the courtesy not to blame R for them.

See Also

[Sys.time](#), [as.POSIXlt](#).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Time_zone and <https://www.twinsun.com/tz/tz-link.htm> for extensive sets of links.

Examples

```
Sys.timezone()

str(OlsonNames()) ## a few hundred names
```

toString

Convert an R Object to a Character String

Description

This is a helper function for [format](#) to produce a single character string describing an R object.

Usage

```
toString(x, ...)  
  
## Default S3 method:  
toString(x, width = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

x	The object to be converted.
width	Suggestion for the maximum field width. Values of NULL or 0 indicate no maximum. The minimum value accepted is 6 and smaller values are taken as 6.
...	Optional arguments passed to or from methods.

Details

This is a generic function for which methods can be written: only the default method is described here. Most methods should honor the width argument to specify the maximum display width (as measured by `nchar(type = "width")` of the result.

The default method first converts x to character and then concatenates the elements separated by ", ". If width is supplied and is not NULL, the default method returns the first width - 4 characters of the result with "... " appended, if the full result would use more than width characters.

Value

A character vector of length 1 is returned.

Author(s)

Robert Gentleman

See Also

[format](#)

Examples

```
x <- c("a", "b", "aaaaaaaaaa")  
toString(x)  
toString(x, width = 8)
```

trace	<i>Interactive Tracing and Debugging of Calls to a Function or Method</i>
-------	---

Description

A call to `trace` allows you to insert debugging code (e.g., a call to `browser` or `recover`) at chosen places in any function. A call to `untrace` cancels the tracing. Specified methods can be traced the same way, without tracing all calls to the function. Trace code can be any R expression. Tracing can be temporarily turned on or off globally by calling `tracingState`.

Usage

```
trace(what, tracer, exit, at, print, signature,
      where = topenv(parent.frame()), edit = FALSE)
untrace(what, signature = NULL, where = topenv(parent.frame()))

tracingState(on = NULL)
.doTrace(expr, msg)
returnValue(default = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>what</code>	The name (quoted or not) of a function to be traced or untraced. For <code>untrace</code> or for <code>trace</code> with more than one argument, more than one name can be given in the quoted form, and the same action will be applied to each one.
<code>tracer</code>	either a function or an unevaluated expression. The function will be called or the expression will be evaluated either at the beginning of the call, or before those steps in the call specified by the argument <code>at</code> . See the details section.
<code>exit</code>	either a function or an unevaluated expression. The function will be called or the expression will be evaluated on exiting the function. See the details section.
<code>at</code>	optional numeric vector or list. If supplied, <code>tracer</code> will be called just before the corresponding step in the body of the function. See the details section.
<code>print</code>	If <code>TRUE</code> (as per default), a descriptive line is printed before any trace expression is evaluated.
<code>signature</code>	If this argument is supplied, it should be a signature for a method for function <code>what</code> . In this case, the method, and <i>not</i> the function itself, is traced.
<code>edit</code>	For complicated tracing, such as tracing within a loop inside the function, you will need to insert the desired calls by editing the body of the function. If so, supply the <code>edit</code> argument either as <code>TRUE</code> , or as the name of the editor you want to use. Then <code>trace()</code> will call edit and use the version of the function after you edit it. See the details section for additional information.
<code>where</code>	where to look for the function to be traced; by default, the top-level environment of the call to <code>trace</code> . An important use of this argument is to trace a function when it is called from a package with a namespace. The current namespace mechanism imports the

	functions to be called (with the exception of functions in the base package). The functions being called are <i>not</i> the same objects seen from the top-level (in general, the imported packages may not even be attached). Therefore, you must ensure that the correct versions are being traced. The way to do this is to set argument where to a function in the namespace. The tracing computations will then start looking in the environment of that function (which will be the namespace of the corresponding package). (Yes, it's subtle, but the semantics here are central to how namespaces work in R.)
on	logical; a call to the support function <code>tracingState</code> returns <code>TRUE</code> if tracing is globally turned on, <code>FALSE</code> otherwise. An argument of one or the other of those values sets the state. If the tracing state is <code>FALSE</code> , none of the trace actions will actually occur (used, for example, by debugging functions to shut off tracing during debugging).
expr, msg	arguments to the support function <code>.doTrace</code> , calls to which are inserted into the modified function or method: <code>expr</code> is the tracing action (such as a call to <code>browser()</code>), and <code>msg</code> is a string identifying the place where the trace action occurs.
default	If <code>returnValue</code> finds no return value (e.g. a function exited because of an error, not a normal exit), it will return <code>default</code> instead.

Details

The `trace` function operates by constructing a revised version of the function (or of the method, if signature is supplied), and assigning the new object back where the original was found. If only the what argument is given, a line of trace printing is produced for each call to the function (back compatible with the earlier version of `trace`).

The object constructed by `trace` is from a class that extends "function" and which contains the original, untraced version. A call to `untrace` re-assigns this version.

If the argument `tracer` or `exit` is the name of a function, the tracing expression will be a call to that function, with no arguments. This is the easiest and most common case, with the functions [browser](#) and [recover](#) the likeliest candidates; the former browses in the frame of the function being traced, and the latter allows browsing in any of the currently active calls.

The `tracer` or `exit` argument can also be an unevaluated expression (such as returned by a call to [quote](#) or [substitute](#)). This expression itself is inserted in the traced function, so it will typically involve arguments or local objects in the traced function. An expression of this form is useful if you only want to interact when certain conditions apply (and in this case you probably want to supply `print = FALSE` in the call to `trace` also).

When the `at` argument is supplied, it can be a vector of integers referring to the substeps of the body of the function (this only works if the body of the function is enclosed in `{ ... }`). In this case `tracer` is *not* called on entry, but instead just before evaluating each of the steps listed in `at`. (Hint: you don't want to try to count the steps in the printed version of a function; instead, look at `as.list(body(f))` to get the numbers associated with the steps in function `f`.)

The `at` argument can also be a list of integer vectors. In this case, each vector refers to a step nested within another step of the function. For example, `at = list(c(3,4))` will call the tracer just before the fourth step of the third step of the function. See the example below.

Using [setBreakpoint](#) (from package **utils**) may be an alternative, calling `trace(..., at, ...)`.

The `exit` argument is called during `on.exit` processing. In an `on.exit` expression, the experimental `returnValue()` function may be called to obtain the value about to be returned by the function. Calling this function in other circumstances will give undefined results.

An intrinsic limitation in the `exit` argument is that it won't work if the function itself uses `on.exit` with `add= FALSE` (the default), since the existing calls will override the one supplied by `trace`.

Tracing does not nest. Any call to `trace` replaces previously traced versions of that function or method (except for edited versions as discussed below), and `untrace` always restores an untraced version. (Allowing nested tracing has too many potentials for confusion and for accidentally leaving traced versions behind.)

When the `edit` argument is used repeatedly with no call to `untrace` on the same function or method in between, the previously edited version is retained. If you want to throw away all the previous tracing and then edit, call `untrace` before the next call to `trace`. Editing may be combined with automatic tracing; just supply the other arguments such as `tracer`, and the `edit` argument as well. The `edit = TRUE` argument uses the default editor (see `edit`).

Tracing primitive functions (builtins and specials) from the base package works, but only by a special mechanism and not very informatively. Tracing a primitive causes the primitive to be replaced by a function with argument `...(only)`. You can get a bit of information out, but not much. A warning message is issued when `trace` is used on a primitive.

The practice of saving the traced version of the function back where the function came from means that tracing carries over from one session to another, *if* the traced function is saved in the session image. (In the next session, `untrace` will remove the tracing.) On the other hand, functions that were in a package, not in the global environment, are not saved in the image, so tracing expires with the session for such functions.

Tracing a method is basically just like tracing a function, with the exception that the traced version is stored by a call to `setMethod` rather than by direct assignment, and so is the untraced version after a call to `untrace`.

The version of `trace` described here is largely compatible with the version in S-Plus, although the two work by entirely different mechanisms. The S-Plus `trace` uses the session frame, with the result that tracing never carries over from one session to another (R does not have a session frame). Another relevant distinction has nothing directly to do with `trace`: The browser in S-Plus allows changes to be made to the frame being browsed, and the changes will persist after exiting the browser. The R browser allows changes, but they disappear when the browser exits. This may be relevant in that the S-Plus version allows you to experiment with code changes interactively, but the R version does not. (A future revision may include a 'destructive' browser for R.)

Value

In the simple version (just the first argument), `trace` returns an invisible `NULL`. Otherwise, the traced function(s) name(s). The relevant consequence is the assignment that takes place.

`untrace` returns the function name invisibly.

`tracingState` returns the current global tracing state, and possibly changes it.

When called during `on.exit` processing, `returnValue` returns the value about to be returned by the exiting function. Behaviour in other circumstances is undefined.

Note

Using `trace()` is conceptually a generalization of [debug](#), implemented differently, by calling [browser](#) via its `tracer` or `exit` argument.

The version of function tracing that includes any of the arguments except for the function name requires the **methods** package (because it uses special classes of objects to store and restore versions of the traced functions).

If `methods dispatch` is not currently on, `trace` will load the `methods` namespace, but will not put the `methods` package on the [search](#) list.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[browser](#) and [recover](#), the likeliest tracing functions; also, [quote](#) and [substitute](#) for constructing general expressions.

Examples

```
require(stats)

## Very simple use
trace(sum)
hist(rnorm(100)) # shows about 3-4 calls to sum()
untrace(sum)

## Show how pt() is called from inside power.t.test():
if(FALSE)
  trace(pt) ## would show ~20 calls, but we want to see more:
  trace(pt, tracer = quote(cat(sprintf("tracing pt(*, ncp = %.15g)\n", ncp))),
        print = FALSE) # <- not showing typical extra
  power.t.test(20, 1, power=0.8, sd=NULL) ##--> showing the ncp root finding:
  untrace(pt)

f <- function(x, y) {
  y <- pmax(y, 0.001)
  if (x > 0) x ^ y else stop("x must be positive")
}

## arrange to call the browser on entering and exiting
## function f
trace("f", quote(browser(skipCalls = 4)),
      exit = quote(browser(skipCalls = 4)))

## instead, conditionally assign some data, and then browse
## on exit, but only then. Don't bother me otherwise
```

```

trace("f", quote(if(any(y < 0)) yOrig <- y),
      exit = quote(if(exists("yOrig")) browser(skipCalls = 4)),
      print = FALSE)

## Enter the browser just before stop() is called. First, find
## the step numbers

as.list(body(f))
as.list(body(f)[[3]])

## Now call the browser there

trace("f", quote(browser(skipCalls = 4)), at = list(c(3,4)))

## trace a utility function, with recover so we
## can browse in the calling functions as well.

trace("as.matrix", recover)

## turn off the tracing

untrace(c("f", "as.matrix"))

## Not run:
## trace calls to the function lm() that come from
## the nlme package.
## (The function nlme is in that package, and the package
## has a namespace, so the where= argument must be used
## to get the right version of lm)

trace(lm, exit = recover, where = nlme)

## End(Not run)

```

traceback

Print Call Stacks

Description

By default `traceback()` prints the call stack of the last uncaught error, i.e., the sequence of calls that lead to the error. This is useful when an error occurs with an unidentifiable error message. It can also be used to print the current stack or arbitrary lists of deparsed calls.

Usage

```
traceback(x = NULL, max.lines = getOption("deparse.max.lines"))
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	NULL (default, meaning <code>.Traceback</code>), or an integer count of calls to skip in the current stack, or a list or pairlist of deparsed calls. See the details.
<code>max.lines</code>	The maximum number of lines to be printed <i>per call</i> . The default is unlimited.

Details

The default display is of the stack of the last uncaught error as stored as a list of deparsed calls in `.Traceback`, which `traceback` prints in a user-friendly format. The stack of deparsed calls always contains all function calls and all foreign function calls (such as `.Call`): if profiling is in progress it will include calls to some primitive functions. (Calls to builtins are included, but not to specials.)

Errors which are caught *via* `try` or `tryCatch` do not generate a traceback, so what is printed is the call sequence for the last uncaught error, and not necessarily for the last error.

If `x` is numeric, then the current stack is printed, skipping `x` entries at the top of the stack. For example, `options(error = function() traceback(2))` will print the stack at the time of the error, skipping the call to `traceback()` and the error function that called it.

Otherwise, `x` is assumed to be a list or pairlist of deparsed calls and will be displayed in the same way.

Value

`traceback()` prints the deparsed call stack deepest call first, and returns it invisibly. The calls may print on more than one line, and the first line for each call is labelled by the frame number. The number of lines printed per call can be limited via `max.lines`.

Warning

It is undocumented where `.Traceback` is stored nor that it is visible, and this is subject to change.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
foo <- function(x) { print(1); bar(2) }
bar <- function(x) { x + a.variable.which.does.not.exist }
## Not run:
foo(2) # gives a strange error
traceback()
## End(Not run)
## 2: bar(2)
## 1: foo(2)
bar
## Ah, this is the culprit ...

## This will print the stack trace at the time of the error.
options(error = function() traceback(2))
```


tracemem

*Trace Copying of Objects***Description**

This function marks an object so that a message is printed whenever the internal code copies the object. It is a major cause of hard-to-predict memory use in R.

Usage

```
tracemem(x)
untracemem(x)
retracemem(x, previous = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	An R object, not a function or environment or NULL.
<code>previous</code>	A value as returned by <code>tracemem</code> or <code>retracemem</code> .

Details

This functionality is optional, determined at compilation, because it makes R run a little more slowly even when no objects are being traced. `tracemem` and `untracemem` give errors when R is not compiled with memory profiling; `retracemem` does not (so it can be left in code during development).

It is enabled in the CRAN OS X and Windows builds of R.

When an object is traced any copying of the object by the C function `duplicate` produces a message to standard output, as does type coercion and copying when passing arguments to `.C` or `.Fortran`.

The message consists of the string `tracemem`, the identifying strings for the object being copied and the new object being created, and a stack trace showing where the duplication occurred. `retracemem()` is used to indicate that a variable should be considered a copy of a previous variable (e.g., after subscripting).

The messages can be turned off with `tracingState`.

It is not possible to trace functions, as this would conflict with `trace` and it is not useful to trace NULL, environments, promises, weak references, or external pointer objects, as these are not duplicated.

These functions are `primitive`.

Value

A character string for identifying the object in the trace output (an address in hex enclosed in angle brackets), or NULL (invisibly).

See Also

`capabilities("profmem")` to see if this was enabled for this build of R.

`trace`, `Rprofmem`

<https://developer.r-project.org/memory-profiling.html>

Examples

```
## Not run:
a <- 1:10
tracemem(a)
## b and a share memory
b <- a
b[1] <- 1
untracemem(a)

## copying in lm: less than R <= 2.15.0
d <- stats::rnorm(10)
tracemem(d)
lm(d ~ a+log(b))

## f is not a copy and is not traced
f <- d[-1]
f+1
## indicate that f should be traced as a copy of d
retracemem(f, retracemem(d))
f+1

## End(Not run)
```

transform

Transform an Object, for Example a Data Frame

Description

`transform` is a generic function, which—at least currently—only does anything useful with data frames. `transform.default` converts its first argument to a data frame if possible and calls `transform.data.frame`.

Usage

```
transform(`_data`, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>_data</code>	The object to be transformed
<code>...</code>	Further arguments of the form <code>tag=value</code>

Details

The ... arguments to `transform.data.frame` are tagged vector expressions, which are evaluated in the data frame `_data`. The tags are matched against `names(_data)`, and for those that match, the value replace the corresponding variable in `_data`, and the others are appended to `_data`.

Value

The modified value of `_data`.

Warning

This is a convenience function intended for use interactively. For programming it is better to use the standard subsetting arithmetic functions, and in particular the non-standard evaluation of argument `transform` can have unanticipated consequences.

Note

If some of the values are not vectors of the appropriate length, you deserve whatever you get!

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard

See Also

[within](#) for a more flexible approach, [subset](#), [list](#), [data.frame](#)

Examples

```
transform(airquality, Ozone = -Ozone)
transform(airquality, new = -Ozone, Temp = (Temp-32)/1.8)

attach(airquality)
transform(Ozone, logOzone = log(Ozone)) # marginally interesting ...
detach(airquality)
```

Description

These functions give the obvious trigonometric functions. They respectively compute the cosine, sine, tangent, arc-cosine, arc-sine, arc-tangent, and the two-argument arc-tangent.

`cospi(x)`, `sinpi(x)`, and `tanpi(x)`, compute `cos(pi*x)`, `sin(pi*x)`, and `tan(pi*x)`.

Usage

```

cos(x)
sin(x)
tan(x)

acos(x)
asin(x)
atan(x)
atan2(y, x)

cospi(x)
sinpi(x)
tanpi(x)

```

Arguments

`x`, `y` numeric or complex vectors.

Details

The arc-tangent of two arguments `atan2(y, x)` returns the angle between the x-axis and the vector from the origin to (x, y) , i.e., for positive arguments `atan2(y, x) == atan(y/x)`.

Angles are in radians, not degrees, for the standard versions (i.e., a right angle is $\pi/2$), and in ‘half-rotations’ for `cospi` etc.

`cospi(x)`, `sinpi(x)`, and `tanpi(x)` are accurate for `x` which are multiples of a half.

All except `atan2` are [internal generic primitive](#) functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic.

Value

`tanpi(0.5)` is [NaN](#). Similarly for other inputs with fractional part 0.5.

Complex values

For the inverse trigonometric functions, branch cuts are defined as in Abramowitz and Stegun, figure 4.4, page 79.

For `asin` and `acos`, there are two cuts, both along the real axis: $(-\infty, -1]$ and $[1, \infty)$.

For `atan` there are two cuts, both along the pure imaginary axis: $(-\infty i, -1i]$ and $[1i, \infty i)$.

The behaviour actually on the cuts follows the C99 standard which requires continuity coming round the endpoint in a counter-clockwise direction.

Complex arguments for `cospi`, `sinpi`, and `tanpi` are not yet implemented.

S4 methods

All except `atan2` are S4 generic functions: methods can be defined for them individually or via the [Math](#) group generic.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Abramowitz, M. and Stegun, I. A. (1972). *Handbook of Mathematical Functions*. New York: Dover.

Chapter 4. Elementary Transcendental Functions: Logarithmic, Exponential, Circular and Hyperbolic Functions

For cospi, sinpi, and tanpi the draft C11 extension ISO/IEC TS 18661 (<http://www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg14/www/docs/n1785.pdf>).

Examples

```
x <- seq(-3, 7, by = 1/8)
tx <- cbind(x, cos(pi*x), cospi(x), sin(pi*x), sinpi(x),
           tan(pi*x), tanpi(x), deparse.level=2)
op <- options(digits = 4, width = 90) # for nice formatting
head(tx)
tx[ (x %% 1) %in% c(0, 0.5) ,]
options(op)
```

trimws

Remove Leading/Trailing Whitespace

Description

Remove leading and/or trailing whitespace from character strings.

Usage

```
trimws(x, which = c("both", "left", "right"))
```

Arguments

x	a character vector
which	a character string specifying whether to remove both leading and trailing whitespace (default), or only leading ("left") or trailing ("right"). Can be abbreviated.

Details

For portability, 'whitespace' is taken as the character class `[\t\r\n]` (space, horizontal tab, line feed, carriage return).

Examples

```
x <- " Some text. "  
x  
trimws(x)  
trimws(x, "l")  
trimws(x, "r")
```

try

Try an Expression Allowing Error Recovery

Description

try is a wrapper to run an expression that might fail and allow the user's code to handle error-recovery.

Usage

```
try(expr, silent = FALSE)
```

Arguments

expr	an R expression to try.
silent	logical: should the report of error messages be suppressed?

Details

try evaluates an expression and traps any errors that occur during the evaluation. If an error occurs then the error message is printed to the `stderr` connection unless `options("show.error.messages")` is false or the call includes `silent = TRUE`. The error message is also stored in a buffer where it can be retrieved by `geterrmessage`. (This should not be needed as the value returned in case of an error contains the error message.)

try is implemented using `tryCatch`; for programming, instead of `try(expr, silent = TRUE)`, something like `tryCatch(expr, error = function(e) e)` (or other simple error handler functions) may be more efficient and flexible.

Value

The value of the expression if `expr` is evaluated without error, but an invisible object of class "try-error" containing the error message, and the error condition as the "condition" attribute, if it fails.

See Also

`options` for setting error handlers and suppressing the printing of error messages; `geterrmessage` for retrieving the last error message. The underlying `tryCatch` provides more flexible means of catching and handling errors.

`assertCondition` in package **tools** is related and useful for testing.

Examples

```
## this example will not work correctly in example(try), but
## it does work correctly if pasted in
options(show.error.messages = FALSE)
try(log("a"))
print(.Last.value)
options(show.error.messages = TRUE)

## alternatively,
print(try(log("a"), TRUE))

## run a simulation, keep only the results that worked.
set.seed(123)
x <- stats::rnorm(50)
doit <- function(x)
{
  x <- sample(x, replace = TRUE)
  if(length(unique(x)) > 30) mean(x)
  else stop("too few unique points")
}
## alternative 1
res <- lapply(1:100, function(i) try(doit(x), TRUE))
## alternative 2
## Not run: res <- vector("list", 100)
for(i in 1:100) res[[i]] <- try(doit(x), TRUE)
## End(Not run)
unlist(res[sapply(res, function(x) !inherits(x, "try-error"))])
```

typeof

*The Type of an Object***Description**

typeof determines the (R internal) type or storage mode of any object

Usage

```
typeof(x)
```

Arguments

x any R object.

Value

A character string. The possible values are listed in the structure `TypeTable` in `'src/main/util.c'`. Current values are the vector types `"logical"`, `"integer"`, `"double"`, `"complex"`, `"character"`, `"raw"` and `"list"`, `"NULL"`, `"closure"` (function), `"special"` and `"builtin"` (basic functions and operators), `"environment"`, `"S4"` (some S4 objects) and others that are unlikely to be seen at user

level ("symbol", "pairlist", "promise", "language", "char", "...", "any", "expression", "externalptr", "bytecode" and "weakref").

See Also

[mode](#), [storage.mode](#).

[isS4](#) to determine if an object has an S4 class.

Examples

```
typeof(2)
mode(2)
```

unique

Extract Unique Elements

Description

`unique` returns a vector, data frame or array like `x` but with duplicate elements/rows removed.

Usage

```
unique(x, incomparables = FALSE, ...)

## Default S3 method:
unique(x, incomparables = FALSE, fromLast = FALSE,
       nmax = NA, ...)

## S3 method for class 'matrix'
unique(x, incomparables = FALSE, MARGIN = 1,
       fromLast = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'array'
unique(x, incomparables = FALSE, MARGIN = 1,
       fromLast = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a vector or a data frame or an array or <code>NULL</code> .
<code>incomparables</code>	a vector of values that cannot be compared. <code>FALSE</code> is a special value, meaning that all values can be compared, and may be the only value accepted for methods other than the default. It will be coerced internally to the same type as <code>x</code> .
<code>fromLast</code>	logical indicating if duplication should be considered from the last, i.e., the last (or rightmost) of identical elements will be kept. This only matters for names or dimnames .
<code>nmax</code>	the maximum number of unique items expected (greater than one). See duplicated .

... arguments for particular methods.
 MARGIN the array margin to be held fixed: a single integer.

Details

This is a generic function with methods for vectors, data frames and arrays (including matrices).

The array method calculates for each element of the dimension specified by MARGIN if the remaining dimensions are identical to those for an earlier element (in row-major order). This would most commonly be used for matrices to find unique rows (the default) or columns (with MARGIN = 2).

Note that unlike the Unix command `uniq` this omits *duplicated* and not just *repeated* elements/rows. That is, an element is omitted if it is equal to any previous element and not just if it is equal the immediately previous one. (For the latter, see [rle](#)).

Missing values are regarded as equal, but NaN is not equal to NA_real_. Character strings are regarded as equal if they are in different encodings but would agree when translated to UTF-8.

Values in incomparables will never be marked as duplicated. This is intended to be used for a fairly small set of values and will not be efficient for a very large set.

When used on a data frame with more than one column, or an array or matrix when comparing dimensions of length greater than one, this tests for identity of character representations. This will catch people who unwisely rely on exact equality of floating-point numbers!

Character strings will be compared as byte sequences if any input is marked as "bytes" (see [Encoding](#)).

Value

For a vector, an object of the same type of `x`, but with only one copy of each duplicated element. No attributes are copied (so the result has no names).

For a data frame, a data frame is returned with the same columns but possibly fewer rows (and with row names from the first occurrences of the unique rows).

A matrix or array is subsetting by `[, drop = FALSE]`, so dimensions and dimnames are copied appropriately, and the result always has the same number of dimensions as `x`.

Warning

Using this for lists is potentially slow, especially if the elements are not atomic vectors (see [vector](#)) or differ only in their attributes. In the worst case it is $O(n^2)$.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[duplicated](#) which gives the indices of duplicated elements.

[rle](#) which is the equivalent of the Unix `uniq -c` command.

Examples

```
x <- c(3:5, 11:8, 8 + 0:5)
(ux <- unique(x))
(u2 <- unique(x, fromLast = TRUE)) # different order
stopifnot(identical(sort(ux), sort(u2)))

length(unique(sample(100, 100, replace = TRUE)))
## approximately 100(1 - 1/e) = 63.21

unique(iris)
```

 unlink

Delete Files and Directories

Description

unlink deletes the file(s) or directories specified by x.

Usage

```
unlink(x, recursive = FALSE, force = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	a character vector with the names of the file(s) or directories to be deleted. Wildcards (normally '*' and '?') are allowed.
recursive	logical. Should directories be deleted recursively?
force	logical. Should permissions be changed (if possible) to allow the file or directory to be removed?

Details

Tilde-expansion (see [path.expand](#)) is done on x.

If recursive = FALSE directories are not deleted, not even empty ones.

On most platforms 'file' includes symbolic links, fifos and sockets. Prior to R 2.15.0 unlink(x, recursive = TRUE) would delete the contents of a directory target of a symbolic link: it now only deletes the symbolic link (as unlink(x, recursive = FALSE) always has).

Wildcard expansion is done by the internal code of [Sys.glob](#). Wildcards never match a leading '.' in the filename, and files '.' and '..' will never be considered for deletion. Wildcards will only be expanded if the system supports it. Most systems will support not only '*' and '?' but also character classes such as '[a-z]' (see the man pages for the system call glob on your OS). The metacharacters * ? [can occur in Unix filenames, and this makes it difficult to use unlink to delete such files (see [file.remove](#)), although escaping the metacharacters by backslashes usually works. If a metacharacter matches nothing it is considered as a literal character.

recursive = TRUE might not be supported on all platforms, when it will be ignored, with a warning: however there are no known current examples.

Value

0 for success, 1 for failure, invisibly. Not deleting a non-existent file is not a failure, nor is being unable to delete a directory if `recursive = FALSE`. However, missing values in `x` are regarded as failures.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[file.remove](#).

unlist	<i>Flatten Lists</i>
--------	----------------------

Description

Given a list structure `x`, `unlist` simplifies it to produce a vector which contains all the atomic components which occur in `x`.

Usage

```
unlist(x, recursive = TRUE, use.names = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an R object, typically a list or vector.
<code>recursive</code>	logical. Should unlisting be applied to list components of <code>x</code> ?
<code>use.names</code>	logical. Should names be preserved?

Details

`unlist` is generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#), and note, e.g., [relist](#) with the `unlist` method for `relistable` objects.

If `recursive = FALSE`, the function will not recurse beyond the first level items in `x`.

Factors are treated specially. If all non-list elements of `x` are factors (or ordered factors) then the result will be a factor with levels the union of the level sets of the elements, in the order the levels occur in the level sets of the elements (which means that if all the elements have the same level set, that is the level set of the result).

`x` can be an atomic vector, but then `unlist` does nothing useful, not even drop names.

By default, `unlist` tries to retain the naming information present in `x`. If `use.names = FALSE` all naming information is dropped.

Where possible the list elements are coerced to a common mode during the unlisting, and so the result often ends up as a character vector. Vectors will be coerced to the highest type of the components in the hierarchy `NULL < raw < logical < integer < double < complex < character < list < expression`: pairlists are treated as lists.

A list is a (generic) vector, and the simplified vector might still be a list (and might be unchanged). Non-vector elements of the list (for example language elements such as names, formulas and calls) are not coerced, and so a list containing one or more of these remains a list. (The effect of unlisting an `lm` fit is a list which has individual residuals as components.) Note that `unlist(x)` now returns `x` unchanged also for non-vector `x`, instead of signalling an error in that case.

Value

`NULL` or an expression or a vector of an appropriate mode to hold the list components.

The output type is determined from the highest type of the components in the hierarchy `NULL < raw < logical < integer < double < complex < character < list < expression`, after coercion of pairlists to lists.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[c](#), [as.list](#), [relist](#).

Examples

```
unlist(options())
unlist(options(), use.names = FALSE)

l.ex <- list(a = list(1:5, LETTERS[1:5]), b = "Z", c = NA)
unlist(l.ex, recursive = FALSE)
unlist(l.ex, recursive = TRUE)

l1 <- list(a = "a", b = 2, c = pi+2i)
unlist(l1) # a character vector
l2 <- list(a = "a", b = as.name("b"), c = pi+2i)
unlist(l2) # remains a list

l1 <- list(as.name("sinc"), quote( a + b ), 1:10, letters, expression(1+x))
utils::str(l1)
for(x in l1)
  stopifnot(identical(x, unlist(x)))
```

unname	<i>Remove names or dimnames</i>
--------	---------------------------------

Description

Remove the `names` or `dimnames` attribute of an R object.

Usage

```
unname(obj, force = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>obj</code>	an R object.
<code>force</code>	logical; if true, the <code>dimnames</code> (names and row names) are removed even from <code>data.frames</code> .

Value

Object as `obj` but without `names` or `dimnames`.

Examples

```
require(graphics); require(stats)

## Answering a question on R-help (14 Oct 1999):
col3 <- 750+ 100*rt(1500, df = 3)
breaks <- factor(cut(col3, breaks = 360+5*(0:155)))
z <- table(breaks)
z[1:5] # The names are larger than the data ...
barplot(unname(z), axes = FALSE)
```

UseMethod	<i>Class Methods</i>
-----------	----------------------

Description

R possesses a simple generic function mechanism which can be used for an object-oriented style of programming. Method dispatch takes place based on the class(es) of the first argument to the generic function or of the object supplied as an argument to `UseMethod` or `NextMethod`.

Usage

```
UseMethod(generic, object)
```

```
NextMethod(generic = NULL, object = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

generic	a character string naming a function (and not a built-in operator). Required for UseMethod.
object	for UseMethod: an object whose class will determine the method to be dispatched. Defaults to the first argument of the enclosing function.
...	further arguments to be passed to the next method.

Details

An R object is a data object which has a class attribute (and this can be tested by `is.object`). A class attribute is a character vector giving the names of the classes from which the object *inherits*. If the object does not have a class attribute, it has an implicit class. Matrices and arrays have class "matrix" or "array" followed by the class of the underlying vector. Most vectors have class the result of `mode(x)`, except that integer vectors have class `c("integer", "numeric")` and real vectors have class `c("double", "numeric")`.

When a function calling `UseMethod("fun")` is applied to an object with class attribute `c("first", "second")`, the system searches for a function called `fun.first` and, if it finds it, applies it to the object. If no such function is found a function called `fun.second` is tried. If no class name produces a suitable function, the function `fun.default` is used, if it exists, or an error results.

Function `methods` can be used to find out about the methods for a particular generic function or class.

`UseMethod` is a primitive function but uses standard argument matching. It is not the only means of dispatch of methods, for there are `internal generic` and `group generic` functions. `UseMethod` currently dispatches on the implicit class even for arguments that are not objects, but the other means of dispatch do not.

`NextMethod` invokes the next method (determined by the class vector, either of the object supplied to the generic, or of the first argument to the function containing `NextMethod` if a method was invoked directly). Normally `NextMethod` is used with only one argument, `generic`, but if further arguments are supplied these modify the call to the next method.

`NextMethod` should not be called except in methods called by `UseMethod` or from internal generics (see `InternalGenerics`). In particular it will not work inside anonymous calling functions (e.g., `get("print.ts")(AirPassengers)`).

Namespaces can register methods for generic functions. To support this, `UseMethod` and `NextMethod` search for methods in two places: first in the environment in which the generic function is called, and then in the registration data base for the environment in which the generic is defined (typically a namespace). So methods for a generic function need to be available in the environment of the call to the generic, or they must be registered. (It does not matter whether they are visible in the environment in which the generic is defined.)

Technical Details

Now for some obscure details that need to appear somewhere. These comments will be slightly different than those in Chambers(1992). (See also the draft 'R Language Definition'.) `UseMethod` creates a new function call with arguments matched as they came in to the generic. Any local variables defined before the call to `UseMethod` are retained (unlike S). Any statements after the call

to UseMethod will not be evaluated as UseMethod does not return. UseMethod can be called with more than two arguments: a warning will be given and additional arguments ignored. (They are not completely ignored in S.) If it is called with just one argument, the class of the first argument of the enclosing function is used as object: unlike S this is the first actual argument passed and not the current value of the object of that name.

NextMethod works by creating a special call frame for the next method. If no new arguments are supplied, the arguments will be the same in number, order and name as those to the current method but their values will be promises to evaluate their name in the current method and environment. Any named arguments matched to . . . are handled specially: they either replace existing arguments of the same name or are appended to the argument list. They are passed on as the promise that was supplied as an argument to the current environment. (S does this differently!) If they have been evaluated in the current (or a previous environment) they remain evaluated. (This is a complex area, and subject to change: see the draft ‘R Language Definition’.)

The search for methods for NextMethod is slightly different from that for UseMethod. Finding no fun.default is not necessarily an error, as the search continues to the generic itself. This is to pick up an [internal generic](#) like `[]` which has no separate default method, and succeeds only if the generic is a [primitive](#) function or a wrapper for a `.Internal` function of the same name. (When a primitive is called as the default method, argument matching may not work as described above due to the different semantics of primitives.)

You will see objects such as `.Generic`, `.Method`, and `.Class` used in methods. These are set in the environment within which the method is evaluated by the dispatch mechanism, which is as follows:

1. Find the context for the calling function (the generic): this gives us the unevaluated arguments for the original call.
2. Evaluate the object (usually an argument) to be used for dispatch, and find a method (possibly the default method) or throw an error.
3. Create an environment for evaluating the method and insert special variables (see below) into that environment. Also copy any variables in the environment of the generic that are not formal (or actual) arguments.
4. Fix up the argument list to be the arguments of the call matched to the formals of the method.

`.Generic` is a length-one character vector naming the generic function.

`.Method` is a character vector (normally of length one) naming the method function. (For functions in the group generic [Ops](#) it is of length two.)

`.Class` is a character vector of classes used to find the next method. NextMethod adds an attribute “previous” to `.Class` giving the `.Class` last used for dispatch, and shifts `.Class` along to that used for dispatch.

`.GenericCallEnv` and `.GenericDefEnv` are the environments of the call to be generic and defining the generic respectively. (The latter is used to find methods registered for the generic.)

Note that `.Class` is set when the generic is called, and is unchanged if the class of the dispatching argument is changed in a method. It is possible to change the method that NextMethod would dispatch by manipulating `.Class`, but ‘this is not recommended unless you understand the inheritance mechanism thoroughly’ (Chambers & Hastie, 1992, p. 469).

Note

This scheme is called *S3* (S version 3). For new projects, it is recommended to use the more flexible and robust *S4* scheme provided in the **methods** package.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Classes and methods: object-oriented programming in S*. Appendix A of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

The draft ‘R Language Definition’.

[methods](#), [class](#), [getS3method](#), [is.object](#).

userhooks

Functions to Get and Set Hooks for Load, Attach, Detach and Unload

Description

These functions allow users to set actions to be taken before packages are attached/detached and namespaces are (un)loaded.

Usage

```
getHook(hookName)
setHook(hookName, value,
        action = c("append", "prepend", "replace"))

packageEvent(pkgname,
             event = c("onLoad", "attach", "detach", "onUnload"))
```

Arguments

hookName	character string: the hook name
pkgname	character string: the package/namespace name
event	character string: an event for the package. Can be abbreviated.
value	A function or a list of functions, or for action = "replace", NULL
action	The action to be taken. Can be abbreviated.

Details

setHook provides a general mechanism for users to register hooks, a list of functions to be called from system (or user) functions. The initial set of hooks was associated with events on packages/namespaces: these hooks are named via calls to packageEvent.

To remove a hook completely, call setHook(hookName, NULL, "replace").

When an R package is attached by `library` or loaded by other means, it can call initialization code. See `.onLoad` for a description of the package hook functions called during initialization. Users can add their own initialization code via the hooks provided by setHook(), functions which will be called as funname(pkgname, pkgpath) inside a `try` call.

The sequence of events depends on which hooks are defined, and whether a package is attached or just loaded. In the case where all hooks are defined and a package is attached, the order of initialization events is as follows:

1. The package namespace is loaded.
2. The package's `.onLoad` function is run.
3. If S4 methods dispatch is on, any actions set by `setLoadAction` are run.
4. The namespace is sealed.
5. The user's "onLoad" hook is run.
6. The package is added to the search path.
7. The package's `.onAttach` function is run.
8. The package environment is sealed.
9. The user's "attach" hook is run.

A similar sequence (but in reverse) is run when a package is detached and its namespace unloaded:

1. The user's "detach" hook is run.
2. The package's `.Last.lib` function is run.
3. The package is removed from the search path.
4. The user's "onUnload" hook is run.
5. The package's `.onUnload` function is run.
6. The package namespace is unloaded.

Note that when an R session is finished, packages are not detached and namespaces are not unloaded, so the corresponding hooks will not be run.

Also note that some of the user hooks are run without the package being on the search path, so in those hooks objects in the package need to be referred to using the double (or triple) colon operator, as in the example.

If multiple hooks are added, they are normally run in the order shown by getHook, but the "detach" and "onUnload" hooks are run in reverse order so the default for package events is to add hooks 'inside' existing ones.

The hooks are stored in the environment `.userHooksEnv` in the base package, with 'mangled' names.

Value

For `getHook` function, a list of functions (possibly empty). For `setHook` function, no return value. For `packageEvent`, the derived hook name (a character string).

Note

Hooks need to be set before the event they modify: for standard packages this can be problematic as **methods** is loaded and attached early in the startup sequence and currently that loads the **utils** namespace. The usual place to set hooks such as the example below is in the `‘.Rprofile’` file, but that will not work for **methods** and **utils**.

See Also

[library](#), [detach](#), [loadNamespace](#).

See `::` for a discussion of the double and triple colon operators.

Other hooks may be added later: functions [plot.new](#) and [persp](#) already have them.

Examples

```
setHook(packageEvent("grDevices", "onLoad"),
        function(...) grDevices::ps.options(horizontal = FALSE))
```

utf8Conversion	<i>Convert Integer Vectors to or from UTF-8-encoded Character Vectors</i>
----------------	---

Description

Conversion of UTF-8 encoded character vectors to and from integer vectors.

Usage

```
utf8ToInt(x)
intToUtf8(x, multiple = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	object to be converted.
<code>multiple</code>	logical: should the conversion be to a single character string or multiple individual characters?

Details

These will work in any locale, including on platforms that do not otherwise support multi-byte character sets.

Value

Unicode defines a name and a number of all of the glyphs it encompasses: the numbers are called *code points*: they run from 0 to 0x10FFFF.

utf8ToInt converts a length-one character string encoded in UTF-8 to an integer vector of Unicode code points. As from R 3.2.1 it checks validity of the input and returns NA if it is invalid.

intToUtf8 converts a numeric vector of Unicode code points either to a single character string or a character vector of single characters. (For a single character string 0 is silently omitted: otherwise 0 is mapped to ""). Non-integral numeric values are truncated to integers.) The [Encoding](#) is declared as "UTF-8".

NA inputs are mapped to NA output.

Examples

```
## will only display in some locales and fonts
intToUtf8(0x03B2L) # Greek beta

utf8ToInt("bi\u00dfchen")
utf8ToInt("\xfa\x4\xbf\xbf\x9f")
```

vector	Vectors
--------	---------

Description

vector produces a vector of the given length and mode.

as.vector, a generic, attempts to coerce its argument into a vector of mode mode (the default is to coerce to whichever vector mode is most convenient): if the result is atomic all attributes are removed.

is.vector returns TRUE if x is a vector of the specified mode having no attributes *other than names*. It returns FALSE otherwise.

Usage

```
vector(mode = "logical", length = 0)
as.vector(x, mode = "any")
is.vector(x, mode = "any")
```

Arguments

mode	character string naming an atomic mode or "list" or "expression" or (except for vector) "any".
length	a non-negative integer specifying the desired length. For a long vector, i.e., length > .Machine\$integer.max, it has to be of type "double". Supplying an argument of length other than one is an error.
x	an R object.

Details

The atomic modes are "logical", "integer", "numeric" (synonym "double"), "complex", "character" and "raw".

If mode = "any", `is.vector` may return TRUE for the atomic modes, `list` and `expression`. For any mode, it will return FALSE if x has any attributes except names. (This is incompatible with S.) On the other hand, `as.vector` removes *all* attributes including names for results of atomic mode (but not those of mode "list" nor "expression").

Note that factors are *not* vectors; `is.vector` returns FALSE and `as.vector` converts a factor to a character vector for mode = "any".

Value

For `vector`, a vector of the given length and mode. Logical vector elements are initialized to FALSE, numeric vector elements to 0, character vector elements to "", raw vector elements to nul bytes and list/expression elements to NULL.

For `as.vector`, a vector (atomic or of type list or expression). All attributes are removed from the result if it is of an atomic mode, but not in general for a list result. The default method handles 24 input types and 12 values of type: the details of most coercions are undocumented and subject to change.

For `is.vector`, TRUE or FALSE. `is.vector(x, mode = "numeric")` can be true for vectors of types "integer" or "double" whereas `is.vector(x, mode = "double")` can only be true for those of type "double".

Methods for `as.vector()`

Writers of methods for `as.vector` need to take care to follow the conventions of the default method. In particular

- Argument mode can be "any", any of the atomic modes, "list", "expression", "symbol", "pairlist" or one of the aliases "double" and "name".
- The return value should be of the appropriate mode. For mode = "any" this means an atomic vector or list.
- Attributes should be treated appropriately: in particular when the result is an atomic vector there should be no attributes, not even names.
- `is.vector(as.vector(x, m), m)` should be true for any mode m, including the default "any".

Note

`as.vector` and `is.vector` are quite distinct from the meaning of the formal class "vector" in the **methods** package, and hence `as(x, "vector")` and `is(x, "vector")`.

Note that `as.vector(x)` is not necessarily a null operation if `is.vector(x)` is true: any names will be removed from an atomic vector.

Non-vector modes "symbol" (synonym "name") and "pairlist" are accepted but have long been undocumented: they are used to implement `as.name` and `as.pairlist`, and those functions should preferably be used directly. None of the description here applies to those modes: see the help for the preferred forms.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[c](#), [is.numeric](#), [is.list](#), etc.

Examples

```
df <- data.frame(x = 1:3, y = 5:7)
## Error:
try(as.vector(data.frame(x = 1:3, y = 5:7), mode = "numeric"))

x <- c(a = 1, b = 2)
is.vector(x)
as.vector(x)
all.equal(x, as.vector(x)) ## FALSE

###-- All the following are TRUE:
is.list(df)
! is.vector(df)
! is.vector(df, mode = "list")

is.vector(list(), mode = "list")
```

Vectorize

Vectorize a Scalar Function

Description

Vectorize creates a function wrapper that vectorizes the action of its argument FUN.

Usage

```
Vectorize(FUN, vectorize.args = arg.names, SIMPLIFY = TRUE,
          USE.NAMES = TRUE)
```

Arguments

FUN	function to apply, found via match.fun .
vectorize.args	a character vector of arguments which should be vectorized. Defaults to all arguments of FUN.
SIMPLIFY	logical or character string; attempt to reduce the result to a vector, matrix or higher dimensional array; see the simplify argument of sapply .
USE.NAMES	logical; use names if the first ... argument has names, or if it is a character vector, use that character vector as the names.

Details

The arguments named in the `vectorize.args` argument to `Vectorize` are the arguments passed in the `...` list to `mapply`. Only those that are actually passed will be vectorized; default values will not. See the examples.

`Vectorize` cannot be used with primitive functions as they do not have a value for `formals`.

It also cannot be used with functions that have arguments named `FUN`, `vectorize.args`, `SIMPLIFY` or `USE.NAMES`, as they will interfere with the `Vectorize` arguments. See the `combn` example below for a workaround.

Value

A function with the same arguments as `FUN`, wrapping a call to `mapply`.

Examples

```
# We use rep.int as rep is primitive
vrep <- Vectorize(rep.int)
vrep(1:4, 4:1)
vrep(times = 1:4, x = 4:1)

vrep <- Vectorize(rep.int, "times")
vrep(times = 1:4, x = 42)

f <- function(x = 1:3, y) c(x, y)
vf <- Vectorize(f, SIMPLIFY = FALSE)
f(1:3, 1:3)
vf(1:3, 1:3)
vf(y = 1:3) # Only vectorizes y, not x

# Nonlinear regression contour plot, based on nls() example
require(graphics)
SS <- function(Vm, K, resp, conc) {
  pred <- (Vm * conc)/(K + conc)
  sum((resp - pred)^2 / pred)
}
vSS <- Vectorize(SS, c("Vm", "K"))
Treated <- subset(Puromycin, state == "treated")

Vm <- seq(140, 310, length.out = 50)
K <- seq(0, 0.15, length.out = 40)
SSvals <- outer(Vm, K, vSS, Treated$rate, Treated$conc)
contour(Vm, K, SSvals, levels = (1:10)^2, xlab = "Vm", ylab = "K")

# combn() has an argument named FUN
combnV <- Vectorize(function(x, m, FUNV = NULL) combn(x, m, FUN = FUNV),
  vectorize.args = c("x", "m"))
combnV(4, 1:4)
combnV(4, 1:4, sum)
```

warning

*Warning Messages***Description**

Generates a warning message that corresponds to its argument(s) and (optionally) the expression or function from which it was called.

Usage

```
warning(..., call. = TRUE, immediate. = FALSE, noBreaks. = FALSE,
        domain = NULL)
suppressWarnings(expr)
```

Arguments

...	zero or more objects which can be coerced to character (and which are pasted together with no separator) or a single condition object.
call.	logical, indicating if the call should become part of the warning message.
immediate.	logical, indicating if the call should be output immediately, even if <code>getOption("warn") <= 0</code> .
noBreaks.	logical, indicating as far as possible the message should be output as a single line when <code>options(warn = 1)</code> .
expr	expression to evaluate.
domain	see <code>gettext</code> . If NA, messages will not be translated, see also the note in <code>stop</code> .

Details

The result *depends* on the value of `options("warn")` and on handlers established in the executing code.

If a condition object is supplied it should be the only argument, and further arguments will be ignored, with a message.

warning signals a warning condition by (effectively) calling `signalCondition`. If there are no handlers or if all handlers return, then the value of `warn = getOption("warn")` is used to determine the appropriate action. If `warn` is negative warnings are ignored; if it is zero they are stored and printed after the top-level function has completed; if it is one they are printed as they occur and if it is 2 (or larger) warnings are turned into errors. Calling `warning(immediate. = TRUE)` turns `warn <= 0` into `warn = 1` for this call only.

If `warn` is zero (the default), a read-only variable `last.warning` is created. It contains the warnings which can be printed via a call to `warnings`.

Warnings will be truncated to `getOption("warning.length")` characters, default 1000, indicated by `[... truncated]`.

While the warning is being processed, a `muffleWarning` restart is available. If this restart is invoked with `invokeRestart`, then `warning` returns immediately.

An attempt is made to coerce other types of inputs to warning to character vectors.
`suppressWarnings` evaluates its expression in a context that ignores all warnings.

Value

The warning message as [character](#) string, invisibly.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[stop](#) for fatal errors, [message](#) for diagnostic messages, [warnings](#), and [options](#) with argument `warn=`.

[gettext](#) for the mechanisms for the automated translation of messages.

Examples

```
testit <- function() warning("testit")
testit() ## shows call
testit <- function() warning("problem in testit", call. = FALSE)
testit() ## no call
suppressWarnings(warning("testit"))
```

warnings

Print Warning Messages

Description

`warnings` and its print method print the variable `last.warning` in a pleasing form.

Usage

```
warnings(...)
```

Arguments

... arguments to be passed to [cat](#).

Details

See the description of [options\("warn"\)](#) for the circumstances under which there is a `last.warning` object and `warnings()` is used. In essence this is if `options(warn = 0)` and `warning` has been called at least once.

It is possible that `last.warning` refers to the last recorded warning and not to the last warning, for example if `options(warn)` has been changed or if a catastrophic error occurred.

Value

an object of S3 class "warnings", basically a named [list](#).

Warning

It is undocumented where `last.warning` is stored nor that it is visible, and this is subject to change.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[warning](#).

Examples

```
## NB this example is intended to be pasted in,
##   rather than run by example()
ow <- options("warn")
for(w in -1:1) {
  options(warn = w); cat("\n warn =", w, "\n")
  for(i in 1:3) { cat(i,"..\n"); m <- matrix(1:7, 3,4) }
}
warnings()
options(ow) # reset
tail(warnings(), 2) # see the last two warnings only (via '[' method)
```

weekdays

Extract Parts of a POSIXt or Date Object

Description

Extract the weekday, month or quarter, or the Julian time (days since some origin). These are generic functions: the methods for the internal date-time classes are documented here.

Usage

```
weekdays(x, abbreviate)
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
weekdays(x, abbreviate = FALSE)
## S3 method for class 'Date'
weekdays(x, abbreviate = FALSE)

months(x, abbreviate)
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
```

```

months(x, abbreviate = FALSE)
## S3 method for class 'Date'
months(x, abbreviate = FALSE)

quarters(x, abbreviate)
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
quarters(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'Date'
quarters(x, ...)

julian(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
julian(x, origin = as.POSIXct("1970-01-01", tz = "GMT"), ...)
## S3 method for class 'Date'
julian(x, origin = as.Date("1970-01-01"), ...)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object inheriting from class "POSIXt" or "Date".
<code>abbreviate</code>	logical. Should the names be abbreviated?
<code>origin</code>	an length-one object inheriting from class "POSIXt" or "Date".
<code>...</code>	arguments for other methods.

Value

`weekdays` and `months` return a character vector of names in the locale in use.

`quarters` returns a character vector of "Q1" to "Q4".

`julian` returns the number of days (possibly fractional) since the origin, with the origin as a "origin" attribute. All time calculations in R are done ignoring leap-seconds.

Note

Other components such as the day of the month or the year are very easy to compute: just use [as.POSIXlt](#) and extract the relevant component. Alternatively (especially if the components are desired as character strings), use [strftime](#).

See Also

[DateTimeClasses](#), [Date](#)

Examples

```

weekdays(.leap.seconds)
months(.leap.seconds)
quarters(.leap.seconds)

## Julian Day Number (JDN, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Julian\_day)
## is the number of days since noon UTC on the first day of 4317 BC.

```

```
## in the proleptic Julian calendar. To more recently, in
## 'Terrestrial Time' which differs from UTC by a few seconds
## See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Terrestrial_Time
julian(Sys.Date(), -2440588) # from a day
floor(as.numeric(julian(Sys.time())) + 2440587.5) # from a date-time
```

which

Which indices are TRUE?

Description

Give the TRUE indices of a logical object, allowing for array indices.

Usage

```
which(x, arr.ind = FALSE, useNames = TRUE)
arrayInd(ind, .dim, .dimnames = NULL, useNames = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	a logical vector or array. NA s are allowed and omitted (treated as if FALSE).
arr.ind	logical; should array indices be returned when x is an array?
ind	integer-valued index vector, as resulting from which(x).
.dim	dim(.) integer vector
.dimnames	optional list of character dimnames(.) . If useNames is true, to be used for constructing dimnames for arrayInd() (and hence, which(*, arr.ind=TRUE)). If names(.dimnames) is not empty, these are used as column names. .dimnames[[1]] is used as row names.
useNames	logical indicating if the value of arrayInd() should have (non-null) dimnames at all.

Value

If **arr.ind == FALSE** (the default), an integer vector with length equal to **sum(x)**, i.e., to the number of TRUEs in x; Basically, the result is **(1:length(x))[x]**.

If **arr.ind == TRUE** and x is an **array** (has a **dim** attribute), the result is **arrayInd(which(x), dim(x), dimnames(x))**, namely a matrix whose rows each are the indices of one element of x; see Examples below.

Note

Unlike most other base R functions this does not coerce to x to logical: only arguments with **typeof** logical are accepted and others give an error.

Author(s)

Werner Stahel and Peter Holzer (ETH Zurich) proposed the **arr.ind** option.

See Also

[Logic](#), [which.min](#) for the index of the minimum or maximum, and [match](#) for the first index of an element in a vector, i.e., for a scalar `a`, `match(a, x)` is equivalent to `min(which(x == a))` but much more efficient.

Examples

```
which(LETTERS == "R")
which(l1 <- c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, NA, FALSE, FALSE, TRUE)) #> 1 3 7
names(l1) <- letters[seq(l1)]
which(l1)
which((1:12)%%2 == 0) # which are even?
which(1:10 > 3, arr.ind = TRUE)

( m <- matrix(1:12, 3, 4) )
div.3 <- m %% 3 == 0
which(div.3)
which(div.3, arr.ind = TRUE)
rownames(m) <- paste("Case", 1:3, sep = "_")
which(m %% 5 == 0, arr.ind = TRUE)

dim(m) <- c(2, 2, 3); m
which(div.3, arr.ind = FALSE)
which(div.3, arr.ind = TRUE)

vm <- c(m)
dim(vm) <- length(vm) #-- funny thing with length(dim(...)) == 1
which(div.3, arr.ind = TRUE)
```

which.min

Where is the Min() or Max() or first TRUE or FALSE ?

Description

Determines the location, i.e., index of the (first) minimum or maximum of a numeric (or logical) vector.

Usage

```
which.min(x)
which.max(x)
```

Arguments

`x` numeric (logical, integer or double) vector or an R object for which the internal coercion to [double](#) works whose [min](#) or [max](#) is searched for.

Value

Missing and NaN values are discarded.

an `integer` or on 64-bit platforms, if `length(x) =: n ≥ 231` an integer valued `double` of length 1 or 0 (iff `x` has no non-NA's), giving the index of the *first* minimum or maximum respectively of `x`.

If this extremum is unique (or empty), the results are the same as (but more efficient than) `which(x == min(x, na.rm = TRUE))` or `which(x == max(x, na.rm = TRUE))` respectively.

Note

For a `logical` vector `x` with both FALSE and TRUE values, `which.min(x)` and `which.max(x)` return the index of the first FALSE or TRUE, respectively, as FALSE < TRUE.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

`which`, `max.col`, `max`, etc.

Use `arrayInd()`, if you need array/matrix indices instead of 1D vector ones.

`which.is.max` in package `nnet` differs in breaking ties at random (and having a ‘fuzz’ in the definition of ties).

Examples

```
x <- c(1:4, 0:5, 11)
which.min(x)
which.max(x)

## it *does* work with NA's present, by discarding them:
presidents[1:30]
range(presidents, na.rm = TRUE)
which.min(presidents) # 28
which.max(presidents) # 2

## Find the first occurrence, i.e. the first TRUE, if there is at least one:
x <- rpois(10000, lambda = 10); x[sample.int(50, 20)] <- NA
## where is the first value >= 20 ?
which.max(x >= 20)

## Also works for lists (which can be coerced to numeric vectors):
which.min(list(A = 7, pi = pi)) ## -> c(pi = 2L)
```

with

Evaluate an Expression in a Data Environment

Description

Evaluate an R expression in an environment constructed from data, possibly modifying (a copy of) the original data.

Usage

```
with(data, expr, ...)  
within(data, expr, ...)
```

Arguments

data	data to use for constructing an environment. For the default with method this may be an environment, a list, a data frame, or an integer as in <code>sys.call</code> . For <code>within</code> , it can be a list or a data frame.
expr	expression to evaluate.
...	arguments to be passed to future methods.

Details

`with` is a generic function that evaluates `expr` in a local environment constructed from `data`. The environment has the caller's environment as its parent. This is useful for simplifying calls to modeling functions. (Note: if `data` is already an environment then this is used with its existing parent.)

Note that assignments within `expr` take place in the constructed environment and not in the user's workspace.

`within` is similar, except that it examines the environment after the evaluation of `expr` and makes the corresponding modifications to a copy of `data` (this may fail in the data frame case if objects are created which cannot be stored in a data frame), and returns it. `within` can be used as an alternative to `transform`.

Value

For `with`, the value of the evaluated `expr`. For `within`, the modified object.

See Also

[evalq](#), [attach](#), [assign](#), [transform](#).

Examples

```

require(stats); require(graphics)
#examples from glm:

library(MASS)
with(anorexia, {
  anorex.1 <- glm(Postwt ~ Prewt + Treat + offset(Prewt),
                  family = gaussian)
  summary(anorex.1)
})

aq <- within(airquality, {      # Notice that multiple vars can be changed
  lOzone <- log(Ozone)
  Month <- factor(month.abb[Month])
  cTemp <- round((Temp - 32) * 5/9, 1) # From Fahrenheit to Celsius
  S.cT <- Solar.R / cTemp # using the newly created variable
  rm(Day, Temp)
})
head(aq)

with(data.frame(u = c(5,10,15,20,30,40,60,80,100),
  lot1 = c(118,58,42,35,27,25,21,19,18),
  lot2 = c(69,35,26,21,18,16,13,12,12)),
  list(summary(glm(lot1 ~ log(u), family = Gamma)),
        summary(glm(lot2 ~ log(u), family = Gamma))))

# example from boxplot:
with(ToothGrowth, {
  boxplot(len ~ dose, boxwex = 0.25, at = 1:3 - 0.2,
    subset = (supp == "VC"), col = "yellow",
    main = "Guinea Pigs' Tooth Growth",
    xlab = "Vitamin C dose mg",
    ylab = "tooth length", ylim = c(0, 35))
  boxplot(len ~ dose, add = TRUE, boxwex = 0.25, at = 1:3 + 0.2,
    subset = supp == "OJ", col = "orange")
  legend(2, 9, c("Ascorbic acid", "Orange juice"),
    fill = c("yellow", "orange"))
})

# alternate form that avoids subset argument:
with(subset(ToothGrowth, supp == "VC"),
  boxplot(len ~ dose, boxwex = 0.25, at = 1:3 - 0.2,
    col = "yellow", main = "Guinea Pigs' Tooth Growth",
    xlab = "Vitamin C dose mg",
    ylab = "tooth length", ylim = c(0, 35)))
with(subset(ToothGrowth, supp == "OJ"),
  boxplot(len ~ dose, add = TRUE, boxwex = 0.25, at = 1:3 + 0.2,
    col = "orange"))
legend(2, 9, c("Ascorbic acid", "Orange juice"),
  fill = c("yellow", "orange"))

```

withVisible	<i>Return both a value and its visibility</i>
-------------	---

Description

This function evaluates an expression, returning it in a two element list containing its value and a flag showing whether it would automatically print.

Usage

```
withVisible(x)
```

Arguments

x	An expression to be evaluated.
---	--------------------------------

Details

The argument is evaluated in the caller's context.

This is a [primitive](#) function.

Value

value	The value of x after evaluation.
visible	logical; whether the value would auto-print.

See Also

[invisible](#), [eval](#)

Examples

```
x <- 1
withVisible(x <- 1)
x
withVisible(x)

# Wrap the call in evalq() for special handling

df <- data.frame(a = 1:5, b = 1:5)
evalq(withVisible(a + b), envir = df)
```

write

Write Data to a File

Description

The data (usually a matrix) `x` are written to file `file`. If `x` is a two-dimensional matrix you need to transpose it to get the columns in `file` the same as those in the internal representation.

Usage

```
write(x, file = "data",
      ncolumns = if(is.character(x)) 1 else 5,
      append = FALSE, sep = " ")
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	the data to be written out, usually an atomic vector.
<code>file</code>	A connection, or a character string naming the file to write to. If <code>"</code> , print to the standard output connection. If it is <code>" cmd"</code> , the output is piped to the command given by <code>'cmd'</code> .
<code>ncolumns</code>	the number of columns to write the data in.
<code>append</code>	if TRUE the data <code>x</code> are appended to the connection.
<code>sep</code>	a string used to separate columns. Using <code>sep = "\t"</code> gives tab delimited output; default is <code>" "</code> .

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`write` is a wrapper for [cat](#), which gives further details on the format used.
[save](#) for writing any R objects, [write.table](#) for data frames, and [scan](#) for reading data.

Examples

```
# create a 2 by 5 matrix
x <- matrix(1:10, ncol = 5)

# the file data contains x, two rows, five cols
# 1 3 5 7 9 will form the first row
write(t(x))

# Writing to the "console" 'tab-delimited'
# two rows, five cols but the first row is 1 2 3 4 5
write(x, "", sep = "\t")
unlink("data") # tidy up
```

`writelnLines`*Write Lines to a Connection*

Description

Write text lines to a connection.

Usage

```
writelnLines(text, con = stdout(), sep = "\n", useBytes = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>text</code>	A character vector
<code>con</code>	A connection object or a character string.
<code>sep</code>	character string. A string to be written to the connection after each line of text.
<code>useBytes</code>	logical. See ‘Details’.

Details

If the `con` is a character string, the function calls [file](#) to obtain a file connection which is opened for the duration of the function call.

If the connection is open it is written from its current position. If it is not open, it is opened for the duration of the call in "wt" mode and then closed again.

Normally `writelnLines` is used with a text-mode connection, and the default separator is converted to the normal separator for that platform (LF on Unix/Linux, CRLF on Windows). For more control, open a binary connection and specify the precise value you want written to the file in `sep`. For even more control, use [writeChar](#) on a binary connection.

`useBytes` is for expert use. Normally (when false) character strings with marked encodings are converted to the current encoding before being passed to the connection (which might do further re-encoding). `useBytes = TRUE` suppresses the re-encoding of marked strings so they are passed byte-by-byte to the connection: this can be useful when strings have already been re-encoded by e.g. [iconv](#). (It is invoked automatically for strings with marked encoding "bytes".)

See Also

[connections](#), [writeChar](#), [writeBin](#), [readLines](#), [cat](#)

xtfrm*Auxiliary Function for Sorting and Ranking*

Description

A generic auxiliary function that produces a numeric vector which will sort in the same order as `x`.

Usage

```
xtfrm(x)
```

Arguments

`x` an R object.

Details

This is a special case of ranking, but as a less general function than [rank](#) is more suitable to be made generic. The default method is similar to `rank(x, ties.method = "min", na.last = "keep")`, so NA values are given rank NA and all tied values are given equal integer rank.

The [factor](#) method extracts the codes. The [Surv](#) method sorts first on times and then on status code(s), finally on `timme2` if present. Note that with the conventional status codes this sorts individuals still alive before deaths.

The default method will unclass the object if `is.numeric(x)` is true but otherwise make use of `==` and `>` methods for the class of `x[i]` (for integers `i`), and the `is.na` method for the class of `x`, but might be rather slow when doing so.

This is an [internal generic primitive](#), so S3 or S4 methods can be written for it.

Value

A numeric (usually integer) vector of the same length as `x`.

See Also

[rank](#), [sort](#), [order](#).

zapsmall	<i>Rounding of Numbers</i>
----------	----------------------------

Description

zapsmall determines a digits argument `dr` for calling `round(x, digits = dr)` such that values close to zero (compared with the maximal absolute value) are ‘zapped’, i.e., treated as 0.

Usage

```
zapsmall(x, digits = getOption("digits"))
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric or complex vector.
<code>digits</code>	integer indicating the precision to be used.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1998) *Programming with Data. A Guide to the S Language*. Springer.

Examples

```
x2 <- pi * 100^(-1:3)
print(x2 / 1000, digits = 4)
zapsmall(x2 / 1000, digits = 4)

zapsmall(exp(1i*0:4*pi/2))
```

zpackages	<i>Listing of Packages</i>
-----------	----------------------------

Description

`.packages` returns information about package availability.

Usage

```
.packages(all.available = FALSE, lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>all.available</code>	logical; if TRUE return a character vector of all available packages in <code>lib.loc</code> .
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to <code>.libPaths()</code> .

Details

`.packages()` returns the names of the currently attached packages *invisibly* whereas `.packages(all.available = TRUE)` gives (visibly) *all* packages available in the library location path `lib.loc`.

For a package to be regarded as being ‘available’ it must have valid metadata (and hence be an installed package). However, this will report a package as available if the metadata does not match the directory name: use [find.package](#) to confirm that the metadata match or [installed.packages](#) for a much slower but more comprehensive check of ‘available’ packages.

Value

A character vector of package base names, invisible unless `all.available = TRUE`.

Note

`.packages(all.available = TRUE)` is not a way to find out if a small number of packages are available for use: not only is it expensive when thousands of packages are installed, it is an incomplete test. See the help for [find.package](#) for why [require](#) should be used.

Author(s)

R core; Guido Masarotto for the `all.available = TRUE` part of `.packages`.

See Also

[library](#), [.libPaths](#), [installed.packages](#).

Examples

```
(.packages())           # maybe just "base"
.packages(all.available = TRUE) # return all available as character vector
require(splines)
.packages()             # "splines", too
detach("package:splines")
```

zutils

Miscellaneous Internal/Programming Utilities

Description

Miscellaneous internal/programming utilities.

Usage

```
.standard_regexps()
```

Details

`.standard_regexps` returns a list of ‘standard’ regexps, including elements named `valid_package_name` and `valid_package_version` with the obvious meanings. The regexps are not anchored.

Chapter 2

The compiler package

compile

Byte Code Compiler

Description

These functions provide an interface to a byte code compiler for R.

Usage

```
cmpfun(f, options = NULL)
compile(e, env = .GlobalEnv, options = NULL)
cmpfile(infile, outfile, ascii = FALSE, env = .GlobalEnv,
        verbose = FALSE, options = NULL)
loadcmp(file, envir = .GlobalEnv, chdir = FALSE)
disassemble(code)
enableJIT(level)
compilePKGS(enable)
getCompilerOption(name, options)
setCompilerOptions(...)
```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	a closure.
<code>options</code>	list of named compiler options
<code>env</code>	the top level environment for the compiling.
<code>file, infile, outfile</code>	pathnames; outfile defaults to infile with a .Rc extension in place of any existing extension.
<code>ascii</code>	logical; should the compiled file be saved in ascii format?
<code>verbose</code>	logical; should the compiler show what is being compiled
<code>envir</code>	environment to evaluate loaded expressions in.

<code>chdir</code>	logical; change directory before evaluation?
<code>code</code>	byte code expression or compiled closure
<code>e</code>	expression to compile
<code>level</code>	integer; the JIT level to use
<code>enable</code>	logical; enable compiling packages if TRUE
<code>name</code>	character string; name of option to return
<code>...</code>	named compiler options to set

Details

The function `cmpfun` compiles the body of a closure and returns a new closure with the same formals and the body replaced by the compiled body expression.

`compile` compiles an expression into a byte code object; the object can then be evaluated with `eval`.

`cmpfile` parses the expression in `infile`, compiles them, and writes the compiled expressions to `outfile`. If `outfile` is not provided, it is formed from `infile` by replacing or appending a `.Rc` suffix.

`loadcmp` is used to load compiled files. It is similar to `sys.source`, except that its default loading environment is the global environment rather than the base environment.

`disassemble` produces a printed representation of the code that may be useful to give a hint of what is going on.

`enableJIT` enables or disables just-in-time (JIT) compilation. JIT is disabled if the argument is 0. If `enable` is 1 then closures are compiled before their first use. If `enable` is 2, then in addition closures are also compiled before they are duplicated (useful for some packages, like `lattice`, that store closures in lists). If `enable` is 3 then in addition all loops are compiled before they are executed. JIT can also be enabled by starting R with the environment variable `R_ENABLE_JIT` set to one of these values.

`compilePKGS` enables or disables compiling packages when they are installed. This requires that the package use lazy loading as compilation occurs as functions are written to the lazy loading data base. This can also be enabled by starting R with the environment variable `R_COMPILE_PKGS` set to a positive integer value.

Currently the compiler warns about a variety of things. It does this by using `cat` to print messages. Eventually this should use the condition handling mechanism.

The `options` argument can be used to control compiler operation. There are currently three options: `optimize`, `suppressAll`, and `suppressUndefined`. `optimize` specifies the optimization level, which can be an integer from 0 to 3. `suppressAll` should be a scalar logical; if TRUE no messages will be shown. `suppressUndefined` can be TRUE to suppress all messages about undefined variables, or it can be a character vector of the names of variables for which messages should not be shown.

`getCompilerOption` returns the value of the specified option. The default value is returned unless a value is supplied in the `options` argument; the `options` argument is primarily for internal use. `setCompilerOption` sets the default option values. It returns a named list of the previous values.

Calling the compiler a byte code compiler is actually a bit of a misnomer: the external representation of code objects currently uses int operands, and when compiled with `gcc` the internal representation is actually threaded code rather than byte code.

Author(s)

Luke Tierney

Examples

```
# a simple example
f <- function(x) x+1
fc <- cmpfun(f)
fc(2)
disassemble(fc)

# old R version of lapply
la1 <- function(X, FUN, ...) {
  FUN <- match.fun(FUN)
  if (!is.list(X))
    X <- as.list(X)
  rval <- vector("list", length(X))
  for(i in seq(along = X))
    rval[i] <- list(FUN(X[[i]], ...))
  names(rval) <- names(X) # keep `names' !
  return(rval)
}

# a small variation
la2 <- function(X, FUN, ...) {
  FUN <- match.fun(FUN)
  if (!is.list(X))
    X <- as.list(X)
  rval <- vector("list", length(X))
  for(i in seq(along = X)) {
    v <- FUN(X[[i]], ...)
    if (is.null(v)) rval[i] <- list(v)
    else rval[[i]] <- v
  }
  names(rval) <- names(X) # keep `names' !
  return(rval)
}

# Compiled versions
la1c <- cmpfun(la1)
la2c <- cmpfun(la2)

# some timings
x <- 1:10
y <- 1:100

system.time(for (i in 1:10000) lapply(x, is.null))
system.time(for (i in 1:10000) la1(x, is.null))
system.time(for (i in 1:10000) la1c(x, is.null))
system.time(for (i in 1:10000) la2(x, is.null))
system.time(for (i in 1:10000) la2c(x, is.null))
system.time(for (i in 1:1000) lapply(y, is.null))
system.time(for (i in 1:1000) la1(y, is.null))
system.time(for (i in 1:1000) la1c(y, is.null))
system.time(for (i in 1:1000) la2(y, is.null))
```

```
system.time(for (i in 1:1000) la2c(y, is.null))
```

Chapter 3

The datasets package

datasets-package	<i>The R Datasets Package</i>
------------------	-------------------------------

Description

Base R datasets

Details

This package contains a variety of datasets. For a complete list, use `library(help = "datasets")`.

Author(s)

R Core Team and contributors worldwide

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

ability.cov	<i>Ability and Intelligence Tests</i>
-------------	---------------------------------------

Description

Six tests were given to 112 individuals. The covariance matrix is given in this object.

Usage

`ability.cov`

Details

The tests are described as

general: a non-verbal measure of general intelligence using Cattell's culture-fair test.

picture: a picture-completion test

blocks: block design

maze: mazes

reading: reading comprehension

vocab: vocabulary

Bartholomew gives both covariance and correlation matrices, but these are inconsistent. Neither are in the original paper.

Source

Bartholomew, D. J. (1987) *Latent Variable Analysis and Factor Analysis*. Griffin.

Bartholomew, D. J. and Knott, M. (1990) *Latent Variable Analysis and Factor Analysis*. Second Edition, Arnold.

References

Smith, G. A. and Stanley G. (1983) Clocking *g*: relating intelligence and measures of timed performance. *Intelligence*, **7**, 353–368.

Examples

```
require(stats)
(ability.FA <- factanal(factors = 1, covmat = ability.cov))
update(ability.FA, factors = 2)
## The signs of factors and hence the signs of correlations are
## arbitrary with promax rotation.
update(ability.FA, factors = 2, rotation = "promax")
```

airmiles

Passenger Miles on Commercial US Airlines, 1937–1960

Description

The revenue passenger miles flown by commercial airlines in the United States for each year from 1937 to 1960.

Usage

```
airmiles
```

Format

A time series of 24 observations; yearly, 1937–1960.

Source

F.A.A. Statistical Handbook of Aviation.

References

Brown, R. G. (1963) *Smoothing, Forecasting and Prediction of Discrete Time Series*. Prentice-Hall.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
plot(airmiles, main = "airmiles data",
     xlab = "Passenger-miles flown by U.S. commercial airlines", col = 4)
```

AirPassengers

Monthly Airline Passenger Numbers 1949-1960

Description

The classic Box & Jenkins airline data. Monthly totals of international airline passengers, 1949 to 1960.

Usage

```
AirPassengers
```

Format

A monthly time series, in thousands.

Source

Box, G. E. P., Jenkins, G. M. and Reinsel, G. C. (1976) *Time Series Analysis, Forecasting and Control*. Third Edition. Holden-Day. Series G.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## These are quite slow and so not run by example(AirPassengers)

## The classic 'airline model', by full ML
(fit <- arima(log10(AirPassengers), c(0, 1, 1),
             seasonal = list(order = c(0, 1, 1), period = 12)))
update(fit, method = "CSS")
update(fit, x = window(log10(AirPassengers), start = 1954))
pred <- predict(fit, n.ahead = 24)
```

```

t1 <- pred$pred - 1.96 * pred$se
tu <- pred$pred + 1.96 * pred$se
ts.plot(AirPassengers, 10^t1, 10^tu, log = "y", lty = c(1, 2, 2))

## full ML fit is the same if the series is reversed, CSS fit is not
ap0 <- rev(log10(AirPassengers))
attributes(ap0) <- attributes(AirPassengers)
arima(ap0, c(0, 1, 1), seasonal = list(order = c(0, 1, 1), period = 12))
arima(ap0, c(0, 1, 1), seasonal = list(order = c(0, 1, 1), period = 12),
      method = "CSS")

## Structural Time Series
ap <- log10(AirPassengers) - 2
(fit <- StructTS(ap, type = "BSM"))
par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
plot(cbind(ap, fitted(fit)), plot.type = "single")
plot(cbind(ap, tsSmooth(fit)), plot.type = "single")

## End(Not run)

```

airquality

New York Air Quality Measurements

Description

Daily air quality measurements in New York, May to September 1973.

Usage

```
airquality
```

Format

A data frame with 154 observations on 6 variables.

[,1]	Ozone	numeric	Ozone (ppb)
[,2]	Solar.R	numeric	Solar R (lang)
[,3]	Wind	numeric	Wind (mph)
[,4]	Temp	numeric	Temperature (degrees F)
[,5]	Month	numeric	Month (1–12)
[,6]	Day	numeric	Day of month (1–31)

Details

Daily readings of the following air quality values for May 1, 1973 (a Tuesday) to September 30, 1973.

- Ozone: Mean ozone in parts per billion from 1300 to 1500 hours at Roosevelt Island

- Solar: R: Solar radiation in Langleys in the frequency band 4000–7700 Angstroms from 0800 to 1200 hours at Central Park
- Wind: Average wind speed in miles per hour at 0700 and 1000 hours at LaGuardia Airport
- Temp: Maximum daily temperature in degrees Fahrenheit at La Guardia Airport.

Source

The data were obtained from the New York State Department of Conservation (ozone data) and the National Weather Service (meteorological data).

References

Chambers, J. M., Cleveland, W. S., Kleiner, B. and Tukey, P. A. (1983) *Graphical Methods for Data Analysis*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
pairs(airquality, panel = panel.smooth, main = "airquality data")
```

anscombe

Anscombe's Quartet of 'Identical' Simple Linear Regressions

Description

Four x - y datasets which have the same traditional statistical properties (mean, variance, correlation, regression line, etc.), yet are quite different.

Usage

anscombe

Format

A data frame with 11 observations on 8 variables.

x1 == x2 == x3	the integers 4:14, specially arranged
x4	values 8 and 19
y1, y2, y3, y4	numbers in (3, 12.5) with mean 7.5 and sdev 2.03

Source

Tufte, Edward R. (1989) *The Visual Display of Quantitative Information*, 13–14. Graphics Press.

References

Anscombe, Francis J. (1973) Graphs in statistical analysis. *American Statistician*, **27**, 17–21.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
summary(anscombe)

##-- now some "magic" to do the 4 regressions in a loop:
ff <- y ~ x
mods <- setNames(as.list(1:4), paste0("lm", 1:4))
for(i in 1:4) {
  ff[2:3] <- lapply(paste0(c("y","x"), i), as.name)
  ## or  ff[[2]] <- as.name(paste0("y", i))
  ##      ff[[3]] <- as.name(paste0("x", i))
  mods[[i]] <- lmi <- lm(ff, data = anscombe)
  print(anova(lmi))
}

## See how close they are (numerically!)
sapply(mods, coef)
lapply(mods, function(fm) coef(summary(fm)))

## Now, do what you should have done in the first place: PLOTS
op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), mar = 0.1+c(4,4,1,1), oma = c(0, 0, 2, 0))
for(i in 1:4) {
  ff[2:3] <- lapply(paste0(c("y","x"), i), as.name)
  plot(ff, data = anscombe, col = "red", pch = 21, bg = "orange", cex = 1.2,
        xlim = c(3, 19), ylim = c(3, 13))
  abline(mods[[i]], col = "blue")
}
mtext("Anscombe's 4 Regression data sets", outer = TRUE, cex = 1.5)
par(op)
```

attenu	<i>The Joyner–Boore Attenuation Data</i>
--------	--

Description

This data gives peak accelerations measured at various observation stations for 23 earthquakes in California. The data have been used by various workers to estimate the attenuating affect of distance on ground acceleration.

Usage

attenu

Format

A data frame with 182 observations on 5 variables.

[,1]	event	numeric	Event Number
[,2]	mag	numeric	Moment Magnitude

[,3]	station	factor	Station Number
[,4]	dist	numeric	Station-hypocenter distance (km)
[,5]	accel	numeric	Peak acceleration (g)

Source

Joyner, W.B., D.M. Boore and R.D. Porcella (1981). Peak horizontal acceleration and velocity from strong-motion records including records from the 1979 Imperial Valley, California earthquake. USGS Open File report 81-365. Menlo Park, Ca.

References

- Boore, D. M. and Joyner, W.B.(1982) The empirical prediction of ground motion, *Bull. Seism. Soc. Am.*, **72**, S269–S268.
- Bolt, B. A. and Abrahamson, N. A. (1982) New attenuation relations for peak and expected accelerations of strong ground motion, *Bull. Seism. Soc. Am.*, **72**, 2307–2321.
- Bolt B. A. and Abrahamson, N. A. (1983) Reply to W. B. Joyner & D. M. Boore’s “Comments on: New attenuation relations for peak and expected accelerations for peak and expected accelerations of strong ground motion”, *Bull. Seism. Soc. Am.*, **73**, 1481–1483.
- Brillinger, D. R. and Preisler, H. K. (1984) An exploratory analysis of the Joyner-Boore attenuation data, *Bull. Seism. Soc. Am.*, **74**, 1441–1449.
- Brillinger, D. R. and Preisler, H. K. (1984) *Further analysis of the Joyner-Boore attenuation data*. Manuscript.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
## check the data class of the variables
sapply(attenu, data.class)
summary(attenu)
pairs(attenu, main = "attenu data")
coplot(accel ~ dist | as.factor(event), data = attenu, show.given = FALSE)
coplot(log(accel) ~ log(dist) | as.factor(event),
       data = attenu, panel = panel.smooth, show.given = FALSE)
```

attitude

The Chatterjee–Price Attitude Data

Description

From a survey of the clerical employees of a large financial organization, the data are aggregated from the questionnaires of the approximately 35 employees for each of 30 (randomly selected) departments. The numbers give the percent proportion of favourable responses to seven questions in each department.

Usage

attitude

Format

A data frame with 30 observations on 7 variables. The first column are the short names from the reference, the second one the variable names in the data frame:

Y	rating	numeric	Overall rating
X[1]	complaints	numeric	Handling of employee complaints
X[2]	privileges	numeric	Does not allow special privileges
X[3]	learning	numeric	Opportunity to learn
X[4]	raises	numeric	Raises based on performance
X[5]	critical	numeric	Too critical
X[6]	advancel	numeric	Advancement

Source

Chatterjee, S. and Price, B. (1977) *Regression Analysis by Example*. New York: Wiley. (Section 3.7, p.68ff of 2nd ed.(1991).)

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
pairs(attitude, main = "attitude data")
summary(attitude)
summary(fm1 <- lm(rating ~ ., data = attitude))
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0),
            mar = c(4.1, 4.1, 2.1, 1.1))
plot(fm1)
summary(fm2 <- lm(rating ~ complaints, data = attitude))
plot(fm2)
par(opar)
```

austres

Quarterly Time Series of the Number of Australian Residents

Description

Numbers (in thousands) of Australian residents measured quarterly from March 1971 to March 1994. The object is of class "ts".

Usage

austres

Source

P. J. Brockwell and R. A. Davis (1996) *Introduction to Time Series and Forecasting*. Springer

beavers

*Body Temperature Series of Two Beavers***Description**

Reynolds (1994) describes a small part of a study of the long-term temperature dynamics of beaver *Castor canadensis* in north-central Wisconsin. Body temperature was measured by telemetry every 10 minutes for four females, but data from a one period of less than a day for each of two animals is used there.

Usage

```
beaver1
beaver2
```

Format

The beaver1 data frame has 114 rows and 4 columns on body temperature measurements at 10 minute intervals.

The beaver2 data frame has 100 rows and 4 columns on body temperature measurements at 10 minute intervals.

The variables are as follows:

day Day of observation (in days since the beginning of 1990), December 12–13 (beaver1) and November 3–4 (beaver2).

time Time of observation, in the form 0330 for 3:30am

temp Measured body temperature in degrees Celsius.

activ Indicator of activity outside the retreat.

Note

The observation at 22:20 is missing in beaver1.

Source

P. S. Reynolds (1994) Time-series analyses of beaver body temperatures. Chapter 11 of Lange, N., Ryan, L., Billard, L., Brillinger, D., Conquest, L. and Greenhouse, J. eds (1994) *Case Studies in Biometry*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
(y1 <- range(beaver1$temp, beaver2$temp))

beaver.plot <- function(bdat, ...) {
  nam <- deparse(substitute(bdat))
  with(bdat, {
```

```

# Hours since start of day:
hours <- time %% 100 + 24*(day - day[1]) + (time %% 100)/60
plot (hours, temp, type = "l", ...,
      main = paste(nam, "body temperature"))
abline(h = 37.5, col = "gray", lty = 2)
is.act <- activ == 1
points(hours[is.act], temp[is.act], col = 2, cex = .8)
})
}
op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 1), mar = c(3, 3, 4, 2), mgp = 0.9 * 2:0)
beaver.plot(beaver1, ylim = yl)
beaver.plot(beaver2, ylim = yl)
par(op)

```

BJsales

Sales Data with Leading Indicator

Description

The sales time series BJsales and leading indicator BJsales.lead each contain 150 observations. The objects are of class "ts".

Usage

```

BJsales
BJsales.lead

```

Source

The data are given in Box & Jenkins (1976). Obtained from the Time Series Data Library at <http://www-personal.buseco.monash.edu.au/~hyndman/TSDL/>

References

G. E. P. Box and G. M. Jenkins (1976): *Time Series Analysis, Forecasting and Control*, Holden-Day, San Francisco, p. 537.

P. J. Brockwell and R. A. Davis (1991): *Time Series: Theory and Methods*, Second edition, Springer Verlag, NY, pp. 414.

BOD*Biochemical Oxygen Demand*

Description

The BOD data frame has 6 rows and 2 columns giving the biochemical oxygen demand versus time in an evaluation of water quality.

Usage

BOD

Format

This data frame contains the following columns:

Time A numeric vector giving the time of the measurement (days).

demand A numeric vector giving the biochemical oxygen demand (mg/l).

Source

Bates, D.M. and Watts, D.G. (1988), *Nonlinear Regression Analysis and Its Applications*, Wiley, Appendix A1.4.

Originally from Marske (1967), *Biochemical Oxygen Demand Data Interpretation Using Sum of Squares Surface* M.Sc. Thesis, University of Wisconsin – Madison.

Examples

```
require(stats)
# simplest form of fitting a first-order model to these data
fm1 <- nls(demand ~ A*(1-exp(-exp(lrc)*Time)), data = BOD,
  start = c(A = 20, lrc = log(.35)))
coef(fm1)
fm1
# using the plinear algorithm
fm2 <- nls(demand ~ (1-exp(-exp(lrc)*Time)), data = BOD,
  start = c(lrc = log(.35)), algorithm = "plinear", trace = TRUE)
# using a self-starting model
fm3 <- nls(demand ~ SSasympOrig(Time, A, lrc), data = BOD)
summary(fm3)
```

cars

*Speed and Stopping Distances of Cars***Description**

The data give the speed of cars and the distances taken to stop. Note that the data were recorded in the 1920s.

Usage

cars

Format

A data frame with 50 observations on 2 variables.

[,1]	speed	numeric	Speed (mph)
[,2]	dist	numeric	Stopping distance (ft)

Source

Ezekiel, M. (1930) *Methods of Correlation Analysis*. Wiley.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
plot(cars, xlab = "Speed (mph)", ylab = "Stopping distance (ft)",
     las = 1)
lines(lowess(cars$speed, cars$dist, f = 2/3, iter = 3), col = "red")
title(main = "cars data")
plot(cars, xlab = "Speed (mph)", ylab = "Stopping distance (ft)",
     las = 1, log = "xy")
title(main = "cars data (logarithmic scales)")
lines(lowess(cars$speed, cars$dist, f = 2/3, iter = 3), col = "red")
summary(fm1 <- lm(log(dist) ~ log(speed), data = cars))
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0),
            mar = c(4.1, 4.1, 2.1, 1.1))
plot(fm1)
par(opar)

## An example of polynomial regression
plot(cars, xlab = "Speed (mph)", ylab = "Stopping distance (ft)",
     las = 1, xlim = c(0, 25))
d <- seq(0, 25, length.out = 200)
for(degree in 1:4) {
```

```

fm <- lm(dist ~ poly(speed, degree), data = cars)
assign(paste("cars", degree, sep = "."), fm)
lines(d, predict(fm, data.frame(speed = d)), col = degree)
}
anova(cars.1, cars.2, cars.3, cars.4)

```

ChickWeight

*Weight versus age of chicks on different diets***Description**

The ChickWeight data frame has 578 rows and 4 columns from an experiment on the effect of diet on early growth of chicks.

Usage

```
ChickWeight
```

Format

An object of class `c("nfnGroupedData", "nfGroupedData", "groupedData", "data.frame")` containing the following columns:

weight a numeric vector giving the body weight of the chick (gm).

Time a numeric vector giving the number of days since birth when the measurement was made.

Chick an ordered factor with levels `18 < ... < 48` giving a unique identifier for the chick. The ordering of the levels groups chicks on the same diet together and orders them according to their final weight (lightest to heaviest) within diet.

Diet a factor with levels `1, ..., 4` indicating which experimental diet the chick received.

Details

The body weights of the chicks were measured at birth and every second day thereafter until day 20. They were also measured on day 21. There were four groups on chicks on different protein diets.

This dataset was originally part of package `nlme`, and that has methods (including for `[, as.data.frame, plot` and `print`) for its grouped-data classes.

Source

Crowder, M. and Hand, D. (1990), *Analysis of Repeated Measures*, Chapman and Hall (example 5.3)

Hand, D. and Crowder, M. (1996), *Practical Longitudinal Data Analysis*, Chapman and Hall (table A.2)

Pinheiro, J. C. and Bates, D. M. (2000) *Mixed-effects Models in S and S-PLUS*, Springer.

See Also

[SSlogis](#) for models fitted to this dataset.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
coplot(weight ~ Time | Chick, data = ChickWeight,
       type = "b", show.given = FALSE)
```

chickwts

Chicken Weights by Feed Type

Description

An experiment was conducted to measure and compare the effectiveness of various feed supplements on the growth rate of chickens.

Usage

chickwts

Format

A data frame with 71 observations on the following 2 variables.

weight a numeric variable giving the chick weight.

feed a factor giving the feed type.

Details

Newly hatched chicks were randomly allocated into six groups, and each group was given a different feed supplement. Their weights in grams after six weeks are given along with feed types.

Source

Anonymous (1948) *Biometrika*, **35**, 214.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
boxplot(weight ~ feed, data = chickwts, col = "lightgray",
        varwidth = TRUE, notch = TRUE, main = "chickwt data",
        ylab = "Weight at six weeks (gm)")
anova(fm1 <- lm(weight ~ feed, data = chickwts))
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0),
           mar = c(4.1, 4.1, 2.1, 1.1))
plot(fm1)
par(opar)
```

CO2

Carbon Dioxide Uptake in Grass Plants

Description

The CO2 data frame has 84 rows and 5 columns of data from an experiment on the cold tolerance of the grass species *Echinochloa crus-galli*.

Usage

CO2

Format

An object of class `c("nfnGroupedData", "nfGroupedData", "groupedData", "data.frame")` containing the following columns:

Plant an ordered factor with levels Qn1 < Qn2 < Qn3 < ... < Mc1 giving a unique identifier for each plant.

Type a factor with levels Quebec Mississippi giving the origin of the plant

Treatment a factor with levels nonchilled chilled

conc a numeric vector of ambient carbon dioxide concentrations (mL/L).

uptake a numeric vector of carbon dioxide uptake rates ($\mu\text{mol}/m^2 \text{ sec}$).

Details

The CO_2 uptake of six plants from Quebec and six plants from Mississippi was measured at several levels of ambient CO_2 concentration. Half the plants of each type were chilled overnight before the experiment was conducted.

This dataset was originally part of package nlme, and that has methods (including for `[`, `as.data.frame`, `plot` and `print`) for its grouped-data classes.

Source

Potvin, C., Lechowicz, M. J. and Tardif, S. (1990) "The statistical analysis of ecophysiological response curves obtained from experiments involving repeated measures", *Ecology*, **71**, 1389–1400.

Pinheiro, J. C. and Bates, D. M. (2000) *Mixed-effects Models in S and S-PLUS*, Springer.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)

coplot(uptake ~ conc | Plant, data = C02, show.given = FALSE, type = "b")
## fit the data for the first plant
fm1 <- nls(uptake ~ SSasym(conc, Asym, lrc, c0),
  data = C02, subset = Plant == "Qn1")
summary(fm1)
## fit each plant separately
fm1list <- list()
for (pp in levels(C02$Plant)) {
  fm1list[[pp]] <- nls(uptake ~ SSasym(conc, Asym, lrc, c0),
    data = C02, subset = Plant == pp)
}
## check the coefficients by plant
print(sapply(fm1list, coef), digits = 3)
```

co2

Mauna Loa Atmospheric CO2 Concentration

Description

Atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ are expressed in parts per million (ppm) and reported in the preliminary 1997 SIO manometric mole fraction scale.

Usage

```
co2
```

Format

A time series of 468 observations; monthly from 1959 to 1997.

Details

The values for February, March and April of 1964 were missing and have been obtained by interpolating linearly between the values for January and May of 1964.

Source

Keeling, C. D. and Whorf, T. P., Scripps Institution of Oceanography (SIO), University of California, La Jolla, California USA 92093-0220.

<ftp://cdiac.esd.ornl.gov/pub/maunaloa-co2/maunaloa.co2>.

References

Cleveland, W. S. (1993) *Visualizing Data*. New Jersey: Summit Press.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
plot(co2, ylab = expression("Atmospheric concentration of CO"[2]),
     las = 1)
title(main = "co2 data set")
```

crimtab

Student's 3000 Criminals Data

Description

Data of 3000 male criminals over 20 years old undergoing their sentences in the chief prisons of England and Wales.

Usage

```
crimtab
```

Format

A **table** object of **integer** counts, of dimension 42×22 with a total count, `sum(crimtab)` of 3000. The 42 **rownames** ("9.4", "9.5", ...) correspond to midpoints of intervals of finger lengths whereas the 22 column names (**colnames**) ("142.24", "144.78", ...) correspond to (body) heights of 3000 criminals, see also below.

Details

Student is the pseudonym of William Sealy Gosset. In his 1908 paper he wrote (on page 13) at the beginning of section VI entitled *Practical Test of the forgoing Equations*:

"Before I had succeeded in solving my problem analytically, I had endeavoured to do so empirically. The material used was a correlation table containing the height and left middle finger measurements of 3000 criminals, from a paper by W. R. MacDonell (*Biometrika*, Vol. I., p. 219). The measurements were written out on 3000 pieces of cardboard, which were then very thoroughly shuffled and drawn at random. As each card was drawn its numbers were written down in a book, which thus contains the measurements of 3000 criminals in a random order. Finally, each consecutive set of 4 was taken as a sample—750 in all—and the mean, standard deviation, and correlation of each sample determined. The difference between the mean of each sample and the mean of the population was then divided by the standard deviation of the sample, giving us the z of Section III."

The table is in fact page 216 and not page 219 in MacDonell(1902). In the MacDonell table, the middle finger lengths were given in mm and the heights in feet/inches intervals, they are both converted into cm here. The midpoints of intervals were used, e.g., where MacDonell has $4'7''9/16 - 8''9/16$, we have 142.24 which is $2.54 \cdot 56 = 2.54 \cdot (4'8'')$.

MacDonell credited the source of data (page 178) as follows: *The data on which the memoir is based were obtained, through the kindness of Dr Garson, from the Central Metric Office, New Scotland Yard...* He pointed out on page 179 that : *The forms were drawn at random from the mass on the office shelves; we are therefore dealing with a random sampling.*

Source

<http://pbil.univ-lyon1.fr/R/donnees/criminals1902.txt> thanks to Jean R. Lobry and Anne-Béatrice Dufour.

References

Garson, J.G. (1900) The metric system of identification of criminals, as used in Great Britain and Ireland. *The Journal of the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland* **30**, 161–198.

MacDonell, W.R. (1902) On criminal anthropometry and the identification of criminals. *Biometrika* **1**, 2, 177–227.

Student (1908) The probable error of a mean. *Biometrika* **6**, 1–25.

Examples

```
require(stats)
dim(crimtab)
utils::str(crimtab)
## for nicer printing:
local({cT <- crimtab
      colnames(cT) <- substring(colnames(cT), 2, 3)
      print(cT, zero.print = " ")
})

## Repeat Student's experiment:

# 1) Reconstitute 3000 raw data for heights in inches and rounded to
#    nearest integer as in Student's paper:

(heIn <- round(as.numeric(colnames(crimtab)) / 2.54))
d.hei <- data.frame(height = rep(heIn, colSums(crimtab)))

# 2) shuffle the data:

set.seed(1)
d.hei <- d.hei[sample(1:3000), , drop = FALSE]

# 3) Make 750 samples each of size 4:

d.hei$sample <- as.factor(rep(1:750, each = 4))

# 4) Compute the means and standard deviations (n) for the 750 samples:

h.mean <- with(d.hei, tapply(height, sample, FUN = mean))
h.sd <- with(d.hei, tapply(height, sample, FUN = sd)) * sqrt(3/4)

# 5) Compute the difference between the mean of each sample and
#    the mean of the population and then divide by the
#    standard deviation of the sample:

zobs <- (h.mean - mean(d.hei[, "height"])) / h.sd
```

```
# 6) Replace infinite values by +/- 6 as in Student's paper:

zobs[infZ <- is.infinite(zobs)] # 3 of them
zobs[infZ] <- 6 * sign(zobs[infZ])

# 7) Plot the distribution:

require(grDevices); require(graphics)
hist(x = zobs, probability = TRUE, xlab = "Student's z",
     col = grey(0.8), border = grey(0.5),
     main = "Distribution of Student's z score for 'crimtab' data")
```

discoveries

Yearly Numbers of Important Discoveries

Description

The numbers of “great” inventions and scientific discoveries in each year from 1860 to 1959.

Usage

```
discoveries
```

Format

A time series of 100 values.

Source

The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1975 Edition, pages 315–318.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
plot(discoveries, ylab = "Number of important discoveries",
     las = 1)
title(main = "discoveries data set")
```

DNase

*Elisa assay of DNase***Description**

The DNase data frame has 176 rows and 3 columns of data obtained during development of an ELISA assay for the recombinant protein DNase in rat serum.

Usage

```
DNase
```

Format

An object of class `c("nfnGroupedData", "nfGroupedData", "groupedData", "data.frame")` containing the following columns:

Run an ordered factor with levels $10 < \dots < 3$ indicating the assay run.

conc a numeric vector giving the known concentration of the protein.

density a numeric vector giving the measured optical density (dimensionless) in the assay. Duplicate optical density measurements were obtained.

Details

This dataset was originally part of package `nlme`, and that has methods (including for `[, as.data.frame, plot` and `print`) for its grouped-data classes.

Source

Davidian, M. and Giltinan, D. M. (1995) *Nonlinear Models for Repeated Measurement Data*, Chapman & Hall (section 5.2.4, p. 134)

Pinheiro, J. C. and Bates, D. M. (2000) *Mixed-effects Models in S and S-PLUS*, Springer.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)

coplot(density ~ conc | Run, data = DNase,
       show.given = FALSE, type = "b")
coplot(density ~ log(conc) | Run, data = DNase,
       show.given = FALSE, type = "b")
## fit a representative run
fm1 <- nls(density ~ SSlogis( log(conc), Asym, xmid, scal ),
          data = DNase, subset = Run == 1)
## compare with a four-parameter logistic
fm2 <- nls(density ~ SSfpl( log(conc), A, B, xmid, scal ),
          data = DNase, subset = Run == 1)
summary(fm2)
anova(fm1, fm2)
```

esoph	<i>Smoking, Alcohol and (O)esophageal Cancer</i>
-------	--

Description

Data from a case-control study of (o)esophageal cancer in Ille-et-Vilaine, France.

Usage

esoph

Format

A data frame with records for 88 age/alcohol/tobacco combinations.

[,1]	"agegp"	Age group	1 25–34 years
			2 35–44
			3 45–54
			4 55–64
			5 65–74
			6 75+
[,2]	"alcgp"	Alcohol consumption	1 0–39 gm/day
			2 40–79
			3 80–119
			4 120+
[,3]	"tobgp"	Tobacco consumption	1 0– 9 gm/day
			2 10–19
			3 20–29
			4 30+
[,4]	"ncases"	Number of cases	
[,5]	"ncontrols"	Number of controls	

Author(s)

Thomas Lumley

Source

Breslow, N. E. and Day, N. E. (1980) *Statistical Methods in Cancer Research. Volume 1: The Analysis of Case-Control Studies*. IARC Lyon / Oxford University Press.

Examples

```
require(stats)
require(graphics) # for mosaicplot
summary(esoph)
## effects of alcohol, tobacco and interaction, age-adjusted
model1 <- glm(cbind(ncases, ncontrols) ~ agegp + tobgp * alcgp,
```



```

      data = esoph, family = binomial())
anova(model1)
## Try a linear effect of alcohol and tobacco
model2 <- glm(cbind(ncases, ncontrols) ~ agegp + unclass(tobgp)
              + unclass(alcgp),
              data = esoph, family = binomial())
summary(model2)
## Re-arrange data for a mosaic plot
ttt <- table(esoph$agegp, esoph$alcgp, esoph$tobgp)
o <- with(esoph, order(tobgp, alcgp, agegp))
ttt[ttt == 1] <- esoph$ncases[o]
tt1 <- table(esoph$agegp, esoph$alcgp, esoph$tobgp)
tt1[tt1 == 1] <- esoph$ncontrols[o]
tt <- array(c(ttt, tt1), c(dim(ttt),2),
            c(dimnames(ttt), list(c("Cancer", "control")))))
mosaicplot(tt, main = "esoph data set", color = TRUE)

```

euro

Conversion Rates of Euro Currencies

Description

Conversion rates between the various Euro currencies.

Usage

```
euro
euro.cross
```

Format

euro is a named vector of length 11, euro.cross a matrix of size 11 by 11, with dimnames.

Details

The data set euro contains the value of 1 Euro in all currencies participating in the European monetary union (Austrian Schilling ATS, Belgian Franc BEF, German Mark DEM, Spanish Peseta ESP, Finnish Markka FIM, French Franc FRF, Irish Punt IEP, Italian Lira ITL, Luxembourg Franc LUF, Dutch Guilder NLG and Portuguese Escudo PTE). These conversion rates were fixed by the European Union on December 31, 1998. To convert old prices to Euro prices, divide by the respective rate and round to 2 digits.

The data set euro.cross contains conversion rates between the various Euro currencies, i.e., the result of `outer(1 / euro, euro)`.

Examples

```
cbind(euro)

## These relations hold:
euro == signif(euro, 6) # [6 digit precision in Euro's definition]
all(euro.cross == outer(1/euro, euro))

## Convert 20 Euro to Belgian Franc
20 * euro["BEF"]
## Convert 20 Austrian Schilling to Euro
20 / euro["ATS"]
## Convert 20 Spanish Pesetas to Italian Lira
20 * euro.cross["ESP", "ITL"]

require(graphics)
dotchart(euro,
  main = "euro data: 1 Euro in currency unit")
dotchart(1/euro,
  main = "euro data: 1 currency unit in Euros")
dotchart(log(euro, 10),
  main = "euro data: log10(1 Euro in currency unit)")
```

eurodist

Distances Between European Cities and Between US Cities

Description

The eurodist gives the road distances (in km) between 21 cities in Europe. The data are taken from a table in *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia*.

UScitiesD gives “straight line” distances between 10 cities in the US.

Usage

```
eurodist
UScitiesD
```

Format

dist objects based on 21 and 10 objects, respectively. (You must have the **stats** package loaded to have the methods for this kind of object available).

Source

Crystal, D. Ed. (1990) *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,
The US cities distances were provided by Pierre Legendre.

EuStockMarkets

Daily Closing Prices of Major European Stock Indices, 1991–1998

Description

Contains the daily closing prices of major European stock indices: Germany DAX (Ibis), Switzerland SMI, France CAC, and UK FTSE. The data are sampled in business time, i.e., weekends and holidays are omitted.

Usage

```
EuStockMarkets
```

Format

A multivariate time series with 1860 observations on 4 variables. The object is of class "mts".

Source

The data were kindly provided by Erste Bank AG, Vienna, Austria.

faithful

Old Faithful Geyser Data

Description

Waiting time between eruptions and the duration of the eruption for the Old Faithful geyser in Yellowstone National Park, Wyoming, USA.

Usage

```
faithful
```

Format

A data frame with 272 observations on 2 variables.

[,1]	eruptions	numeric	Eruption time in mins
[,2]	waiting	numeric	Waiting time to next eruption (in mins)

Details

A closer look at `faithful$eruptions` reveals that these are heavily rounded times originally in seconds, where multiples of 5 are more frequent than expected under non-human measurement. For a better version of the eruption times, see the example below.

There are many versions of this dataset around: Azzalini and Bowman (1990) use a more complete version.

Source

W. Härdle.

References

Härdle, W. (1991) *Smoothing Techniques with Implementation in S*. New York: Springer.

Azzalini, A. and Bowman, A. W. (1990). A look at some data on the Old Faithful geyser. *Applied Statistics* **39**, 357–365.

See Also

geyser in package **MASS** for the Azzalini–Bowman version.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
f.tit <- "faithful data: Eruptions of Old Faithful"

ne60 <- round(e60 <- 60 * faithful$eruptions)
all.equal(e60, ne60)           # relative diff. ~ 1/10000
table(zapsmall(abs(e60 - ne60))) # 0, 0.02 or 0.04
faithful$better.eruptions <- ne60 / 60
te <- table(ne60)
te[te >= 4]                    # (too) many multiples of 5 !
plot(names(te), te, type = "h", main = f.tit, xlab = "Eruption time (sec)")

plot(faithful[, -3], main = f.tit,
     xlab = "Eruption time (min)",
     ylab = "Waiting time to next eruption (min)")
lines(lowess(faithful$eruptions, faithful$waiting, f = 2/3, iter = 3),
      col = "red")
```

Formaldehyde

Determination of Formaldehyde

Description

These data are from a chemical experiment to prepare a standard curve for the determination of formaldehyde by the addition of chromotropic acid and concentrated sulphuric acid and the reading of the resulting purple color on a spectrophotometer.

Usage

Formaldehyde

Format

A data frame with 6 observations on 2 variables.

[,1]	carb	numeric	Carbohydrate (ml)
[,2]	optden	numeric	Optical Density

Source

Bennett, N. A. and N. L. Franklin (1954) *Statistical Analysis in Chemistry and the Chemical Industry*. New York: Wiley.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
plot(optden ~ carb, data = Formaldehyde,
      xlab = "Carbohydrate (ml)", ylab = "Optical Density",
      main = "Formaldehyde data", col = 4, las = 1)
abline(fm1 <- lm(optden ~ carb, data = Formaldehyde))
summary(fm1)
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0))
plot(fm1)
par(opar)
```

freeny

Freeny's Revenue Data

Description

Freeny's data on quarterly revenue and explanatory variables.

Usage

```
freeny
freeny.x
freeny.y
```

Format

There are three 'freeny' data sets.

freeny.y is a time series with 39 observations on quarterly revenue from (1962,2Q) to (1971,4Q).

freeny.x is a matrix of explanatory variables. The columns are freeny.y lagged 1 quarter, price index, income level, and market potential.

Finally, freeny is a data frame with variables y, lag.quarterly.revenue, price.index, income.level, and market.potential obtained from the above two data objects.

Source

A. E. Freeny (1977) *A Portable Linear Regression Package with Test Programs*. Bell Laboratories memorandum.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
summary(freeny)
pairs(freeny, main = "freeny data")
# gives warning: freeny$y has class "ts"

summary(fm1 <- lm(y ~ ., data = freeny))
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0),
            mar = c(4.1, 4.1, 2.1, 1.1))
plot(fm1)
par(opar)
```

HairEyeColor

Hair and Eye Color of Statistics Students

Description

Distribution of hair and eye color and sex in 592 statistics students.

Usage

```
HairEyeColor
```

Format

A 3-dimensional array resulting from cross-tabulating 592 observations on 3 variables. The variables and their levels are as follows:

No	Name	Levels
1	Hair	Black, Brown, Red, Blond
2	Eye	Brown, Blue, Hazel, Green
3	Sex	Male, Female

Details

The Hair \times Eye table comes from a survey of students at the University of Delaware reported by Snee (1974). The split by Sex was added by Friendly (1992a) for didactic purposes.

This data set is useful for illustrating various techniques for the analysis of contingency tables, such

as the standard chi-squared test or, more generally, log-linear modelling, and graphical methods such as mosaic plots, sieve diagrams or association plots.

Source

<http://euclid.psych.yorku.ca/ftp/sas/vcd/catdata/haireye.sas>

Snee (1974) gives the two-way table aggregated over Sex. The Sex split of the ‘Brown hair, Brown eye’ cell was changed to agree with that used by Friendly (2000).

References

Snee, R. D. (1974) Graphical display of two-way contingency tables. *The American Statistician*, **28**, 9–12.

Friendly, M. (1992a) Graphical methods for categorical data. *SAS User Group International Conference Proceedings*, **17**, 190–200. <http://www.math.yorku.ca/SCS/sugi/sugi17-paper.html>

Friendly, M. (1992b) Mosaic displays for loglinear models. *Proceedings of the Statistical Graphics Section*, American Statistical Association, pp. 61–68. <http://www.math.yorku.ca/SCS/Papers/asa92.html>

Friendly, M. (2000) *Visualizing Categorical Data*. SAS Institute, ISBN 1-58025-660-0.

See Also

[chisq.test](#), [loglin](#), [mosaicplot](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)
## Full mosaic
mosaicplot(HairEyeColor)
## Aggregate over sex (as in Snee's original data)
x <- apply(HairEyeColor, c(1, 2), sum)
x
mosaicplot(x, main = "Relation between hair and eye color")
```

Harman23.cor

Harman Example 2.3

Description

A correlation matrix of eight physical measurements on 305 girls between ages seven and seventeen.

Usage

Harman23.cor

Source

Harman, H. H. (1976) *Modern Factor Analysis*, Third Edition Revised, University of Chicago Press, Table 2.3.

Examples

```
require(stats)
(Harman23.FA <- factanal(factors = 1, covmat = Harman23.cor))
for(factors in 2:4) print(update(Harman23.FA, factors = factors))
```

Harman74.cor

Harman Example 7.4

Description

A correlation matrix of 24 psychological tests given to 145 seventh and eight-grade children in a Chicago suburb by Holzinger and Swineford.

Usage

```
Harman74.cor
```

Source

Harman, H. H. (1976) *Modern Factor Analysis*, Third Edition Revised, University of Chicago Press, Table 7.4.

Examples

```
require(stats)
(Harman74.FA <- factanal(factors = 1, covmat = Harman74.cor))
for(factors in 2:5) print(update(Harman74.FA, factors = factors))
Harman74.FA <- factanal(factors = 5, covmat = Harman74.cor,
                        rotation = "promax")
print(Harman74.FA$loadings, sort = TRUE)
```

Indometh

Pharmacokinetics of Indomethacin

Description

The Indometh data frame has 66 rows and 3 columns of data on the pharmacokinetics of indometacin (or, older spelling, ‘indomethacin’).

Usage

```
Indometh
```


Format

An object of class `c("nfnGroupedData", "nfGroupedData", "groupedData", "data.frame")` containing the following columns:

Subject an ordered factor with containing the subject codes. The ordering is according to increasing maximum response.

time a numeric vector of times at which blood samples were drawn (hr).

conc a numeric vector of plasma concentrations of indometacin (mcg/ml).

Details

Each of the six subjects were given an intravenous injection of indometacin.

This dataset was originally part of package `nlme`, and that has methods (including for `[], as.data.frame, plot` and `print`) for its grouped-data classes.

Source

Kwan, Breault, Umbenhauer, McMahon and Duggan (1976) Kinetics of Indomethacin absorption, elimination, and enterohepatic circulation in man. *Journal of Pharmacokinetics and Biopharmaceutics* **4**, 255–280.

Davidian, M. and Giltinan, D. M. (1995) *Nonlinear Models for Repeated Measurement Data*, Chapman & Hall (section 5.2.4, p. 129)

Pinheiro, J. C. and Bates, D. M. (2000) *Mixed-effects Models in S and S-PLUS*, Springer.

See Also

[SSbiexp](#) for models fitted to this dataset.

infert

Infertility after Spontaneous and Induced Abortion

Description

This is a matched case-control study dating from before the availability of conditional logistic regression.

Usage

infert

Format

1.	Education	0 = 0-5 years 1 = 6-11 years 2 = 12+ years
2.	age	age in years of case
3.	parity	count
4.	number of prior induced abortions	0 = 0 1 = 1 2 = 2 or more
5.	case status	1 = case 0 = control
6.	number of prior spontaneous abortions	0 = 0 1 = 1 2 = 2 or more
7.	matched set number	1-83
8.	stratum number	1-63

Note

One case with two prior spontaneous abortions and two prior induced abortions is omitted.

Source

Trichopoulos *et al* (1976) *Br. J. of Obst. and Gynaec.* **83**, 645–650.

Examples

```
require(stats)
model1 <- glm(case ~ spontaneous+induced, data = infert, family = binomial())
summary(model1)
## adjusted for other potential confounders:
summary(model2 <- glm(case ~ age+parity+education+spontaneous+induced,
  data = infert, family = binomial()))
## Really should be analysed by conditional logistic regression
## which is in the survival package
if(require(survival)){
  model3 <- clogit(case ~ spontaneous+induced+strata(stratum), data = infert)
  print(summary(model3))
  detach() # survival (conflicts)
}
```

InsectSprays	<i>Effectiveness of Insect Sprays</i>
--------------	---------------------------------------

Description

The counts of insects in agricultural experimental units treated with different insecticides.

Usage

InsectSprays

Format

A data frame with 72 observations on 2 variables.

[,1]	count	numeric	Insect count
[,2]	spray	factor	The type of spray

Source

Beall, G., (1942) The Transformation of data from entomological field experiments, *Biometrika*, **29**, 243–262.

References

McNeil, D. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
boxplot(count ~ spray, data = InsectSprays,
        xlab = "Type of spray", ylab = "Insect count",
        main = "InsectSprays data", varwidth = TRUE, col = "lightgray")
fm1 <- aov(count ~ spray, data = InsectSprays)
summary(fm1)
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0))
plot(fm1)
fm2 <- aov(sqrt(count) ~ spray, data = InsectSprays)
summary(fm2)
plot(fm2)
par(opar)
```

iris	<i>Edgar Anderson’s Iris Data</i>
------	-----------------------------------

Description

This famous (Fisher's or Anderson's) iris data set gives the measurements in centimeters of the variables sepal length and width and petal length and width, respectively, for 50 flowers from each of 3 species of iris. The species are *Iris setosa*, *versicolor*, and *virginica*.

Usage

```
iris  
iris3
```

Format

`iris` is a data frame with 150 cases (rows) and 5 variables (columns) named `Sepal.Length`, `Sepal.Width`, `Petal.Length`, `Petal.Width`, and `Species`.

`iris3` gives the same data arranged as a 3-dimensional array of size 50 by 4 by 3, as represented by S-PLUS. The first dimension gives the case number within the species subsample, the second the measurements with names `Sepal L.`, `Sepal W.`, `Petal L.`, and `Petal W.`, and the third the species.

Source

Fisher, R. A. (1936) The use of multiple measurements in taxonomic problems. *Annals of Eugenics*, 7, Part II, 179–188.

The data were collected by Anderson, Edgar (1935). The irises of the Gaspé Peninsula, *Bulletin of the American Iris Society*, 59, 2–5.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (has `iris3` as `iris`.)

See Also

[matplot](#) some examples of which use `iris`.

Examples

```
dni3 <- dimnames(iris3)  
ii <- data.frame(matrix(aperm(iris3, c(1,3,2)), ncol = 4,  
                           dimnames = list(NULL, sub(" L.", ".Length",  
                                                     sub(" W.", ".Width", dni3[[2]]))),  
                  Species = gl(3, 50, labels = sub("S", "s", sub("V", "v", dni3[[3]]))))  
all.equal(ii, iris) # TRUE
```

islands	<i>Areas of the World's Major Landmasses</i>
---------	--

Description

The areas in thousands of square miles of the landmasses which exceed 10,000 square miles.

Usage

islands

Format

A named vector of length 48.

Source

The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1975, page 406.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
dotchart(log(islands, 10),
  main = "islands data: log10(area) (log10(sq. miles))")
dotchart(log(islands[order(islands)], 10),
  main = "islands data: log10(area) (log10(sq. miles))")
```

JohnsonJohnson	<i>Quarterly Earnings per Johnson & Johnson Share</i>
----------------	---

Description

Quarterly earnings (dollars) per Johnson & Johnson share 1960–80.

Usage

JohnsonJohnson

Format

A quarterly time series

Source

Shumway, R. H. and Stoffer, D. S. (2000) *Time Series Analysis and its Applications*. Second Edition. Springer. Example 1.1.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
JJ <- log10(JohnsonJohnson)
plot(JJ)
## This example gives a possible-non-convergence warning on some
## platforms, but does seem to converge on x86 Linux and Windows.
(fit <- StructTS(JJ, type = "BSM"))
tsdiag(fit)
sm <- tsSmooth(fit)
plot(cbind(JJ, sm[, 1], sm[, 3]-0.5), plot.type = "single",
     col = c("black", "green", "blue"))
abline(h = -0.5, col = "grey60")

monthplot(fit)
```

LakeHuron

Level of Lake Huron 1875–1972

Description

Annual measurements of the level, in feet, of Lake Huron 1875–1972.

Usage

LakeHuron

Format

A time series of length 98.

Source

Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1991). *Time Series and Forecasting Methods*. Second edition. Springer, New York. Series A, page 555.

Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1996). *Introduction to Time Series and Forecasting*. Springer, New York. Sections 5.1 and 7.6.

1h	<i>Luteinizing Hormone in Blood Samples</i>
----	---

Description

A regular time series giving the luteinizing hormone in blood samples at 10 mins intervals from a human female, 48 samples.

Usage

1h

Source

P.J. Diggle (1990) *Time Series: A Biostatistical Introduction*. Oxford, table A.1, series 3

LifeCycleSavings	<i>Intercountry Life-Cycle Savings Data</i>
------------------	---

Description

Data on the savings ratio 1960–1970.

Usage

LifeCycleSavings

Format

A data frame with 50 observations on 5 variables.

[,1]	sr	numeric	aggregate personal savings
[,2]	pop15	numeric	% of population under 15
[,3]	pop75	numeric	% of population over 75
[,4]	dpi	numeric	real per-capita disposable income
[,5]	ddpi	numeric	% growth rate of dpi

Details

Under the life-cycle savings hypothesis as developed by Franco Modigliani, the savings ratio (aggregate personal saving divided by disposable income) is explained by per-capita disposable income, the percentage rate of change in per-capita disposable income, and two demographic variables: the percentage of population less than 15 years old and the percentage of the population over 75 years old. The data are averaged over the decade 1960–1970 to remove the business cycle or other short-term fluctuations.

Source

The data were obtained from Belsley, Kuh and Welsch (1980). They in turn obtained the data from Sterling (1977).

References

Sterling, Arnie (1977) Unpublished BS Thesis. Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Belsley, D. A., Kuh, E. and Welsch, R. E. (1980) *Regression Diagnostics*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
pairs(LifeCycleSavings, panel = panel.smooth,
      main = "LifeCycleSavings data")
fm1 <- lm(sr ~ pop15 + pop75 + dpi + ddpi, data = LifeCycleSavings)
summary(fm1)
```

Loblolly

Growth of Loblolly pine trees

Description

The Loblolly data frame has 84 rows and 3 columns of records of the growth of Loblolly pine trees.

Usage

```
Loblolly
```

Format

An object of class `c("nfnGroupedData", "nfGroupedData", "groupedData", "data.frame")` containing the following columns:

height a numeric vector of tree heights (ft).

age a numeric vector of tree ages (yr).

Seed an ordered factor indicating the seed source for the tree. The ordering is according to increasing maximum height.

Details

This dataset was originally part of package `nlme`, and that has methods (including for `[`, `as.data.frame`, `plot` and `print`) for its grouped-data classes.

Source

Kung, F. H. (1986), Fitting logistic growth curve with predetermined carrying capacity, in *Proceedings of the Statistical Computing Section, American Statistical Association*, 340–343.

Pinheiro, J. C. and Bates, D. M. (2000) *Mixed-effects Models in S and S-PLUS*, Springer.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
plot(height ~ age, data = Loblolly, subset = Seed == 329,
      xlab = "Tree age (yr)", las = 1,
      ylab = "Tree height (ft)",
      main = "Loblolly data and fitted curve (Seed 329 only)")
fm1 <- nls(height ~ SSasym(age, Asym, R0, lrc),
          data = Loblolly, subset = Seed == 329)
age <- seq(0, 30, length.out = 101)
lines(age, predict(fm1, list(age = age)))
```

longley

Longley's Economic Regression Data

Description

A macroeconomic data set which provides a well-known example for a highly collinear regression.

Usage

```
longley
```

Format

A data frame with 7 economical variables, observed yearly from 1947 to 1962 ($n = 16$).

GNP.deflator GNP implicit price deflator (1954 = 100)

GNP Gross National Product.

Unemployed number of unemployed.

Armed.Forces number of people in the armed forces.

Population 'noninstitutionalized' population ≥ 14 years of age.

Year the year (time).

Employed number of people employed.

The regression `lm(Employed ~ .)` is known to be highly collinear.

Source

J. W. Longley (1967) An appraisal of least-squares programs from the point of view of the user. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* **62**, 819–841.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
## give the data set in the form it is used in S-PLUS:
longley.x <- data.matrix(longley[, 1:6])
longley.y <- longley[, "Employed"]
pairs(longley, main = "longley data")
summary(fm1 <- lm(Employed ~ ., data = longley))
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0),
            mar = c(4.1, 4.1, 2.1, 1.1))
plot(fm1)
par(opar)
```

lynx

Annual Canadian Lynx trappings 1821–1934

Description

Annual numbers of lynx trappings for 1821–1934 in Canada. Taken from Brockwell & Davis (1991), this appears to be the series considered by Campbell & Walker (1977).

Usage

```
lynx
```

Source

Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1991) *Time Series and Forecasting Methods*. Second edition. Springer. Series G (page 557).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Campbell, M. J. and A. M. Walker (1977). A Survey of statistical work on the Mackenzie River series of annual Canadian lynx trappings for the years 1821–1934 and a new analysis. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society series A*, **140**, 411–431.

morley

Michelson Speed of Light Data

Description

A classical data of Michelson (but not this one with Morley) on measurements done in 1879 on the speed of light. The data consists of five experiments, each consisting of 20 consecutive ‘runs’. The response is the speed of light measurement, suitably coded (km/sec, with 299000 subtracted).

Usage

morley

Format

A data frame with 100 observations on the following 3 variables.

Expt The experiment number, from 1 to 5.

Run The run number within each experiment.

Speed Speed-of-light measurement.

Details

The data is here viewed as a randomized block experiment with ‘experiment’ and ‘run’ as the factors. ‘run’ may also be considered a quantitative variate to account for linear (or polynomial) changes in the measurement over the course of a single experiment.

Note

This is the same dataset as michelson in package **MASS**.

Source

A. J. Weekes (1986) *A Genstat Primer*. London: Edward Arnold.

S. M. Stigler (1977) Do robust estimators work with real data? *Annals of Statistics* **5**, 1055–1098. (See Table 6.)

A. A. Michelson (1882) Experimental determination of the velocity of light made at the United States Naval Academy, Annapolis. *Astronomic Papers* **1** 135–8. U.S. Nautical Almanac Office. (See Table 24.)

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
michelson <- transform(morley,
                        Expt = factor(Expt), Run = factor(Run))
xtabs(~ Expt + Run, data = michelson) # 5 x 20 balanced (two-way)
plot(Speed ~ Expt, data = michelson,
```

```

      main = "Speed of Light Data", xlab = "Experiment No.")
fm <- aov(Speed ~ Run + Expt, data = michelson)
summary(fm)
fm0 <- update(fm, . ~ . - Run)
anova(fm0, fm)

```

mtcars

Motor Trend Car Road Tests

Description

The data was extracted from the 1974 *Motor Trend* US magazine, and comprises fuel consumption and 10 aspects of automobile design and performance for 32 automobiles (1973–74 models).

Usage

```
mtcars
```

Format

A data frame with 32 observations on 11 variables.

[, 1]	mpg	Miles/(US) gallon
[, 2]	cyl	Number of cylinders
[, 3]	disp	Displacement (cu.in.)
[, 4]	hp	Gross horsepower
[, 5]	drat	Rear axle ratio
[, 6]	wt	Weight (1000 lbs)
[, 7]	qsec	1/4 mile time
[, 8]	vs	V/S
[, 9]	am	Transmission (0 = automatic, 1 = manual)
[,10]	gear	Number of forward gears
[,11]	carb	Number of carburetors

Source

Henderson and Velleman (1981), Building multiple regression models interactively. *Biometrics*, **37**, 391–411.

Examples

```

require(graphics)
pairs(mtcars, main = "mtcars data")
coplot(mpg ~ disp | as.factor(cyl), data = mtcars,
       panel = panel.smooth, rows = 1)

```

nhtemp

Average Yearly Temperatures in New Haven

Description

The mean annual temperature in degrees Fahrenheit in New Haven, Connecticut, from 1912 to 1971.

Usage

nhtemp

Format

A time series of 60 observations.

Source

Vaux, J. E. and Brinker, N. B. (1972) *Cycles*, **1972**, 117–121.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
plot(nhtemp, main = "nhtemp data",
     ylab = "Mean annual temperature in New Haven, CT (deg. F)")
```

Nile

Flow of the River Nile

Description

Measurements of the annual flow of the river Nile at Ashwan 1871–1970.

Usage

Nile

Format

A time series of length 100.

Source

Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press. <http://www.ssfpack.com/DKbook.html>

References

Balke, N. S. (1993) Detecting level shifts in time series. *Journal of Business and Economic Statistics* **11**, 81–92.

Cobb, G. W. (1978) The problem of the Nile: conditional solution to a change-point problem. *Biometrika* **65**, 243–51.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
par(mfrow = c(2, 2))
plot(Nile)
acf(Nile)
pacf(Nile)
ar(Nile) # selects order 2
cpgram(ar(Nile)$resid)
par(mfrow = c(1, 1))
arima(Nile, c(2, 0, 0))

## Now consider missing values, following Durbin & Koopman
NileNA <- Nile
NileNA[c(21:40, 61:80)] <- NA
arima(NileNA, c(2, 0, 0))
plot(NileNA)
pred <-
  predict(arima(window(NileNA, 1871, 1890), c(2, 0, 0)), n.ahead = 20)
lines(pred$pred, lty = 3, col = "red")
lines(pred$pred + 2*pred$se, lty = 2, col = "blue")
lines(pred$pred - 2*pred$se, lty = 2, col = "blue")
pred <-
  predict(arima(window(NileNA, 1871, 1930), c(2, 0, 0)), n.ahead = 20)
lines(pred$pred, lty = 3, col = "red")
lines(pred$pred + 2*pred$se, lty = 2, col = "blue")
lines(pred$pred - 2*pred$se, lty = 2, col = "blue")

## Structural time series models
par(mfrow = c(3, 1))
plot(Nile)
## local level model
(fit <- StructTS(Nile, type = "level"))
lines(fitted(fit), lty = 2) # contemporaneous smoothing
lines(tsSmooth(fit), lty = 2, col = 4) # fixed-interval smoothing
plot(residuals(fit)); abline(h = 0, lty = 3)
## local trend model
(fit2 <- StructTS(Nile, type = "trend")) ## constant trend fitted
pred <- predict(fit, n.ahead = 30)
## with 50% confidence interval
```

```

ts.plot(Nile, pred$pred,
        pred$pred + 0.67*pred$se, pred$pred -0.67*pred$se)

## Now consider missing values
plot(NileNA)
(fit3 <- StructTS(NileNA, type = "level"))
lines(fitted(fit3), lty = 2)
lines(tsSmooth(fit3), lty = 3)
plot(residuals(fit3)); abline(h = 0, lty = 3)

```

nottem

Average Monthly Temperatures at Nottingham, 1920–1939

Description

A time series object containing average air temperatures at Nottingham Castle in degrees Fahrenheit for 20 years.

Usage

```
nottem
```

Source

Anderson, O. D. (1976) *Time Series Analysis and Forecasting: The Box-Jenkins approach*. Butterworths. Series R.

Examples

```

require(stats); require(graphics)
nott <- window(nottem, end = c(1936,12))
fit <- arima(nott, order = c(1,0,0), list(order = c(2,1,0), period = 12))
nott.fore <- predict(fit, n.ahead = 36)
ts.plot(nott, nott.fore$pred, nott.fore$pred+2*nott.fore$se,
        nott.fore$pred-2*nott.fore$se, gpars = list(col = c(1,1,4,4)))

```

npk

Classical N, P, K Factorial Experiment

Description

A classical N, P, K (nitrogen, phosphate, potassium) factorial experiment on the growth of peas conducted on 6 blocks. Each half of a fractional factorial design confounding the NPK interaction was used on 3 of the plots.

Usage

```
npk
```

Format

The npk data frame has 24 rows and 5 columns:

block which block (label 1 to 6).

N indicator (0/1) for the application of nitrogen.

P indicator (0/1) for the application of phosphate.

K indicator (0/1) for the application of potassium.

yield Yield of peas, in pounds/plot (the plots were (1/70) acre).

Source

Imperial College, London, M.Sc. exercise sheet.

References

Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. Fourth edition. Springer.

Examples

```
options(contrasts = c("contr.sum", "contr.poly"))
npk.aov <- aov(yield ~ block + N*P*K, npk)
npk.aov
summary(npk.aov)
coef(npk.aov)
options(contrasts = c("contr.treatment", "contr.poly"))
npk.aov1 <- aov(yield ~ block + N + K, data = npk)
summary.lm(npk.aov1)
se.contrast(npk.aov1, list(N=="0", N=="1"), data = npk)
model.tables(npk.aov1, type = "means", se = TRUE)
```

occupationalStatus	<i>Occupational Status of Fathers and their Sons</i>
--------------------	--

Description

Cross-classification of a sample of British males according to each subject's occupational status and his father's occupational status.

Usage

```
occupationalStatus
```

Format

A [table](#) of counts, with classifying factors origin (father's occupational status; levels 1:8) and destination (son's occupational status; levels 1:8).

Source

Goodman, L. A. (1979) Simple Models for the Analysis of Association in Cross-Classifications having Ordered Categories. *J. Am. Stat. Assoc.*, **74** (367), 537–552.

The data set has been in package **gnm** and been provided by the package authors.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)

plot(occupationalStatus)

## Fit a uniform association model separating diagonal effects
Diag <- as.factor(diag(1:8))
Rscore <- scale(as.numeric(row(occupationalStatus)), scale = FALSE)
Cscore <- scale(as.numeric(col(occupationalStatus)), scale = FALSE)
modUnif <- glm(Freq ~ origin + destination + Diag + Rscore:Cscore,
               family = poisson, data = occupationalStatus)

summary(modUnif)
plot(modUnif) # 4 plots, with warning about h_ii ~= 1
```

Orange

Growth of Orange Trees

Description

The Orange data frame has 35 rows and 3 columns of records of the growth of orange trees.

Usage

Orange

Format

An object of class `c("nfnGroupedData", "nfGroupedData", "groupedData", "data.frame")` containing the following columns:

Tree an ordered factor indicating the tree on which the measurement is made. The ordering is according to increasing maximum diameter.

age a numeric vector giving the age of the tree (days since 1968/12/31)

circumference a numeric vector of trunk circumferences (mm). This is probably “circumference at breast height”, a standard measurement in forestry.

Details

This dataset was originally part of package `nlme`, and that has methods (including for `[`, `as.data.frame`, `plot` and `print`) for its grouped-data classes.

Source

Draper, N. R. and Smith, H. (1998), *Applied Regression Analysis (3rd ed)*, Wiley (exercise 24.N).
Pinheiro, J. C. and Bates, D. M. (2000) *Mixed-effects Models in S and S-PLUS*, Springer.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
coplot(circumference ~ age | Tree, data = Orange, show.given = FALSE)
fm1 <- nls(circumference ~ SSlogis(age, Asym, xmid, scal),
          data = Orange, subset = Tree == 3)
plot(circumference ~ age, data = Orange, subset = Tree == 3,
     xlab = "Tree age (days since 1968/12/31)",
     ylab = "Tree circumference (mm)", las = 1,
     main = "Orange tree data and fitted model (Tree 3 only)")
age <- seq(0, 1600, length.out = 101)
lines(age, predict(fm1, list(age = age)))
```

OrchardSprays	Potency of Orchard Sprays
---------------	---------------------------

Description

An experiment was conducted to assess the potency of various constituents of orchard sprays in repelling honeybees, using a Latin square design.

Usage

OrchardSprays

Format

A data frame with 64 observations on 4 variables.

[,1]	rowpos	numeric	Row of the design
[,2]	colpos	numeric	Column of the design
[,3]	treatment	factor	Treatment level
[,4]	decrease	numeric	Response

Details

Individual cells of dry comb were filled with measured amounts of lime sulphur emulsion in sucrose solution. Seven different concentrations of lime sulphur ranging from a concentration of 1/100 to 1/1,562,500 in successive factors of 1/5 were used as well as a solution containing no lime sulphur. The responses for the different solutions were obtained by releasing 100 bees into the chamber for two hours, and then measuring the decrease in volume of the solutions in the various cells.
An 8 × 8 Latin square design was used and the treatments were coded as follows:

- A highest level of lime sulphur
- B next highest level of lime sulphur
- .
- .
- .
- G lowest level of lime sulphur
- H no lime sulphur

Source

Finney, D. J. (1947) *Probit Analysis*. Cambridge.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
pairs(OrchardSprays, main = "OrchardSprays data")
```

PlantGrowth	<i>Results from an Experiment on Plant Growth</i>
-------------	---

Description

Results from an experiment to compare yields (as measured by dried weight of plants) obtained under a control and two different treatment conditions.

Usage

PlantGrowth

Format

A data frame of 30 cases on 2 variables.

[, 1]	weight	numeric
[, 2]	group	factor

The levels of group are ‘ctrl’, ‘trt1’, and ‘trt2’.

Source

Dobson, A. J. (1983) *An Introduction to Statistical Modelling*. London: Chapman and Hall.

Examples

```
## One factor ANOVA example from Dobson's book, cf. Table 7.4:
require(stats); require(graphics)
boxplot(weight ~ group, data = PlantGrowth, main = "PlantGrowth data",
        ylab = "Dried weight of plants", col = "lightgray",
        notch = TRUE, varwidth = TRUE)
anova(lm(weight ~ group, data = PlantGrowth))
```

precip

*Annual Precipitation in US Cities***Description**

The average amount of precipitation (rainfall) in inches for each of 70 United States (and Puerto Rico) cities.

Usage

```
precip
```

Format

A named vector of length 70.

Source

Statistical Abstracts of the United States, 1975.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
dotchart(precip[order(precip)], main = "precip data")
title(sub = "Average annual precipitation (in.)")
```

presidents

Quarterly Approval Ratings of US Presidents

Description

The (approximately) quarterly approval rating for the President of the United States from the first quarter of 1945 to the last quarter of 1974.

Usage

presidents

Format

A time series of 120 values.

Details

The data are actually a fudged version of the approval ratings. See McNeil's book for details.

Source

The Gallup Organisation.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
plot(presidents, las = 1, ylab = "Approval rating (%)",
     main = "presidents data")
```

pressure

Vapor Pressure of Mercury as a Function of Temperature

Description

Data on the relation between temperature in degrees Celsius and vapor pressure of mercury in millimeters (of mercury).

Usage

pressure

pressure

695

Format

A data frame with 19 observations on 2 variables.

```
[, 1] temperature numeric temperature (deg C)
[, 2] pressure      numeric pressure (mm)
```

Source

Weast, R. C., ed. (1973) *Handbook of Chemistry and Physics*. CRC Press.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
plot(pressure, xlab = "Temperature (deg C)",
     ylab = "Pressure (mm of Hg)",
     main = "pressure data: Vapor Pressure of Mercury")
plot(pressure, xlab = "Temperature (deg C)", log = "y",
     ylab = "Pressure (mm of Hg)",
     main = "pressure data: Vapor Pressure of Mercury")
```

Puromycin

Reaction Velocity of an Enzymatic Reaction

Description

The Puromycin data frame has 23 rows and 3 columns of the reaction velocity versus substrate concentration in an enzymatic reaction involving untreated cells or cells treated with Puromycin.

Usage

Puromycin

Format

This data frame contains the following columns:

conc a numeric vector of substrate concentrations (ppm)

rate a numeric vector of instantaneous reaction rates (counts/min/min)

state a factor with levels treated untreated

Details

Data on the velocity of an enzymatic reaction were obtained by Treloar (1974). The number of counts per minute of radioactive product from the reaction was measured as a function of substrate concentration in parts per million (ppm) and from these counts the initial rate (or velocity) of the reaction was calculated (counts/min/min). The experiment was conducted once with the enzyme treated with Puromycin, and once with the enzyme untreated.

Source

Bates, D.M. and Watts, D.G. (1988), *Nonlinear Regression Analysis and Its Applications*, Wiley, Appendix A1.3.

Treloar, M. A. (1974), *Effects of Puromycin on Galactosyltransferase in Golgi Membranes*, M.Sc. Thesis, U. of Toronto.

See Also

[SSmicmen](#) for other models fitted to this dataset.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)

plot(rate ~ conc, data = Puromycin, las = 1,
      xlab = "Substrate concentration (ppm)",
      ylab = "Reaction velocity (counts/min/min)",
      pch = as.integer(Puromycin$state),
      col = as.integer(Puromycin$state),
      main = "Puromycin data and fitted Michaelis-Menten curves")
## simplest form of fitting the Michaelis-Menten model to these data
fm1 <- nls(rate ~ Vm * conc/(K + conc), data = Puromycin,
           subset = state == "treated",
           start = c(Vm = 200, K = 0.05))
fm2 <- nls(rate ~ Vm * conc/(K + conc), data = Puromycin,
           subset = state == "untreated",
           start = c(Vm = 160, K = 0.05))
summary(fm1)
summary(fm2)
## add fitted lines to the plot
conc <- seq(0, 1.2, length.out = 101)
lines(conc, predict(fm1, list(conc = conc)), lty = 1, col = 1)
lines(conc, predict(fm2, list(conc = conc)), lty = 2, col = 2)
legend(0.8, 120, levels(Puromycin$state),
      col = 1:2, lty = 1:2, pch = 1:2)

## using partial linearity
fm3 <- nls(rate ~ conc/(K + conc), data = Puromycin,
           subset = state == "treated", start = c(K = 0.05),
           algorithm = "plinear")
```

quakes

Locations of Earthquakes off Fiji

Description

The data set give the locations of 1000 seismic events of $MB > 4.0$. The events occurred in a cube near Fiji since 1964.

Usage

quakes

Format

A data frame with 1000 observations on 5 variables.

[,1]	lat	numeric	Latitude of event
[,2]	long	numeric	Longitude
[,3]	depth	numeric	Depth (km)
[,4]	mag	numeric	Richter Magnitude
[,5]	stations	numeric	Number of stations reporting

Details

There are two clear planes of seismic activity. One is a major plate junction; the other is the Tonga trench off New Zealand. These data constitute a subsample from a larger dataset of containing 5000 observations.

Source

This is one of the Harvard PRIM-H project data sets. They in turn obtained it from Dr. John Woodhouse, Dept. of Geophysics, Harvard University.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
pairs(quakes, main = "Fiji Earthquakes, N = 1000", cex.main = 1.2, pch = ".")
```

randu	<i>Random Numbers from Congruential Generator RANDU</i>
-------	---

Description

400 triples of successive random numbers were taken from the VAX FORTRAN function RANDU running under VMS 1.5.

Usage

randu

Format

A data frame with 400 observations on 3 variables named x, y and z which give the first, second and third random number in the triple.

Details

In three dimensional displays it is evident that the triples fall on 15 parallel planes in 3-space. This can be shown theoretically to be true for all triples from the RANDU generator.

These particular 400 triples start 5 apart in the sequence, that is they are $((U[5i+1], U[5i+2], U[5i+3]), i=0, \dots, 399)$, and they are rounded to 6 decimal places.

Under VMS versions 2.0 and higher, this problem has been fixed.

Source

David Donoho

Examples

```
## We could re-generate the dataset by the following R code
seed <- as.double(1)
RANDU <- function() {
  seed <- ((2^16 + 3) * seed) %% (2^31)
  seed/(2^31)
}
for(i in 1:400) {
  U <- c(RANDU(), RANDU(), RANDU(), RANDU(), RANDU())
  print(round(U[1:3], 6))
}
```

rivers

Lengths of Major North American Rivers

Description

This data set gives the lengths (in miles) of 141 “major” rivers in North America, as compiled by the US Geological Survey.

Usage

rivers

Format

A vector containing 141 observations.

Source

World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1975, page 406.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

rock	<i>Measurements on Petroleum Rock Samples</i>
------	---

Description

Measurements on 48 rock samples from a petroleum reservoir.

Usage

rock

Format

A data frame with 48 rows and 4 numeric columns.

[,1]	area	area of pores space, in pixels out of 256 by 256
[,2]	peri	perimeter in pixels
[,3]	shape	perimeter/sqrt(area)
[,4]	perm	permeability in milli-Darcies

Details

Twelve core samples from petroleum reservoirs were sampled by 4 cross-sections. Each core sample was measured for permeability, and each cross-section has total area of pores, total perimeter of pores, and shape.

Source

Data from BP Research, image analysis by Ronit Katz, U. Oxford.

sleep	<i>Student's Sleep Data</i>
-------	-----------------------------

Description

Data which show the effect of two soporific drugs (increase in hours of sleep compared to control) on 10 patients.

Usage

sleep

Format

A data frame with 20 observations on 3 variables.

[, 1]	extra	numeric	increase in hours of sleep
[, 2]	group	factor	drug given
[, 3]	ID	factor	patient ID

Details

The group variable name may be misleading about the data: They represent measurements on 10 persons, not in groups.

Source

Cushny, A. R. and Peebles, A. R. (1905) The action of optical isomers: II hyoscines. *The Journal of Physiology* **32**, 501–510.

Student (1908) The probable error of the mean. *Biometrika*, **6**, 20.

References

Scheffé, Henry (1959) *The Analysis of Variance*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats)
## Student's paired t-test
with(sleep,
      t.test(extra[group == 1],
             extra[group == 2], paired = TRUE))

## The sleep *prolongations*
sleep1 <- with(sleep, extra[group == 2] - extra[group == 1])
summary(sleep1)
stripchart(sleep1, method = "stack", xlab = "hours",
           main = "Sleep prolongation (n = 10)")
boxplot(sleep1, horizontal = TRUE, add = TRUE,
        at = .6, pars = list(boxwex = 0.5, staplewex = 0.25))
```

stackloss

Brownlee's Stack Loss Plant Data

Description

Operational data of a plant for the oxidation of ammonia to nitric acid.

Usage

```
stackloss

stack.x
stack.loss
```

Format

stackloss is a data frame with 21 observations on 4 variables.

[,1]	Air Flow	Flow of cooling air
[,2]	Water Temp	Cooling Water Inlet Temperature
[,3]	Acid Conc.	Concentration of acid [per 1000, minus 500]
[,4]	stack.loss	Stack loss

For compatibility with S-PLUS, the data sets `stack.x`, a matrix with the first three (independent) variables of the data frame, and `stack.loss`, the numeric vector giving the fourth (dependent) variable, are provided as well.

Details

“Obtained from 21 days of operation of a plant for the oxidation of ammonia (NH_3) to nitric acid (HNO_3). The nitric oxides produced are absorbed in a countercurrent absorption tower”. (Brownlee, cited by Dodge, slightly reformatted by MM.)

Air Flow represents the rate of operation of the plant. Water Temp is the temperature of cooling water circulated through coils in the absorption tower. Acid Conc. is the concentration of the acid circulating, minus 50, times 10: that is, 89 corresponds to 58.9 per cent acid. stack.loss (the dependent variable) is 10 times the percentage of the ingoing ammonia to the plant that escapes from the absorption column unabsorbed; that is, an (inverse) measure of the over-all efficiency of the plant.

Source

Brownlee, K. A. (1960, 2nd ed. 1965) *Statistical Theory and Methodology in Science and Engineering*. New York: Wiley. pp. 491–500.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Dodge, Y. (1996) The guinea pig of multiple regression. In: *Robust Statistics, Data Analysis, and Computer Intensive Methods; In Honor of Peter Huber's 60th Birthday*, 1996, *Lecture Notes in Statistics* **109**, Springer-Verlag, New York.

Examples

```
require(stats)
summary(lm.stack <- lm(stack.loss ~ stack.x))
```

state

US State Facts and Figures

Description

Data sets related to the 50 states of the United States of America.

Usage

```
state.abb
state.area
state.center
state.division
state.name
state.region
state.x77
```

Details

R currently contains the following “state” data sets. Note that all data are arranged according to alphabetical order of the state names.

state.abb: character vector of 2-letter abbreviations for the state names.

state.area: numeric vector of state areas (in square miles).

state.center: list with components named x and y giving the approximate geographic center of each state in negative longitude and latitude. Alaska and Hawaii are placed just off the West Coast.

state.division: factor giving state divisions (New England, Middle Atlantic, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, East North Central, West North Central, Mountain, and Pacific).

state.name: character vector giving the full state names.

state.region: factor giving the region (Northeast, South, North Central, West) that each state belongs to.

state.x77: matrix with 50 rows and 8 columns giving the following statistics in the respective columns.

Population: population estimate as of July 1, 1975

Income: per capita income (1974)

Illiteracy: illiteracy (1970, percent of population)

Life Exp: life expectancy in years (1969–71)

Murder: murder and non-negligent manslaughter rate per 100,000 population (1976)

HS Grad: percent high-school graduates (1970)

Frost: mean number of days with minimum temperature below freezing (1931–1960) in capital or large city

Area: land area in square miles

Source

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1977) *Statistical Abstract of the United States*.

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1977) *County and City Data Book*.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

sunspot.month

Monthly Sunspot Data, from 1749 to "Present"

Description

Monthly numbers of sunspots, as from the World Data Center, aka SIDC. This is the version of the data that will occasionally be updated when new counts become available.

Usage

sunspot.month

Format

The univariate time series `sunspot.year` and `sunspot.month` contain 289 and 2988 observations, respectively. The objects are of class "ts".

Author(s)

R

Source

WDC-SILSO, Solar Influences Data Analysis Center (SIDC), Royal Observatory of Belgium, Av. Circulaire, 3, B-1180 BRUSSELS Currently at <http://www.sidc.be/silso/datafiles>

See Also

`sunspot.month` is a longer version of [sunspots](#); the latter runs until 1983 and is kept fixed (for reproducibility as example dataset).

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
## Compare the monthly series
plot (sunspot.month,
      main="sunspot.month & sunspots [package'datasets']", col=2)
lines(sunspots) # -> faint differences where they overlap

## Now look at the difference :
all(tsp(sunspots)      [c(1,3)] ==
     tsp(sunspot.month)[c(1,3)]) ## Start & Periodicity are the same
n1 <- length(sunspots)
table(eq <- sunspots == sunspot.month[1:n1]) #> 132 are different !
i <- which(!eq)
rug(time(eq)[i])
s1 <- sunspots[i] ; s2 <- sunspot.month[i]
cbind(i = i, time = time(sunspots)[i], sunspots = s1, ss.month = s2,
      perc.diff = round(100*2*abs(s1-s2)/(s1+s2), 1))

## How to recreate the "old" sunspot.month (R <= 3.0.3):
.sunspot.diff <- cbind(
  i = c(1202L, 1256L, 1258L, 1301L, 1407L, 1429L, 1452L, 1455L,
        1663L, 2151L, 2329L, 2498L, 2594L, 2694L, 2819L),
  res10 = c(1L, 1L, 1L, -1L, -1L, -1L, 1L, -1L,
            1L, 1L, 1L, 1L, 1L, 20L, 1L))
ssm0 <- sunspot.month[1:2988]
with(as.data.frame(.sunspot.diff), ssm0[i] <- ssm0[i] - res10/10)
sunspot.month.0 <- ts(ssm0, start = 1749, frequency = 12)
```

sunspot.year	<i>Yearly Sunspot Data, 1700–1988</i>
--------------	---------------------------------------

Description

Yearly numbers of sunspots from 1700 to 1988 (rounded to one digit).

Note that monthly numbers are available as [sunspot.month](#), though starting slightly later.

Usage

```
sunspot.year
```

Format

The univariate time series `sunspot.year` contains 289 observations, and is of class "ts".

Source

H. Tong (1996) *Non-Linear Time Series*. Clarendon Press, Oxford, p. 471.

See Also

For *monthly* sunspot numbers, see [sunspot.month](#) and [sunspots](#).

Regularly updated yearly sunspot numbers are available from WDC-SILSO, Royal Observatory of Belgium, at <http://www.sidc.be/silso/datafiles>

Examples

```
utils::str(sm <- sunspots)# the monthly version we keep unchanged
utils::str(sy <- sunspot.year)
## The common time interval
(t1 <- c(max(start(sm), start(sy)), 1)) # Jan 1749
(t2 <- c(min( end(sm)[1],end(sy)[1]), 12)) # Dec 1983
s.m <- window(sm, start=t1, end=t2)
s.y <- window(sy, start=t1, end=t2[1]) # {irrelevant warning}
stopifnot(length(s.y) * 12 == length(s.m),
          ## The yearly series *is* close to the averages of the monthly one:
          all.equal(s.y, aggregate(s.m, FUN = mean), tol = 0.0020))
## NOTE: Strangely, correctly weighting the number of days per month
##       (using 28.25 for February) is *not* closer than the simple mean:
ndays <- c(31, 28.25, rep(c(31,30, 31,30, 31), 2))
all.equal(s.y, aggregate(s.m, FUN = mean)) # 0.0013
all.equal(s.y, aggregate(s.m, FUN = weighted.mean, w = ndays)) # 0.0017
```

sunspots

Monthly Sunspot Numbers, 1749–1983

Description

Monthly mean relative sunspot numbers from 1749 to 1983. Collected at Swiss Federal Observatory, Zurich until 1960, then Tokyo Astronomical Observatory.

Usage

sunspots

Format

A time series of monthly data from 1749 to 1983.

Source

Andrews, D. F. and Herzberg, A. M. (1985) *Data: A Collection of Problems from Many Fields for the Student and Research Worker*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

See Also

[sunspot.month](#) has a longer (and a bit different) series, [sunspot.year](#) is a much shorter one. See there for getting more current sunspot numbers.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
plot(sunspots, main = "sunspots data", xlab = "Year",
     ylab = "Monthly sunspot numbers")
```

swiss

Swiss Fertility and Socioeconomic Indicators (1888) Data

Description

Standardized fertility measure and socio-economic indicators for each of 47 French-speaking provinces of Switzerland at about 1888.

Usage

```
swiss
```

Format

A data frame with 47 observations on 6 variables, *each* of which is in percent, i.e., in $[0, 100]$.

[,1]	Fertility	I_g , ‘common standardized fertility measure’
[,2]	Agriculture	% of males involved in agriculture as occupation
[,3]	Examination	% draftees receiving highest mark on army examination
[,4]	Education	% education beyond primary school for draftees.
[,5]	Catholic	% ‘catholic’ (as opposed to ‘protestant’).
[,6]	Infant.Mortality	live births who live less than 1 year.

All variables but ‘Fertility’ give proportions of the population.

Details

(paraphrasing Mosteller and Tukey):

Switzerland, in 1888, was entering a period known as the *demographic transition*; i.e., its fertility was beginning to fall from the high level typical of underdeveloped countries.

The data collected are for 47 French-speaking “provinces” at about 1888.

Here, all variables are scaled to $[0, 100]$, where in the original, all but “Catholic” were scaled to $[0, 1]$.

Note

Files for all 182 districts in 1888 and other years have been available at <https://opr.princeton.edu/archive/pefp/switz.aspx>.

They state that variables Examination and Education are averages for 1887, 1888 and 1889.

Source

Project “16P5”, pages 549–551 in

Mosteller, F. and Tukey, J. W. (1977) *Data Analysis and Regression: A Second Course in Statistics*. Addison-Wesley, Reading Mass.

indicating their source as “Data used by permission of Franice van de Walle. Office of Population Research, Princeton University, 1976. Unpublished data assembled under NICHD contract number No 1-HD-O-2077.”

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
pairs(swiss, panel = panel.smooth, main = "swiss data",
      col = 3 + (swiss$Catholic > 50))
summary(lm(Fertility ~ . , data = swiss))
```

Theoph

Pharmacokinetics of Theophylline

Description

The Theoph data frame has 132 rows and 5 columns of data from an experiment on the pharmacokinetics of theophylline.

Usage

Theoph

Format

An object of class `c("nfnGroupedData", "nfGroupedData", "groupedData", "data.frame")` containing the following columns:

Subject an ordered factor with levels 1, ..., 12 identifying the subject on whom the observation was made. The ordering is by increasing maximum concentration of theophylline observed.

Wt weight of the subject (kg).

Dose dose of theophylline administered orally to the subject (mg/kg).

Time time since drug administration when the sample was drawn (hr).

conc theophylline concentration in the sample (mg/L).

Details

Boeckmann, Sheiner and Beal (1994) report data from a study by Dr. Robert Upton of the kinetics of the anti-asthmatic drug theophylline. Twelve subjects were given oral doses of theophylline then serum concentrations were measured at 11 time points over the next 25 hours.

These data are analyzed in Davidian and Giltinan (1995) and Pinheiro and Bates (2000) using a two-compartment open pharmacokinetic model, for which a self-starting model function, `SSfol`, is available.

This dataset was originally part of package `nlme`, and that has methods (including for `[, as.data.frame, plot` and `print`) for its grouped-data classes.

Source

Boeckmann, A. J., Sheiner, L. B. and Beal, S. L. (1994), *NONMEM Users Guide: Part V*, NONMEM Project Group, University of California, San Francisco.

Davidian, M. and Giltinan, D. M. (1995) *Nonlinear Models for Repeated Measurement Data*, Chapman & Hall (section 5.5, p. 145 and section 6.6, p. 176)

Pinheiro, J. C. and Bates, D. M. (2000) *Mixed-effects Models in S and S-PLUS*, Springer (Appendix A.29)

See Also

[SSfol](#)

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)

coplot(conc ~ Time | Subject, data = Theoph, show.given = FALSE)
Theoph.4 <- subset(Theoph, Subject == 4)
fm1 <- nls(conc ~ SSfol(Dose, Time, lKe, lKa, lCl),
           data = Theoph.4)
summary(fm1)
plot(conc ~ Time, data = Theoph.4,
     xlab = "Time since drug administration (hr)",
     ylab = "Theophylline concentration (mg/L)",
     main = "Observed concentrations and fitted model",
     sub = "Theophylline data - Subject 4 only",
     las = 1, col = 4)
xvals <- seq(0, par("usr")[2], length.out = 55)
lines(xvals, predict(fm1, newdata = list(Time = xvals)),
      col = 4)
```

Titanic

*Survival of passengers on the Titanic***Description**

This data set provides information on the fate of passengers on the fatal maiden voyage of the ocean liner ‘Titanic’, summarized according to economic status (class), sex, age and survival.

Usage

Titanic

Format

A 4-dimensional array resulting from cross-tabulating 2201 observations on 4 variables. The variables and their levels are as follows:

No	Name	Levels
1	Class	1st, 2nd, 3rd, Crew
2	Sex	Male, Female
3	Age	Child, Adult
4	Survived	No, Yes

Details

The sinking of the Titanic is a famous event, and new books are still being published about it. Many well-known facts—from the proportions of first-class passengers to the ‘women and children first’ policy, and the fact that that policy was not entirely successful in saving the women and children in the third class—are reflected in the survival rates for various classes of passenger.

These data were originally collected by the British Board of Trade in their investigation of the sinking. Note that there is not complete agreement among primary sources as to the exact numbers on board, rescued, or lost.

Due in particular to the very successful film ‘Titanic’, the last years saw a rise in public interest in the Titanic. Very detailed data about the passengers is now available on the Internet, at sites such as *Encyclopedia Titanica* (<http://www.rmp1c.co.uk/eduweb/sites/phind>).

Source

Dawson, Robert J. MacG. (1995), The ‘Unusual Episode’ Data Revisited. *Journal of Statistics Education*, 3. <https://www.amstat.org/publications/jse/v3n3/datasets.dawson.html>

The source provides a data set recording class, sex, age, and survival status for each person on board of the Titanic, and is based on data originally collected by the British Board of Trade and reprinted in:

British Board of Trade (1990), *Report on the Loss of the ‘Titanic’ (S.S.)*. British Board of Trade Inquiry Report (reprint). Gloucester, UK: Allan Sutton Publishing.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
mosaicplot(Titanic, main = "Survival on the Titanic")
## Higher survival rates in children?
apply(Titanic, c(3, 4), sum)
## Higher survival rates in females?
apply(Titanic, c(2, 4), sum)
## Use loglm() in package 'MASS' for further analysis ...
```

ToothGrowth

The Effect of Vitamin C on Tooth Growth in Guinea Pigs

Description

The response is the length of odontoblasts (cells responsible for tooth growth) in 60 guinea pigs. Each animal received one of three dose levels of vitamin C (0.5, 1, and 2 mg/day) by one of two delivery methods, (orange juice or ascorbic acid (a form of vitamin C and coded as VC).

Usage

```
ToothGrowth
```

Format

A data frame with 60 observations on 3 variables.

[,1]	len	numeric	Tooth length
[,2]	supp	factor	Supplement type (VC or OJ).
[,3]	dose	numeric	Dose in milligrams/day

Source

C. I. Bliss (1952) *The Statistics of Bioassay*. Academic Press.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Crampton, E. W. (1947) The growth of the odontoblast of the incisor teeth as a criterion of vitamin C intake of the guinea pig. *The Journal of Nutrition* **33**(5): 491–504. <http://jn.nutrition.org/content/33/5/491.full.pdf>

Examples

```
require(graphics)
coplot(len ~ dose | supp, data = ToothGrowth, panel = panel.smooth,
       xlab = "ToothGrowth data: length vs dose, given type of supplement")
```

treering	<i>Yearly Treering Data, -6000–1979</i>
----------	---

Description

Contains normalized tree-ring widths in dimensionless units.

Usage

treering

Format

A univariate time series with 7981 observations. The object is of class "ts".

Each tree ring corresponds to one year.

Details

The data were recorded by Donald A. Graybill, 1980, from Gt Basin Bristlecone Pine 2805M, 3726-11810 in Methuselah Walk, California.

Source

Time Series Data Library: <http://www-personal.buseco.monash.edu.au/~hyndman/TSDL/>, series 'CA535.DAT'

References

For some photos of Methuselah Walk see <http://www.ltrr.arizona.edu/~hallman/sitephotos/meth.html>

trees	<i>Girth, Height and Volume for Black Cherry Trees</i>
-------	--

Description

This data set provides measurements of the girth, height and volume of timber in 31 felled black cherry trees. Note that girth is the diameter of the tree (in inches) measured at 4 ft 6 in above the ground.

Usage

trees

Format

A data frame with 31 observations on 3 variables.

[,1]	Girth	numeric	Tree diameter in inches
[,2]	Height	numeric	Height in ft
[,3]	Volume	numeric	Volume of timber in cubic ft

Source

Ryan, T. A., Joiner, B. L. and Ryan, B. F. (1976) *The Minitab Student Handbook*. Duxbury Press.

References

Atkinson, A. C. (1985) *Plots, Transformations and Regression*. Oxford University Press.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
pairs(trees, panel = panel.smooth, main = "trees data")
plot(Volume ~ Girth, data = trees, log = "xy")
coplot(log(Volume) ~ log(Girth) | Height, data = trees,
       panel = panel.smooth)
summary(fm1 <- lm(log(Volume) ~ log(Girth), data = trees))
summary(fm2 <- update(fm1, ~ . + log(Height), data = trees))
step(fm2)
## i.e., Volume ~ c * Height * Girth^2  seems reasonable
```

UCBAdmissions	<i>Student Admissions at UC Berkeley</i>
---------------	--

Description

Aggregate data on applicants to graduate school at Berkeley for the six largest departments in 1973 classified by admission and sex.

Usage

UCBAdmissions

Format

A 3-dimensional array resulting from cross-tabulating 4526 observations on 3 variables. The variables and their levels are as follows:

No	Name	Levels
1	Admit	Admitted, Rejected
2	Gender	Male, Female
3	Dept	A, B, C, D, E, F

Details

This data set is frequently used for illustrating Simpson's paradox, see Bickel *et al* (1975). At issue is whether the data show evidence of sex bias in admission practices. There were 2691 male applicants, of whom 1198 (44.5%) were admitted, compared with 1835 female applicants of whom 557 (30.4%) were admitted. This gives a sample odds ratio of 1.83, indicating that males were almost twice as likely to be admitted. In fact, graphical methods (as in the example below) or log-linear modelling show that the apparent association between admission and sex stems from differences in the tendency of males and females to apply to the individual departments (females used to apply *more* to departments with higher rejection rates).

This data set can also be used for illustrating methods for graphical display of categorical data, such as the general-purpose [mosaicplot](#) or the [fourfoldplot](#) for 2-by-2-by- k tables.

References

Bickel, P. J., Hammel, E. A., and O'Connell, J. W. (1975) Sex bias in graduate admissions: Data from Berkeley. *Science*, **187**, 398–403.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
## Data aggregated over departments
apply(UCBAdmissions, c(1, 2), sum)
mosaicplot(apply(UCBAdmissions, c(1, 2), sum),
            main = "Student admissions at UC Berkeley")
## Data for individual departments
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 3), oma = c(0, 0, 2, 0))
for(i in 1:6)
  mosaicplot(UCBAdmissions[, , i],
             xlab = "Admit", ylab = "Sex",
             main = paste("Department", LETTERS[i]))
mtext(expression(bold("Student admissions at UC Berkeley")),
        outer = TRUE, cex = 1.5)
par(opar)
```

UKDriverDeaths

Road Casualties in Great Britain 1969–84

Description

UKDriverDeaths is a time series giving the monthly totals of car drivers in Great Britain killed or seriously injured Jan 1969 to Dec 1984. Compulsory wearing of seat belts was introduced on 31 Jan 1983.

Seatbelts is more information on the same problem.

Usage

```
UKDriverDeaths
Seatbelts
```

Format

Seatbelts is a multiple time series, with columns

DriversKilled car drivers killed.

drivers same as UKDriverDeaths.

front front-seat passengers killed or seriously injured.

rear rear-seat passengers killed or seriously injured.

kms distance driven.

PetrolPrice petrol price.

VanKilled number of van ('light goods vehicle') drivers.

law 0/1: was the law in effect that month?

Source

Harvey, A.C. (1989) *Forecasting, Structural Time Series Models and the Kalman Filter*. Cambridge University Press, pp. 519–523.

Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press. <http://www.ssfpack.com/dkbook/>

References

Harvey, A. C. and Durbin, J. (1986) The effects of seat belt legislation on British road casualties: A case study in structural time series modelling. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society series B*, **149**, 187–227.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
## work with pre-seatbelt period to identify a model, use logs
work <- window(log10(UKDriverDeaths), end = 1982+11/12)
par(mfrow = c(3, 1))
plot(work); acf(work); pacf(work)
par(mfrow = c(1, 1))
(fit <- arima(work, c(1, 0, 0), seasonal = list(order = c(1, 0, 0))))
z <- predict(fit, n.ahead = 24)
ts.plot(log10(UKDriverDeaths), z$pred, z$pred+2*z$se, z$pred-2*z$se,
        lty = c(1, 3, 2, 2), col = c("black", "red", "blue", "blue"))

## now see the effect of the explanatory variables
X <- Seatbelts[, c("kms", "PetrolPrice", "law")]
X[, 1] <- log10(X[, 1]) - 4
arima(log10(Seatbelts[, "drivers"]), c(1, 0, 0),
      seasonal = list(order = c(1, 0, 0)), xreg = X)
```

UKgas

UK Quarterly Gas Consumption

Description

Quarterly UK gas consumption from 1960Q1 to 1986Q4, in millions of therms.

Usage

UKgas

Format

A quarterly time series of length 108.

Source

Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press. <http://www.ssfpack.com/dkbook/>

Examples

```
## maybe str(UKgas) ; plot(UKgas) ...
```

UKLungDeaths

Monthly Deaths from Lung Diseases in the UK

Description

Three time series giving the monthly deaths from bronchitis, emphysema and asthma in the UK, 1974–1979, both sexes (ldeaths), males (mdeaths) and females (fdeaths).

Usage

```
ldeaths
fdeaths
mdeaths
```

Source

P. J. Diggle (1990) *Time Series: A Biostatistical Introduction*. Oxford, table A.3

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics) # for time
plot(ldeaths)
plot(mdeaths, fdeaths)
## Better labels:
yr <- floor(tt <- time(mdeaths))
plot(mdeaths, fdeaths,
      xy.labels = paste(month.abb[12*(tt - yr)], yr-1900, sep = ""))
```

USAccDeaths	<i>Accidental Deaths in the US 1973–1978</i>
-------------	--

Description

A time series giving the monthly totals of accidental deaths in the USA. The values for the first six months of 1979 are 7798 7406 8363 8460 9217 9316.

Usage

```
USAccDeaths
```

Source

P. J. Brockwell and R. A. Davis (1991) *Time Series: Theory and Methods*. Springer, New York.

USArrests	<i>Violent Crime Rates by US State</i>
-----------	--

Description

This data set contains statistics, in arrests per 100,000 residents for assault, murder, and rape in each of the 50 US states in 1973. Also given is the percent of the population living in urban areas.

Usage

```
USArrests
```

Format

A data frame with 50 observations on 4 variables.

[,1]	Murder	numeric	Murder arrests (per 100,000)
[,2]	Assault	numeric	Assault arrests (per 100,000)
[,3]	UrbanPop	numeric	Percent urban population
[,4]	Rape	numeric	Rape arrests (per 100,000)

Source

World Almanac and Book of facts 1975. (Crime rates).
Statistical Abstracts of the United States 1975. (Urban rates).

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

See Also

The [state](#) data sets.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
pairs(USArrests, panel = panel.smooth, main = "USArrests data")
```

USJudgeRatings	<i>Lawyers' Ratings of State Judges in the US Superior Court</i>
----------------	--

Description

Lawyers' ratings of state judges in the US Superior Court.

Usage

USJudgeRatings

Format

A data frame containing 43 observations on 12 numeric variables.

[,1]	CONT	Number of contacts of lawyer with judge.
[,2]	INTG	Judicial integrity.
[,3]	DMNR	Demeanor.
[,4]	DILG	Diligence.
[,5]	CFMG	Case flow managing.
[,6]	DECI	Prompt decisions.
[,7]	PREP	Preparation for trial.
[,8]	FAMI	Familiarity with law.
[,9]	ORAL	Sound oral rulings.
[,10]	WRIT	Sound written rulings.
[,11]	PHYS	Physical ability.
[,12]	RTEN	Worthy of retention.

Source

New Haven Register, 14 January, 1977 (from John Hartigan).

Examples

```
require(graphics)
pairs(USJudgeRatings, main = "USJudgeRatings data")
```

USPersonalExpenditure *Personal Expenditure Data*

Description

This data set consists of United States personal expenditures (in billions of dollars) in the categories; food and tobacco, household operation, medical and health, personal care, and private education for the years 1940, 1945, 1950, 1955 and 1960.

Usage

USPersonalExpenditure

Format

A matrix with 5 rows and 5 columns.

Source

The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1962, page 756.

References

Tukey, J. W. (1977) *Exploratory Data Analysis*. Addison-Wesley.
McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats) # for medpolish
USPersonalExpenditure
medpolish(log10(USPersonalExpenditure))
```

 uspop

Populations Recorded by the US Census

Description

This data set gives the population of the United States (in millions) as recorded by the decennial census for the period 1790–1970.

Usage

uspop

Format

A time series of 19 values.

Source

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
plot(uspop, log = "y", main = "uspop data", xlab = "Year",
     ylab = "U.S. Population (millions)")
```

VADeaths

Death Rates in Virginia (1940)

Description

Death rates per 1000 in Virginia in 1940.

Usage

VADeaths

Format

A matrix with 5 rows and 4 columns.

Details

The death rates are measured per 1000 population per year. They are cross-classified by age group (rows) and population group (columns). The age groups are: 50–54, 55–59, 60–64, 65–69, 70–74 and the population groups are Rural/Male, Rural/Female, Urban/Male and Urban/Female.

This provides a rather nice 3-way analysis of variance example.

Source

Molyneaux, L., Gilliam, S. K., and Florant, L. C. (1947) Differences in Virginia death rates by color, sex, age, and rural or urban residence. *American Sociological Review*, **12**, 525–535.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. Wiley.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
n <- length(dr <- c(VADeaths))
nam <- names(VADeaths)
d.VAD <- data.frame(
  Drate = dr,
  age = rep(ordered(rownames(VADeaths)), length.out = n),
  gender = gl(2, 5, n, labels = c("M", "F")),
  site = gl(2, 10, labels = c("rural", "urban")))
coplot(Drate ~ as.numeric(age) | gender * site, data = d.VAD,
  panel = panel.smooth, xlab = "VADeaths data - Given: gender")
summary(aov.VAD <- aov(Drate ~ .^2, data = d.VAD))
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0))
plot(aov.VAD)
par(opar)
```

volcano

*Topographic Information on Auckland's Maunga Whau Volcano***Description**

Maunga Whau (Mt Eden) is one of about 50 volcanos in the Auckland volcanic field. This data set gives topographic information for Maunga Whau on a 10m by 10m grid.

Usage

```
volcano
```

Format

A matrix with 87 rows and 61 columns, rows corresponding to grid lines running east to west and columns to grid lines running south to north.

Source

Digitized from a topographic map by Ross Ihaka. These data should not be regarded as accurate.

See Also

[filled.contour](#) for a nice plot.

Examples

```
require(grDevices); require(graphics)
filled.contour(volcano, color.palette = terrain.colors, asp = 1)
title(main = "volcano data: filled contour map")
```

warpbreaks	<i>The Number of Breaks in Yarn during Weaving</i>
------------	--

Description

This data set gives the number of warp breaks per loom, where a loom corresponds to a fixed length of yarn.

Usage

```
warpbreaks
```

Format

A data frame with 54 observations on 3 variables.

[,1]	breaks	numeric	The number of breaks
[,2]	wool	factor	The type of wool (A or B)
[,3]	tension	factor	The level of tension (L, M, H)

There are measurements on 9 looms for each of the six types of warp (AL, AM, AH, BL, BM, BH).

Source

Tippett, L. H. C. (1950) *Technological Applications of Statistics*. Wiley. Page 106.

References

Tukey, J. W. (1977) *Exploratory Data Analysis*. Addison-Wesley.
McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. Wiley.

See Also

[xtabs](#) for ways to display these data as a table.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
summary(warpbreaks)
opar <- par(mfrow = c(1, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0))
plot(breaks ~ tension, data = warpbreaks, col = "lightgray",
     varwidth = TRUE, subset = wool == "A", main = "Wool A")
```

```
plot(breaks ~ tension, data = warpbreaks, col = "lightgray",
     varwidth = TRUE, subset = wool == "B", main = "Wool B")
mtext("warpbreaks data", side = 3, outer = TRUE)
par(opar)
summary(fm1 <- lm(breaks ~ wool*tension, data = warpbreaks))
anova(fm1)
```

women

Average Heights and Weights for American Women

Description

This data set gives the average heights and weights for American women aged 30–39.

Usage

```
women
```

Format

A data frame with 15 observations on 2 variables.

[,1]	height	numeric	Height (in)
[,2]	weight	numeric	Weight (lbs)

Details

The data set appears to have been taken from the American Society of Actuaries *Build and Blood Pressure Study* for some (unknown to us) earlier year.

The World Almanac notes: “The figures represent weights in ordinary indoor clothing and shoes, and heights with shoes”.

Source

The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1975.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
plot(women, xlab = "Height (in)", ylab = "Weight (lb)",
     main = "women data: American women aged 30-39")
```

WorldPhones

The World's Telephones

Description

The number of telephones in various regions of the world (in thousands).

Usage

WorldPhones

Format

A matrix with 7 rows and 8 columns. The columns of the matrix give the figures for a given region, and the rows the figures for a year.

The regions are: North America, Europe, Asia, South America, Oceania, Africa, Central America.

The years are: 1951, 1956, 1957, 1958, 1959, 1960, 1961.

Source

AT&T (1961) *The World's Telephones*.

References

McNeil, D. R. (1977) *Interactive Data Analysis*. New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
matplot(rownames(WorldPhones), WorldPhones, type = "b", log = "y",
        xlab = "Year", ylab = "Number of telephones (1000's)")
legend(1951.5, 80000, colnames(WorldPhones), col = 1:6, lty = 1:5,
       pch = rep(21, 7))
title(main = "World phones data: log scale for response")
```

WWWusage

Internet Usage per Minute

Description

A time series of the numbers of users connected to the Internet through a server every minute.

Usage

WWWusage

Format

A time series of length 100.

Source

Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press. <http://www.ssfpack.com/dkbook/>

References

Makridakis, S., Wheelwright, S. C. and Hyndman, R. J. (1998) *Forecasting: Methods and Applications*. Wiley.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
work <- diff(WWWusage)
par(mfrow = c(2, 1)); plot(WWWusage); plot(work)
## Not run:
require(stats)
aics <- matrix(, 6, 6, dimnames = list(p = 0:5, q = 0:5))
for(q in 1:5) aics[1, 1+q] <- arima(WWWusage, c(0, 1, q),
  optim.control = list(maxit = 500))$aic
for(p in 1:5)
  for(q in 0:5) aics[1+p, 1+q] <- arima(WWWusage, c(p, 1, q),
    optim.control = list(maxit = 500))$aic
round(aics - min(aics, na.rm = TRUE), 2)

## End(Not run)
```


Chapter 4

The grDevices package

grDevices-package

The R Graphics Devices and Support for Colours and Fonts

Description

Graphics devices and support for base and grid graphics

Details

This package contains functions which support both [base](#) and [grid](#) graphics.

For a complete list of functions, use `library(help = "grDevices")`.

Author(s)

R Core Team and contributors worldwide

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

adjustcolor

Adjust Colors in One or More Directions Conveniently.

Description

Adjust or modify a vector of colors by “turning knobs” on one or more coordinates in (r, g, b, α) space, typically by up or down scaling them.

Usage

```
adjustcolor(col, alpha.f = 1, red.f = 1, green.f = 1, blue.f = 1,
            offset = c(0, 0, 0, 0),
            transform = diag(c(red.f, green.f, blue.f, alpha.f)))
```

Arguments

col vector of colors, in any format that col2rgb() accepts
 alpha.f factor modifying the opacity alpha; typically in [0,1]
 red.f, green.f, blue.f factors modifying the “red-”, “green-” or “blue-”ness of the colors, respectively.
 offset
 transform

Value

a color vector of the same length as col, effectively the result of `rgb()`.

See Also

[rgb](#), [col2rgb](#). For more sophisticated color constructions: [convertColor](#)

Examples

```
## Illustrative examples :
opal <- palette("default")
stopifnot(identical(adjustcolor(1:8,      0.75),
                     adjustcolor(palette(), 0.75)))
cbind(palette(), adjustcolor(1:8, 0.75))

## alpha = 1/2 * previous alpha --> opaque colors
x <- palette(adjustcolor(palette(), 0.5))

sines <- outer(1:20, 1:4, function(x, y) sin(x / 20 * pi * y))
matplot(sines, type = "b", pch = 21:23, col = 2:5, bg = 2:5,
        main = "Using an 'opaque ('translucent') color palette")

x. <- adjustcolor(x, offset = c(0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 0), # <- "more white"
                 transform = diag(c(.7, .7, .7, 0.6)))
cbind(x, x.)
op <- par(bg = adjustcolor("goldenrod", offset = -rep(.4, 4)), xpd = NA)
plot(0:9, 0:9, type = "n", axes = FALSE, xlab = "", ylab = "",
     main = "adjustcolor() -> translucent")
text(1:8, labels = paste0(x,"++"), col = x., cex = 8)
par(op)

## and

(M <- cbind( rbind( matrix(1/3, 3, 3), 0), c(0, 0, 0, 1)))
adjustcolor(x, transform = M)

## revert to previous palette: active
palette(opal)
```

as.graphicsAnnot	<i>Coerce an Object for Graphics Annotation</i>
------------------	---

Description

Coerce an R object into a form suitable for graphics annotation.

Usage

```
as.graphicsAnnot(x)
```

Arguments

x an R object

Details

Expressions, calls and names (as used by [plotmath](#)) are passed through unchanged. All other objects with an explicit class (as determined by [is.object](#)) are coerced by [as.character](#) to character vectors.

All the **graphics** and **grid** functions which use this coerce calls and names to expressions internally.

Value

A language object or a character vector.

as.raster	<i>Create a Raster Object</i>
-----------	-------------------------------

Description

Functions to create a raster object (representing a bitmap image) and coerce other objects to a raster object.

Usage

```
is.raster(x)
as.raster(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'logical'
as.raster(x, max = 1, ...)
## S3 method for class 'numeric'
as.raster(x, max = 1, ...)
## S3 method for class 'character'
as.raster(x, max = 1, ...)
```



```
## S3 method for class 'matrix'
as.raster(x, max = 1, ...)
## S3 method for class 'array'
as.raster(x, max = 1, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	Any R object.
<code>max</code>	number giving the maximum of the color values range.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

An object of class "raster" is a matrix of colour values as given by [rgb](#) representing a bitmap image.

It is not expected that the user will need to call these functions directly; functions to render bitmap images in graphics packages will make use of the `as.raster()` function to generate a raster object from their input.

The `as.raster()` function is generic so methods can be written to convert other R objects to a raster object.

The default implementation for numeric matrices interprets scalar values on black-to-white scale.

Raster objects can be subsetted like a matrix and it is possible to assign to a subset of a raster object.

There is a method for converting a raster object to a matrix (of colour strings).

Raster objects can be compared for equality or inequality (with each other or with a colour string).

There is a [is.na](#) method which returns a logical matrix of the same dimensions as the raster object. Note that NA values are interpreted as the fully transparent colour by some (but not all) graphics devices.

Value

For `as.raster()`, a raster object.

For `is.raster()`, a logical indicating whether `x` is a raster object.

Note

Raster images are internally represented row-first, which can cause confusion when trying to manipulate a raster object. The recommended approach is to coerce a raster to a matrix, perform the manipulation, then convert back to a raster.

Examples

```
# A red gradient
as.raster(matrix(hcl(0, 80, seq(50, 80, 10)),
                 nrow = 4, ncol = 5))

# Vectors are 1-column matrices ...
#   character vectors are color names ...
```

```

as.raster(hcl(0, 80, seq(50, 80, 10)))
# numeric vectors are greyscale ...
as.raster(1:5, max = 5)
# logical vectors are black and white ...
as.raster(1:10 %% 2 == 0)

# ... unless nrow/ncol are supplied ...
as.raster(1:10 %% 2 == 0, nrow = 1)

# Matrix can also be logical or numeric ...
as.raster(matrix(c(TRUE, FALSE), nrow = 3, ncol = 2))
as.raster(matrix(1:3/4, nrow = 3, ncol = 4))

# An array can be 3-plane numeric (R, G, B planes) ...
as.raster(array(c(0:1, rep(0.5, 4)), c(2, 1, 3)))

# ... or 4-plane numeric (R, G, B, A planes)
as.raster(array(c(0:1, rep(0.5, 6)), c(2, 1, 4)))

# subsetting
r <- as.raster(matrix(colors()[1:100], ncol = 10))
r[, 2]
r[2:4, 2:5]

# assigning to subset
r[2:4, 2:5] <- "white"

# comparison
r == "white"

```

axisTicks

Compute Pretty Axis Tick Scales

Description

Compute pretty axis scales and tick mark locations, the same way as traditional R graphics do it. This is interesting particularly for log scale axes.

Usage

```

axisTicks(usr, log, axp = NULL, nint = 5)
.axisPars(usr, log = FALSE, nintLog = 5)

```

Arguments

usr	numeric vector of length 2, with c(min, max) axis extents.
log	logical indicating if a log scale is (thought to be) in use.

`axp` numeric vector of length 3, `c(mi, ma, n.)`, with identical meaning to `par("?axp")` (where ? is x or y), namely “pretty” axis extents, and an integer *code* `n..`

`nint, nintLog` positive integer value indicating (*approximately*) the desired number of intervals. `nintLog` is used **only** for the case `log = TRUE`.

Details

`axisTicks(usr, *)` calls `.axisPars(usr, ..)` when `axp` is missing (or `NULL`).

Value

`axisTicks()` returns a numeric vector of potential axis tick locations, of length approximately `nint+1`.

`.axisPars()` returns a [list](#) with components

`axp` numeric vector of length 2, `c(min., max.)`, of pretty axis extents.

`n` integer (code), with the same meaning as `par("?axp")[3]`.

See Also

[axTicks](#); [axis](#), and [par](#) (from the **graphics** package).

Examples

```
##--- Demonstrating correspondence between graphics'
##--- axis() and the graphics-engine agnostic axisTicks() :

require("graphics")
plot(10*(0:10)); (pu <- par("usr"))
aX <- function(side, at, ...)
  axis(side, at = at, labels = FALSE, lwd.ticks = 2, col.ticks = 2,
        tck = 0.05, ...)
aX(1, print(xa <- axisTicks(pu[1:2], log = FALSE))) # x axis
aX(2, print(ya <- axisTicks(pu[3:4], log = FALSE))) # y axis

axisTicks(pu[3:4], log = FALSE, n = 10)

plot(10*(0:10), log = "y"); (pu <- par("usr"))
aX(2, print(ya <- axisTicks(pu[3:4], log = TRUE))) # y axis

plot(2^(0:9), log = "y"); (pu <- par("usr"))
aX(2, print(ya <- axisTicks(pu[3:4], log = TRUE))) # y axis
```

boxplot.stats

Box Plot Statistics

Description

This function is typically called by another function to gather the statistics necessary for producing box plots, but may be invoked separately.

Usage

```
boxplot.stats(x, coef = 1.5, do.conf = TRUE, do.out = TRUE)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector for which the boxplot will be constructed (NAs and NaNs are allowed and omitted).
coef	this determines how far the plot ‘whiskers’ extend out from the box. If coef is positive, the whiskers extend to the most extreme data point which is no more than coef times the length of the box away from the box. A value of zero causes the whiskers to extend to the data extremes (and no outliers be returned).
do.conf, do.out	logicals; if FALSE, the conf or out component respectively will be empty in the result.

Details

The two ‘hinges’ are versions of the first and third quartile, i.e., close to `quantile(x, c(1,3)/4)`. The hinges equal the quartiles for odd n (where $n <- \text{length}(x)$) and differ for even n . Whereas the quartiles only equal observations for $n \% 4 == 1$ ($n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$), the hinges do so *additionally* for $n \% 4 == 2$ ($n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$), and are in the middle of two observations otherwise.

The notches (if requested) extend to $\pm 1.58 \text{ IQR}/\sqrt{n}$. This seems to be based on the same calculations as the formula with 1.57 in Chambers *et al* (1983, p. 62), given in McGill *et al* (1978, p. 16). They are based on asymptotic normality of the median and roughly equal sample sizes for the two medians being compared, and are said to be rather insensitive to the underlying distributions of the samples. The idea appears to be to give roughly a 95% confidence interval for the difference in two medians.

Value

List with named components as follows:

stats	a vector of length 5, containing the extreme of the lower whisker, the lower ‘hinge’, the median, the upper ‘hinge’ and the extreme of the upper whisker.
n	the number of non-NA observations in the sample.
conf	the lower and upper extremes of the ‘notch’ (if <code>do.conf</code>). See the details.

out the values of any data points which lie beyond the extremes of the whiskers
(if(do.out)).

Note that \$stats and \$conf are sorted in *increasing* order, unlike S, and that \$n and \$out include any +- Inf values.

References

- Tukey, J. W. (1977) *Exploratory Data Analysis*. Section 2C.
- McGill, R., Tukey, J. W. and Larsen, W. A. (1978) Variations of box plots. *The American Statistician* **32**, 12–16.
- Velleman, P. F. and Hoaglin, D. C. (1981) *Applications, Basics and Computing of Exploratory Data Analysis*. Duxbury Press.
- Emerson, J. D and Strenio, J. (1983). Boxplots and batch comparison. Chapter 3 of *Understanding Robust and Exploratory Data Analysis*, eds. D. C. Hoaglin, F. Mosteller and J. W. Tukey. Wiley.
- Chambers, J. M., Cleveland, W. S., Kleiner, B. and Tukey, P. A. (1983) *Graphical Methods for Data Analysis*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[fivenum](#), [boxplot](#), [bxp](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)
x <- c(1:100, 1000)
(b1 <- boxplot.stats(x))
(b2 <- boxplot.stats(x, do.conf = FALSE, do.out = FALSE))
stopifnot(b1 $ stats == b2 $ stats) # do.out = FALSE is still robust
boxplot.stats(x, coef = 3, do.conf = FALSE)
## no outlier treatment:
boxplot.stats(x, coef = 0)

boxplot.stats(c(x, NA)) # slight change : n is 101
(r <- boxplot.stats(c(x, -1:1/0)))
stopifnot(r$out == c(1000, -Inf, Inf))
```

Description

Graphics devices for SVG, PDF and PostScript graphics files using the cairo graphics API.

Usage

```
svg(filename = if(onefile) "Rplots.svg" else "Rplot%03d.svg",
     width = 7, height = 7, pointsize = 12,
     onefile = FALSE, family = "sans", bg = "white",
     antialias = c("default", "none", "gray", "subpixel"))

cairo_pdf(filename = if(onefile) "Rplots.pdf" else "Rplot%03d.pdf",
           width = 7, height = 7, pointsize = 12,
           onefile = FALSE, family = "sans", bg = "white",
           antialias = c("default", "none", "gray", "subpixel"))

cairo_ps(filename = if(onefile) "Rplots.ps" else "Rplot%03d.ps",
          width = 7, height = 7, pointsize = 12,
          onefile = FALSE, family = "sans", bg = "white",
          antialias = c("default", "none", "gray", "subpixel"))
```

Arguments

filename	the name of the output file. The page number is substituted if a C integer format is included in the character string, as in the default. (The result must be less than <code>PATH_MAX</code> characters long, and may be truncated if not. See postscript for further details.) Tilde expansion is performed where supported by the platform.
width	the width of the device in inches.
height	the height of the device in inches.
pointsize	the default pointsize of plotted text (in big points).
onefile	should all plots appear in one file or in separate files?
family	one of the device-independent font families, "sans", "serif" and "mono", or a character string specify a font family to be searched for in a system-dependent way. See, the 'Cairo fonts' section in the help for X11 .
bg	the initial background colour: can be overridden by setting <code>par("bg")</code> .
antialias	string, the type of anti-aliasing (if any) to be used; defaults to "default".

Details

SVG (Scalar Vector Graphics) is a W3C standard for vector graphics. See <http://www.w3.org/Graphics/SVG/>. The output from `svg` is SVG version 1.1 for `onefile = FALSE` (the default), otherwise SVG 1.2. (Few SVG viewers are capable of displaying multi-page SVG files.)

Note that unlike [postscript](#) and [pdf](#), `cairo_pdf` and `cairo_ps` sometimes record *bitmaps* and not vector graphics: the resolution may depend on the version of `cairo` but typically 300dpi is used. On the other hand, they can (on suitable platforms) include a much wider range of UTF-8 glyphs, and embed the fonts used.

The output produced by `cairo_ps(onefile = FALSE)` will be encapsulated postscript on a platform with `cairo` \geq 1.6.

R can be compiled without support for any of these devices: this will be reported if you attempt to use them on a system where they are not supported. They all require `cairo` version 1.2 (from 2006) or later.

If you plot more than one page on one of these devices and do not include something like %d for the sequence number in file (or set `onefile = TRUE`) the file will contain the last page plotted.

There is full support of semi-transparency, but using this is one of the things liable to trigger bitmap output (and will always do so for `cairo_ps`).

Value

A plot device is opened: nothing is returned to the R interpreter.

Anti-aliasing

Anti-aliasing is applied to both graphics and fonts. It is generally preferable for lines and text, but can lead to undesirable effects for fills, e.g. for [image](#) plots, and so is never used for fills.

`antialias = "default"` is in principle platform-dependent, but seems most often equivalent to `antialias = "gray"`.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the “R Internals Manual”.

- The default device size is in pixels (svg) or inches.
- Font sizes are in big points.
- The default font family is Helvetica.
- Line widths are multiples of 1/96 inch.
- Circle radii have a minimum of 1/72 inch.
- Colours are interpreted by the viewing application.

Note

Cairo 1.2.4 (seen in Centos/RHEL 5) is known to give incorrect SVG output.

In principle these devices are independent of X11 (as is seen by their presence on Windows). But on a Unix-alike the cairo libraries may be distributed as part of the X11 system and hence that (on OS X, XQuartz) may need to be installed.

See Also

[Devices](#), [dev.print](#), [pdf](#), [postscript capabilities](#) to see if cairo is supported.

check.options	<i>Set Options with Consistency Checks</i>
---------------	--

Description

Utility function for setting options with some consistency checks. The [attributes](#) of the new settings in `new` are checked for consistency with the *model* (often default) list in `name.opt`.

Usage

```
check.options(new, name.opt, reset = FALSE, assign.opt = FALSE,
              envir = .GlobalEnv,
              check.attributes = c("mode", "length"),
              override.check = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>new</code>	a <i>named</i> list
<code>name.opt</code>	character with the name of R object containing the default list.
<code>reset</code>	logical; if TRUE, reset the options from <code>name.opt</code> . If there is more than one R object with name <code>name.opt</code> , remove the first one in the search() path.
<code>assign.opt</code>	logical; if TRUE, assign the ...
<code>envir</code>	the environment used for get and assign .
<code>check.attributes</code>	character containing the attributes which <code>check.options</code> should check.
<code>override.check</code>	logical vector of length <code>length(new)</code> (or 1 which entails recycling). For those <code>new[i]</code> where <code>override.check[i] == TRUE</code> , the checks are overridden and the changes made anyway.

Value

A list of components with the same names as the one called `name.opt`. The values of the components are changed from the new list, as long as these pass the checks (when these are not overridden according to `override.check`).

Note

Option "names" is exempt from all the checks or warnings, as in the application it can be NULL or a variable-length character vector.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

[ps.options](#) and [pdf.options](#), which use `check.options`.

Examples

```
(L1 <- list(a = 1:3, b = pi, ch = "CH"))
check.options(list(a = 0:2), name.opt = "L1")
check.options(NULL, reset = TRUE, name.opt = "L1")
```

chull

Compute Convex Hull of a Set of Points

Description

Computes the subset of points which lie on the convex hull of the set of points specified.

Usage

```
chull(x, y = NULL)
```

Arguments

`x`, `y` coordinate vectors of points. This can be specified as two vectors `x` and `y`, a 2-column matrix `x`, a list `x` with two components, etc, see [xy.coords](#).

Details

[xy.coords](#) is used to interpret the specification of the points. Infinite, missing and NaN values are not allowed.

The algorithm is that given by Eddy (1977).

Value

An integer vector giving the indices of the unique points lying on the convex hull, in clockwise order. (The first will be returned for duplicate points.)

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Eddy, W. F. (1977) A new convex hull algorithm for planar sets. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **3**, 398–403.

Eddy, W. F. (1977) Algorithm 523. CONVEX, A new convex hull algorithm for planar sets[Z]. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **3**, 411–412.

See Also

[xy.coords](#), [polygon](#)

Examples

```
X <- matrix(stats::rnorm(2000), ncol = 2)
chull(X)
## Not run:
# Example usage from graphics package
plot(X, cex = 0.5)
hpts <- chull(X)
hpts <- c(hpts, hpts[1])
lines(X[hpts, ])

## End(Not run)
```

cm

Unit Transformation

Description

Translates from inches to cm (centimeters).

Usage

cm(x)

Arguments

x numeric vector

Examples

```
cm(1) # = 2.54

## Translate *from* cm *to* inches:

10 / cm(1) # -> 10cm are 3.937 inches
```

col2rgb

Color to RGB Conversion

Description

R color to RGB (red/green/blue) conversion.

Usage

```
col2rgb(col, alpha = FALSE)
```

Arguments

col	vector of any of the three kinds of R color specifications, i.e., either a color name (as listed by <code>colors()</code>), a hexadecimal string of the form "#rrggbb" or "#rrggbbaa" (see <code>rgb</code>), or a positive integer i meaning <code>palette()[i]</code> .
alpha	logical value indicating whether the alpha channel (opacity) values should be returned.

Details

`NA` (as integer or character) and `"NA"` mean transparent.

Values of `col` not of one of these types are coerced: real vectors are coerced to integer and other types to character. (Prior to R 3.0.2 factors were coerced to their integer codes: in all other cases the class is still ignored when doing the coercion.)

Zero and negative values of `col` are an error.

Value

An integer matrix with three or four (for `alpha = TRUE`) rows and number of columns the length of `col`. If `col` has names these are used as the column names of the return value.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler and the R core team.

See Also

`rgb`, `colors`, `palette`, etc.

The newer, more flexible interface, `convertColor()`.

Examples

```
col2rgb("peachpuff")
col2rgb(c(blu = "royalblue", reddish = "tomato")) # note: colnames

col2rgb(1:8) # the ones from the palette() (if the default)

col2rgb(paste0("gold", 1:4))

col2rgb("#08a0ff")
## all three kinds of color specifications:
col2rgb(c(red = "red", hex = "#abcdef"))
col2rgb(c(palette = 1:3))

##-- NON-INTRODUCTORY examples --

grC <- col2rgb(paste0("gray", 0:100))
table(print(diff(grC["red",]))) # '2' or '3': almost equidistant
## The 'named' grays are in between {"slate gray" is not gray, strictly}
col2rgb(c(g66 = "gray66", darkg = "dark gray", g67 = "gray67",
```

```

g74 = "gray74", gray = "gray", g75 = "gray75",
g82 = "gray82", light = "light gray", g83 = "gray83"))

crgb <- col2rgb(cc <- colors())
colnames(crgb) <- cc
t(crgb) # The whole table

ccodes <- c(256^(2:0) %*% crgb) # = internal codes
## How many names are 'aliases' of each other:
table(tcc <- table(ccodes))
length(uc <- unique(sort(ccodes))) # 502
## All the multiply named colors:
mult <- uc[tcc >= 2]
cl <- lapply(mult, function(m) cc[ccodes == m])
names(cl) <- apply(col2rgb(sapply(cl, function(x)x[1])),
                  2, function(n)paste(n, collapse = ","))
utils::str(cl)
## Not run:
if(require(xgobi)) { ## Look at the color cube dynamically :
  tc <- t(crgb[, !duplicated(ccodes)])
  table(is.gray <- tc[,1] == tc[,2] & tc[,2] == tc[,3]) # (397, 105)
  xgobi(tc, color = c("gold", "gray")[1 + is.gray])
}

## End(Not run)

```

colorRamp

Color interpolation

Description

These functions return functions that interpolate a set of given colors to create new color palettes (like [topo.colors](#)) and color ramps, functions that map the interval $[0, 1]$ to colors (like [grey](#)).

Usage

```

colorRamp(colors, bias = 1, space = c("rgb", "Lab"),
          interpolate = c("linear", "spline"), alpha = FALSE)
colorRampPalette(colors, ...)

```

Arguments

colors	colors to interpolate; must be a valid argument to col2rgb() .
bias	a positive number. Higher values give more widely spaced colors at the high end.
space	a character string; interpolation in RGB or CIE Lab color spaces.
interpolate	use spline or linear interpolation.
alpha	logical: should alpha channel (opacity) values should be returned? It is an error to give a true value if space is specified.
...	arguments to pass to colorRamp.

Details

The CIE Lab color space is approximately perceptually uniform, and so gives smoother and more uniform color ramps. On the other hand, palettes that vary from one hue to another via white may have a more symmetrical appearance in RGB space.

The conversion formulas in this function do not appear to be completely accurate and the color ramp may not reach the extreme values in Lab space. Future changes in the R color model may change the colors produced with `space = "Lab"`.

Argument `alpha` has introduced in R 3.1.0.

Value

`colorRamp` returns a [function](#) with argument a vector of values between 0 and 1 that are mapped to a numeric matrix of RGB color values with one row per color and 3 or 4 columns.

`colorRampPalette` returns a function that takes an integer argument (the required number of colors) and returns a character vector of colors (see [rgb](#)) interpolating the given sequence (similar to [heat.colors](#) or [terrain.colors](#)).

See Also

Good starting points for interpolation are the “sequential” and “diverging” ColorBrewer palettes in the [RColorBrewer](#) package.

[splinefun](#) or [approxfun](#) are used for interpolation.

Examples

```
## Both return a *function* :
colorRamp(c("red", "green"))( (0:4)/4 ) ## (x) , x in [0,1]
colorRampPalette(c("blue", "red"))( 4 ) ## (n)
## a ramp in opacity of blue values
colorRampPalette(c(rgb(0,0,1,1), rgb(0,0,1,0)), alpha = TRUE)(8)

require(graphics)

## Here space="rgb" gives palettes that vary only in saturation,
## as intended.
## With space="Lab" the steps are more uniform, but the hues
## are slightly purple.
filled.contour(volcano,
               color.palette =
                 colorRampPalette(c("red", "white", "blue")),
               asp = 1)
filled.contour(volcano,
               color.palette =
                 colorRampPalette(c("red", "white", "blue"),
                                   space = "Lab"),
               asp = 1)

## Interpolating a 'sequential' ColorBrewer palette
YlOrBr <- c("#FFFFD4", "#FED98E", "#FE9929", "#D95F0E", "#993404")
```

```

filled.contour(volcano,
               color.palette = colorRampPalette(YlOrBr, space = "Lab"),
               asp = 1)
filled.contour(volcano,
               color.palette = colorRampPalette(YlOrBr, space = "Lab",
                                                bias = 0.5),
               asp = 1)

## 'jet.colors' is "as in Matlab"
## (and hurting the eyes by over-saturation)
jet.colors <-
  colorRampPalette(c("#00007F", "blue", "#007FFF", "cyan",
                    "#7FFF7F", "yellow", "#FF7F00", "red", "#7F0000"))
filled.contour(volcano, color = jet.colors, asp = 1)

## space="Lab" helps when colors don't form a natural sequence
m <- outer(1:20,1:20,function(x,y) sin(sqrt(x*y)/3))
rgb.palette <- colorRampPalette(c("red", "orange", "blue"),
                              space = "rgb")
Lab.palette <- colorRampPalette(c("red", "orange", "blue"),
                              space = "Lab")
filled.contour(m, col = rgb.palette(20))
filled.contour(m, col = Lab.palette(20))

```

colors

Color Names

Description

Returns the built-in color names which R knows about.

Usage

```

colors (distinct = FALSE)
colours(distinct = FALSE)

```

Arguments

distinct logical indicating if the colors returned should all be distinct; e.g., "snow" and "snow1" are effectively the same point in the $(0 : 255)^3$ RGB space.

Details

These color names can be used with a `col=` specification in graphics functions.

An even wider variety of colors can be created with primitives `rgb`, `hsv` and `hcl`, or the derived `rainbow`, `heat.colors`, etc.

Value

A character vector containing all the built-in color names.

See Also

[palette](#) for setting the ‘palette’ of colors for `par(col=<num>)`; [rgb](#), [hsv](#), [hcl](#), [gray](#); [rainbow](#) for a nice example; and [heat.colors](#), [topo.colors](#) for images.

[col2rgb](#) for translating to RGB numbers and extended examples.

Examples

```
cl <- colors()
length(cl); cl[1:20]

length(cl. <- colors(TRUE))
## only 502 of the 657 named ones

## ----- Show all named colors and more:
demo("colors")
## -----
```

contourLines

Calculate Contour Lines

Description

Calculate contour lines for a given set of data.

Usage

```
contourLines(x = seq(0, 1, length.out = nrow(z)),
             y = seq(0, 1, length.out = ncol(z)),
             z, nlevels = 10,
             levels = pretty(range(z, na.rm = TRUE), nlevels))
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	locations of grid lines at which the values in <code>z</code> are measured. These must be in ascending order. By default, equally spaced values from 0 to 1 are used. If <code>x</code> is a list, its components <code>x\$x</code> and <code>x\$y</code> are used for <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> , respectively. If the list has component <code>z</code> this is used for <code>z</code> .
<code>z</code>	a matrix containing the values to be plotted (NAs are allowed). Note that <code>x</code> can be used instead of <code>z</code> for convenience.
<code>nlevels</code>	number of contour levels desired iff <code>levels</code> is not supplied.
<code>levels</code>	numeric vector of levels at which to draw contour lines.

Details

`contourLines` draws nothing, but returns a set of contour lines.

There is currently no documentation about the algorithm. The source code is in ‘[R_HOME/src/main/plot3d.c](#)’.

Value

A list of contours. Each contour is a list with elements:

level	The contour level.
x	The x-coordinates of the contour.
y	The y-coordinates of the contour.

See Also

`options("max.contour.segments")` for the maximal complexity of a single contour line.
`contour`.

Examples

```
x <- 10*1:nrow(volcano)
y <- 10*1:ncol(volcano)
contourLines(x, y, volcano)
```

convertColor	<i>Convert between Colour Spaces</i>
--------------	--------------------------------------

Description

Convert colours between their representations in standard colour spaces.

Usage

```
convertColor(color, from, to, from.ref.white, to.ref.white,
             scale.in = 1, scale.out = 1, clip = TRUE)
```

Arguments

color	A matrix whose rows specify colors.
from, to	Input and output color spaces. See ‘Details’ below.
from.ref.white, to.ref.white	Reference whites or NULL if these are built in to the definition, as for RGB spaces. D65 is the default, see ‘Details’ for others.
scale.in, scale.out	Input is divided by scale.in, output is multiplied by scale.out. Use NULL to suppress scaling when input or output is not numeric.
clip	If TRUE, truncate RGB output to [0,1], FALSE return out-of-range RGB, NA set out of range colors to NaN.

Details

Color spaces are specified by objects of class `colorConverter`, created by `colorConverter` or `make.rgb`. Built-in color spaces may be referenced by strings: "XYZ", "sRGB", "Apple RGB", "CIE RGB", "Lab", "Luv". The converters for these colour spaces are in the object `colorspaces`.

The "sRGB" color space is that used by standard PC monitors. "Apple RGB" is used by Apple monitors. "Lab" and "Luv" are approximately perceptually uniform spaces standardized by the Commission Internationale d'Eclairage. XYZ is a 1931 CIE standard capable of representing all visible colors (and then some), but not in a perceptually uniform way.

The Lab and Luv spaces describe colors of objects, and so require the specification of a reference 'white light' color. Illuminant D65 is a standard indirect daylight, Illuminant D50 is close to direct sunlight, and Illuminant A is the light from a standard incandescent bulb. Other standard CIE illuminants supported are B, C, E and D55. RGB colour spaces are defined relative to a particular reference white, and can be only approximately translated to other reference whites. The Bradford chromatic adaptation algorithm is used for this.

The RGB color spaces are specific to a particular class of display. An RGB space cannot represent all colors, and the `clip` option controls what is done to out-of-range colors.

For the named color spaces `color` must be a matrix of values in the from color space: in particular opaque colors.

Value

A 3-column matrix whose rows specify the colors.

References

For all the conversion equations <http://www.bruceindbloom.com/>.

For the white points <http://www.efg2.com/Lab/Graphics/Colors/Chromaticity.htm>.

See Also

`col2rgb` and `colors` for ways to specify colors in graphics.

`make.rgb` for specifying other colour spaces.

Examples

```
## The displayable colors from four planes of Lab space
ab <- expand.grid(a = (-10:15)*10,
                 b = (-15:10)*10)
require(graphics); require(stats) # for na.omit
par(mfrow = c(2, 2), mar = .1+c(3, 3, 3, .5), mgp = c(2, .8, 0))

Lab <- cbind(L = 20, ab)
srgb <- convertColor(Lab, from = "Lab", to = "sRGB", clip = NA)
clipped <- attr(na.omit(srgb), "na.action")
srgb[clipped, ] <- 0
cols <- rgb(srgb[, 1], srgb[, 2], srgb[, 3])
image((-10:15)*10, (-15:10)*10, matrix(1:(26*26), ncol = 26), col = cols,
      xlab = "a", ylab = "b", main = "Lab: L=20")
```

```

Lab <- cbind(L = 40, ab)
srgb <- convertColor(Lab, from = "Lab", to = "sRGB", clip = NA)
clipped <- attr(na.omit(srgb), "na.action")
srgb[clipped, ] <- 0
cols <- rgb(srgb[, 1], srgb[, 2], srgb[, 3])
image((-10:15)*10, (-15:10)*10, matrix(1:(26*26), ncol = 26), col = cols,
      xlab = "a", ylab = "b", main = "Lab: L=40")

Lab <- cbind(L = 60, ab)
srgb <- convertColor(Lab, from = "Lab", to = "sRGB", clip = NA)
clipped <- attr(na.omit(srgb), "na.action")
srgb[clipped, ] <- 0
cols <- rgb(srgb[, 1], srgb[, 2], srgb[, 3])
image((-10:15)*10, (-15:10)*10, matrix(1:(26*26), ncol = 26), col = cols,
      xlab = "a", ylab = "b", main = "Lab: L=60")

Lab <- cbind(L = 80, ab)
srgb <- convertColor(Lab, from = "Lab", to = "sRGB", clip = NA)
clipped <- attr(na.omit(srgb), "na.action")
srgb[clipped, ] <- 0
cols <- rgb(srgb[, 1], srgb[, 2], srgb[, 3])
image((-10:15)*10, (-15:10)*10, matrix(1:(26*26), ncol = 26), col = cols,
      xlab = "a", ylab = "b", main = "Lab: L=80")

cols <- t(col2rgb(palette())); rownames(cols) <- palette(); cols
zapsmall(lab <- convertColor(cols, from = "sRGB", to = "Lab", scale.in = 255))
stopifnot(all.equal(cols, # converting back.. getting the original:
  round(convertColor(lab, from = "Lab", to = "sRGB", scale.out = 255)),
  check.attributes = FALSE))

```

densCols

*Colors for Smooth Density Plots***Description**

densCols produces a vector containing colors which encode the local densities at each point in a scatterplot.

Usage

```

densCols(x, y = NULL, nbin = 128, bandwidth,
         colramp = colorRampPalette(blues9[-(1:3)]))
blues9

```

Arguments

x, y the x and y arguments provide the x and y coordinates of the points. Any reasonable way of defining the coordinates is acceptable. See the function [xy.coords](#) for details. If supplied separately, they must be of the same length.

nbin	numeric vector of length one (for both directions) or two (for x and y separately) specifying the number of equally spaced grid points for the density estimation; directly used as gridsize in bkde2D() .
bandwidth	numeric vector (length 1 or 2) of smoothing bandwidth(s). If missing, a more or less useful default is used. bandwidth is subsequently passed to function bkde2D .
colramp	function accepting an integer n as an argument and returning n colors.

Details

`densCols` computes and returns the set of colors that will be used in plotting, calling [bkde2D](#)(*, bandwidth, gridsize = nbin, ..) from package **KernSmooth**.

`blues9` is a set of 9 color shades of blue used as the default in plotting.

Value

`densCols` returns a vector of length `nrow(x)` that contains colors to be used in a subsequent scatterplot. Each color represents the local density around the corresponding point.

Author(s)

Florian Hahne at FHCRC, originally

See Also

[bkde2D](#) from package **KernSmooth**; further, [smoothScatter\(\)](#) (package **graphics**) which builds on the same computations as `densCols`.

Examples

```
x1 <- matrix(rnorm(1e3), ncol = 2)
x2 <- matrix(rnorm(1e3, mean = 3, sd = 1.5), ncol = 2)
x  <- rbind(x1, x2)

dcols <- densCols(x)
graphics::plot(x, col = dcols, pch = 20, main = "n = 1000")
```

Description

These functions provide control over multiple graphics devices.

Usage

```
dev.cur()
dev.list()
dev.next(which = dev.cur())
dev.prev(which = dev.cur())
dev.off(which = dev.cur())
dev.set(which = dev.next())
dev.new(..., noRStudioGD = FALSE)
graphics.off()
```

Arguments

<code>which</code>	An integer specifying a device number.
<code>...</code>	arguments to be passed to the device selected.
<code>noRStudioGD</code>	Do not use the RStudio graphics device even if specified as the default device: it does not accept arguments such as width and height.

Details

Only one device is the ‘active’ device: this is the device in which all graphics operations occur. There is a “null device” which is always open but is really a placeholder: any attempt to use it will open a new device specified by `getOption("device")`.

Devices are associated with a name (e.g., “X11” or “postscript”) and a number in the range 1 to 63; the “null device” is always device 1. Once a device has been opened the null device is not considered as a possible active device. There is a list of open devices, and this is considered as a circular list not including the null device. `dev.next` and `dev.prev` select the next open device in the appropriate direction, unless no device is open.

`dev.off` shuts down the specified (by default the current) device. If the current device is shut down and any other devices are open, the next open device is made current. It is an error to attempt to shut down device 1. `graphics.off()` shuts down all open graphics devices. Normal termination of a session runs the internal equivalent of `graphics.off()`.

`dev.set` makes the specified device the active device. If there is no device with that number, it is equivalent to `dev.next`. If `which = 1` it opens a new device and selects that.

`dev.new` opens a new device. Normally R will open a new device automatically when needed, but this enables you to open further devices in a platform-independent way. (For which device is used see `getOption("device")`.) Note that care is needed with file-based devices such as `pdf` and `postscript` and in that case file names such as ‘Rplots.pdf’, ‘Rplots1.pdf’, ..., ‘Rplots999.pdf’ are tried in turn. Only named arguments are passed to the device, and then only if they match the argument list of the device. Even so, care is needed with the interpretation of e.g. width, and for the standard bitmap devices `units = "in"`, `res = 72` is forced if neither is supplied but both width and height are.

Value

`dev.cur` returns a length-one named integer vector giving the number and name of the active device, or 1, the null device, if none is active.

`dev.list` returns the numbers of all open devices, except device 1, the null device. This is a numeric vector with a `names` attribute giving the device names, or NULL if there is no open device.

`dev.next` and `dev.prev` return the number and name of the next / previous device in the list of devices. This will be the null device if and only if there are no open devices.

`dev.off` returns the number and name of the new active device (after the specified device has been shut down).

`dev.set` returns the number and name of the new active device.

`dev.new` returns the return value of the device opened, usually invisible NULL.

See Also

[Devices](#), such as [postscript](#), etc.

[layout](#) and its links for setting up plotting regions on the current device.

Examples

```
## Not run: ## Unix-specific example
x11()
plot(1:10)
x11()
plot(rnorm(10))
dev.set(dev.prev())
abline(0, 1) # through the 1:10 points
dev.set(dev.next())
abline(h = 0, col = "gray") # for the residual plot
dev.set(dev.prev())
dev.off(); dev.off() #- close the two X devices

## End(Not run)
```

dev.capabilities

Query Capabilities of the Current Graphics Device

Description

Query the capabilities of the current graphics device.

Usage

```
dev.capabilities(what = NULL)
```

Arguments

`what` a character vector partially matching the names of the components listed in section ‘Value’, or NULL which lists all available capabilities.

Details

The capabilities have to be specified by the author of the graphics device, unless they can be deduced from missing hooks. Thus they will often be returned as NA, and may reflect the maximal capabilities of the underlying device where several output formats are supported by one device.

Most recent devices support semi-transparent colours provided the graphics format does (which PostScript does not). On the other hand, relatively few graphics formats support (fully or semi-) transparent backgrounds: generally the latter is found only in PDF and PNG plots.

Value

A named list with some or all of the following components, any of which may take value NA:

semiTransparency	logical: Does the device support semi-transparent colours?
transparentBackground	character: Does the device support (semi)-transparent backgrounds? Possible values are "no", "fully" (only full transparency) and "semi" (semi-transparent background colours are supported).
rasterImage	character: To what extent does the device support raster images as used by <code>rasterImage</code> and <code>grid.raster</code> ? Possible values "no", "yes" and "non-missing" (support only for arrays without any missing values).
capture	logical: Does the current device support raster capture as used by <code>grid.cap</code> ?
locator	logical: Does the current device support <code>locator</code> and <code>identify</code> ?
events	character: Which events can be generated on this device? Currently this will be a subset of c("MouseDown", "MouseMove", "MouseUp", "Keybd"), but other events may be supported in the future.

See Also

See `getGraphicsEvent` for details on interactive events.

Examples

```
dev.capabilities()
```

dev.capture	<i>Capture device output as a raster image</i>
-------------	--

Description

`dev.capture` captures the current contents of a graphics device as a raster (bitmap) image.

Usage

```
dev.capture(native = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`native` Logical. If FALSE the result is a matrix of R color names, if TRUE the output is returned as a `nativeRaster` object which is more efficient for plotting, but not portable.

Details

Not all devices support capture of the output as raster bitmaps. Typically, only image-based devices do and even not all of them.

Value

NULL if the device does not support capture, otherwise a matrix of color names (for `native = FALSE`) or a `nativeRaster` object (for `native = TRUE`).

`dev.flush`

Hold or Flush Output on an On-Screen Graphics Device.

Description

This gives a way to hold/flush output on certain on-screen devices, and is ignored by other devices.

Usage

```
dev.hold(level = 1L)
dev.flush(level = 1L)
```

Arguments

`level` Integer ≥ 0 . The amount by which to change the hold level. Negative values will be silently replaced by zero.

Details

Devices which implement this maintain a stack of hold levels: calling `dev.hold` increases the level and `dev.flush` decreases it. Calling `dev.hold` when the hold level is zero increases the hold level and inhibits graphics display. When calling `dev.flush` clears all pending holds the screen display is refreshed and normal operation is resumed.

This is implemented for the cairo-based X11 types with buffering. When the hold level is positive the ‘watch’ cursor is set on the device’s window.

It is available on the quartz device on OS X.

This is implemented for the windows device with buffering selected (the default). When the hold level is positive the ‘busy’ cursor is set on the device’s window.

Value

The current level after the change, invisibly. This is 0 on devices where hold levels are not supported.

dev.interactive	<i>Is the Current Graphics Device Interactive?</i>
-----------------	--

Description

Test if the current graphics device (or that which would be opened) is interactive.

Usage

```
dev.interactive(orNone = FALSE)
```

```
deviceIsInteractive(name = NULL)
```

Arguments

orNone	logical; if TRUE, the function also returns TRUE when <code>.Device == "null device"</code> and <code>getOption("device")</code> is among the known interactive devices.
--------	--

name	one or more device names as a character vector, or NULL to give the existing list.
------	--

Details

The X11 (Unix), windows (Windows) and quartz (OS X, on-screen types only) are regarded as interactive, together with JavaGD (from the package of the same name) and CairoWin and CairoX11 (from package **Cairo**). Packages can add their devices to the list by calling `deviceIsInteractive`.

Value

`dev.interactive()` returns a logical, TRUE if and only if an interactive (screen) device is in use.

`deviceIsInteractive` returns the updated list of known interactive devices, invisibly unless `name = NULL`.

See Also

[Devices](#) for the available devices on your platform.

Examples

```
dev.interactive()
print(deviceIsInteractive(NULL))
```

dev.size	<i>Find Size of Device Surface</i>
----------	------------------------------------

Description

Find the dimensions of the device surface of the current device.

Usage

```
dev.size(units = c("in", "cm", "px"))
```

Arguments

units the units in which to return the value – inches, cm, or pixels (device units).

Value

A two-element numeric vector giving width and height of the current device; a new device is opened if there is none, similarly to [dev.new\(\)](#).

See Also

The size information in inches can be obtained by [par\("din"\)](#), but this provides a way to access it independent of the graphics sub-system in use. Note that [par\("din"\)](#) is only updated when a new plot is started, whereas [dev.size](#) tracks the size as an on-screen device is resized.

Examples

```
dev.size("cm")
```

dev2	<i>Copy Graphics Between Multiple Devices</i>
------	---

Description

[dev.copy](#) copies the graphics contents of the current device to the device specified by `which` or to a new device which has been created by the function specified by `device` (it is an error to specify both `which` and `device`). (If recording is off on the current device, there are no contents to copy: this will result in no plot or an empty plot.) The device copied to becomes the current device.

[dev.print](#) copies the graphics contents of the current device to a new device which has been created by the function specified by `device` and then shuts the new device.

[dev.copy2eps](#) is similar to [dev.print](#) but produces an EPSF output file in portrait orientation (`horizontal = FALSE`). [dev.copy2pdf](#) is the analogue for PDF output.

[dev.control](#) allows the user to control the recording of graphics operations in a device. If `displaylist` is "inhibit" ("enable") then recording is turned off (on). It is only safe to change this at the beginning of a plot (just before or just after a new page). Initially recording is on for screen devices, and off for print devices.

Usage

```
dev.copy(device, ..., which = dev.next())
dev.print(device = postscript, ...)
dev.copy2eps(...)
dev.copy2pdf(..., out.type = "pdf")
dev.control(displaylist = c("inhibit", "enable"))
```

Arguments

device	A device function (e.g., x11, postscript, ...)
...	Arguments to the device function above: for dev.copy2eps arguments to postscript and for dev.copy2pdf, arguments to pdf . For dev.print, this includes which and by default any postscript arguments.
which	A device number specifying the device to copy to.
out.type	The name of the output device: can be "pdf", or "quartz" (some OS X builds) or "cairo" (Windows and some Unix-alikes, see cairo_pdf).
displaylist	A character string: the only valid values are "inhibit" and "enable".

Details

Note that these functions copy the *device region* and not a plot: the background colour of the device surface is part of what is copied. Most screen devices default to a transparent background, which is probably not what is needed when copying to a device such as [png](#).

For dev.copy2eps and dev.copy2pdf, width and height are taken from the current device unless otherwise specified. If just one of width and height is specified, the other is adjusted to preserve the aspect ratio of the device being copied. The default file name is Rplot.eps or Rplot.pdf, and can be overridden by specifying a file argument.

Copying to devices such as [postscript](#) and [pdf](#) which need font families pre-specified needs extra care – R is unaware of which families were used in a plot and so they will need to manually specified by the fonts argument passed as part of Similarly, if the device to be copied from was opened with a family argument, a suitable family argument will need to be included in

The default for dev.print is to produce and print a postscript copy. This will not work unless [options\("printcmd"\)](#) is set suitably and you have a PostScript printing system: see [postscript](#) for how to set this up. Windows users may prefer to use dev.print(win.print).

dev.print is most useful for producing a postscript print (its default) when the following applies. Unless file is specified, the plot will be printed. Unless width, height and pointsize are specified the plot dimensions will be taken from the current device, shrunk if necessary to fit on the paper. (pointsize is rescaled if the plot is shrunk.) If horizontal is not specified and the plot can be printed at full size by switching its value this is done instead of shrinking the plot region.

If dev.print is used with a specified device (even postscript) it sets the width and height in the same way as dev.copy2eps. This will not be appropriate unless the device specifies dimensions in inches, in particular not for png, jpeg, tiff and bmp unless units = "inches" is specified.

Value

`dev.copy` returns the name and number of the device which has been copied to.

`dev.print`, `dev.copy2eps` and `dev.copy2pdf` return the name and number of the device which has been copied from.

Note

Most devices (including all screen devices) have a display list which records all of the graphics operations that occur in the device. `dev.copy` copies graphics contents by copying the display list from one device to another device. Also, automatic redrawing of graphics contents following the resizing of a device depends on the contents of the display list.

After the command `dev.control("inhibit")`, graphics operations are not recorded in the display list so that `dev.copy` and `dev.print` will not copy anything and the contents of a device will not be redrawn automatically if the device is resized.

The recording of graphics operations is relatively expensive in terms of memory so the command `dev.control("inhibit")` can be useful if memory usage is an issue.

See Also

[dev.cur](#) and other `dev.xxx` functions.

Examples

```
## Not run:
x11() # on a Unix-alike
plot(rnorm(10), main = "Plot 1")
dev.copy(device = x11)
mtext("Copy 1", 3)
dev.print(width = 6, height = 6, horizontal = FALSE) # prints it
dev.off(dev.prev())
dev.off()

## End(Not run)
```

dev2bitmap

Graphics Device for Bitmap Files via Ghostscript

Description

`bitmap` generates a graphics file. `dev2bitmap` copies the current graphics device to a file in a graphics format.

Usage

```

bitmap(file, type = "png16m", height = 7, width = 7, res = 72,
       units = "in", pointsize, taa = NA, gaa = NA, ...)

dev2bitmap(file, type = "png16m", height = 7, width = 7, res = 72,
          units = "in", pointsize, ...,
          method = c("postscript", "pdf"), taa = NA, gaa = NA)

```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	The output file name, with an appropriate extension.
<code>type</code>	The type of bitmap.
<code>width, height</code>	Dimensions of the display region.
<code>res</code>	Resolution, in dots per inch.
<code>units</code>	The units in which height and width are given. Can be in (inches), px (pixels), cm or mm.
<code>pointsize</code>	The pointsize to be used for text: defaults to something reasonable given the width and height
<code>...</code>	Other parameters passed to postscript or pdf .
<code>method</code>	Should the plot be done by postscript or pdf ?
<code>taa, gaa</code>	Number of bits of antialiasing for text and for graphics respectively. Usually 4 (for best effect) or 2. Not supported on all types.

Details

`dev2bitmap` works by copying the current device to a [postscript](#) or [pdf](#) device, and post-processing the output file using `ghostscript`. `bitmap` works in the same way using a `postscript` device and post-processing the output as ‘printing’.

You will need `ghostscript`: the full path to the executable can be set by the environment variable `R_GSCMD`. If this is unset, a GhostScript executable will be looked for by name on your path: on a Unix alike “`gs`” is used, and on Windows the setting of the environment variable `GSC` is used, otherwise commands “`gswi64c.exe`” then “`gswin32c.exe`” are tried.

The types available will depend on the version of `ghostscript`, but are likely to include “`jpeg`”, “`jpegcmymk`”, “`jpeggray`”, “`tiffcrle`”, “`tiffg3`”, “`tiffg32d`”, “`tiffg4`”, “`tiffgray`”, “`tifflzw`”, “`tiffpack`”, “`tiff12nc`”, “`tiff24nc`”, “`tiff32nc`” “`png16`”, “`png16m`”, “`png256`”, “`png48`”, “`pngmono`”, “`pnggray`”, “`pngalpha`”, “`bmp16`”, “`bmp16m`” “`bmp256`”, “`bmp32b`”, “`bmpgray`”, “`bmpmono`”.

The default type, “`png16m`”, supports 24-bit colour and anti-aliasing. Type “`png256`” uses a palette of 256 colours and could give a more compact representation. Monochrome graphs can use “`pngmono`”, or “`pnggray`” if anti-aliasing is desired. Plots with a transparent background and varying degrees of transparency should use “`pngalpha`”.

Note that for a colour TIFF image you probably want “`tiff24nc`”, which is 8-bit per channel RGB (the most common TIFF format). None of the listed TIFF types support transparency. “`tiff32nc`” uses 8-bit per channel CMYK, which printers might require.

For formats which contain a single image, a file specification like `Rplots%03d.png` can be used: this is interpreted by Ghostscript.

For `dev2bitmap` if just one of width and height is specified, the other is chosen to preserve the aspect ratio of the device being copied. The main reason to prefer `method = "pdf"` over the default would be to allow semi-transparent colours to be used.

For graphics parameters such as `"cra"` that need to work in pixels, the default resolution of 72dpi is always used.

Value

None.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the “R Internals Manual”. These devices follow the underlying device, so when viewed at the stated res:

- The default device size is 7 inches square.
- Font sizes are in big points.
- The default font family is (for the standard Ghostscript setup) URW Nimbus Sans.
- Line widths are as a multiple of 1/96 inch, with no minimum.
- Circle of any radius are allowed.
- Colours are interpreted by the viewing/printing application.

Note

Although using `type = "pdfwrite"` will work for simple plots, it is not recommended. Either use `pdf` to produce PDF directly, or call `ps2pdf -dAutoRotatePages=/None` on the output of `postscript`: that command is optimized to do the conversion to PDF in ways that these functions are not.

See Also

`savePlot`, which for windows and X11 (`type = "cairo"`) provides a simple way to record a PNG record of the current plot.

`postscript`, `pdf`, `png`, `jpeg`, `tiff` and `bmp`.

To display an array of data, see `image`.

devAskNewPage	<i>Prompt before New Page</i>
---------------	-------------------------------

Description

This function can be used to control (for the current device) whether the user is prompted before starting a new page of output.

Usage

```
devAskNewPage(ask = NULL)
```

Arguments

ask	NULL or a logical value. If TRUE, the user will in future be prompted before a new page of output is started.
-----	---

Details

If the current device is the null device, this will open a graphics device.

The default argument just returns the current setting and does not change it.

The default value when a device is opened is taken from the setting of `options("device.ask.default")`.

The precise circumstances when the user will be asked to confirm a new page depend on the graphics subsystem. Obviously this needs to be an interactive session. In addition 'recording' needs to be in operation, so only when the display list is enabled (see [dev.control](#)) which it usually is only on a screen device.

Value

The current prompt setting *before* any new setting is applied. Invisibly if ask is logical.

See Also

[plot.new](#), [grid.newpage](#)

Devices

*List of Graphical Devices***Description**

The following graphics devices are currently available:

- [pdf](#) Write PDF graphics commands to a file
- [postscript](#) Writes PostScript graphics commands to a file
- [xfig](#) Device for XFIG graphics file format
- [bitmap](#) bitmap pseudo-device via Ghostscript (if available).
- [pictex](#) Writes TeX/PicTeX graphics commands to a file (of historical interest only)

The following devices will be functional if R was compiled to use them (they exist but will return with a warning on other systems):

- [X11](#) The graphics device for the X11 windowing system
- [cairo_pdf](#), [cairo_ps](#) PDF and PostScript devices based on cairo graphics.
- [svg](#) SVG device based on cairo graphics.
- [png](#) PNG bitmap device
- [jpeg](#) JPEG bitmap device
- [bmp](#) BMP bitmap device
- [tiff](#) TIFF bitmap device
- [quartz](#) The graphics device for the OS X native Quartz 2d graphics system. (This is only functional on OS X where it can be used from the R.app GUI and from the command line: but it will display on the local screen even for a remote session.)

Details

If no device is open, using a high-level graphics function will cause a device to be opened. Which device is given by [options\("device"\)](#) which is initially set as the most appropriate for each platform: a screen device for most interactive use and [pdf](#) (or the setting of `R_DEFAULT_DEVICE`) otherwise. The exception is interactive use under Unix if no screen device is known to be available, when [pdf\(\)](#) is used.

It is possible for an R package to provide further graphics devices and several packages on CRAN do so. These include other devices outputting SVG and PGF/TikZ (TeX-based graphics, see <http://pgf.sourceforge.net/>).

See Also

The individual help files for further information on any of the devices listed here; [X11.options](#), [quartz.options](#), [ps.options](#) and [pdf.options](#) for how to customize devices.
[dev.interactive](#), [dev.cur](#), [dev.print](#), [graphics.off](#), [image](#), [dev2bitmap](#).
[capabilities](#) to see if [X11](#), [jpeg](#) [png](#), [tiff](#), [quartz](#) and the cairo-based devices are available.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## open the default screen device on this platform if no device is
## open
if(dev.cur() == 1) dev.new()

## End(Not run)
```

embedFonts

Embed Fonts in PostScript and PDF

Description

Runs Ghostscript to process a PDF or PostScript file and embed all fonts in the file.

Usage

```
embedFonts(file, format, outfile = file,
           fontpaths = character(), options = character())
```

Arguments

file	a character string giving the name of the original file.
format	the format for the new file (with fonts embedded) given as the name of a ghostscript output device. If not specified, it is guessed from the suffix of file.
outfile	the name of the new file (with fonts embedded).
fontpaths	a character vector giving directories that Ghostscript will search for fonts.
options	a character vector containing further options to Ghostscript.

Details

This function is not necessary if you just use the standard default fonts for PostScript and PDF output.

If you use a special font, this function is useful for embedding that font in your PostScript or PDF document so that it can be shared with others without them having to install your special font (provided the font licence allows this).

If the special font is not installed for Ghostscript, you will need to tell Ghostscript where the font is, using something like `options="-sFONTPATH=path/to/font"`.

You will need ghostscript: the full path to the executable can be set by the environment variable `R_GSCMD`. If this is unset, a GhostScript executable will be looked for by name on your path: on a Unix alike "gs" is used, and on Windows the setting of the environment variable `GSC` is used, otherwise commands "gswi64c.exe" then "gswin32c.exe" are tried.

The format is by default "ps2write", when the original file has a .ps or .eps suffix, or "pdfwrite" when the original file has a .pdf suffix. For versions of Ghostscript before 9.10, `format = "pswrite"` or `format = "epswrite"` can be used: as from 9.14

format = "eps2write" is also available. If an invalid device is given, the error message will list the available devices.

Note that Ghostscript may do font substitution, so the font embedded may differ from that specified in the original file.

Some other options which can be useful (see your Ghostscript documentation) are '-dMaxSubsetPct=100', '-dSubsetFonts=true' and '-dEmbedAllFonts=true'.

Value

The shell command used to invoke Ghostscript is returned invisibly. This may be useful for debugging purposes as you can run the command by hand in a shell to look for problems.

See Also

[postscriptFonts](#), [Devices](#).

Paul Murrell and Brian Ripley (2006) Non-standard fonts in PostScript and PDF graphics. *R News*, 6(2):41–47. https://www.r-project.org/doc/Rnews/Rnews_2006-2.pdf.

extendrange

Extend a Numerical Range by a Small Percentage

Description

Extends a numerical range by a small percentage, i.e., fraction, *on both sides*.

Usage

```
extendrange(x, r = range(x, na.rm = TRUE), f = 0.05)
```

Arguments

x	numeric vector; not used if r is specified.
r	numeric vector of length 2; defaults to the range of x.
f	number specifying the fraction by which the range should be extended.

Value

A numeric vector of length 2, $r + c(-f, f) * \text{diff}(r)$.

See Also

[range](#); [pretty](#) which can be considered a sophisticated extension of extendrange.

Examples

```

x <- 1:5
(r <- range(x))      # 1    5
extendrange(x)       # 0.8  5.2
extendrange(x, f= 0.01) # 0.96 5.04
## Use 'r' if you have it already:
stopifnot(identical(extendrange(r = r),
                    extendrange(x)))

```

getGraphicsEvent	<i>Wait for a mouse or keyboard event from a graphics window</i>
------------------	--

Description

This function waits for input from a graphics window in the form of a mouse or keyboard event.

Usage

```

getGraphicsEvent(prompt = "Waiting for input",
                 onMouseDown = NULL, onMouseMove = NULL,
                 onMouseUp = NULL, onKeybd = NULL,
                 consolePrompt = prompt)
setGraphicsEventHandlers(which = dev.cur(), ...)
getGraphicsEventEnv(which = dev.cur())
setGraphicsEventEnv(which = dev.cur(), env)

```

Arguments

prompt	prompt to be displayed to the user in the graphics window
onMouseDown	a function to respond to mouse clicks
onMouseMove	a function to respond to mouse movement
onMouseUp	a function to respond to mouse button releases
onKeybd	a function to respond to key presses
consolePrompt	prompt to be displayed to the user in the console
which	which graphics device does the call apply to?
...	items including handlers to be placed in the event environment
env	an environment to be used as the event environment

Details

These functions allow user input from some graphics devices (currently only the `windows()` and `X11(type = "Xlib")` screen displays in base R). Event handlers may be installed to respond to events involving the mouse or keyboard.

The functions are related as follows. If any of the first five arguments to `getGraphicsEvent` are given, then it uses those in a call to `setGraphicsEventHandlers` to replace any existing handlers in the current device. This is for compatibility with pre-2.12.0 R versions. The current normal way to set up event handlers is to set them using `setGraphicsEventHandlers` or `setGraphicsEventEnv` on one or more graphics devices, and then use `getGraphicsEvent()` with no arguments to retrieve event data. `getGraphicsEventEnv()` may be used to save the event environment for use later.

The names of the arguments in `getGraphicsEvent` are special. When handling events, the graphics system will look through the event environment for functions named `onMouseDown`, `onMouseMove`, `onMouseUp` and `onKeybd` and use them as event handlers. It will use `prompt` for a label on the graphics device. Two other special names are `which`, which will identify the graphics device, and `result`, where the result of the last event handler will be stored before being returned by `getGraphicsEvent()`.

The mouse event handlers should be functions with header `function(buttons, x, y)`. The coordinates `x` and `y` will be passed to mouse event handlers in device independent coordinates (i.e., the lower left corner of the window is $(0, 0)$, the upper right is $(1, 1)$). The `buttons` argument will be a vector listing the buttons that are pressed at the time of the event, with 0 for left, 1 for middle, and 2 for right.

The keyboard event handler should be a function with header `function(key)`. A single element character vector will be passed to this handler, corresponding to the key press. Shift and other modifier keys will have been processed, so `shift-a` will be passed as `"A"`. The following special keys may also be passed to the handler:

- Control keys, passed as `"Ctrl-A"`, etc.
- Navigation keys, passed as one of `"Left"`, `"Up"`, `"Right"`, `"Down"`, `"PgUp"`, `"PgDn"`, `"End"`, `"Home"`
- Edit keys, passed as one of `"Ins"`, `"Del"`
- Function keys, passed as one of `"F1"`, `"F2"`, ...

The event handlers are standard R functions, and will be executed as though called from the event environment.

In an interactive session, events will be processed until

- one of the event handlers returns a non-NULL value which will be returned as the value of `getGraphicsEvent`, or
- the user interrupts the function from the console.

Value

When run interactively, `getGraphicsEvent` returns a non-NULL value returned from one of the event handlers. In a non-interactive session, `getGraphicsEvent` will return NULL immediately. It will also return NULL if the user closes the last window that has graphics handlers.

getGraphicsEventEnv returns the current event environment for the graphics device, or NULL if none has been set.

setGraphicsEventEnv and setGraphicsEventHandlers return the previous event environment for the graphics device.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

Examples

```
# This currently only works on the Windows
# and X11(type = "Xlib") screen devices...
## Not run:
savepar <- par(ask = FALSE)
dragplot <- function(..., xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL, xaxs = "r", yaxs = "r") {
  plot(..., xlim = xlim, ylim = ylim, xaxs = xaxs, yaxs = yaxs)
  startx <- NULL
  starty <- NULL
  prevx <- NULL
  prevy <- NULL
  usr <- NULL

  devset <- function()
    if (dev.cur() != eventEnv$which) dev.set(eventEnv$which)

  dragmousedown <- function(buttons, x, y) {
    startx <- x
    starty <- y
    prevx <- 0
    prevy <- 0
    devset()
    usr <- par("usr")
    eventEnv$onMouseMove <- dragmousemove
    NULL
  }

  dragmousemove <- function(buttons, x, y) {
    devset()
    deltax <- diff(grconvertX(c(startx, x), "ndc", "user"))
    deltax <- diff(grconvertY(c(starty, y), "ndc", "user"))
    if (abs(deltax-prevx) + abs(deltay-prevy) > 0) {
      plot(..., xlim = usr[1:2]-deltax, xaxs = "i",
        ylim = usr[3:4]-deltay, yaxs = "i")
      prevx <- deltax
      prevy <- deltax
    }
    NULL
  }

  mouseup <- function(buttons, x, y) {
    eventEnv$onMouseMove <- NULL
  }
}
```

```

    }

    keydown <- function(key) {
      if (key == "q") return(invisible(1))
      eventEnv$onMouseMove <- NULL
      NULL
    }

    setGraphicsEventHandlers(prompt = "Click and drag, hit q to quit",
                             onMouseDown = dragmousedown,
                             onMouseUp = mouseup,
                             onKeybd = keydown)
    eventEnv <- getGraphicsEventEnv()
  }

  dragplot(rnorm(1000), rnorm(1000))
  getGraphicsEvent()
  par(savepar)

  ## End(Not run)

```

gray

Gray Level Specification

Description

Create a vector of colors from a vector of gray levels.

Usage

```

gray(level, alpha = NULL)
grey(level, alpha = NULL)

```

Arguments

level	a vector of desired gray levels between 0 and 1; zero indicates "black" and one indicates "white".
alpha	the opacity, if specified.

Details

The values returned by gray can be used with a col= specification in graphics functions or in [par](#).
grey is an alias for gray.

Value

A vector of colors of the same length as level.

See Also

[rainbow](#), [hsv](#), [hcl](#), [rgb](#).

Examples

```
gray(0:8 / 8)
```

gray.colors

Gray Color Palette

Description

Create a vector of n gamma-corrected gray colors.

Usage

```
gray.colors(n, start = 0.3, end = 0.9, gamma = 2.2, alpha = NULL)
grey.colors(n, start = 0.3, end = 0.9, gamma = 2.2, alpha = NULL)
```

Arguments

n	the number of gray colors (≥ 1) to be in the palette.
start	starting gray level in the palette (should be between 0 and 1 where zero indicates "black" and one indicates "white").
end	ending gray level in the palette.
gamma	the gamma correction.
alpha	the opacity, is specified.

Details

The function `gray.colors` chooses a series of n gamma-corrected gray levels between start and end: `seq(start^gamma, end^gamma, length = n)^(1/gamma)`. The returned palette contains the corresponding gray colors. This palette is used in [barplot.default](#).

`grey.colors` is an alias for `gray.colors`.

Value

A vector of n gray colors.

See Also

[gray](#), [rainbow](#), [palette](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

pie(rep(1, 12), col = gray.colors(12))
barplot(1:12, col = gray.colors(12))
```

grSoftVersion

*Report Versions of Graphics Software***Description**

Report versions of third-party graphics software.

Usage

```
grSoftVersion()
```

Value

A named character vector containing at least the element

cairo the version of cairographics in use, or "" if cairographics is not available.

It may also contain the versions of third-party software used by the X11-based (not cairo-based) bitmap devices:

libpng the version of libpng in use, or "" if not available.

jpeg the version of the JPEG headers used for compilation, or "" if JPEG support was not compiled in.

libtiff the version of libtiff in use, or "" if not available.

Unless otherwise stated the reported version is that of the (possibly dynamically-linked) library in use at runtime.

Note that libjpeg-turbo used on some Linux distributions reports its version as "6.2", the IJG version from which it forked.

See Also

[extSoftVersion](#) for versions of non-graphics software.

Examples

```
grSoftVersion()
```

hcl	<i>HCL Color Specification</i>
-----	--------------------------------

Description

Create a vector of colors from vectors specifying hue, chroma and luminance.

Usage

```
hcl(h = 0, c = 35, l = 85, alpha, fixup = TRUE)
```

Arguments

h	The hue of the color specified as an angle in the range [0,360]. 0 yields red, 120 yields green 240 yields blue, etc.
c	The chroma of the color. The upper bound for chroma depends on hue and luminance.
l	A value in the range [0,100] giving the luminance of the colour. For a given combination of hue and chroma, only a subset of this range is possible.
alpha	numeric vector of values in the range [0,1] for alpha transparency channel (0 means transparent and 1 means opaque).
fixup	a logical value which indicates whether the resulting RGB values should be corrected to ensure that a real color results. if fixup is FALSE RGB components lying outside the range [0,1] will result in an NA value.

Details

This function corresponds to polar coordinates in the CIE-LUV color space. Steps of equal size in this space correspond to approximately equal perceptual changes in color. Thus, hcl can be thought of as a perceptually based version of [hsv](#).

The function is primarily intended as a way of computing colors for filling areas in plots where area corresponds to a numerical value (pie charts, bar charts, mosaic plots, histograms, etc). Choosing colors which have equal chroma and luminance provides a way of minimising the irradiation illusion which would otherwise produce a misleading impression of how large the areas are.

The default values of chroma and luminance make it possible to generate a full range of hues and have a relatively pleasant pastel appearance.

The RGB values produced by this function correspond to the sRGB color space used on most PC computer displays. There are other packages which provide more general color space facilities.

Semi-transparent colors ($0 < \alpha < 1$) are supported only on some devices: see [rgb](#).

Value

A vector of character strings which can be used as color specifications by R graphics functions.

Missing or infinite values of any of h, c, l result in NA: such values of alpha are taken as 1 (opaque).

Note

At present there is no guarantee that the colours rendered by R graphics devices will correspond to their sRGB description. It is planned to adopt sRGB as the standard R color description in future.

Author(s)

Ross Ihaka

References

Ihaka, R. (2003). Colour for Presentation Graphics, Proceedings of the 3rd International Workshop on Distributed Statistical Computing (DSC 2003), March 20-22, 2003, Technische Universität Wien, Vienna, Austria. <http://www.ci.tuwien.ac.at/Conferences/DSC-2003>.

See Also

[hsv](#), [rgb](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

# The Foley and Van Dam PhD Data.
csd <- matrix(c( 4,2,4,6, 4,3,1,4, 4,7,7,1,
                0,7,3,2, 4,5,3,2, 5,4,2,2,
                3,1,3,0, 4,4,6,7, 1,10,8,7,
                1,5,3,2, 1,5,2,1, 4,1,4,3,
                0,3,0,6, 2,1,5,5), nrow = 4)

csphd <- function(colors)
  barplot(csd, col = colors, ylim = c(0,30),
          names = 72:85, xlab = "Year", ylab = "Students",
          legend = c("Winter", "Spring", "Summer", "Fall"),
          main = "Computer Science PhD Graduates", las = 1)

# The Original (Metaphorical) Colors (Ouch!)
csphd(c("blue", "green", "yellow", "orange"))

# A Color Tetrad (Maximal Color Differences)
csphd(hcl(h = c(30, 120, 210, 300)))

# Same, but lighter and less colorful
# Turn off automatic correction to make sure
# that we have defined real colors.
csphd(hcl(h = c(30, 120, 210, 300),
            c = 20, l = 90, fixup = FALSE))

# Analogous Colors
# Good for those with red/green color confusion
csphd(hcl(h = seq(60, 240, by = 60)))
```

```
# Metaphorical Colors
csphd(hcl(h = seq(210, 60, length = 4)))

# Cool Colors
csphd(hcl(h = seq(120, 0, length = 4) + 150))

# Warm Colors
csphd(hcl(h = seq(120, 0, length = 4) - 30))

# Single Color
hist(stats::rnorm(1000), col = hcl(240))

## Exploring the hcl() color space [in its mapping to R's sRGB colors]:
demo(hclColors)
```

Hershey

Hershey Vector Fonts in R

Description

If the family graphical parameter (see [par](#)) has been set to one of the Hershey fonts (see ‘Details’) Hershey vector fonts are used to render text.

When using the [text](#) and [contour](#) functions Hershey fonts may be selected via the `vfont` argument, which is a character vector of length 2 (see ‘Details’ for valid values). This allows Cyrillic to be selected, which is not available via the font families.

Usage

Hershey

Details

The Hershey fonts have two advantages:

1. vector fonts describe each character in terms of a set of points; R renders the character by joining up the points with straight lines. This intimate knowledge of the outline of each character means that R can arbitrarily transform the characters, which can mean that the vector fonts look better for rotated text.
2. this implementation was adapted from the GNU libplot library which provides support for non-ASCII and non-English fonts. This means that it is possible, for example, to produce weird plotting symbols and Japanese characters.

Drawback:

You cannot use mathematical expressions ([plotmath](#)) with Hershey fonts.

The Hershey characters are organised into a set of fonts. A particular font is selected by specifying one of the following font families via `par(family)` and specifying the desired font face (plain, bold, italic, bold-italic) via `par(font)`.

family	faces available
"HersheySerif"	plain, bold, italic, bold-italic
"HersheySans"	plain, bold, italic, bold-italic
"HersheyScript"	plain, bold
"HersheyGothicEnglish"	plain
"HersheyGothicGerman"	plain
"HersheyGothicItalian"	plain
"HersheySymbol"	plain, bold, italic, bold-italic
"HersheySansSymbol"	plain, italic

In the `vfont` specification for the `text` and `contour` functions, the Hershey font is specified by a typeface (e.g., `serif` or `sans serif`) and a fontindex or 'style' (e.g., `plain` or `italic`). The first element of `vfont` specifies the typeface and the second element specifies the fontindex. The first table produced by `demo(Hershey)` shows the character `a` produced by each of the different fonts.

The available typeface and fontindex values are available as list components of the variable `Hershey`. The allowed pairs for (`typeface`, `fontindex`) are:

<code>serif</code>	<code>plain</code>
<code>serif</code>	<code>italic</code>
<code>serif</code>	<code>bold</code>
<code>serif</code>	<code>bold italic</code>
<code>serif</code>	<code>cyrillic</code>
<code>serif</code>	<code>oblique cyrillic</code>
<code>serif</code>	<code>EUC</code>
<code>sans serif</code>	<code>plain</code>
<code>sans serif</code>	<code>italic</code>
<code>sans serif</code>	<code>bold</code>
<code>sans serif</code>	<code>bold italic</code>
<code>script</code>	<code>plain</code>
<code>script</code>	<code>italic</code>
<code>script</code>	<code>bold</code>
<code>gothic english</code>	<code>plain</code>
<code>gothic german</code>	<code>plain</code>
<code>gothic italian</code>	<code>plain</code>
<code>serif symbol</code>	<code>plain</code>
<code>serif symbol</code>	<code>italic</code>
<code>serif symbol</code>	<code>bold</code>
<code>serif symbol</code>	<code>bold italic</code>
<code>sans serif symbol</code>	<code>plain</code>
<code>sans serif symbol</code>	<code>italic</code>

and the indices of these are available as `Hershey$allowed`.

Escape sequences: The string to be drawn can include escape sequences, which all begin with a `'\'`. When `R` encounters a `'\'`, rather than drawing the `'\'`, it treats the subsequent character(s) as a coded description of what to draw.

One useful escape sequence (in the current context) is of the form: `'\123'`. The three digits following the `'\'` specify an octal code for a character. For example, the octal code for p is 160 so the strings `"p"` and `"\160"` are equivalent. This is useful for producing characters when there is not an appropriate key on your keyboard.

The other useful escape sequences all begin with `'\\'`. These are described below. Remember that backslashes have to be doubled in R character strings, so they need to be entered with *four* backslashes.

Symbols: an entire string of Greek symbols can be produced by selecting the `HersheySymbol` or `HersheySansSymbol` family or the `Serif Symbol` or `Sans Serif Symbol` typeface. To allow Greek symbols to be embedded in a string which uses a non-symbol typeface, there are a set of symbol escape sequences of the form `'\\ab'`. For example, the escape sequence `'*a'` produces a Greek alpha. The second table in `demo(Hershey)` shows all of the symbol escape sequences and the symbols that they produce.

ISO Latin-1: further escape sequences of the form `'\\ab'` are provided for producing ISO Latin-1 characters. Another option is to use the appropriate octal code. The (non-ASCII) ISO Latin-1 characters are in the range 241...377. For example, `'\366'` produces the character o with an umlaut. The third table in `demo(Hershey)` shows all of the ISO Latin-1 escape sequences.

These characters can be used directly. (Characters not in Latin-1 are replaced by a dot.)

Several characters are missing, c-cedilla has no cedilla and 'sharp s' (`'U+00DF'`, also known as 'esszett') is rendered as `ss`.

Special Characters: a set of characters are provided which do not fall into any standard font. These can only be accessed by escape sequence. For example, `'\\LI'` produces the zodiac sign for Libra, and `'\\JU'` produces the astronomical sign for Jupiter. The fourth table in `demo(Hershey)` shows all of the special character escape sequences.

Cyrillic Characters: cyrillic characters are implemented according to the K018-R encoding, and can be used directly in such a locale using the `Serif` typeface and `Cyrillic` (or `Oblique Cyrillic`) fontindex. Alternatively they can be specified via an octal code in the range 300 to 337 for lower case characters or 340 to 377 for upper case characters. The fifth table in `demo(Hershey)` shows the octal codes for the available Cyrillic characters.

Cyrillic has to be selected via a (`"serif"`, `fontindex`) pair rather than via a font family.

Japanese Characters: 83 Hiragana, 86 Katakana, and 603 Kanji characters are implemented according to the EUC-JP (Extended Unix Code) encoding. Each character is identified by a unique hexadecimal code. The Hiragana characters are in the range 0x2421 to 0x2473, Katakana are in the range 0x2521 to 0x2576, and Kanji are (scattered about) in the range 0x3021 to 0x6d55.

When using the `Serif` typeface and `EUC` fontindex, these characters can be produced by a *pair* of octal codes. Given the hexadecimal code (e.g., 0x2421), take the first two digits and add 0x80 and do the same to the second two digits (e.g., 0x21 and 0x24 become 0xa4 and 0xa1), then convert both to octal (e.g., 0xa4 and 0xa1 become 244 and 241). For example, the first Hiragana character is produced by `'\244\241'`.

It is also possible to use the hexadecimal code directly. This works for all non-EUC fonts by specifying an escape sequence of the form `'\#J1234'`. For example, the first Hiragana character is produced by `'\#J2421'`.

The Kanji characters may be specified in a third way, using the so-called "Nelson Index", by specifying an escape sequence of the form `'\#N1234'`. For example, the (obsolete) Kanji for 'one' is produced by `'\#N0001'`.

`demo(Japanese)` shows the available Japanese characters.

Raw Hershey Glyphs: all of the characters in the Hershey fonts are stored in a large array. Some characters are not accessible in any of the Hershey fonts. These characters can only be accessed via an escape sequence of the form ‘\#H1234’. For example, the fleur-de-lys is produced by ‘\#H0746’. The sixth and seventh tables of `demo(Hershey)` shows all of the available raw glyphs.

References

<https://www.gnu.org/software/plotutils/plotutils.html>.

See Also

`demo(Hershey)`, `par`, `text`, `contour`.

[Japanese](#) for the Japanese characters in the Hershey fonts.

Examples

Hershey

for tables of examples, see `demo(Hershey)`

hsv

HSV Color Specification

Description

Create a vector of colors from vectors specifying hue, saturation and value.

Usage

```
hsv(h = 1, s = 1, v = 1, alpha)
```

Arguments

<code>h, s, v</code>	numeric vectors of values in the range $[0, 1]$ for ‘hue’, ‘saturation’ and ‘value’ to be combined to form a vector of colors. Values in shorter arguments are recycled.
<code>alpha</code>	numeric vector of values in the range $[0, 1]$ for alpha transparency channel (0 means transparent and 1 means opaque).

Details

Semi-transparent colors ($0 < \text{alpha} < 1$) are supported only on some devices: see [rgb](#).

Value

This function creates a vector of colors corresponding to the given values in HSV space. The values returned by `hsv` can be used with a `col=` specification in graphics functions or in `par`.

See Also

[hcl](#) for a perceptually based version of [hsv\(\)](#), [rgb](#) and [rgb2hsv](#) for RGB to HSV conversion; [rainbow](#), [gray](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

hsv(.5,.5,.5)

## Red tones:
n <- 20; y <- -sin(3*pi*((1:n)-1/2)/n)
op <- par(mar = rep(1.5, 4))
plot(y, axes = FALSE, frame.plot = TRUE,
      xlab = "", ylab = "", pch = 21, cex = 30,
      bg = rainbow(n, start = .85, end = .1),
      main = "Red tones")
par(op)
```

Japanese

Japanese characters in R

Description

The implementation of Hershey vector fonts provides a large number of Japanese characters (Hiragana, Katakana, and Kanji).

Details

Without keyboard support for typing Japanese characters, the only way to produce these characters is to use special escape sequences: see [Hershey](#).

For example, the Hiragana character for the sound "ka" is produced by ‘\#J242b’ and the Katakana character for this sound is produced by ‘\#J252b’. The Kanji ideograph for "one" is produced by ‘\#J306c’ or ‘\#N0001’.

The output from [demo](#)(Japanese) shows tables of the escape sequences for the available Japanese characters.

References

<https://www.gnu.org/software/plotutils/plotutils.html>

See Also

[demo](#)(Japanese), [Hershey](#), [text](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

plot(1:9, type = "n", axes = FALSE, frame = TRUE, ylab = "",
     main = "example(Japanese)", xlab = "using Hershey fonts")
par(cex = 3)
Vf <- c("serif", "plain")

text(4, 2, "\#J244b\#J245b\#J2473", vfont = Vf)
text(4, 4, "\#J2538\#J2563\#J2551\#J2573", vfont = Vf)
text(4, 6, "\#J467c\#J4b5c", vfont = Vf)
text(4, 8, "Japan", vfont = Vf)
par(cex = 1)
text(8, 2, "Hiragana")
text(8, 4, "Katakana")
text(8, 6, "Kanji")
text(8, 8, "English")
```

make.rgb

Create colour spaces

Description

These functions specify colour spaces for use in [convertColor](#).

Usage

```
make.rgb(red, green, blue, name = NULL, white = "D65",
         gamma = 2.2)
```

```
colorConverter(toXYZ, fromXYZ, name, white = NULL)
```

Arguments

red, green, blue	Chromaticity (xy or xyY) of RGB primaries
name	Name for the colour space
white	Character string specifying the reference white (see ‘Details’.)
gamma	Display gamma (nonlinearity). A positive number or the string "sRGB"
fromXYZ	Function to convert from XYZ tristimulus coordinates to this space
toXYZ	Function to convert from this space to XYZ tristimulus coordinates.

Details

An RGB colour space is defined by the chromaticities of the red, green and blue primaries. These are given as vectors of length 2 or 3 in xyY coordinates (the Y component is not used and may be omitted). The chromaticities are defined relative to a reference white, which must be one of the CIE standard illuminants: "A", "B", "C", "D50", "D55", "D60", "E" (usually "D65").

The display gamma is most commonly 2.2, though 1.8 is used for Apple RGB. The sRGB standard specifies a more complicated function that is close to a gamma of 2.2; `gamma = "sRGB"` uses this function.

Colour spaces other than RGB can be specified directly by giving conversions to and from XYZ tristimulus coordinates. The functions should take two arguments. The first is a vector giving the coordinates for one colour. The second argument is the reference white. If a specific reference white is included in the definition of the colour space (as for the RGB spaces) this second argument should be ignored and may be . . .

Value

An object of class `colorConverter`

References

Conversion algorithms from <http://www.brucelindbloom.com>.

See Also

[convertColor](#)

Examples

```
(pal <- make.rgb(red = c(0.6400, 0.3300),
  green = c(0.2900, 0.6000),
  blue = c(0.1500, 0.0600),
  name = "PAL/SECAM RGB"))

## converter for sRGB in #rrggbb format
hexcolor <- colorConverter(toXYZ = function(hex, ...) {
  rgb <- t(col2rgb(hex))/255
  colorspace$sRGB$toXYZ(rgb, ...) },
  fromXYZ = function(xyz, ...) {
    rgb <- colorspace$sRGB$fromXYZ(xyz, ..)
    rgb <- round(rgb, 5)
    if (min(rgb) < 0 || max(rgb) > 1)
      as.character(NA)
    else rgb(rgb[1], rgb[2], rgb[3])},
  white = "D65", name = "#rrggbb")

(cols <- t(col2rgb(palette()))
zapsmall(luv <- convertColor(cols, from = "sRGB", to = "Luv", scale.in = 255))
(hex <- convertColor(luv, from = "Luv", to = hexcolor, scale.out = NULL))

## must make hex a matrix before using it
```



```
(cc <- round(convertColor(as.matrix(hex), from = hexcolor, to = "sRGB",
                           scale.in = NULL, scale.out = 255)))
stopifnot(cc == cols)
```

n2mfrow

Compute Default mfrow From Number of Plots

Description

Easy setup for plotting multiple figures (in a rectangular layout) on one page. This computes a sensible default for [par](#)(mfrow).

Usage

```
n2mfrow(nr.plots)
```

Arguments

nr.plots integer; the number of plot figures you'll want to draw.

Value

A length two integer vector nr, nc giving the number of rows and columns, fulfilling nr >= nc >= 1 and nr * nc >= nr.plots.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

[par](#), [layout](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

n2mfrow(8) # 3 x 3

n <- 5 ; x <- seq(-2, 2, len = 51)
## suppose now that 'n' is not known {inside function}
op <- par(mfrow = n2mfrow(n))
for (j in 1:n)
  plot(x, x^j, main = substitute(x^ exp, list(exp = j)), type = "l",
       col = "blue")

sapply(1:10, n2mfrow)
```

nclass

Compute the Number of Classes for a Histogram

Description

Compute the number of classes for a histogram.

Usage

```
nclass.Sturges(x)
nclass.scott(x)
nclass.FD(x)
```

Arguments

x A data vector.

Details

nclass.Sturges uses Sturges' formula, implicitly basing bin sizes on the range of the data.

nclass.scott uses Scott's choice for a normal distribution based on the estimate of the standard error, unless that is zero where it returns 1.

nclass.FD uses the Freedman-Diaconis choice based on the inter-quartile range ([IQR](#)) unless that's zero where it reverts to [mad](#)(x, constant = 2) and when that is 0 as well, returns 1.

Value

The suggested number of classes.

References

Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S-PLUS*. Springer, page 112.

Freedman, D. and Diaconis, P. (1981) On the histogram as a density estimator: L_2 theory. *Zeitschrift für Wahrscheinlichkeitstheorie und verwandte Gebiete* **57**, 453–476.

Scott, D. W. (1979) On optimal and data-based histograms. *Biometrika* **66**, 605–610.

Scott, D. W. (1992) *Multivariate Density Estimation. Theory, Practice, and Visualization*. Wiley.

Sturges, H. A. (1926) The choice of a class interval. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* **21**, 65–66.

See Also

[hist](#) and [truehist](#) (package [MASS](#)); [dpih](#) (package [KernSmooth](#)) for a plugin bandwidth proposed by Wand(1995).

Examples

```

set.seed(1)
x <- stats::rnorm(1111)
nclass.Sturges(x)

## Compare them:
NC <- function(x) c(Sturges = nclass.Sturges(x),
  Scott = nclass.scott(x), FD = nclass.FD(x))
NC(x)
onePt <- rep(1, 11)
NC(onePt) # no longer gives NaN

```

palette

*Set or View the Graphics Palette***Description**

View or manipulate the color palette which is used when a `col=` has a numeric index.

Usage

```
palette(value)
```

Arguments

`value` an optional character vector.

Details

The color palette and referring to colors by number (see e.g. [par](#)) was provided for compatibility with S: in R it is almost always better to specify colours by name.

If `value` has length 1, it is taken to be the name of a built-in color palette (only "default" is built-in currently). If `value` has length greater than 1 it is assumed to contain a description of the colors which are to make up the new palette (either by name or by RGB levels). The maximum size for a palette is 1024 entries.

If `value` is omitted, no change is made to the current palette.

There is only one palette setting for all devices in a R session. If the palette is changed, the new palette applies to all subsequent plotting.

The current palette also applies to re-plotting (for example if an on-screen device is resized or [dev.copy](#) or [replayPlot](#) is used). The palette is recorded on the displaylist at the start of each page and when it is changed.

Value

A character vector giving the palette which *was* in effect. This is [invisible](#) unless the argument is omitted.

See Also

[colors](#) for the vector of built-in named colors; [hsv](#), [gray](#), [rainbow](#), [terrain.colors](#), ... to construct colors.

[adjustcolor](#), e.g., for tweaking existing palettes; [colorRamp](#) to interpolate colors, making custom palettes; [col2rgb](#) for translating colors to RGB 3-vectors.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

palette()          # obtain the current palette
palette(rainbow(6)) # six color rainbow

(palette(gray(seq(0,.9,len = 25)))) # gray scales; print old palette
matplot(outer(1:100, 1:30), type = "l", lty = 1,lwd = 2, col = 1:30,
        main = "Gray Scales Palette",
        sub = "palette(gray(seq(0, .9, len=25)))")
palette("default") # reset back to the default

## on a device where alpha-transparency is supported,
## use 'alpha = 0.3' transparency with the default palette :
mycols <- adjustcolor(palette(), alpha.f = 0.3)
opal <- palette(mycols)
x <- rnorm(1000); xy <- cbind(x, 3*x + rnorm(1000))
plot(xy, lwd = 2,
     main = "Alpha-Transparency Palette\n alpha = 0.3")
xy[,1] <- -xy[,1]
points(xy, col = 8, pch = 16, cex = 1.5)
palette("default")
```

Palettes

Color Palettes

Description

Create a vector of n contiguous colors.

Usage

```
rainbow(n, s = 1, v = 1, start = 0, end = max(1, n - 1)/n, alpha = 1)
heat.colors(n, alpha = 1)
terrain.colors(n, alpha = 1)
topo.colors(n, alpha = 1)
cm.colors(n, alpha = 1)
```

Arguments

<code>n</code>	the number of colors (≥ 1) to be in the palette.
<code>s, v</code>	the ‘saturation’ and ‘value’ to be used to complete the HSV color descriptions.
<code>start</code>	the (corrected) hue in $[0,1]$ at which the rainbow begins.
<code>end</code>	the (corrected) hue in $[0,1]$ at which the rainbow ends.
<code>alpha</code>	the alpha transparency, a number in $[0,1]$, see argument <code>alpha</code> in hsv .

Details

Conceptually, all of these functions actually use (parts of) a line cut out of the 3-dimensional color space, parametrized by [hsv](#)(`h`, `s`, `v`), and hence equispaced hues in RGB space tend to cluster at the red, green and blue primaries.

Some applications such as contouring require a palette of colors which do not wrap around to give a final color close to the starting one.

With `rainbow`, the parameters `start` and `end` can be used to specify particular subranges of hues. The following values can be used when generating such a subrange: red = 0, yellow = $\frac{1}{6}$, green = $\frac{2}{6}$, cyan = $\frac{3}{6}$, blue = $\frac{4}{6}$ and magenta = $\frac{5}{6}$.

Value

A character vector, `cv`, of color names. This can be used either to create a user-defined color palette for subsequent graphics by [palette](#)(`cv`), a `col` = specification in graphics functions or in `par`.

See Also

[colors](#), [palette](#), [hsv](#), [hcl](#), [rgb](#), [gray](#) and [col2rgb](#) for translating to RGB numbers.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
# A Color Wheel
pie(rep(1, 12), col = rainbow(12))

##----- Some palettes -----
demo.pal <-
  function(n, border = if (n < 32) "light gray" else NA,
           main = paste("color palettes; n=", n),
           ch.col = c("rainbow(n, start=.7, end=.1)", "heat.colors(n)",
                      "terrain.colors(n)", "topo.colors(n)",
                      "cm.colors(n)"))
{
  nt <- length(ch.col)
  i <- 1:n; j <- n / nt; d <- j/6; dy <- 2*d
  plot(i, i+d, type = "n", yaxt = "n", ylab = "", main = main)
  for (k in 1:nt) {
    rect(i-.5, (k-1)*j+ dy, i+.4, k*j,
         col = eval(parse(text = ch.col[k])), border = border)
    text(2*j, k * j + dy/4, ch.col[k])
  }
}
```

```

}
n <- if(.Device == "postscript") 64 else 16
  # Since for screen, larger n may give color allocation problem
demo.pal(n)

```

pdf

*PDF Graphics Device***Description**

pdf starts the graphics device driver for producing PDF graphics.

Usage

```

pdf(file = ifelse(onefile, "Rplots.pdf", "Rplot%03d.pdf"),
    width, height, onefile, family, title, fonts, version,
    paper, encoding, bg, fg, pointsize, pagecentre, colormodel,
    useDingbats, useKerning, fillOddEven, compress)

```

Arguments

file	a character string giving the name of the file. If it is of the form " <code> cmd</code> ", the output is piped to the command given by <code>cmd</code> . If it is <code>NULL</code> , then no external file is created (effectively, no drawing occurs), but the device may still be queried (e.g., for size of text). For use with <code>onefile = FALSE</code> give a C integer format such as " <code>Rplot%03d.pdf</code> " (the default in that case). (See postscript for further details.) Tilde expansion (see path.expand) is done.
width, height	the width and height of the graphics region in inches. The default values are 7.
onefile	logical: if true (the default) allow multiple figures in one file. If false, generate a file with name containing the page number for each page. Defaults to <code>TRUE</code> , and forced to true if <code>file</code> is a pipe.
family	the font family to be used, see postscript . Defaults to " <code>Helvetica</code> ".
title	title string to embed as the <code>'/Title'</code> field in the file. Defaults to " <code>R Graphics Output</code> ".
fonts	a character vector specifying R graphics font family names for additional fonts which will be included in the PDF file. Defaults to <code>NULL</code> .
version	a string describing the PDF version that will be required to view the output. This is a minimum, and will be increased (with a warning) if necessary. Defaults to " <code>1.4</code> ", but see <code>'Details'</code> .
paper	the target paper size. The choices are " <code>a4</code> ", " <code>letter</code> ", " <code>legal</code> " (or " <code>us</code> ") and " <code>executive</code> " (and these can be capitalized), or " <code>a4r</code> " and " <code>USr</code> " for rotated ('landscape'). The default is " <code>special</code> ", which means that the width and height specify the paper size. A further choice is " <code>default</code> "; if this is selected, the <code>papersize</code> is taken from the option " <code>papersize</code> " if that is set and as " <code>a4</code> " if it is unset or empty. Defaults to " <code>special</code> ".

encoding	the name of an encoding file. See postscript for details. Defaults to "default".
bg	the initial background color to be used. Defaults to "transparent".
fg	the initial foreground color to be used. Defaults to "black".
pointsize	the default point size to be used. Strictly speaking, in bp, that is 1/72 of an inch, but approximately in points. Defaults to 12.
pagecentre	logical: should the device region be centred on the page? – is only relevant for paper != "special". Defaults to TRUE.
colormodel	a character string describing the color model: currently allowed values are "srgb", "gray" (or "grey") and "cmyk". Defaults to "srgb". See section 'Color models'.
useDingbats	logical. Should small circles be rendered <i>via</i> the Dingbats font? Defaults to TRUE, which produces smaller and better output. Setting this to FALSE can work around font display problems in broken PDF viewers: although this font is one of the 14 guaranteed to be available in all PDF viewers, that guarantee is not always honoured. See the 'Note' for a possible fix for some viewers.
useKerning	logical. Should kerning corrections be included in setting text and calculating string widths? Defaults to TRUE.
fillOddEven	logical controlling the polygon fill mode: see polygon for details. Defaults to FALSE.
compress	logical. Should PDF streams be generated with Flate compression? Defaults to TRUE.

Details

All arguments except `file` default to values given by `pdf.options()`. The ultimate defaults are quoted in the arguments section.

`pdf()` opens the file `file` and the PDF commands needed to plot any graphics requested are sent to that file.

The `file` argument is interpreted as a C integer format as used by `sprintf`, with integer argument the page number. The default gives files 'Rplot001.pdf', ..., 'Rplot999.pdf', 'Rplot1000.pdf',

The `family` argument can be used to specify a PDF-specific font family as the initial/default font for the device. If additional font families are to be used they should be included in the `fonts` argument.

If a device-independent R graphics font family is specified (e.g., via `par(family =)` in the graphics package), the PDF device makes use of the PostScript font mappings to convert the R graphics font family to a PDF-specific font family description. (See the documentation for [pdfFonts](#).)

This device does *not* embed fonts in the PDF file, so it is only straightforward to use mappings to the font families that can be assumed to be available in any PDF viewer: "Times" (equivalently "serif"), "Helvetica" (equivalently "sans") and "Courier" (equivalently "mono"). Other families may be specified, but it is the user's responsibility to ensure that these fonts are available on the system and third-party software (e.g., Ghostscript) may be required to embed the fonts so that the PDF can be included in other documents (e.g., LaTeX): see [embedFonts](#). The URW-based families described for [postscript](#) can be used with viewers set up to use URW fonts, which is usual with

those based on xpdf or Ghostscript. Since `embedFonts` makes use of Ghostscript, it should be able to embed the URW-based families for use with other viewers.

See `postscript` for details of encodings, as the internal code is shared between the drivers. The native PDF encoding is given in file ‘PDFDoc.enc’.

The PDF produced is fairly simple, with each page being represented as a single stream (by default compressed and possibly with references to raster images). The R graphics model does not distinguish graphics objects at the level of the driver interface.

The `version` argument declares the version of PDF that gets produced. The version must be at least 1.2 when compression is used, 1.4 for semi-transparent output to be understood, and at least 1.3 if CID fonts are to be used: if any of these features are used the version number will be increased (with a warning). (PDF 1.4 was first supported by Acrobat 5 in 2001; it is very unlikely not to be supported in a current viewer.)

Line widths as controlled by `par(lwd =)` are in multiples of 1/96 inch. Multiples less than 1 are allowed. `pch = "."` with `cex = 1` corresponds to a square of side 1/72 inch, which is also the ‘pixel’ size assumed for graphics parameters such as `"cra"`.

The `paper` argument sets the ‘MediaBox’ entry in the file, which defaults to width by height. If it is set to something other than `"special"`, a device region of the specified size is (by default) centred on the rectangle given by the paper size: if either width or height is less than 0.1 or too large to give a total margin of 0.5 inch, it is reset to the corresponding paper dimension minus 0.5. Thus if you want the default behaviour of `postscript` use `pdf(paper = "a4r", width = 0, height = 0)` to centre the device region on a landscape A4 page with 0.25 inch margins.

When the background colour is fully transparent (as is the initial default value), the PDF produced does not paint the background. Most PDF viewers will use a white canvas so the visual effect is if the background were white. This will not be the case when printing onto coloured paper, though.

Color models

The default color model (`"srgb"`) is sRGB. Model `"gray"` (or `"grey"`) maps sRGB colors to greyscale using perceived luminosity (biased towards green). `"cmyk"` outputs in CMYK colorspace. The simplest possible conversion from sRGB to CMYK is used (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/CMYK_color_model#Mapping_RGB_to_CMYK), and raster images are output in RGB.

Also available for backwards compatibility is model `"rgb"` which uses uncalibrated RGB and corresponds to the model used with that name in R prior to 2.13.0. Some viewers may render some plots in that colorspace faster than in sRGB, and the plot files will be smaller.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the “R Internals Manual”.

- The default device size is 7 inches square.
- Font sizes are in big points.
- The default font family is Helvetica.
- Line widths are as a multiple of 1/96 inch, with a minimum of 0.01 enforced.

- Circles of any radius are allowed. Unless `useDingbats = FALSE`, opaque circles of less than 10 big points radius are rendered using char 108 in the Dingbats font: all semi-transparent and larger circles using a Bézier curve for each quadrant.
- Colours are by default specified as sRGB.

At very small line widths, the line type may be forced to solid.

Printing

Except on Windows it is possible to print directly from pdf by something like (this is appropriate for a CUPS printing system):

```
pdf("|lp -o landscape", paper = "a4r")
```

This forces `onefile = TRUE`.

Note

If you see problems with PDF output, do remember that the problem is much more likely to be in your viewer than in R. Try another viewer if possible. Symptoms for which the viewer has been at fault are apparent grids on image plots (turn off graphics anti-aliasing in your viewer if you can) and missing or incorrect glyphs in text (viewers silently doing font substitution).

Unfortunately the default viewers on most Linux and OS X systems have these problems, and no obvious way to turn off graphics anti-aliasing.

Acrobat Reader does not use the fonts specified but rather emulates them from multiple-master fonts. This can be seen in imprecise centering of characters, for example the multiply and divide signs in Helvetica. This can be circumvented by embedding fonts where possible. Most other viewers substitute fonts, e.g. URW fonts for the standard Helvetica and Times fonts, and these too often have different font metrics from the true fonts.

Acrobat Reader can be extended by ‘font packs’, and these will be needed for the full use of encodings other than Latin-1 (although they may be offered for download as needed).

On some systems the default plotting character `pch = 1` was displayed in some PDF viewers incorrectly as a “q” character. (These seem to be viewers based on the ‘poppler’ PDF rendering library). This may be due to incorrect or incomplete mapping of font names to those used by the system. Adding the following lines to ‘~/.fonts.conf’ or ‘/etc/fonts/local.conf’ may circumvent this problem, although this has largely been corrected on the affected systems.

```
<fontconfig>
<alias binding="same">
  <family>ZapfDingbats</family>
  <accept><family>Dingbats</family></accept>
</alias>
</fontconfig>
```

Some further workarounds for problems with symbol fonts on viewers using ‘fontconfig’ are given in the ‘Cairo Fonts’ section of the help for [X11](#).

There is a different font bug in the pdf.js viewer included in Firefox 19 and later: that maps Dingbats to the Symbol font and so displays symbols such `pch = 1` as lambda.

See Also

[pdfFonts](#), [pdf.options](#), [embedFonts](#), [Devices](#), [postscript](#).

[cairo_pdf](#) and (on OS X only) [quartz](#) for other devices that can produce PDF.

More details of font families and encodings and especially handling text in a non-Latin-1 encoding and embedding fonts can be found in

Paul Murrell and Brian Ripley (2006) Non-standard fonts in PostScript and PDF graphics. *R News*, 6(2):41–47. https://www.r-project.org/doc/Rnews/Rnews_2006-2.pdf.

Examples

```
## Test function for encodings
TestChars <- function(encoding = "ISOLatin1", ...)
{
  pdf(encoding = encoding, ...)
  par(pty = "s")
  plot(c(-1,16), c(-1,16), type = "n", xlab = "", ylab = "",
        xaxs = "i", yaxs = "i")
  title(paste("Centred chars in encoding", encoding))
  grid(17, 17, lty = 1)
  for(i in c(32:255)) {
    x <- i %% 16
    y <- i %/% 16
    points(x, y, pch = i)
  }
  dev.off()
}
## there will be many warnings.
TestChars("ISOLatin2")
## this does not view properly in older viewers.
TestChars("ISOLatin2", family = "URWHelvetica")
## works well for viewing in gs-based viewers, and often in xpdf.
```

pdf.options

Auxiliary Function to Set/View Defaults for Arguments of pdf

Description

The auxiliary function `pdf.options` can be used to set or view (if called without arguments) the default values for some of the arguments to [pdf](#).

`pdf.options` needs to be called before calling `pdf`, and the default values it sets can be overridden by supplying arguments to `pdf`.

Usage

```
pdf.options(..., reset = FALSE)
```

Arguments

...	arguments width, height, onefile, family, title, fonts, paper, encoding, pointsize, bg, fg, pagecentre, useDingbats, colormodel, fillOddEven and compress can be supplied.
reset	logical: should the defaults be reset to their ‘factory-fresh’ values?

Details

If both `reset = TRUE` and ... are supplied the defaults are first reset to the ‘factory-fresh’ values and then the new values are applied.

Value

A named list of all the defaults. If any arguments are supplied the return values are the old values and the result has the visibility flag turned off.

See Also

[pdf](#), [ps.options](#).

Examples

```
pdf.options(bg = "pink")
utils::str(pdf.options())
pdf.options(reset = TRUE) # back to factory-fresh
```

pictex

A PicTeX Graphics Driver

Description

This function produces simple graphics suitable for inclusion in TeX and LaTeX documents. It dates from the very early days of R and is for historical interest only.

Usage

```
pictex(file = "Rplots.tex", width = 5, height = 4, debug = FALSE,
       bg = "white", fg = "black")
```

Arguments

file	the file where output will appear.
width	The width of the plot in inches.
height	the height of the plot in inches.
debug	should debugging information be printed.
bg	the background color for the plot. Ignored.
fg	the foreground color for the plot. Ignored.

Details

This driver is much more basic than the other graphics drivers included in R. It does not have any font metric information, so the use of `plotmath` is not supported.

Line widths are ignored except when setting the spacing of line textures. `pch = "."` corresponds to a square of side 1pt.

This device does not support colour (nor does the PicTeX package), and all colour settings are ignored.

Note that text is recorded in the file as-is, so annotations involving TeX special characters (such as ampersand and underscore) need to be quoted as they would be when entering TeX.

Multiple plots will be placed as separate environments in the output file.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the “R Internals Manual”.

- The default device size is 5 inches by 4 inches.
- There is no `pointsize` argument: the default size is interpreted as 10 point.
- The only font family is `cmss10`.
- Line widths are only used when setting the spacing on line textures.
- Circle of any radius are allowed.
- Colour is not supported.

Author(s)

This driver was provided around 1996–7 by Valerio Aimale of the Department of Internal Medicine, University of Genoa, Italy.

References

Knuth, D. E. (1984) *The TeXbook*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Lamport, L. (1994) *LATEX: A Document Preparation System*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Goossens, M., Mittelbach, F. and Samarin, A. (1994) *The LATEX Companion*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

See Also

[postscript](#), [pdf](#), [Devices](#).

The `tikzDevice` in the CRAN package of that name for more modern TeX-based graphics (<http://pgf.sourceforge.net/>, although including PDF figures *via* `pdftex` is most common in (La)TeX documents).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

pictex()
plot(1:11, (-5:5)^2, type = "b", main = "Simple Example Plot")
dev.off()
##-----
## Not run:
## LaTeX Example
\documentclass{article}
\usepackage{pictex}
\usepackage{graphics} % for \rotatebox
\begin{document}
%...
\begin{figure}[h]
  \centerline{\input{Rplots.tex}}
  \caption{}
\end{figure}
%...
\end{document}

## End(Not run)
##-----
unlink("Rplots.tex")
```

plotmath

Mathematical Annotation in R

Description

If the text argument to one of the text-drawing functions (`text`, `mtext`, `axis`, `legend`) in `R` is an expression, the argument is interpreted as a mathematical expression and the output will be formatted according to TeX-like rules. Expressions can also be used for titles, subtitles and x- and y-axis labels (but not for axis labels on `persp` plots).

In most cases other language objects (names and calls, including formulas) are coerced to expressions and so can also be used.

Details

A mathematical expression must obey the normal rules of syntax for any `R` expression, but it is interpreted according to very different rules than for normal `R` expressions.

It is possible to produce many different mathematical symbols, generate sub- or superscripts, produce fractions, etc.

The output from `demo(plotmath)` includes several tables which show the available features. In these tables, the columns of grey text show sample `R` expressions, and the columns of black text show the resulting output.

The available features are also described in the tables below:

Syntax

$x + y$
 $x - y$
 $x * y$
 x / y
 $x \%+-\% y$
 $x \%/\% y$
 $x \%*\% y$
 $x \%. \% y$
 $x[i]$
 x^2
 $\text{paste}(x, y, z)$
 $\text{sqrt}(x)$
 $\text{sqrt}(x, y)$
 $x == y$
 $x != y$
 $x < y$
 $x <= y$
 $x > y$
 $x >= y$
 $x \% \sim \% y$
 $x \% \approx \% y$
 $x \% == \% y$
 $x \% \text{prop} \% y$
 $x \% \sim \% y$
 $\text{plain}(x)$
 $\text{bold}(x)$
 $\text{italic}(x)$
 $\text{bolditalic}(x)$
 $\text{symbol}(x)$
 $\text{list}(x, y, z)$
 \dots
 cdots
 ldots
 $x \% \text{subset} \% y$
 $x \% \text{subsest} \% y$
 $x \% \text{notsubset} \% y$
 $x \% \text{supset} \% y$
 $x \% \text{supsest} \% y$
 $x \% \text{in} \% y$
 $x \% \text{notin} \% y$
 $\text{hat}(x)$
 $\text{tilde}(x)$
 $\text{dot}(x)$
 $\text{ring}(x)$
 $\text{bar}(xy)$
 $\text{widehat}(xy)$
 $\text{widetilde}(xy)$

Meaning

x plus y
 x minus y
 x juxtapose x and y
 x forwardslash y
 x plus or minus y
 x divided by y
 x times y
 x \cdot y
 x subscript i
 x superscript 2
 x juxtapose x , y , and z
square root of x
 y th root of x
 x equals y
 x is not equal to y
 x is less than y
 x is less than or equal to y
 x is greater than y
 x is greater than or equal to y
 x is approximately equal to y
 x and y are congruent
 x is defined as y
 x is proportional to y
 x is distributed as y
draw x in normal font
draw x in bold font
draw x in italic font
draw x in bolditalic font
draw x in symbol font
comma-separated list
ellipsis (height varies)
ellipsis (vertically centred)
ellipsis (at baseline)
 x is a proper subset of y
 x is a subset of y
 x is not a subset of y
 x is a proper superset of y
 x is a superset of y
 x is an element of y
 x is not an element of y
 x with a circumflex
 x with a tilde
 x with a dot
 x with a ring
 xy with bar
 xy with a wide circumflex
 xy with a wide tilde

<code>x %<=>% y</code>	<code>x double-arrow y</code>
<code>x %->% y</code>	<code>x right-arrow y</code>
<code>x %<-% y</code>	<code>x left-arrow y</code>
<code>x %up% y</code>	<code>x up-arrow y</code>
<code>x %down% y</code>	<code>x down-arrow y</code>
<code>x %<=>% y</code>	<code>x is equivalent to y</code>
<code>x %=>% y</code>	<code>x implies y</code>
<code>x %<=% y</code>	<code>y implies x</code>
<code>x %dblup% y</code>	<code>x double-up-arrow y</code>
<code>x %dbldown% y</code>	<code>x double-down-arrow y</code>
<code>alpha – omega</code>	Greek symbols
<code>Alpha – Omega</code>	uppercase Greek symbols
<code>theta1, phi1, sigma1, omega1</code>	cursive Greek symbols
<code>Upsilon1</code>	capital upsilon with hook
<code>aleph</code>	first letter of Hebrew alphabet
<code>infinity</code>	infinity symbol
<code>partialdiff</code>	partial differential symbol
<code>nabla</code>	nabla, gradient symbol
<code>32*degree</code>	32 degrees
<code>60*minute</code>	60 minutes of angle
<code>30*second</code>	30 seconds of angle
<code>displaystyle(x)</code>	draw x in normal size (extra spacing)
<code>textstyle(x)</code>	draw x in normal size
<code>scriptstyle(x)</code>	draw x in small size
<code>scriptscriptstyle(x)</code>	draw x in very small size
<code>underline(x)</code>	draw x underlined
<code>x ~~ y</code>	put extra space between x and y
<code>x + phantom(0) + y</code>	leave gap for "0", but don't draw it
<code>x + over(1, phantom(0))</code>	leave vertical gap for "0" (don't draw)
<code>frac(x, y)</code>	x over y
<code>over(x, y)</code>	x over y
<code>atop(x, y)</code>	x over y (no horizontal bar)
<code>sum(x[i], i==1, n)</code>	sum x[i] for i equals 1 to n
<code>prod(plain(P)(X==x), x)</code>	product of P(X=x) for all values of x
<code>integral(f(x)*dx, a, b)</code>	definite integral of f(x) wrt x
<code>union(A[i], i==1, n)</code>	union of A[i] for i equals 1 to n
<code>intersect(A[i], i==1, n)</code>	intersection of A[i]
<code>lim(f(x), x %->% 0)</code>	limit of f(x) as x tends to 0
<code>min(g(x), x > 0)</code>	minimum of g(x) for x greater than 0
<code>inf(S)</code>	infimum of S
<code>sup(S)</code>	supremum of S
<code>x^y + z</code>	normal operator precedence
<code>x^(y + z)</code>	visible grouping of operands
<code>x^{y + z}</code>	invisible grouping of operands
<code>group("(", list(a, b), ")")</code>	specify left and right delimiters
<code>bgroup("(", atop(x, y), ")")</code>	use scalable delimiters
<code>group(lceil, x, rceil)</code>	special delimiters
<code>group(lfloor, x, rfloor)</code>	special delimiters

The supported ‘scalable delimiters’ are `|` `(` `[` `{`, `lceil`, `lfloor` and their right-hand versions. `."` is equivalent to `""`: the corresponding delimiter will be omitted. Delimiter `||` is supported but has the same effect as `|`.

The symbol font uses Adobe Symbol encoding so, for example, a lower case mu can be obtained either by the special symbol `mu` or by `symbol("m")`. This provides access to symbols that have no special symbol name, for example, the universal, or forall, symbol is `symbol("\042")`. To see what symbols are available in this way use `TestChars(font=5)` as given in the examples for [points](#): some are only available on some devices.

Note to TeX users: TeX’s `\Upsilon` is `Upsilon1`, TeX’s `\varepsilon` is close to `epsilon`, and there is no equivalent of TeX’s `\epsilon`. TeX’s `\varpi` is close to `omega1`. `vartheta`, `varphi` and `varsigma` are allowed as synonyms for `theta1`, `phi1` and `sigma1`.

`sigma1` is also known as `stigma`, its Unicode name.

Control characters (e.g., `\n`) are not interpreted in character strings in `plotmath`, unlike normal plotting.

The fonts used are taken from the current font family, and so can be set by `par(family=)` in `base` graphics, and `gpar(fontfamily=)` in package `grid`.

Note that `bold`, `italic` and `bolditalic` do not apply to symbols, and hence not to the Greek *symbols* such as `mu` which are displayed in the symbol font. They also do not apply to numeric constants.

Other symbols

On many OSes and some graphics devices many other symbols are available as part of the standard text font, and all of the symbols in the Adobe Symbol encoding are in principle available *via* changing the font face or (see ‘Details’) `plotmath`: see the examples section of [points](#) for a function to display them. (‘In principle’ because some of the glyphs are missing from some implementations of the symbol font.) Unfortunately, `postscript` and `pdf` have support for little more than European (not Greek) and CJK characters and the Adobe Symbol encoding (and in a few fonts, also Cyrillic characters).

In a UTF-8 locale any Unicode character can be entered, perhaps as a `\uxxxx` or `\Uxxxxxxxx` escape sequence, but the issue is whether the graphics device is able to display the character. The widest range of characters is likely to be available in the [X11](#) device using `cairo`: see its help page for how installing additional fonts can help. This can often be used to display Greek *letters* in bold or italic.

In non-UTF-8 locales there is normally no support for symbols not in the languages for which the current encoding was intended.

References

Murrell, P. and Ihaka, R. (2000) An approach to providing mathematical annotation in plots. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, **9**, 582–599.

The symbol codes can be found in octal in the Adobe reference manuals, e.g. for Postscript <https://www.adobe.com/products/postscript/pdfs/PLRM.pdf> or PDF <https://www.adobe.com/>

devnet/acrobat/pdfs/pdf_reference_1-7.pdf and in decimal, octal and hex at <http://www.stat.auckland.ac.nz/~paul/R/CM/AdobeSym.html>.

See Also

`demo(plotmath)`, [axis](#), [mtext](#), [text](#), [title](#), [substitute quote](#), [bquote](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

x <- seq(-4, 4, len = 101)
y <- cbind(sin(x), cos(x))
matplot(x, y, type = "l", xaxt = "n",
        main = expression(paste(plain(sin) * phi, " and ",
                                plain(cos) * phi)),
        ylab = expression("sin" * phi, "cos" * phi), # only 1st is taken
        xlab = expression(paste("Phase Angle ", phi)),
        col.main = "blue")
axis(1, at = c(-pi, -pi/2, 0, pi/2, pi),
     labels = expression(-pi, -pi/2, 0, pi/2, pi))

## How to combine "math" and numeric variables :
plot(1:10, type="n", xlab="", ylab="", main = "plot math & numbers")
theta <- 1.23 ; mtext(bquote(hat(theta) == .(theta)), line= .25)
for(i in 2:9)
  text(i, i+1, substitute(list(xi, eta) == group("(",list(x,y),")"),
                        list(x = i, y = i+1)))
## note that both of these use calls rather than expressions.
##
text(1, 10, "Derivatives:", adj = 0)
text(1, 9.6, expression(
  "      first: {f * minute}(x) " == {f * minute}(x)), adj = 0)
text(1, 9.0, expression(
  "      second: {f * second}(x) " == {f * second}(x)), adj = 0)

plot(1:10, 1:10)
text(4, 9, expression(hat(beta) == (X^t * X)^{-1} * X^t * y))
text(4, 8.4, "expression(hat(beta) == (X^t * X)^{-1} * X^t * y)",
     cex = .8)
text(4, 7, expression(bar(x) == sum(frac(x[i], n), i==1, n)))
text(4, 6.4, "expression(bar(x) == sum(frac(x[i], n), i==1, n))",
     cex = .8)
text(8, 5, expression(paste(frac(1, sigma*sqrt(2*pi)), " ",
                            plain(e)^{frac(-(x-mu)^2, 2*sigma^2)})),
     cex = 1.2)

## some other useful symbols
plot.new(); plot.window(c(0,4), c(15,1))
text(1, 1, "universal", adj = 0); text(2.5, 1, "\\042")
text(3, 1, expression(symbol("\\042")))
```

```

text(1, 2, "existential", adj = 0); text(2.5, 2, "\\044")
text(3, 2, expression(symbol("\\044")))
text(1, 3, "suchthat", adj = 0); text(2.5, 3, "\\047")
text(3, 3, expression(symbol("\\047")))
text(1, 4, "therefore", adj = 0); text(2.5, 4, "\\134")
text(3, 4, expression(symbol("\\134")))
text(1, 5, "perpendicular", adj = 0); text(2.5, 5, "\\136")
text(3, 5, expression(symbol("\\136")))
text(1, 6, "circlemultiply", adj = 0); text(2.5, 6, "\\304")
text(3, 6, expression(symbol("\\304")))
text(1, 7, "circleplus", adj = 0); text(2.5, 7, "\\305")
text(3, 7, expression(symbol("\\305")))
text(1, 8, "emptyset", adj = 0); text(2.5, 8, "\\306")
text(3, 8, expression(symbol("\\306")))
text(1, 9, "angle", adj = 0); text(2.5, 9, "\\320")
text(3, 9, expression(symbol("\\320")))
text(1, 10, "leftangle", adj = 0); text(2.5, 10, "\\341")
text(3, 10, expression(symbol("\\341")))
text(1, 11, "rightangle", adj = 0); text(2.5, 11, "\\361")
text(3, 11, expression(symbol("\\361")))

```

png

BMP, JPEG, PNG and TIFF graphics devices

Description

Graphics devices for BMP, JPEG, PNG and TIFF format bitmap files.

Usage

```

bmp(filename = "Rplot%03d.bmp",
     width = 480, height = 480, units = "px", pointsize = 12,
     bg = "white", res = NA, ...,
     type = c("cairo", "Xlib", "quartz"), antialias)

jpeg(filename = "Rplot%03d.jpeg",
     width = 480, height = 480, units = "px", pointsize = 12,
     quality = 75,
     bg = "white", res = NA, ...,
     type = c("cairo", "Xlib", "quartz"), antialias)

png(filename = "Rplot%03d.png",
     width = 480, height = 480, units = "px", pointsize = 12,
     bg = "white", res = NA, ...,
     type = c("cairo", "cairo-png", "Xlib", "quartz"), antialias)

tiff(filename = "Rplot%03d.tiff",
     width = 480, height = 480, units = "px", pointsize = 12,
     compression = c("none", "rle", "lzw", "jpeg", "zip", "lzw+p", "zip+p"),

```

```
bg = "white", res = NA, ...,
type = c("cairo", "Xlib", "quartz"), antialias)
```

Arguments

filename	the name of the output file. The page number is substituted if a C integer format is included in the character string, as in the default. (The result must be less than <code>PATH_MAX</code> characters long, and may be truncated if not. See postscript for further details.) Tilde expansion is performed where supported by the platform.
width	the width of the device.
height	the height of the device.
units	The units in which height and width are given. Can be px (pixels, the default), in (inches), cm or mm.
pointsize	the default pointsize of plotted text, interpreted as big points (1/72 inch) at res ppi.
bg	the initial background colour: can be overridden by setting <code>par("bg")</code> .
quality	the ‘quality’ of the JPEG image, as a percentage. Smaller values will give more compression but also more degradation of the image.
compression	the type of compression to be used. Ignored for <code>type = "quartz"</code> .
res	The nominal resolution in ppi which will be recorded in the bitmap file, if a positive integer. Also used for units other than the default, and to convert points to pixels.
...	for <code>type = "Xlib"</code> only, additional arguments to the underlying X11 device such as fonts or family. For types <code>"cairo"</code> and <code>"quartz"</code> , the family argument can be supplied. See the ‘Cairo fonts’ section in the help for X11 .
type	character string, one of <code>"Xlib"</code> or <code>"quartz"</code> (some OS X builds) or <code>"cairo"</code> . The latter will only be available if the system was compiled with support for cairo – otherwise <code>"Xlib"</code> will be used. The default is set by getOption("bitmapType") – the ‘out of the box’ default is <code>"quartz"</code> or <code>"cairo"</code> where available, otherwise <code>"Xlib"</code> .
antialias	for <code>type = "cairo"</code> , giving the type of anti-aliasing (if any) to be used for fonts and lines (but not fills). See X11 . The default is set by X11.options . Also for <code>type = "quartz"</code> , where anti-aliasing is used unless <code>antialias = "none"</code> .

Details

Plots in PNG and JPEG format can easily be converted to many other bitmap formats, and both can be displayed in modern web browsers. The PNG format is lossless and is best for line diagrams and blocks of colour. The JPEG format is lossy, but may be useful for image plots, for example. BMP is a standard format on Windows. TIFF is a meta-format: the default format written by `tiff` is lossless and stores RGB (and alpha where appropriate) values uncompressed—such files are widely accepted, which is their main virtue over PNG.

png supports transparent backgrounds: use `bg = "transparent"`. (Not all PNG viewers render files with transparency correctly.) When transparency is in use in the `type = "Xlib"` variant a

very light grey is used as the background and so appears as transparent if used in the plot. This allows opaque white to be used, as in the example. The type = "cairo", type = "cairo-png" and type = "quartz" variants allow semi-transparent colours, including on a transparent or semi-transparent background.

tiff with types "cairo" and "quartz" supports semi-transparent colours, including on a transparent or semi-transparent background. Compression type "zip" is 'deflate (Adobe-style)'. Compression types "lzw+p" and "zip+p" use horizontal differencing ('differencing predictor', section 14 of the TIFF specification) in combination with the compression method, which is effective for continuous-tone images, especially colour ones.

R can be compiled without support for some or all of the types for each of these devices: this will be reported if you attempt to use them on a system where they are not supported. For type = "Xlib" they may not be usable unless the X11 display is available to the owner of the R process. type = "cairo" requires cairo 1.2 or later. type = "quartz" uses the [quartz](#) device and so is only available where that is (on some OS X builds: see [capabilities\("aqua"\)](#)).

By default no resolution is recorded in the file, except for BMP. Viewers will often assume a nominal resolution of 72 ppi when none is recorded. As resolutions in PNG files are recorded in pixels/metre, the reported ppi value will be changed slightly.

For graphics parameters that make use of dimensions in inches (including font sizes in points) the resolution used is res (or 72 ppi if unset).

png will normally use a palette if there are less than 256 colours on the page, and record a 24-bit RGB file otherwise (or a 32-bit ARGB file if type = "cairo" and non-opaque colours are used). However, type = "cairo-png" uses cairographics' PNG backend which will never use a palette and normally creates a larger 32-bit ARGB file—this may work better for specialist uses with semi-transparent colours.

Quartz-produced PNG and TIFF plots with a transparent background are recorded with a dark grey matte which will show up in some viewers, including Preview on OS X.

Prior to R 3.0.3 unknown resolutions in BMP files were sometimes recorded incorrectly: they are now recorded as 72 ppi.

Value

A plot device is opened: nothing is returned to the R interpreter.

Warnings

Note that by default the width and height values are in pixels not inches. A warning will be issued if both are less than 20.

If you plot more than one page on one of these devices and do not include something like %d for the sequence number in file, the file will contain the last page plotted.

Differences between OSes

These functions are interfaces to three or more different underlying devices.

- On Windows, devices based on plotting to a hidden screen using Windows' GDI calls.
- On platforms with support for X11, plotting to a hidden X11 display.

- On OS X when working at the console and when R is compiled with suitable support, using Apple's Quartz plotting system.
- Where support has been compiled in for cairographics, plotting on cairo surfaces. This may use the native platform support for fonts, or it may use fontconfig to support a wide range of font formats. (This was first available on Windows in R 2.14.0.)

Inevitably there will be differences between the options supported and output produced. Perhaps the most important are support for antialiased fonts and semi-transparent colours: the best results are likely to be obtained with the cairo- or Quartz-based devices where available.

The default extensions are '.jpg' and '.tif' on Windows, and '.jpeg' and '.tiff' elsewhere.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the "R Internals Manual".

- The default device size is in pixels.
- Font sizes are in big points interpreted at res ppi.
- The default font family is Helvetica.
- Line widths in 1/96 inch (interpreted at res ppi), minimum one pixel for type = "Xlib", 0.01 for type = "cairo".
- For type = "Xlib" circle radii are in pixels with minimum one.
- Colours are interpreted by the viewing application.

For type = "quartz" see the help for [quartz](#).

Note

For type = "Xlib" these devices are based on the [X11](#) device. The colour model used will be that set up by `X11.options` at the time the first Xlib-based device was opened (or the first after all such devices have been closed).

Author(s)

Guido Masarotto and Brian Ripley

References

The PNG specification, <http://www.w3.org/TR/PNG/>.

The TIFF specification, including extensions, at <https://partners.adobe.com/public/developer/tiff/>.

See Also

[Devices](#), [dev.print](#)

[capabilities](#) to see if these devices are supported by this build of R, and if type = "cairo" is supported.

[bitmap](#) provides an alternative way to generate plots in many bitmap formats that does not depend on accessing the X11 display but does depend on having GhostScript installed.

Examples

```
## these examples will work only if the devices are available
## and cairo or an X11 display or an OS X display is available.

## copy current plot to a (large) PNG file
## Not run: dev.print(png, file = "myplot.png", width = 1024, height = 768)

png(file = "myplot.png", bg = "transparent")
plot(1:10)
rect(1, 5, 3, 7, col = "white")
dev.off()

## will make myplot1.jpeg and myplot2.jpeg
jpeg(file = "myplot%d.jpeg")
example(rect)
dev.off()
```

postscript

PostScript Graphics

Description

postscript starts the graphics device driver for producing PostScript graphics.

Usage

```
postscript(file = ifelse(onefile, "Rplots.ps", "Rplot%03d.ps"),
           onefile, family, title, fonts, encoding, bg, fg,
           width, height, horizontal, pointsize,
           paper, pagecentre, print.it, command,
           colormodel, useKerning, fillOddEven)
```

Arguments

file	<p>a character string giving the name of the file. If it is "", the output is piped to the command given by the argument command. If it is of the form " cmd", the output is piped to the command given by cmd.</p> <p>For use with onefile = FALSE give a printf format such as "Rplot%03d.ps" (the default in that case). The string should not otherwise contain a %: if it is really necessary, use %% in the string for % in the file name. A single integer format matching the regular expression "%[#0 +--]*[0-9.]*[diouxX]" is allowed.</p> <p>Tilde expansion (see path.expand) is done.</p>
onefile	<p>logical: if true (the default) allow multiple figures in one file. If false, generate a file name containing the page number for each page and use an EPSF header and no DocumentMedia comment. Defaults to the TRUE.</p>
family	<p>the initial font family to be used, normally as a character string. See the section 'Families'. Defaults to "Helvetica".</p>

title	title string to embed as the Title comment in the file. Defaults to "R Graphics Output".
fonts	a character vector specifying additional R graphics font family names for font families whose declarations will be included in the PostScript file and are available for use with the device. See 'Families' below. Defaults to NULL.
encoding	the name of an encoding file. Defaults to "default". The latter is interpreted as "ISOLatin1.enc" unless the locale is recognized as corresponding to a language using ISO 8859-{2,5,7,13,15} or KOI8-{R,U}. The file is looked for in the 'enc' directory of package grDevices if the path does not contain a path separator. An extension ".enc" can be omitted.
bg	the initial background color to be used. If "transparent" (or any other non-opaque colour), no background is painted. Defaults to "transparent".
fg	the initial foreground color to be used. Defaults to "black".
width, height	the width and height of the graphics region in inches. Default to 0. If paper != "special" and width or height is less than 0.1 or too large to give a total margin of 0.5 inch, the graphics region is reset to the corresponding paper dimension minus 0.5.
horizontal	the orientation of the printed image, a logical. Defaults to true, that is landscape orientation on paper sizes with width less than height.
pointsize	the default point size to be used. Strictly speaking, in bp, that is 1/72 of an inch, but approximately in points. Defaults to 12.
paper	the size of paper in the printer. The choices are "a4", "letter" (or "us"), "legal" and "executive" (and these can be capitalized). Also, "special" can be used, when arguments width and height specify the paper size. A further choice is "default" (the default): If this is selected, the papersize is taken from the option "papersize" if that is set and to "a4" if it is unset or empty.
pagecentre	logical: should the device region be centred on the page? Defaults to true.
print.it	logical: should the file be printed when the device is closed? (This only applies if file is a real file name.) Defaults to false.
command	the command to be used for 'printing'. Defaults to "default", the value of option "printcmd". The length limit is 2*PATH_MAX, typically 8096 bytes.
colormodel	a character string describing the color model: currently allowed values as "srgb", "srgb+gray", "rgb", "rgb-nogray", "gray" (or "grey") and "cmyk". Defaults to "srgb". See section 'Color models'.
useKerning	logical. Should kerning corrections be included in setting text and calculating string widths? Defaults to TRUE.
fillOddEven	logical controlling the polygon fill mode: see polygon for details. Default FALSE.

Details

All arguments except file default to values given by `ps.options()`. The ultimate defaults are quoted in the arguments section.

postscript opens the file `file` and the PostScript commands needed to plot any graphics requested are written to that file. This file can then be printed on a suitable device to obtain hard copy.

The `file` argument is interpreted as a C integer format as used by `sprintf`, with integer argument the page number. The default gives files `'Rplot001.ps'`, ..., `'Rplot999.ps'`, `'Rplot1000.ps'`,

The postscript produced for a single R plot is EPS (*Encapsulated PostScript*) compatible, and can be included into other documents, e.g., into LaTeX, using `\includegraphics{<filename>}`. For use in this way you will probably want to use `setEPS()` to set the defaults as `horizontal = FALSE`, `onefile = FALSE`, `paper = "special"`. Note that the bounding box is for the *device* region: if you find the white space around the plot region excessive, reduce the margins of the figure region via `par(mar =)`.

Most of the PostScript prologue used is taken from the R character vector `.ps.prolog`. This is marked in the output, and can be changed by changing that vector. (This is only advisable for PostScript experts: the standard version is in `namespace:grDevices`.)

A PostScript device has a default family, which can be set by the user via `family`. If other font families are to be used when drawing to the PostScript device, these must be declared when the device is created via `fonts`; the font family names for this argument are R graphics font family names (see the documentation for `postscriptFonts`).

Line widths as controlled by `par(lwd =)` are in multiples of 1/96 inch: multiples less than 1 are allowed. `pch = "."` with `cex = 1` corresponds to a square of side 1/72 inch, which is also the 'pixel' size assumed for graphics parameters such as `"cra"`.

When the background colour is fully transparent (as is the initial default value), the PostScript produced does not paint the background. Almost all PostScript viewers will use a white canvas so the visual effect is if the background were white. This will not be the case when printing onto coloured paper, though.

Families

Font families are collections of fonts covering the five font faces, (conventionally plain, bold, italic, bold-italic and symbol) selected by the graphics parameter `par(font =)` or the grid parameter `gpar(fontface =)`. Font families can be specified either as an initial/default font family for the device via the `family` argument or after the device is opened by the graphics parameter `par(family =)` or the grid parameter `gpar(fontfamily =)`. Families which will be used in addition to the initial family must be specified in the `fonts` argument when the device is opened.

Font families are declared via a call to `postscriptFonts`.

The argument `family` specifies the initial/default font family to be used. In normal use it is one of `"AvantGarde"`, `"Bookman"`, `"Courier"`, `"Helvetica"`, `"Helvetica-Narrow"`, `"NewCenturySchoolbook"`, `"Palatino"` or `"Times"`, and refers to the standard Adobe PostScript fonts families of those names which are included (or cloned) in all common PostScript devices.

Many PostScript emulators (including those based on ghostscript) use the URW equivalents of these fonts, which are `"URWGothic"`, `"URWBookman"`, `"NimbusMon"`, `"NimbusSan"`, `"NimbusSanCond"`, `"CenturySch"`, `"URWPalladio"` and `"NimbusRom"` respectively. If your PostScript device is using URW fonts, you will obtain access to more characters and more appropriate metrics by using these names. To make these easier to remember, `"URWHelvetica" == "NimbusSan"` and `"URWTimes" == "NimbusRom"` are also supported.

Another type of family makes use of CID-keyed fonts for East Asian languages – see `postscriptFonts`.

The family argument is normally a character string naming a font family, but family objects generated by `Type1Font` and `CIDFont` are also accepted. For compatibility with earlier versions of R, the initial family can also be specified as a vector of four or five afm files.

Note that R does not embed the font(s) used in the PostScript output: see `embedFonts` for a utility to help do so.

Viewers and embedding applications frequently substitute fonts for those specified in the family, and the substitute will often have slightly different font metrics. `useKerning = TRUE` spaces the letters in the string using kerning corrections for the intended family: this may look uglier than `useKerning = FALSE`.

Encodings

Encodings describe which glyphs are used to display the character codes (in the range 0–255). Most commonly R uses ISOLatin1 encoding, and the examples for `text` are in that encoding. However, the encoding used on machines running R may well be different, and by using the encoding argument the glyphs can be matched to encoding in use. This suffices for European and Cyrillic languages, but not for East Asian languages. For the latter, composite CID fonts are used. These fonts are useful for other languages: for example they may contain Greek glyphs. (The rest of this section applies only when CID fonts are not used.)

None of this will matter if only ASCII characters (codes 32–126) are used as all the encodings (except "TeXtext") agree over that range. Some encodings are supersets of ISOLatin1, too. However, if accented and special characters do not come out as you expect, you may need to change the encoding. Some other encodings are supplied with R: "WinAnsi.enc" and "MacRoman.enc" correspond to the encodings normally used on Windows and Classic Mac OS (at least by Adobe), and "PDFDoc.enc" is the first 256 characters of the Unicode encoding, the standard for PDF. There are also encodings "ISOLatin2.enc", "CP1250.enc", "ISOLatin7.enc" (ISO 8859-13), "CP1257.enc", and "ISOLatin9.enc" (ISO 8859-15), "Cyrillic.enc" (ISO 8859-5), "KOI8-R.enc", "KOI8-U.enc", "CP1251.enc", "Greek.enc" (ISO 8859-7) and "CP1253.enc". Note that many glyphs in these encodings are not in the fonts corresponding to the standard families. (The Adobe ones for all but Courier, Helvetica and Times cover little more than Latin-1, whereas the URW ones also cover Latin-2, Latin-7, Latin-9 and Cyrillic but no Greek. The Adobe exceptions cover the Latin character sets, but not the Euro.)

If you specify the encoding, it is your responsibility to ensure that the PostScript font contains the glyphs used. One issue here is the Euro symbol which is in the WinAnsi and MacRoman encodings but may well not be in the PostScript fonts. (It is in the URW variants; it is not in the supplied Adobe Font Metric files.)

There is an exception. Character 45 ("–") is always set as minus (its value in Adobe ISOLatin1) even though it is hyphen in the other encodings. Hyphen is available as character 173 (octal 0255) in all the Latin encodings, Cyrillic and Greek. (This can be entered as "\uad" in a UTF-8 locale.) There are some discrepancies in accounts of glyphs 39 and 96: the supplied encodings (except CP1250 and CP1251) treat these as 'quoteright' and 'quoteleft' (rather than 'quotesingle'/'acute' and 'grave' respectively), as they are in the Adobe documentation.

TeX fonts

TeX has traditionally made use of fonts such as Computer Modern which are encoded rather differently, in a 7-bit encoding. This encoding can be specified by `encoding = "TeXtext.enc"`, taking care that the ASCII characters `< > \ _ { }` are not available in those fonts.

There are supplied families "ComputerModern" and "ComputerModernItalic" which use this encoding, and which are only supported for postscript (and not pdf). They are intended to use with the Type 1 versions of the TeX CM fonts. It will normally be possible to include such output in TeX or LaTeX provided it is processed with `dvips -Ppfb -j0` or the equivalent on your system. (`-j0` turns off font subsetting.) When `family = "ComputerModern"` is used, the italic/bold-italic fonts used are slanted fonts (`cmsl10` and `cmbxsl10`). To use text italic fonts instead, set `family = "ComputerModernItalic"`.

These families use the TeX math italic and symbol fonts for a comprehensive but incomplete coverage of the glyphs covered by the Adobe symbol font in other families. This is achieved by special-casing the postscript code generated from the supplied 'CM_symbol_10.afm'.

Color models

The default color model ("srgb") is sRGB.

The alternative "srgb+gray" uses sRGB for colors, but with pure gray colors (including black and white) expressed as greyscales (which results in smaller files and can be advantageous with some printer drivers). Conversely, its files can be rendered much slower on some viewers, and there can be a noticeable discontinuity in color gradients involving gray or white.

Other possibilities are "gray" (or "grey") which used only greyscales (and converts other colours to a luminance), and "cmyk". The simplest possible conversion from sRGB to CMYK is used (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/CMYK_color_model#Mapping_RGB_to_CMYK), and raster images are output in RGB.

Color models provided for backwards compatibility are "rgb" (which is RGB+gray) and "rgb-nogray" which use uncalibrated RGB (as used in R prior to 2.13.0). These result in slightly smaller files which may render faster, but do rely on the viewer being properly calibrated.

Printing

A postscript plot can be printed via postscript in two ways.

1. Setting `print.it = TRUE` causes the command given in argument `command` to be called with argument "file" when the device is closed. Note that the plot file is not deleted unless `command` arranges to delete it.
2. `file = ""` or `file = "|cmd"` can be used to print using a pipe. Failure to open the command will probably be reported to the terminal but not to R, in which case close the device by `dev.off` immediately.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the "R Internals Manual".

- The default device size is 7 inches square.
- Font sizes are in big points.
- The default font family is Helvetica.
- Line widths are as a multiple of 1/96 inch, with a minimum of 0.01 enforced.
- Circle of any radius are allowed.

- Colours are by default specified as sRGB.

At very small line widths, the line type may be forced to solid.

Raster images are currently limited to opaque colours.

Note

If you see problems with postscript output, do remember that the problem is much more likely to be in your viewer than in R. Try another viewer if possible. Symptoms for which the viewer has been at fault are apparent grids on image plots (turn off graphics anti-aliasing in your viewer if you can) and missing or incorrect glyphs in text (viewers silently doing font substitution).

Unfortunately the default viewers on most Linux and OS X systems have these problems, and no obvious way to turn off graphics anti-aliasing.

Author(s)

Support for Computer Modern fonts is based on a contribution by Brian D'Urso <durso@hussle.harvard.edu>.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`postscriptFonts`, `Devices`, and `check.options` which is called from both `ps.options` and `postscript`.

`cairo_ps` for another device that can produce PostScript.

More details of font families and encodings and especially handling text in a non-Latin-1 encoding and embedding fonts can be found in

Paul Murrell and Brian Ripley (2006) Non-standard fonts in PostScript and PDF graphics. *R News*, 6(2):41–47. https://www.r-project.org/doc/Rnews/Rnews_2006-2.pdf.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
## Not run:
# open the file "foo.ps" for graphics output
postscript("foo.ps")
# produce the desired graph(s)
dev.off()           # turn off the postscript device
postscript("|lp -dlw")
# produce the desired graph(s)
dev.off()           # plot will appear on printer

# for URW PostScript devices
postscript("foo.ps", family = "NimbusSan")
```

```
## for inclusion in Computer Modern TeX documents, perhaps
postscript("cm_test.eps", width = 4.0, height = 3.0,
           horizontal = FALSE, onefile = FALSE, paper = "special",
           family = "ComputerModern", encoding = "TeXtext.enc")
## The resultant postscript file can be used by dvips -Ppfb -j0.

## To test out encodings, you can use
TestChars <- function(encoding = "ISOLatin1", family = "URWHelvetica")
{
  postscript(encoding = encoding, family = family)
  par(pty = "s")
  plot(c(-1,16), c(-1,16), type = "n", xlab = "", ylab = "",
       xaxs = "i", yaxs = "i")
  title(paste("Centred chars in encoding", encoding))
  grid(17, 17, lty = 1)
  for(i in c(32:255)) {
    x <- i %% 16
    y <- i %/% 16
    points(x, y, pch = i)
  }
  dev.off()
}
## there will be many warnings. We use URW to get a complete enough
## set of font metrics.
TestChars()
TestChars("ISOLatin2")
TestChars("WinAnsi")

## End(Not run)
```

postscriptFonts

PostScript and PDF Font Families

Description

These functions handle the translation of a R graphics font family name to a PostScript or PDF font description, used by the [postscript](#) or [pdf](#) graphics devices.

Usage

```
postscriptFonts(...)
pdfFonts(...)
```

Arguments

... either character strings naming mappings to display, or named arguments specifying mappings to add or change.

Details

If these functions are called with no argument they list all the existing mappings, whereas if they are called with named arguments they add (or change) mappings.

A PostScript or PDF device is created with a default font family (see the documentation for [postscript](#)), but it is also possible to specify a font family when drawing to the device (for example, see the documentation for "family" in [par](#) and for "fontfamily" in [gpar](#) in the **grid** package).

The font family sent to the device is a simple string name, which must be mapped to a set of PostScript fonts. Separate lists of mappings for postscript and pdf devices are maintained for the current R session and can be added to by the user.

The `postscriptFonts` and `pdfFonts` functions can be used to list existing mappings and to define new mappings. The `Type1Font` and `CIDFont` functions can be used to create new mappings, when the `xxxFonts` function is used to add them to the database. See the examples.

Default mappings are provided for three device-independent family names: "sans" for a sans-serif font (to "Helvetica"), "serif" for a serif font (to "Times") and "mono" for a monospaced font (to "Courier").

Mappings for a number of standard Adobe fonts (and URW equivalents) are also provided: "AvantGarde", "Bookman", "Courier", "Helvetica", "Helvetica-Narrow", "NewCenturySchoolbook", "Palatino" and "Times"; "URWGothic", "URWBookman", "NimbusMon", "NimbusSan" (synonym "URWHelvetica"), "NimbusSanCond", "CenturySch", "URWPalladio" and "NimbusRom" (synonym "URWTimes").

There are also mappings for "ComputerModern", "ComputerModernItalic" and, as from R 3.1.0, "ArialMT" (Monotype Arial).

Finally, there are some default mappings for East Asian locales described in a separate section.

The specification of font metrics and encodings is described in the help for the [postscript](#) function.

The fonts are not embedded in the resulting PostScript or PDF file, so software including the PostScript or PDF plot file should either embed the font outlines (usually from '.pfb' or '.pfa' files) or use DSC comments to instruct the print spooler or including application to do so (see also [embedFonts](#)).

A font family has both an R-level name, the argument name used when `postscriptFonts` was called, and an internal name, the family component. These two names are the same for all the pre-defined font families.

Once a font family is in use it cannot be changed. 'In use' means that it has been specified *via* a family or fonts argument to an invocation of the same graphics device already in the R session. (For these purposes `xfig` counts the same as `postscript` but only uses some of the predefined mappings.)

Value

A list of one or more font mappings.

East Asian fonts

There are some default mappings for East Asian locales:

"Japan1", "Japan1HeiMin", "Japan1GothicBBB", and "Japan1Ryumin" for Japanese; "Korea1" and "Korea1deb" for Korean; "GB1" (Simplified Chinese) for mainland China and Singapore; "CNS1" (Traditional Chinese) for Hong Kong and Taiwan.

These refer to the following fonts

Japan1 (PS)	HeiseiKakuGo-W5 Linotype Japanese printer font
Japan1 (PDF)	KozMinPro-Regular-Acro from Adobe Reader 7.0 Japanese Font Pack
Japan1HeiMin (PS)	HeiseiMin-W3 Linotype Japanese printer font
Japan1HeiMin (PDF)	HeiseiMin-W3-Acro from Adobe Reader 7.0 Japanese Font Pack
Japan1GothicBBB	GothicBBB-Medium Japanese-market PostScript printer font
Japan1Ryumin	Ryumin-Light Japanese-market PostScript printer font
Korea1 (PS)	Baekmuk-Batang TrueType font found on some Linux systems
Korea1 (PDF)	HYSMyeongJoStd-Medium-Acro from Adobe Reader 7.0 Korean Font Pack
Korea1deb (PS)	Batang-Regular another name for Baekmuk-Batang
Korea1deb (PDF)	HYGothic-Medium-Acro from Adobe Reader 4.0 Korean Font Pack
GB1 (PS)	BousungEG-Light-GB TrueType font found on some Linux systems
GB1 (PDF)	STSong-Light-Acro from Adobe Reader 7.0 Simplified Chinese Font Pack
CNS1 (PS)	MOESung-Regular Ken Lunde's CJKV resources
CNS1 (PDF)	MSungStd-Light-Acro from Adobe Reader 7.0 Traditional Chinese Font Pack

BousungEG-Light-GB can be found at <ftp://ftp.gnu.org/pub/non-gnu/chinese-fonts-truetype/>. Ken Lunde's CJKV resources are at <ftp://ftp.oreilly.com/pub/examples/nutshell/cjkv/adobe/samples/>. These will need to be installed or otherwise made available to the postscript/PDF interpreter such as ghostscript (and not all interpreters can handle TrueType fonts).

You may well find that your postscript/PDF interpreters has been set up to provide aliases for many of these fonts. For example, ghostscript on Windows can optionally be installed to map common East Asian fonts names to Windows TrueType fonts. (You may want to add the -Acro versions as well.)

Adding a mapping for a CID-keyed font is for gurus only.

Author(s)

Support for Computer Modern fonts is based on a contribution by Brian D’Urso.

See Also

[postscript](#) and [pdf](#); [Type1Font](#) and [CIDFont](#) for specifying new font mappings.

Examples

```
postscriptFonts()
## This duplicates "ComputerModernItalic".
CMitalic <- Type1Font("ComputerModern2",
  c("CM_regular_10.afm", "CM_boldx_10.afm",
    "cmti10.afm", "cmbxti10.afm",
    "CM_symbol_10.afm"),
  encoding = "TeXtext.enc")
postscriptFonts(CMitalic = CMitalic)

## A CID font for Japanese using a different CMap and
## corresponding cmapEncoding.
`Jp_UCS-2` <- CIDFont("TestUCS2",
  c("Adobe-Japan1-UniJIS-UCS2-H.afm",
    "Adobe-Japan1-UniJIS-UCS2-H.afm",
    "Adobe-Japan1-UniJIS-UCS2-H.afm",
    "Adobe-Japan1-UniJIS-UCS2-H.afm"),
  "UniJIS-UCS2-H", "UCS-2")
pdfFonts(`Jp_UCS-2` = `Jp_UCS-2`)
names(pdfFonts())
```

pretty.Date

Pretty Breakpoints for Date-Time Classes

Description

Compute a sequence of about $n+1$ equally spaced ‘nice’ values which cover the range of the values in x .

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'Date'
pretty(x, n = 5, min.n = n %% 2, sep = " ", ...)
## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
pretty(x, n = 5, min.n = n %% 2, sep = " ", ...)
```

Arguments

x	an object of class "Date" or "POSIXt" (i.e., "POSIXct" or "POSIXlt").
n	integer giving the <i>desired</i> number of intervals.
min.n	nonnegative integer giving the <i>minimal</i> number of intervals.
sep	character string, serving as a separator for certain formats (e.g., between month and year).
...	further arguments for compatibility with the generic, ignored.

Value

A vector (of the suitable class) of locations, with attribute "labels" giving corresponding formatted character labels.

See Also

[pretty](#) for the default method.

Examples

```
steps <-
  list("10 secs", "1 min", "5 mins", "30 mins", "6 hours", "12 hours",
        "1 DSTday", "2 weeks", "1 month", "6 months", "1 year",
        "10 years", "50 years", "1000 years")

names(steps) <- paste("span =", unlist(steps))

x <- as.POSIXct("2002-02-02 02:02")
lapply(steps,
  function(s) {
    at <- pretty(seq(x, by = s, length = 2), n = 5)
    attr(at, "labels")
  })
```

ps.options

Auxiliary Function to Set/View Defaults for Arguments of postscript

Description

The auxiliary function ps.options can be used to set or view (if called without arguments) the default values for some of the arguments to [postscript](#).

ps.options needs to be called before calling postscript, and the default values it sets can be overridden by supplying arguments to postscript.

Usage

```
ps.options(..., reset = FALSE, override.check = FALSE)
```

```
setEPS(...)
```

```
setPS(...)
```

Arguments

... arguments onefile, family, title, fonts, encoding, bg, fg, width, height, horizontal, pointsize, paper, pagecentre, print.it, command, colormodel and fillOddEven can be supplied. onefile, horizontal and paper are *ignored* for setEPS and setPS.

reset logical: should the defaults be reset to their ‘factory-fresh’ values?

override.check logical argument passed to [check.options](#). See the Examples.

Details

If both reset = TRUE and ... are supplied the defaults are first reset to the ‘factory-fresh’ values and then the new values are applied.

For backwards compatibility argument append is accepted but ignored with a warning.

setEPS and setPS are wrappers to set defaults appropriate for figures for inclusion in documents (the default size is 7 inches square unless width or height is supplied) and for spooling to a PostScript printer respectively. For historical reasons the latter is the ultimate default.

Value

A named list of all the previous defaults. If ... or reset = TRUE is supplied the result has the visibility flag turned off.

See Also

[postscript](#), [pdf.options](#)

Examples

```
ps.options(bg = "pink")
utils::str(ps.options())

### ---- error checking of arguments: ----
ps.options(width = 0:12, onefile = 0, bg = pi)
# override the check for 'width', but not 'bg':
ps.options(width = 0:12, bg = pi, override.check = c(TRUE,FALSE))
utils::str(ps.options())
ps.options(reset = TRUE) # back to factory-fresh
```

quartz

*OS X Quartz Device***Description**

quartz starts a graphics device driver for the OS X System. It supports plotting both to the screen (the default) and to various graphics file formats.

Usage

```
quartz(title, width, height, pointsize, family, antialias, type,
       file = NULL, bg, canvas, dpi)
```

```
quartz.options(..., reset = FALSE)
```

```
quartz.save(file, type = "png", device = dev.cur(), dpi = 100, ...)
```

Arguments

title	title for the Quartz window (applies to on-screen output only), default "Quartz %d". A C-style format for an integer will be substituted by the device number (see the file argument to postscript for further details).
width	the width of the plotting area in inches. Default 7.
height	the height of the plotting area in inches. Default 7.
pointsize	the default pointsize to be used. Default 12.
family	this is the family name of the font that will be used by the device. Default "Arial". This will be the base name of a font as shown in Font Book.
antialias	whether to use antialiasing. Default TRUE.
type	the type of output to use. See 'Details' for more information. Default "native".
file	an optional target for the graphics device. The default, NULL, selects a default name where one is needed. See 'Details' for more information.
bg	the initial background colour to use for the device. Default "transparent". An opaque colour such as "white" will normally be required on off-screen types that support transparency such as "png" and "tiff".
canvas	canvas colour to use for an on-screen device. Default "white", and will be forced to be an opaque colour.
dpi	resolution of the output. The default (NA_real_) for an on-screen display defaults to the resolution of the main screen, and to 72 dpi otherwise. See 'Details'.
...	Any of the arguments to quartz except file.
reset	logical: should the defaults be reset to their defaults?
device	device number to copy from.

Details

The defaults for all but one of the arguments of `quartz` are set by `quartz.options`: the ‘Arguments’ section gives the ‘factory-fresh’ defaults.

The Quartz graphics device supports a variety of output types. On-screen output types are "" or "native" or "Cocoa". Off-screen output types produce output files and utilize the `file` argument. `type = "pdf"` gives PDF output. The following bitmap formats may be supported (depending on the OS version): "png", "jpeg", "jpg", "jpeg2000", "tif", "tiff", "gif", "psd" (Adobe Photoshop), "bmp" (Windows bitmap), "sgi" and "pict".

The `file` argument is used for off-screen drawing. The actual file is only created when the device is closed (e.g., using `dev.off()`). For the bitmap devices, the page number is substituted if a C integer format is included in the character string, e.g. `Rplot%03d.png`. (The result must be less than `PATH_MAX` characters long, and may be truncated if not. See [postscript](#) for further details.) If a file argument is not supplied, the default is `Rplots.pdf` or `Rplot%03d.type`. Tilde expansion (see [path.expand](#)) is done.

If a device-independent R graphics font family is specified (e.g., via `par(family =)` in the graphics package), the Quartz device makes use of the Quartz font database (see `quartzFonts`) to convert the R graphics font family to a Quartz-specific font family description. The default conversions are (MonoType TrueType versions of) Helvetica for sans, Times-Roman for serif and Courier for mono.

On-screen devices are launched with a semi-transparent canvas. Once a new plot is created, the canvas is first painted with the canvas colour and then the current background colour (which can be transparent or semi-transparent). Off-screen devices have no canvas colour, and so start with a transparent background where possible (e.g., `type = "png"` and `type = "tiff"`) – otherwise it appears that a solid white canvas is assumed in the Quartz code. PNG and TIFF files are saved with a dark grey matte which will show up in some viewers, including Preview.

`title` can be used for on-screen output. It must be a single character string with an optional integer printf-style format that will be substituted by the device number. It is also optionally used (without a format) to give a title to a PDF file.

Calling `quartz()` sets `.Device` to "quartz" for on-screen devices and to "quartz_off_screen" otherwise.

The font family chosen needs to cover the characters to be used: characters not in the font are rendered as empty oblongs. For non-Western-European languages something other than the default of "Arial" is likely to be needed—one choice for Chinese is "MingLiU".

`quartz.save` is a modified version of [dev.copy2pdf](#) to copy the plot from the current screen device to a quartz device, by default to a PNG file.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the “R Internals Manual”.

- The default device size is 7 inches square.
- Font sizes are in big points.
- The default font family is Arial.
- Line widths are a multiple of 1/96 inch with no minimum set by R.

- Circle radii are real-valued with no minimum set by R.
- Colours are specified as sRGB.

Note

For a long time the default font family was documented as "Helvetica" after it had been changed to "Arial" to work around a deficiency in OS X 10.4. It may be changed back in future.

A fairly common Mac problem is no text appearing on plots due to corrupted or duplicated fonts on your system. You may be able to confirm this by using another font family, e.g. `family = "serif"`. Open the Font Book application (in Applications) and check the fonts that you are using.

See Also

[quartzFonts, Devices.](#)

[png](#) for way to access the bitmap types of this device via R's standard bitmap devices.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## put something like this in your .Rprofile to customize the defaults
setHook(packageEvent("grDevices", "onLoad"),
        function(...) grDevices::quartz.options(width = 8, height = 6,
                                                pointsize = 10))

## End(Not run)
```

quartzFonts

quartz Fonts

Description

These functions handle the translation of a device-independent R graphics font family name to a quartz font description.

Usage

```
quartzFont(family)
```

```
quartzFonts(...)
```

Arguments

<code>family</code>	a character vector containing the four PostScript font names for plain, bold, italic, and bolditalic versions of a font family.
<code>...</code>	either character strings naming mappings to display, or new (named) mappings to define.

Details

A quartz device is created with a default font (see the documentation for quartz), but it is also possible to specify a font family when drawing to the device (for example, see the documentation for gpar in the grid package).

The font family sent to the device is a simple string name, which must be mapped to something more specific to quartz fonts. A list of mappings is maintained and can be modified by the user.

The quartzFonts function can be used to list existing mappings and to define new mappings. The quartzFont function can be used to create a new mapping.

Default mappings are provided for three device-independent font family names: "sans" for a sans-serif font, "serif" for a serif font and "mono" for a monospaced font.

See Also

[quartz](#)

Examples

```
quartzFonts()
quartzFonts("mono")
## Not run:
## for East Asian locales you can use something like
quartzFonts(sans = quartzFont(rep("AppleGothic", 4)),
             serif = quartzFont(rep("AppleMyungjp", 4)))
## since the default fonts may well not have the glyphs needed

## End(Not run)
```

recordGraphics

Record Graphics Operations

Description

Records arbitrary code on the graphics engine display list. Useful for encapsulating calculations with graphical output that depends on the calculations. Intended *only* for expert use.

Usage

```
recordGraphics(expr, list, env)
```

Arguments

expr	object of mode expression or call or an unevaluated expression.
list	a list defining the environment in which expr is to be evaluated.
env	An environment specifying where R looks for objects not found in envir.

Details

The code in `expr` is evaluated in an environment constructed from `list`, with `env` as the parent of that environment.

All three arguments are saved on the graphics engine display list so that on a device resize or copying between devices, the original evaluation environment can be recreated and the code can be re-evaluated to reproduce the graphical output.

Value

The value from evaluating `expr`.

Warning

This function is not intended for general use. Incorrect or improper use of this function could lead to unintended and/or undesirable results.

An example of acceptable use is querying the current state of a graphics device or graphics system setting and then calling a graphics function.

An example of improper use would be calling the `assign` function to performing assignments in the global environment.

See Also

[eval](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

plot(1:10)
# This rectangle remains 1inch wide when the device is resized
recordGraphics(
  {
    rect(4, 2,
         4 + diff(par("usr")[1:2])/par("pin")[1], 3)
  },
  list(),
  getNamespace("graphics"))
```

`recordPlot`*Record and Replay Plots*

Description

Functions to save the current plot in an **R** variable, and to replay it.

Usage

```
recordPlot()  
replayPlot(x)
```

Arguments

x A saved plot.

Details

These functions record and replay the displaylist of the current graphics device. The returned object is of class "recordedplot", and `replayPlot` acts as a print method for that class.

The returned object is stored as a pairlist, but the usual methods for examining R objects such as `deparse` and `str` are liable to mislead.

Value

`recordPlot` returns an object of class "recordedplot".

`replayPlot` has no return value.

Warning

The format of recorded plots may change between R versions. Recorded plots can **not** be used as a permanent storage format for R plots. There were extensive changes in R 3.0.0, and now only plots from the current session can be replayed.

See Also

The displaylist can be turned on and off using `dev.control`. Initially recording is on for screen devices, and off for print devices.

rgb

RGB Color Specification

Description

This function creates colors corresponding to the given intensities (between 0 and max) of the red, green and blue primaries. The colour specification refers to the standard sRGB colorspace (IEC standard 61966).

An alpha transparency value can also be specified (as an opacity, so 0 means fully transparent and max means opaque). If alpha is not specified, an opaque colour is generated.

The names argument may be used to provide names for the colors.

The values returned by these functions can be used with a `col=` specification in graphics functions or in `par`.

Usage

```
rgb(red, green, blue, alpha, names = NULL, maxColorValue = 1)
```

Arguments

red, blue, green, alpha
 numeric vectors with values in $[0, M]$ where M is maxColorValue. When this is 255, the red, blue, green, and alpha values are coerced to integers in $0:255$ and the result is computed most efficiently.

names
 character vector. The names for the resulting vector.

maxColorValue
 number giving the maximum of the color values range, see above.

Details

The colors may be specified by passing a matrix or data frame as argument red, and leaving blue and green missing. In this case the first three columns of red are taken to be the red, green and blue values.

Semi-transparent colors ($0 < \alpha < 1$) are supported only on some devices: at the time of writing on the [pdf](#), windows, quartz and X11(`type = "cairo"`) devices and associated bitmap devices (jpeg, png, bmp, tiff and bitmap). They are supported by several third-party devices such as those in packages **Cairo**, **cairoDevice** and **JavaGD**. Only some of these devices support semi-transparent backgrounds.

Most other graphics devices plot semi-transparent colors as fully transparent, usually with a warning when first encountered.

NA values are not allowed for any of red, blue, green or alpha.

Value

A character vector with elements of 7 or 9 characters, `"#"` followed by the red, blue, green and optionally alpha values in hexadecimal (after rescaling to $0 \dots 255$). The optional alpha values range from 0 (fully transparent) to 255 (opaque).

R does **not** use ‘premultiplied alpha’.

See Also

[col2rgb](#) for translating R colors to RGB vectors; [rainbow](#), [hsv](#), [hcl](#), [gray](#).

Examples

```
rgb(0, 1, 0)

rgb((0:15)/15, green = 0, blue = 0, names = paste("red", 0:15, sep = "."))

rgb(0, 0:12, 0, max = 255) # integer input

ramp <- colorRamp(c("red", "white"))
rgb( ramp(seq(0, 1, length = 5)), max = 255)
```

rgb2hsv

RGB to HSV Conversion

Description

rgb2hsv transforms colors from RGB space (red/green/blue) into HSV space (hue/saturation/value).

Usage

```
rgb2hsv(r, g = NULL, b = NULL, maxColorValue = 255)
```

Arguments

r vector of ‘red’ values in $[0, M]$, ($M = \text{maxColorValue}$) or 3-row rgb matrix.
g vector of ‘green’ values, or `NULL` when **r** is a matrix.
b vector of ‘blue’ values, or `NULL` when **r** is a matrix.
maxColorValue number giving the maximum of the RGB color values range. The default 255 corresponds to the typical 0:255 RGB coding as in `col2rgb()`.

Details

Value (brightness) gives the amount of light in the color.

Hue describes the dominant wavelength.

Saturation is the amount of Hue mixed into the color.

An HSV colorspace is relative to an RGB colorspace, which in R is sRGB, which has an implicit gamma correction.

Value

A matrix with a column for each color. The three rows of the matrix indicate hue, saturation and value and are named "h", "s", and "v" accordingly.

Author(s)

R interface by Wolfram Fischer <wolfram@fischer-zim.ch>;
 C code mainly by Nicholas Lewin-Koh <nikko@hailmail.net>.

See Also

[hsv](#), [col2rgb](#), [rgb](#).

Examples

```
## These (saturated, bright ones) only differ by hue
(rc <- col2rgb(c("red", "yellow", "green", "cyan", "blue", "magenta")))
(hc <- rgb2hsv(rc))
6 * hc["h",] # the hues are equispaced

(rgb3 <- floor(256 * matrix(stats::runif(3*12), 3, 12)))
(hsv3 <- rgb2hsv(rgb3))
## Consistency :
stopifnot(rgb3 == col2rgb(hsv(h = hsv3[1,], s = hsv3[2,], v = hsv3[3,])),
           all.equal(hsv3, rgb2hsv(rgb3/255, maxColorValue = 1)))

## A (simplified) pure R version -- originally by Wolfram Fischer --
## showing the exact algorithm:
rgb2hsvR <- function(rgb, gamma = 1, maxColorValue = 255)
{
  if(!is.numeric(rgb)) stop("rgb matrix must be numeric")
  d <- dim(rgb)
  if(d[1] != 3) stop("rgb matrix must have 3 rows")
  n <- d[2]
  if(n == 0) return(cbind(c(h = 1, s = 1, v = 1))[,0])
  rgb <- rgb/maxColorValue
  if(gamma != 1) rgb <- rgb ^ (1/gamma)

  ## get the max and min
  v <- apply( rgb, 2, max)
  s <- apply( rgb, 2, min)
  D <- v - s # range

  ## set hue to zero for undefined values (gray has no hue)
  h <- numeric(n)
  notgray <- ( s != v )

  ## blue hue
  idx <- (v == rgb[3,] & notgray )
  if (any (idx))
    h[idx] <- 2/3 + 1/6 * (rgb[1,idx] - rgb[2,idx]) / D[idx]
  ## green hue
  idx <- (v == rgb[2,] & notgray )
  if (any (idx))
    h[idx] <- 1/3 + 1/6 * (rgb[3,idx] - rgb[1,idx]) / D[idx]
  ## red hue
  idx <- (v == rgb[1,] & notgray )
  if (any (idx))
    h[idx] <- 1/6 * (rgb[2,idx] - rgb[3,idx]) / D[idx]

  ## correct for negative red
  idx <- (h < 0)
  h[idx] <- 1+h[idx]

  ## set the saturation
```

```

s[! notgray] <- 0;
s[notgray] <- 1 - s[notgray] / v[notgray]

rbind( h = h, s = s, v = v )
}

## confirm the equivalence:
all.equal(rgb2hsv (rgb3),
          rgb2hsvR(rgb3), tolerance = 1e-14) # TRUE

```

savePlot

Save Cairo X11 Plot to File

Description

Save the current page of a cairo [X11\(\)](#) device to a file.

Usage

```

savePlot(filename = paste("Rplot", type, sep = "."),
          type = c("png", "jpeg", "tiff", "bmp"),
          device = dev.cur())

```

Arguments

filename	filename to save to.
type	file type: only "png" will be accepted for cairo version 1.0.
device	the device to save from.

Details

Only cairo-based X11 devices are supported.

This works by copying the image surface to a file. For PNG will always be a 24-bit per pixel PNG 'DirectClass' file, for JPEG the quality is 75% and for TIFF there is no compression.

For devices with buffering this copies the buffer's image surface, so works even if `dev.hold` has been called.

At present the plot is saved after rendering onto the canvas (default opaque white), so for the default `bg = "transparent"` the effective background colour is the canvas colour.

Value

Invisible NULL.

Note

There is a similar function of the same name but more types for windows devices on Windows.

See Also

[X11](#), [dev.copy](#), [dev.print](#)

trans3d

3D to 2D Transformation for Perspective Plots

Description

Projection of 3-dimensional to 2-dimensional points using a 4x4 viewing transformation matrix. Mainly for adding to perspective plots such as [persp](#).

Usage

```
trans3d(x, y, z, pmat)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y, z</code>	numeric vectors of equal length, specifying points in 3D space.
<code>pmat</code>	a 4×4 <i>viewing transformation matrix</i> , suitable for projecting the 3D coordinates (x, y, z) into the 2D plane using homogeneous 4D coordinates (x, y, z, t) ; such matrices are returned by persp() .

Value

a list with two components

<code>x, y</code>	the projected 2d coordinates of the 3d input (x, y, z) .
-------------------	--

See Also

[persp](#)

Examples

```
## See help(persp) {after attaching the 'graphics' package}
## -----
```

Type1Font

*Type 1 and CID Fonts***Description**

These functions are used to define the translation of a R graphics font family name to a Type 1 or CID font descriptions, used by both the [postscript](#) and [pdf](#) graphics devices.

Usage

```
Type1Font(family, metrics, encoding = "default")
```

```
CIDFont(family, cmap, cmapEncoding, pdfresource = "")
```

Arguments

family	a character string giving the name to be used internally for a Type 1 or CID-keyed font family. This needs to uniquely identify each family, so if you modify a family which is in use (see postscriptFonts) you need to change the family name.
metrics	a character vector of four or five strings giving paths to the afm (Adobe Font Metric) files for the font.
cmap	the name of a CMap file for a CID-keyed font.
encoding	for Type1Font, the name of an encoding file. Defaults to "default", which maps on Unix-alikes to "ISOLatin1.enc" and on Windows to "WinAnsi.enc". Otherwise, a file name in the 'enc' directory of the grDevices package, which is used if the path does not contain a path separator. An extension ".enc" can be omitted.
cmapEncoding	The name of a character encoding to be used with the named CMap file: strings will be translated to this encoding when written to the file.
pdfresource	A chunk of PDF code; only required for using a CID-keyed font on pdf; users should not be expected to provide this.

Details

For Type1Fonts, if four '.afm' files are supplied the fifth is taken to be "Symbol.afm". Relative paths are taken relative to the directory '[R_HOME](#)/library/grDevices/afm'. The fifth (symbol) font must be in AdobeSym encoding. However, the glyphs in the first four fonts are referenced by name and any encoding given within the '.afm' files is not used.

The '.afm' files may be compressed with (or without) final extension '.gz': the files which ship with R are installed as compressed files with this extension.

Glyphs in CID-keyed fonts are accessed by ID (number) and not by name. The CMap file maps encoded strings (usually in a MBCS) to IDs, so cmap and cmapEncoding specifications must match. There are no real bold or italic versions of CID fonts (bold/italic were very rarely used in traditional

East Asian topography), and for the [pdf](#) device all four font faces will be identical. However, for the [postscript](#) device, bold and italic (and bold italic) are emulated.

CID-keyed fonts are intended only for use for the glyphs of East Asian languages, which are all monospaced and are all treated as filling the same bounding box. (Thus [plotmath](#) will work with such characters, but the spacing will be less carefully controlled than with Western glyphs.) The CID-keyed fonts do contain other characters, including a Latin alphabet: non-East-Asian glyphs are regarded as monospaced with half the width of East Asian glyphs. This is often the case, but sometimes Latin glyphs designed for proportional spacing are used (and may look odd). We strongly recommend that CID-keyed fonts are **only** used for East Asian glyphs.

Value

A list of class "Type1Font" or "CIDFont".

See Also

[postscript](#), [pdf](#), [postscriptFonts](#), and [pdfFonts](#).

Examples

```
## This duplicates "ComputerModernItalic".
CMitalic <- Type1Font("ComputerModern2",
                     c("CM_regular_10.afm", "CM_boldx_10.afm",
                       "cmtil0.afm", "cmbxti10.afm",
                       "CM_symbol_10.afm"),
                     encoding = "TeXtext.enc")

## Not run:
## This could be used by
postscript(family = CMitalic)
## or
postscriptFonts(CMitalic = CMitalic) # once in a session
postscript(family = "CMitalic", encoding = "TeXtext.enc")

## End(Not run)
```

Description

X11 starts a graphics device driver for the X Window System (version 11). This can only be done on machines/accounts that have access to an X server.

x11 is recognized as a synonym for X11.

The R function is a wrapper for two devices, one based on Xlib (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xlib>) and one using cairographics (<http://www.cairographics.org>).

Usage

```
X11(display = "", width, height, pointsize, gamma, bg, canvas,
     fonts, family, xpos, ypos, title, type, antialias)
```

```
X11.options(..., reset = FALSE)
```

Arguments

display	the display on which the graphics window will appear. The default is to use the value in the user's environment variable DISPLAY. This is ignored (with a warning) if an X11 device is already open on another display.
width, height	the width and height of the plotting window, in inches. If NA, taken from the resources and if not specified there defaults to 7 inches. See also 'Resources'.
pointsize	the default pointsize to be used. Defaults to 12.
gamma	gamma correction fudge factor. Colours in R are sRGB; if your monitor does not conform to sRGB, you might be able to improve things by tweaking this parameter to apply additional gamma correction to the RGB channels. By default 1 (no additional gamma correction).
bg	colour, the initial background colour. Default "transparent".
canvas	colour. The colour of the canvas, which is visible only when the background colour is transparent. Should be an opaque colour (and any alpha value will be ignored). Default "white".
fonts	for type = "Xlib" only: X11 font description strings into which weight, slant and size will be substituted. There are two, the first for fonts 1 to 4 and the second for font 5, the symbol font. See section 'Fonts'.
family	The default family: a length-one character string. This is primarily intended for cairo-based devices, but for type = "Xlib", the X11Fonts() database is used to map family names to fonts (and this argument takes precedence over that one).
xpos, ypos	integer: initial position of the top left corner of the window, in pixels. Negative values are from the opposite corner, e.g. xpos = -100 says the top right corner should be 100 pixels from the right edge of the screen. If NA (the default), successive devices are cascaded in 20 pixel steps from the top left. See also 'Resources'.
title	character string, up to 100 bytes. With the default, "", a suitable title is created internally. A C-style format for an integer will be substituted by the device number (see the file argument to postscript for further details). How non-ASCII titles are handled is implementation-dependent.
type	character string, one of "Xlib", "cairo", "nbcairo" or "dbcairo". Only the first will be available if the system was compiled without support for cairographics. The default is "cairo" where available except on OS X, otherwise "Xlib".
antialias	for cairo types, the type of anti-aliasing (if any) to be used. One of c("default", "none", "gray", "subpixel").
reset	logical: should the defaults be reset to their defaults?
...	Any of the arguments to X11, plus colortype and maxcubsize (see section 'Colour Rendering').

Details

The defaults for all of the arguments of `X11` are set by `X11.options`: the ‘Arguments’ section gives the ‘factory-fresh’ defaults.

The initial size and position are only hints, and may not be acted on by the window manager. Also, some systems (especially laptops) are set up to appear to have a screen of a different size to the physical screen.

Option `type` selects between two separate devices: `R` can be built with support for neither, `type = "Xlib"` or both. Where both are available, types `"cairo"`, `"nbcairo"` and `"dbcairo"` offer

- antialiasing of text and lines.
- translucent colours.
- scalable text, including to sizes like 4.5 pt.
- full support for UTF-8, so on systems with suitable fonts you can plot in many languages on a single figure (and this will work even in non-UTF-8 locales). The output should be locale-independent.

There are three variants of the cairo-based device. `type = "nbcairo"` has no buffering. `type = "cairo"` has some buffering, and supports `dev.hold` and `dev.flush`. `type = "dbcairo"` buffers output and updates the screen about every 100ms (by default). The refresh interval can be set (in units of seconds) by e.g. `options(X11updates = 0.25)`: the value is consulted when a device is opened. Updates are only looked for every 50ms (at most), and during heavy graphics computations only every 500ms.

Which version will be fastest depends on the X11 connection and the type of plotting. You will probably want to use a buffered type unless backing store is in use on the X server (which for example it always is on OS X displays), as otherwise repainting when the window is exposed will be slow. On slow connections `type = "dbcairo"` will probably give the best performance.

Because of known problems with font selection on OS X without Pango (for example, the CRAN distribution), `type = "cairo"` is not the default there. These problems have included mixing up bold and italic (since worked around), selecting incorrect glyphs and ugly or missing symbol glyphs.

All devices which use an X11 server (including the `type = "Xlib"` versions of bitmap devices such as `png`) share internal structures, which means that they must use the same display and visual. If you want to change display, first close all such devices.

The cursor shown indicates the state of the device. If quiescent the cursor is an arrow: when the locator is in use it is a crosshair cursor, and when plotting computations are in progress (and this can be detected) it is a watch cursor. (The exact cursors displayed will depend on the window manager in use.)

X11 Fonts

This section applies only to `type = "Xlib"`.

An initial/default font family for the device can be specified via the `fonts` argument, but if a device-independent R graphics font family is specified (e.g., via `par(family =)` in the graphics package), the X11 device makes use of the X11 font database (see `X11Fonts`) to convert the R graphics font family to an X11-specific font family description. If `family` is supplied as an argument, the X11

font database is used to convert that, but otherwise the argument `fonts` (with default given by `X11.options`) is used.

X11 chooses fonts by matching to a pattern, and it is quite possible that it will choose a font in the wrong encoding or which does not contain glyphs for your language (particularly common in iso10646-1 fonts).

The `fonts` argument is a two-element character vector, and the first element will be crucial in successfully using non-Western-European fonts. Settings that have proved useful include

`"-*mincho-%s-%s-*-%d-*-*-*-*-*"` for CJK languages and
`"-cronyx-helvetica-%s-%s-*-%d-*-*-*-*-*"` for Russian.

For UTF-8 locales, the `XLC_LOCALE` databases provide mappings between character encodings, and you may need to add an entry for your locale (e.g., Fedora Core 3 lacked one for `ru_RU.utf8`).

Cairo Fonts

The cairographics-based devices work directly with font family names such as "Helvetica" which can be selected initially by the family argument and subsequently by `par` or `gpar`. There are mappings for the three device-independent font families, "sans" for a sans-serif font (to "Helvetica"), "serif" for a serif font (to "Times") and "mono" for a monospaced font (to "Courier").

The font selection is handled by Pango (usually *via* `fontconfig`) or `fontconfig` (on OS X and perhaps elsewhere). The results depend on the fonts installed on the system running R – setting the environment variable `FC_DEBUG` to 1 normally allows some tracing of the selection process.

This works best when high-quality scalable fonts are installed, usually in Type 1 or TrueType formats: see the "R Installation and Administration Manual" for advice on how to obtain and install such fonts. At present the best rendering (including using kerning) will be achieved with TrueType fonts: see <http://www.freedesktop.org/software/fontconfig/fontconfig-user.html> for ways to set up your system to prefer them. The default family ("Helvetica") is likely not to use kerning: alternatives which should if you have them installed are "Arial", "DejaVu Sans" and "Liberation Sans" (and perhaps "FreeSans"). For those who prefer fonts with serifs, try "Times New Roman", "DejaVu Serif" and "Liberation Serif". To match LaTeX text, use something like "CM Roman".

Problems with incorrect rendering of symbols (e.g., of `quote(pi)` and `expression(10^degree)`) have been seen on Linux systems which have the Wine symbol font installed – `fontconfig` then prefers this and misinterprets its encoding. Adding the following lines to `~/fonts.conf` or `/etc/fonts/local.conf` may circumvent this problem by preferring the URW Type 1 symbol font.

```
<fontconfig>
<match target="pattern">
  <test name="family"><string>Symbol</string></test>
  <edit name="family" mode="prepend" binding="same">
    <string>Standard Symbols L</string>
  </edit>
</match>
</fontconfig>
```

A test for this is to run at the command line `fc-match Symbol`. If that shows `symbol.ttf` that may be the Wine symbol font – use `locate symbol.ttf` to see if it is found from a directory with 'wine' in the name.

Resources

The standard X11 resource geometry can be used to specify the window position and/or size, but will be overridden by values specified as arguments or non-NA defaults set in `X11.options`. The class looked for is `R_x11`. Note that the resource specifies the width and height in pixels and not in inches. See for example ‘man X’ (or <http://www.xfree86.org/current/X.7.html>). An example line in ‘`~/.Xresources`’ might be

```
R_x11*geometry: 900x900-0+0
```

which specifies a 900 x 900 pixel window at the top right of the screen.

Colour Rendering

X11 supports several ‘visual’ types, and nowadays almost all systems support ‘truecolor’ which X11 will use by default. This uses a direct specification of any RGB colour up to the depth supported (usually 8 bits per colour). Other visuals make use of a palette to support fewer colours, only grays or even only black/white. The palette is shared between all X11 clients, so it can be necessary to limit the number of colours used by R.

The default for `type = "Xlib"` is to use the best possible colour model for the visual of the X11 server: these days this will almost always be ‘truecolor’. This can be overridden by the `colortype` argument of `X11.options`. **Note:** All X11 and `type = "Xlib"` `bmp`, `jpeg`, `png` and `tiff` devices share a `colortype` which is set when the first device to be opened. To change the `colortype` you need to close *all* open such devices, and then use `X11.options(colortype =)`.

The `colortype` types are tried in the order “true”, “pseudo”, “gray” and “mono” (black or white only). The values “pseudo” and “pseudo.cube” provide two colour strategies for a pseudocolor visual. The first strategy provides on-demand colour allocation which produces exact colours until the colour resources of the display are exhausted (when plotting will fail). The second allocates (if possible) a standard colour cube, and requested colours are approximated by the closest value in the cube.

With `colortype` equal to “pseudo.cube” or “gray” successively smaller palettes are tried until one is completely allocated. If allocation of the smallest attempt fails the device will revert to “mono”. For “gray” the search starts at 256 grays for a display with depth greater than 8, otherwise with half the available colours. For “pseudo.cube” the maximum cube size is set by `X11.options(maxcolorsize =)` and defaults to 256. With that setting the largest cube tried is 4 levels each for RGB, using 64 colours in the palette.

The cairographics-based devices most likely only work (or work correctly) with ‘TrueColor’ visuals, although in principle this depends on the cairo installation: a warning is given if any other visual is encountered.

`type = "Xlib"` supports ‘TrueColor’, ‘PseudoColor’, ‘GrayScale’, `StaticGray` and `MonoChrome` visuals: ‘StaticColor’ and ‘DirectColor’ visuals are handled only in black/white.

Anti-aliasing

Anti-aliasing is only supported for cairographics-based devices, and applies to both graphics and fonts. It is generally preferable for lines and text, but can lead to undesirable effects for fills, e.g. for `image` plots, and so is never used for fills.

`antialias = "default"` is in principle platform-dependent, but seems most often equivalent to `antialias = "gray"`.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the “R Internals Manual”.

- The default device size is 7 inches square.
- Font sizes are in big points.
- The default font family is Helvetica.
- Line widths in 1/96 inch, minimum one pixel for type = "Xlib", 0.01 otherwise.
- For type = "Xlib" circle radii are in pixels with minimum one.
- Colours are interpreted by the X11 server, which is *assumed* to conform to sRGB.

See Also

[Devices](#), [X11Fonts](#), [savePlot](#).

Examples

```
## Not run:
## put something like this in your .Rprofile to customize the defaults
setHook(packageEvent("grDevices", "onLoad"),
        function(...) grDevices::X11.options(width = 8, height = 6, xpos = 0,
                                                pointsize = 10))

## End(Not run)
```

X11Fonts	<i>X11 Fonts</i>
----------	------------------

Description

These functions handle the translation of a device-independent R graphics font family name to an X11 font description.

Usage

```
X11Font(font)

X11Fonts(...)
```

Arguments

font	a character string containing an X11 font description.
...	either character strings naming mappings to display, or new (named) mappings to define.

Details

These functions apply only to an [X11](#) device with `type = "Xlib"` – `X11(type = "cairo")` uses a different mechanism to select fonts.

Such a device is created with a default font (see the documentation for [X11](#)), but it is also possible to specify a font family when drawing to the device (for example, see the documentation for `"family"` in [par](#) and for `"fontfamily"` in [gpar](#) in the **grid** package).

The font family sent to the device is a simple string name, which must be mapped to something more specific to X11 fonts. A list of mappings is maintained and can be modified by the user.

The `X11Fonts` function can be used to list existing mappings and to define new mappings. The `X11Font` function can be used to create a new mapping.

Default mappings are provided for three device-independent font family names: `"sans"` for a sans-serif font, `"serif"` for a serif font and `"mono"` for a monospaced font. Further mappings are provided for `"Helvetica"` (the device default), `"Times"`, `"CyrHelvetica"`, `"CyrTimes"` (versions of these fonts with Cyrillic support, at least on Linux), `"Arial"` (on some platforms including OS X and Solaris) and `"Mincho"` (a CJK font).

See Also

[X11](#)

Examples

```
X11Fonts()
X11Fonts("mono")
utopia <- X11Font("--utopia-*-*-*-*-*")
X11Fonts(utopia = utopia)
```

xfig

XFig Graphics Device

Description

`xfig` starts the graphics device driver for producing XFig (version 3.2) graphics.

The auxiliary function `ps.options` can be used to set and view (if called without arguments) default values for the arguments to `xfig` and `postscript`.

Usage

```
xfig(file = ifelse(onefile, "Rplots.fig", "Rplot%03d.fig"),
      onefile = FALSE, encoding = "none",
      paper = "default", horizontal = TRUE,
      width = 0, height = 0, family = "Helvetica",
      pointsize = 12, bg = "transparent", fg = "black",
      pagecentre = TRUE, defaultfont = FALSE, textspecial = FALSE)
```

Arguments

file	a character string giving the name of the file. For use with <code>onefile = FALSE</code> give a C integer format such as "Rplot%03d.fig" (the default in that case). (See postscript for further details.)
onefile	logical: if true allow multiple figures in one file. If false, assume only one page per file and generate a file number containing the page number.
encoding	The encoding in which to write text strings. The default is not to re-encode. This can be any encoding recognized by iconv : in a Western UTF-8 locale you probably want to select an 8-bit encoding such as <code>latin1</code> , and in an East Asian locale an EUC encoding. If re-encoding fails, the text strings will be written in the current encoding with a warning.
paper	the size of paper region. The choices are "A4", "Letter" and "Legal" (and these can be lowercase). A further choice is "default", which is the default. If this is selected, the <code>papersize</code> is taken from the option "papersize" if that is set to a non-empty value, otherwise "A4".
horizontal	the orientation of the printed image, a logical. Defaults to true, that is landscape orientation.
width, height	the width and height of the graphics region in inches. The default is to use the entire page less a 0.5 inch overall margin in each direction. (See postscript for further details.)
family	the font family to be used. This must be one of "AvantGarde", "Bookman", "Courier", "Helvetica" (the default), "Helvetica-Narrow", "NewCenturySchoolbook", "Palatino" or "Times". Any other value is replaced by "Helvetica", with a warning.
pointsize	the default point size to be used.
bg	the initial background color to be used.
fg	the initial foreground color to be used.
pagecentre	logical: should the device region be centred on the page?
defaultfont	logical: should the device use xfig's default font?
textspecial	logical: should the device set the <code>textspecial</code> flag for all text elements. This is useful when generating <code>ptex</code> from xfig figures.

Details

Although xfig can produce multiple plots in one file, the XFig format does not say how to separate or view them. So `onefile = FALSE` is the default.

The file argument is interpreted as a C integer format as used by [sprintf](#), with integer argument the page number. The default gives files 'Rplot001.fig', ..., 'Rplot999.fig', 'Rplot1000.fig',

Line widths as controlled by `par(lwd =)` are in multiples of $5/6 \cdot 1/72$ inch. Multiples less than 1 are allowed. `pch = "."` with `cex = 1` corresponds to a square of side $1/72$ inch.

Windows users can make use of WinFIG (<http://www.schmidt-web-berlin.de/WinFIG.htm>, shareware), or XFig under Cygwin.

Conventions

This section describes the implementation of the conventions for graphics devices set out in the “R Internals Manual”.

- The default device size is the paper size with a 0.25 inch border on all sides.
- Font sizes are in big points.
- The default font family is Helvetica.
- Line widths are integers, multiples of 5/432 inch.
- Circle radii are multiples of 1/1200 inch.
- Colours are interpreted by the viewing/printing application.

Note

Only some line textures ($0 \leq \text{lty} < 4$) are used. Eventually this may be partially remedied, but the XFig file format does not allow as general line textures as the R model. Unimplemented line textures are displayed as *dash-double-dotted*.

There is a limit of 512 colours (plus white and black) per file.

Author(s)

Brian Ripley. Support for `defaultFont` and `textSpecial` contributed by Sebastian Fischmeister.

See Also

[Devices](#), [postscript](#), [ps.options](#).

xy.coords

Extracting Plotting Structures

Description

`xy.coords` is used by many functions to obtain x and y coordinates for plotting. The use of this common mechanism across all relevant R functions produces a measure of consistency.

Usage

```
xy.coords(x, y = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, log = NULL,
          recycle = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x, y	the x and y coordinates of a set of points. Alternatively, a single argument x can be provided.
xlab, ylab	names for the x and y variables to be extracted.
log	character, "x", "y" or both, as for plot . Sets negative values to NA and gives a warning.
recycle	logical; if TRUE, recycle (rep) the shorter of x or y if their lengths differ.

Details

An attempt is made to interpret the arguments `x` and `y` in a way suitable for bivariate plotting (or other bivariate procedures).

If `y` is `NULL` and `x` is a

formula: of the form `yvar ~ xvar`. `xvar` and `yvar` are used as `x` and `y` variables.

list: containing components `x` and `y`, these are used to define plotting coordinates.

time series: the `x` values are taken to be `time(x)` and the `y` values to be the time series.

matrix or data.frame with two or more columns: the first is assumed to contain the `x` values and the second the `y` values. *Note* that is also true if `x` has columns named `"x"` and `"y"`; these names will be irrelevant here.

In any other case, the `x` argument is coerced to a vector and returned as `y` component where the resulting `x` is just the index vector `1:n`. In this case, the resulting `xlab` component is set to `"Index"`.

If `x` (after transformation as above) inherits from class `"POSIXt"` it is coerced to class `"POSIXct"`.

Value

A list with the components

<code>x</code>	numeric (i.e., "double") vector of abscissa values.
<code>y</code>	numeric vector of the same length as <code>x</code> .
<code>xlab</code>	character(1) or <code>NULL</code> , the 'label' of <code>x</code> .
<code>ylab</code>	character(1) or <code>NULL</code> , the 'label' of <code>y</code> .

See Also

`plot.default`, `lines`, `points` and `lowess` are examples of functions which use this mechanism.

Examples

```
xy.coords(stats::fft(c(1:9)), NULL)

with(cars, xy.coords(dist ~ speed, NULL)$xlab ) # = "speed"

xy.coords(1:3, 1:2, recycle = TRUE)
xy.coords(-2:10, NULL, log = "y")
##> warning: 3 y values <= 0 omitted ..
```

xyTable

*Multiplicities of (x,y) Points, e.g., for a Sunflower Plot***Description**

Given (x,y) points, determine their multiplicity – checking for equality only up to some (crude kind of) noise. Note that this is special kind of 2D binning.

Usage

```
xyTable(x, y = NULL, digits)
```

Arguments

x, y	numeric vectors of the same length; alternatively other (x, y) argument combinations as allowed by xy.coords (x, y).
digits	integer specifying the significant digits to be used for determining equality of coordinates. These are compared after rounding them via signif (*, digits).

Value

A list with three components of same length,

x	x coordinates, rounded and sorted.
y	y coordinates, rounded (and sorted within x).
number	multiplicities (positive integers); i.e., number[i] is the multiplicity of (x[i], y[i]).

See Also

[sunflowerplot](#) which typically uses [xyTable\(\)](#); [signif](#).

Examples

```
xyTable(iris[, 3:4], digits = 6)

## Discretized uncorrelated Gaussian:

require(stats)
xy <- data.frame(x = round(sort(rnorm(100))), y = rnorm(100))
xyTable(xy, digits = 1)
```


xyz.coords

*Extracting Plotting Structures***Description**

Utility for obtaining consistent x, y and z coordinates and labels for three dimensional (3D) plots.

Usage

```
xyz.coords(x, y = NULL, z = NULL,
           xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, zlab = NULL,
           log = NULL, recycle = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x, y, z	the x, y and z coordinates of a set of points. Both y and z can be left at NULL. In this case, an attempt is made to interpret x in a way suitable for plotting. If the argument is a formula <code>zvar ~ xvar + yvar</code> , xvar, yvar and zvar are used as x, y and z variables; if the argument is a list containing components x, y and z, these are assumed to define plotting coordinates; if the argument is a matrix or data.frame with three or more columns, the first is assumed to contain the x values, the 2nd the y ones, and the 3rd the z ones – independently of any column names that x may have. Alternatively two arguments x and y can be provided (leaving z = NULL). One may be real, the other complex; in any other case, the arguments are coerced to vectors and the values plotted against their indices.
xlab, ylab, zlab	names for the x, y and z variables to be extracted.
log	character, "x", "y", "z" or combinations. Sets negative values to NA and gives a warning.
recycle	logical; if TRUE, recycle (rep) the shorter ones of x, y or z if their lengths differ.

Value

A list with the components

x	numeric (i.e., double) vector of abscissa values.
y	numeric vector of the same length as x.
z	numeric vector of the same length as x.
xlab	character(1) or NULL, the axis label of x.
ylab	character(1) or NULL, the axis label of y.
zlab	character(1) or NULL, the axis label of z.

Author(s)

Uwe Ligges and Martin Maechler

See Also

[xy.coords](#) for 2D.

Examples

```
xyz.coords(data.frame(10*1:9, -4), y = NULL, z = NULL)

xyz.coords(1:5, stats::fft(1:5), z = NULL, xlab = "X", ylab = "Y")

y <- 2 * (x2 <- 10 + (x1 <- 1:10))
xyz.coords(y ~ x1 + x2, y = NULL, z = NULL)

xyz.coords(data.frame(x = -1:9, y = 2:12, z = 3:13), y = NULL, z = NULL,
             log = "xy")
##> Warning message: 2 x values <= 0 omitted ...
```


Chapter 5

The graphics package

graphics-package	<i>The R Graphics Package</i>
------------------	-------------------------------

Description

R functions for base graphics

Details

This package contains functions for ‘base’ graphics. Base graphics are traditional S-like graphics, as opposed to the more recent [grid](#) graphics.

For a complete list of functions with individual help pages, use `library(help = "graphics")`.

Author(s)

R Core Team and contributors worldwide

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

abline

*Add Straight Lines to a Plot***Description**

This function adds one or more straight lines through the current plot.

Usage

```
abline(a = NULL, b = NULL, h = NULL, v = NULL, reg = NULL,
       coef = NULL, untf = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>a</code> , <code>b</code>	the intercept and slope, single values.
<code>untf</code>	logical asking whether to <i>untransform</i> . See ‘Details’.
<code>h</code>	the y-value(s) for horizontal line(s).
<code>v</code>	the x-value(s) for vertical line(s).
<code>coef</code>	a vector of length two giving the intercept and slope.
<code>reg</code>	an object with a <code>coef</code> method. See ‘Details’.
<code>...</code>	graphical parameters such as <code>col</code> , <code>lty</code> and <code>lwd</code> (possibly as vectors: see ‘Details’) and <code>xpd</code> and the line characteristics <code>lend</code> , <code>ljoin</code> and <code>lmitre</code> .

Details

Typical usages are

```
abline(a, b, untf = FALSE, ...)
abline(h =, untf = FALSE, ...)
abline(v =, untf = FALSE, ...)
abline(coef =, untf = FALSE, ...)
abline(reg =, untf = FALSE, ...)
```

The first form specifies the line in intercept/slope form (alternatively `a` can be specified on its own and is taken to contain the slope and intercept in vector form).

The `h=` and `v=` forms draw horizontal and vertical lines at the specified coordinates.

The `coef` form specifies the line by a vector containing the slope and intercept.

`reg` is a regression object with a `coef` method. If this returns a vector of length 1 then the value is taken to be the slope of a line through the origin, otherwise, the first 2 values are taken to be the intercept and slope.

If `untf` is true, and one or both axes are log-transformed, then a curve is drawn corresponding to a line in original coordinates, otherwise a line is drawn in the transformed coordinate system. The `h` and `v` parameters always refer to original coordinates.

The [graphical parameters](#) `col`, `lty` and `lwd` can be specified; see [par](#) for details. For the `h=` and `v=` usages they can be vectors of length greater than one, recycled as necessary.

Specifying an `xpd` argument for clipping overrides the global `par("xpd")` setting used otherwise.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[lines](#) and [segments](#) for connected and arbitrary lines given by their *endpoints*. [par](#).

Examples

```
## Setup up coordinate system (with x == y aspect ratio):
plot(c(-2,3), c(-1,5), type = "n", xlab = "x", ylab = "y", asp = 1)
## the x- and y-axis, and an integer grid
abline(h = 0, v = 0, col = "gray60")
text(1,0, "abline( h = 0 )", col = "gray60", adj = c(0, -.1))
abline(h = -1:5, v = -2:3, col = "lightgray", lty = 3)
abline(a = 1, b = 2, col = 2)
text(1,3, "abline( 1, 2 )", col = 2, adj = c(-.1, -.1))

## Simple Regression Lines:
require(stats)
sale5 <- c(6, 4, 9, 7, 6, 12, 8, 10, 9, 13)
plot(sale5)
abline(lsfrit(1:10, sale5))
abline(lsfrit(1:10, sale5, intercept = FALSE), col = 4) # less fitting

z <- lm(dist ~ speed, data = cars)
plot(cars)
abline(z) # equivalent to abline(reg = z) or
abline(coef = coef(z))

## trivial intercept model
abline(mC <- lm(dist ~ 1, data = cars)) ## the same as
abline(a = coef(mC), b = 0, col = "blue")
```

arrows

Add Arrows to a Plot

Description

Draw arrows between pairs of points.

Usage

```
arrows(x0, y0, x1 = x0, y1 = y0, length = 0.25, angle = 30,
       code = 2, col = par("fg"), lty = par("lty"),
       lwd = par("lwd"), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x0, y0</code>	coordinates of points from which to draw.
<code>x1, y1</code>	coordinates of points to which to draw. At least one must be supplied.
<code>length</code>	length of the edges of the arrow head (in inches).
<code>angle</code>	angle from the shaft of the arrow to the edge of the arrow head.
<code>code</code>	integer code, determining <i>kind</i> of arrows to be drawn.
<code>col, lty, lwd</code>	graphical parameters , possible vectors. NA values in <code>col</code> cause the arrow to be omitted.
<code>...</code>	graphical parameters such as <code>xpd</code> and the line characteristics <code>lend</code> , <code>ljoin</code> and <code>lmitre</code> : see par .

Details

For each `i`, an arrow is drawn between the point $(x0[i], y0[i])$ and the point $(x1[i], y1[i])$. The coordinate vectors will be recycled to the length of the longest.

If `code = 1` an arrowhead is drawn at $(x0[i], y0[i])$ and if `code = 2` an arrowhead is drawn at $(x1[i], y1[i])$. If `code = 3` a head is drawn at both ends of the arrow. Unless `length = 0`, when no head is drawn.

The [graphical parameters](#) `col`, `lty` and `lwd` can be vectors of length greater than one and will be recycled if necessary.

The direction of a zero-length arrow is indeterminate, and hence so is the direction of the arrowheads. To allow for rounding error, arrowheads are omitted (with a warning) on any arrow of length less than 1/1000 inch.

Note

The first four arguments in the comparable S function are named `x1, y1, x2, y2`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[segments](#) to draw segments.

Examples

```
x <- stats::runif(12); y <- stats::rnorm(12)
i <- order(x, y); x <- x[i]; y <- y[i]
plot(x,y, main = "arrows(.) and segments(.)")
## draw arrows from point to point :
s <- seq(length(x)-1) # one shorter than data
arrows(x[s], y[s], x[s+1], y[s+1], col = 1:3)
s <- s[-length(s)]
segments(x[s], y[s], x[s+2], y[s+2], col = "pink")
```

assocplot

Association Plots

Description

Produce a Cohen-Friendly association plot indicating deviations from independence of rows and columns in a 2-dimensional contingency table.

Usage

```
assocplot(x, col = c("black", "red"), space = 0.3,
          main = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a two-dimensional contingency table in matrix form.
<code>col</code>	a character vector of length two giving the colors used for drawing positive and negative Pearson residuals, respectively.
<code>space</code>	the amount of space (as a fraction of the average rectangle width and height) left between each rectangle.
<code>main</code>	overall title for the plot.
<code>xlab</code>	a label for the x axis. Defaults to the name (if any) of the row dimension in <code>x</code> .
<code>ylab</code>	a label for the y axis. Defaults to the name (if any) of the column dimension in <code>x</code> .

Details

For a two-way contingency table, the signed contribution to Pearson's χ^2 for cell i, j is $d_{ij} = (f_{ij} - e_{ij})/\sqrt{e_{ij}}$, where f_{ij} and e_{ij} are the observed and expected counts corresponding to the cell. In the Cohen-Friendly association plot, each cell is represented by a rectangle that has (signed) height proportional to d_{ij} and width proportional to $\sqrt{e_{ij}}$, so that the area of the box is proportional to the difference in observed and expected frequencies. The rectangles in each row are positioned relative to a baseline indicating independence ($d_{ij} = 0$). If the observed frequency of a cell is greater than the expected one, the box rises above the baseline and is shaded in the color specified by the first element of `col`, which defaults to black; otherwise, the box falls below the baseline and is shaded in the color specified by the second element of `col`, which defaults to red.

A more flexible and extensible implementation of association plots written in the grid graphics system is provided in the function `assoc` in the contributed package **vcd** (Meyer, Zeileis and Hornik, 2005).

References

Cohen, A. (1980), On the graphical display of the significant components in a two-way contingency table. *Communications in Statistics—Theory and Methods*, **A9**, 1025–1041.

Friendly, M. (1992), Graphical methods for categorical data. *SAS User Group International Conference Proceedings*, **17**, 190–200. <http://www.math.yorku.ca/SCS/sugi/sugi17-paper.html>

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See Also

[mosaicplot](#), [chisq.test](#).

Examples

```
## Aggregate over sex:
x <- margin.table(HairEyeColor, c(1, 2))
x
assocplot(x, main = "Relation between hair and eye color")
```

Axis

Generic Function to Add an Axis to a Plot

Description

Generic function to add a suitable axis to the current plot.

Usage

```
Axis(x = NULL, at = NULL, ..., side, labels = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object which indicates the range over which an axis should be drawn
<code>at</code>	the points at which tick-marks are to be drawn.
<code>side</code>	an integer specifying which side of the plot the axis is to be drawn on. The axis is placed as follows: 1=below, 2=left, 3=above and 4=right.
<code>labels</code>	this can either be a logical value specifying whether (numerical) annotations are to be made at the tickmarks, or a character or expression vector of labels to be placed at the tickpoints. If this is specified as a character or expression vector, <code>at</code> should be supplied and they should be the same length.
<code>...</code>	Arguments to be passed to methods and perhaps then to axis .

Details

This is a generic function. It works in a slightly non-standard way: if `x` is supplied and non-NULL it dispatches on `x`, otherwise if `at` is supplied and non-NULL it dispatches on `at`, and the default action is to call `axis`, omitting argument `x`.

The idea is that for plots for which either or both of the axes are numerical but with a special interpretation, the standard plotting functions (including `boxplot`, `contour`, `coplot`, `filled.contour`, `pairs`, `plot.default`, `rug` and `stripchart`) will set up user coordinates and `Axis` will be called to label them appropriately.

There are "Date" and "POSIXt" methods which can pass an argument format on to the appropriate `axis` method (see `axis.POSIXct`).

Value

The numeric locations on the axis scale at which tick marks were drawn when the plot was first drawn (see 'Details').

This function is usually invoked for its side effect, which is to add an axis to an already existing plot.

See Also

`axis`.

axis	<i>Add an Axis to a Plot</i>
------	------------------------------

Description

Adds an axis to the current plot, allowing the specification of the side, position, labels, and other options.

Usage

```
axis(side, at = NULL, labels = TRUE, tick = TRUE, line = NA,
      pos = NA, outer = FALSE, font = NA, lty = "solid",
      lwd = 1, lwd.ticks = lwd, col = NULL, col.ticks = NULL,
      hadj = NA, padj = NA, ...)
```

Arguments

- `side` an integer specifying which side of the plot the axis is to be drawn on. The axis is placed as follows: 1=below, 2=left, 3=above and 4=right.
- `at` the points at which tick-marks are to be drawn. Non-finite (infinite, NaN or NA) values are omitted. By default (when NULL) tickmark locations are computed, see 'Details' below.

labels	this can either be a logical value specifying whether (numerical) annotations are to be made at the tickmarks, or a character or expression vector of labels to be placed at the tickpoints. (Other objects are coerced by as.graphicsAnnot.) If this is not logical, at should also be supplied and of the same length. If labels is of length zero after coercion, it has the same effect as supplying TRUE.
tick	a logical value specifying whether tickmarks and an axis line should be drawn.
line	the number of lines into the margin at which the axis line will be drawn, if not NA.
pos	the coordinate at which the axis line is to be drawn: if not NA this overrides the value of line.
outer	a logical value indicating whether the axis should be drawn in the outer plot margin, rather than the standard plot margin.
font	font for text. Defaults to <code>par("font")</code> .
lty	line type for both the axis line and the tick marks.
lwd, lwd.ticks	line widths for the axis line and the tick marks. Zero or negative values will suppress the line or ticks.
col, col.ticks	colors for the axis line and the tick marks respectively. <code>col = NULL</code> means to use <code>par("fg")</code> , possibly specified inline, and <code>col.ticks = NULL</code> means to use whatever color <code>col</code> resolved to.
hadj	adjustment (see par("adj")) for all labels <i>parallel</i> ('horizontal') to the reading direction. If this is not a finite value, the default is used (centring for strings parallel to the axis, justification of the end nearest the axis otherwise).
padj	adjustment for each tick label <i>perpendicular</i> to the reading direction. For labels parallel to the axes, <code>padj = 0</code> means right or top alignment, and <code>padj = 1</code> means left or bottom alignment. This can be a vector given a value for each string, and will be recycled as necessary. If <code>padj</code> is not a finite value (the default), the value of <code>par("las")</code> determines the adjustment. For strings plotted perpendicular to the axis the default is to centre the string.
...	other graphical parameters may also be passed as arguments to this function, particularly, <code>cex.axis</code> , <code>col.axis</code> and <code>font.axis</code> for axis annotation, <code>mgp</code> and <code>xaxp</code> or <code>yaxp</code> for positioning, <code>tck</code> or <code>tcl</code> for tick mark length and direction, <code>las</code> for vertical/horizontal label orientation, or <code>fg</code> instead of <code>col</code> , and <code>xpd</code> for clipping. See par on these. Parameters <code>xaxt</code> (sides 1 and 3) and <code>yaxt</code> (sides 2 and 4) control if the axis is plotted at all. Note that <code>lab</code> will partial match to argument <code>labels</code> unless the latter is also supplied. (Since the default axes have already been set up by plot.window , <code>lab</code> will not be acted on by <code>axis</code> .)

Details

The axis line is drawn from the lowest to the highest value of `at`, but will be clipped at the plot region. By default, only ticks which are drawn from points within the plot region (up to a tolerance

for rounding error) are plotted, but the ticks and their labels may well extend outside the plot region. Use `xpd = TRUE` or `xpd = NA` to allow axes to extend further.

When `at = NULL`, pretty tick mark locations are computed internally (the same way `axTicks(side)` would) from `par("xaxp")` or `"yaxp"` and `par("xlog")` (or `"ylog"`). Note that these locations may change if an on-screen plot is resized (for example, if the plot argument `asp` (see `plot.window`) is set.)

If `labels` is not specified, the numeric values supplied or calculated for `at` are converted to character strings as if they were a numeric vector printed by `print.default(digits = 7)`.

The code tries hard not to draw overlapping tick labels, and so will omit labels where they would abut or overlap previously drawn labels. This can result in, for example, every other tick being labelled. (The ticks are drawn left to right or bottom to top, and space at least the size of an 'm' is left between labels.)

If either `line` or `pos` is set, they (rather than `par("mgp")[3]`) determine the position of the axis line and tick marks, and the tick labels are placed `par("mgp")[2]` further lines into (or towards for `pos`) the margin.

Several of the graphics parameters affect the way axes are drawn. The vertical (for sides 1 and 3) positions of the axis and the tick labels are controlled by `mgp[2:3]` and `mex`, the size and direction of the ticks is controlled by `tck` and `tc1` and the appearance of the tick labels by `cex.axis`, `col.axis` and `font.axis` with orientation controlled by `las` (but not `srt`, unlike S which uses `srt` if `at` is supplied and `las` if it is not). Note that `adj` is not supported and labels are always centered. See `par` for details.

Value

The numeric locations on the axis scale at which tick marks were drawn when the plot was first drawn (see 'Details').

This function is usually invoked for its side effect, which is to add an axis to an already existing plot.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`Axis` for a generic interface.

`axTicks` returns the axis tick locations corresponding to `at = NULL`; `pretty` is more flexible for computing pretty tick coordinates and does *not* depend on (nor adapt to) the coordinate system in use.

Several graphics parameters affecting the appearance are documented in `par`.

Examples

```
require(stats) # for rnorm
plot(1:4, rnorm(4), axes = FALSE)
axis(1, 1:4, LETTERS[1:4])
```

```

axis(2)
box() #- to make it look "as usual"

plot(1:7, rnorm(7), main = "axis() examples",
     type = "s", xaxt = "n", frame = FALSE, col = "red")
axis(1, 1:7, LETTERS[1:7], col.axis = "blue")
# unusual options:
axis(4, col = "violet", col.axis = "dark violet", lwd = 2)
axis(3, col = "gold", lty = 2, lwd = 0.5)

# one way to have a custom x axis
plot(1:10, xaxt = "n")
axis(1, xaxp = c(2, 9, 7))

```

axis.POSIXct

*Date and Date-time Plotting Functions***Description**

Functions to plot objects of classes "POSIXlt", "POSIXct" and "Date" representing calendar dates and times.

Usage

```

axis.POSIXct(side, x, at, format, labels = TRUE, ...)
axis.Date(side, x, at, format, labels = TRUE, ...)

```

Arguments

x, at	A date-time or date object.
side	See axis .
format	See strptime .
labels	Either a logical value specifying whether annotations are to be made at the tick-marks, or a vector of character strings to be placed at the tickpoints.
...	Further arguments to be passed from or to other methods, typically graphical parameters .

Details

axis.POSIXct and axis.Date work quite hard to choose suitable time units (years, months, days, hours, minutes or seconds) and a sensible output format, but this can be overridden by supplying a format specification.

If at is supplied it specifies the locations of the ticks and labels whereas if x is specified a suitable grid of labels is chosen. Printing of tick labels can be suppressed by using labels = FALSE.

The date-times for a "POSIXct" input are interpreted in the time zone give by the "tzzone" attribute if there is one, otherwise the current time zone.

The way the date-times are rendered (especially month names) is controlled by the locale setting of category "LC_TIME" (see [Sys.setlocale](#)).

Value

The locations on the axis scale at which tick marks were drawn.

See Also

[DateTimeClasses](#), [Dates](#) for details of the classes.

[Axis](#).

Examples

```
with(beaver1, {
  time <- strptime(paste(1990, day, time %% 100, time %% 100),
                  "%Y %j %H %M")
  plot(time, temp, type = "l") # axis at 4-hour intervals.
  # now label every hour on the time axis
  plot(time, temp, type = "l", xaxt = "n")
  r <- as.POSIXct(round(range(time), "hours"))
  axis.POSIXct(1, at = seq(r[1], r[2], by = "hour"), format = "%H")
})

plot(.leap.seconds, seq_along(.leap.seconds), type = "n", yaxt = "n",
     xlab = "leap seconds", ylab = "", bty = "n")
rug(.leap.seconds)
## or as dates
lps <- as.Date(.leap.seconds)
plot(lps, seq_along(.leap.seconds),
     type = "n", yaxt = "n", xlab = "leap seconds",
     ylab = "", bty = "n")
rug(lps)

## 100 random dates in a 10-week period
random.dates <- as.Date("2001/1/1") + 70*sort(stats::runif(100))
plot(random.dates, 1:100)
# or for a better axis labelling
plot(random.dates, 1:100, xaxt = "n")
axis.Date(1, at = seq(as.Date("2001/1/1"), max(random.dates)+6, "weeks"))
axis.Date(1, at = seq(as.Date("2001/1/1"), max(random.dates)+6, "days"),
          labels = FALSE, tcl = -0.2)
```

axTicks

Compute Axis Tickmark Locations

Description

Compute pretty tickmark locations, the same way as **R** does internally. This is only non-trivial when **log** coordinates are active. By default, gives the at values which [axis\(side\)](#) would use.

Usage

```
axTicks(side, axp = NULL, usr = NULL, log = NULL, nintLog = NULL)
```

Arguments

side	integer in 1:4, as for axis .
axp	numeric vector of length three, defaulting to par ("xaxp") or par ("yaxp") depending on the side argument (par ("xaxp") if side is 1 or 3, par ("yaxp") if side is 2 or 4).
usr	numeric vector of length two giving user coordinate limits, defaulting to the relevant portion of par ("usr") (par ("usr")[1:2] or par ("usr")[3:4] for side in (1,3) or (2,4) respectively).
log	logical indicating if log coordinates are active; defaults to par ("xlog") or par ("ylog") depending on side.
nintLog	(only used when log is true): approximate (lower bound for the) number of tick intervals; defaults to par ("lab")[j] where j is 1 or 2 depending on side. Set this to Inf if you want the same behavior as in earlier R versions (than 2.14.x).

Details

The axp, usr, and log arguments must be consistent as their default values (the [par](#)(...) results) are. If you specify all three (as non-NULL), the graphics environment is not used at all. Note that the meaning of axp differs significantly when log is TRUE; see the documentation on [par](#)(xaxp =).

[axTicks\(\)](#) can be used as an R interface to the C function [CreateAtVector\(\)](#) in `'.../src/main/plot.c'` which is called by [axis](#)(side, *) when no argument at is specified. The delicate case, log = TRUE, now makes use of [axisTicks](#) (in package **grDevices**) unless nintLog = Inf which exists for back compatibility.

Value

numeric vector of coordinate values at which axis tickmarks can be drawn. By default, when only the first argument is specified, these values should be identical to those that [axis](#)(side) would use or has used. Note that the values are decreasing when usr is ("reverse axis" case).

See Also

[axis](#), [par](#). [pretty](#) uses the same algorithm (but independently of the graphics environment) and has more options. However it is not available for log = TRUE.

[axisTicks](#)() (package **grDevices**).

Examples

```
plot(1:7, 10*21:27)
axTicks(1)
axTicks(2)
stopifnot(identical(axTicks(1), axTicks(3)),
           identical(axTicks(2), axTicks(4)))

## Show how axTicks() and axis() correspond :
op <- par(mfrow = c(3, 1))
for(x in 9999 * c(1, 2, 8)) {
  plot(x, 9, log = "x")
}
```

```

      cat(formatC(par("xaxp"), width = 5),";", T <- axTicks(1),"\\n")
      rug(T, col = adjustcolor("red", 0.5), lwd = 4)
    }
    par(op)

    x <- 9.9*10^(-3:10)
    plot(x, 1:14, log = "x")
    axTicks(1) # now length 5, in R <= 2.13.x gave the following
    axTicks(1, nintLog = Inf) # rather too many

    ## An example using axTicks() without reference to an existing plot
    ## (copying R's internal procedures for setting axis ranges etc.),
    ## You do need to supply _all_ of axp, usr, log, nintLog
    ## standard logarithmic y axis labels
    ylims <- c(0.2, 88)
    get_axp <- function(x) 10^c(ceiling(x[1]), floor(x[2]))
    ## mimic par("yaxs") == "i"
    usr.i <- log10(ylims)
    (aT.i <- axTicks(side = 2, usr = usr.i,
                     axp = c(get_axp(usr.i), n = 3), log = TRUE, nintLog = 5))
    ## mimic (default) par("yaxs") == "r"
    usr.r <- extendrange(r = log10(ylims), f = 0.04)
    (aT.r <- axTicks(side = 2, usr = usr.r,
                     axp = c(get_axp(usr.r), 3), log = TRUE, nintLog = 5))

    ## Prove that we got it right :
    plot(0:1, ylims, log = "y", yaxs = "i")
    stopifnot(all.equal(aT.i, axTicks(side = 2)))

    plot(0:1, ylims, log = "y", yaxs = "r")
    stopifnot(all.equal(aT.r, axTicks(side = 2)))

```

barplot

Bar Plots

Description

Creates a bar plot with vertical or horizontal bars.

Usage

```

barplot(height, ...)

## Default S3 method:
barplot(height, width = 1, space = NULL,
        names.arg = NULL, legend.text = NULL, beside = FALSE,
        horiz = FALSE, density = NULL, angle = 45,
        col = NULL, border = par("fg"),
        main = NULL, sub = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
        xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL, xpd = TRUE, log = "",

```



```
axes = TRUE, axisnames = TRUE,
cex.axis = par("cex.axis"), cex.names = par("cex.axis"),
inside = TRUE, plot = TRUE, axis.lty = 0, offset = 0,
add = FALSE, args.legend = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

height	either a vector or matrix of values describing the bars which make up the plot. If height is a vector, the plot consists of a sequence of rectangular bars with heights given by the values in the vector. If height is a matrix and beside is FALSE then each bar of the plot corresponds to a column of height, with the values in the column giving the heights of stacked sub-bars making up the bar. If height is a matrix and beside is TRUE, then the values in each column are juxtaposed rather than stacked.
width	optional vector of bar widths. Re-cycled to length the number of bars drawn. Specifying a single value will have no visible effect unless xlim is specified.
space	the amount of space (as a fraction of the average bar width) left before each bar. May be given as a single number or one number per bar. If height is a matrix and beside is TRUE, space may be specified by two numbers, where the first is the space between bars in the same group, and the second the space between the groups. If not given explicitly, it defaults to c(0,1) if height is a matrix and beside is TRUE, and to 0.2 otherwise.
names.arg	a vector of names to be plotted below each bar or group of bars. If this argument is omitted, then the names are taken from the names attribute of height if this is a vector, or the column names if it is a matrix.
legend.text	a vector of text used to construct a legend for the plot, or a logical indicating whether a legend should be included. This is only useful when height is a matrix. In that case given legend labels should correspond to the rows of height; if legend.text is true, the row names of height will be used as labels if they are non-null.
beside	a logical value. If FALSE, the columns of height are portrayed as stacked bars, and if TRUE the columns are portrayed as juxtaposed bars.
horiz	a logical value. If FALSE, the bars are drawn vertically with the first bar to the left. If TRUE, the bars are drawn horizontally with the first at the bottom.
density	a vector giving the density of shading lines, in lines per inch, for the bars or bar components. The default value of NULL means that no shading lines are drawn. Non-positive values of density also inhibit the drawing of shading lines.
angle	the slope of shading lines, given as an angle in degrees (counter-clockwise), for the bars or bar components.
col	a vector of colors for the bars or bar components. By default, grey is used if height is a vector, and a gamma-corrected grey palette if height is a matrix.
border	the color to be used for the border of the bars. Use border = NA to omit borders. If there are shading lines, border = TRUE means use the same colour for the border as for the shading lines.
main, sub	overall and sub title for the plot.

xlab	a label for the x axis.
ylab	a label for the y axis.
xlim	limits for the x axis.
ylim	limits for the y axis.
xpd	logical. Should bars be allowed to go outside region?
log	string specifying if axis scales should be logarithmic; see plot.default .
axes	logical. If TRUE, a vertical (or horizontal, if <code>horiz</code> is true) axis is drawn.
axisnames	logical. If TRUE, and if there are <code>names.arg</code> (see above), the other axis is drawn (with <code>lty = 0</code>) and labeled.
cex.axis	expansion factor for numeric axis labels.
cex.names	expansion factor for axis names (bar labels).
inside	logical. If TRUE, the lines which divide adjacent (non-stacked!) bars will be drawn. Only applies when <code>space = 0</code> (which it partly is when <code>beside = TRUE</code>).
plot	logical. If FALSE, nothing is plotted.
axis.lty	the graphics parameter <code>lty</code> applied to the axis and tick marks of the categorical (default horizontal) axis. Note that by default the axis is suppressed.
offset	a vector indicating how much the bars should be shifted relative to the x axis.
add	logical specifying if bars should be added to an already existing plot; defaults to FALSE.
args.legend	list of additional arguments to pass to legend() ; names of the list are used as argument names. Only used if <code>legend.text</code> is supplied.
...	arguments to be passed to/from other methods. For the default method these can include further arguments (such as <code>axes</code> , <code>asp</code> and <code>main</code>) and graphical parameters (see par) which are passed to plot.window() , title() and axis .

Details

This is a generic function, it currently only has a default method. A formula interface may be added eventually.

Value

A numeric vector (or matrix, when `beside = TRUE`), say `mp`, giving the coordinates of *all* the bar midpoints drawn, useful for adding to the graph.

If `beside` is true, use `colMeans(mp)` for the midpoints of each *group* of bars, see example.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[plot\(..., type = "h"\)](#), [dotchart](#), [hist](#).

Examples

```

require(grDevices) # for colours
tN <- table(Ni <- stats::rpois(100, lambda = 5))
r <- barplot(tN, col = rainbow(20))
#- type = "h" plotting *is* 'bar'plot
lines(r, tN, type = "h", col = "red", lwd = 2)

barplot(tN, space = 1.5, axisnames = FALSE,
        sub = "barplot(..., space= 1.5, axisnames = FALSE)")

barplot(VADeaths, plot = FALSE)
barplot(VADeaths, plot = FALSE, beside = TRUE)

mp <- barplot(VADeaths) # default
tot <- colMeans(VADeaths)
text(mp, tot + 3, format(tot), xpd = TRUE, col = "blue")
barplot(VADeaths, beside = TRUE,
        col = c("lightblue", "mistyrose", "lightcyan",
                "lavender", "cornsilk"),
        legend = rownames(VADeaths), ylim = c(0, 100))
title(main = "Death Rates in Virginia", font.main = 4)

hh <- t(VADeaths)[, 5:1]
mybarcol <- "gray20"
mp <- barplot(hh, beside = TRUE,
        col = c("lightblue", "mistyrose",
                "lightcyan", "lavender"),
        legend = colnames(VADeaths), ylim = c(0,100),
        main = "Death Rates in Virginia", font.main = 4,
        sub = "Faked upper 2*sigma error bars", col.sub = mybarcol,
        cex.names = 1.5)
segments(mp, hh, mp, hh + 2*sqrt(1000*hh/100), col = mybarcol, lwd = 1.5)
stopifnot(dim(mp) == dim(hh)) # corresponding matrices
mtext(side = 1, at = colMeans(mp), line = -2,
      text = paste("Mean", formatC(colMeans(hh))), col = "red")

# Bar shading example
barplot(VADeaths, angle = 15+10*1:5, density = 20, col = "black",
        legend = rownames(VADeaths))
title(main = list("Death Rates in Virginia", font = 4))

# border :
barplot(VADeaths, border = "dark blue")

# log scales (not much sense here):
barplot(tN, col = heat.colors(12), log = "y")
barplot(tN, col = gray.colors(20), log = "xy")

# args.legend
barplot(height = cbind(x = c(465, 91) / 465 * 100,
                       y = c(840, 200) / 840 * 100,

```

```

      z = c(37, 17) / 37 * 100),
  beside = FALSE,
  width = c(465, 840, 37),
  col = c(1, 2),
  legend.text = c("A", "B"),
  args.legend = list(x = "topleft"))

```

box

Draw a Box around a Plot

Description

This function draws a box around the current plot in the given color and linetype. The `bty` parameter determines the type of box drawn. See [par](#) for details.

Usage

```
box(which = "plot", lty = "solid", ...)
```

Arguments

<code>which</code>	character, one of "plot", "figure", "inner" and "outer".
<code>lty</code>	line type of the box.
<code>...</code>	further graphical parameters , such as <code>bty</code> , <code>col</code> , or <code>lwd</code> , see par . Note that <code>xpd</code> is not accepted as clipping is always to the device region.

Details

The choice of colour is complicated. If `col` was supplied and is not `NA`, it is used. Otherwise, if `fg` was supplied and is not `NA`, it is used. The final default is `par("col")`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[rect](#) for drawing of arbitrary rectangles.

Examples

```

plot(1:7, abs(stats::rnorm(7)), type = "h", axes = FALSE)
axis(1, at = 1:7, labels = letters[1:7])
box(lty = '1373', col = 'red')

```

boxplot	<i>Box Plots</i>
---------	------------------

Description

Produce box-and-whisker plot(s) of the given (grouped) values.

Usage

```
boxplot(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
boxplot(formula, data = NULL, ..., subset, na.action = NULL)

## Default S3 method:
boxplot(x, ..., range = 1.5, width = NULL, varwidth = FALSE,
        notch = FALSE, outline = TRUE, names, plot = TRUE,
        border = par("fg"), col = NULL, log = "",
        pars = list(boxwex = 0.8, staplewex = 0.5, outwex = 0.5),
        horizontal = FALSE, add = FALSE, at = NULL)
```

Arguments

formula	a formula, such as $y \sim \text{grp}$, where y is a numeric vector of data values to be split into groups according to the grouping variable grp (usually a factor).
data	a data.frame (or list) from which the variables in formula should be taken.
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used for plotting.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is to ignore missing values in either the response or the group.
x	for specifying data from which the boxplots are to be produced. Either a numeric vector, or a single list containing such vectors. Additional unnamed arguments specify further data as separate vectors (each corresponding to a component boxplot). NAs are allowed in the data.
...	For the formula method, named arguments to be passed to the default method. For the default method, unnamed arguments are additional data vectors (unless x is a list when they are ignored), and named arguments are arguments and graphical parameters to be passed to <code>bxp</code> in addition to the ones given by argument <code>pars</code> (and override those in <code>pars</code>). Note that <code>bxp</code> may or may not make use of graphical parameters it is passed: see its documentation.
range	this determines how far the plot whiskers extend out from the box. If range is positive, the whiskers extend to the most extreme data point which is no more than range times the interquartile range from the box. A value of zero causes the whiskers to extend to the data extremes.
width	a vector giving the relative widths of the boxes making up the plot.

varwidth	if varwidth is TRUE, the boxes are drawn with widths proportional to the square-roots of the number of observations in the groups.
notch	if notch is TRUE, a notch is drawn in each side of the boxes. If the notches of two plots do not overlap this is ‘strong evidence’ that the two medians differ (Chambers <i>et al</i> , 1983, p. 62). See boxplot.stats for the calculations used.
outline	if outline is not true, the outliers are not drawn (as points whereas S+ uses lines).
names	group labels which will be printed under each boxplot. Can be a character vector or an expression (see plotmath).
boxwex	a scale factor to be applied to all boxes. When there are only a few groups, the appearance of the plot can be improved by making the boxes narrower.
staplewex	staple line width expansion, proportional to box width.
outwex	outlier line width expansion, proportional to box width.
plot	if TRUE (the default) then a boxplot is produced. If not, the summaries which the boxplots are based on are returned.
border	an optional vector of colors for the outlines of the boxplots. The values in border are recycled if the length of border is less than the number of plots.
col	if col is non-null it is assumed to contain colors to be used to colour the bodies of the box plots. By default they are in the background colour.
log	character indicating if x or y or both coordinates should be plotted in log scale.
pars	a list of (potentially many) more graphical parameters, e.g., boxwex or outpch; these are passed to bxp (if plot is true); for details, see there.
horizontal	logical indicating if the boxplots should be horizontal; default FALSE means vertical boxes.
add	logical, if true <i>add</i> boxplot to current plot.
at	numeric vector giving the locations where the boxplots should be drawn, particularly when add = TRUE; defaults to 1:n where n is the number of boxes.

Details

The generic function `boxplot` currently has a default method (`boxplot.default`) and a formula interface (`boxplot.formula`).

If multiple groups are supplied either as multiple arguments or via a formula, parallel boxplots will be plotted, in the order of the arguments or the order of the levels of the factor (see [factor](#)).

Missing values are ignored when forming boxplots.

Value

List with the following components:

stats	a matrix, each column contains the extreme of the lower whisker, the lower hinge, the median, the upper hinge and the extreme of the upper whisker for one group/plot. If all the inputs have the same class attribute, so will this component.
n	a vector with the number of observations in each group.

conf	a matrix where each column contains the lower and upper extremes of the notch.
out	the values of any data points which lie beyond the extremes of the whiskers.
group	a vector of the same length as out whose elements indicate to which group the outlier belongs.
names	a vector of names for the groups.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Chambers, J. M., Cleveland, W. S., Kleiner, B. and Tukey, P. A. (1983) *Graphical Methods for Data Analysis*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See also [boxplot.stats](#).

See Also

[boxplot.stats](#) which does the computation, [bxp](#) for the plotting and more examples; and [stripchart](#) for an alternative (with small data sets).

Examples

```
## boxplot on a formula:
boxplot(count ~ spray, data = InsectSprays, col = "lightgray")
# *add* notches (somewhat funny here):
boxplot(count ~ spray, data = InsectSprays,
        notch = TRUE, add = TRUE, col = "blue")

boxplot(decrease ~ treatment, data = OrchardSprays,
        log = "y", col = "bisque")

rb <- boxplot(decrease ~ treatment, data = OrchardSprays, col = "bisque")
title("Comparing boxplot(s) and non-robust mean +/- SD")

mn.t <- tapply(OrchardSprays$decrease, OrchardSprays$treatment, mean)
sd.t <- tapply(OrchardSprays$decrease, OrchardSprays$treatment, sd)
xi <- 0.3 + seq(rb$n)
points(xi, mn.t, col = "orange", pch = 18)
arrows(xi, mn.t - sd.t, xi, mn.t + sd.t,
       code = 3, col = "pink", angle = 75, length = .1)

## boxplot on a matrix:
mat <- cbind(Uni05 = (1:100)/21, Norm = rnorm(100),
            `5T` = rt(100, df = 5), Gam2 = rgamma(100, shape = 2))
boxplot(as.data.frame(mat),
        main = "boxplot(as.data.frame(mat), main = ...)")
par(las = 1) # all axis labels horizontal
boxplot(as.data.frame(mat), main = "boxplot(*, horizontal = TRUE)",
        horizontal = TRUE)
```

```
## Using 'at = ' and adding boxplots -- example idea by Roger Bivand :

boxplot(len ~ dose, data = ToothGrowth,
        boxwex = 0.25, at = 1:3 - 0.2,
        subset = supp == "VC", col = "yellow",
        main = "Guinea Pigs' Tooth Growth",
        xlab = "Vitamin C dose mg",
        ylab = "tooth length",
        xlim = c(0.5, 3.5), ylim = c(0, 35), yaxs = "i")
boxplot(len ~ dose, data = ToothGrowth, add = TRUE,
        boxwex = 0.25, at = 1:3 + 0.2,
        subset = supp == "OJ", col = "orange")
legend(2, 9, c("Ascorbic acid", "Orange juice"),
      fill = c("yellow", "orange"))

## more examples in help(bxp)
```

boxplot.matrix

Draw a Boxplot for each Column (Row) of a Matrix

Description

Interpreting the columns (or rows) of a matrix as different groups, draw a boxplot for each.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'matrix'
boxplot(x, use.cols = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric matrix.
<code>use.cols</code>	logical indicating if columns (by default) or rows (<code>use.cols = FALSE</code>) should be plotted.
<code>...</code>	Further arguments to boxplot .

Value

A list as for [boxplot](#).

Author(s)

Martin Maechler, 1995, for S+, then R package **sfsmisc**.

See Also

[boxplot.default](#) which already works nowadays with data.frames; [boxplot.formula](#), [plot.factor](#) which work with (the more general concept) of a grouping factor.

Examples

```
## Very similar to the example in ?boxplot
mat <- cbind(Uni05 = (1:100)/21, Norm = rnorm(100),
             T5 = rt(100, df = 5), Gam2 = rgamma(100, shape = 2))
boxplot(mat, main = "boxplot.matrix(..., main = ...)",
        notch = TRUE, col = 1:4)
```

bxp

Draw Box Plots from Summaries

Description

bxp draws box plots based on the given summaries in `z`. It is usually called from within `boxplot`, but can be invoked directly.

Usage

```
bxp(z, notch = FALSE, width = NULL, varwidth = FALSE,
    outline = TRUE, notch.frac = 0.5, log = "",
    border = par("fg"), pars = NULL, frame.plot = axes,
    horizontal = FALSE, add = FALSE, at = NULL, show.names = NULL,
    ...)
```

Arguments

<code>z</code>	a list containing data summaries to be used in constructing the plots. These are usually the result of a call to <code>boxplot</code> , but can be generated in any fashion.
<code>notch</code>	if <code>notch</code> is <code>TRUE</code> , a notch is drawn in each side of the boxes. If the notches of two plots do not overlap then the medians are significantly different at the 5 percent level.
<code>width</code>	a vector giving the relative widths of the boxes making up the plot.
<code>varwidth</code>	if <code>varwidth</code> is <code>TRUE</code> , the boxes are drawn with widths proportional to the square-roots of the number of observations in the groups.
<code>outline</code>	if <code>outline</code> is not true, the outliers are not drawn.
<code>notch.frac</code>	numeric in (0,1). When <code>notch = TRUE</code> , the fraction of the box width that the notches should use.
<code>border</code>	character or numeric (vector), the color of the box borders. Is recycled for multiple boxes. Is used as default for the <code>boxcol</code> , <code>medcol</code> , <code>whiskcol</code> , <code>staplecol</code> , and <code>outcol</code> options (see below).
<code>log</code>	character, indicating if any axis should be drawn in logarithmic scale, as in <code>plot.default</code> .
<code>frame.plot</code>	logical, indicating if a ‘frame’ (<code>box</code>) should be drawn; defaults to <code>TRUE</code> , unless <code>axes = FALSE</code> is specified.
<code>horizontal</code>	logical indicating if the boxplots should be horizontal; default <code>FALSE</code> means vertical boxes.

<code>add</code>	logical, if true <i>add</i> boxplot to current plot.
<code>at</code>	numeric vector giving the locations where the boxplots should be drawn, particularly when <code>add = TRUE</code> ; defaults to <code>1:n</code> where <code>n</code> is the number of boxes.
<code>show.names</code>	Set to <code>TRUE</code> or <code>FALSE</code> to override the defaults on whether an x-axis label is printed for each group.
<code>pars, ...</code>	graphical parameters (etc) can be passed as arguments to this function, either as a list (<code>pars</code>) or normally(<code>...</code>), see the following. (Those in <code>...</code> take precedence over those in <code>pars</code> .)

Currently, `yaxs` and `ylim` are used ‘along the boxplot’, i.e., vertically, when horizontal is false, and `xlim` horizontally. `xaxt`, `yaxt`, `las`, `cex.axis`, and `col.axis` are passed to [axis](#), and `main`, `cex.main`, `col.main`, `sub`, `cex.sub`, `col.sub`, `xlab`, `ylab`, `cex.lab`, and `col.lab` are passed to [title](#).

In addition, `axes` is accepted (see [plot.window](#)), with default `TRUE`.

The following arguments (or `pars` components) allow further customization of the boxplot graphics. Their defaults are typically determined from the non-prefixed version (e.g., `boxlty` from `lty`), either from the specified argument or `pars` component or the corresponding [par](#) one.

boxwex: a scale factor to be applied to all boxes. When there are only a few groups, the appearance of the plot can be improved by making the boxes narrower. The default depends on `at` and typically is 0.8.

staplewex, outwex: staple and outlier line width expansion, proportional to box width; both default to 0.5.

boxlty, boxlwd, boxcol, boxfill: box outline type, width, color, and fill color (which currently defaults to `col` and will in future default to `par("bg")`).

medlty, medlwd, medpch, medcex, medcol, medbg: median line type, line width, point character, point size expansion, color, and background color. The default `medpch = NA` suppresses the point, and `medlty = "blank"` does so for the line. Note that `medlwd` defaults to $3 \times$ the default `lwd`.

whisklty, whisklwd, whiskcol: whisker line type (default: `"dashed"`), width, and color.

staplelty, staplelwd, staplecol: staple (= end of whisker) line type, width, and color.

outlty, outlwd, outpch, outcex, outcol, outbg: outlier line type, line width, point character, point size expansion, color, and background color. The default `outlty = "blank"` suppresses the lines and `outpch = NA` suppresses points.

Value

An invisible vector, actually identical to the `at` argument, with the coordinates ("x" if horizontal is false, "y" otherwise) of box centers, useful for adding to the plot.

Note

When `add = FALSE`, `xlim` now defaults to `xlim = range(at, *) + c(-0.5, 0.5)`. It will usually be a good idea to specify `xlim` if the "x" axis has a log scale or width is far from uniform.

Author(s)

The R Core development team and Arni Magnusson (then at U Washington) who has provided most changes for the `box*`, `med*`, `whisk*`, `staple*`, and `out*` arguments.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
require(stats)
set.seed(753)
(bx.p <- boxplot(split(rt(100, 4), gl(5, 20))))
op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2))
bxp(bx.p, xaxt = "n")
bxp(bx.p, notch = TRUE, axes = FALSE, pch = 4, boxfill = 1:5)
bxp(bx.p, notch = TRUE, boxfill = "lightblue", frame = FALSE,
    outl = FALSE, main = "bxp(*, frame= FALSE, outl= FALSE)")
bxp(bx.p, notch = TRUE, boxfill = "lightblue", border = 2:6,
    ylim = c(-4,4), pch = 22, bg = "green", log = "x",
    main = "... log = 'x', ylim = *")
par(op)
op <- par(mfrow = c(1, 2))

## single group -- no label
boxplot (weight ~ group, data = PlantGrowth, subset = group == "ctrl")
## with label
bx <- boxplot(weight ~ group, data = PlantGrowth,
    subset = group == "ctrl", plot = FALSE)
bxp(bx, show.names=TRUE)
par(op)

z <- split(rnorm(1000), rpois(1000, 2.2))
boxplot(z, whisklty = 3, main = "boxplot(z, whisklty = 3)")

## Colour support similar to plot.default:
op <- par(mfrow = 1:2, bg = "light gray", fg = "midnight blue")
boxplot(z, col.axis = "skyblue3", main = "boxplot(*, col.axis=.,main=.)")
plot(z[[1]], col.axis = "skyblue3", main = "plot(*, col.axis=.,main=.)")
mtext("par(bg=\"light gray\", fg=\"midnight blue\")",
    outer = TRUE, line = -1.2)
par(op)

## Mimic S-Plus:
splus <- list(boxwex = 0.4, staplewex = 1, outwex = 1, boxfill = "grey40",
    medlwd = 3, medcol = "white", whisklty = 3, outlty = 1, outpch = NA)
boxplot(z, pars = splus)
## Recycled and "sweeping" parameters
op <- par(mfrow = c(1,2))
boxplot(z, border = 1:5, lty = 3, medlty = 1, medlwd = 2.5)
```

```

boxplot(z, boxfill = 1:3, pch = 1:5, lwd = 1.5, medcol = "white")
par(op)
## too many possibilities
boxplot(z, boxfill = "light gray", outpch = 21:25, outlty = 2,
        bg = "pink", lwd = 2,
        medcol = "dark blue", medcex = 2, medpch = 20)

```

cdplot

Conditional Density Plots

Description

Computes and plots conditional densities describing how the conditional distribution of a categorical variable y changes over a numerical variable x .

Usage

```

cdplot(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
cdplot(x, y,
       plot = TRUE, tol.ylab = 0.05, ylevels = NULL,
       bw = "nrd0", n = 512, from = NULL, to = NULL,
       col = NULL, border = 1, main = "", xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
       yaxlabels = NULL, xlim = NULL, ylim = c(0, 1), ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
cdplot(formula, data = list(),
       plot = TRUE, tol.ylab = 0.05, ylevels = NULL,
       bw = "nrd0", n = 512, from = NULL, to = NULL,
       col = NULL, border = 1, main = "", xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
       yaxlabels = NULL, xlim = NULL, ylim = c(0, 1), ...,
       subset = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object, the default method expects a single numerical variable (or an object coercible to this).
<code>y</code>	a "factor" interpreted to be the dependent variable
<code>formula</code>	a "formula" of type $y \sim x$ with a single dependent "factor" and a single numerical explanatory variable.
<code>data</code>	an optional data frame.
<code>plot</code>	logical. Should the computed conditional densities be plotted?
<code>tol.ylab</code>	convenience tolerance parameter for y-axis annotation. If the distance between two labels drops under this threshold, they are plotted equidistantly.

ylevels	a character or numeric vector specifying in which order the levels of the dependent variable should be plotted.
bw, n, from, to, ...	arguments passed to density
col	a vector of fill colors of the same length as levels(y). The default is to call gray.colors .
border	border color of shaded polygons.
main, xlab, ylab	character strings for annotation
yaxlabels	character vector for annotation of y axis, defaults to levels(y).
xlim, ylim	the range of x and y values with sensible defaults.
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used for plotting.

Details

cdplot computes the conditional densities of x given the levels of y weighted by the marginal distribution of y . The densities are derived cumulatively over the levels of y .

This visualization technique is similar to spinograms (see [spineplot](#)) and plots $P(y|x)$ against x . The conditional probabilities are not derived by discretization (as in the spinogram), but using a smoothing approach via [density](#).

Note, that the estimates of the conditional densities are more reliable for high-density regions of x . Conversely, they are less reliable in regions with only few x observations.

Value

The conditional density functions (cumulative over the levels of y) are returned invisibly.

Author(s)

Achim Zeileis <Achim.Zeileis@R-project.org>

References

Hofmann, H., Theus, M. (2005), *Interactive graphics for visualizing conditional distributions*, Unpublished Manuscript.

See Also

[spineplot](#), [density](#)

Examples

```
## NASA space shuttle o-ring failures
fail <- factor(c(2, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1,
               1, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1),
              levels = 1:2, labels = c("no", "yes"))
temperature <- c(53, 57, 58, 63, 66, 67, 67, 67, 68, 69, 70, 70,
                70, 70, 72, 73, 75, 75, 76, 76, 78, 79, 81)
```

```
## CD plot
cdplot(fail ~ temperature)
cdplot(fail ~ temperature, bw = 2)
cdplot(fail ~ temperature, bw = "SJ")

## compare with spinogram
(spineplot(fail ~ temperature, breaks = 3))

## highlighting for failures
cdplot(fail ~ temperature, ylevels = 2:1)

## scatter plot with conditional density
cdens <- cdplot(fail ~ temperature, plot = FALSE)
plot(I(as.numeric(fail) - 1) ~ jitter(temperature, factor = 2),
     xlab = "Temperature", ylab = "Conditional failure probability")
lines(53:81, 1 - cdens[[1]](53:81), col = 2)
```

clip*Set Clipping Region*

Description

Set clipping region in user coordinates

Usage

```
clip(x1, x2, y1, y2)
```

Arguments

x1, x2, y1, y2 user coordinates of clipping rectangle

Details

How the clipping rectangle is set depends on the setting of `par("xpd")`: this function changes the current setting until the next high-level plotting command resets it.

Clipping of lines, rectangles and polygons is done in the graphics engine, but clipping of text is if possible done in the device, so the effect of clipping text is device-dependent (and may result in text not wholly within the clipping region being omitted entirely).

Exactly when the clipping region will be reset can be hard to predict. `plot.new` always resets it. Functions such as `lines` and `text` only reset it if `par("xpd")` has been changed. However, functions such as `box`, `mtext`, `title` and `plot.dendrogram` can manipulate the xpd setting.

See Also

[par](#)

Examples

```
x <- rnorm(1000)
hist(x, xlim = c(-4,4))
usr <- par("usr")
clip(usr[1], -2, usr[3], usr[4])
hist(x, col = 'red', add = TRUE)
clip(2, usr[2], usr[3], usr[4])
hist(x, col = 'blue', add = TRUE)
do.call("clip", as.list(usr)) # reset to plot region
```

contour

*Display Contours***Description**

Create a contour plot, or add contour lines to an existing plot.

Usage

```
contour(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
contour(x = seq(0, 1, length.out = nrow(z)),
        y = seq(0, 1, length.out = ncol(z)),
        z,
        nlevels = 10, levels = pretty(zlim, nlevels),
        labels = NULL,
        xlim = range(x, finite = TRUE),
        ylim = range(y, finite = TRUE),
        zlim = range(z, finite = TRUE),
        labcex = 0.6, drawlabels = TRUE, method = "flattest",
        vfont, axes = TRUE, frame.plot = axes,
        col = par("fg"), lty = par("lty"), lwd = par("lwd"),
        add = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	locations of grid lines at which the values in <code>z</code> are measured. These must be in ascending order. By default, equally spaced values from 0 to 1 are used. If <code>x</code> is a list, its components <code>x\$x</code> and <code>x\$y</code> are used for <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> , respectively. If the list has component <code>z</code> this is used for <code>z</code> .
<code>z</code>	a matrix containing the values to be plotted (NAs are allowed). Note that <code>x</code> can be used instead of <code>z</code> for convenience.
<code>nlevels</code>	number of contour levels desired iff <code>levels</code> is not supplied.
<code>levels</code>	numeric vector of levels at which to draw contour lines.

labels	a vector giving the labels for the contour lines. If NULL then the levels are used as labels, otherwise this is coerced by as.character .
labcex	cex for contour labelling. This is an absolute size, not a multiple of <code>par("cex")</code> .
drawlabels	logical. Contours are labelled if TRUE.
method	character string specifying where the labels will be located. Possible values are "simple", "edge" and "flattest" (the default). See the 'Details' section.
vfont	if NULL, the current font family and face are used for the contour labels. If a character vector of length 2 then Hershey vector fonts are used for the contour labels. The first element of the vector selects a typeface and the second element selects a fontindex (see text for more information). The default is NULL on graphics devices with high-quality rotation of text and <code>c("sans serif", "plain")</code> otherwise.
xlim, ylim, zlim	x-, y- and z-limits for the plot.
axes, frame.plot	logical indicating whether axes or a box should be drawn, see plot.default .
col	color for the lines drawn.
lty	line type for the lines drawn.
lwd	line width for the lines drawn.
add	logical. If TRUE, add to a current plot.
...	additional arguments to plot.window , title , Axis and box , typically graphical parameters such as <code>cex.axis</code> .

Details

`contour` is a generic function with only a default method in base R.

The methods for positioning the labels on contours are "simple" (draw at the edge of the plot, overlaying the contour line), "edge" (draw at the edge of the plot, embedded in the contour line, with no labels overlapping) and "flattest" (draw on the flattest section of the contour, embedded in the contour line, with no labels overlapping). The second and third may not draw a label on every contour line.

For information about vector fonts, see the help for [text](#) and [Hershey](#).

Notice that `contour` interprets the `z` matrix as a table of $f(x[i], y[j])$ values, so that the `x` axis corresponds to row number and the `y` axis to column number, with column 1 at the bottom, i.e. a 90 degree counter-clockwise rotation of the conventional textual layout.

Alternatively, use [contourplot](#) from the [lattice](#) package where the [formula](#) notation allows to use vectors `x`, `y`, and `z` of the same length.

There is limited control over the axes and frame as arguments `col`, `lwd` and `lty` refer to the contour lines (rather than being general [graphical parameters](#)). For more control, add contours to a plot, or add axes and frame to a contour plot.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`options("max.contour.segments")` for the maximal complexity of a single contour line.
`contourLines`, `filled.contour` for color-filled contours, `contourplot` (and `levelplot`) from package **lattice**. Further, `image` and the graphics demo which can be invoked as `demo(graphics)`.

Examples

```
require(grDevices) # for colours
x <- -6:16
op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2))
contour(outer(x, x), method = "edge", vfont = c("sans serif", "plain"))
z <- outer(x, sqrt(abs(x)), FUN = "/")
image(x, x, z)
contour(x, x, z, col = "pink", add = TRUE, method = "edge",
        vfont = c("sans serif", "plain"))
contour(x, x, z, ylim = c(1, 6), method = "simple", labcex = 1,
        xlab = quote(x[1]), ylab = quote(x[2]))
contour(x, x, z, ylim = c(-6, 6), nlev = 20, lty = 2, method = "simple",
        main = "20 levels; \"simple\" labelling method")
par(op)

## Persian Rug Art:
x <- y <- seq(-4*pi, 4*pi, len = 27)
r <- sqrt(outer(x^2, y^2, "+"))
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), mar = rep(0, 4))
for(f in pi^(0:3))
  contour(cos(r^2)*exp(-r/f),
          drawlabels = FALSE, axes = FALSE, frame = TRUE)

rx <- range(x <- 10*1:nrow(volcano))
ry <- range(y <- 10*1:ncol(volcano))
ry <- ry + c(-1, 1) * (diff(rx) - diff(ry))/2
tcol <- terrain.colors(12)
par(opar); opar <- par(pty = "s", bg = "lightcyan")
plot(x = 0, y = 0, type = "n", xlim = rx, ylim = ry, xlab = "", ylab = "")
u <- par("usr")
rect(u[1], u[3], u[2], u[4], col = tcol[8], border = "red")
contour(x, y, volcano, col = tcol[2], lty = "solid", add = TRUE,
        vfont = c("sans serif", "plain"))
title("A Topographic Map of Maunga Whau", font = 4)
abline(h = 200*0:4, v = 200*0:4, col = "lightgray", lty = 2, lwd = 0.1)

## contourLines produces the same contour lines as contour
plot(x = 0, y = 0, type = "n", xlim = rx, ylim = ry, xlab = "", ylab = "")
u <- par("usr")
rect(u[1], u[3], u[2], u[4], col = tcol[8], border = "red")
contour(x, y, volcano, col = tcol[1], lty = "solid", add = TRUE,
        vfont = c("sans serif", "plain"))
line.list <- contourLines(x, y, volcano)
invisible(lapply(line.list, lines, lwd=3, col=adjustcolor(2, .3)))
par(opar)
```

convertXY*Convert between Graphics Coordinate Systems*

Description

Convert between graphics coordinate systems.

Usage

```
grconvertX(x, from = "user", to = "user")
grconvertY(y, from = "user", to = "user")
```

Arguments

x, y	numeric vector of coordinates.
from, to	character strings giving the coordinate systems to convert between.

Details

The coordinate systems are

"user" user coordinates.

"inches" inches.

"device" the device coordinate system.

"ndc" normalized device coordinates.

"nfc" normalized figure coordinates.

"npc" normalized plot coordinates.

"nic" normalized inner region coordinates. (The 'inner region' is that inside the outer margins.)

(These names can be partially matched.) For the 'normalized' coordinate systems the lower left has value 0 and the top right value 1.

Device coordinates are those in which the device works: they are usually in pixels where that makes sense and in big points (1/72 inch) otherwise (e.g., [pdf](#) and [postscript](#)).

Value

A numeric vector of the same length as the input.

Examples

```
op <- par(omd=c(0.1, 0.9, 0.1, 0.9), mfrow = c(1, 2))
plot(1:4)
for(tp in c("in", "dev", "ndc", "nfc", "npc", "nic"))
  print(grconvertX(c(1.0, 4.0), "user", tp))
par(op)
```

coplot

*Conditioning Plots***Description**

This function produces two variants of the **conditioning** plots discussed in the reference below.

Usage

```
coplot(formula, data, given.values, panel = points, rows, columns,
       show.given = TRUE, col = par("fg"), pch = par("pch"),
       bar.bg = c(num = gray(0.8), fac = gray(0.95)),
       xlab = c(x.name, paste("Given :", a.name)),
       ylab = c(y.name, paste("Given :", b.name)),
       subscripts = FALSE,
       axlabels = function(f) abbreviate(levels(f)),
       number = 6, overlap = 0.5, xlim, ylim, ...)
co.intervals(x, number = 6, overlap = 0.5)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|--------------|---|
| formula | <p>a formula describing the form of conditioning plot. A formula of the form $y \sim x \mid a$ indicates that plots of y versus x should be produced conditional on the variable a. A formula of the form $y \sim x \mid a * b$ indicates that plots of y versus x should be produced conditional on the two variables a and b.</p> <p>All three or four variables may be either numeric or factors. When x or y are factors, the result is almost as if <code>as.numeric()</code> was applied, whereas for factor a or b, the conditioning (and its graphics if <code>show.given</code> is true) are adapted.</p> |
| data | <p>a data frame containing values for any variables in the formula. By default the environment where <code>coplot</code> was called from is used.</p> |
| given.values | <p>a value or list of two values which determine how the conditioning on a and b is to take place.</p> <p>When there is no b (i.e., conditioning only on a), usually this is a matrix with two columns each row of which gives an interval, to be conditioned on, but is can also be a single vector of numbers or a set of factor levels (if the variable being conditioned on is a factor). In this case (no b), the result of <code>co.intervals</code> can be used directly as <code>given.values</code> argument.</p> |
| panel | <p>a <code>function</code>(x, y, col, pch, ...) which gives the action to be carried out in each panel of the display. The default is <code>points</code>.</p> |
| rows | <p>the panels of the plot are laid out in a rows by columns array. <code>rows</code> gives the number of rows in the array.</p> |
| columns | <p>the number of columns in the panel layout array.</p> |
| show.given | <p>logical (possibly of length 2 for 2 conditioning variables): should conditioning plots be shown for the corresponding conditioning variables (default TRUE).</p> |

<code>col</code>	a vector of colors to be used to plot the points. If too short, the values are recycled.
<code>pch</code>	a vector of plotting symbols or characters. If too short, the values are recycled.
<code>bar.bg</code>	a named vector with components "num" and "fac" giving the background colors for the (shingle) bars, for numeric and factor conditioning variables respectively.
<code>xlab</code>	character; labels to use for the x axis and the first conditioning variable. If only one label is given, it is used for the x axis and the default label is used for the conditioning variable.
<code>ylab</code>	character; labels to use for the y axis and any second conditioning variable.
<code>subscripts</code>	logical: if true the panel function is given an additional (third) argument <code>subscripts</code> giving the subscripts of the data passed to that panel.
<code>axlabels</code>	function for creating axis (tick) labels when x or y are factors.
<code>number</code>	integer; the number of conditioning intervals, for a and b, possibly of length 2. It is only used if the corresponding conditioning variable is not a factor .
<code>overlap</code>	numeric < 1; the fraction of overlap of the conditioning variables, possibly of length 2 for x and y direction. When <code>overlap < 0</code> , there will be <i>gaps</i> between the data slices.
<code>xlim</code>	the range for the x axis.
<code>ylim</code>	the range for the y axis.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments to the panel function.
<code>x</code>	a numeric vector.

Details

In the case of a single conditioning variable `a`, when both rows and columns are unspecified, a 'close to square' layout is chosen with `columns >= rows`.

In the case of multiple rows, the *order* of the panel plots is from the bottom and from the left (corresponding to increasing `a`, typically).

A panel function should not attempt to start a new plot, but just plot within a given coordinate system: thus `plot` and `boxplot` are not panel functions.

The rendering of arguments `xlab` and `ylab` is not controlled by `par` arguments `cex.lab` and `font.lab` even though they are plotted by `mtext` rather than `title`.

Value

`co.intervals(., number, .)` returns a $(\text{number} \times 2)$ **matrix**, say `ci`, where `ci[k,]` is the **range** of `x` values for the `k`-th interval.

References

- Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Data for models*. Chapter 3 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Cleveland, W. S. (1993) *Visualizing Data*. New Jersey: Summit Press.

See Also

[pairs](#), [panel.smooth](#), [points](#).

Examples

```
## Tonga Trench Earthquakes
coplot(lat ~ long | depth, data = quakes)
given.depth <- co.intervals(quakes$depth, number = 4, overlap = .1)
coplot(lat ~ long | depth, data = quakes, given.v = given.depth, rows = 1)

## Conditioning on 2 variables:
ll.dm <- lat ~ long | depth * mag
coplot(ll.dm, data = quakes)
coplot(ll.dm, data = quakes, number = c(4, 7), show.given = c(TRUE, FALSE))
coplot(ll.dm, data = quakes, number = c(3, 7),
       overlap = c(-.5, .1)) # negative overlap DROPS values

## given two factors
Index <- seq(length = nrow(warpbreaks)) # to get nicer default labels
coplot(breaks ~ Index | wool * tension, data = warpbreaks,
       show.given = 0:1)
coplot(breaks ~ Index | wool * tension, data = warpbreaks,
       col = "red", bg = "pink", pch = 21,
       bar.bg = c(fac = "light blue"))

## Example with empty panels:
with(data.frame(state.x77), {
  coplot(Life.Exp ~ Income | Illiteracy * state.region, number = 3,
        panel = function(x, y, ...) panel.smooth(x, y, span = .8, ...))
  ## y ~ factor -- not really sensible, but 'show off':
  coplot(Life.Exp ~ state.region | Income * state.division,
        panel = panel.smooth)
})
```

curve

Draw Function Plots

Description

Draws a curve corresponding to a function over the interval [from, to]. `curve` can plot also an expression in the variable `xname`, default 'x'.

Usage

```
curve(expr, from = NULL, to = NULL, n = 101, add = FALSE,
      type = "l", xname = "x", xlab = xname, ylab = NULL,
      log = NULL, xlim = NULL, ...)

## S3 method for class 'function'
plot(x, y = 0, to = 1, from = y, xlim = NULL, ylab = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

expr	The name of a function, or a call or an expression written as a function of x which will evaluate to an object of the same length as x.
x	a ‘vectorizing’ numeric R function.
y	alias for from for compatibility with plot
from, to	the range over which the function will be plotted.
n	integer; the number of x values at which to evaluate.
add	logical; if TRUE add to an already existing plot; if NA start a new plot taking the defaults for the limits and log-scaling of the x-axis from the previous plot. Taken as FALSE (with a warning if a different value is supplied) if no graphics device is open.
xlim	NULL or a numeric vector of length 2; if non-NULL it provides the defaults for c(from, to) and, unless add = TRUE, selects the x-limits of the plot – see plot.window .
type	plot type: see plot.default .
xname	character string giving the name to be used for the x axis.
xlab, ylab, log, ...	labels and graphical parameters can also be specified as arguments. See ‘Details’ for the interpretation of the default for log. For the “function” method of plot, ... can include any of the other arguments of curve, except expr.

Details

The function or expression expr (for curve) or function x (for plot) is evaluated at n points equally spaced over the range [from, to]. The points determined in this way are then plotted.

If either from or to is NULL, it defaults to the corresponding element of xlim if that is not NULL.

What happens when neither from/to nor xlim specifies both x-limits is a complex story. For plot(<function>) and for curve(add = FALSE) the defaults are (0, 1). For curve(add = NA) and curve(add = TRUE) the defaults are taken from the x-limits used for the previous plot. (This differs from versions of R prior to 2.14.0.)

The value of log is used both to specify the plot axes (unless add = TRUE) and how ‘equally spaced’ is interpreted: if the x component indicates log-scaling, the points at which the expression or function is plotted are equally spaced on log scale.

The default value of log is taken from the current plot when add = TRUE, whereas if add = NA the x component is taken from the existing plot (if any) and the y component defaults to linear. For add = FALSE the default is ""

This used to be a quick hack which now seems to serve a useful purpose, but can give bad results for functions which are not smooth.

For expensive-to-compute expressions, you should use smarter tools.

The way curve handles expr has caused confusion. It first looks to see if expr is a [name](#) (also known as a symbol), in which case it is taken to be the name of a function, and expr is replaced by a call to expr with a single argument with name given by xname. Otherwise it checks that expr is

either a [call](#) or an [expression](#), and that it contains a reference to the variable given by `xname` (using [all.vars](#)): anything else is an error. Then `expr` is evaluated in an environment which supplies a vector of name given by `xname` of length `n`, and should evaluate to an object of length `n`. Note that this means that `curve(x, ...)` is taken as a request to plot a function named `x` (and it is used as such in the function method for `plot`).

The `plot` method can be called directly as `plot.function`.

Value

A list with components `x` and `y` of the points that were drawn is returned invisibly.

Warning

For historical reasons, `add` is allowed as an argument to the "function" method of `plot`, but its behaviour may surprise you. It is recommended to use `add` only with `curve`.

See Also

[splinefun](#) for spline interpolation, [lines](#).

Examples

```
plot(qnorm) # default range c(0, 1) is appropriate here,
             # but end values are -/+Inf and so are omitted.
plot(qlogis, main = "The Inverse Logit : qlogis()")
abline(h = 0, v = 0:2/2, lty = 3, col = "gray")

curve(sin, -2*pi, 2*pi, xname = "t")
curve(tan, xname = "t", add = NA,
      main = "curve(tan) --> same x-scale as previous plot")

op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2))
curve(x^3 - 3*x, -2, 2)
curve(x^2 - 2, add = TRUE, col = "violet")

## simple and advanced versions, quite similar:
plot(cos, -pi, 3*pi)
curve(cos, xlim = c(-pi, 3*pi), n = 1001, col = "blue", add = TRUE)

chippy <- function(x) sin(cos(x)*exp(-x/2))
curve(chippy, -8, 7, n = 2001)
plot(chippy, -8, -5)

for(ll in c("", "x", "y", "xy"))
  curve(log(1+x), 1, 100, log = ll, sub = paste0("log = '", ll, "'"))
par(op)
```

dotchart

*Cleveland's Dot Plots***Description**

Draw a Cleveland dot plot.

Usage

```
dotchart(x, labels = NULL, groups = NULL, gdata = NULL,
         cex = par("cex"), pch = 21, gpch = 21, bg = par("bg"),
         color = par("fg"), gcolor = par("fg"), lcolor = "gray",
         xlim = range(x[is.finite(x)]),
         main = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

x	either a vector or matrix of numeric values (NAs are allowed). If x is a matrix the overall plot consists of juxtaposed dotplots for each row. Inputs which satisfy <code>is.numeric(x)</code> but not <code>is.vector(x) is.matrix(x)</code> are coerced by <code>as.numeric</code> , with a warning.
labels	a vector of labels for each point. For vectors the default is to use <code>names(x)</code> and for matrices the row labels <code>dimnames(x)[[1]]</code> .
groups	an optional factor indicating how the elements of x are grouped. If x is a matrix, groups will default to the columns of x.
gdata	data values for the groups. This is typically a summary such as the median or mean of each group.
cex	the character size to be used. Setting cex to a value smaller than one can be a useful way of avoiding label overlap. Unlike many other graphics functions, this sets the actual size, not a multiple of <code>par("cex")</code> .
pch	the plotting character or symbol to be used.
gpch	the plotting character or symbol to be used for group values.
bg	the background color of plotting characters or symbols to be used; use <code>par(bg= *)</code> to set the background color of the whole plot.
color	the color(s) to be used for points and labels.
gcolor	the single color to be used for group labels and values.
lcolor	the color(s) to be used for the horizontal lines.
xlim	horizontal range for the plot, see <code>plot.window</code> , for example.
main	overall title for the plot, see <code>title</code> .
xlab, ylab	axis annotations as in <code>title</code> .
...	graphical parameters can also be specified as arguments.

Value

This function is invoked for its side effect, which is to produce two variants of dotplots as described in Cleveland (1985).

Dot plots are a reasonable substitute for bar plots.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Cleveland, W. S. (1985) *The Elements of Graphing Data*. Monterey, CA: Wadsworth.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

Examples

```
dotchart(VADeaths, main = "Death Rates in Virginia - 1940")
op <- par(xaxs = "i") # 0 -- 100%
dotchart(t(VADeaths), xlim = c(0,100),
         main = "Death Rates in Virginia - 1940")
par(op)
```

filled.contour	<i>Level (Contour) Plots</i>
----------------	------------------------------

Description

This function produces a contour plot with the areas between the contours filled in solid color (Cleveland calls this a level plot). A key showing how the colors map to z values is shown to the right of the plot.

Usage

```
filled.contour(x = seq(0, 1, length.out = nrow(z)),
              y = seq(0, 1, length.out = ncol(z)),
              z,
              xlim = range(x, finite = TRUE),
              ylim = range(y, finite = TRUE),
              zlim = range(z, finite = TRUE),
              levels = pretty(zlim, nlevels), nlevels = 20,
              color.palette = cm.colors,
              col = color.palette(length(levels) - 1),
              plot.title, plot.axes, key.title, key.axes,
              asp = NA, xaxs = "i", yaxs = "i", las = 1,
              axes = TRUE, frame.plot = axes, ...)

.filled.contour(x, y, z, levels, col)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	locations of grid lines at which the values in <code>z</code> are measured. These must be in ascending order. (The rest of this description does not apply to <code>.filled.contour</code> .) By default, equally spaced values from 0 to 1 are used. If <code>x</code> is a list, its components <code>x\$x</code> and <code>x\$y</code> are used for <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> , respectively. If the list has component <code>z</code> this is used for <code>z</code> .
<code>z</code>	a numeric matrix containing the values to be plotted.. Note that <code>x</code> can be used instead of <code>z</code> for convenience.
<code>xlim</code>	<code>x</code> limits for the plot.
<code>ylim</code>	<code>y</code> limits for the plot.
<code>zlim</code>	<code>z</code> limits for the plot.
<code>levels</code>	a set of levels which are used to partition the range of <code>z</code> . Must be strictly increasing (and finite). Areas with <code>z</code> values between consecutive levels are painted with the same color.
<code>nlevels</code>	if <code>levels</code> is not specified, the range of <code>z</code> , values is divided into approximately this many levels.
<code>color.palette</code>	a color palette function to be used to assign colors in the plot.
<code>col</code>	an explicit set of colors to be used in the plot. This argument overrides any palette function specification. There should be one less color than levels
<code>plot.title</code>	statements which add titles to the main plot.
<code>plot.axes</code>	statements which draw axes (and a box) on the main plot. This overrides the default axes.
<code>key.title</code>	statements which add titles for the plot key.
<code>key.axes</code>	statements which draw axes on the plot key. This overrides the default axis.
<code>asp</code>	the y/x aspect ratio, see plot.window .
<code>xaxs</code>	the <code>x</code> axis style. The default is to use internal labeling.
<code>yaxs</code>	the <code>y</code> axis style. The default is to use internal labeling.
<code>las</code>	the style of labeling to be used. The default is to use horizontal labeling.
<code>axes, frame.plot</code>	logicals indicating if axes and a box should be drawn, as in plot.default .
<code>...</code>	additional graphical parameters , currently only passed to title() .

Details

The values to be plotted can contain NAs. Rectangles with two or more corner values are NA are omitted entirely: where there is a single NA value the triangle opposite the NA is omitted.

Values to be plotted can be infinite: the effect is similar to that described for NA values.

`.filled.contour` is a ‘bare bones’ interface to add just the contour plot to an already-set-up plot region. It is intended for programmatic use, and the programmer is responsible for checking the conditions on the arguments.

Note

filled.contour uses the [layout](#) function and so is restricted to a full page display.

The output produced by filled.contour is actually a combination of two plots; one is the filled contour and one is the legend. Two separate coordinate systems are set up for these two plots, but they are only used internally – once the function has returned these coordinate systems are lost. If you want to annotate the main contour plot, for example to add points, you can specify graphics commands in the `plot.axes` argument. See the examples.

Author(s)

Ross Ihaka and R-core.

References

Cleveland, W. S. (1993) *Visualizing Data*. Summit, New Jersey: Hobart.

See Also

[contour](#), [image](#), [palette](#); [contourplot](#) and [levelplot](#) from package [lattice](#).

Examples

```
require(grDevices) # for colours
filled.contour(volcano, color = terrain.colors, asp = 1) # simple

x <- 10*1:nrow(volcano)
y <- 10*1:ncol(volcano)
filled.contour(x, y, volcano, color = terrain.colors,
  plot.title = title(main = "The Topography of Maunga Whau",
    xlab = "Meters North", ylab = "Meters West"),
  plot.axes = { axis(1, seq(100, 800, by = 100))
    axis(2, seq(100, 600, by = 100)) },
  key.title = title(main = "Height\n(meters)"),
  key.axes = axis(4, seq(90, 190, by = 10))) # maybe also asp = 1
mtext(paste("filled.contour(.) from", R.version.string),
  side = 1, line = 4, adj = 1, cex = .66)

# Annotating a filled contour plot
a <- expand.grid(1:20, 1:20)
b <- matrix(a[,1] + a[,2], 20)
filled.contour(x = 1:20, y = 1:20, z = b,
  plot.axes = { axis(1); axis(2); points(10, 10) })

## Persian Rug Art:
x <- y <- seq(-4*pi, 4*pi, len = 27)
r <- sqrt(outer(x^2, y^2, "+"))
filled.contour(cos(r^2)*exp(-r/(2*pi)), axes = FALSE)
## rather, the key *should* be labeled:
filled.contour(cos(r^2)*exp(-r/(2*pi)), frame.plot = FALSE,
  plot.axes = {})
```

fourfoldplot

*Fourfold Plots***Description**

Creates a fourfold display of a 2 by 2 by k contingency table on the current graphics device, allowing for the visual inspection of the association between two dichotomous variables in one or several populations (strata).

Usage

```
fourfoldplot(x, color = c("#99CCFF", "#6699CC"),
             conf.level = 0.95,
             std = c("margins", "ind.max", "all.max"),
             margin = c(1, 2), space = 0.2, main = NULL,
             mfrow = NULL, mfcoll = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a 2 by 2 by k contingency table in array form, or as a 2 by 2 matrix if k is 1.
<code>color</code>	a vector of length 2 specifying the colors to use for the smaller and larger diagonals of each 2 by 2 table.
<code>conf.level</code>	confidence level used for the confidence rings on the odds ratios. Must be a single nonnegative number less than 1; if set to 0, confidence rings are suppressed.
<code>std</code>	a character string specifying how to standardize the table. Must match one of "margins", "ind.max", or "all.max", and can be abbreviated to the initial letter. If set to "margins", each 2 by 2 table is standardized to equate the margins specified by <code>margin</code> while preserving the odds ratio. If "ind.max" or "all.max", the tables are either individually or simultaneously standardized to a maximal cell frequency of 1.
<code>margin</code>	a numeric vector with the margins to equate. Must be one of 1, 2, or <code>c(1, 2)</code> (the default), which corresponds to standardizing the row, column, or both margins in each 2 by 2 table. Only used if <code>std</code> equals "margins".
<code>space</code>	the amount of space (as a fraction of the maximal radius of the quarter circles) used for the row and column labels.
<code>main</code>	character string for the fourfold title.
<code>mfrow</code>	a numeric vector of the form <code>c(nr, nc)</code> , indicating that the displays for the 2 by 2 tables should be arranged in an <code>nr</code> by <code>nc</code> layout, filled by rows.
<code>mfcoll</code>	a numeric vector of the form <code>c(nr, nc)</code> , indicating that the displays for the 2 by 2 tables should be arranged in an <code>nr</code> by <code>nc</code> layout, filled by columns.

Details

The fourfold display is designed for the display of 2 by 2 by k tables.

Following suitable standardization, the cell frequencies f_{ij} of each 2 by 2 table are shown as a quarter circle whose radius is proportional to $\sqrt{f_{ij}}$ so that its area is proportional to the cell frequency. An association (odds ratio different from 1) between the binary row and column variables is indicated by the tendency of diagonally opposite cells in one direction to differ in size from those in the other direction; color is used to show this direction. Confidence rings for the odds ratio allow a visual test of the null of no association; the rings for adjacent quadrants overlap if and only if the observed counts are consistent with the null hypothesis.

Typically, the number k corresponds to the number of levels of a stratifying variable, and it is of interest to see whether the association is homogeneous across strata. The fourfold display visualizes the pattern of association. Note that the confidence rings for the individual odds ratios are not adjusted for multiple testing.

References

Friendly, M. (1994). A fourfold display for 2 by 2 by k tables. Technical Report 217, York University, Psychology Department. <http://www.math.yorku.ca/SCS/Papers/4fold/4fold.ps.gz>

See Also

[mosaicplot](#)

Examples

```
## Use the Berkeley admission data as in Friendly (1995).
x <- aperm(UCBAdmissions, c(2, 1, 3))
dimnames(x)[[2]] <- c("Yes", "No")
names(dimnames(x)) <- c("Sex", "Admit?", "Department")
stats::ftable(x)

## Fourfold display of data aggregated over departments, with
## frequencies standardized to equate the margins for admission
## and sex.
## Figure 1 in Friendly (1994).
fourfoldplot(margin.table(x, c(1, 2)))

## Fourfold display of x, with frequencies in each table
## standardized to equate the margins for admission and sex.
## Figure 2 in Friendly (1994).
fourfoldplot(x)

## Fourfold display of x, with frequencies in each table
## standardized to equate the margins for admission. but not
## for sex.
## Figure 3 in Friendly (1994).
fourfoldplot(x, margin = 2)
```

frame

Create / Start a New Plot Frame

Description

This function (`frame` is an alias for `plot.new`) causes the completion of plotting in the current plot (if there is one) and an advance to a new graphics frame. This is used in all high-level plotting functions and also useful for skipping plots when a multi-figure region is in use.

Usage

```
plot.new()
frame()
```

Details

The new page is painted with the background colour (`par("bg")`), which is often transparent. For devices with a *canvas* colour (the on-screen devices X11, windows and quartz), the window is first painted with the canvas colour and then the background colour.

There are two hooks called "`before.plot.new`" and "`plot.new`" (see [setHook](#)) called immediately before and after advancing the frame. The latter is used in the testing code to annotate the new page. The hook function(s) are called with no argument. (If the value is a character string, `get` is called on it from within the **graphics** namespace.)

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (`frame`.)

See Also

[plot.window](#), [plot.default](#).

grid

Add Grid to a Plot

Description

`grid` adds an `nx` by `ny` rectangular grid to an existing plot.

Usage

```
grid(nx = NULL, ny = nx, col = "lightgray", lty = "dotted",
     lwd = par("lwd"), equilogs = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>nx, ny</code>	number of cells of the grid in x and y direction. When <code>NULL</code> , as per default, the grid aligns with the tick marks on the corresponding <i>default</i> axis (i.e., tickmarks as computed by <code>axTicks</code>). When <code>NA</code> , no grid lines are drawn in the corresponding direction.
<code>col</code>	character or (integer) numeric; color of the grid lines.
<code>lty</code>	character or (integer) numeric; line type of the grid lines.
<code>lwd</code>	non-negative numeric giving line width of the grid lines.
<code>equilogs</code>	logical, only used when <i>log</i> coordinates and alignment with the axis tick marks are active. Setting <code>equilogs = FALSE</code> in that case gives <i>non equidistant</i> tick aligned grid lines.

Note

If more fine tuning is required, use `abline(h = ., v = .)` directly.

References

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

`plot`, `abline`, `lines`, `points`.

Examples

```
plot(1:3)
grid(NA, 5, lwd = 2) # grid only in y-direction

## maybe change the desired number of tick marks: par(lab = c(mx, my, 7))
op <- par(mfcol = 1:2)
with(iris,
{
  plot(Sepal.Length, Sepal.Width, col = as.integer(Species),
       xlim = c(4, 8), ylim = c(2, 4.5), panel.first = grid(),
       main = "with(iris, plot(..., panel.first = grid(), ..) )")
  plot(Sepal.Length, Sepal.Width, col = as.integer(Species),
       panel.first = grid(3, lty = 1, lwd = 2),
       main = "... panel.first = grid(3, lty = 1, lwd = 2), ..")
})
)
par(op)
```

hist	<i>Histograms</i>
------	-------------------

Description

The generic function `hist` computes a histogram of the given data values. If `plot = TRUE`, the resulting object of class "histogram" is plotted by `plot.histogram`, before it is returned.

Usage

```
hist(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
hist(x, breaks = "Sturges",
     freq = NULL, probability = !freq,
     include.lowest = TRUE, right = TRUE,
     density = NULL, angle = 45, col = NULL, border = NULL,
     main = paste("Histogram of" , xname),
     xlim = range(breaks), ylim = NULL,
     xlab = xname, ylab,
     axes = TRUE, plot = TRUE, labels = FALSE,
     nclass = NULL, warn.unused = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a vector of values for which the histogram is desired.
<code>breaks</code>	one of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a vector giving the breakpoints between histogram cells, • a function to compute the vector of breakpoints, • a single number giving the number of cells for the histogram, • a character string naming an algorithm to compute the number of cells (see 'Details'), • a function to compute the number of cells. <p>In the last three cases the number is a suggestion only; the breakpoints will be set to <code>pretty</code> values. If <code>breaks</code> is a function, the <code>x</code> vector is supplied to it as the only argument.</p>
<code>freq</code>	logical; if <code>TRUE</code> , the histogram graphic is a representation of frequencies, the counts component of the result; if <code>FALSE</code> , probability densities, component density, are plotted (so that the histogram has a total area of one). Defaults to <code>TRUE</code> <i>if and only if</i> <code>breaks</code> are equidistant (and probability is not specified).
<code>probability</code>	an <i>alias</i> for <code>!freq</code> , for S compatibility.
<code>include.lowest</code>	logical; if <code>TRUE</code> , an <code>x[i]</code> equal to the <code>breaks</code> value will be included in the first (or last, for <code>right = FALSE</code>) bar. This will be ignored (with a warning) unless <code>breaks</code> is a vector.

<code>right</code>	logical; if TRUE, the histogram cells are right-closed (left open) intervals.
<code>density</code>	the density of shading lines, in lines per inch. The default value of NULL means that no shading lines are drawn. Non-positive values of <code>density</code> also inhibit the drawing of shading lines.
<code>angle</code>	the slope of shading lines, given as an angle in degrees (counter-clockwise).
<code>col</code>	a colour to be used to fill the bars. The default of NULL yields unfilled bars.
<code>border</code>	the color of the border around the bars. The default is to use the standard foreground color.
<code>main, xlab, ylab</code>	these arguments to <code>title</code> have useful defaults here.
<code>xlim, ylim</code>	the range of x and y values with sensible defaults. Note that <code>xlim</code> is <i>not</i> used to define the histogram (breaks), but only for plotting (when <code>plot = TRUE</code>).
<code>axes</code>	logical. If TRUE (default), axes are draw if the plot is drawn.
<code>plot</code>	logical. If TRUE (default), a histogram is plotted, otherwise a list of breaks and counts is returned. In the latter case, a warning is used if (typically graphical) arguments are specified that only apply to the <code>plot = TRUE</code> case.
<code>labels</code>	logical or character string. Additionally draw labels on top of bars, if not FALSE; see plot.histogram .
<code>nclass</code>	numeric (integer). For S(-PLUS) compatibility only, <code>nclass</code> is equivalent to breaks for a scalar or character argument.
<code>warn.unused</code>	logical. If <code>plot = FALSE</code> and <code>warn.unused = TRUE</code> , a warning will be issued when graphical parameters are passed to <code>hist.default()</code> .
<code>...</code>	further arguments and graphical parameters passed to plot.histogram and thence to title and axis (if <code>plot = TRUE</code>).

Details

The definition of *histogram* differs by source (with country-specific biases). R's default with equi-spaced breaks (also the default) is to plot the counts in the cells defined by breaks. Thus the height of a rectangle is proportional to the number of points falling into the cell, as is the area *provided* the breaks are equally-spaced.

The default with non-equi-spaced breaks is to give a plot of area one, in which the *area* of the rectangles is the fraction of the data points falling in the cells.

If `right = TRUE` (default), the histogram cells are intervals of the form $(a, b]$, i.e., they include their right-hand endpoint, but not their left one, with the exception of the first cell when `include.lowest` is TRUE.

For `right = FALSE`, the intervals are of the form $[a, b)$, and `include.lowest` means ‘*include highest*’.

A numerical tolerance of 10^{-7} times the median bin size (for more than four bins, otherwise the median is substituted) is applied when counting entries on the edges of bins. This is not included in the reported breaks nor in the calculation of density.

The default for breaks is “Sturges”: see [nclass.Sturges](#). Other names for which algorithms are supplied are “Scott” and “FD” / “Freedman-Diaconis” (with corresponding functions

`nclass.scott` and `nclass.FD`). Case is ignored and partial matching is used. Alternatively, a function can be supplied which will compute the intended number of breaks or the actual breakpoints as a function of x .

Value

an object of class "histogram" which is a list with components:

breaks	the $n + 1$ cell boundaries (= breaks if that was a vector). These are the nominal breaks, not with the boundary fuzz.
counts	n integers; for each cell, the number of $x[]$ inside.
density	values $\hat{f}(x_i)$, as estimated density values. If <code>all(diff(breaks) == 1)</code> , they are the relative frequencies <code>counts/n</code> and in general satisfy $\sum_i \hat{f}(x_i)(b_{i+1} - b_i) = 1$, where $b_i = \text{breaks}[i]$.
mids	the n cell midpoints.
xname	a character string with the actual x argument name.
equidist	logical, indicating if the distances between breaks are all the same.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. Springer.

See Also

`nclass.Sturges`, `stem`, `density`, `truehist` in package **MASS**.

Typical plots with vertical bars are *not* histograms. Consider `barplot` or `plot(*, type = "h")` for such bar plots.

Examples

```
op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2))
hist(islands)
utils::str(hist(islands, col = "gray", labels = TRUE))

hist(sqrt(islands), breaks = 12, col = "lightblue", border = "pink")
##-- For non-equidistant breaks, counts should NOT be graphed unscaled:
r <- hist(sqrt(islands), breaks = c(4*0:5, 10*3:5, 70, 100, 140),
          col = "blue1")
text(r$mids, r$density, r$counts, adj = c(.5, -.5), col = "blue3")
sapply(r[2:3], sum)
sum(r$density * diff(r$breaks)) # == 1
lines(r, lty = 3, border = "purple") # -> lines.histogram(*)
par(op)

require(utils) # for str
str(hist(islands, breaks = 12, plot = FALSE)) #-> 10 (~= 12) breaks
str(hist(islands, breaks = c(12,20,36,80,200,1000,17000), plot = FALSE))
```

```

hist(islands, breaks = c(12,20,36,80,200,1000,17000), freq = TRUE,
     main = "WRONG histogram") # and warning

require(stats)
set.seed(14)
x <- rchisq(100, df = 4)

## Comparing data with a model distribution should be done with qqplot()!
qqplot(x, qchisq(ppoints(x), df = 4)); abline(0, 1, col = 2, lty = 2)

## if you really insist on using hist() ... :
hist(x, freq = FALSE, ylim = c(0, 0.2))
curve(dchisq(x, df = 4), col = 2, lty = 2, lwd = 2, add = TRUE)

```

hist.POSIXt

Histogram of a Date or Date-Time Object

Description

Method for [hist](#) applied to date or date-time objects.

Usage

```

## S3 method for class 'POSIXt'
hist(x, breaks, ...,
     xlab = deparse(substitute(x)),
     plot = TRUE, freq = FALSE,
     start.on.monday = TRUE, format)

## S3 method for class 'Date'
hist(x, breaks, ...,
     xlab = deparse(substitute(x)),
     plot = TRUE, freq = FALSE,
     start.on.monday = TRUE, format)

```

Arguments

x	an object inheriting from class "POSIXt" or "Date".
breaks	a vector of cut points <i>or</i> number giving the number of intervals which x is to be cut into <i>or</i> an interval specification, one of "days", "weeks", "months", "quarters" or "years", plus "secs", "mins", "hours" for date-time objects.
...	graphical parameters , or arguments to hist.default such as <code>include.lowest</code> , <code>right</code> and <code>labels</code> .
xlab	a character string giving the label for the x axis, if plotted.
plot	logical. If TRUE (default), a histogram is plotted, otherwise a list of breaks and counts is returned.

freq	logical; if TRUE, the histogram graphic is a representation of frequencies, i.e, the counts component of the result; if FALSE, <i>relative</i> frequencies (probabilities) are plotted.
start.on.monday	logical. If breaks = "weeks", should the week start on Mondays or Sundays?
format	for the x-axis labels. See strftime .

Details

Note that unlike the default method, breaks is a required argument.

Using breaks = "quarters" will create intervals of 3 calendar months, with the intervals beginning on January 1, April 1, July 1 or October 1, based upon min(x) as appropriate.

Value

An object of class "histogram": see [hist](#).

See Also

[seq.POSIXt](#), [axis.POSIXct](#), [hist](#)

Examples

```
hist(.leap.seconds, "years", freq = TRUE)
hist(.leap.seconds,
      seq(ISoDate(1970, 1, 1), ISoDate(2020, 1, 1), "5 years"))

## 100 random dates in a 10-week period
random.dates <- as.Date("2001/1/1") + 70*stats::runif(100)
hist(random.dates, "weeks", format = "%d %b")
```

identify

Identify Points in a Scatter Plot

Description

identify reads the position of the graphics pointer when the (first) mouse button is pressed. It then searches the coordinates given in x and y for the point closest to the pointer. If this point is close enough to the pointer, its index will be returned as part of the value of the call.

Usage

```
identify(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
identify(x, y = NULL, labels = seq_along(x), pos = FALSE,
         n = length(x), plot = TRUE, atpen = FALSE, offset = 0.5,
         tolerance = 0.25, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	coordinates of points in a scatter plot. Alternatively, any object which defines coordinates (a plotting structure, time series etc: see xy.coords) can be given as <code>x</code> , and <code>y</code> left missing.
<code>labels</code>	an optional character vector giving labels for the points. Will be coerced using as.character , and recycled if necessary to the length of <code>x</code> . Excess labels will be discarded, with a warning.
<code>pos</code>	if <code>pos</code> is <code>TRUE</code> , a component is added to the return value which indicates where text was plotted relative to each identified point: see <code>Value</code> .
<code>n</code>	the maximum number of points to be identified.
<code>plot</code>	logical: if <code>plot</code> is <code>TRUE</code> , the labels are printed near the points and if <code>FALSE</code> they are omitted.
<code>atpen</code>	logical: if <code>TRUE</code> and <code>plot</code> = <code>TRUE</code> , the lower-left corners of the labels are plotted at the points clicked rather than relative to the points.
<code>offset</code>	the distance (in character widths) which separates the label from identified points. Negative values are allowed. Not used if <code>atpen</code> = <code>TRUE</code> .
<code>tolerance</code>	the maximal distance (in inches) for the pointer to be ‘close enough’ to a point.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to par such as <code>cex</code> , <code>col</code> and <code>font</code> .

Details

`identify` is a generic function, and only the default method is described here.

`identify` is only supported on screen devices such as `X11`, `windows` and `quartz`. On other devices the call will do nothing.

Clicking near (as defined by `tolerance`) a point adds it to the list of identified points. Points can be identified only once, and if the point has already been identified or the click is not near any of the points a message is printed immediately on the R console.

If `plot` is `TRUE`, the point is labelled with the corresponding element of `labels`. If `atpen` is `false` (the default) the labels are placed below, to the left, above or to the right of the identified point, depending on where the pointer was relative to the point. If `atpen` is `true`, the labels are placed with the bottom left of the string’s box at the pointer.

For the usual `X11` device the identification process is terminated by pressing any mouse button other than the first. For the `quartz` device the process is terminated by pressing either the pop-up menu equivalent (usually second mouse button or `Ctrl-click`) or the `ESC` key.

On most devices which support `identify`, successful selection of a point is indicated by a bell sound unless `options(locatorBell = FALSE)` has been set.

If the window is resized or hidden and then exposed before the identification process has terminated, any labels drawn by `identify` will disappear. These will reappear once the identification process has terminated and the window is resized or hidden and exposed again. This is because the labels drawn by `identify` are not recorded in the device’s display list until the identification process has terminated.

If you interrupt the `identify` call this leaves the graphics device in an undefined state, with points labelled but labels not recorded in the display list. Copying a device in that state will give unpredictable results.

Value

If `pos` is `FALSE`, an integer vector containing the indices of the identified points, in the order they were identified.

If `pos` is `TRUE`, a list containing a component `ind`, indicating which points were identified and a component `pos`, indicating where the labels were placed relative to the identified points (1=below, 2=left, 3=above, 4=right and 0=no offset, used if `atpen = TRUE`).

Technicalities

The algorithm used for placing labels is the same as used by `text` if `pos` is specified there, the difference being that the position of the pointer relative the identified point determines `pos` in `identify`.

For labels placed to the left of a point, the right-hand edge of the string's box is placed `offset` units to the left of the point, and analogously for points to the right. The baseline of the text is placed below the point so as to approximately centre string vertically. For labels placed above or below a point, the string is centered horizontally on the point. For labels placed above, the baseline of the text is placed `offset` units above the point, and for those placed below, the baseline is placed so that the top of the string's box is approximately `offset` units below the point. If you want more precise placement (e.g., centering) use `plot = FALSE` and plot via [text](#) or [points](#): see the examples.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[locator](#), [text](#).

[dev.capabilities](#) to see if it is supported.

Examples

```
## A function to use identify to select points, and overplot the
## points with another symbol as they are selected
identifyPch <- function(x, y = NULL, n = length(x), pch = 19, ...)
{
  xy <- xy.coords(x, y); x <- xy$x; y <- xy$y
  sel <- rep(FALSE, length(x)); res <- integer(0)
  while(sum(sel) < n) {
    ans <- identify(x[!sel], y[!sel], n = 1, plot = FALSE, ...)
    if(!length(ans)) break
    ans <- which(!sel)[ans]
    points(x[ans], y[ans], pch = pch)
    sel[ans] <- TRUE
    res <- c(res, ans)
  }
  res
}
```

image

Display a Color Image

Description

Creates a grid of colored or gray-scale rectangles with colors corresponding to the values in *z*. This can be used to display three-dimensional or spatial data aka *images*. This is a generic function.

The functions [heat.colors](#), [terrain.colors](#) and [topo.colors](#) create heat-spectrum (red to white) and topographical color schemes suitable for displaying ordered data, with *n* giving the number of colors desired.

Usage

```
image(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
image(x, y, z, zlim, xlim, ylim, col = heat.colors(12),
      add = FALSE, xaxs = "i", yaxs = "i", xlab, ylab,
      breaks, oldstyle = FALSE, useRaster, ...)
```

Arguments

<i>x</i> , <i>y</i>	locations of grid lines at which the values in <i>z</i> are measured. These must be finite, non-missing and in (strictly) ascending order. By default, equally spaced values from 0 to 1 are used. If <i>x</i> is a list, its components <i>x</i> \$ <i>x</i> and <i>x</i> \$ <i>y</i> are used for <i>x</i> and <i>y</i> , respectively. If the list has component <i>z</i> this is used for <i>z</i> .
<i>z</i>	a numeric or logical matrix containing the values to be plotted (NAs are allowed). Note that <i>x</i> can be used instead of <i>z</i> for convenience.
<i>zlim</i>	the minimum and maximum <i>z</i> values for which colors should be plotted, defaulting to the range of the finite values of <i>z</i> . Each of the given colors will be used to color an equispaced interval of this range. The <i>midpoints</i> of the intervals cover the range, so that values just outside the range will be plotted.
<i>xlim</i> , <i>ylim</i>	ranges for the plotted <i>x</i> and <i>y</i> values, defaulting to the ranges of <i>x</i> and <i>y</i> .
<i>col</i>	a list of colors such as that generated by rainbow , heat.colors , topo.colors , terrain.colors or similar functions.
<i>add</i>	logical; if TRUE, add to current plot (and disregard the following four arguments). This is rarely useful because <i>image</i> ‘paints’ over existing graphics.
<i>xaxs</i> , <i>yaxs</i>	style of <i>x</i> and <i>y</i> axis. The default “i” is appropriate for images. See par .
<i>xlab</i> , <i>ylab</i>	each a character string giving the labels for the <i>x</i> and <i>y</i> axis. Default to the ‘call names’ of <i>x</i> or <i>y</i> , or to “” if these were unspecified.
<i>breaks</i>	a set of finite numeric breakpoints for the colours: must have one more breakpoint than colour and be in increasing order. Unsorted vectors will be sorted, with a warning.

<code>oldstyle</code>	logical. If true the midpoints of the colour intervals are equally spaced, and <code>zlim[1]</code> and <code>zlim[2]</code> were taken to be midpoints. The default is to have colour intervals of equal lengths between the limits.
<code>useRaster</code>	logical; if TRUE a bitmap raster is used to plot the image instead of polygons. The grid must be regular in that case, otherwise an error is raised. For the behaviour when this is not specified, see ‘Details’.
<code>...</code>	graphical parameters for plot may also be passed as arguments to this function, as can the plot aspect ratio <code>asp</code> and axes (see plot.window).

Details

The length of `x` should be equal to the `nrow(z)+1` or `nrow(z)`. In the first case `x` specifies the boundaries between the cells: in the second case `x` specifies the midpoints of the cells. Similar reasoning applies to `y`. It probably only makes sense to specify the midpoints of an equally-spaced grid. If you specify just one row or column and a length-one `x` or `y`, the whole user area in the corresponding direction is filled. For logarithmic `x` or `y` axes the boundaries between cells must be specified.

Rectangles corresponding to missing values are not plotted (and so are transparent and (unless `add = TRUE`) the default background painted in `par("bg")` will show though and if that is transparent, the canvas colour will be seen).

If `breaks` is specified then `zlim` is unused and the algorithm used follows [cut](#), so intervals are closed on the right and open on the left except for the lowest interval which is closed at both ends.

The axes (where plotted) make use of the classes of `xlim` and `ylim` (and hence by default the classes of `x` and `y`): this will mean that for example dates are labelled as such. (As from R 3.0.1.)

Notice that `image` interprets the `z` matrix as a table of `f(x[i], y[j])` values, so that the `x` axis corresponds to row number and the `y` axis to column number, with column 1 at the bottom, i.e. a 90 degree counter-clockwise rotation of the conventional printed layout of a matrix.

Images for large `z` on a regular grid are rendered more efficiently with `useRaster = TRUE` and can prevent rare anti-aliasing artifacts, but may not be supported by all graphics devices. Some devices (such as `postscript` and `X11(type = "Xlib")`) which do not support semi-transparent colours may emit missing values as white rather than transparent, and there may be limitations on the size of a raster image. (Problems with the rendering of raster images have been reported by users of `windows()` devices under Remote Desktop, at least under its default settings.)

The graphics files in PDF and PostScript can be much smaller under this option.

If `useRaster` is not specified, raster images are used when the `getOption("preferRaster")` is true, the grid is regular and either `dev.capabilities("rasterImage")$rasterImage` is "yes" or it is "non-missing" and there are no missing values.

Note

Originally based on a function by Thomas Lumley.

See Also

[filled.contour](#) or [heatmap](#) which can look nicer (but are less modular), [contour](#); The **lattice** equivalent of `image` is [levelplot](#).

`heat.colors`, `topo.colors`, `terrain.colors`, `rainbow`, `hsv`, `par`.
`dev.capabilities` to see if `useRaster = TRUE` is supported on the current device.

Examples

```
require(grDevices) # for colours
x <- y <- seq(-4*pi, 4*pi, len = 27)
r <- sqrt(outer(x^2, y^2, "+"))
image(z = z <- cos(r^2)*exp(-r/6), col = gray((0:32)/32))
image(z, axes = FALSE, main = "Math can be beautiful ...",
      xlab = expression(cos(r^2) * e^{-r/6}))
contour(z, add = TRUE, drawlabels = FALSE)

# Volcano data visualized as matrix. Need to transpose and flip
# matrix horizontally.
image(t(volcano)[ncol(volcano):1,])

# A prettier display of the volcano
x <- 10*(1:nrow(volcano))
y <- 10*(1:ncol(volcano))
image(x, y, volcano, col = terrain.colors(100), axes = FALSE)
contour(x, y, volcano, levels = seq(90, 200, by = 5),
      add = TRUE, col = "peru")
axis(1, at = seq(100, 800, by = 100))
axis(2, at = seq(100, 600, by = 100))
box()
title(main = "Maunga Whau Volcano", font.main = 4)
```

layout

Specifying Complex Plot Arrangements

Description

`layout` divides the device up into as many rows and columns as there are in matrix `mat`, with the column-widths and the row-heights specified in the respective arguments.

Usage

```
layout(mat, widths = rep.int(1, ncol(mat)),
      heights = rep.int(1, nrow(mat)), respect = FALSE)

layout.show(n = 1)
lcm(x)
```

Arguments

<code>mat</code>	a matrix object specifying the location of the next N figures on the output device. Each value in the matrix must be 0 or a positive integer. If N is the largest positive integer in the matrix, then the integers $\{1, \dots, N - 1\}$ must also appear at least once in the matrix.
------------------	---

widths	a vector of values for the widths of columns on the device. Relative widths are specified with numeric values. Absolute widths (in centimetres) are specified with the <code>lcm()</code> function (see examples).
heights	a vector of values for the heights of rows on the device. Relative and absolute heights can be specified, see widths above.
respect	either a logical value or a matrix object. If the latter, then it must have the same dimensions as <code>mat</code> and each value in the matrix must be either 0 or 1.
n	number of figures to plot.
x	a dimension to be interpreted as a number of centimetres.

Details

Figure i is allocated a region composed from a subset of these rows and columns, based on the rows and columns in which i occurs in `mat`.

The `respect` argument controls whether a unit column-width is the same physical measurement on the device as a unit row-height.

There is a limit (currently 200) for the numbers of rows and columns in the layout, and also for the total number of cells (10007).

`layout.show(n)` plots (part of) the current layout, namely the outlines of the next `n` figures.

`lcm` is a trivial function, to be used as *the* interface for specifying absolute dimensions for the widths and heights arguments of `layout()`.

Value

`layout` returns the number of figures, N , see above.

Warnings

These functions are totally incompatible with the other mechanisms for arranging plots on a device: `par(mfrow)`, `par(mfcol)` and `split.screen`.

Author(s)

Paul R. Murrell

References

Murrell, P. R. (1999) Layouts: A mechanism for arranging plots on a page. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, **8**, 121–134.

Chapter 5 of Paul Murrell's Ph.D. thesis.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

`par` with arguments `mfrow`, `mfcol`, or `mfg`.

Examples

```

def.par <- par(no.readonly = TRUE) # save default, for resetting...

## divide the device into two rows and two columns
## allocate figure 1 all of row 1
## allocate figure 2 the intersection of column 2 and row 2
layout(matrix(c(1,1,0,2), 2, 2, byrow = TRUE))
## show the regions that have been allocated to each plot
layout.show(2)

## divide device into two rows and two columns
## allocate figure 1 and figure 2 as above
## respect relations between widths and heights
nf <- layout(matrix(c(1,1,0,2), 2, 2, byrow = TRUE), respect = TRUE)
layout.show(nf)

## create single figure which is 5cm square
nf <- layout(matrix(1), widths = lcm(5), heights = lcm(5))
layout.show(nf)

##-- Create a scatterplot with marginal histograms -----

x <- pmin(3, pmax(-3, stats::rnorm(50)))
y <- pmin(3, pmax(-3, stats::rnorm(50)))
xhist <- hist(x, breaks = seq(-3,3,0.5), plot = FALSE)
yhist <- hist(y, breaks = seq(-3,3,0.5), plot = FALSE)
top <- max(c(xhist$counts, yhist$counts))
xrange <- c(-3, 3)
yrange <- c(-3, 3)
nf <- layout(matrix(c(2,0,1,3),2,2,byrow = TRUE), c(3,1), c(1,3), TRUE)
layout.show(nf)

par(mar = c(3,3,1,1))
plot(x, y, xlim = xrange, ylim = yrange, xlab = "", ylab = "")
par(mar = c(0,3,1,1))
barplot(xhist$counts, axes = FALSE, ylim = c(0, top), space = 0)
par(mar = c(3,0,1,1))
barplot(yhist$counts, axes = FALSE, xlim = c(0, top), space = 0, horiz = TRUE)

par(def.par) #- reset to default

```

legend

Add Legends to Plots

Description

This function can be used to add legends to plots. Note that a call to the function `locator(1)` can be used in place of the `x` and `y` arguments.

Usage

```
legend(x, y = NULL, legend, fill = NULL, col = par("col"),
       border = "black", lty, lwd, pch,
       angle = 45, density = NULL, bty = "o", bg = par("bg"),
       box.lwd = par("lwd"), box.lty = par("lty"), box.col = par("fg"),
       pt.bg = NA, cex = 1, pt.cex = cex, pt.lwd = lwd,
       xjust = 0, yjust = 1, x.intersp = 1, y.intersp = 1,
       adj = c(0, 0.5), text.width = NULL, text.col = par("col"),
       text.font = NULL, merge = do.lines && has.pch, trace = FALSE,
       plot = TRUE, ncol = 1, horiz = FALSE, title = NULL,
       inset = 0, xpd, title.col = text.col, title.adj = 0.5,
       seg.len = 2)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	the x and y co-ordinates to be used to position the legend. They can be specified by keyword or in any way which is accepted by xy.coords : See ‘Details’.
<code>legend</code>	a character or expression vector of length ≥ 1 to appear in the legend. Other objects will be coerced by as.graphicsAnnot .
<code>fill</code>	if specified, this argument will cause boxes filled with the specified colors (or shaded in the specified colors) to appear beside the legend text.
<code>col</code>	the color of points or lines appearing in the legend.
<code>border</code>	the border color for the boxes (used only if <code>fill</code> is specified).
<code>lty, lwd</code>	the line types and widths for lines appearing in the legend. One of these two <i>must</i> be specified for line drawing.
<code>pch</code>	the plotting symbols appearing in the legend, as numeric vector or a vector of 1-character strings (see points). Unlike <code>points</code> , this can all be specified as a single multi-character string. <i>Must</i> be specified for symbol drawing.
<code>angle</code>	angle of shading lines.
<code>density</code>	the density of shading lines, if numeric and positive. If <code>NULL</code> or negative or <code>NA</code> color filling is assumed.
<code>bty</code>	the type of box to be drawn around the legend. The allowed values are <code>"o"</code> (the default) and <code>"n"</code> .
<code>bg</code>	the background color for the legend box. (Note that this is only used if <code>bty != "n"</code> .)
<code>box.lty, box.lwd, box.col</code>	the line type, width and color for the legend box (if <code>bty = "o"</code>).
<code>pt.bg</code>	the background color for the points , corresponding to its argument <code>bg</code> .
<code>cex</code>	character expansion factor relative to current <code>par("cex")</code> . Used for text, and provides the default for <code>pt.cex</code> and <code>title.cex</code> .
<code>pt.cex</code>	expansion factor(s) for the points.
<code>pt.lwd</code>	line width for the points, defaults to the one for lines, or if that is not set, to <code>par("lwd")</code> .

<code>xjust</code>	how the legend is to be justified relative to the legend x location. A value of 0 means left justified, 0.5 means centered and 1 means right justified.
<code>yjust</code>	the same as <code>xjust</code> for the legend y location.
<code>x.intersp</code>	character interspacing factor for horizontal (x) spacing.
<code>y.intersp</code>	the same for vertical (y) line distances.
<code>adj</code>	numeric of length 1 or 2; the string adjustment for legend text. Useful for y-adjustment when labels are plotmath expressions.
<code>text.width</code>	the width of the legend text in x ("user") coordinates. (Should be positive even for a reversed x axis.) Defaults to the proper value computed by strwidth (legend).
<code>text.col</code>	the color used for the legend text.
<code>text.font</code>	the font used for the legend text, see text .
<code>merge</code>	logical; if TRUE, merge points and lines but not filled boxes. Defaults to TRUE if there are points and lines.
<code>trace</code>	logical; if TRUE, shows how legend does all its magical computations.
<code>plot</code>	logical. If FALSE, nothing is plotted but the sizes are returned.
<code>ncol</code>	the number of columns in which to set the legend items (default is 1, a vertical legend).
<code>horiz</code>	logical; if TRUE, set the legend horizontally rather than vertically (specifying <code>horiz</code> overrides the <code>ncol</code> specification).
<code>title</code>	a character string or length-one expression giving a title to be placed at the top of the legend. Other objects will be coerced by as.graphicsAnnot .
<code>inset</code>	inset distance(s) from the margins as a fraction of the plot region when legend is placed by keyword.
<code>xpd</code>	if supplied, a value of the graphical parameter <code>xpd</code> to be used while the legend is being drawn.
<code>title.col</code>	color for title.
<code>title.adj</code>	horizontal adjustment for title: see the help for par ("adj").
<code>seg.len</code>	the length of lines drawn to illustrate <code>lty</code> and/or <code>lwd</code> (in units of character widths).

Details

Arguments `x`, `y`, `legend` are interpreted in a non-standard way to allow the coordinates to be specified *via* one or two arguments. If `legend` is missing and `y` is not numeric, it is assumed that the second argument is intended to be `legend` and that the first argument specifies the coordinates.

The coordinates can be specified in any way which is accepted by [xy.coords](#). If this gives the coordinates of one point, it is used as the top-left coordinate of the rectangle containing the legend. If it gives the coordinates of two points, these specify opposite corners of the rectangle (either pair of corners, in any order).

The location may also be specified by setting `x` to a single keyword from the list "bottomright", "bottom", "bottomleft", "left", "topleft", "top", "topright", "right" and "center". This

places the legend on the inside of the plot frame at the given location. Partial argument matching is used. The optional `inset` argument specifies how far the legend is inset from the plot margins. If a single value is given, it is used for both margins; if two values are given, the first is used for x-distance, the second for y-distance.

Attribute arguments such as `col`, `pch`, `lty`, etc, are recycled if necessary: `merge` is not. Set entries of `lty` to `0` or set entries of `lwd` to `NA` to suppress lines in corresponding legend entries; set `pch` values to `NA` to suppress points.

Points are drawn *after* lines in order that they can cover the line with their background color `pt.bg`, if applicable.

See the examples for how to right-justify labels.

Since they are not used for Unicode code points, values `-31:-1` are silently omitted, as are `NA` and `""` values.

Value

A list with list components

<code>rect</code>	a list with components <code>w, h</code> positive numbers giving w idth and h eight of the legend's box. <code>left, top</code> x and y coordinates of upper left corner of the box.
<code>text</code>	a list with components <code>x, y</code> numeric vectors of length <code>length(legend)</code> , giving the x and y coordinates of the legend's text(s).

returned invisibly.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[plot](#), [barplot](#) which uses `legend()`, and [text](#) for more examples of math expressions.

Examples

```
## Run the example in '?matplot' or the following:
leg.txt <- c("Setosa      Petals", "Setosa      Sepals",
            "Versicolor Petals", "Versicolor Sepals")
y.leg <- c(4.5, 3, 2.1, 1.4, .7)
cexv <- c(1.2, 1, 4/5, 2/3, 1/2)
matplot(c(1, 8), c(0, 4.5), type = "n", xlab = "Length", ylab = "Width",
        main = "Petal and Sepal Dimensions in Iris Blossoms")
for (i in seq(cexv)) {
  text (1, y.leg[i] - 0.1, paste("cex=", formatC(cexv[i])), cex = 0.8, adj = 0)
  legend(3, y.leg[i], leg.txt, pch = "sSvV", col = c(1, 3), cex = cexv[i])
}
```

```

}

## 'merge = TRUE' for merging lines & points:
x <- seq(-pi, pi, len = 65)
plot(x, sin(x), type = "l", ylim = c(-1.2, 1.8), col = 3, lty = 2)
points(x, cos(x), pch = 3, col = 4)
lines(x, tan(x), type = "b", lty = 1, pch = 4, col = 6)
title("legend(..., lty = c(2, -1, 1), pch = c(NA, 3, 4), merge = TRUE)",
      cex.main = 1.1)
legend(-1, 1.9, c("sin", "cos", "tan"), col = c(3, 4, 6),
       text.col = "green4", lty = c(2, -1, 1), pch = c(NA, 3, 4),
       merge = TRUE, bg = "gray90")

## right-justifying a set of labels: thanks to Uwe Ligges
x <- 1:5; y1 <- 1/x; y2 <- 2/x
plot(rep(x, 2), c(y1, y2), type = "n", xlab = "x", ylab = "y")
lines(x, y1); lines(x, y2, lty = 2)
temp <- legend("topright", legend = c(" ", " "),
              text.width = strwidth("1,000,000"),
              lty = 1:2, xjust = 1, yjust = 1,
              title = "Line Types")
text(temp$rect$left + temp$rect$w, temp$text$y,
      c("1,000", "1,000,000"), pos = 2)

##--- log scaled Examples -----
leg.txt <- c("a one", "a two")

par(mfrow = c(2, 2))
for(ll in c("", "x", "y", "xy")) {
  plot(2:10, log = ll, main = paste0("log = '", ll, "'"))
  abline(1, 1)
  lines(2:3, 3:4, col = 2)
  points(2, 2, col = 3)
  rect(2, 3, 3, 2, col = 4)
  text(c(3,3), 2:3, c("rect(2,3,3,2, col=4)",
                    "text(c(3,3),2:3,\"c(rect(...))\")"), adj = c(0, 0.3))
  legend(list(x = 2,y = 8), legend = leg.txt, col = 2:3, pch = 1:2,
         lty = 1, merge = TRUE) #, trace = TRUE)
}
par(mfrow = c(1,1))

##-- Math expressions: -----
x <- seq(-pi, pi, len = 65)
plot(x, sin(x), type = "l", col = 2, xlab = expression(phi),
      ylab = expression(f(phi)))
abline(h = -1:1, v = pi/2*(-6:6), col = "gray90")
lines(x, cos(x), col = 3, lty = 2)
ex.cs1 <- expression(plain(sin) * phi, paste("cos", phi)) # 2 ways
utils::str(legend(-3, .9, ex.cs1, lty = 1:2, plot = FALSE,
                  adj = c(0, 0.6))) # adj y !
legend(-3, 0.9, ex.cs1, lty = 1:2, col = 2:3, adj = c(0, 0.6))

```

```

require(stats)
x <- rexp(100, rate = .5)
hist(x, main = "Mean and Median of a Skewed Distribution")
abline(v = mean(x), col = 2, lty = 2, lwd = 2)
abline(v = median(x), col = 3, lty = 3, lwd = 2)
ex12 <- expression(bar(x) == sum(over(x[i], n), i == 1, n),
                    hat(x) == median(x[i], i == 1, n))
utils::str(legend(4.1, 30, ex12, col = 2:3, lty = 2:3, lwd = 2))

## 'Filled' boxes -- for more, see example(plot.factor)
op <- par(bg = "white") # to get an opaque box for the legend
plot(cut(weight, 3) ~ group, data = PlantGrowth, col = NULL,
     density = 16*(1:3))
par(op)

## Using 'ncol' :
x <- 0:64/64
matplot(x, outer(x, 1:7, function(x, k) sin(k * pi * x)),
        type = "o", col = 1:7, ylim = c(-1, 1.5), pch = "*")
op <- par(bg = "antiquewhite1")
legend(0, 1.5, paste("sin(", 1:7, "pi * x)"), col = 1:7, lty = 1:7,
      pch = "*", ncol = 4, cex = 0.8)
legend(.8, 1.2, paste("sin(", 1:7, "pi * x)"), col = 1:7, lty = 1:7,
      pch = "*", cex = 0.8)
legend(0, -.1, paste("sin(", 1:4, "pi * x)"), col = 1:4, lty = 1:4,
      ncol = 2, cex = 0.8)
legend(0, -.4, paste("sin(", 5:7, "pi * x)"), col = 4:6, pch = 24,
      ncol = 2, cex = 1.5, lwd = 2, pt.bg = "pink", pt.cex = 1:3)
par(op)

## point covering line :
y <- sin(3*pi*x)
plot(x, y, type = "l", col = "blue",
     main = "points with bg & legend(*, pt.bg)")
points(x, y, pch = 21, bg = "white")
legend(.4, 1, "sin(c x)", pch = 21, pt.bg = "white", lty = 1, col = "blue")

## legends with titles at different locations
plot(x, y, type = "n")
legend("bottomright", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "bottomright")
legend("bottom", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "bottom")
legend("bottomleft", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "bottomleft")
legend("left", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "left")
legend("topleft", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "topleft", inset = .05,
      inset = .05)
legend("top", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "top")
legend("topright", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "topright", inset = .02,
      inset = .02)
legend("right", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "right")
legend("center", "(x,y)", pch = 1, title = "center")

# using text.font (and text.col):
op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), mar = rep(2.1, 4))

```



```

c6 <- terrain.colors(10)[1:6]
for(i in 1:4) {
  plot(1, type = "n", axes = FALSE, ann = FALSE); title(paste("text.font =",i))
  legend("top", legend = LETTERS[1:6], col = c6,
        ncol = 2, cex = 2, lwd = 3, text.font = i, text.col = c6)
}
par(op)

```

lines

Add Connected Line Segments to a Plot

Description

A generic function taking coordinates given in various ways and joining the corresponding points with line segments.

Usage

```

lines(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
lines(x, y = NULL, type = "l", ...)

```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	coordinate vectors of points to join.
<code>type</code>	character indicating the type of plotting; actually any of the types as in plot.default .
<code>...</code>	Further graphical parameters (see par) may also be supplied as arguments, particularly, line type, <code>lty</code> , line width, <code>lwd</code> , color, <code>col</code> and for <code>type = "b"</code> , <code>pch</code> . Also the line characteristics <code>lend</code> , <code>ljoin</code> and <code>lmitre</code> .

Details

The coordinates can be passed in a plotting structure (a list with `x` and `y` components), a two-column matrix, a time series, See [xy.coords](#). If supplied separately, they must be of the same length.

The coordinates can contain NA values. If a point contains NA in either its `x` or `y` value, it is omitted from the plot, and lines are not drawn to or from such points. Thus missing values can be used to achieve breaks in lines.

For `type = "h"`, `col` can be a vector and will be recycled as needed.

`lwd` can be a vector: its first element will apply to lines but the whole vector to symbols (recycled as necessary).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[lines.formula](#) for the formula method; [points](#), particularly for type `%in% c("p","b","o")`, [plot](#), and the workhorse function [plot.xy](#).

[abline](#) for drawing (single) straight lines.

[par](#) for line type (lty) specification and how to specify colors.

Examples

```
# draw a smooth line through a scatter plot
plot(cars, main = "Stopping Distance versus Speed")
lines(stats::lowess(cars))
```

locator

*Graphical Input***Description**

Reads the position of the graphics cursor when the (first) mouse button is pressed.

Usage

```
locator(n = 512, type = "n", ...)
```

Arguments

<code>n</code>	the maximum number of points to locate. Valid values start at 1.
<code>type</code>	One of "n", "p", "l" or "o". If "p" or "o" the points are plotted; if "l" or "o" they are joined by lines.
<code>...</code>	additional graphics parameters used if <code>type != "n"</code> for plotting the locations.

Details

`locator` is only supported on screen devices such as X11, windows and quartz. On other devices the call will do nothing.

Unless the process is terminated prematurely by the user (see below) at most `n` positions are determined.

For the usual X11 device the identification process is terminated by pressing any mouse button other than the first. For the quartz device the process is terminated by pressing the ESC key.

The current graphics parameters apply just as if `plot.default` has been called with the same value of `type`. The plotting of the points and lines is subject to clipping, but locations outside the current clipping rectangle will be returned.

On most devices which support `locator`, successful selection of a point is indicated by a bell sound unless `options(locatorBell = FALSE)` has been set.

If the window is resized or hidden and then exposed before the input process has terminated, any lines or points drawn by `locator` will disappear. These will reappear once the input process has

terminated and the window is resized or hidden and exposed again. This is because the points and lines drawn by `locator` are not recorded in the device's display list until the input process has terminated.

Value

A list containing x and y components which are the coordinates of the identified points in the user coordinate system, i.e., the one specified by `par("usr")`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[identify](#).

[dev.capabilities](#) to see if it is supported.

matplot

Plot Columns of Matrices

Description

Plot the columns of one matrix against the columns of another.

Usage

```
matplot(x, y, type = "p", lty = 1:5, lwd = 1, lend = par("lend"),
        pch = NULL,
        col = 1:6, cex = NULL, bg = NA,
        xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL,
        ..., add = FALSE, verbose = getOption("verbose"))
```

```
matpoints(x, y, type = "p", lty = 1:5, lwd = 1, pch = NULL,
          col = 1:6, ...)
```

```
matlines(x, y, type = "l", lty = 1:5, lwd = 1, pch = NULL,
         col = 1:6, ...)
```

Arguments

`x, y` vectors or matrices of data for plotting. The number of rows should match. If one of them are missing, the other is taken as y and an x vector of 1:n is used. Missing values (NAs) are allowed.

type	character string (length 1 vector) or vector of 1-character strings indicating the type of plot for each column of y, see plot for all possible types. The first character of type defines the first plot, the second character the second, etc. Characters in type are cycled through; e.g., "pl" alternately plots points and lines.
lty, lwd, lend	vector of line types, widths, and end styles. The first element is for the first column, the second element for the second column, etc., even if lines are not plotted for all columns. Line types will be used cyclically until all plots are drawn.
pch	character string or vector of 1-characters or integers for plotting characters, see points . The first character is the plotting-character for the first plot, the second for the second, etc. The default is the digits (1 through 9, 0) then the lowercase and uppercase letters.
col	vector of colors. Colors are used cyclically.
cex	vector of character expansion sizes, used cyclically. This works as a multiple of <code>par("cex")</code> . NULL is equivalent to 1.0.
bg	vector of background (fill) colors for the open plot symbols given by <code>pch = 21:25</code> as in points . The default NA corresponds to the one of the underlying function plot.xy .
xlab, ylab	titles for x and y axes, as in plot .
xlim, ylim	ranges of x and y axes, as in plot .
...	Graphical parameters (see par) and any further arguments of plot, typically plot.default , may also be supplied as arguments to this function. Hence, the high-level graphics control arguments described under par and the arguments to title may be supplied to this function.
add	logical. If TRUE, plots are added to current one, using points and lines .
verbose	logical. If TRUE, write one line of what is done.

Details

Points involving missing values are not plotted.

The first column of x is plotted against the first column of y, the second column of x against the second column of y, etc. If one matrix has fewer columns, plotting will cycle back through the columns again. (In particular, either x or y may be a vector, against which all columns of the other argument will be plotted.)

The first element of col, cex, lty, lwd is used to plot the axes as well as the first line.

Because plotting symbols are drawn with lines and because these functions may be changing the line style, you should probably specify `lty = 1` when using plotting symbols.

Side Effects

Function `matplot` generates a new plot; `matpoints` and `matlines` add to the current one.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[plot](#), [points](#), [lines](#), [matrix](#), [par](#).

Examples

```
require(grDevices)
matplot((-4:5)^2, main = "Quadratic") # almost identical to plot(*)
sines <- outer(1:20, 1:4, function(x, y) sin(x / 20 * pi * y))
matplot(sines, pch = 1:4, type = "o", col = rainbow(ncol(sines)))
matplot(sines, type = "b", pch = 21:23, col = 2:5, bg = 2:5,
        main = "matplot(..., pch = 21:23, bg = 2:5)")

x <- 0:50/50
matplot(x, outer(x, 1:8, function(x, k) sin(k*pi * x)),
        ylim = c(-2,2), type = "plobcsSh",
        main= "matplot(,type = \"plobcsSh\" )")
## pch & type = vector of 1-chars :
matplot(x, outer(x, 1:4, function(x, k) sin(k*pi * x)),
        pch = letters[1:4], type = c("b","p","o"))

lends <- c("round","butt","square")
matplot(matrix(1:12, 4), type="c", lty=1, lwd=10, lend=lends)
text(cbind(2.5, 2*c(1,3,5)-.4), lends, col= 1:3, cex = 1.5)

table(iris$Species) # is data.frame with 'Species' factor
iS <- iris$Species == "setosa"
iV <- iris$Species == "versicolor"
op <- par(bg = "bisque")
matplot(c(1, 8), c(0, 4.5), type = "n", xlab = "Length", ylab = "Width",
        main = "Petal and Sepal Dimensions in Iris Blossoms")
matpoints(iris[iS,c(1,3)], iris[iS,c(2,4)], pch = "sS", col = c(2,4))
matpoints(iris[iV,c(1,3)], iris[iV,c(2,4)], pch = "vV", col = c(2,4))
legend(1, 4, c("Setosa Petals", "Setosa Sepals",
               "Versicolor Petals", "Versicolor Sepals"),
      pch = "sSvV", col = rep(c(2,4), 2))

nam.var <- colnames(iris)[-5]
nam.spec <- as.character(iris[1+50*0:2, "Species"])
iris.S <- array(NA, dim = c(50,4,3),
               dimnames = list(NULL, nam.var, nam.spec))
for(i in 1:3) iris.S[,i] <- data.matrix(iris[1:50+50*(i-1), -5])

matplot(iris.S[, "Petal.Length",], iris.S[, "Petal.Width",], pch = "SCV",
        col = rainbow(3, start = 0.8, end = 0.1),
        sub = paste(c("S", "C", "V"), dimnames(iris.S)[[3]],
                    sep = "=", collapse= " ", ),
        main = "Fisher's Iris Data")
par(op)
```

mosaicplot

*Mosaic Plots***Description**

Plots a mosaic on the current graphics device.

Usage

```
mosaicplot(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
mosaicplot(x, main = deparse(substitute(x)),
           sub = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
           sort = NULL, off = NULL, dir = NULL,
           color = NULL, shade = FALSE, margin = NULL,
           cex.axis = 0.66, las = par("las"), border = NULL,
           type = c("pearson", "deviance", "FT"), ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
mosaicplot(formula, data = NULL, ...,
           main = deparse(substitute(data)), subset,
           na.action = stats::na.omit)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a contingency table in array form, with optional category labels specified in the <code>dimnames(x)</code> attribute. The table is best created by the <code>table()</code> command.
<code>main</code>	character string for the mosaic title.
<code>sub</code>	character string for the mosaic sub-title (at bottom).
<code>xlab, ylab</code>	x- and y-axis labels used for the plot; by default, the first and second element of <code>names(dimnames(X))</code> (i.e., the name of the first and second variable in <code>X</code>).
<code>sort</code>	vector ordering of the variables, containing a permutation of the integers <code>1:length(dim(x))</code> (the default).
<code>off</code>	vector of offsets to determine percentage spacing at each level of the mosaic (appropriate values are between 0 and 20, and the default is 20 times the number of splits for 2-dimensional tables, and 10 otherwise. Rescaled to maximally 50, and recycled if necessary).
<code>dir</code>	vector of split directions ("v" for vertical and "h" for horizontal) for each level of the mosaic, one direction for each dimension of the contingency table. The default consists of alternating directions, beginning with a vertical split.
<code>color</code>	logical or (recycling) vector of colors for color shading, used only when <code>shade</code> is <code>FALSE</code> , or <code>NULL</code> (default). By default, grey boxes are drawn. <code>color = TRUE</code> uses a gamma-corrected grey palette. <code>color = FALSE</code> gives empty boxes with no shading.

<code>shade</code>	a logical indicating whether to produce extended mosaic plots, or a numeric vector of at most 5 distinct positive numbers giving the absolute values of the cut points for the residuals. By default, <code>shade</code> is <code>FALSE</code> , and simple mosaics are created. Using <code>shade = TRUE</code> cuts absolute values at 2 and 4.
<code>margin</code>	a list of vectors with the marginal totals to be fit in the log-linear model. By default, an independence model is fitted. See loglin for further information.
<code>cex.axis</code>	The magnification to be used for axis annotation, as a multiple of <code>par("cex")</code> .
<code>las</code>	numeric; the style of axis labels, see par .
<code>border</code>	colour of borders of cells: see polygon .
<code>type</code>	a character string indicating the type of residual to be represented. Must be one of "pearson" (giving components of Pearson's χ^2), "deviance" (giving components of the likelihood ratio χ^2), or "FT" for the Freeman-Tukey residuals. The value of this argument can be abbreviated.
<code>formula</code>	a formula, such as <code>y ~ x</code> .
<code>data</code>	a data frame (or list), or a contingency table from which the variables in <code>formula</code> should be taken.
<code>...</code>	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations in the data frame to be used for plotting.
<code>na.action</code>	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contains variables to be cross-tabulated, and these variables contain NAs. The default is to omit cases which have an NA in any variable. Since the tabulation will omit all cases containing missing values, this will only be useful if the <code>na.action</code> function replaces missing values.

Details

This is a generic function. It currently has a default method (`mosaicplot.default`) and a formula interface (`mosaicplot.formula`).

Extended mosaic displays visualize standardized residuals of a loglinear model for the table by color and outline of the mosaic's tiles. (Standardized residuals are often referred to a standard normal distribution.) Cells representing negative residuals are drawn in shaded of red and with broken borders; positive ones are drawn in blue with solid borders.

For the formula method, if `data` is an object inheriting from class "table" or class "ftable" or an array with more than 2 dimensions, it is taken as a contingency table, and hence all entries should be non-negative. In this case the left-hand side of `formula` should be empty and the variables on the right-hand side should be taken from the names of the `dimnames` attribute of the contingency table. A marginal table of these variables is computed, and a mosaic plot of that table is produced.

Otherwise, `data` should be a data frame or matrix, list or environment containing the variables to be cross-tabulated. In this case, after possibly selecting a subset of the data as specified by the `subset` argument, a contingency table is computed from the variables given in `formula`, and a mosaic is produced from this.

See Emerson (1998) for more information and a case study with television viewer data from Nielsen Media Research.

Missing values are not supported except via an `na.action` function when data contains variables to be cross-tabulated.

A more flexible and extensible implementation of mosaic plots written in the grid graphics system is provided in the function `mosaic` in the contributed package `vcd` (Meyer, Zeileis and Hornik, 2005).

Author(s)

S-PLUS original by John Emerson <john.emerson@yale.edu>. Originally modified and enhanced for R by Kurt Hornik.

References

- Hartigan, J.A., and Kleiner, B. (1984) A mosaic of television ratings. *The American Statistician*, **38**, 32–35.
- Emerson, J. W. (1998) Mosaic displays in S-PLUS: A general implementation and a case study. *Statistical Computing and Graphics Newsletter (ASA)*, **9**, 1, 17–23.
- Friendly, M. (1994) Mosaic displays for multi-way contingency tables. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, **89**, 190–200.
- Meyer, D., Zeileis, A., and Hornik, K. (2005) The strucplot framework: Visualizing multi-way contingency tables with `vcd`. *Report 22*, Department of Statistics and Mathematics, Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien, Research Report Series. http://epub.wu.ac.at/dyn/openURL?id=oai:epub.wu-wien.ac.at:epub-wu-01_8a1

See Also

[assocplot](#), [loglin](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)
mosaicplot(Titanic, main = "Survival on the Titanic", color = TRUE)
## Formula interface for tabulated data:
mosaicplot(~ Sex + Age + Survived, data = Titanic, color = TRUE)

mosaicplot(HairEyeColor, shade = TRUE)
## Independence model of hair and eye color and sex. Indicates that
## there are more blue eyed blonde females than expected in the case
## of independence and too few brown eyed blonde females.
## The corresponding model is:
fm <- loglin(HairEyeColor, list(1, 2, 3))
pchisq(fm$pearson, fm$df, lower.tail = FALSE)

mosaicplot(HairEyeColor, shade = TRUE, margin = list(1:2, 3))
## Model of joint independence of sex from hair and eye color. Males
## are underrepresented among people with brown hair and eyes, and are
## overrepresented among people with brown hair and blue eyes.
## The corresponding model is:
fm <- loglin(HairEyeColor, list(1:2, 3))
pchisq(fm$pearson, fm$df, lower.tail = FALSE)
```



```
## Formula interface for raw data: visualize cross-tabulation of numbers
## of gears and carburettors in Motor Trend car data.
mosaicplot(~ gear + carb, data = mtcars, color = TRUE, las = 1)
# color recycling
mosaicplot(~ gear + carb, data = mtcars, color = 2:3, las = 1)
```

mtext

Write Text into the Margins of a Plot

Description

Text is written in one of the four margins of the current figure region or one of the outer margins of the device region.

Usage

```
mtext(text, side = 3, line = 0, outer = FALSE, at = NA,
      adj = NA, padj = NA, cex = NA, col = NA, font = NA, ...)
```

Arguments

text	a character or expression vector specifying the <i>text</i> to be written. Other objects are coerced by as.graphicsAnnot .
side	on which side of the plot (1=bottom, 2=left, 3=top, 4=right).
line	on which MARGin line, starting at 0 counting outwards.
outer	use outer margins if available.
at	give location of each string in user coordinates. If the component of <i>at</i> corresponding to a particular text item is not a finite value (the default), the location will be determined by <i>adj</i> .
adj	adjustment for each string in reading direction. For strings parallel to the axes, <i>adj</i> = 0 means left or bottom alignment, and <i>adj</i> = 1 means right or top alignment. If <i>adj</i> is not a finite value (the default), the value of <code>par("las")</code> determines the adjustment. For strings plotted parallel to the axis the default is to centre the string.
padj	adjustment for each string perpendicular to the reading direction (which is controlled by <i>adj</i>). For strings parallel to the axes, <i>padj</i> = 0 means right or top alignment, and <i>padj</i> = 1 means left or bottom alignment. If <i>padj</i> is not a finite value (the default), the value of <code>par("las")</code> determines the adjustment. For strings plotted perpendicular to the axis the default is to centre the string.
cex	character expansion factor. NULL and NA are equivalent to 1.0. This is an absolute measure, not scaled by <code>par("cex")</code> or by setting <code>par("mfrow")</code> or <code>par("mfcol")</code> . Can be a vector.
col	color to use. Can be a vector. NA values (the default) mean use <code>par("col")</code> .

font	font for text. Can be a vector. NA values (the default) mean use <code>par("font")</code> .
...	Further graphical parameters (see par), including family, las and xpd. (The latter defaults to the figure region unless <code>outer = TRUE</code> , otherwise the device region. It can only be increased.)

Details

The user coordinates in the outer margins always range from zero to one, and are not affected by the user coordinates in the figure region(s) — R differs here from other implementations of S.

All of the named arguments can be vectors, and recycling will take place to plot as many strings as the longest of the vector arguments.

Note that a vector `adj` has a different meaning from [text](#). `adj = 0.5` will centre the string, but for `outer = TRUE` on the device region rather than the plot region.

Parameter `las` will determine the orientation of the string(s). For strings plotted perpendicular to the axis the default justification is to place the end of the string nearest the axis on the specified line. (Note that this differs from S, which uses `srt` if `at` is supplied and `las` if it is not. Parameter `srt` is ignored in R.)

Note that if the text is to be plotted perpendicular to the axis, `adj` determines the justification of the string *and* the position along the axis unless `at` is specified.

Graphics parameter `"ylbias"` (see [par](#)) determines how the text baseline is placed relative to the nominal line.

Side Effects

The given text is written onto the current plot.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[title](#), [text](#), [plot](#), [par](#); [plotmath](#) for details on mathematical annotation.

Examples

```
plot(1:10, (-4:5)^2, main = "Parabola Points", xlab = "xlab")
mtext("10 of them")
for(s in 1:4)
  mtext(paste("mtext(..., line= -1, {side, col, font} = ", s,
             ", cex = ", (1+s)/2, ")"), line = -1,
        side = s, col = s, font = s, cex = (1+s)/2)
mtext("mtext(..., line= -2)", line = -2)
mtext("mtext(..., line= -2, adj = 0)", line = -2, adj = 0)
##--- log axis :
plot(1:10, exp(1:10), log = "y", main = "log = \"y\"", xlab = "xlab")
for(s in 1:4) mtext(paste("mtext(...,side=", s, ")"), side = s)
```

pairs

*Scatterplot Matrices***Description**

A matrix of scatterplots is produced.

Usage

```
pairs(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
pairs(formula, data = NULL, ..., subset,
      na.action = stats::na.pass)

## Default S3 method:
pairs(x, labels, panel = points, ...,
      horInd = 1:nc, verInd = 1:nc,
      lower.panel = panel, upper.panel = panel,
      diag.panel = NULL, text.panel = textPanel,
      label.pos = 0.5 + has.diag/3, line.main = 3,
      cex.labels = NULL, font.labels = 1,
      row1atop = TRUE, gap = 1, log = "")
```

Arguments

x	the coordinates of points given as numeric columns of a matrix or data frame. Logical and factor columns are converted to numeric in the same way that data.matrix does.
formula	a formula, such as $\sim x + y + z$. Each term will give a separate variable in the pairs plot, so terms should be numeric vectors. (A response will be interpreted as another variable, but not treated specially, so it is confusing to use one.)
data	a data.frame (or list) from which the variables in formula should be taken.
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used for plotting.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is to pass missing values on to the panel functions, but <code>na.action = na.omit</code> will cause cases with missing values in any of the variables to be omitted entirely.
labels	the names of the variables.
panel	<code>function(x, y, ...)</code> which is used to plot the contents of each panel of the display.
...	arguments to be passed to or from methods. Also, graphical parameters can be given as arguments to plot such as <code>main</code> . <code>par("oma")</code> will be set appropriately unless specified.

<code>horInd, verInd</code>	The (numerical) indices of the variables to be plotted on the horizontal and vertical axes respectively.
<code>lower.panel, upper.panel</code>	separate panel functions (or NULL) to be used below and above the diagonal respectively.
<code>diag.panel</code>	optional function(<code>x, ...</code>) to be applied on the diagonals.
<code>text.panel</code>	optional function(<code>x, y, labels, cex, font, ...</code>) to be applied on the diagonals.
<code>label.pos</code>	y position of labels in the text panel.
<code>line.main</code>	if <code>main</code> is specified, <code>line.main</code> gives the line argument to <code>mtext()</code> which draws the title. You may want to specify <code>oma</code> when changing <code>line.main</code> .
<code>cex.labels, font.labels</code>	graphics parameters for the text panel.
<code>row1attop</code>	logical. Should the layout be matrix-like with row 1 at the top, or graph-like with row 1 at the bottom?
<code>gap</code>	distance between subplots, in margin lines.
<code>log</code>	a character string indicating if logarithmic axes are to be used: see <code>plot.default</code> . <code>log = "xy"</code> specifies logarithmic axes for all variables.

Details

The ij th scatterplot contains `x[, i]` plotted against `x[, j]`. The scatterplot can be customised by setting panel functions to appear as something completely different. The off-diagonal panel functions are passed the appropriate columns of `x` as `x` and `y`: the diagonal panel function (if any) is passed a single column, and the `text.panel` function is passed a single `(x, y)` location and the column name. Setting some of these panel functions to `NULL` is equivalent to *not* drawing anything there.

The [graphical parameters](#) `pch` and `col` can be used to specify a vector of plotting symbols and colors to be used in the plots.

The [graphical parameter](#) `oma` will be set by `pairs.default` unless supplied as an argument.

A panel function should not attempt to start a new plot, but just plot within a given coordinate system: thus `plot` and `boxplot` are not panel functions.

By default, missing values are passed to the panel functions and will often be ignored within a panel. However, for the formula method and `na.action = na.omit`, all cases which contain a missing values for any of the variables are omitted completely (including when the scales are selected).

Arguments `horInd` and `verInd` were introduced in R 3.2.0. If given the same value they can be used to select or re-order variables: with different ranges of consecutive values they can be used to plot rectangular windows of a full pairs plot; in the latter case ‘diagonal’ refers to the diagonal of the full plot.

Author(s)

Enhancements for R 1.0.0 contributed by Dr. Jens Oehlschlaegel-Akiyoshi and R-core members.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
pairs(iris[1:4], main = "Anderson's Iris Data -- 3 species",
      pch = 21, bg = c("red", "green3", "blue")[unclass(iris$Species)])

## formula method
pairs(~ Fertility + Education + Catholic, data = swiss,
      subset = Education < 20, main = "Swiss data, Education < 20")

pairs(USJudgeRatings)
## show only lower triangle (and suppress labeling for whatever reason):
pairs(USJudgeRatings, text.panel = NULL, upper.panel = NULL)

## put histograms on the diagonal
panel.hist <- function(x, ...)
{
  usr <- par("usr"); on.exit(par(usr))
  par(usr = c(usr[1:2], 0, 1.5) )
  h <- hist(x, plot = FALSE)
  breaks <- h$breaks; nB <- length(breaks)
  y <- h$counts; y <- y/max(y)
  rect(breaks[-nB], 0, breaks[-1], y, col = "cyan", ...)
}
pairs(USJudgeRatings[1:5], panel = panel.smooth,
      cex = 1.5, pch = 24, bg = "light blue",
      diag.panel = panel.hist, cex.labels = 2, font.labels = 2)

## put (absolute) correlations on the upper panels,
## with size proportional to the correlations.
panel.cor <- function(x, y, digits = 2, prefix = "", cex.cor, ...)
{
  usr <- par("usr"); on.exit(par(usr))
  par(usr = c(0, 1, 0, 1))
  r <- abs(cor(x, y))
  txt <- format(c(r, 0.123456789), digits = digits)[1]
  txt <- paste0(prefix, txt)
  if(missing(cex.cor)) cex.cor <- 0.8/strwidth(txt)
  text(0.5, 0.5, txt, cex = cex.cor * r)
}
pairs(USJudgeRatings, lower.panel = panel.smooth, upper.panel = panel.cor)

pairs(iris[-5], log = "xy") # plot all variables on log scale
pairs(iris, log = 1:4, # log the first four
      main = "Lengths and Widths in [log]", line.main=1.5, oma=c(2,2,3,2))
```

panel.smooth	<i>Simple Panel Plot</i>
--------------	--------------------------

Description

An example of a simple useful panel function to be used as argument in e.g., [cplot](#) or [pairs](#).

Usage

```
panel.smooth(x, y, col = par("col"), bg = NA, pch = par("pch"),
             cex = 1, col.smooth = "red", span = 2/3, iter = 3,
             ...)
```

Arguments

x, y	numeric vectors of the same length
col, bg, pch, cex	numeric or character codes for the color(s), point type and size of points ; see also par .
col.smooth	color to be used by lines for drawing the smooths.
span	smoothing parameter f for lowess , see there.
iter	number of robustness iterations for lowess .
...	further arguments to lines .

See Also

[cplot](#) and [pairs](#) where panel.smooth is typically used; [lowess](#) which does the smoothing.

Examples

```
pairs(swiss, panel = panel.smooth, pch = ".") # emphasize the smooths
pairs(swiss, panel = panel.smooth, lwd = 2, cex = 1.5, col = "blue") # hmm...
```

par	<i>Set or Query Graphical Parameters</i>
-----	--

Description

par can be used to set or query graphical parameters. Parameters can be set by specifying them as arguments to par in tag = value form, or by passing them as a list of tagged values.

Usage

```
par(..., no.readonly = FALSE)

<highlevel plot> (... , <tag> = <value>)
```

Arguments

- ... arguments in tag = value form, or a list of tagged values. The tags must come from the names of graphical parameters described in the ‘Graphical Parameters’ section.
- no.readonly logical; if TRUE and there are no other arguments, only parameters are returned which can be set by a subsequent par() call *on the same device*.

Details

Each device has its own set of graphical parameters. If the current device is the null device, par will open a new device before querying/setting parameters. (What device is controlled by `options("device")`.)

Parameters are queried by giving one or more character vectors of parameter names to par.

par() (no arguments) or par(no.readonly = TRUE) is used to get *all* the graphical parameters (as a named list). Their names are currently taken from the unexported variable `graphics::: .Pars`.

R.O. indicates *read-only arguments*: These may only be used in queries and cannot be set. ("cin", "cra", "csi", "cxy", "din" and "page" are always read-only.)

Several parameters can only be set by a call to par():

- "ask",
- "fig", "fin",
- "lheight",
- "mai", "mar", "mex", "mfcol", "mfrow", "mfg",
- "new",
- "oma", "omd", "omi",
- "pin", "plt", "ps", "pty",
- "usr",
- "xlog", "ylog",
- "ylbias"

The remaining parameters can also be set as arguments (often via ...) to high-level plot functions such as `plot.default`, `plot.window`, `points`, `lines`, `abline`, `axis`, `title`, `text`, `mtext`, `segments`, `symbols`, `arrows`, `polygon`, `rect`, `box`, `contour`, `filled.contour` and `image`. Such settings will be active during the execution of the function, only. However, see the comments on `bg`, `cex`, `col`, `lty`, `lwd` and `pch` which may be taken as *arguments* to certain plot functions rather than as graphical parameters.

The meaning of ‘character size’ is not well-defined: this is set up for the device taking `pointsize` into account but often not the actual font family in use. Internally the corresponding pars (`cra`, `cin`, `cxy` and `csi`) are used only to set the inter-line spacing used to convert `mar` and `oma` to physical margins. (The same inter-line spacing multiplied by `lheight` is used for multi-line strings in `text` and `strheight`.)

Note that graphical parameters are suggestions: plotting functions and devices need not make use of them (and this is particularly true of non-default methods for e.g. `plot`).

Value

When parameters are set, their previous values are returned in an invisible named list. Such a list can be passed as an argument to `par` to restore the parameter values. Use `par(no.readonly = TRUE)` for the full list of parameters that can be restored. However, restoring all of these is not wise: see the ‘Note’ section.

When just one parameter is queried, the value of that parameter is returned as (atomic) vector. When two or more parameters are queried, their values are returned in a list, with the list names giving the parameters.

Note the inconsistency: setting one parameter returns a list, but querying one parameter returns a vector.

Graphical Parameters

adj The value of `adj` determines the way in which text strings are justified in `text`, `mtext` and `title`. A value of 0 produces left-justified text, 0.5 (the default) centered text and 1 right-justified text. (Any value in [0, 1] is allowed, and on most devices values outside that interval will also work.)

Note that the `adj` argument of `text` also allows `adj = c(x, y)` for different adjustment in x- and y- directions. Note that whereas for `text` it refers to positioning of text about a point, for `mtext` and `title` it controls placement within the plot or device region.

ann If set to `FALSE`, high-level plotting functions calling `plot.default` do not annotate the plots they produce with axis titles and overall titles. The default is to do annotation.

ask logical. If `TRUE` (and the R session is interactive) the user is asked for input, before a new figure is drawn. As this applies to the device, it also affects output by packages `grid` and `lattice`. It can be set even on non-screen devices but may have no effect there.

This is not really a graphics parameter, and its use is deprecated in favour of `devAskNewPage`.

bg The color to be used for the background of the device region. When called from `par()` it also sets `new = FALSE`. See section ‘Color Specification’ for suitable values. For many devices the initial value is set from the `bg` argument of the device, and for the rest it is normally “white”.

Note that some graphics functions such as `plot.default` and `points` have an *argument* of this name with a different meaning.

bty A character string which determined the type of `box` which is drawn about plots. If `bty` is one of “o” (the default), “l”, “7”, “c”, “u”, or “]” the resulting box resembles the corresponding upper case letter. A value of “n” suppresses the box.

cex A numerical value giving the amount by which plotting text and symbols should be magnified relative to the default. This starts as 1 when a device is opened, and is reset when the layout is changed, e.g. by setting `mfrow`.

Note that some graphics functions such as `plot.default` have an *argument* of this name which *multiplies* this graphical parameter, and some functions such as `points` and `text` accept a vector of values which are recycled.

cex.axis The magnification to be used for axis annotation relative to the current setting of `cex`.

cex.lab The magnification to be used for x and y labels relative to the current setting of `cex`.

cex.main The magnification to be used for main titles relative to the current setting of `cex`.

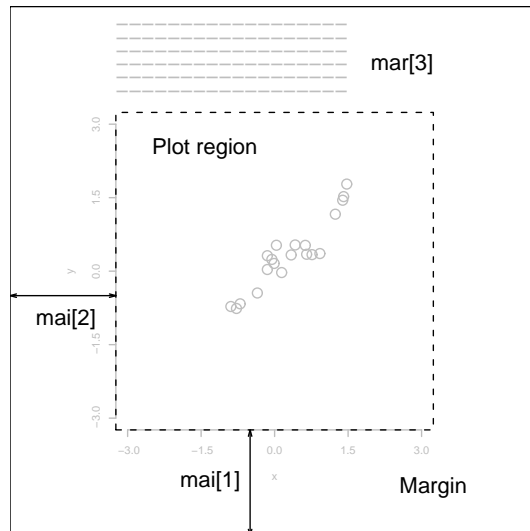
cex.sub The magnification to be used for sub-titles relative to the current setting of `cex`.

- `cin` **R.O.**; character size (width, height) in inches. These are the same measurements as `cra`, expressed in different units.
- `col` A specification for the default plotting color. See section ‘Color Specification’.
Some functions such as `lines` and `text` accept a vector of values which are recycled and may be interpreted slightly differently.
- `col.axis` The color to be used for axis annotation. Defaults to "black".
- `col.lab` The color to be used for x and y labels. Defaults to "black".
- `col.main` The color to be used for plot main titles. Defaults to "black".
- `col.sub` The color to be used for plot sub-titles. Defaults to "black".
- `cra` **R.O.**; size of default character (width, height) in ‘rasters’ (pixels). Some devices have no concept of pixels and so assume an arbitrary pixel size, usually 1/72 inch. These are the same measurements as `cin`, expressed in different units.
- `crt` A numerical value specifying (in degrees) how single characters should be rotated. It is unwise to expect values other than multiples of 90 to work. Compare with `srt` which does string rotation.
- `csi` **R.O.**; height of (default-sized) characters in inches. The same as `par("cin")[2]`.
- `cxy` **R.O.**; size of default character (width, height) in user coordinate units.
`par("cxy")` is `par("cin")/par("pin")` scaled to user coordinates. Note that `c(strwidth(ch), strheight(ch))` for a given string `ch` is usually much more precise.
- `din` **R.O.**; the device dimensions, (width, height), in inches. See also `dev.size`, which is updated immediately when an on-screen device windows is re-sized.
- `err` (*Unimplemented*; **R** is silent when points outside the plot region are *not* plotted.) The degree of error reporting desired.
- `family` The name of a font family for drawing text. The maximum allowed length is 200 bytes. This name gets mapped by each graphics device to a device-specific font description. The default value is "" which means that the default device fonts will be used (and what those are should be listed on the help page for the device). Standard values are "serif", "sans" and "mono", and the `Hershey` font families are also available. (Devices may define others, and some devices will ignore this setting completely. Names starting with "Her" are treated specially and should only be used for the built-in Hershey font families.) This can be specified inline for `text`.
- `fg` The color to be used for the foreground of plots. This is the default color used for things like axes and boxes around plots. When called from `par()` this also sets parameter `col` to the same value. See section ‘Color Specification’. A few devices have an argument to set the initial value, which is otherwise "black".
- `fig` A numerical vector of the form `c(x1, x2, y1, y2)` which gives the (NDC) coordinates of the figure region in the display region of the device. If you set this, unlike `S`, you start a new plot, so to add to an existing plot use `new = TRUE` as well.
- `fin` The figure region dimensions, (width, height), in inches. If you set this, unlike `S`, you start a new plot.
- `font` An integer which specifies which font to use for text. If possible, device drivers arrange so that 1 corresponds to plain text (the default), 2 to bold face, 3 to italic and 4 to bold italic. Also, font 5 is expected to be the symbol font, in Adobe symbol encoding. On some devices font families can be selected by `family` to choose different sets of 5 fonts.

- `font.axis` The font to be used for axis annotation.
- `font.lab` The font to be used for x and y labels.
- `font.main` The font to be used for plot main titles.
- `font.sub` The font to be used for plot sub-titles.
- `lab` A numerical vector of the form `c(x, y, len)` which modifies the default way that axes are annotated. The values of `x` and `y` give the (approximate) number of tickmarks on the x and y axes and `len` specifies the label length. The default is `c(5, 5, 7)`. Note that this only affects the way the parameters `xaxp` and `yaxp` are set when the user coordinate system is set up, and is not consulted when axes are drawn. `len` is *unimplemented* in R.
- `las` numeric in `{0,1,2,3}`; the style of axis labels.
- 0:** always parallel to the axis [*default*],
 - 1:** always horizontal,
 - 2:** always perpendicular to the axis,
 - 3:** always vertical.
- Also supported by `mtext`. Note that string/character rotation *via* argument `srt` to `par` does *not* affect the axis labels.
- `lend` The line end style. This can be specified as an integer or string:
- 0 and "round" mean rounded line caps [*default*];
 - 1 and "butt" mean butt line caps;
 - 2 and "square" mean square line caps.
- `lheight` The line height multiplier. The height of a line of text (used to vertically space multi-line text) is found by multiplying the character height both by the current character expansion and by the line height multiplier. Default value is 1. Used in `text` and `strheight`.
- `ljoin` The line join style. This can be specified as an integer or string:
- 0 and "round" mean rounded line joins [*default*];
 - 1 and "mitre" mean mitred line joins;
 - 2 and "bevel" mean bevelled line joins.
- `lmitre` The line mitre limit. This controls when mitred line joins are automatically converted into bevelled line joins. The value must be larger than 1 and the default is 10. Not all devices will honour this setting.
- `lty` The line type. Line types can either be specified as an integer (0=blank, 1=solid (default), 2=dashed, 3=dotted, 4=dotdash, 5=longdash, 6=twodash) or as one of the character strings "blank", "solid", "dashed", "dotted", "dotdash", "longdash", or "twodash", where "blank" uses 'invisible lines' (i.e., does not draw them).
- Alternatively, a string of up to 8 characters (from `c(1:9, "A": "F")`) may be given, giving the length of line segments which are alternatively drawn and skipped. See section 'Line Type Specification'.
- Functions such as `lines` and `segments` accept a vector of values which are recycled.
- `lwd` The line width, a *positive* number, defaulting to 1. The interpretation is device-specific, and some devices do not implement line widths less than one. (See the help on the device for details of the interpretation.)
- Functions such as `lines` and `segments` accept a vector of values which are recycled: in such uses lines corresponding to values NA or NaN are omitted. The interpretation of 0 is device-specific.

mai A numerical vector of the form `c(bottom, left, top, right)` which gives the margin size specified in inches.

`left, top, right)` which gives the



mar A numerical vector of the form `c(bottom, left, top, right)` which gives the number of lines of margin to be specified on the four sides of the plot. The default is `c(5, 4, 4, 2) + 0.1`.

mex `mex` is a character size expansion factor which is used to describe coordinates in the margins of plots. Note that this does not change the font size, rather specifies the size of font (as a multiple of `csi`) used to convert between `mar` and `mai`, and between `oma` and `omi`.

This starts as 1 when the device is opened, and is reset when the layout is changed (alongside resetting `cex`).

mfcol, mfrow A vector of the form `c(nr, nc)`. Subsequent figures will be drawn in an `nr`-by-`nc` array on the device by *columns* (`mfcol`), or *rows* (`mfrow`), respectively.

In a layout with exactly two rows and columns the base value of "`cex`" is reduced by a factor of 0.83: if there are three or more of either rows or columns, the reduction factor is 0.66.

Setting a layout resets the base value of `cex` and that of `mex` to 1.

If either of these is queried it will give the current layout, so querying cannot tell you the order in which the array will be filled.

Consider the alternatives, [layout](#) and [split.screen](#).

mfg A numerical vector of the form `c(i, j)` where `i` and `j` indicate which figure in an array of figures is to be drawn next (if setting) or is being drawn (if enquiring). The array must already have been set by `mfcol` or `mfrow`.

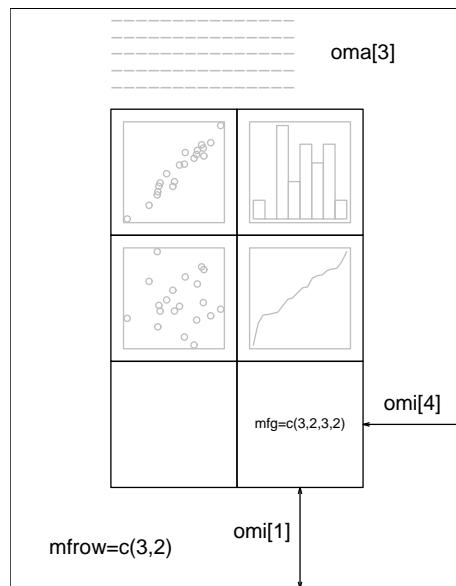
For compatibility with S, the form `c(i, j, nr, nc)` is also accepted, when `nr` and `nc` should be the current number of rows and number of columns. Mismatches will be ignored, with a warning.

mgp The margin line (in `mex` units) for the axis title, axis labels and axis line. Note that `mgp[1]` affects [title](#) whereas `mgp[2:3]` affect [axis](#). The default is `c(3, 1, 0)`.

mkh The height in inches of symbols to be drawn when the value of `pch` is an integer. *Completely ignored in R.*

`new` logical, defaulting to FALSE. If set to TRUE, the next high-level plotting command (actually `plot.new`) should *not clean* the frame before drawing *as if it were on a new device*. It is an error (ignored with a warning) to try to use `new = TRUE` on a device that does not currently contain a high-level plot.

`oma` A vector of the form `c(bottom, left, top, right)` giving the size of the outer margins in lines of text.



`omd` A vector of the form `c(x1, x2, y1, y2)` giving the region *inside* outer margins in NDC (= normalized device coordinates), i.e., as a fraction (in $[0, 1]$) of the device region.

`omi` A vector of the form `c(bottom, left, top, right)` giving the size of the outer margins in inches.

`page` **R.O.;** A boolean value indicating whether the next call to `plot.new` is going to start a new page. This value may be FALSE if there are multiple figures on the page.

`pch` Either an integer specifying a symbol or a single character to be used as the default in plotting points. See `points` for possible values and their interpretation. Note that only integers and single-character strings can be set as a graphics parameter (and not NA nor NULL).

Some functions such as `points` accept a vector of values which are recycled.

`pin` The current plot dimensions, (width, height), in inches.

`plt` A vector of the form `c(x1, x2, y1, y2)` giving the coordinates of the plot region as fractions of the current figure region.

`ps` integer; the point size of text (but not symbols). Unlike the `pointsize` argument of most devices, this does not change the relationship between `mar` and `mai` (nor `oma` and `omi`).

What is meant by 'point size' is device-specific, but most devices mean a multiple of 1bp, that is 1/72 of an inch.

`pty` A character specifying the type of plot region to be used; "s" generates a square plotting region and "m" generates the maximal plotting region.

`smo` (*Unimplemented*) a value which indicates how smooth circles and circular arcs should be.

- srt** The string rotation in degrees. See the comment about **crt**. Only supported by [text](#).
- tck** The length of tick marks as a fraction of the smaller of the width or height of the plotting region. If **tck** ≥ 0.5 it is interpreted as a fraction of the relevant side, so if **tck** = 1 grid lines are drawn. The default setting (**tck** = NA) is to use **tc1** = -0.5.
- tc1** The length of tick marks as a fraction of the height of a line of text. The default value is -0.5; setting **tc1** = NA sets **tck** = -0.01 which is S' default.
- usr** A vector of the form `c(x1, x2, y1, y2)` giving the extremes of the user coordinates of the plotting region. When a logarithmic scale is in use (i.e., `par("xlog")` is true, see below), then the x-limits will be $10^{\text{par("usr")[1:2]}}$. Similarly for the y-axis.
- xaxp** A vector of the form `c(x1, x2, n)` giving the coordinates of the extreme tick marks and the number of intervals between tick-marks when `par("xlog")` is false. Otherwise, when *log* coordinates are active, the three values have a different meaning: For a small range, **n** is *negative*, and the ticks are as in the linear case, otherwise, **n** is in 1:3, specifying a case number, and **x1** and **x2** are the lowest and highest power of 10 inside the user coordinates, $10^{\text{par("usr")[1:2]}}$. (The "usr" coordinates are log10-transformed here!)
- n = 1** will produce tick marks at 10^j for integer *j*,
n = 2 gives marks $k10^j$ with $k \in \{1, 5\}$,
n = 3 gives marks $k10^j$ with $k \in \{1, 2, 5\}$.
- See [axTicks\(\)](#) for a pure R implementation of this.
- This parameter is reset when a user coordinate system is set up, for example by starting a new page or by calling [plot.window](#) or setting `par("usr")`: **n** is taken from `par("lab")`. It affects the default behaviour of subsequent calls to [axis](#) for sides 1 or 3.
- It is only relevant to default numeric axis systems, and not for example to dates.
- xaxs** The style of axis interval calculation to be used for the x-axis. Possible values are "r", "i", "e", "s", "d". The styles are generally controlled by the range of data or **xlim**, if given. Style "r" (regular) first extends the data range by 4 percent at each end and then finds an axis with pretty labels that fits within the extended range. Style "i" (internal) just finds an axis with pretty labels that fits within the original data range. Style "s" (standard) finds an axis with pretty labels within which the original data range fits. Style "e" (extended) is like style "s", except that it also ensures that there is room for plotting symbols within the bounding box. Style "d" (direct) specifies that the current axis should be used on subsequent plots. (*Only "r" and "i" styles have been implemented in R.*)
- xaxt** A character which specifies the x axis type. Specifying "n" suppresses plotting of the axis. The standard value is "s": for compatibility with S values "l" and "t" are accepted but are equivalent to "s": any value other than "n" implies plotting.
- xlog** A logical value (see `log` in [plot.default](#)). If TRUE, a logarithmic scale is in use (e.g., after `plot(*, log = "x")`). For a new device, it defaults to FALSE, i.e., linear scale.
- xpd** A logical value or NA. If FALSE, all plotting is clipped to the plot region, if TRUE, all plotting is clipped to the figure region, and if NA, all plotting is clipped to the device region. See also [clip](#).
- yaxp** A vector of the form `c(y1, y2, n)` giving the coordinates of the extreme tick marks and the number of intervals between tick-marks unless for log coordinates, see **xaxp** above.
- yaxs** The style of axis interval calculation to be used for the y-axis. See **xaxs** above.

yaxt A character which specifies the y axis type. Specifying "n" suppresses plotting.

ylbias A positive real value used in the positioning of text in the margins by **axis** and **mtext**. The default is in principle device-specific, but currently 0.2 for all of R's own devices. Set this to 0.2 for compatibility with R < 2.14.0 on x11 and windows() devices.

ylog A logical value; see **xlog** above.

Color Specification

Colors can be specified in several different ways. The simplest way is with a character string giving the color name (e.g., "red"). A list of the possible colors can be obtained with the function **colors**. Alternatively, colors can be specified directly in terms of their RGB components with a string of the form "#RRGGBB" where each of the pairs RR, GG, BB consist of two hexadecimal digits giving a value in the range 00 to FF. Colors can also be specified by giving an index into a small table of colors, the **palette**: indices wrap round so with the default palette of size 8, 10 is the same as 2. This provides compatibility with S. Index 0 corresponds to the background color. Note that the palette (apart from 0 which is per-device) is a per-session setting.

Negative integer colours are errors.

Additionally, "transparent" is *transparent*, useful for filled areas (such as the background!), and just invisible for things like lines or text. In most circumstances (integer) NA is equivalent to "transparent" (but not for **text** and **mtext**).

Semi-transparent colors are available for use on devices that support them.

The functions **rgb**, **hsv**, **hcl**, **gray** and **rainbow** provide additional ways of generating colors.

Line Type Specification

Line types can either be specified by giving an index into a small built-in table of line types (1 = solid, 2 = dashed, etc, see **lty** above) or directly as the lengths of on/off stretches of line. This is done with a string of an even number (up to eight) of characters, namely *non-zero* (hexadecimal) digits which give the lengths in consecutive positions in the string. For example, the string "33" specifies three units on followed by three off and "3313" specifies three units on followed by three off followed by one on and finally three off. The 'units' here are (on most devices) proportional to **lwd**, and with **lwd** = 1 are in pixels or points or 1/96 inch.

The five standard dash-dot line types (**lty** = 2:6) correspond to **c**("44", "13", "1343", "73", "2262").

Note that NA is not a valid value for **lty**.

Note

The effect of restoring all the (settable) graphics parameters as in the examples is hard to predict if the device has been resized. Several of them are attempting to set the same things in different ways, and those last in the alphabet will win. In particular, the settings of **mai**, **mar**, **pin**, **plt** and **pty** interact, as do the outer margin settings, the figure layout and figure region size.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

`plot.default` for some high-level plotting parameters; `colors`; `clip`; `options` for other setup parameters; graphic devices `x11`, `postscript` and setting up device regions by `layout` and `split.screen`.

Examples

```
op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), # 2 x 2 pictures on one plot
          pty = "s")      # square plotting region,
                          # independent of device size

## At end of plotting, reset to previous settings:
par(op)

## Alternatively,
op <- par(no.readonly = TRUE) # the whole list of settable par's.
## do lots of plotting and par(.) calls, then reset:
par(op)
## Note this is not in general good practice

par("ylog") # FALSE
plot(1 : 12, log = "y")
par("ylog") # TRUE

plot(1:2, xaxs = "i") # 'inner axis' w/o extra space
par(c("usr", "xaxp"))

( nr.prof <-
c(prof.pilots = 16, lawyers = 11, farmers = 10, salesmen = 9, physicians = 9,
  mechanics = 6, policemen = 6, managers = 6, engineers = 5, teachers = 4,
  housewives = 3, students = 3, armed.forces = 1))
par(las = 3)
barplot(rbind(nr.prof)) # R 0.63.2: shows alignment problem
par(las = 0) # reset to default

require(grDevices) # for gray
## 'fg' use:
plot(1:12, type = "b", main = "'fg' : axes, ticks and box in gray",
     fg = gray(0.7), bty = "7" , sub = R.version.string)

ex <- function() {
  old.par <- par(no.readonly = TRUE) # all par settings which
                                     # could be changed.
  on.exit(par(old.par))
  ## ...
  ## ... do lots of par() settings and plots
  ## ...
  invisible() #-- now, par(old.par) will be executed
}
```

```

ex()

## Line types
showLty <- function(ltys, xoff = 0, ...) {
  stopifnot((n <- length(ltys)) >= 1)
  op <- par(mar = rep(.5,4)); on.exit(par(op))
  plot(0:1, 0:1, type = "n", axes = FALSE, ann = FALSE)
  y <- (n:1)/(n+1)
  clty <- as.character(ltys)
  mytext <- function(x, y, txt)
    text(x, y, txt, adj = c(0, -.3), cex = 0.8, ...)
  abline(h = y, lty = ltys, ...); mytext(xoff, y, clty)
  y <- y - 1/(3*(n+1))
  abline(h = y, lty = ltys, lwd = 2, ...)
  mytext(1/8+xoff, y, paste(clty, " lwd = 2"))
}
showLty(c("solid", "dashed", "dotted", "dotdash", "longdash", "twodash"))
par(new = TRUE) # the same:
showLty(c("solid", "44", "13", "1343", "73", "2262"), xoff = .2, col = 2)
showLty(c("11", "22", "33", "44", "12", "13", "14", "21", "31"))

```

persp

*Perspective Plots***Description**

This function draws perspective plots of a surface over the x–y plane. `persp` is a generic function.

Usage

```

persp(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
persp(x = seq(0, 1, length.out = nrow(z)),
      y = seq(0, 1, length.out = ncol(z)),
      z, xlim = range(x), ylim = range(y),
      zlim = range(z, na.rm = TRUE),
      xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, zlab = NULL,
      main = NULL, sub = NULL,
      theta = 0, phi = 15, r = sqrt(3), d = 1,
      scale = TRUE, expand = 1,
      col = "white", border = NULL, ltheta = -135, lphi = 0,
      shade = NA, box = TRUE, axes = TRUE, nticks = 5,
      ticktype = "simple", ...)

```

Arguments

`x`, `y` locations of grid lines at which the values in `z` are measured. These must be in ascending order. By default, equally spaced values from 0 to 1 are used. If `x` is a list, its components `x$x` and `x$y` are used for `x` and `y`, respectively.

<code>z</code>	a matrix containing the values to be plotted (NAs are allowed). Note that <code>x</code> can be used instead of <code>z</code> for convenience.
<code>xlim, ylim, zlim</code>	<code>x</code> -, <code>y</code> - and <code>z</code> -limits. These should be chosen to cover the range of values of the surface: see 'Details'.
<code>xlab, ylab, zlab</code>	titles for the axes. N.B. These must be character strings; expressions are not accepted. Numbers will be coerced to character strings.
<code>main, sub</code>	main and sub title, as for title .
<code>theta, phi</code>	angles defining the viewing direction. <code>theta</code> gives the azimuthal direction and <code>phi</code> the colatitude.
<code>r</code>	the distance of the eyepoint from the centre of the plotting box.
<code>d</code>	a value which can be used to vary the strength of the perspective transformation. Values of <code>d</code> greater than 1 will lessen the perspective effect and values less and 1 will exaggerate it.
<code>scale</code>	before viewing the <code>x</code> , <code>y</code> and <code>z</code> coordinates of the points defining the surface are transformed to the interval [0,1]. If <code>scale</code> is TRUE the <code>x</code> , <code>y</code> and <code>z</code> coordinates are transformed separately. If <code>scale</code> is FALSE the coordinates are scaled so that aspect ratios are retained. This is useful for rendering things like DEM information.
<code>expand</code>	a expansion factor applied to the <code>z</code> coordinates. Often used with $0 < \text{expand} < 1$ to shrink the plotting box in the <code>z</code> direction.
<code>col</code>	the color(s) of the surface facets. Transparent colours are ignored. This is recycled to the $(nx - 1)(ny - 1)$ facets.
<code>border</code>	the color of the line drawn around the surface facets. The default, NULL, corresponds to <code>par("fg")</code> . A value of NA will disable the drawing of borders: this is sometimes useful when the surface is shaded.
<code>ltheta, lphi</code>	if finite values are specified for <code>ltheta</code> and <code>lphi</code> , the surface is shaded as though it was being illuminated from the direction specified by azimuth <code>ltheta</code> and colatitude <code>lphi</code> .
<code>shade</code>	the shade at a surface facet is computed as $((1+d)/2)^{\text{shade}}$, where <code>d</code> is the dot product of a unit vector normal to the facet and a unit vector in the direction of a light source. Values of <code>shade</code> close to one yield shading similar to a point light source model and values close to zero produce no shading. Values in the range 0.5 to 0.75 provide an approximation to daylight illumination.
<code>box</code>	should the bounding box for the surface be displayed. The default is TRUE.
<code>axes</code>	should ticks and labels be added to the box. The default is TRUE. If <code>box</code> is FALSE then no ticks or labels are drawn.
<code>ticktype</code>	character: "simple" draws just an arrow parallel to the axis to indicate direction of increase; "detailed" draws normal ticks as per 2D plots.
<code>nticks</code>	the (approximate) number of tick marks to draw on the axes. Has no effect if <code>ticktype</code> is "simple".
<code>...</code>	additional graphical parameters (see par).

Details

The plots are produced by first transforming the (x,y,z) coordinates to the interval $[0,1]$ using the limits supplied or computed from the range of the data. The surface is then viewed by looking at the origin from a direction defined by θ and ϕ . If θ and ϕ are both zero the viewing direction is directly down the negative y axis. Changing θ will vary the azimuth and changing ϕ the colatitude.

There is a hook called "persp" (see [setHook](#)) called after the plot is completed, which is used in the testing code to annotate the plot page. The hook function(s) are called with no argument.

Notice that `persp` interprets the `z` matrix as a table of $f(x[i], y[j])$ values, so that the x axis corresponds to row number and the y axis to column number, with column 1 at the bottom, so that with the standard rotation angles, the top left corner of the matrix is displayed at the left hand side, closest to the user.

The sizes and fonts of the axis labels and the annotations for `ticktype = "detailed"` are controlled by graphics parameters `"cex.lab"/"font.lab"` and `"cex.axis"/"font.axis"` respectively.

The bounding box is drawn with edges of faces facing away from the viewer (and hence at the back of the box) with solid lines and other edges dashed and on top of the surface. This (and the plotting of the axes) assumes that the axis limits are chosen so that the surface is within the box, and the function will warn if this is not the case.

Value

`persp()` returns the *viewing transformation matrix*, say VT , a 4×4 matrix suitable for projecting 3D coordinates (x, y, z) into the 2D plane using homogeneous 4D coordinates (x, y, z, t) . It can be used to superimpose additional graphical elements on the 3D plot, by `lines()` or `points()`, using the function `trans3d()`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[contour](#) and [image](#); [trans3d](#).

Rotatable 3D plots can be produced by package **rgl**: other ways to produce static perspective plots are available in packages **lattice** and **scatterplot3d**.

Examples

```
require(grDevices) # for trans3d
## More examples in demo(persp) !!
## -----

# (1) The Obligatory Mathematical surface.
#   Rotated sinc function.

x <- seq(-10, 10, length= 30)
```

```

y <- x
f <- function(x, y) { r <- sqrt(x^2+y^2); 10 * sin(r)/r }
z <- outer(x, y, f)
z[is.na(z)] <- 1
op <- par(bg = "white")
persp(x, y, z, theta = 30, phi = 30, expand = 0.5, col = "lightblue")
persp(x, y, z, theta = 30, phi = 30, expand = 0.5, col = "lightblue",
      ltheta = 120, shade = 0.75, ticktype = "detailed",
      xlab = "X", ylab = "Y", zlab = "Sinc( r )"
) -> res
round(res, 3)

# (2) Add to existing persp plot - using trans3d() :

xE <- c(-10,10); xy <- expand.grid(xE, xE)
points(trans3d(xy[,1], xy[,2], 6, pmat = res), col = 2, pch = 16)
lines (trans3d(x, y = 10, z = 6 + sin(x), pmat = res), col = 3)

phi <- seq(0, 2*pi, len = 201)
r1 <- 7.725 # radius of 2nd maximum
xr <- r1 * cos(phi)
yr <- r1 * sin(phi)
lines(trans3d(xr,yr, f(xr,yr), res), col = "pink", lwd = 2)
## (no hidden lines)

# (3) Visualizing a simple DEM model

z <- 2 * volcano      # Exaggerate the relief
x <- 10 * (1:nrow(z)) # 10 meter spacing (S to N)
y <- 10 * (1:ncol(z)) # 10 meter spacing (E to W)
## Don't draw the grid lines : border = NA
par(bg = "slategray")
persp(x, y, z, theta = 135, phi = 30, col = "green3", scale = FALSE,
      ltheta = -120, shade = 0.75, border = NA, box = FALSE)

# (4) Surface colours corresponding to z-values

par(bg = "white")
x <- seq(-1.95, 1.95, length = 30)
y <- seq(-1.95, 1.95, length = 35)
z <- outer(x, y, function(a, b) a*b^2)
nrz <- nrow(z)
ncz <- ncol(z)
# Create a function interpolating colors in the range of specified colors
jet.colors <- colorRampPalette( c("blue", "green") )
# Generate the desired number of colors from this palette
nbcol <- 100
color <- jet.colors(nbcol)
# Compute the z-value at the facet centres
zfacet <- z[-1, -1] + z[-1, -ncz] + z[-nrz, -1] + z[-nrz, -ncz]
# Recode facet z-values into color indices
facetcol <- cut(zfacet, nbcol)
persp(x, y, z, col = color[facetcol], phi = 30, theta = -30)

```

par(op)

pie

Pie Charts

Description

Draw a pie chart.

Usage

```
pie(x, labels = names(x), edges = 200, radius = 0.8,
    clockwise = FALSE, init.angle = if(clockwise) 90 else 0,
    density = NULL, angle = 45, col = NULL, border = NULL,
    lty = NULL, main = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a vector of non-negative numerical quantities. The values in x are displayed as the areas of pie slices.
labels	one or more expressions or character strings giving names for the slices. Other objects are coerced by as.graphicsAnnot . For empty or NA (after coercion to character) labels, no label nor pointing line is drawn.
edges	the circular outline of the pie is approximated by a polygon with this many edges.
radius	the pie is drawn centered in a square box whose sides range from -1 to 1 . If the character strings labeling the slices are long it may be necessary to use a smaller radius.
clockwise	logical indicating if slices are drawn clockwise or counter clockwise (i.e., mathematically positive direction), the latter is default.
init.angle	number specifying the <i>starting angle</i> (in degrees) for the slices. Defaults to 0 (i.e., ‘3 o’clock’) unless clockwise is true where init.angle defaults to 90 (degrees), (i.e., ‘12 o’clock’).
density	the density of shading lines, in lines per inch. The default value of NULL means that no shading lines are drawn. Non-positive values of density also inhibit the drawing of shading lines.
angle	the slope of shading lines, given as an angle in degrees (counter-clockwise).
col	a vector of colors to be used in filling or shading the slices. If missing a set of 6 pastel colours is used, unless density is specified when <code>par("fg")</code> is used.
border, lty	(possibly vectors) arguments passed to polygon which draws each slice.
main	an overall title for the plot.
...	graphical parameters can be given as arguments to pie. They will affect the main title and labels only.

Note

Pie charts are a very bad way of displaying information. The eye is good at judging linear measures and bad at judging relative areas. A bar chart or dot chart is a preferable way of displaying this type of data.

Cleveland (1985), page 264: "Data that can be shown by pie charts always can be shown by a dot chart. This means that judgements of position along a common scale can be made instead of the less accurate angle judgements." This statement is based on the empirical investigations of Cleveland and McGill as well as investigations by perceptual psychologists.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Cleveland, W. S. (1985) *The Elements of Graphing Data*. Wadsworth: Monterey, CA, USA.

See Also

[dotchart](#).

Examples

```
require(grDevices)
pie(rep(1, 24), col = rainbow(24), radius = 0.9)

pie.sales <- c(0.12, 0.3, 0.26, 0.16, 0.04, 0.12)
names(pie.sales) <- c("Blueberry", "Cherry",
  "Apple", "Boston Cream", "Other", "Vanilla Cream")
pie(pie.sales) # default colours
pie(pie.sales, col = c("purple", "violetred1", "green3",
  "cornsilk", "cyan", "white"))
pie(pie.sales, col = gray(seq(0.4, 1.0, length = 6)))
pie(pie.sales, density = 10, angle = 15 + 10 * 1:6)
pie(pie.sales, clockwise = TRUE, main = "pie(*, clockwise = TRUE)")
segments(0, 0, 0, 1, col = "red", lwd = 2)
text(0, 1, "init.angle = 90", col = "red")

n <- 200
pie(rep(1, n), labels = "", col = rainbow(n), border = NA,
  main = "pie(*, labels=\"\", col=rainbow(n), border=NA,..)")

## Another case showing pie() is rather fun than science:
## (original by FinalBackwardsGlance on http://imgur.com/gallery/wWrpU4X)
pie(c(Sky = 78, "Sunny side of pyramid" = 17, "Shady side of pyramid" = 5),
  init.angle = 315, col = c("deepskyblue", "yellow", "yellow3"), border = FALSE)
```

Description

Generic function for plotting of R objects. For more details about the graphical parameter arguments, see [par](#).

For simple scatter plots, [plot.default](#) will be used. However, there are plot methods for many R objects, including [functions](#), [data.frames](#), [density](#) objects, etc. Use `methods(plot)` and the documentation for these.

Usage

```
plot(x, y, ...)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|------|---|
| x | the coordinates of points in the plot. Alternatively, a single plotting structure, function or <i>any R object with a plot method</i> can be provided. |
| y | the y coordinates of points in the plot, <i>optional</i> if x is an appropriate structure. |
| ... | Arguments to be passed to methods, such as graphical parameters (see par). Many methods will accept the following arguments: |
| type | <p>what type of plot should be drawn. Possible types are</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "p" for points, • "l" for lines, • "b" for both, • "c" for the lines part alone of "b", • "o" for both 'overplotted', • "h" for 'histogram' like (or 'high-density') vertical lines, • "s" for stair steps, • "S" for other steps, see 'Details' below, • "n" for no plotting. <p>All other types give a warning or an error; using, e.g., <code>type = "punkte"</code> being equivalent to <code>type = "p"</code> for S compatibility. Note that some methods, e.g. plot.factor, do not accept this.</p> |
| main | an overall title for the plot: see title . |
| sub | a sub title for the plot: see title . |
| xlab | a title for the x axis: see title . |
| ylab | a title for the y axis: see title . |
| asp | the y/x aspect ratio, see plot.window . |

Details

The two step types differ in their x-y preference: Going from (x_1, y_1) to (x_2, y_2) with $x_1 < x_2$, `type = "s"` moves first horizontal, then vertical, whereas `type = "S"` moves the other way around.

See Also

[plot.default](#), [plot.formula](#) and other methods; [points](#), [lines](#), [par](#). For thousands of points, consider using [smoothScatter\(\)](#) instead of [plot\(\)](#).

For X-Y-Z plotting see [contour](#), [persp](#) and [image](#).

Examples

```
require(stats) # for lowess, rpois, rnorm
plot(cars)
lines(lowess(cars))

plot(sin, -pi, 2*pi) # see ?plot.function

## Discrete Distribution Plot:
plot(table(rpois(100, 5)), type = "h", col = "red", lwd = 10,
      main = "rpois(100, lambda = 5)")

## Simple quantiles/ECDF, see ecdf() {library(stats)} for a better one:
plot(x <- sort(rnorm(47)), type = "s", main = "plot(x, type = \"s\")")
points(x, cex = .5, col = "dark red")
```

plot.data.frame

Plot Method for Data Frames

Description

`plot.data.frame`, a method for the [plot](#) generic. It is designed for a quick look at numeric data frames.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
plot(x, ...)
```

Arguments

`x` object of class `data.frame`.
`...` further arguments to [stripchart](#), [plot.default](#) or [pairs](#).

Details

This is intended for data frames with *numeric* columns. For more than two columns it first calls [data.matrix](#) to convert the data frame to a numeric matrix and then calls [pairs](#) to produce a scatterplot matrix). This can fail and may well be inappropriate: for example numerical conversion of dates will lose their special meaning and a warning will be given.

For a two-column data frame it plots the second column against the first by the most appropriate method for the first column.

For a single numeric column it uses [stripchart](#), and for other single-column data frames tries to find a plot method for the single column.

See Also

[data.frame](#)

Examples

```
plot(OrchardSprays[1], method = "jitter")
plot(OrchardSprays[c(4,1)])
plot(OrchardSprays)

plot(iris)
plot(iris[5:4])
plot(women)
```

plot.default	<i>The Default Scatterplot Function</i>
--------------	---

Description

Draw a scatter plot with decorations such as axes and titles in the active graphics window.

Usage

```
## Default S3 method:
plot(x, y = NULL, type = "p", xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL,
     log = "", main = NULL, sub = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
     ann = par("ann"), axes = TRUE, frame.plot = axes,
     panel.first = NULL, panel.last = NULL, asp = NA, ...)
```

Arguments

x, y	the x and y arguments provide the x and y coordinates for the plot. Any reasonable way of defining the coordinates is acceptable. See the function xy.coords for details. If supplied separately, they must be of the same length.
type	1-character string giving the type of plot desired. The following values are possible, for details, see plot : "p" for points, "l" for lines, "b" for both points and lines, "c" for empty points joined by lines, "o" for overplotted points and lines, "s" and "S" for stair steps and "h" for histogram-like vertical lines. Finally, "n" does not produce any points or lines.
xlim	the x limits (x1, x2) of the plot. Note that x1 > x2 is allowed and leads to a 'reversed axis'. The default value, NULL, indicates that the range of the finite values to be plotted should be used.
ylim	the y limits of the plot.
log	a character string which contains "x" if the x axis is to be logarithmic, "y" if the y axis is to be logarithmic and "xy" or "yx" if both axes are to be logarithmic.
main	a main title for the plot, see also title .

sub	a sub title for the plot.
xlab	a label for the x axis, defaults to a description of x.
ylab	a label for the y axis, defaults to a description of y.
ann	a logical value indicating whether the default annotation (title and x and y axis labels) should appear on the plot.
axes	a logical value indicating whether both axes should be drawn on the plot. Use graphical parameter "xaxt" or "yaxt" to suppress just one of the axes.
frame.plot	a logical indicating whether a box should be drawn around the plot.
panel.first	an 'expression' to be evaluated after the plot axes are set up but before any plotting takes place. This can be useful for drawing background grids or scatterplot smooths. Note that this works by lazy evaluation: passing this argument from other plot methods may well not work since it may be evaluated too early.
panel.last	an expression to be evaluated after plotting has taken place but before the axes, title and box are added. See the comments about panel.first.
asp	the y/x aspect ratio, see plot.window .
...	other graphical parameters (see par and section 'Details' below).

Details

Commonly used [graphical parameters](#) are:

- col The colors for lines and points. Multiple colors can be specified so that each point can be given its own color. If there are fewer colors than points they are recycled in the standard fashion. Lines will all be plotted in the first colour specified.
- bg a vector of background colors for open plot symbols, see [points](#). Note: this is **not** the same setting as [par](#)("bg").
- pch a vector of plotting characters or symbols: see [points](#).
- cex a numerical vector giving the amount by which plotting characters and symbols should be scaled relative to the default. This works as a multiple of [par](#)("cex"). NULL and NA are equivalent to 1.0. Note that this does not affect annotation: see below.
- lty a vector of line types, see [par](#).
- cex.main, col.lab, font.sub, **etc** settings for main- and sub-title and axis annotation, see [title](#) and [par](#).
- lwd a vector of line widths, see [par](#).

Note

The presence of panel.first and panel.last is a historical anomaly: default plots do not have 'panels', unlike e.g. [pairs](#) plots. For more control, use lower-level plotting functions: plot.default calls in turn some of [plot.new](#), [plot.window](#), [plot.xy](#), [axis](#), [box](#) and [title](#), and plots can be built up by calling these individually, or by calling `plot(type = "n")` and adding further elements.

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Cleveland, W. S. (1985) *The Elements of Graphing Data*. Monterey, CA: Wadsworth.
- Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[plot](#), [plot.window](#), [xy.coords](#). For thousands of points, consider using [smoothScatter](#) instead.

Examples

```
Speed <- cars$speed
Distance <- cars$dist
plot(Speed, Distance, panel.first = grid(8, 8),
     pch = 0, cex = 1.2, col = "blue")
plot(Speed, Distance,
     panel.first = lines(stats::lowess(Speed, Distance), lty = "dashed"),
     pch = 0, cex = 1.2, col = "blue")

## Show the different plot types
x <- 0:12
y <- sin(pi/5 * x)
op <- par(mfrow = c(3,3), mar = .1+ c(2,2,3,1))
for (tp in c("p","l","b", "c","o","h", "s","S","n")) {
  plot(y ~ x, type = tp, main = paste0("plot(*, type = \"", tp, "\"))")
  if(tp == "S") {
    lines(x, y, type = "s", col = "red", lty = 2)
    mtext("lines(*, type = \"s\", ...)", col = "red", cex = 0.8)
  }
}
par(op)

##--- Log-Log Plot with custom axes
lx <- seq(1, 5, length = 41)
yl <- expression(e^{frac(1,2) * {log[10](x)}^2})
y <- exp(-.5*lx^2)
op <- par(mfrow = c(2,1), mar = par("mar")+c(0,1,0,0))
plot(10^lx, y, log = "xy", type = "l", col = "purple",
     main = "Log-Log plot", ylab = yl, xlab = "x")
plot(10^lx, y, log = "xy", type = "o", pch = ".", col = "forestgreen",
     main = "Log-Log plot with custom axes", ylab = yl, xlab = "x",
     axes = FALSE, frame.plot = TRUE)
my.at <- 10^(1:5)
axis(1, at = my.at, labels = formatC(my.at, format = "fg"))
at.y <- 10^(-5:-1)
axis(2, at = at.y, labels = formatC(at.y, format = "fg"), col.axis = "red")
par(op)
```

Description

Plot univariate effects of one or more [factors](#), typically for a designed experiment as analyzed by [aov\(\)](#).

Usage

```
plot.design(x, y = NULL, fun = mean, data = NULL, ...,
            ylim = NULL, xlab = "Factors", ylab = NULL,
            main = NULL, ask = NULL, xaxt = par("xaxt"),
            axes = TRUE, xtick = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	either a data frame containing the design factors and optionally the response, or a formula or terms object.
y	the response, if not given in x.
fun	a function (or name of one) to be applied to each subset. It must return one number for a numeric (vector) input.
data	data frame containing the variables referenced by x when that is formula-like.
...	graphical parameters such as col , see par .
ylim	range of y values, as in plot.default .
xlab	x axis label, see title .
ylab	y axis label with a ‘smart’ default.
main	main title, see title .
ask	logical indicating if the user should be asked before a new page is started – in the case of multiple y’s.
xaxt	character giving the type of x axis.
axes	logical indicating if axes should be drawn.
xtick	logical indicating if ticks (one per factor) should be drawn on the x axis.

Details

The supplied function will be called once for each level of each factor in the design and the plot will show these summary values. The levels of a particular factor are shown along a vertical line, and the overall value of `fun()` for the response is drawn as a horizontal line.

Note

A big effort was taken to make this closely compatible to the S version. However, `col` (and `fg`) specifications have different effects.

In S this was a method of the [plot](#) generic function for design objects.

Author(s)

Roberto Frisullo and Martin Maechler

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. eds (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Chapman & Hall, London, **the white book**, pp. 546–7 (and 163–4).

Freeny, A. E. and Landwehr, J. M. (1990) Displays for data from large designed experiments; Computer Science and Statistics: Proc.\ 22nd Symp\ Interface, 117–126, Springer Verlag.

See Also

[interaction.plot](#) for a ‘standard graphic’ of designed experiments.

Examples

```
require(stats)
plot.design(warpbreaks) # automatic for data frame with one numeric var.

Form <- breaks ~ wool + tension
summary(fm1 <- aov(Form, data = warpbreaks))
plot.design(      Form, data = warpbreaks, col = 2) # same as above

## More than one y :
utils::str(esoph)
plot.design(esoph) ## two plots; if interactive you are "ask"ed

## or rather, compare mean and median:
op <- par(mfcol = 1:2)
plot.design(ncases/ncontrols ~ ., data = esoph, ylim = c(0, 0.8))
plot.design(ncases/ncontrols ~ ., data = esoph, ylim = c(0, 0.8),
            fun = median)
par(op)
```

plot.factor

Plotting Factor Variables

Description

This functions implements a scatterplot method for [factor](#) arguments of the *generic plot* function.

If y is missing [barplot](#) is produced. For numeric y a [boxplot](#) is used, and for a factor y a [spineplot](#) is shown. For any other type of y the next plot method is called, normally [plot.default](#).

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'factor'
plot(x, y, legend.text = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	numeric or factor. <code>y</code> may be missing.
<code>legend.text</code>	character vector for annotation of <code>y</code> axis in the case of a factor <code>y</code> : defaults to <code>levels(y)</code> . This sets the <code>yaxlabels</code> argument of spineplot .
<code>...</code>	Further arguments to barplot , boxplot , spineplot or plot as appropriate. All of these accept graphical parameters (see par) and annotation arguments passed to title and <code>axes = FALSE</code> . None accept type.

See Also

[plot.default](#), [plot.formula](#), [barplot](#), [boxplot](#), [spineplot](#).

Examples

```
require(grDevices)

plot(weight ~ group, data = PlantGrowth)           # numeric vector ~ factor
plot(cut(weight, 2) ~ group, data = PlantGrowth)   # factor ~ factor
## passing "..." to spineplot() eventually:
plot(cut(weight, 3) ~ group, data = PlantGrowth,
     col = hcl(c(0, 120, 240), 50, 70))

plot(PlantGrowth$group, axes = FALSE, main = "no axes") # extremely silly
```

plot.formula	<i>Formula Notation for Scatterplots</i>
--------------	--

Description

Specify a scatterplot or add points, lines, or text via a formula.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'formula'
plot(formula, data = parent.frame(), ..., subset,
     ylab = varnames[response], ask = dev.interactive())

## S3 method for class 'formula'
points(formula, data = parent.frame(), ..., subset)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
lines(formula, data = parent.frame(), ..., subset)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
text(formula, data = parent.frame(), ..., subset)
```

Arguments

formula	a formula , such as $y \sim x$.
data	a data.frame (or list) from which the variables in formula should be taken. A matrix is converted to a data frame.
...	Arguments to be passed to or from other methods. <code>horizontal = TRUE</code> is also accepted.
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used in the fitting process.
ylab	the y label of the plot(s).
ask	logical, see par .

Details

For the lines, points and text methods the formula should be of the form $y \sim x$ or $y \sim 1$ with a left-hand side and a single term on the right-hand side. The plot method accepts other forms discussed later in this section.

Both the terms in the formula and the ... arguments are evaluated in `data` enclosed in `parent.frame()` if data is a list or a data frame. The terms of the formula and those arguments in ... that are of the same length as data are subjected to the subsetting specified in subset. A plot against the running index can be specified as `plot(y ~ 1)`.

If the formula in the plot method contains more than one term on the right-hand side, a series of plots is produced of the response against each non-response term.

For the plot method the formula can be of the form $\sim z + y + z$: the variables specified on the right-hand side are collected into a data frame, subsetting if specified, and displayed by [plot.data.frame](#).

Missing values are not considered in these methods, and in particular cases with missing values are not removed.

If y is an object (i.e., has a [class](#) attribute) then `plot.formula` looks for a plot method for that class first. Otherwise, the class of x will determine the type of the plot. For factors this will be a parallel boxplot, and argument `horizontal = TRUE` can be specified (see [boxplot](#)).

Note that some arguments will need to be protected from premature evaluation by enclosing them in [quote](#): currently this is done automatically for main, sub and xlab. For example, it is needed for the `panel.first` and `panel.last` arguments passed to [plot.default](#).

Value

These functions are invoked for their side effect of drawing on the active graphics device.

See Also

[plot.default](#), [points](#), [lines](#), [plot.factor](#).

Examples

```
op <- par(mfrow = c(2,1))
plot(Ozone ~ Wind, data = airquality, pch = as.character(Month))
plot(Ozone ~ Wind, data = airquality, pch = as.character(Month),
     subset = Month != 7)
par(op)

## text.formula() can be very natural:
wb <- within(warpbreaks, {
  time <- seq_along(breaks); W.T <- wool:tension })
plot(breaks ~ time, data = wb, type = "b")
text(breaks ~ time, data = wb, label = W.T, col = 1+as.integer(wool))
```

plot.histogram

Plot Histograms

Description

These are methods for objects of class "histogram", typically produced by [hist](#).

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'histogram'
plot(x, freq = equidist, density = NULL, angle = 45,
     col = NULL, border = par("fg"), lty = NULL,
     main = paste("Histogram of",
                  paste(x$name, collapse = "\n")),
     sub = NULL, xlab = x$name, ylab,
     xlim = range(x$breaks), ylim = NULL,
     axes = TRUE, labels = FALSE, add = FALSE,
     ann = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'histogram'
lines(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a histogram object, or a list with components density, mid, etc, see hist for information about the components of x.
freq	logical; if TRUE, the histogram graphic is to present a representation of frequencies, i.e. x\$counts; if FALSE, <i>relative</i> frequencies (probabilities), i.e., x\$density, are plotted. The default is true for equidistant breaks and false otherwise.
col	a colour to be used to fill the bars. The default of NULL yields unfilled bars.
border	the color of the border around the bars.
angle, density	select shading of bars by lines: see rect .

lty	the line type used for the bars, see also lines .
main, sub, xlab, ylab	these arguments to title have useful defaults here.
xlim, ylim	the range of x and y values with sensible defaults.
axes	logical, indicating if axes should be drawn.
labels	logical or character. Additionally draw labels on top of bars, if not FALSE; if TRUE, draw the counts or rounded densities; if labels is a character, draw itself.
add	logical. If TRUE, only the bars are added to the current plot. This is what <code>lines.histogram(*)</code> does.
ann	logical. Should annotations (titles and axis titles) be plotted?
...	further graphical parameters to title and axis.

Details

`lines.histogram(*)` is the same as `plot.histogram(*, add = TRUE)`.

See Also

[hist](#), [stem](#), [density](#).

Examples

```
(wwt <- hist(women$weight, nclass = 7, plot = FALSE))
plot(wwt, labels = TRUE) # default main & xlab using wwt$xname
plot(wwt, border = "dark blue", col = "light blue",
     main = "Histogram of 15 women's weights", xlab = "weight [pounds]")

## Fake "lines" example, using non-default labels:
w2 <- wwt; w2$counts <- w2$counts - 1
lines(w2, col = "Midnight Blue", labels = ifelse(w2$counts, "> 1", "1"))
```

plot.raster

Plotting Raster Images

Description

This functions implements a [plot](#) method for raster images.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'raster'
plot(x, y,
     xlim = c(0, ncol(x)), ylim = c(0, nrow(x)),
     xaxs = "i", yaxs = "i",
     asp = 1, add = FALSE, ...)
```


Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	raster. <code>y</code> will be ignored.
<code>xlim, ylim</code>	Limits on the plot region (default from dimensions of the raster).
<code>xaxis, yaxis</code>	Axis interval calculation style (default means that raster fills plot region).
<code>asp</code>	Aspect ratio (default retains aspect ratio of the raster).
<code>add</code>	Logical indicating whether to simply add raster to an existing plot.
<code>...</code>	Further arguments to the rasterImage function.

See Also

[plot.default](#), [rasterImage](#).

Examples

```
require(grDevices)
r <- as.raster(c(0.5, 1, 0.5))
plot(r)
# additional arguments to rasterImage()
plot(r, interpolate=FALSE)
# distort
plot(r, asp=NA)
# fill page
op <- par(mar=rep(0, 4))
plot(r, asp=NA)
par(op)
# normal annotations work
plot(r, asp=NA)
box()
title(main="This is my raster")
# add to existing plot
plot(1)
plot(r, add=TRUE)
```

plot.table

Plot Methods for table Objects

Description

This is a method of the generic plot function for (contingency) [table](#) objects. Whereas for two- and more dimensional tables, a [mosaicplot](#) is drawn, one-dimensional ones are plotted as bars.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'table'
plot(x, type = "h", ylim = c(0, max(x)), lwd = 2,
      xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, frame.plot = is.num, ...)
## S3 method for class 'table'
```

```
points(x, y = NULL, type = "h", lwd = 2, ...)
## S3 method for class 'table'
lines(x, y = NULL, type = "h", lwd = 2, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a table (like) object.
y	Must be NULL: there to protect against incorrect calls.
type	plotting type.
ylim	range of y-axis.
lwd	line width for bars when type = "h" is used in the 1D case.
xlab, ylab	x- and y-axis labels.
frame.plot	logical indicating if a frame (box) should be drawn in the 1D case. Defaults to true when x has dimnames coerce-able to numbers.
...	further graphical arguments, see plot.default . axes = FALSE is accepted.

See Also

[plot.factor](#), the [plot](#) method for factors.

Examples

```
## 1-d tables
(Poiss.tab <- table(N = stats::rpois(200, lambda = 5)))
plot(Poiss.tab, main = "plot(table(rpois(200, lambda = 5)))")

plot(table(state.division))

## 4-D :
plot(Titanic, main = "plot(Titanic, main= *)")
```

plot.window

Set up World Coordinates for Graphics Window

Description

This function sets up the world coordinate system for a graphics window. It is called by higher level functions such as [plot.default](#) (after [plot.new](#)).

Usage

```
plot.window(xlim, ylim, log = "", asp = NA, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>xlim, ylim</code>	numeric vectors of length 2, giving the x and y coordinates ranges.
<code>log</code>	character; indicating which axes should be in log scale.
<code>asp</code>	numeric, giving the aspect ratio y/x, see ‘Details’.
<code>...</code>	further graphical parameters as in <code>par</code> . The relevant ones are <code>xaxs</code> , <code>yaxs</code> and <code>lab</code> .

Details

asp: If `asp` is a finite positive value then the window is set up so that one data unit in the x direction is equal in length to $\text{asp} \times$ one data unit in the y direction.

Note that in this case, `par("usr")` is no longer determined by, e.g., `par("xaxs")`, but rather by `asp` and the device’s aspect ratio. (See what happens if you interactively resize the plot device after running the example below!)

The special case `asp == 1` produces plots where distances between points are represented accurately on screen. Values with `asp > 1` can be used to produce more accurate maps when using latitude and longitude.

Note that the coordinate ranges will be extended by 4% if the appropriate [graphical parameter](#) `xaxs` or `yaxs` has value `"r"` (which is the default).

To reverse an axis, use `xlim` or `ylim` of the form `c(hi, lo)`.

The function attempts to produce a plausible set of scales if one or both of `xlim` and `ylim` is of length one or the two values given are identical, but it is better to avoid that case.

Usually, one should rather use the higher-level functions such as [plot](#), [hist](#), [image](#), ..., instead and refer to their help pages for explanation of the arguments.

A side-effect of the call is to set up the `usr`, `xaxp` and `yaxp` [graphical parameters](#). (It is for the latter two that `lab` is used.)

See Also

[xy.coords](#), [plot.xy](#), [plot.default](#).

[par](#) for the graphical parameters mentioned.

Examples

```
##--- An example for the use of 'asp' :
require(stats) # normally loaded
loc <- cmdscale(eurodist)
rx <- range(x <- loc[,1])
ry <- range(y <- -loc[,2])
plot(x, y, type = "n", asp = 1, xlab = "", ylab = "")
abline(h = pretty(rx, 10), v = pretty(ry, 10), col = "lightgray")
text(x, y, labels(eurodist), cex = 0.8)
```

Description

This is *the* internal function that does the basic plotting of points and lines. Usually, one should rather use the higher level functions instead and refer to their help pages for explanation of the arguments.

Usage

```
plot.xy(xy, type, pch = par("pch"), lty = par("lty"),
        col = par("col"), bg = NA,
        cex = 1, lwd = par("lwd"), ...)
```

Arguments

xy	A four-element list as results from xy.coords .
type	1 character code: see plot.default . NULL is accepted as a synonym for "p".
pch	character or integer code for kind of points, see points.default .
lty	line type code, see lines .
col	color code or name, see colors , palette . Here NULL means colour 0.
bg	background (fill) color for the open plot symbols 21:25: see points.default .
cex	character expansion.
lwd	line width, also used for (non-filled) plot symbols, see lines and points .
...	further graphical parameters such as xpd, lend, ljoin and lmitre.

Details

The arguments pch, col, bg, cex, lwd may be vectors and may be recycled, depending on type: see [points](#) and [lines](#) for specifics. In particular note that lwd is treated as a vector for points and as a single (first) value for lines.

cex is a numeric factor in addition to par("cex") which affects symbols and characters as drawn by type "p", "o", "b" and "c".

See Also

[plot](#), [plot.default](#), [points](#), [lines](#).

Examples

```
points.default # to see how it calls "plot.xy(xy.coords(x, y), ...)"
```

points

*Add Points to a Plot***Description**

`points` is a generic function to draw a sequence of points at the specified coordinates. The specified character(s) are plotted, centered at the coordinates.

Usage

```
points(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
points(x, y = NULL, type = "p", ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code> , <code>y</code>	coordinate vectors of points to plot.
<code>type</code>	character indicating the type of plotting; actually any of the types as in plot.default .
<code>...</code>	Further graphical parameters may also be supplied as arguments. See ‘Details’.

Details

The coordinates can be passed in a plotting structure (a list with `x` and `y` components), a two-column matrix, a time series, See [xy.coords](#). If supplied separately, they must be of the same length.

Graphical parameters commonly used are

`pch` plotting ‘character’, i.e., symbol to use. This can either be a single character or an integer code for one of a set of graphics symbols. The full set of S symbols is available with `pch = 0:18`, see the examples below. (NB: R uses circles instead of the octagons used in S.)

Value `pch = "."` (equivalently `pch = 46`) is handled specially. It is a rectangle of side 0.01 inch (scaled by `cex`). In addition, if `cex = 1` (the default), each side is at least one pixel (1/72 inch on the [pdf](#), [postscript](#) and [xfig](#) devices).

For other text symbols, `cex = 1` corresponds to the default fontsize of the device, often specified by an argument `pointsize`. For `pch` in `0:25` the default size is about 75% of the character height (see `par("cin")`).

`col` color code or name, see [par](#).

`bg` background (fill) color for the open plot symbols given by `pch = 21:25`.

`cex` character (or symbol) expansion: a numerical vector. This works as a multiple of `par("cex")`.

`lwd` line width for drawing symbols see [par](#).

Others less commonly used are `lty` and `lwd` for types such as `"b"` and `"l"`.

The [graphical parameters](#) `pch`, `col`, `bg`, `cex` and `lwd` can be vectors (which will be recycled as needed) giving a value for each point plotted. If lines are to be plotted (e.g., for `type = "b"`) the first element of `lwd` is used.

Points whose `x`, `y`, `pch`, `col` or `cex` value is `NA` are omitted from the plot.

'pch' values

Values of pch are stored internally as integers. The interpretation is

- NA_integer_: no symbol.
- 0:18: S-compatible vector symbols.
- 19:25: further R vector symbols.
- 26:31: unused (and ignored).
- 32:127: ASCII characters.
- 128:255 native characters *only in a single-byte locale and for the symbol font*. (128:159 are only used on Windows.)
- -32 ... Unicode code point (where supported).

Note that unlike S (which uses octagons), symbols 1, 10, 13 and 16 use circles. The filled shapes 15:18 do not include a border.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
□	○	△	+	×	◇	▽	⊠	⊛	⊞	⊟	⊠	⊞	⊟	⊠	■	●	▲	◆	●	●	●	■	◆	▲	▼

The following R plotting symbols can be obtained with pch = 19:25: those with 21:25 can be colored and filled with different colors: col gives the border color and bg the background color (which is "grey" in the figure)

- pch = 19: solid circle,
- pch = 20: bullet (smaller solid circle, 2/3 the size of 19),
- pch = 21: filled circle,
- pch = 22: filled square,
- pch = 23: filled diamond,
- pch = 24: filled triangle point-up,
- pch = 25: filled triangle point down.

Note that all of these both fill the shape and draw a border. Some care in interpretation is needed when semi-transparent colours are used for both fill and border (and the result might be device-specific and even viewer-specific for [pdf](#)).

The difference between pch = 16 and pch = 19 is that the latter uses a border and so is perceptibly larger when lwd is large relative to cex.

Values pch = 26:31 are currently unused and pch = 32:127 give the ASCII characters. In a single-byte locale pch = 128:255 give the corresponding character (if any) in the locale's character set. Where supported by the OS, negative values specify a Unicode code point, so e.g. -0x2642L is a 'male sign' and -0x20ACL is the Euro.

A character string consisting of a single character is converted to an integer: 32:127 for ASCII characters, and usually to the Unicode code point otherwise. (In non-Latin-1 single-byte locales, 128:255 will be used for 8-bit characters.)

If pch supplied is a logical, integer or character NA or an empty character string the point is omitted from the plot.

If pch is NULL or otherwise of length 0, `par("pch")` is used.

If the symbol font (`par(font = 5)`) is used, numerical values should be used for pch: the range is `c(32:126, 160:254)` in all locales (but 240 is not defined (used for ‘apple’ on OS X) and 160, Euro, may not be present).

Note

A single-byte encoding may include the characters in `pch = 128:255`, and if it does, a font may not include all (or even any) of them.

Not all negative numbers are valid as Unicode code points, and no check is done. A display device is likely to use a rectangle for (or omit) Unicode code points which are invalid or for which it does not have a glyph in the font used.

What happens for very small or zero values of `cex` is device-dependent: symbols or characters may become invisible or they may be plotted at a fixed minimum size. Circles of zero radius will not be plotted.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`points.formula` for the formula method; `plot`, `lines`, and the underlying workhorse function `plot.xy`.

Examples

```
require(stats) # for rnorm
plot(-4:4, -4:4, type = "n") # setting up coord. system
points(rnorm(200), rnorm(200), col = "red")
points(rnorm(100)/2, rnorm(100)/2, col = "blue", cex = 1.5)

op <- par(bg = "light blue")
x <- seq(0, 2*pi, len = 51)
## something "between type='b' and type='o'":
plot(x, sin(x), type = "o", pch = 21, bg = par("bg"), col = "blue", cex = .6,
     main = 'plot(..., type="o", pch=21, bg=par("bg"))')
par(op)

## Not run:
## The figure was produced by calls like
png("pch.png", height = 0.7, width = 7, res = 100, units = "in")
par(mar = rep(0,4))
plot(c(-1, 26), 0:1, type = "n", axes = FALSE)
text(0:25, 0.6, 0:25, cex = 0.5)
points(0:25, rep(0.3, 26), pch = 0:25, bg = "grey")
```

```

## End(Not run)

##----- Showing all the extra & some char graphics symbols -----
pchShow <-
  function(extras = c("*", ".", "o", "O", "0", "+", "-", "|", "%", "#"),
           cex = 3, ## good for both .Device=="postscript" and "x11"
           col = "red3", bg = "gold", coltext = "brown", cextext = 1.2,
           main = paste("plot symbols : points (... pch = *, cex =",
                        cex,")"))
  {
    nex <- length(extras)
    np <- 26 + nex
    ipch <- 0:(np-1)
    k <- floor(sqrt(np))
    dd <- c(-1,1)/2
    rx <- dd + range(ix <- ipch %% k)
    ry <- dd + range(iy <- 3 + (k-1)- ipch %% k)
    pch <- as.list(ipch) # list with integers & strings
    if(nex > 0) pch[26+ 1:nex] <- as.list(extras)
    plot(rx, ry, type = "n", axes = FALSE, xlab = "", ylab = "", main = main)
    abline(v = ix, h = iy, col = "lightgray", lty = "dotted")
    for(i in 1:np) {
      pc <- pch[[i]]
      ## 'col' symbols with a 'bg'-colored interior (where available) :
      points(ix[i], iy[i], pch = pc, col = col, bg = bg, cex = cex)
      if(cextext > 0)
        text(ix[i] - 0.3, iy[i], pc, col = coltext, cex = cextext)
    }
  }

pchShow()
pchShow(c("o", "O", "0"), cex = 2.5)
pchShow(NULL, cex = 4, cextext = 0, main = NULL)

## ----- test code for various pch specifications -----
# Try this in various font families (including Hershey)
# and locales. Use sign = -1 asserts we want Latin-1.
# Standard cases in a MBCS locale will not plot the top half.
TestChars <- function(sign = 1, font = 1, ...)
{
  MB <- l10n_info()$MBCS
  r <- if(font == 5) { sign <- 1; c(32:126, 160:254)
    } else if(MB) 32:126 else 32:255
  if (sign == -1) r <- c(32:126, 160:255)
  par(pty = "s")
  plot(c(-1,16), c(-1,16), type = "n", xlab = "", ylab = "",
       xaxs = "i", yaxs = "i",
       main = sprintf("sign = %d, font = %d", sign, font))
  grid(17, 17, lty = 1) ; mtext(paste("MBCS:", MB))
  for(i in r) try(points(i%%16, i/%16, pch = sign*i, font = font,...))
}
TestChars()

```



```
try(TestChars(sign = -1))
TestChars(font = 5) # Euro might be at 160 (0+10*16).
                    # Mac OS has apple at 240 (0+15*16).
try(TestChars(-1, font = 2)) # bold
```

polygon

Polygon Drawing

Description

`polygon` draws the polygons whose vertices are given in `x` and `y`.

Usage

```
polygon(x, y = NULL, density = NULL, angle = 45,
        border = NULL, col = NA, lty = par("lty"),
        ..., fillOddEven = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	vectors containing the coordinates of the vertices of the polygon.
<code>density</code>	the density of shading lines, in lines per inch. The default value of <code>NULL</code> means that no shading lines are drawn. A zero value of <code>density</code> means no shading nor filling whereas negative values and <code>NA</code> suppress shading (and so allow color filling).
<code>angle</code>	the slope of shading lines, given as an angle in degrees (counter-clockwise).
<code>col</code>	the color for filling the polygon. The default, <code>NA</code> , is to leave polygons unfilled, unless <code>density</code> is specified. (For back-compatibility, <code>NULL</code> is equivalent to <code>NA</code> .) If <code>density</code> is specified with a positive value this gives the color of the shading lines.
<code>border</code>	the color to draw the border. The default, <code>NULL</code> , means to use <code>par("fg")</code> . Use <code>border = NA</code> to omit borders. For compatibility with <code>S</code> , <code>border</code> can also be logical, in which case <code>FALSE</code> is equivalent to <code>NA</code> (borders omitted) and <code>TRUE</code> is equivalent to <code>NULL</code> (use the foreground colour),
<code>lty</code>	the line type to be used, as in <code>par</code> .
<code>...</code>	graphical parameters such as <code>xpd</code> , <code>lend</code> , <code>ljoin</code> and <code>lmitre</code> can be given as arguments.
<code>fillOddEven</code>	logical controlling the polygon shading mode: see below for details. Default <code>FALSE</code> .

Details

The coordinates can be passed in a plotting structure (a list with x and y components), a two-column matrix, See [xy.coords](#).

It is assumed that the polygon is to be closed by joining the last point to the first point.

The coordinates can contain missing values. The behaviour is similar to that of [lines](#), except that instead of breaking a line into several lines, NA values break the polygon into several complete polygons (including closing the last point to the first point). See the examples below.

When multiple polygons are produced, the values of density, angle, col, border, and lty are recycled in the usual manner.

Shading of polygons is only implemented for linear plots: if either axis is on log scale then shading is omitted, with a warning.

Bugs

Self-intersecting polygons may be filled using either the “odd-even” or “non-zero” rule. These fill a region if the polygon border encircles it an odd or non-zero number of times, respectively. Shading lines are handled internally by R according to the `fillOddEven` argument, but device-based solid fills depend on the graphics device. The windows, [pdf](#) and [postscript](#) devices have their own `fillOddEven` argument to control this.

Author(s)

The code implementing polygon shading was donated by Kevin Buhr <buhr@stat.wisc.edu>.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[segments](#) for even more flexibility, [lines](#), [rect](#), [box](#), [abline](#).

[par](#) for how to specify colors.

Examples

```
x <- c(1:9, 8:1)
y <- c(1, 2*(5:3), 2, -1, 17, 9, 8, 2:9)
op <- par(mfcol = c(3, 1))
for(xpd in c(FALSE, TRUE, NA)) {
  plot(1:10, main = paste("xpd =", xpd))
  box("figure", col = "pink", lwd = 3)
  polygon(x, y, xpd = xpd, col = "orange", lty = 2, lwd = 2, border = "red")
}
par(op)

n <- 100
```

```

xx <- c(0:n, n:0)
yy <- c(c(0, cumsum(stats::rnorm(n))), rev(c(0, cumsum(stats::rnorm(n)))))
plot (xx, yy, type = "n", xlab = "Time", ylab = "Distance")
polygon(xx, yy, col = "gray", border = "red")
title("Distance Between Brownian Motions")

# Multiple polygons from NA values
# and recycling of col, border, and lty
op <- par(mfrow = c(2, 1))
plot(c(1, 9), 1:2, type = "n")
polygon(1:9, c(2,1,2,1,1,2,1,2,1),
        col = c("red", "blue"),
        border = c("green", "yellow"),
        lwd = 3, lty = c("dashed", "solid"))
plot(c(1, 9), 1:2, type = "n")
polygon(1:9, c(2,1,2,1,NA,2,1,2,1),
        col = c("red", "blue"),
        border = c("green", "yellow"),
        lwd = 3, lty = c("dashed", "solid"))
par(op)

# Line-shaded polygons
plot(c(1, 9), 1:2, type = "n")
polygon(1:9, c(2,1,2,1,NA,2,1,2,1),
        density = c(10, 20), angle = c(-45, 45))

```

polypath

Path Drawing

Description

path draws a path whose vertices are given in x and y.

Usage

```

polypath(x, y = NULL,
         border = NULL, col = NA, lty = par("lty"),
         rule = "winding", ...)

```

Arguments

x, y	vectors containing the coordinates of the vertices of the path.
col	the color for filling the path. The default, NA, is to leave paths unfilled, unless density is specified. (For back-compatibility, NULL is equivalent to NA.) If density is specified with a positive value this gives the color of the shading lines.
border	the color to draw the border. The default, NULL, means to use <code>par("fg")</code> . Use <code>border = NA</code> to omit borders.

For compatibility with S, `border` can also be logical, in which case `FALSE` is equivalent to `NA` (borders omitted) and `TRUE` is equivalent to `NULL` (use the foreground colour),

`lty` the line type to be used, as in [par](#).

`rule` character value specifying the path fill mode: either "winding" or "evenodd".

... [graphical parameters](#) such as `xpd`, `lend`, `ljoin` and `lmitre` can be given as arguments.

Details

The coordinates can be passed in a plotting structure (a list with x and y components), a two-column matrix, See [xy.coords](#).

It is assumed that the path is to be closed by joining the last point to the first point.

The coordinates can contain missing values. The behaviour is similar to that of [polygon](#), except that instead of breaking a polygon into several polygons, `NA` values break the path into several sub-paths (including closing the last point to the first point in each sub-path). See the examples below.

The distinction between a path and a polygon is that the former can contain holes, as interpreted by the fill rule; these fill a region if the path border encircles it an odd or non-zero number of times, respectively.

Hatched shading (as implemented for `polygon()`) is not (currently) supported.

Not all graphics devices support this function: for example `xfig` and `pictex` do not.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[segments](#) for even more flexibility, [lines](#), [rect](#), [box](#), [polygon](#).

[par](#) for how to specify colors.

Examples

```
plotPath <- function(x, y, col = "grey", rule = "winding") {
  plot.new()
  plot.window(range(x, na.rm = TRUE), range(y, na.rm = TRUE))
  polypath(x, y, col = col, rule = rule)
  if (!is.na(col))
    mtext(paste("Rule:", rule), side = 1, line = 0)
}

plotRules <- function(x, y, title) {
  plotPath(x, y)
  plotPath(x, y, rule = "evenodd")
  mtext(title, side = 3, line = 0)
```

```

    plotPath(x, y, col = NA)
  }

op <- par(mfrow = c(5, 3), mar = c(2, 1, 1, 1))

plotRules(c(.1, .1, .9, .9, NA, .2, .2, .8, .8),
          c(.1, .9, .9, .1, NA, .2, .8, .8, .2),
          "Nested rectangles, both clockwise")
plotRules(c(.1, .1, .9, .9, NA, .2, .8, .8, .2),
          c(.1, .9, .9, .1, NA, .2, .2, .8, .8),
          "Nested rectangles, outer clockwise, inner anti-clockwise")
plotRules(c(.1, .1, .4, .4, NA, .6, .9, .9, .6),
          c(.1, .4, .4, .1, NA, .6, .6, .9, .9),
          "Disjoint rectangles")
plotRules(c(.1, .1, .6, .6, NA, .4, .4, .9, .9),
          c(.1, .6, .6, .1, NA, .4, .9, .9, .4),
          "Overlapping rectangles, both clockwise")
plotRules(c(.1, .1, .6, .6, NA, .4, .9, .9, .4),
          c(.1, .6, .6, .1, NA, .4, .4, .9, .9),
          "Overlapping rectangles, one clockwise, other anti-clockwise")

par(op)

```

rasterImage

Draw One or More Raster Images

Description

rasterImage draws a raster image at the given locations and sizes.

Usage

```

rasterImage(image,
            xleft, ybottom, xright, ytop,
            angle = 0, interpolate = TRUE, ...)

```

Arguments

image	a raster object, or an object that can be coerced to one by as.raster .
xleft	a vector (or scalar) of left x positions.
ybottom	a vector (or scalar) of bottom y positions.
xright	a vector (or scalar) of right x positions.
ytop	a vector (or scalar) of top y positions.
angle	angle of rotation (in degrees, anti-clockwise from positive x-axis, about the bottom-left corner).
interpolate	a logical vector (or scalar) indicating whether to apply linear interpolation to the image when drawing.
...	graphical parameters .

Details

The positions supplied, i.e., `xleft`, ..., are relative to the current plotting region. If the x-axis goes from 100 to 200 then `xleft` should be larger than 100 and `xright` should be less than 200. The position vectors will be recycled to the length of the longest.

Plotting raster images is not supported on all devices and may have limitations where supported, for example (e.g., for `postscript` and `X11` (`type = "Xlib"`)) is restricted to opaque colors). Problems with the rendering of raster images have been reported by users of `windows()` devices under Remote Desktop, at least under its default settings.

You should not expect a raster image to be re-sized when an on-screen device is re-sized: whether it is is device-dependent.

See Also

[rect](#), [polygon](#), and [segments](#) and others for flexible ways to draw shapes.

[dev.capabilities](#) to see if it is supported.

Examples

```
require(grDevices)
## set up the plot region:
op <- par(bg = "thistle")
plot(c(100, 250), c(300, 450), type = "n", xlab = "", ylab = "")
image <- as.raster(matrix(0:1, ncol = 5, nrow = 3))
rasterImage(image, 100, 300, 150, 350, interpolate = FALSE)
rasterImage(image, 100, 400, 150, 450)
rasterImage(image, 200, 300, 200 + xinch(.5), 300 + yinch(.3),
             interpolate = FALSE)
rasterImage(image, 200, 400, 250, 450, angle = 15, interpolate = FALSE)
par(op)
```

rect

Draw One or More Rectangles

Description

`rect` draws a rectangle (or sequence of rectangles) with the given coordinates, fill and border colors.

Usage

```
rect(xleft, ybottom, xright, ytop, density = NULL, angle = 45,
     col = NA, border = NULL, lty = par("lty"), lwd = par("lwd"),
     ...)
```

Arguments

<code>xleft</code>	a vector (or scalar) of left x positions.
<code>ybottom</code>	a vector (or scalar) of bottom y positions.
<code>xright</code>	a vector (or scalar) of right x positions.
<code>yttop</code>	a vector (or scalar) of top y positions.
<code>density</code>	the density of shading lines, in lines per inch. The default value of <code>NULL</code> means that no shading lines are drawn. A zero value of <code>density</code> means no shading lines whereas negative values (and <code>NA</code>) suppress shading (and so allow color filling).
<code>angle</code>	angle (in degrees) of the shading lines.
<code>col</code>	color(s) to fill or shade the rectangle(s) with. The default <code>NA</code> (or also <code>NULL</code>) means do not fill, i.e., draw transparent rectangles, unless <code>density</code> is specified.
<code>border</code>	color for rectangle border(s). The default means <code>par("fg")</code> . Use <code>border = NA</code> to omit borders. If there are shading lines, <code>border = TRUE</code> means use the same colour for the border as for the shading lines.
<code>lty</code>	line type for borders and shading; defaults to <code>"solid"</code> .
<code>lwd</code>	line width for borders and shading. Note that the use of <code>lwd = 0</code> (as in the examples) is device-dependent.
<code>...</code>	graphical parameters such as <code>xpd</code> , <code>lend</code> , <code>ljoin</code> and <code>lmitre</code> can be given as arguments.

Details

The positions supplied, i.e., `xleft`, ..., are relative to the current plotting region. If the x-axis goes from 100 to 200 then `xleft` must be larger than 100 and `xright` must be less than 200. The position vectors will be recycled to the length of the longest.

It is a graphics primitive used in [hist](#), [barplot](#), [legend](#), etc.

See Also

[box](#) for the standard box around the plot; [polygon](#) and [segments](#) for flexible line drawing.

[par](#) for how to specify colors.

Examples

```
require(grDevices)
## set up the plot region:
op <- par(bg = "thistle")
plot(c(100, 250), c(300, 450), type = "n", xlab = "", ylab = "",
      main = "2 x 11 rectangles; 'rect(100+i,300+i, 150+i,380+i)'" )
i <- 4*(0:10)
## draw rectangles with bottom left (100, 300)+i
## and top right (150, 380)+i
rect(100+i, 300+i, 150+i, 380+i, col = rainbow(11, start = 0.7, end = 0.1))
rect(240-i, 320+i, 250-i, 410+i, col = heat.colors(11), lwd = i/5)
## Background alternating ( transparent / "bg" ) :
j <- 10*(0:5)
```

```

rect(125+j, 360+j, 141+j, 405+j/2, col = c(NA,0),
     border = "gold", lwd = 2)
rect(125+j, 296+j/2, 141+j, 331+j/5, col = c(NA,"midnightblue"))
mtext("+ 2 x 6 rect(*, col = c(NA,0)) and col = c(NA,\"m..blue\")")

## an example showing colouring and shading
plot(c(100, 200), c(300, 450), type= "n", xlab = "", ylab = "")
rect(100, 300, 125, 350) # transparent
rect(100, 400, 125, 450, col = "green", border = "blue") # coloured
rect(115, 375, 150, 425, col = par("bg"), border = "transparent")
rect(150, 300, 175, 350, density = 10, border = "red")
rect(150, 400, 175, 450, density = 30, col = "blue",
     angle = -30, border = "transparent")

legend(180, 450, legend = 1:4, fill = c(NA, "green", par("fg"), "blue"),
       density = c(NA, NA, 10, 30), angle = c(NA, NA, 30, -30))

par(op)

```

rug

Add a Rug to a Plot

Description

Adds a *rug* representation (1-d plot) of the data to the plot.

Usage

```

rug(x, ticksize = 0.03, side = 1, lwd = 0.5, col = par("fg"),
    quiet = getOption("warn") < 0, ...)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A numeric vector
<code>ticksize</code>	The length of the ticks making up the ‘rug’. Positive lengths give inwards ticks.
<code>side</code>	On which side of the plot box the rug will be plotted. Normally 1 (bottom) or 3 (top).
<code>lwd</code>	The line width of the ticks. Some devices will round the default width up to 1.
<code>col</code>	The colour the ticks are plotted in.
<code>quiet</code>	logical indicating if there should be a warning about clipped values.
<code>...</code>	further arguments, passed to axis , such as <code>line</code> or <code>pos</code> for specifying the location of the rug.

Details

Because of the way *rug* is implemented, only values of *x* that fall within the plot region are included. There will be a warning if any finite values are omitted, but non-finite values are omitted silently.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[jitter](#) which you may want for ties in x.

Examples

```
require(stats) # both 'density' and its default method
with(faithful, {
  plot(density(eruptions, bw = 0.15))
  rug(eruptions)
  rug(jitter(eruptions, amount = 0.01), side = 3, col = "light blue")
})
```

screen

Creating and Controlling Multiple Screens on a Single Device

Description

`split.screen` defines a number of regions within the current device which can, to some extent, be treated as separate graphics devices. It is useful for generating multiple plots on a single device. Screens can themselves be split, allowing for quite complex arrangements of plots.

`screen` is used to select which screen to draw in.

`erase.screen` is used to clear a single screen, which it does by filling with the background colour.

`close.screen` removes the specified screen definition(s).

Usage

```
split.screen(figs, screen, erase = TRUE)
screen(n = , new = TRUE)
erase.screen(n = )
close.screen(n, all.screens = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>figs</code>	A two-element vector describing the number of rows and the number of columns in a screen matrix <i>or</i> a matrix with 4 columns. If a matrix, then each row describes a screen with values for the left, right, bottom, and top of the screen (in that order) in NDC units, that is 0 at the lower left corner of the device surface, and 1 at the upper right corner.
<code>screen</code>	A number giving the screen to be split. It defaults to the current screen if there is one, otherwise the whole device region.
<code>erase</code>	logical: should be selected screen be cleared?

<code>n</code>	A number indicating which screen to prepare for drawing (<code>screen</code>), erase (<code>erase.screen</code>), or close (<code>close.screen</code>). (<code>close.screen</code> will accept a vector of screen numbers.)
<code>new</code>	A logical value indicating whether the screen should be erased as part of the preparation for drawing in the screen.
<code>all.screens</code>	A logical value indicating whether all of the screens should be closed.

Details

The first call to `split.screen` places **R** into split-screen mode. The other split-screen functions only work within this mode. While in this mode, certain other commands should be avoided (see the Warnings section below). Split-screen mode is exited by the command `close.screen(all = TRUE)`.

If the current screen is closed, `close.screen` sets the current screen to be the next larger screen number if there is one, otherwise to the first available screen.

Value

`split.screen` returns a vector of screen numbers for the newly-created screens. With no arguments, `split.screen` returns a vector of valid screen numbers.

`screen invisibly` returns the number of the selected screen. With no arguments, `screen` returns the number of the current screen.

`close.screen` returns a vector of valid screen numbers.

`screen`, `erase.screen`, and `close.screen` all return `FALSE` if **R** is not in split-screen mode.

Warnings

The recommended way to use these functions is to completely draw a plot and all additions (i.e., points and lines) to the base plot, prior to selecting and plotting on another screen. The behavior associated with returning to a screen to add to an existing plot is unpredictable and may result in problems that are not readily visible.

These functions are totally incompatible with the other mechanisms for arranging plots on a device: `par(mfrow)`, `par(mfcol)` and `layout()`.

The functions are also incompatible with some plotting functions, such as `coplot`, which make use of these other mechanisms.

`erase.screen` will appear not to work if the background colour is transparent (as it is by default on most devices).

References

- Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[par](#), [layout](#), [Devices](#), `dev.*`

Examples

```

if (interactive()) {
  par(bg = "white")          # default is likely to be transparent
  split.screen(c(2, 1))      # split display into two screens
  split.screen(c(1, 3), screen = 2) # now split the bottom half into 3
  screen(1) # prepare screen 1 for output
  plot(10:1)
  screen(4) # prepare screen 4 for output
  plot(10:1)
  close.screen(all = TRUE)    # exit split-screen mode

  split.screen(c(2, 1))      # split display into two screens
  split.screen(c(1, 2), 2)   # split bottom half in two
  plot(1:10)                 # screen 3 is active, draw plot
  erase.screen()              # forgot label, erase and redraw
  plot(1:10, ylab = "ylab 3")
  screen(1)                  # prepare screen 1 for output
  plot(1:10)
  screen(4)                  # prepare screen 4 for output
  plot(1:10, ylab = "ylab 4")
  screen(1, FALSE)           # return to screen 1, but do not clear
  plot(10:1, axes = FALSE, lty = 2, ylab = "") # overlay second plot
  axis(4)                    # add tic marks to right-hand axis
  title("Plot 1")
  close.screen(all = TRUE)    # exit split-screen mode
}

```

segments

Add Line Segments to a Plot

Description

Draw line segments between pairs of points.

Usage

```

segments(x0, y0, x1 = x0, y1 = y0,
         col = par("fg"), lty = par("lty"), lwd = par("lwd"),
         ...)

```

Arguments

<code>x0, y0</code>	coordinates of points from which to draw.
<code>x1, y1</code>	coordinates of points to which to draw. At least one must be supplied.
<code>col, lty, lwd</code>	graphical parameters as in par , possibly vectors. NA values in <code>col</code> cause the segment to be omitted.
<code>...</code>	further graphical parameters (from par), such as <code>xpd</code> and the line characteristics <code>lend</code> , <code>ljoin</code> and <code>lmitre</code> .

Details

For each i , a line segment is drawn between the point $(x0[i], y0[i])$ and the point $(x1[i], y1[i])$. The coordinate vectors will be recycled to the length of the longest.

The [graphical parameters](#) `col`, `lty` and `lwd` can be vectors of length greater than one and will be recycled if necessary.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[arrows](#), [polygon](#) for slightly easier and less flexible line drawing, and [lines](#) for the usual polygons.

Examples

```
x <- stats::runif(12); y <- stats::rnorm(12)
i <- order(x, y); x <- x[i]; y <- y[i]
plot(x, y, main = "arrows(.) and segments(.)")
## draw arrows from point to point :
s <- seq(length(x)-1) # one shorter than data
arrows(x[s], y[s], x[s+1], y[s+1], col= 1:3)
s <- s[-length(s)]
segments(x[s], y[s], x[s+2], y[s+2], col= 'pink')
```

smoothScatter

Scatterplots with Smoothed Densities Color Representation

Description

`smoothScatter` produces a smoothed color density representation of the scatterplot, obtained through a kernel density estimate. `densCols` produces a vector containing colors which encode the local densities at each point in a scatterplot.

Usage

```
smoothScatter(x, y = NULL, nbin = 128, bandwidth,
              colramp = colorRampPalette(c("white", blues9)),
              nrpoints = 100, pch = ".", cex = 1, col = "black",
              transformation = function(x) x^.25,
              postPlotHook = box,
              xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, xlim, ylim,
              xaxs = par("xaxs"), yaxs = par("yaxs"), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	the <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> arguments provide the <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> coordinates for the plot. Any reasonable way of defining the coordinates is acceptable. See the function xy.coords for details. If supplied separately, they must be of the same length.
<code>nbin</code>	numeric vector of length one (for both directions) or two (for <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> separately) specifying the number of equally spaced grid points for the density estimation; directly used as <code>gridsize</code> in bkde2D ().
<code>bandwidth</code>	numeric vector (length 1 or 2) of smoothing bandwidth(s). If missing, a more or less useful default is used. <code>bandwidth</code> is subsequently passed to function bkde2D .
<code>colramp</code>	function accepting an integer <code>n</code> as an argument and returning <code>n</code> colors.
<code>nrpoints</code>	number of points to be superimposed on the density image. The first <code>nrpoints</code> points from those areas of lowest regional densities will be plotted. Adding points to the plot allows for the identification of outliers. If all points are to be plotted, choose <code>nrpoints = Inf</code> .
<code>pch, cex, col</code>	arguments passed to points , when <code>nrpoints > 0</code> : point symbol, character expansion factor and color, see also par .
<code>transformation</code>	function mapping the density scale to the color scale.
<code>postPlotHook</code>	either <code>NULL</code> or a function which will be called (with no arguments) after image .
<code>xlab, ylab</code>	character strings to be used as axis labels, passed to image .
<code>xlim, ylim</code>	numeric vectors of length 2 specifying axis limits.
<code>xaxs, yaxs, ...</code>	further arguments, passed to image .

Details

`smoothScatter` produces a smoothed version of a scatter plot. Two dimensional (kernel density) smoothing is performed by [bkde2D](#) from package **KernSmooth**. See the examples for how to use this function together with [pairs](#).

Author(s)

Florian Hahne at FHCRC, originally

See Also

[bkde2D](#) from package **KernSmooth**; [densCols](#) which uses the same smoothing computations and [blues9](#) in package **grDevices**.

[scatter.smooth](#) adds a [loess](#) regression smoother to a scatter plot.

Examples

```
## A largish data set
n <- 10000
x1 <- matrix(rnorm(n), ncol = 2)
```

```

x2 <- matrix(rnorm(n, mean = 3, sd = 1.5), ncol = 2)
x  <- rbind(x1, x2)

oldpar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2))
smoothScatter(x, nrpoints = 0)
smoothScatter(x)

## a different color scheme:
Lab.palette <- colorRampPalette(c("blue", "orange", "red"), space = "Lab")
smoothScatter(x, colramp = Lab.palette)

## somewhat similar, using identical smoothing computations,
## but considerably *less* efficient for really large data:
plot(x, col = densCols(x), pch = 20)

## use with pairs:
par(mfrow = c(1, 1))
y <- matrix(rnorm(40000), ncol = 4) + 3*rnorm(10000)
y[, c(2,4)] <- -y[, c(2,4)]
pairs(y, panel = function(...) smoothScatter(..., nrpoints = 0, add = TRUE))

par(oldpar)

```

spineplot

Spine Plots and Spinograms

Description

Spine plots are a special cases of mosaic plots, and can be seen as a generalization of stacked (or highlighted) bar plots. Analogously, spinograms are an extension of histograms.

Usage

```

spineplot(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
spineplot(x, y = NULL,
          breaks = NULL, tol.ylab = 0.05, off = NULL,
          ylevels = NULL, col = NULL,
          main = "", xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
          xaxlabels = NULL, yaxlabels = NULL,
          xlim = NULL, ylim = c(0, 1), axes = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
spineplot(formula, data = NULL,
          breaks = NULL, tol.ylab = 0.05, off = NULL,
          ylevels = NULL, col = NULL,
          main = "", xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
          xaxlabels = NULL, yaxlabels = NULL,

```

```
xlim = NULL, ylim = c(0, 1), axes = TRUE, ...,
subset = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object, the default method expects either a single variable (interpreted to be the explanatory variable) or a 2-way table. See details.
<code>y</code>	a "factor" interpreted to be the dependent variable
<code>formula</code>	a "formula" of type $y \sim x$ with a single dependent "factor" and a single explanatory variable.
<code>data</code>	an optional data frame.
<code>breaks</code>	if the explanatory variable is numeric, this controls how it is discretized. <code>breaks</code> is passed to hist and can be a list of arguments.
<code>tol.ylab</code>	convenience tolerance parameter for y-axis annotation. If the distance between two labels drops under this threshold, they are plotted equidistantly.
<code>off</code>	vertical offset between the bars (in per cent). It is fixed to 0 for spinograms and defaults to 2 for spine plots.
<code>ylevels</code>	a character or numeric vector specifying in which order the levels of the dependent variable should be plotted.
<code>col</code>	a vector of fill colors of the same length as <code>levels(y)</code> . The default is to call gray.colors .
<code>main, xlab, ylab</code>	character strings for annotation
<code>xaxlabels, yaxlabels</code>	character vectors for annotation of x and y axis. Default to <code>levels(y)</code> and <code>levels(x)</code> , respectively for the spine plot. For <code>xaxlabels</code> in the spinogram, the breaks are used.
<code>xlim, ylim</code>	the range of x and y values with sensible defaults.
<code>axes</code>	logical. If FALSE all axes (including those giving level names) are suppressed.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments passed to rect .
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used for plotting.

Details

`spineplot` creates either a spinogram or a spine plot. It can be called via `spineplot(x, y)` or `spineplot(y ~ x)` where `y` is interpreted to be the dependent variable (and has to be categorical) and `x` the explanatory variable. `x` can be either categorical (then a spine plot is created) or numerical (then a spinogram is plotted). Additionally, `spineplot` can also be called with only a single argument which then has to be a 2-way table, interpreted to correspond to `table(x, y)`.

Both, spine plots and spinograms, are essentially mosaic plots with special formatting of spacing and shading. Conceptually, they plot $P(y|x)$ against $P(x)$. For the spine plot (where both x and y are categorical), both quantities are approximated by the corresponding empirical relative frequencies. For the spinogram (where x is numerical), x is first discretized (by calling [hist](#) with `breaks` argument) and then empirical relative frequencies are taken.

Thus, spine plots can also be seen as a generalization of stacked bar plots where not the heights but the widths of the bars corresponds to the relative frequencies of x . The heights of the bars then correspond to the conditional relative frequencies of y in every x group. Analogously, spinograms extend stacked histograms.

Value

The table visualized is returned invisibly.

Author(s)

Achim Zeileis <Achim.Zeileis@R-project.org>

References

- Friendly, M. (1994), Mosaic displays for multi-way contingency tables. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, **89**, 190–200.
- Hartigan, J.A., and Kleiner, B. (1984), A mosaic of television ratings. *The American Statistician*, **38**, 32–35.
- Hofmann, H., Theus, M. (2005), *Interactive graphics for visualizing conditional distributions*, Unpublished Manuscript.
- Hummel, J. (1996), Linked bar charts: Analysing categorical data graphically. *Computational Statistics*, **11**, 23–33.

See Also

[mosaicplot](#), [hist](#), [cdplot](#)

Examples

```
## treatment and improvement of patients with rheumatoid arthritis
treatment <- factor(rep(c(1, 2), c(43, 41)), levels = c(1, 2),
                    labels = c("placebo", "treated"))
improved <- factor(rep(c(1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3), c(29, 7, 7, 13, 7, 21)),
                  levels = c(1, 2, 3),
                  labels = c("none", "some", "marked"))

## (dependence on a categorical variable)
(spineplot(improved ~ treatment))

## applications and admissions by department at UC Berkeley
## (two-way tables)
(spineplot(margin.table(UCBAdmissions, c(3, 2)),
          main = "Applications at UCB"))
(spineplot(margin.table(UCBAdmissions, c(3, 1)),
          main = "Admissions at UCB"))

## NASA space shuttle o-ring failures
fail <- factor(c(2, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 1,
                1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1),
```



```

      levels = c(1, 2), labels = c("no", "yes"))
temperature <- c(53, 57, 58, 63, 66, 67, 67, 67, 68, 69, 70, 70,
                70, 70, 72, 73, 75, 75, 76, 76, 78, 79, 81)

## (dependence on a numerical variable)
(spineplot(fail ~ temperature))
(spineplot(fail ~ temperature, breaks = 3))
(spineplot(fail ~ temperature, breaks = quantile(temperature)))

## highlighting for failures
spineplot(fail ~ temperature, ylevels = 2:1)

```

stars

*Star (Spider/Radar) Plots and Segment Diagrams***Description**

Draw star plots or segment diagrams of a multivariate data set. With one single location, also draws ‘spider’ (or ‘radar’) plots.

Usage

```

stars(x, full = TRUE, scale = TRUE, radius = TRUE,
      labels = dimnames(x)[[1]], locations = NULL,
      nrow = NULL, ncol = NULL, len = 1,
      key.loc = NULL, key.labels = dimnames(x)[[2]],
      key.xpd = TRUE,
      xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL, flip.labels = NULL,
      draw.segments = FALSE,
      col.segments = 1:n.seg, col.stars = NA, col.lines = NA,
      axes = FALSE, frame.plot = axes,
      main = NULL, sub = NULL, xlab = "", ylab = "",
      cex = 0.8, lwd = 0.25, lty = par("lty"), xpd = FALSE,
      mar = pmin(par("mar"),
                  1.1+ c(2*axes+ (xlab != ""),
                        2*axes+ (ylab != ""), 1, 0)),
      add = FALSE, plot = TRUE, ...)

```

Arguments

x	matrix or data frame of data. One star or segment plot will be produced for each row of x. Missing values (NA) are allowed, but they are treated as if they were 0 (after scaling, if relevant).
full	logical flag: if TRUE, the segment plots will occupy a full circle. Otherwise, they occupy the (upper) semicircle only.

scale	logical flag: if TRUE, the columns of the data matrix are scaled independently so that the maximum value in each column is 1 and the minimum is 0. If FALSE, the presumption is that the data have been scaled by some other algorithm to the range $[0, 1]$.
radius	logical flag: in TRUE, the radii corresponding to each variable in the data will be drawn.
labels	vector of character strings for labeling the plots. Unlike the S function <code>stars</code> , no attempt is made to construct labels if <code>labels = NULL</code> .
locations	Either two column matrix with the x and y coordinates used to place each of the segment plots; or numeric of length 2 when all plots should be superimposed (for a 'spider plot'). By default, <code>locations = NULL</code> , the segment plots will be placed in a rectangular grid.
nrow, ncol	integers giving the number of rows and columns to use when <code>locations</code> is NULL. By default, <code>nrow == ncol</code> , a square layout will be used.
len	scale factor for the length of radii or segments.
key.loc	vector with x and y coordinates of the unit key.
key.labels	vector of character strings for labeling the segments of the unit key. If omitted, the second component of <code>dimnames(x)</code> is used, if available.
key.xpd	clipping switch for the unit key (drawing and labeling), see <code>par("xpd")</code> .
xlim	vector with the range of x coordinates to plot.
ylim	vector with the range of y coordinates to plot.
flip.labels	logical indicating if the label locations should flip up and down from diagram to diagram. Defaults to a somewhat smart heuristic.
draw.segments	logical. If TRUE draw a segment diagram.
col.segments	color vector (integer or character, see <code>par</code>), each specifying a color for one of the segments (variables). Ignored if <code>draw.segments = FALSE</code> .
col.stars	color vector (integer or character, see <code>par</code>), each specifying a color for one of the stars (cases). Ignored if <code>draw.segments = TRUE</code> .
col.lines	color vector (integer or character, see <code>par</code>), each specifying a color for one of the lines (cases). Ignored if <code>draw.segments = TRUE</code> .
axes	logical flag: if TRUE axes are added to the plot.
frame.plot	logical flag: if TRUE, the plot region is framed.
main	a main title for the plot.
sub	a sub title for the plot.
xlab	a label for the x axis.
ylab	a label for the y axis.
cex	character expansion factor for the labels.
lwd	line width used for drawing.
lty	line type used for drawing.
xpd	logical or NA indicating if clipping should be done, see <code>par(xpd = .)</code> .

<code>mar</code>	argument to <code>par</code> (<code>mar = *</code>), typically choosing smaller margins than by default.
<code>...</code>	further arguments, passed to the first call of <code>plot()</code> , see <code>plot.default</code> and to <code>box()</code> if <code>frame.plot</code> is true.
<code>add</code>	logical, if TRUE <i>add</i> stars to current plot.
<code>plot</code>	logical, if FALSE, nothing is plotted.

Details

Missing values are treated as 0.

Each star plot or segment diagram represents one row of the input `x`. Variables (columns) start on the right and wind counterclockwise around the circle. The size of the (scaled) column is shown by the distance from the center to the point on the star or the radius of the segment representing the variable.

Only one page of output is produced.

Value

Returns the locations of the plots in a two column matrix, invisibly when `plot = TRUE`.

Note

This code started life as spatial star plots by David A. Andrews.

Prior to R 1.4.1, scaling only shifted the maximum to 1, although documented as here.

Author(s)

Thomas S. Dye

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[symbols](#) for another way to draw stars and other symbols.

Examples

```
require(grDevices)
stars(mtcars[, 1:7], key.loc = c(14, 2),
      main = "Motor Trend Cars : stars(*, full = F)", full = FALSE)
stars(mtcars[, 1:7], key.loc = c(14, 1.5),
      main = "Motor Trend Cars : full stars()", flip.labels = FALSE)

## 'Spider' or 'Radar' plot:
stars(mtcars[, 1:7], locations = c(0, 0), radius = FALSE,
      key.loc = c(0, 0), main = "Motor Trend Cars", lty = 2)
```

```
## Segment Diagrams:
palette(rainbow(12, s = 0.6, v = 0.75))
stars(mtcars[, 1:7], len = 0.8, key.loc = c(12, 1.5),
      main = "Motor Trend Cars", draw.segments = TRUE)
stars(mtcars[, 1:7], len = 0.6, key.loc = c(1.5, 0),
      main = "Motor Trend Cars", draw.segments = TRUE,
      frame.plot = TRUE, nrow = 4, cex = .7)

## scale linearly (not affinely) to [0, 1]
USJudge <- apply(USJudgeRatings, 2, function(x) x/max(x))
Jnam <- row.names(USJudgeRatings)
Snam <- abbreviate(substring(Jnam, 1, regexpr("[.]", Jnam) - 1), 7)
stars(USJudge, labels = Jnam, scale = FALSE,
      key.loc = c(13, 1.5), main = "Judge not ...", len = 0.8)
stars(USJudge, labels = Snam, scale = FALSE,
      key.loc = c(13, 1.5), radius = FALSE)

loc <- stars(USJudge, labels = NULL, scale = FALSE,
            radius = FALSE, frame.plot = TRUE,
            key.loc = c(13, 1.5), main = "Judge not ...", len = 1.2)
text(loc, Snam, col = "blue", cex = 0.8, xpd = TRUE)

## 'Segments':
stars(USJudge, draw.segments = TRUE, scale = FALSE, key.loc = c(13, 1.5))

## 'Spider':
stars(USJudgeRatings, locations = c(0, 0), scale = FALSE, radius = FALSE,
      col.stars = 1:10, key.loc = c(0, 0), main = "US Judges rated")
## Same as above, but with colored lines instead of filled polygons.
stars(USJudgeRatings, locations = c(0, 0), scale = FALSE, radius = FALSE,
      col.lines = 1:10, key.loc = c(0, 0), main = "US Judges rated")
## 'Radar-Segments'
stars(USJudgeRatings[1:10,], locations = 0:1, scale = FALSE,
      draw.segments = TRUE, col.segments = 0, col.stars = 1:10, key.loc = 0:1,
      main = "US Judges 1-10 ")
palette("default")
stars(cbind(1:16, 10*(16:1)), draw.segments = TRUE,
      main = "A Joke -- do *not* use symbols on 2D data!")
```

stem

Stem-and-Leaf Plots

Description

stem produces a stem-and-leaf plot of the values in x. The parameter scale can be used to expand the scale of the plot. A value of scale = 2 will cause the plot to be roughly twice as long as the default.

Usage

```
stem(x, scale = 1, width = 80, atom = 1e-08)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector.
<code>scale</code>	This controls the plot length.
<code>width</code>	The desired width of plot.
<code>atom</code>	a tolerance.

Details

Infinite and missing values in `x` are discarded.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
stem(islands)
stem(log10(islands))
```

stripchart

1-D Scatter Plots

Description

stripchart produces one dimensional scatter plots (or dot plots) of the given data. These plots are a good alternative to [boxplots](#) when sample sizes are small.

Usage

```
stripchart(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
stripchart(x, data = NULL, dlab = NULL, ...,
           subset, na.action = NULL)

## Default S3 method:
stripchart(x, method = "overplot", jitter = 0.1, offset = 1/3,
           vertical = FALSE, group.names, add = FALSE,
           at = NULL, xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL,
           ylab = NULL, xlab = NULL, dlab = "", glab = "",
           log = "", pch = 0, col = par("fg"), cex = par("cex"),
           axes = TRUE, frame.plot = axes, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	the data from which the plots are to be produced. In the default method the data can be specified as a single numeric vector, or as list of numeric vectors, each corresponding to a component plot. In the formula method, a symbolic specification of the form $y \sim g$ can be given, indicating the observations in the vector <code>y</code> are to be grouped according to the levels of the factor <code>g</code> . NAs are allowed in the data.
<code>data</code>	a data.frame (or list) from which the variables in <code>x</code> should be taken.
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used for plotting.
<code>na.action</code>	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is to ignore missing values in either the response or the group.
<code>...</code>	additional parameters passed to the default method, or by it to plot.window , points , axis and title to control the appearance of the plot.
<code>method</code>	the method to be used to separate coincident points. The default method "overplot" causes such points to be overplotted, but it is also possible to specify "jitter" to jitter the points, or "stack" have coincident points stacked. The last method only makes sense for very granular data.
<code>jitter</code>	when <code>method = "jitter"</code> is used, <code>jitter</code> gives the amount of jittering applied.
<code>offset</code>	when stacking is used, points are stacked this many line-heights (symbol widths) apart.
<code>vertical</code>	when <code>vertical</code> is TRUE the plots are drawn vertically rather than the default horizontal.
<code>group.names</code>	group labels which will be printed alongside (or underneath) each plot.
<code>add</code>	logical, if true <i>add</i> the chart to the current plot.
<code>at</code>	numeric vector giving the locations where the charts should be drawn, particularly when <code>add = TRUE</code> ; defaults to <code>1:n</code> where <code>n</code> is the number of boxes.
<code>ylab, xlab</code>	labels: see title .
<code>dlab, glab</code>	alternate way to specify axis labels: see 'Details'.
<code>xlim, ylim</code>	plot limits: see plot.window .
<code>log</code>	on which axes to use a log scale: see plot.default
<code>pch, col, cex</code>	Graphical parameters: see par .
<code>axes, frame.plot</code>	Axis control: see plot.default .

Details

Extensive examples of the use of this kind of plot can be found in Box, Hunter and Hunter or Seber and Wild.

The `dlab` and `glab` labels may be used instead of `xlab` and `ylab` if those are not specified. `dlab` applies to the continuous data axis (the X axis unless `vertical` is TRUE), `glab` to the group axis.

Examples

```
x <- stats::rnorm(50)
xr <- round(x, 1)
stripchart(x) ; m <- mean(par("usr")[1:2])
text(m, 1.04, "stripchart(x, \"overplot\")")
stripchart(xr, method = "stack", add = TRUE, at = 1.2)
text(m, 1.35, "stripchart(round(x,1), \"stack\")")
stripchart(xr, method = "jitter", add = TRUE, at = 0.7)
text(m, 0.85, "stripchart(round(x,1), \"jitter\")")

stripchart(decrease ~ treatment,
  main = "stripchart(OrchardSprays)",
  vertical = TRUE, log = "y", data = OrchardSprays)

stripchart(decrease ~ treatment, at = c(1:8)^2,
  main = "stripchart(OrchardSprays)",
  vertical = TRUE, log = "y", data = OrchardSprays)
```

strwidth

Plotting Dimensions of Character Strings and Math Expressions

Description

These functions compute the width or height, respectively, of the given strings or mathematical expressions `s[i]` on the current plotting device in *user* coordinates, *inches* or as fraction of the figure width `par("fin")`.

Usage

```
strwidth(s, units = "user", cex = NULL, font = NULL, vfont = NULL, ...)
strheight(s, units = "user", cex = NULL, font = NULL, vfont = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>s</code>	a character or expression vector whose dimensions are to be determined. Other objects are coerced by as.graphicsAnnot .
<code>units</code>	character indicating in which units <code>s</code> is measured; should be one of "user", "inches", "figure"; partial matching is performed.
<code>cex</code>	numeric character exp ansion factor; multiplied by par("cex") yields the final character size; the default NULL is equivalent to 1.
<code>font, vfont, ...</code>	additional information about the font, possibly including the graphics parameter "family": see text .

Details

Note that the ‘height’ of a string is determined only by the number of linefeeds (“\n”) it contains: it is the (number of linefeeds - 1) times the line spacing plus the height of “M” in the selected font. For an expression it is the height of the bounding box as computed by [plotmath](#). Thus in both cases it is an estimate of how far **above** the final baseline the typeset object extends. (It may also extend below the baseline.) The inter-line spacing is controlled by `cex`, `par("lheight")` and the ‘point size’ (but not the actual font in use).

Measurements in “user” units (the default) are only available after [plot.new](#) has been called – otherwise an error is thrown.

Value

Numeric vector with the same length as `s`, giving the estimate of width or height for each `s[i]`. NA strings are given width and height 0 (as they are not plotted).

See Also

[text](#), [nchar](#)

Examples

```
str.ex <- c("W", "w", "I", ".", "WwI.")
op <- par(pty = "s"); plot(1:100, 1:100, type = "n")
sw <- strwidth(str.ex); sw
all.equal(sum(sw[1:4]), sw[5])
#- since the last string contains the others

sw.i <- strwidth(str.ex, "inches"); 25.4 * sw.i # width in [mm]
unique(sw / sw.i)
# constant factor: 1 value
mean(sw.i / strwidth(str.ex, "fig")) / par('fin')[1] # = 1: are the same

## See how letters fall in classes
## -- depending on graphics device and font!
all.lett <- c(letters, LETTERS)
shL <- strheight(all.lett, units = "inches") * 72 # 'big points'
table(shL) # all have same heights ...
mean(shL)/par("cin")[2] # around 0.6

(swL <- strwidth(all.lett, units = "inches") * 72) # 'big points'
split(all.lett, factor(round(swL, 2)))

sumex <- expression(sum(x[i], i=1,n), e^{i * pi} == -1)
strwidth(sumex)
strheight(sumex)

par(op) #- reset to previous setting
```

sunflowerplot

Produce a Sunflower Scatter Plot

Description

Multiple points are plotted as ‘sunflowers’ with multiple leaves (‘petals’) such that overplotting is visualized instead of accidental and invisible.

Usage

```
sunflowerplot(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
sunflowerplot(x, y = NULL, number, log = "", digits = 6,
              xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL,
              add = FALSE, rotate = FALSE,
              pch = 16, cex = 0.8, cex.fact = 1.5,
              col = par("col"), bg = NA, size = 1/8, seg.col = 2,
              seg.lwd = 1.5, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
sunflowerplot(formula, data = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, ...,
              subset, na.action = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	numeric vector of x-coordinates of length n, say, or another valid plotting structure, as for plot.default , see also xy.coords .
y	numeric vector of y-coordinates of length n.
number	integer vector of length n. number[i] = number of replicates for (x[i], y[i]), may be 0. Default (missing(number)): compute the exact multiplicity of the points x[], y[], via xyTable() .
log	character indicating log coordinate scale, see plot.default .
digits	when number is computed (i.e., not specified), x and y are rounded to digits significant digits before multiplicities are computed.
xlab, ylab	character label for x-, or y-axis, respectively.
xlim, ylim	numeric(2) limiting the extents of the x-, or y-axis.
add	logical; should the plot be added on a previous one ? Default is FALSE.
rotate	logical; if TRUE, randomly rotate the sunflowers (preventing artefacts).
pch	plotting character to be used for points (number[i]==1) and center of sunflowers.
cex	numeric; character size expansion of center points (s. pch).

<code>cex.fact</code>	numeric <i>shrinking</i> factor to be used for the center points <i>when there are flower leaves</i> , i.e., <code>cex / cex.fact</code> is used for these.
<code>col, bg</code>	colors for the plot symbols, passed to <code>plot.default</code> .
<code>size</code>	of sunflower leaves in inches, <code>1[in] := 2.54[cm]</code> . Default: <code>1/8"</code> , approximately 3.2mm.
<code>seg.col</code>	color to be used for the segments which make the sunflowers leaves, see <code>par(col=)</code> ; <code>col = "gold"</code> reminds of real sunflowers.
<code>seg.lwd</code>	numeric; the line width for the leaves' segments.
<code>...</code>	further arguments to <code>plot</code> [if <code>add = FALSE</code>], or to be passed to or from another method.
<code>formula</code>	a formula , such as <code>y ~ x</code> .
<code>data</code>	a data.frame (or list) from which the variables in <code>formula</code> should be taken.
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used in the fitting process.
<code>na.action</code>	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is to ignore case with missing values.

Details

This is a generic function with default and formula methods.

For `number[i] == 1`, a (slightly enlarged) usual plotting symbol (`pch`) is drawn. For `number[i] > 1`, a small plotting symbol is drawn and `number[i]` equi-angular ‘rays’ emanate from it.

If `rotate = TRUE` and `number[i] >= 2`, a random direction is chosen (instead of the y-axis) for the first ray. The goal is to [jitter](#) the orientations of the sunflowers in order to prevent artefactual visual impressions.

Value

A list with three components of same length,

<code>x</code>	x coordinates
<code>y</code>	y coordinates
<code>number</code>	number

Use `xyTable()` (from package **grDevices**) if you are only interested in this return value.

Side Effects

A scatter plot is drawn with ‘sunflowers’ as symbols.

Author(s)

Andreas Ruckstuhl, Werner Stahel, Martin Maechler, Tim Hesterberg, 1989–1993. Port to R by Martin Maechler <maechler@stat.math.ethz.ch>.

References

- Chambers, J. M., Cleveland, W. S., Kleiner, B. and Tukey, P. A. (1983) *Graphical Methods for Data Analysis*. Wadsworth.
- Schilling, M. F. and Watkins, A. E. (1994) A suggestion for sunflower plots. *The American Statistician*, **48**, 303–305.
- Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[density](#), [xyTable](#)

Examples

```
require(stats) # for rnorm
require(grDevices)

## 'number' is computed automatically:
sunflowerplot(iris[, 3:4])
## Imitating Chambers et al, p.109, closely:
sunflowerplot(iris[, 3:4], cex = .2, cex.fact = 1, size = .035, seg.lwd = .8)
## or
sunflowerplot(Petal.Width ~ Petal.Length, data = iris,
               cex = .2, cex.fact = 1, size = .035, seg.lwd = .8)

sunflowerplot(x = sort(2*round(rnorm(100))), y = round(rnorm(100), 0),
               main = "Sunflower Plot of Rounded N(0,1)")
## Similarly using a "xyTable" argument:
xyT <- xyTable(x = sort(2*round(rnorm(100))), y = round(rnorm(100), 0),
               digits = 3)
utils::str(xyT, vec.len = 20)
sunflowerplot(xyT, main = "2nd Sunflower Plot of Rounded N(0,1)")

## A 'marked point process' {explicit 'number' argument}:
sunflowerplot(rnorm(100), rnorm(100), number = rpois(n = 100, lambda = 2),
               main = "Sunflower plot (marked point process)",
               rotate = TRUE, col = "blue4")
```

symbols

Draw Symbols (Circles, Squares, Stars, Thermometers, Boxplots)

Description

This function draws symbols on a plot. One of six symbols; *circles*, *squares*, *rectangles*, *stars*, *thermometers*, and *boxplots*, can be plotted at a specified set of x and y coordinates. Specific aspects of the symbols, such as relative size, can be customized by additional parameters.

Usage

```
symbols(x, y = NULL, circles, squares, rectangles, stars,
        thermometers, boxplots, inches = TRUE, add = FALSE,
        fg = par("col"), bg = NA,
        xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, main = NULL,
        xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	the x and y co-ordinates for the centres of the symbols. They can be specified in any way which is accepted by xy.coords .
<code>circles</code>	a vector giving the radii of the circles.
<code>squares</code>	a vector giving the length of the sides of the squares.
<code>rectangles</code>	a matrix with two columns. The first column gives widths and the second the heights of rectangles.
<code>stars</code>	a matrix with three or more columns giving the lengths of the rays from the center of the stars. NA values are replaced by zeroes.
<code>thermometers</code>	a matrix with three or four columns. The first two columns give the width and height of the thermometer symbols. If there are three columns, the third is taken as a proportion: the thermometers are filled (using colour <code>fg</code>) from their base to this proportion of their height. If there are four columns, the third and fourth columns are taken as proportions and the thermometers are filled between these two proportions of their heights. The part of the box not filled in <code>fg</code> will be filled in the background colour (default transparent) given by <code>bg</code> .
<code>boxplots</code>	a matrix with five columns. The first two columns give the width and height of the boxes, the next two columns give the lengths of the lower and upper whiskers and the fifth the proportion (with a warning if not in [0,1]) of the way up the box that the median line is drawn.
<code>inches</code>	TRUE, FALSE or a positive number. See ‘Details’.
<code>add</code>	if <code>add</code> is TRUE, the symbols are added to an existing plot, otherwise a new plot is created.
<code>fg</code>	colour(s) the symbols are to be drawn in.
<code>bg</code>	if specified, the symbols are filled with colour(s), the vector <code>bg</code> being recycled to the number of symbols. The default is to leave the symbols unfilled.
<code>xlab</code>	the x label of the plot if <code>add</code> is not true. Defaults to the deparse d expression used for <code>x</code> .
<code>ylab</code>	the y label of the plot. Unused if <code>add</code> = TRUE.
<code>main</code>	a main title for the plot. Unused if <code>add</code> = TRUE.
<code>xlim</code>	numeric vector of length 2 giving the x limits for the plot. Unused if <code>add</code> = TRUE.
<code>ylim</code>	numeric vector of length 2 giving the y limits for the plot. Unused if <code>add</code> = TRUE.
<code>...</code>	graphics parameters can also be passed to this function, as can the plot aspect ratio <code>asp</code> (see plot.window).

Details

Observations which have missing coordinates or missing size parameters are not plotted. The exception to this is *stars*. In that case, the length of any ray which is NA is reset to zero.

Argument *inches* controls the sizes of the symbols. If TRUE (the default), the symbols are scaled so that the largest dimension of any symbol is one inch. If a positive number is given the symbols are scaled to make largest dimension this size in inches (so TRUE and 1 are equivalent). If *inches* is FALSE, the units are taken to be those of the appropriate axes. (For circles, squares and stars the units of the x axis are used. For boxplots, the lengths of the whiskers are regarded as dimensions alongside width and height when scaling by inches, and are otherwise interpreted in the units of the y axis.)

Circles of radius zero are plotted at radius one pixel (which is device-dependent). Circles of a very small non-zero radius may or may not be visible, and may be smaller than circles of radius zero. On windows devices circles are plotted at radius at least one pixel as some Windows versions omit smaller circles.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

W. S. Cleveland (1985) *The Elements of Graphing Data*. Monterey, California: Wadsworth.

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[stars](#) for drawing *stars* with a bit more flexibility.

If you are thinking about doing ‘bubble plots’ by `symbols(*, circles=*)`, you should *really* consider using [sunflowerplot](#) instead.

Examples

```
require(stats); require(grDevices)
x <- 1:10
y <- sort(10*runif(10))
z <- runif(10)
z3 <- cbind(z, 2*runif(10), runif(10))
symbols(x, y, thermometers = cbind(.5, 1, z), inches = .5, fg = 1:10)
symbols(x, y, thermometers = z3, inches = FALSE)
text(x, y, apply(format(round(z3, digits = 2)), 1, paste, collapse = ","),
      adj = c(-.2,0), cex = .75, col = "purple", xpd = NA)

## Note that example(trees) shows more sensible plots!
N <- nrow(trees)
with(trees, {
  ## Girth is diameter in inches
  symbols(Height, Volume, circles = Girth/24, inches = FALSE,
          main = "Trees' Girth") # xlab and ylab automatically
  ## Colours too:
  op <- palette(rainbow(N, end = 0.9))
  symbols(Height, Volume, circles = Girth/16, inches = FALSE, bg = 1:N,
```

```

      fg = "gray30", main = "symbols(*, circles = Girth/16, bg = 1:N)")
palette(op)
})

```

text

Add Text to a Plot

Description

text draws the strings given in the vector labels at the coordinates given by x and y. y may be missing since `xy.coords(x, y)` is used for construction of the coordinates.

Usage

```

text(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
text(x, y = NULL, labels = seq_along(x), adj = NULL,
      pos = NULL, offset = 0.5, vfont = NULL,
      cex = 1, col = NULL, font = NULL, ...)

```

Arguments

x, y	numeric vectors of coordinates where the text labels should be written. If the length of x and y differs, the shorter one is recycled.
labels	a character vector or expression specifying the <i>text</i> to be written. An attempt is made to coerce other language objects (names and calls) to expressions, and vectors and other classed objects to character vectors by <code>as.character</code> . If labels is longer than x and y, the coordinates are recycled to the length of labels.
adj	one or two values in [0, 1] which specify the x (and optionally y) adjustment of the labels. On most devices values outside that interval will also work.
pos	a position specifier for the text. If specified this overrides any adj value given. Values of 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively indicate positions below, to the left of, above and to the right of the specified coordinates.
offset	when pos is specified, this value gives the offset of the label from the specified coordinate in fractions of a character width.
vfont	NULL for the current font family, or a character vector of length 2 for Hershey vector fonts. The first element of the vector selects a typeface and the second element selects a style. Ignored if labels is an expression.
cex	numeric character expansion factor; multiplied by <code>par("cex")</code> yields the final character size. NULL and NA are equivalent to 1.0.
col, font	the color and (if vfont = NULL) font to be used, possibly vectors. These default to the values of the global graphical parameters in <code>par()</code> .
...	further graphical parameters (from <code>par</code>), such as <code>srt</code> , <code>family</code> and <code>xpd</code> .

Details

labels must be of type [character](#) or [expression](#) (or be coercible to such a type). In the latter case, quite a bit of mathematical notation is available such as sub- and superscripts, greek letters, fractions, etc.

`adj` allows *adjustment* of the text with respect to (x, y) . Values of 0, 0.5, and 1 specify left/bottom, middle and right/top alignment, respectively. The default is for centered text, i.e., `adj = c(0.5, NA)`. Accurate vertical centering needs character metric information on individual characters which is only available on some devices. Vertical alignment is done slightly differently for character strings and for expressions: `adj = c(0, 0)` means to left-justify and to align on the baseline for strings but on the bottom of the bounding box for expressions. This also affects vertical centering: for strings the centering excludes any descenders whereas for expressions it includes them. Using NA for strings centers them, including descenders.

The `pos` and `offset` arguments can be used in conjunction with values returned by `identify` to recreate an interactively labelled plot.

Text can be rotated by using [graphical parameters](#) `srt` (see [par](#)); this rotates about the centre set by `adj`.

Graphical parameters `col`, `cex` and `font` can be vectors and will then be applied cyclically to the labels (and extra values will be ignored). NA values of `font` are replaced by `par("font")`, and similarly for `col`.

Labels whose `x`, `y` or `labels` value is NA are omitted from the plot.

What happens when `font = 5` (the symbol font) is selected can be both device- and locale-dependent. Most often labels will be interpreted in the Adobe symbol encoding, so e.g. "d" is delta, and "\300" is aleph.

Euro symbol

The Euro symbol may not be available in older fonts. In current versions of Adobe symbol fonts it is character 160, so `text(x, y, "\xA0", font = 5)` may work. People using Western European locales on Unix-alikes can probably select ISO-8895-15 (Latin-9) which has the Euro as character 165: this can also be used for [postscript](#) and [pdf](#). It is '\u20ac' in Unicode, which can be used in UTF-8 locales.

The Euro should be rendered correctly by [X11](#) in UTF-8 locales, but the corresponding single-byte encoding in [postscript](#) and [pdf](#) will need to be selected as `ISOLatin9.enc` (and the font will need to contain the Euro glyph, which for example older printers may not).

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

See Also

[text.formula](#) for the formula method; [mtext](#), [title](#), [Hershey](#) for details on Hershey vector fonts, [plotmath](#) for details and more examples on mathematical annotation.

Examples

```
plot(-1:1, -1:1, type = "n", xlab = "Re", ylab = "Im")
K <- 16; text(exp(1i * 2 * pi * (1:K) / K), col = 2)

## The following two examples use latin1 characters: these may not
## appear correctly (or be omitted entirely).
plot(1:10, 1:10, main = "text(...) examples\n~~~~~",
      sub = "R is GNU ©, but not ® ...")
mtext("«Latin-1 accented chars»: éè ø Å å æ &lt;Æ", side = 3)
points(c(6,2), c(2,1), pch = 3, cex = 4, col = "red")
text(6, 2, "the text is CENTERED around (x,y) = (6,2) by default",
      cex = .8)
text(2, 1, "or Left/Bottom - JUSTIFIED at (2,1) by 'adj = c(0,0)'",
      adj = c(0,0))
text(4, 9, expression(hat(beta) == (X^t * X)^{-1} * X^t * y))
text(4, 8.4, "expression(hat(beta) == (X^t * X)^{-1} * X^t * y)",
      cex = .75)
text(4, 7, expression(bar(x) == sum(frac(x[i], n), i==1, n)))

## Two more latin1 examples
text(5, 10.2,
      "Le français, c'est facile: Règles, Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité...")
text(5, 9.8,
      "Jetzt no chli züritüütsch: (noch ein bißchen Zürcher deutsch)")
```

title	<i>Plot Annotation</i>
-------	------------------------

Description

This function can be used to add labels to a plot. Its first four principal arguments can also be used as arguments in most high-level plotting functions. They must be of type [character](#) or [expression](#). In the latter case, quite a bit of mathematical notation is available such as sub- and superscripts, greek letters, fractions, etc: see [plotmath](#)

Usage

```
title(main = NULL, sub = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
      line = NA, outer = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

main	The main title (on top) using font and size (character expansion) <code>par("font.main")</code> and color <code>par("col.main")</code> .
sub	Sub-title (at bottom) using font and size <code>par("font.sub")</code> and color <code>par("col.sub")</code> .
xlab	X axis label using font and character expansion <code>par("font.lab")</code> and color <code>par("col.lab")</code> .

<code>ylab</code>	Y axis label, same font attributes as <code>xlab</code> .
<code>line</code>	specifying a value for <code>line</code> overrides the default placement of labels, and places them this many lines outwards from the plot edge.
<code>outer</code>	a logical value. If <code>TRUE</code> , the titles are placed in the outer margins of the plot.
<code>...</code>	further graphical parameters from <code>par</code> . Use e.g., <code>col.main</code> or <code>cex.sub</code> instead of just <code>col</code> or <code>cex</code> . <code>adj</code> controls the justification of the titles. <code>xpd</code> can be used to set the clipping region: this defaults to the figure region unless <code>outer = TRUE</code> , otherwise the device region and can only be increased. <code>mgp</code> controls the default placing of the axis titles.

Details

The labels passed to `title` can be character strings or language objects (names, calls or expressions), or a list containing the string to be plotted, and a selection of the optional modifying [graphical parameters](#) `cex=`, `col=` and `font=`. Other objects will be coerced by `as.graphicsAnnot`.

The position of main defaults to being vertically centered in (outer) margin 3 and justified horizontally according to `par("adj")` on the plot region (device region for `outer = TRUE`).

The positions of `xlab`, `ylab` and `sub` are `line` (default for `xlab` and `ylab` being `par("mgp")[1]` and increased by 1 for `sub`) lines (of height `par("mex")`) into the appropriate margin, justified in the text direction according to `par("adj")` on the plot/device region.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[mtext](#), [text](#); [plotmath](#) for details on mathematical annotation.

Examples

```
plot(cars, main = "") # here, could use main directly
title(main = "Stopping Distance versus Speed")

plot(cars, main = "")
title(main = list("Stopping Distance versus Speed", cex = 1.5,
                 col = "red", font = 3))

## Specifying "...":
plot(1, col.axis = "sky blue", col.lab = "thistle")
title("Main Title", sub = "sub title",
      cex.main = 2, font.main = 4, col.main = "blue",
      cex.sub = 0.75, font.sub = 3, col.sub = "red")

x <- seq(-4, 4, len = 101)
y <- cbind(sin(x), cos(x))
matplot(x, y, type = "l", xaxt = "n",
```

```

main = expression(paste(plain(sin) * phi, " and ",
                        plain(cos) * phi)),
ylab = expression("sin" * phi, "cos" * phi), # only 1st is taken
xlab = expression(paste("Phase Angle ", phi)),
col.main = "blue")
axis(1, at = c(-pi, -pi/2, 0, pi/2, pi),
     labels = expression(-pi, -pi/2, 0, pi/2, pi))
abline(h = 0, v = pi/2 * c(-1,1), lty = 2, lwd = .1, col = "gray70")

```

units

Graphical Units

Description

`xinch` and `yinch` convert the specified number of inches given as their arguments into the correct units for plotting with graphics functions. Usually, this only makes sense when normal coordinates are used, i.e., *no* log scale (see the `log` argument to `par`).

`xyinch` does the same for a pair of numbers `xy`, simultaneously.

Usage

```

xinch(x = 1, warn.log = TRUE)
yinch(y = 1, warn.log = TRUE)
xyinch(xy = 1, warn.log = TRUE)

```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	numeric vector
<code>xy</code>	numeric of length 1 or 2.
<code>warn.log</code>	logical; if TRUE, a warning is printed in case of active log scale.

Examples

```

all(c(xinch(), yinch()) == xyinch()) # TRUE
xyinch()
xyinch #- to see that is really  delta{"usr"} / "pin"

## plot labels offset 0.12 inches to the right
## of plotted symbols in a plot
with(mtcars, {
  plot(mpg, disp, pch = 19, main = "Motor Trend Cars")
  text(mpg + xinch(0.12), disp, row.names(mtcars),
       adj = 0, cex = .7, col = "blue")
})

```

xspline

*Draw an X-spline***Description**

Draw an X-spline, a curve drawn relative to control points.

Usage

```
xspline(x, y = NULL, shape = 0, open = TRUE, repEnds = TRUE,
        draw = TRUE, border = par("fg"), col = NA, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	vectors containing the coordinates of the vertices of the polygon. See xy.coords for alternatives.
<code>shape</code>	A numeric vector of values between -1 and 1, which control the shape of the spline relative to the control points.
<code>open</code>	A logical value indicating whether the spline is an open or a closed shape.
<code>repEnds</code>	For open X-splines, a logical value indicating whether the first and last control points should be replicated for drawing the curve. Ignored for closed X-splines.
<code>draw</code>	logical: should the X-spline be drawn? If false, a set of line segments to draw the curve is returned, and nothing is drawn.
<code>border</code>	the color to draw the curve. Use <code>border = NA</code> to omit borders.
<code>col</code>	the color for filling the shape. The default, <code>NA</code> , is to leave unfilled.
<code>...</code>	graphical parameters such as <code>lty</code> , <code>xpd</code> , <code>lend</code> , <code>ljoin</code> and <code>lmitre</code> can be given as arguments.

Details

An X-spline is a line drawn relative to control points. For each control point, the line may pass through (interpolate) the control point or it may only approach (approximate) the control point; the behaviour is determined by a shape parameter for each control point.

If the shape parameter is greater than zero, the spline approximates the control points (and is very similar to a cubic B-spline when the shape is 1). If the shape parameter is less than zero, the spline interpolates the control points (and is very similar to a Catmull-Rom spline when the shape is -1). If the shape parameter is 0, the spline forms a sharp corner at that control point.

For open X-splines, the start and end control points must have a shape of 0 (and non-zero values are silently converted to zero).

For open X-splines, by default the start and end control points are replicated before the curve is drawn. A curve is drawn between (interpolating or approximating) the second and third of each set of four control points, so this default behaviour ensures that the resulting curve starts at the first control point you have specified and ends at the last control point. The default behaviour can be turned off via the `repEnds` argument.

Value

If `draw = TRUE`, `NULL` otherwise a list with elements `x` and `y` which could be passed to [lines](#), [polygon](#) and so on.

Invisible in both cases.

Note

Two-dimensional splines need to be created in an isotropic coordinate system. Device coordinates are used (with an anisotropy correction if needed.)

References

Blanc, C. and Schlick, C. (1995), *X-splines : A Spline Model Designed for the End User*, in *Proceedings of SIGGRAPH 95*, pp. 377–386. <http://dept-info.labri.fr/~schlick/DOC/sig1.html>

See Also

[polygon](#).

[par](#) for how to specify colors.

Examples

```
## based on examples in ?grid.xspline

xsplineTest <- function(s, open = TRUE,
                        x = c(1,1,3,3)/4,
                        y = c(1,3,3,1)/4, ...) {
  plot(c(0,1), c(0,1), type = "n", axes = FALSE, xlab = "", ylab = "")
  points(x, y, pch = 19)
  xspline(x, y, s, open, ...)
  text(x+0.05*c(-1,-1,1,1), y+0.05*c(-1,1,1,-1), s)
}

op <- par(mfrow = c(3,3), mar = rep(0,4), oma = c(0,0,2,0))
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, -1, 0))
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, 0, 0))
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, 1, 0))
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, -1, 0))
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, 0, 0))
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, 1, 0))
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, -1, 0))
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, 0, 0))
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, 1, 0))
title("Open X-splines", outer = TRUE)

par(mfrow = c(3,3), mar = rep(0,4), oma = c(0,0,2,0))
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, -1, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, 0, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, 1, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, -1, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, 0, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, 1, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
```

```
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, -1, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, 0, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, 1, 0), FALSE, col = "grey80")
title("Closed X-splines", outer = TRUE)

par(op)

x <- sort(stats::rnorm(5))
y <- sort(stats::rnorm(5))
plot(x, y, pch = 19)
res <- xspline(x, y, 1, draw = FALSE)
lines(res)
## the end points may be very close together,
## so use last few for direction
nr <- length(res$x)
arrows(res$x[1], res$y[1], res$x[4], res$y[4], code = 1, length = 0.1)
arrows(res$x[nr-3], res$y[nr-3], res$x[nr], res$y[nr], code = 2, length = 0.1)
```

Chapter 6

The grid package

grid-package

The Grid Graphics Package

Description

A rewrite of the graphics layout capabilities, plus some support for interaction.

Details

This package contains a graphics system which supplements S-style graphics (see the **graphics** package).

Further information is available in the following [vignettes](#):

grid	Introduction to grid (../doc/grid.pdf)
displaylist	Display Lists in grid (../doc/displaylist.pdf)
frame	Frames and packing grobs (../doc/frame.pdf)
grobs	Working with grid grobs (../doc/grobs.pdf)
interactive	Editing grid Graphics (../doc/interactive.pdf)
locndimn	Locations versus Dimensions (../doc/locndimn.pdf)
moveline	Demonstrating move-to and line-to (../doc/moveline.pdf)
nonfinite	How grid responds to non-finite values (../doc/nonfinite.pdf)
plotexample	Writing grid Code (../doc/plotexample.pdf)
rotated	Rotated Viewports (../doc/rotated.pdf)
saveload	Persistent representations (../doc/saveload.pdf)
sharing	Modifying multiple grobs simultaneously (../doc/sharing.pdf)
viewports	Working with grid viewports (../doc/viewports.pdf)

For a complete list of functions with individual help pages, use `library(help="grid")`.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell <paul@stat.auckland.ac.nz>

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

References

Murrell, P. (2005) *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

absolute.size	<i>Absolute Size of a Grob</i>
---------------	--------------------------------

Description

This function converts a unit object into absolute units. Absolute units are unaffected, but non-absolute units are converted into "null" units.

Usage

```
absolute.size(unit)
```

Arguments

unit An object of class "unit".

Details

Absolute units are things like "inches", "cm", and "lines". Non-absolute units are "npc" and "native".

This function is designed to be used in widthDetails and heightDetails methods.

Value

An object of class "unit".

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[widthDetails](#) and [heightDetails](#) methods.

arrow	<i>Describe arrows to add to a line.</i>
-------	--

Description

Produces a description of what arrows to add to a line. The result can be passed to a function that draws a line, e.g., `grid.lines`.

Usage

```
arrow(angle = 30, length = unit(0.25, "inches"),
      ends = "last", type = "open")
```

Arguments

angle	The angle of the arrow head in degrees (smaller numbers produce narrower, pointier arrows). Essentially describes the width of the arrow head.
length	A unit specifying the length of the arrow head (from tip to base).
ends	One of "last", "first", or "both", indicating which ends of the line to draw arrow heads.
type	One of "open" or "closed" indicating whether the arrow head should be a closed triangle.

Examples

```
arrow()
```

calcStringMetric	<i>Calculate Metric Information for Text</i>
------------------	--

Description

This function returns the ascent, descent, and width metric information for a character or expression vector.

Usage

```
calcStringMetric(text)
```

Arguments

text	A character or expression vector.
------	-----------------------------------

Value

A list with three numeric components named ascent, descent, and width. All values are in inches.

WARNING

The metric information from this function is based on the font settings that are in effect when this function is called. It will not necessarily correspond to the metric information of any text that is drawn on the page.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[stringAscent](#), [stringDescent](#), [grobAscent](#), and [grobDescent](#).

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
grid.segments(.01, .5, .99, .5, gp=gpar(col="grey"))
metrics <- calcStringMetric(letters)
grid.rect(x=1:26/27,
          width=unit(metrics$width, "inches"),
          height=unit(metrics$ascent, "inches"),
          just="bottom",
          gp=gpar(col="red"))
grid.rect(x=1:26/27,
          width=unit(metrics$width, "inches"),
          height=unit(metrics$descent, "inches"),
          just="top",
          gp=gpar(col="red"))
grid.text(letters, x=1:26/27, just="bottom")

test <- function(x) {
  grid.text(x, just="bottom")
  metric <- calcStringMetric(x)
  if (is.character(x)) {
    grid.rect(width=unit(metric$width, "inches"),
              height=unit(metric$ascent, "inches"),
              just="bottom",
              gp=gpar(col=rgb(1,0,0,.5)))
    grid.rect(width=unit(metric$width, "inches"),
              height=unit(metric$descent, "inches"),
              just="top",
              gp=gpar(col=rgb(1,0,0,.5)))
  } else {
    grid.rect(width=unit(metric$width, "inches"),
              y=unit(.5, "npc") + unit(metric[2], "inches"),
              height=unit(metric$ascent, "inches"),
              just="bottom",
              gp=gpar(col=rgb(1,0,0,.5)))
    grid.rect(width=unit(metric$width, "inches"),
              height=unit(metric$descent, "inches"),
              just="bottom",
              gp=gpar(col=rgb(1,0,0,.5)))
  }
}
```

```

    }
  }

  tests <- list("t",
               "test",
               "testy",
               "test\ntwo",
               expression(x),
               expression(y),
               expression(x + y),
               expression(a + b),
               expression(atop(x + y, 2)))

  grid.newpage()
  nrowcol <- n2mfrow(length(tests))
  pushViewport(viewport(layout=grid.layout(nrowcol[1], nrowcol[2]),
                                gp=gpar(cex=5, lwd=.5)))
  for (i in 1:length(tests)) {
    col <- (i - 1) %% nrowcol[2] + 1
    row <- (i - 1) %% nrowcol[2] + 1
    pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row=row, layout.pos.col=col))
    test(tests[[i]])
    popViewport()
  }

```

dataViewport

*Create a Viewport with Scales based on Data***Description**

This is a convenience function for producing a viewport with x- and/or y-scales based on numeric values passed to the function.

Usage

```
dataViewport(xData = NULL, yData = NULL, xscale = NULL,
            yscale = NULL, extension = 0.05, ...)
```

Arguments

xData	A numeric vector of data.
yData	A numeric vector of data.
xscale	A numeric vector (length 2).
yscale	A numeric vector (length 2).
extension	A numeric. If length greater than 1, then first value is used to extend the xscale and second value is used to extend the yscale.
...	All other arguments will be passed to a call to the viewport() function.

Details

If `xscale` is not specified then the values in `x` are used to generate an `x`-scale based on the range of `x`, extended by the proportion specified in `extension`. Similarly for the `y`-scale.

Value

A grid viewport object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[viewport](#) and [plotViewport](#).

depth	<i>Determine the number of levels in an object.</i>
-------	---

Description

Determine the number of levels in a viewport stack or tree, in a viewport path, or in a grob path.

Usage

```
depth(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'viewport'
depth(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'path'
depth(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	Typically a viewport or viewport stack or viewport tree or viewport list, or a viewport path, or a grob path.
<code>...</code>	Arguments used by other methods.

Details

Depths of paths are pretty straightforward because they contain no branchings. The depth of a viewport stack is the sum of the depths of the components of the stack. The depth of a viewport tree is the depth of the parent plus the depth of the children. The depth of a viewport list is the depth of the last component of the list.

Value

An integer value.

See Also

[viewport](#), [vpPath](#), [gPath](#).

Examples

```
vp <- viewport()
depth(vp)
depth(vpStack(vp, vp))
depth(vplist(vpStack(vp, vp), vp))
depth(vpPath("vp"))
depth(vpPath("vp1", "vp2"))
```

drawDetails

Customising grid Drawing

Description

These generic hook functions are called whenever a grid grob is drawn. They provide an opportunity for customising the drawing of a new class derived from grob (or gTree).

Usage

```
drawDetails(x, recording)
preDrawDetails(x)
postDrawDetails(x)
```

Arguments

x	A grid grob.
recording	A logical value indicating whether a grob is being added to the display list or redrawn from the display list.

Details

These functions are called by the `grid.draw` methods for grobs and gTrees.

`preDrawDetails` is called first during the drawing of a grob. This is where any additional viewports should be pushed (see, for example, `grid::preDrawDetails.frame`). Note that the default behaviour for grobs is to push any viewports in the `vp` slot, and for gTrees is to also push and up any viewports in the `childrenvp` slot so there is typically nothing to do here.

`drawDetails` is called next and is where any additional calculations and graphical output should occur (see, for example, `grid::drawDetails.xaxis`). Note that the default behaviour for gTrees is to draw all grobs in the `children` slot so there is typically nothing to do here.

`postDrawDetails` is called last and should reverse anything done in `preDrawDetails` (i.e., pop or up any viewports that were pushed; again, see, for example, `grid::postDrawDetails.frame`). Note that the default behaviour for grobs is to pop any viewports that were pushed so there is typically nothing to do here.

Note that `preDrawDetails` and `postDrawDetails` are also called in the calculation of "grobwidth" and "grobheight" units.

Value

None of these functions are expected to return a value.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.draw](#)

editDetails

Customising grid Editing

Description

This generic hook function is called whenever a grid grob is edited via `grid.edit` or `editGrob`. This provides an opportunity for customising the editing of a new class derived from grob (or gTree).

Usage

```
editDetails(x, specs)
```

Arguments

x	A grid grob.
specs	A list of named elements. The names indicate the grob slots to modify and the values are the new values for the slots.

Details

This function is called by `grid.edit` and `editGrob`. A method should be written for classes derived from grob or gTree if a change in a slot has an effect on other slots in the grob or children of a gTree (e.g., see `grid:::editDetails.xaxis`).

Note that the slot already has the new value.

Value

The function **MUST** return the modified grob.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.edit](#)

explode

Explode a path into its components.

Description

Explode a viewport path or grob path into its components.

Usage

```
explode(x)
## S3 method for class 'character'
explode(x)
## S3 method for class 'path'
explode(x)
```

Arguments

x Typically a viewport path or a grob path, but a character vector containing zero or more path separators may also be given.

Value

A character vector.

See Also

[vpPath](#), [gPath](#).

Examples

```
explode("vp1::vp2")
explode(vpPath("vp1", "vp2"))
```

gEdit

Create and Apply Edit Objects

Description

The functions `gEdit` and `gEditList` create objects representing an edit operation (essentially a list of arguments to `editGrob`).

The functions `applyEdit` and `applyEdits` apply one or more edit operations to a graphical object.

These functions are most useful for developers creating new graphical functions and objects.

Usage

```
gEdit(...)
gEditList(...)
applyEdit(x, edit)
applyEdits(x, edits)
```

Arguments

...	one or more arguments to the editGrob function (for gEdit) or one or more "gEdit" objects (for gEditList).
x	a grob (grid graphical object).
edit	a "gEdit" object.
edits	either a "gEdit" object or a "gEditList" object.

Value

gEdit returns an object of class "gEdit".

gEditList returns an object of class "gEditList".

applyEdit and applyEditList return the modified grob.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grob editGrob](#)

Examples

```
grid.rect(gp=gpar(col="red"))
# same thing, but more verbose
grid.draw(applyEdit(rectGrob(), gEdit(gp=gpar(col="red"))))
```

getNames

List the names of grobs on the display list

Description

Returns a character vector containing the names of all top-level grobs on the display list.

Usage

```
getNames()
```

Value

A character vector.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

Examples

```
grid.grill()
getNames()
```

gpar

Handling Grid Graphical Parameters

Description

`gpar()` should be used to create a set of graphical parameter settings. It returns an object of class "gpar". This is basically a list of name-value pairs.

`get.gpar()` can be used to query the current graphical parameter settings.

Usage

```
gpar(...)
get.gpar(names = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	Any number of named arguments.
<code>names</code>	A character vector of valid graphical parameter names.

Details

All grid viewports and (predefined) graphical objects have a slot called `gp`, which contains a "gpar" object. When a viewport is pushed onto the viewport stack and when a graphical object is drawn, the settings in the "gpar" object are enforced. In this way, the graphical output is modified by the `gp` settings until the graphical object has finished drawing, or until the viewport is popped off the viewport stack, or until some other viewport or graphical object is pushed or begins drawing.

The default parameter settings are defined by the ROOT viewport, which takes its settings from the graphics device. These defaults may differ between devices (e.g., the default `fill` setting is different for a PNG device compared to a PDF device).

Valid parameter names are:

<code>col</code>	Colour for lines and borders.
<code>fill</code>	Colour for filling rectangles, polygons, ...
<code>alpha</code>	Alpha channel for transparency

lty	Line type
lwd	Line width
lex	Multiplier applied to line width
lineend	Line end style (round, butt, square)
linejoin	Line join style (round, mitre, bevel)
linemitre	Line mitre limit (number greater than 1)
fontsize	The size of text (in points)
cex	Multiplier applied to fontsize
fontfamily	The font family
fontface	The font face (bold, italic, ...)
lineheight	The height of a line as a multiple of the size of text
font	Font face (alias for fontface; for backward compatibility)

For more details of many of these, see the help for the corresponding graphical parameter [par](#) in base graphics. (This may have a slightly different name, e.g. `lend`, `ljoin`, `lmitre`, `family`.)

Colours can be specified in one of the forms returned by [rgb](#), as a name (see [colors](#)) or as a non-negative integer index into the current [palette](#) (with zero being taken as transparent). (Negative integer values are now an error.)

The alpha setting is combined with the alpha channel for individual colours by multiplying (with both alpha settings normalised to the range 0 to 1).

The size of text is `fontsize*cex`. The size of a line is `fontsize*cex*lineheight`.

The `cex` setting is cumulative; if a viewport is pushed with a `cex` of 0.5 then another viewport is pushed with a `cex` of 0.5, the effective `cex` is 0.25.

The alpha and `lex` settings are also cumulative.

Changes to the `fontfamily` may be ignored by some devices, but is supported by PostScript, PDF, X11, Windows, and Quartz. The `fontfamily` may be used to specify one of the Hershey Font families (e.g., `HersheySerif`) and this specification will be honoured on all devices.

The specification of `fontface` can be an integer or a string. If an integer, then it follows the R base graphics standard: 1 = plain, 2 = bold, 3 = italic, 4 = bold italic. If a string, then valid values are: `"plain"`, `"bold"`, `"italic"`, `"oblique"`, and `"bold.italic"`. For the special case of the `HersheySerif` font family, `"cyrillic"`, `"cyrillic.oblique"`, and `"EUC"` are also available.

All parameter values can be vectors of multiple values. (This will not always make sense – for example, viewports will only take notice of the first parameter value.)

`get.gpar()` returns all current graphical parameter settings.

Value

An object of class `"gpar"`.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Hershey](#).

Examples

```
gp <- get.gpar()
utils::str(gp)
## These *do* nothing but produce a "gpar" object:
gpar(col = "red")
gpar(col = "blue", lty = "solid", lwd = 3, fontsize = 16)
get.gpar(c("col", "lty"))
grid.newpage()
vp <- viewport(w = .8, h = .8, gp = gpar(col="blue"))
grid.draw(gTree(children=gList(rectGrob(gp = gpar(col="red")),
                                textGrob(paste("The rect is its own colour (red)",
                                                "but this text is the colour",
                                                "set by the gTree (green)",
                                                sep = "\n"))),
            gp = gpar(col="green"), vp = vp))
grid.text("This text is the colour set by the viewport (blue)",
          y = 1, just = c("center", "bottom"),
          gp = gpar(fontsize=20), vp = vp)
grid.newpage()
## example with multiple values for a parameter
pushViewport(viewport())
grid.points(1:10/11, 1:10/11, gp = gpar(col=1:10))
popViewport()
```

gPath

Concatenate Grob Names

Description

This function can be used to generate a grob path for use in `grid.edit` and friends.

A grob path is a list of nested grob names.

Usage

```
gPath(...)
```

Arguments

... Character values which are grob names.

Details

Grob names must only be unique amongst grobs which share the same parent in a `gTree`.

This function can be used to generate a specification for a grob that includes the grob's parent's name (and the name of its parent and so on).

For interactive use, it is possible to directly specify a path, but it is strongly recommended that this function is used otherwise in case the path separator is changed in future versions of grid.

Value

A `gPath` object.

See Also

[grob](#), [editGrob](#), [addGrob](#), [removeGrob](#), [getGrob](#), [setGrob](#)

Examples

```
gPath("g1", "g2")
```

Grid

Grid Graphics

Description

General information about the grid graphics package.

Details

Grid graphics provides an alternative to the standard R graphics. The user is able to define arbitrary rectangular regions (called *viewports*) on the graphics device and define a number of coordinate systems for each region. Drawing can be specified to occur in any viewport using any of the available coordinate systems.

Grid graphics and standard R graphics do not mix!

Type `library(help = grid)` to see a list of (public) Grid graphics functions.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[viewport](#), [grid.layout](#), and [unit](#).

Examples

```
## Diagram of a simple layout
grid.show.layout(grid.layout(4,2,
                             heights=unit(rep(1, 4),
                                           c("lines", "lines", "lines", "null")),
                             widths=unit(c(1, 1), "inches")))
## Diagram of a sample viewport
grid.show.viewport(viewport(x=0.6, y=0.6,
                             w=unit(1, "inches"), h=unit(1, "inches")))
## A flash plotting example
grid.multipanel(vp=viewport(0.5, 0.5, 0.8, 0.8))
```

Description

These functions create viewports, which describe rectangular regions on a graphics device and define a number of coordinate systems within those regions.

Usage

```
viewport(x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
         width = unit(1, "npc"), height = unit(1, "npc"),
         default.units = "npc", just = "centre",
         gp = gpar(), clip = "inherit",
         xscale = c(0, 1), yscale = c(0, 1),
         angle = 0,
         layout = NULL,
         layout.pos.row = NULL, layout.pos.col = NULL,
         name = NULL)
vpList(...)
vpStack(...)
vpTree(parent, children)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-location.
<code>y</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-location.
<code>width</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying width.
<code>height</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying height.
<code>default.units</code>	A string indicating the default units to use if <code>x</code> , <code>y</code> , <code>width</code> , or <code>height</code> are only given as numeric vectors.
<code>just</code>	A string or numeric vector specifying the justification of the viewport relative to its (<code>x</code> , <code>y</code>) location. If there are two values, the first value specifies horizontal justification and the second value specifies vertical justification. Possible string values are: "left", "right", "centre", "center", "bottom", and "top". For numeric values, 0 means left alignment and 1 means right alignment.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>clip</code>	One of "on", "inherit", or "off", indicating whether to clip to the extent of this viewport, inherit the clipping region from the parent viewport, or turn clipping off altogether. For back-compatibility, a logical value of TRUE corresponds to "on" and FALSE corresponds to "inherit".
<code>xscale</code>	A numeric vector of length two indicating the minimum and maximum on the x-scale. The limits may not be identical.

<code>yscale</code>	A numeric vector of length two indicating the minimum and maximum on the y-scale. The limits may not be identical.
<code>angle</code>	A numeric value indicating the angle of rotation of the viewport. Positive values indicate the amount of rotation, in degrees, anticlockwise from the positive x-axis.
<code>layout</code>	A Grid layout object which splits the viewport into subregions.
<code>layout.pos.row</code>	A numeric vector giving the rows occupied by this viewport in its parent's layout.
<code>layout.pos.col</code>	A numeric vector giving the columns occupied by this viewport in its parent's layout.
<code>name</code>	A character value to uniquely identify the viewport once it has been pushed onto the viewport tree.
<code>...</code>	Any number of grid viewport objects.
<code>parent</code>	A grid viewport object.
<code>children</code>	A <code>vpList</code> object.

Details

The location and size of a viewport are relative to the coordinate systems defined by the viewport's parent (either a graphical device or another viewport). The location and size can be specified in a very flexible way by specifying them with unit objects. When specifying the location of a viewport, specifying both `layout.pos.row` and `layout.pos.col` as `NULL` indicates that the viewport ignores its parent's layout and specifies its own location and size (via its `locn`). If only one of `layout.pos.row` and `layout.pos.col` is `NULL`, this means occupy ALL of the appropriate row(s)/column(s). For example, `layout.pos.row = 1` and `layout.pos.col = NULL` means occupy all of row 1. Specifying non-`NULL` values for both `layout.pos.row` and `layout.pos.col` means occupy the intersection of the appropriate rows and columns. If a vector of length two is specified for `layout.pos.row` or `layout.pos.col`, this indicates a range of rows or columns to occupy. For example, `layout.pos.row = c(1, 3)` and `layout.pos.col = c(2, 4)` means occupy cells in the intersection of rows 1, 2, and 3, and columns, 2, 3, and 4.

Clipping obeys only the most recent viewport clip setting. For example, if you clip to viewport1, then clip to viewport2, the clipping region is determined wholly by viewport2, the size and shape of viewport1 is irrelevant (until viewport2 is popped of course).

If a viewport is rotated (because of its own `angle` setting or because it is within another viewport which is rotated) then the `clip` flag is ignored.

Viewport names need not be unique. When pushed, viewports sharing the same parent must have unique names, which means that if you push a viewport with the same name as an existing viewport, the existing viewport will be replaced in the viewport tree. A viewport name can be any string, but grid uses the reserved name "ROOT" for the top-level viewport. Also, when specifying a viewport name in `downViewport` and `seekViewport`, it is possible to provide a viewport path, which consists of several names concatenated using the separator (currently `:`). Consequently, it is not advisable to use this separator in viewport names.

The viewports in a `vpList` are pushed in parallel. The viewports in a `vpStack` are pushed in series. When a `vpTree` is pushed, the parent is pushed first, then the children are pushed in parallel.

Value

An R object of class viewport.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [pushViewport](#), [popViewport](#), [downViewport](#), [seekViewport](#), [upViewport](#), [unit](#), [grid.layout](#), [grid.show.layout](#).

Examples

```
# Diagram of a sample viewport
grid.show.viewport(viewport(x=0.6, y=0.6,
                           w=unit(1, "inches"), h=unit(1, "inches")))

# Demonstrate viewport clipping
clip.demo <- function(i, j, clip1, clip2) {
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.col=i,
                        layout.pos.row=j))
  pushViewport(viewport(width=0.6, height=0.6, clip=clip1))
  grid.rect(gp=gpar(fill="white"))
  grid.circle(r=0.55, gp=gpar(col="red", fill="pink"))
  popViewport()
  pushViewport(viewport(width=0.6, height=0.6, clip=clip2))
  grid.polygon(x=c(0.5, 1.1, 0.6, 1.1, 0.5, -0.1, 0.4, -0.1),
              y=c(0.6, 1.1, 0.5, -0.1, 0.4, -0.1, 0.5, 1.1),
              gp=gpar(col="blue", fill="light blue"))
  popViewport(2)
}

grid.newpage()
grid.rect(gp=gpar(fill="grey"))
pushViewport(viewport(layout=grid.layout(2, 2)))
clip.demo(1, 1, FALSE, FALSE)
clip.demo(1, 2, TRUE, FALSE)
clip.demo(2, 1, FALSE, TRUE)
clip.demo(2, 2, TRUE, TRUE)
popViewport()
# Demonstrate turning clipping off
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(w=.5, h=.5, clip="on"))
grid.rect()
grid.circle(r=.6, gp=gpar(lwd=10))
pushViewport(viewport(clip="inherit"))
grid.circle(r=.6, gp=gpar(lwd=5, col="grey"))
pushViewport(viewport(clip="off"))
grid.circle(r=.6)
popViewport(3)
# Demonstrate vpList, vpStack, and vpTree
grid.newpage()
```

```

tree <- vpTree(viewport(w=0.8, h=0.8, name="A"),
  vpList(vpStack(viewport(x=0.1, y=0.1, w=0.5, h=0.5,
    just=c("left", "bottom"), name="B"),
    viewport(x=0.1, y=0.1, w=0.5, h=0.5,
    just=c("left", "bottom"), name="C"),
    viewport(x=0.1, y=0.1, w=0.5, h=0.5,
    just=c("left", "bottom"), name="D")),
    viewport(x=0.5, w=0.4, h=0.9,
    just="left", name="E")))
pushViewport(tree)
for (i in LETTERS[1:5]) {
  seekViewport(i)
  grid.rect()
  grid.text(current.vpTree(FALSE),
    x=unit(1, "mm"), y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "mm"),
    just=c("left", "top"),
    gp=gpar(fontsize=8))
}

```

grid.add

*Add a Grid Graphical Object***Description**

Add a grob to a gTree or a descendant of a gTree.

Usage

```

grid.add(gPath, child, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE,
  global = FALSE, allDevices = FALSE, redraw = TRUE)

addGrob(gTree, child, gPath = NULL, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE,
  global = FALSE, warn = TRUE)

setChildren(x, children)

```

Arguments

gTree, x	A gTree object.
gPath	A gPath object. For grid.add this specifies a gTree on the display list. For addGrob this specifies a descendant of the specified gTree.
child	A grob object.
children	A gList object.
strict	A boolean indicating whether the gPath must be matched exactly.
grep	A boolean indicating whether the gPath should be treated as a regular expression. Values are recycled across elements of the gPath (e.g., c(TRUE, FALSE) means that every odd element of the gPath will be treated as a regular expression).

global	A boolean indicating whether the function should affect just the first match of the gPath, or whether all matches should be affected.
warn	A logical to indicate whether failing to find the specified gPath should trigger an error.
allDevices	A boolean indicating whether all open devices should be searched for matches, or just the current device. NOT YET IMPLEMENTED.
redraw	A logical value to indicate whether to redraw the grob.

Details

addGrob copies the specified grob and returns a modified grob.

grid.add destructively modifies a grob on the display list. If redraw is TRUE it then redraws everything to reflect the change.

setChildren is a basic function for setting all children of a gTree at once (instead of repeated calls to addGrob).

Value

addGrob returns a grob object; grid.add returns NULL.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grob](#), [getGrob](#), [addGrob](#), [removeGrob](#).

grid.bezier

Draw a Bezier Curve

Description

These functions create and draw Bezier Curves (a curve drawn relative to 4 control points).

Usage

```
grid.bezier(...)
bezierGrob(x = c(0, 0.5, 1, 0.5), y = c(0.5, 1, 0.5, 0),
           id = NULL, id.lengths = NULL,
           default.units = "npc", arrow = NULL,
           name = NULL, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)
```


Arguments

<code>x</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-locations of spline control points.
<code>y</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-locations of spline control points.
<code>id</code>	A numeric vector used to separate locations in <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> into multiple beziers. All locations with the same <code>id</code> belong to the same bezier.
<code>id.lengths</code>	A numeric vector used to separate locations in <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> into multiple bezier. Specifies consecutive blocks of locations which make up separate beziers.
<code>default.units</code>	A string indicating the default units to use if <code>x</code> or <code>y</code> are only given as numeric vectors.
<code>arrow</code>	A list describing arrow heads to place at either end of the bezier, as produced by the <code>arrow</code> function.
<code>name</code>	A character identifier.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).
<code>...</code>	Arguments to be passed to <code>bezierGrob</code> .

Details

Both functions create a `beziergrob` (a graphical object describing a Bezier curve), but only `grid.bezier` draws the Bezier curve.

A Bezier curve is a line drawn relative to 4 control points.

Missing values are not allowed for `x` and `y` (i.e., it is not valid for a control point to be missing).

The curve is currently drawn using an approximation based on X-splines.

Value

A grob object.

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [arrow](#).

[grid.xspline](#).

Examples

```
x <- c(0.2, 0.2, 0.4, 0.4)
y <- c(0.2, 0.4, 0.4, 0.2)

grid.newpage()
grid.bezier(x, y)
grid.bezier(c(x, x + .4), c(y + .4, y + .4),
            id=rep(1:2, each=4))
grid.segments(.4, .6, .6, .6)
grid.bezier(x, y,
            gp=gpar(lwd=3, fill="black"),
```

```
arrow=arrow(type="closed"),  
vp=viewport(x=.9))
```

`grid.cap`*Capture a raster image*

Description

Capture the current contents of a graphics device as a raster (bitmap) image.

Usage

```
grid.cap()
```

Details

This function is only implemented for on-screen graphics devices.

Value

A matrix of R colour names, or NULL if not available.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.raster](#)

[dev.capabilities](#) to see if it is supported.

Examples

```
dev.new(width=0.5, height=0.5)  
grid.rect()  
grid.text("hi")  
cap <- grid.cap()  
dev.off()  
  
if(!is.null(cap))  
  grid.raster(cap, width=0.5, height=0.5, interpolate=FALSE)
```

grid.circle

*Draw a Circle***Description**

Functions to create and draw a circle.

Usage

```
grid.circle(x=0.5, y=0.5, r=0.5, default.units="npc", name=NULL,
            gp=gpar(), draw=TRUE, vp=NULL)
circleGrob(x=0.5, y=0.5, r=0.5, default.units="npc", name=NULL,
            gp=gpar(), vp=NULL)
```

Arguments

x	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-locations.
y	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-locations.
r	A numeric vector or unit object specifying radii.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x, y, width, or height are only given as numeric vectors.
name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
draw	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

Both functions create a circle grob (a graphical object describing a circle), but only `grid.circle()` draws the circle (and then only if `draw` is `TRUE`).

The radius may be given in any units; if the units are *relative* (e.g., "npc" or "native") then the radius will be different depending on whether it is interpreted as a width or as a height. In such cases, the smaller of these two values will be the result. To see the effect, type `grid.circle()` and adjust the size of the window.

What happens for very small radii is device-dependent: the circle may become invisible or be shown at a fixed minimum size. Circles of zero radius will not be plotted.

Value

A circle grob. `grid.circle()` returns the value invisibly.

Warning

Negative values for the radius are silently converted to their absolute value.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

grid.clip*Set the Clipping Region*

Description

These functions set the clipping region within the current viewport *without* altering the current coordinate system.

Usage

```
grid.clip(...)
clipGrob(x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
         width = unit(1, "npc"), height = unit(1, "npc"),
         just = "centre", hjust = NULL, vjust = NULL,
         default.units = "npc", name = NULL, vp = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-location.
y	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-location.
width	A numeric vector or unit object specifying width.
height	A numeric vector or unit object specifying height.
just	The justification of the clip rectangle relative to its (x, y) location. If there are two values, the first value specifies horizontal justification and the second value specifies vertical justification. Possible string values are: "left", "right", "centre", "center", "bottom", and "top". For numeric values, 0 means left alignment and 1 means right alignment.
hjust	A numeric vector specifying horizontal justification. If specified, overrides the just setting.
vjust	A numeric vector specifying vertical justification. If specified, overrides the just setting.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x, y, width, or height are only given as numeric vectors.
name	A character identifier.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).
...	Arguments passed to clipGrob.

Details

Both functions create a clip rectangle (a graphical object describing a clip rectangle), but only `grid.clip` enforces the clipping.

Pushing or popping a viewport *always* overrides the clip region set by a clip grob, regardless of whether that viewport explicitly enforces a clipping region.

Value

`clipGrob` returns a clip grob.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

Examples

```
# draw across entire viewport, but clipped
grid.clip(x = 0.3, width = 0.1)
grid.lines(gp=gpar(col="green", lwd=5))
# draw across entire viewport, but clipped (in different place)
grid.clip(x = 0.7, width = 0.1)
grid.lines(gp=gpar(col="red", lwd=5))
# Viewport sets new clip region
pushViewport(viewport(width=0.5, height=0.5, clip=TRUE))
grid.lines(gp=gpar(col="grey", lwd=3))
# Return to original viewport; get
# clip region from previous grid.clip()
# (NOT from previous viewport clip region)
popViewport()
grid.lines(gp=gpar(col="black"))
```

grid.convert

Convert Between Different grid Coordinate Systems

Description

These functions take a unit object and convert it to an equivalent unit object in a different coordinate system.

Usage

```

convertX(x, unitTo, valueOnly = FALSE)
convertY(x, unitTo, valueOnly = FALSE)
convertWidth(x, unitTo, valueOnly = FALSE)
convertHeight(x, unitTo, valueOnly = FALSE)
convertUnit(x, unitTo,
            axisFrom = "x", typeFrom = "location",
            axisTo = axisFrom, typeTo = typeFrom,
            valueOnly = FALSE)

```

Arguments

x	A unit object.
unitTo	The coordinate system to convert the unit to. See the unit function for valid coordinate systems.
axisFrom	Either "x" or "y" to indicate whether the unit object represents a value in the x- or y-direction.
typeFrom	Either "location" or "dimension" to indicate whether the unit object represents a location or a length.
axisTo	Same as axisFrom, but applies to the unit object that is to be created.
typeTo	Same as typeFrom, but applies to the unit object that is to be created.
valueOnly	A logical indicating. If TRUE then the function does not return a unit object, but rather only the converted numeric values.

Details

The `convertUnit` function allows for general-purpose conversions. The other four functions are just more convenient front-ends to it for the most common conversions.

The conversions occur within the current viewport.

It is not currently possible to convert to all valid coordinate systems (e.g., "strwidth" or "grobwidth"). I'm not sure if all of these are impossible, they just seem implausible at this stage.

In normal usage of `grid`, these functions should not be necessary. If you want to express a location or dimension in inches rather than user coordinates then you should simply do something like `unit(1, "inches")` rather than something like `unit(0.134, "native")`.

In some cases, however, it is necessary for the user to perform calculations on a unit value and this function becomes necessary. In such cases, please take note of the warning below.

Value

A unit object in the specified coordinate system (unless `valueOnly` is TRUE in which case the returned value is a numeric).

Warning

The conversion is only valid for the current device size. If the device is resized then at least some conversions will become invalid. For example, suppose that I create a unit object as follows: `oneinch <- convertUnit(unit(1, "inches"), "native")`. Now if I resize the device, the unit object in `oneinch` no longer corresponds to a physical length of 1 inch.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[unit](#)

Examples

```
## A tautology
convertX(unit(1, "inches"), "inches")
## The physical units
convertX(unit(2.54, "cm"), "inches")
convertX(unit(25.4, "mm"), "inches")
convertX(unit(72.27, "points"), "inches")
convertX(unit(1/12*72.27, "picas"), "inches")
convertX(unit(72, "bigpts"), "inches")
convertX(unit(1157/1238*72.27, "dida"), "inches")
convertX(unit(1/12*1157/1238*72.27, "cicero"), "inches")
convertX(unit(65536*72.27, "scaledpts"), "inches")
convertX(unit(1/2.54, "inches"), "cm")
convertX(unit(1/25.4, "inches"), "mm")
convertX(unit(1/72.27, "inches"), "points")
convertX(unit(1/(1/12*72.27), "inches"), "picas")
convertX(unit(1/72, "inches"), "bigpts")
convertX(unit(1/(1157/1238*72.27), "inches"), "dida")
convertX(unit(1/(1/12*1157/1238*72.27), "inches"), "cicero")
convertX(unit(1/(65536*72.27), "inches"), "scaledpts")

pushViewport(viewport(width=unit(1, "inches"),
                      height=unit(2, "inches"),
                      xscale=c(0, 1),
                      yscale=c(1, 3)))

## Location versus dimension
convertY(unit(2, "native"), "inches")
convertHeight(unit(2, "native"), "inches")
## From "x" to "y" (the conversion is via "inches")
convertUnit(unit(1, "native"), "native",
            axisFrom="x", axisTo="y")
## Convert several values at once
convertX(unit(c(0.5, 2.54), c("npc", "cm")),
        c("inches", "native"))
popViewport()
## Convert a complex unit
convertX(unit(1, "strwidth", "Hello"), "native")
```

`grid.copy`*Make a Copy of a Grid Graphical Object*

Description

This function is redundant and will disappear in future versions.

Usage

```
grid.copy(grob)
```

Arguments

`grob` A grob object.

Value

A copy of the grob object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.grob.](#)

`grid.curve`*Draw a Curve Between Locations*

Description

These functions create and draw a curve from one location to another.

Usage

```
grid.curve(...)
curveGrob(x1, y1, x2, y2, default.units = "npc",
          curvature = 1, angle = 90, ncp = 1, shape = 0.5,
          square = TRUE, squareShape = 1,
          inflect = FALSE, arrow = NULL, open = TRUE,
          debug = FALSE,
          name = NULL, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)
arcCurvature(theta)
```


Arguments

x1	A numeric vector or unit object specifying the x-location of the start point.
y1	A numeric vector or unit object specifying the y-location of the start point.
x2	A numeric vector or unit object specifying the x-location of the end point.
y2	A numeric vector or unit object specifying the y-location of the end point.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x1, y1, x2 or y2 are only given as numeric values.
curvature	A numeric value giving the amount of curvature. Negative values produce left-hand curves, positive values produce right-hand curves, and zero produces a straight line.
angle	A numeric value between 0 and 180, giving an amount to skew the control points of the curve. Values less than 90 skew the curve towards the start point and values greater than 90 skew the curve towards the end point.
ncp	The number of control points used to draw the curve. More control points creates a smoother curve.
shape	A numeric vector of values between -1 and 1, which control the shape of the curve relative to its control points. See <code>grid.xspline</code> for more details.
square	A logical value that controls whether control points for the curve are created city-block fashion or obliquely. When ncp is 1 and angle is 90, this is typically TRUE, otherwise this should probably be set to FALSE (see Examples below).
squareShape	A shape value to control the behaviour of the curve relative to any additional control point that is inserted if square is TRUE.
inflect	A logical value specifying whether the curve should be cut in half and inverted (see Examples below).
arrow	A list describing arrow heads to place at either end of the curve, as produced by the <code>arrow</code> function.
open	A logical value indicating whether to close the curve (connect the start and end points).
debug	A logical value indicating whether debugging information should be drawn.
name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).
...	Arguments to be passed to <code>curveGrob</code> .
theta	An angle (in degrees).

Details

Both functions create a curve grob (a graphical object describing an curve), but only `grid.curve` draws the curve.

The `arcCurvature` function can be used to calculate a curvature such that control points are generated on an arc corresponding to angle `theta`. This is typically used in conjunction with a large `ncp` to produce a curve corresponding to the desired arc.

Value

A grob object.

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [grid.xspline](#), [arrow](#)

Examples

```
curveTest <- function(i, j, ...) {
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.col=j, layout.pos.row=i))
  do.call("grid.curve", c(list(x1=.25, y1=.25, x2=.75, y2=.75), list(...)))
  grid.text(sub("list\\((.*)\\)", "\\1",
    deparse(substitute(list(...)))),
    y=unit(1, "npc"))
  popViewport()
}
# grid.newpage()
pushViewport(plotViewport(c(0, 0, 1, 0),
  layout=grid.layout(2, 1, heights=c(2, 1))))
pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row=1,
  layout=grid.layout(3, 3, respect=TRUE)))
curveTest(1, 1)
curveTest(1, 2, inflect=TRUE)
curveTest(1, 3, angle=135)
curveTest(2, 1, arrow=arrow())
curveTest(2, 2, ncp=8)
curveTest(2, 3, shape=0)
curveTest(3, 1, curvature=-1)
curveTest(3, 2, square=FALSE)
curveTest(3, 3, debug=TRUE)
popViewport()
pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row=2,
  layout=grid.layout(3, 3)))
curveTest(1, 1)
curveTest(1, 2, inflect=TRUE)
curveTest(1, 3, angle=135)
curveTest(2, 1, arrow=arrow())
curveTest(2, 2, ncp=8)
curveTest(2, 3, shape=0)
curveTest(3, 1, curvature=-1)
curveTest(3, 2, square=FALSE)
curveTest(3, 3, debug=TRUE)
popViewport(2)
```

Description

Evaluates an expression that includes both calculations and generating a grob that depends on the calculations so that both the calculations and the grob generation will be rerun when the scene is redrawn (e.g., device resize or editing).

Intended *only* for expert use.

Usage

```
delayGrob(expr, list, name=NULL, gp=NULL, vp=NULL)
grid.delay(expr, list, name=NULL, gp=NULL, vp=NULL)
```

Arguments

expr	object of mode expression or call or an unevaluated expression.
list	a list defining the environment in which expr is to be evaluated.
name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

A grob is created of special class "delayedgrob" (and drawn, in the case of grid.delay). The makeContent method for this class evaluates the expression with the list as the evaluation environment (and the grid Namespace as the parent of that environment).

The expr argument should return a grob as its result.

These functions are analogues of the grid.record() and recordGrob() functions; the difference is that these functions are based on the makeContent() hook, while those functions are based on the drawDetails() hook.

Note

This function *must* be used instead of the function recordGraphics; all of the dire warnings about using recordGraphics responsibly also apply here.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[recordGraphics](#)

Examples

```
grid.delay({  
  w <- convertWidth(unit(1, "inches"), "npc")  
  rectGrob(width=w)  
},  
list())
```

grid.display.list	<i>Control the Grid Display List</i>
-------------------	--------------------------------------

Description

Turn the Grid display list on or off.

Usage

```
grid.display.list(on=TRUE)  
engine.display.list(on=TRUE)
```

Arguments

on A logical value to indicate whether the display list should be on or off.

Details

All drawing and viewport-setting operations are (by default) recorded in the Grid display list. This allows redrawing to occur following an editing operation.

This display list could get very large so it may be useful to turn it off in some cases; this will of course disable redrawing.

All graphics output is also recorded on the main display list of the R graphics engine (by default). This supports redrawing following a device resize and allows copying between devices.

Turning off this display list means that grid will redraw from its own display list for device resizes and copies. This will be slower than using the graphics engine display list.

Value

None.

WARNING

Turning the display list on causes the display list to be erased!

Turning off both the grid display list and the graphics engine display list will result in no redrawing whatsoever.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

`grid.DLapply`*Modify the Grid Display List*

Description

Call a function on each element of the current display list.

Usage

```
grid.DLapply(FUN, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>FUN</code>	A function; the first argument to this function is passed each element of the display list.
<code>...</code>	Further arguments to pass to <code>FUN</code> .

Details

This function is insanely dangerous (for the grid display list).

Two token efforts are made to try to avoid ending up with complete garbage on the display list:

1. The display list is only replaced once all new elements have been generated (so an error during generation does not result in a half-finished display list).
2. All new elements must be either `NULL` or inherit from the class of the element that they are replacing.

Value

The side effect of these functions is usually to modify the grid display list.

See Also

[Grid](#).

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
grid.rect(width=.4, height=.4, x=.25, y=.75, gp=gpar(fill="black"), name="r1")
grid.rect(width=.4, height=.4, x=.5, y=.5, gp=gpar(fill="grey"), name="r2")
grid.rect(width=.4, height=.4, x=.75, y=.25, gp=gpar(fill="white"), name="r3")
grid.DLapply(function(x) { if (is.grob(x)) x$gp <- gpar(); x })
grid.refresh()
```

grid.draw*Draw a grid grob*

Description

Produces graphical output from a graphical object.

Usage

```
grid.draw(x, recording=TRUE)
```

Arguments

x	An object of class "grob" or NULL.
recording	A logical value to indicate whether the drawing operation should be recorded on the Grid display list.

Details

This is a generic function with methods for grob and gTree objects.

The grob and gTree methods automatically push any viewports in a vp slot and automatically apply any gpar settings in a gp slot. In addition, the gTree method pushes and ups any viewports in a childrenvp slot and automatically calls grid.draw for any grobs in a children slot.

The methods for grob and gTree call the generic hook functions preDrawDetails, drawDetails, and postDrawDetails to allow classes derived from grob or gTree to perform additional viewport pushing/popping and produce additional output beyond the default behaviour for grobs and gTrees.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grob](#).

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
## Create a graphical object, but don't draw it
l <- linesGrob()
## Draw it
grid.draw(l)
```

grid.edit

*Edit the Description of a Grid Graphical Object***Description**

Changes the value of one of the slots of a grob and redraws the grob.

Usage

```
grid.edit(gPath, ..., strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE,
          global = FALSE, allDevices = FALSE, redraw = TRUE)

grid.gedit(..., grep = TRUE, global = TRUE)

editGrob(grob, gPath = NULL, ..., strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE,
         global = FALSE, warn = TRUE)
```

Arguments

grob	A grob object.
...	Zero or more named arguments specifying new slot values.
gPath	A gPath object. For grid.edit this specifies a grob on the display list. For editGrob this specifies a descendant of the specified grob.
strict	A boolean indicating whether the gPath must be matched exactly.
grep	A boolean indicating whether the gPath should be treated as a regular expression. Values are recycled across elements of the gPath (e.g., c(TRUE, FALSE) means that every odd element of the gPath will be treated as a regular expression).
global	A boolean indicating whether the function should affect just the first match of the gPath, or whether all matches should be affected.
warn	A logical to indicate whether failing to find the specified gPath should trigger an error.
allDevices	A boolean indicating whether all open devices should be searched for matches, or just the current device. NOT YET IMPLEMENTED.
redraw	A logical value to indicate whether to redraw the grob.

Details

editGrob copies the specified grob and returns a modified grob.

grid.edit destructively modifies a grob on the display list. If redraw is TRUE it then redraws everything to reflect the change.

Both functions call editDetails to allow a grob to perform custom actions and validDetails to check that the modified grob is still coherent.

grid.gedit (g for global) is just a convenience wrapper for grid.edit with different defaults.

Value

editGrob returns a grob object; grid.edit returns NULL.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grob](#), [getGrob](#), [addGrob](#), [removeGrob](#).

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
grid.xaxis(name = "xa", vp = viewport(width=.5, height=.5))
grid.edit("xa", gp = gpar(col="red"))
# won't work because no ticks (at is NULL)
try(grid.edit(gPath("xa", "ticks"), gp = gpar(col="green")))
grid.edit("xa", at = 1:4/5)
# Now it should work
try(grid.edit(gPath("xa", "ticks"), gp = gpar(col="green")))
```

grid.force

Force a grob into its components

Description

Some grobs only generate their content to draw at drawing time; this function replaces such grobs with their at-drawing-time content.

Usage

```
grid.force(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
grid.force(x, redraw = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'gPath'
grid.force(x, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE, global = FALSE,
           redraw = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'grob'
grid.force(x, draw = FALSE, ...)
forceGrob(x)
grid.revert(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'gPath'
grid.revert(x, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE, global = FALSE,
            redraw = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'grob'
grid.revert(x, draw = FALSE, ...)
```


Arguments

<code>x</code>	For the default method, <code>x</code> should not be specified. Otherwise, <code>x</code> should be a grob or a <code>gPath</code> . If <code>x</code> is character, it is assumed to be a <code>gPath</code> .
<code>strict</code>	A boolean indicating whether the path must be matched exactly.
<code>grep</code>	Whether the path should be treated as a regular expression.
<code>global</code>	A boolean indicating whether the function should affect just the first match of the path, or whether all matches should be affected.
<code>draw</code>	logical value indicating whether a grob should be drawn after it is forced.
<code>redraw</code>	logical value indicating whether to redraw the grid scene after the forcing operation.
<code>...</code>	Further arguments for use by methods.

Details

Some grobs wait until drawing time to generate what content will actually be drawn (an axis, as produced by `grid.xaxis()`, with an `at` or `NULL` is a good example because it has to see what viewport it is going to be drawn in before it can decide what tick marks to draw).

The content of such grobs (e.g., the tick marks) are not usually visible to `grid.ls()` or accessible to `grid.edit()`.

The `grid.force()` function *replaces* a grob with its at-drawing-time contents. For example, an axis will be replaced by a vanilla `gTree` with lines and text representing the axis tick marks that were actually drawn. This makes the tick marks visible to `grid.ls()` and accessible to `grid.edit()`.

The `forceGrob()` function is the internal work horse for `grid.force()`, so will not normally be called directly by the user. It is exported so that methods can be written for custom grob classes if necessary.

The `grid.revert()` function reverses the effect of `grid.force()`, replacing forced content with the original grob.

Warning

Forcing an explicit grob produces a result as if the grob were drawn in the *current* drawing context. It may not make sense to draw the result in a different drawing context.

Note

These functions only have an effect for grobs that generate their content at drawing time using `makeContext()` and `makeContent()` methods (*not* for grobs that generate their content at drawing time using `preDrawDetails()` and `drawDetails()` methods).

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

Examples

```

grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(width=.5, height=.5))
# Draw xaxis
grid.xaxis(name="xax")
grid.ls()
# Force xaxis
grid.force()
grid.ls()
# Revert xaxis
grid.revert()
grid.ls()
# Draw and force yaxis
grid.force(yaxisGrob(), draw=TRUE)
grid.ls()
# Revert yaxis
grid.revert()
grid.ls()
# Force JUST xaxis
grid.force("xax")
grid.ls()
# Force ALL
grid.force()
grid.ls()
# Revert JUST xaxis
grid.revert("xax")
grid.ls()

```

grid.frame

*Create a Frame for Packing Objects***Description**

These functions, together with `grid.pack`, `grid.place`, `packGrob`, and `placeGrob` are part of a GUI-builder-like interface to constructing graphical images. The idea is that you create a frame with this function then use `grid.pack` or whatever to pack/place objects into the frame.

Usage

```

grid.frame(layout=NULL, name=NULL, gp=gpar(), vp=NULL, draw=TRUE)
frameGrob(layout=NULL, name=NULL, gp=gpar(), vp=NULL)

```

Arguments

layout	A Grid layout, or NULL. This can be used to initialise the frame with a number of rows and columns, with initial widths and heights, etc.
name	A character identifier.
vp	An object of class viewport, or NULL.

gp	An object of class gpar; typically the output from a call to the function gpar.
draw	Should the frame be drawn.

Details

Both functions create a frame grob (a graphical object describing a frame), but only `grid.frame()` draws the frame (and then only if `draw` is `TRUE`). Nothing will actually be drawn, but it will put the frame on the display list, which means that the output will be dynamically updated as objects are packed into the frame. Possibly useful for debugging.

Value

A frame grob. `grid.frame()` returns the value invisibly.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.pack](#)

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
grid.frame(name="gf", draw=TRUE)
grid.pack("gf", rectGrob(gp=gpar(fill="grey")), width=unit(1, "null"))
grid.pack("gf", textGrob("hi there"), side="right")
```

grid.function

Draw a curve representing a function

Description

Draw a curve representing a function.

Usage

```
grid.function(...)
functionGrob(f, n = 101, range = "x", units = "native",
             name = NULL, gp=gpar(), vp = NULL)

grid.abline(intercept, slope, ...)
```

Arguments

f	A function that must take a single argument and return a list with two numeric components named x and y.
n	The number values that will be generated as input to the function f.
range	Either "x", "y", or a numeric vector. See the 'Details' section.
units	A string indicating the units to use for the x and y values generated by the function.
intercept	Numeric.
slope	Numeric.
...	Arguments passed to grid.function()
name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

n values are generated and passed to the function f and a series of lines are drawn through the resulting x and y values.

The generation of the n values depends on the value of range. In the default case, dim is "x", which means that a set of x values are generated covering the range of the current viewport scale in the x-dimension. If dim is "y" then values are generated from the current y-scale instead. If range is a numeric vector, then values are generated from that range.

grid.abline() provides a simple front-end for a straight line parameterized by intercept and slope.

Value

A functiongrob grob.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid, viewport](#)

Examples

```
# abline
# NOTE: in ROOT viewport on screen, (0, 0) at top-left
#       and "native" is pixels!
grid.function(function(x) list(x=x, y=0 + 1*x))
# a more "normal" viewport with default normalized "native" coords
grid.newpage()
```

```

pushViewport(viewport())
grid.function(function(x) list(x=x, y=0 + 1*x))
# slightly simpler
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport())
grid.abline()
# sine curve
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(xscale=c(0, 2*pi), yscale=c(-1, 1)))
grid.function(function(x) list(x=x, y=sin(x)))
# constrained sine curve
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(xscale=c(0, 2*pi), yscale=c(-1, 1)))
grid.function(function(x) list(x=x, y=sin(x)),
              range=0:1)
# inverse sine curve
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(xscale=c(-1, 1), yscale=c(0, 2*pi)))
grid.function(function(y) list(x=sin(y), y=y),
              range="y")
# parametric function
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(xscale=c(-1, 1), yscale=c(-1, 1)))
grid.function(function(t) list(x=cos(t), y=sin(t)),
              range=c(0, 9*pi/5))
# physical abline
grid.newpage()
grid.function(function(x) list(x=x, y=0 + 1*x),
              units="in")

```

grid.get

Get a Grid Graphical Object

Description

Retrieve a grob or a descendant of a grob.

Usage

```
grid.get(gPath, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE, global = FALSE,
        allDevices = FALSE)
```

```
grid.gget(..., grep = TRUE, global = TRUE)
```

```
getGrob(gTree, gPath, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE, global = FALSE)
```

Arguments

gTree A gTree object.

<code>gPath</code>	A <code>gPath</code> object. For <code>grid.get</code> this specifies a grob on the display list. For <code>getGrob</code> this specifies a descendant of the specified <code>gTree</code> .
<code>strict</code>	A boolean indicating whether the <code>gPath</code> must be matched exactly.
<code>grep</code>	A boolean indicating whether the <code>gPath</code> should be treated as a regular expression. Values are recycled across elements of the <code>gPath</code> (e.g., <code>c(TRUE, FALSE)</code> means that every odd element of the <code>gPath</code> will be treated as a regular expression).
<code>global</code>	A boolean indicating whether the function should affect just the first match of the <code>gPath</code> , or whether all matches should be affected.
<code>allDevices</code>	A boolean indicating whether all open devices should be searched for matches, or just the current device. NOT YET IMPLEMENTED.
<code>...</code>	Arguments that are passed to <code>grid.get</code> .

Details

`grid.gget` (g for global) is just a convenience wrapper for `grid.get` with different defaults.

Value

A grob object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grob](#), [getGrob](#), [addGrob](#), [removeGrob](#).

Examples

```
grid.xaxis(name="xa")
grid.get("xa")
grid.get(gPath("xa", "ticks"))

grid.draw(gTree(name="gt", children=gList(xaxisGrob(name="axis"))))
grid.get(gPath("gt", "axis", "ticks"))
```

`grid.grab`

Grab the current grid output

Description

Creates a `gTree` object from the current grid display list or from a scene generated by user-specified code.

Usage

```
grid.grab(warn = 2, wrap = FALSE, ...)
grid.grabExpr(expr, warn = 2, wrap = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	An expression to be evaluated. Typically, some calls to grid drawing functions.
<code>warn</code>	An integer specifying the amount of warnings to emit. 0 means no warnings, 1 means warn when it is certain that the grab will not faithfully represent the original scene. 2 means warn if there's any possibility that the grab will not faithfully represent the original scene.
<code>wrap</code>	A logical indicating how the output should be captured. If TRUE, each non-grob element on the display list is captured by wrapping it in a grob.
<code>...</code>	arguments passed to <code>gTree</code> , for example, a name and/or class for the <code>gTree</code> that is created.

Details

There are four ways to capture grid output as a `gTree`.

There are two functions for capturing output: use `grid.grab` to capture an existing drawing and `grid.grabExpr` to capture the output from an expression (without drawing anything).

For each of these functions, the output can be captured in two ways. One way tries to be clever and make a `gTree` with a `childrenvp` slot containing all viewports on the display list (including those that are popped) and every grob on the display list as a child of the new `gTree`; each child has a `vpPath` in the `vp` slot so that it is drawn in the appropriate viewport. In other words, the `gTree` contains all elements on the display list, but in a slightly altered form.

The other way, `wrap=TRUE`, is to create a grob for every element on the display list (and make all of those grobs children of the `gTree`).

The first approach creates a more compact and elegant `gTree`, which is more flexible to work with, but is not guaranteed to faithfully replicate all possible grid output. The second approach is more brute force, and harder to work with, but should always faithfully replicate the original output.

Value

A `gTree` object.

See Also

[gTree](#)

Examples

```
pushViewport(viewport(w=.5, h=.5))
grid.rect()
grid.points(stats::runif(10), stats::runif(10))
popViewport()
grab <- grid.grab()
```



```

# Searching for grobs
grid.grep("parent", sampleGTree)
grid.grep("parent", sampleGTree, strict=TRUE)
grid.grep("grandparent", sampleGTree, strict=TRUE)
grid.grep("grandparent::parent", sampleGTree)
grid.grep("parent::child", sampleGTree)
grid.grep("[a-z]", sampleGTree, grep=TRUE)
grid.grep("[a-z]", sampleGTree, grep=TRUE, global=TRUE)
# Searching for viewports
grid.grep("vp1", sampleGTree, viewports=TRUE)
grid.grep("vp2", sampleGTree, viewports=TRUE)
grid.grep("vp", sampleGTree, viewports=TRUE, grep=TRUE)
grid.grep("vp2", sampleGTree, viewports=TRUE, strict=TRUE)
grid.grep("vp1::vp2", sampleGTree, viewports=TRUE)
# Searching for both
grid.grep("[a-z]", sampleGTree, viewports=TRUE, grep=TRUE, global=TRUE)

```

grid.grill

Draw a Grill

Description

This function draws a grill within a Grid viewport.

Usage

```

grid.grill(h = unit(seq(0.25, 0.75, 0.25), "npc"),
           v = unit(seq(0.25, 0.75, 0.25), "npc"),
           default.units = "npc", gp=gpar(col = "grey"), vp = NULL)

```

Arguments

h	A numeric vector or unit object indicating the horizontal location of the vertical grill lines.
v	A numeric vector or unit object indicating the vertical location of the horizontal grill lines.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if h or v are only given as numeric vectors.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
vp	A Grid viewport object.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also[Grid](#), [viewport](#).

grid.grob

*Create Grid Graphical Objects, aka "Grob"s***Description**

Creating grid graphical objects, short ("grob"s).

`grob()` and `gTree()` are the basic creators, `grobTree()` and `gList()` take several grobs to build a new one.

Usage

```
## Grob Creation:
```

```
grob(..., name = NULL, gp = NULL, vp = NULL, cl = NULL)
gTree(..., name = NULL, gp = NULL, vp = NULL, children = NULL,
       childrenvp = NULL, cl = NULL)
grobTree(..., name = NULL, gp = NULL, vp = NULL,
          childrenvp = NULL, cl = NULL)
gList(...)
```

```
## Grob Properties:
```

```
childNames(gTree)
is.grob(x)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	For <code>grob</code> and <code>gTree</code> , the named slots describing important features of the graphical object. For <code>gList</code> and <code>grobTree</code> , a series of <code>grob</code> objects.
<code>name</code>	a character identifier for the grob. Used to find the grob on the display list and/or as a child of another grob.
<code>children</code>	a "gList" object.
<code>childrenvp</code>	a viewport object (or <code>NULL</code>).
<code>gp</code>	A <code>gpar</code> object, typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>vp</code>	a viewport object (or <code>NULL</code>).
<code>cl</code>	string giving the class attribute for the new class.
<code>gTree</code>	a "gTree" object.
<code>x</code>	An R object.

Details

These functions can be used to create a basic "grob", "gTree", or "gList" object, or a new class derived from one of these.

A grid graphical object ("grob") is a description of a graphical item. These basic classes provide default behaviour for validating, drawing, and modifying graphical objects. Both grob() and gTree() call the function [validDetails](#) to check that the object returned is internally coherent.

A "gTree" can have other grobs as children; when a gTree is drawn, it draws all of its children. Before drawing its children, a gTree pushes its childrenvp slot and then navigates back up (calls [upViewport](#)) so that the children can specify their location within the childrenvp via a [vpPath](#).

Grob names need not be unique in general, but all children of a gTree must have different names. A grob name can be any string, though it is not advisable to use the [gPath](#) separator (currently : :) in grob names.

The function childNames returns the names of the grobs which are children of a gTree.

All grid primitives ([grid.lines](#), grid.rect, ...) and some higher-level grid components (e.g., [grid.xaxis](#) and grid.yaxis) are derived from these classes.

grobTree is just a convenient wrapper for gTree when the only components of the gTree are grobs (so all unnamed arguments become children of the gTree).

The grid.grob function is defunct.

Value

An R object of class "grob", a **g**raphical **o**bject.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.draw](#), [grid.edit](#), [grid.get](#).

grid.layout

Create a Grid Layout

Description

This function returns a Grid layout, which describes a subdivision of a rectangular region.

Usage

```
grid.layout(nrow = 1, ncol = 1,
            widths = unit(rep_len(1, ncol), "null"),
            heights = unit(rep_len(1, nrow), "null"),
            default.units = "null", respect = FALSE,
            just="centre")
```

Arguments

nrow	An integer describing the number of rows in the layout.
ncol	An integer describing the number of columns in the layout.
widths	A numeric vector or unit object describing the widths of the columns in the layout.
heights	A numeric vector or unit object describing the heights of the rows in the layout.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if widths or heights are only given as numeric vectors.
respect	A logical value or a numeric matrix. If a logical, this indicates whether row heights and column widths should respect each other. If a matrix, non-zero values indicate that the corresponding row and column should be respected (see examples below).
just	A string or numeric vector specifying how the layout should be justified if it is not the same size as its parent viewport. If there are two values, the first value specifies horizontal justification and the second value specifies vertical justification. Possible string values are: "left", "right", "centre", "center", "bottom", and "top". For numeric values, 0 means left alignment and 1 means right alignment. NOTE that in this context, "left", for example, means align the left edge of the left-most layout column with the left edge of the parent viewport.

Details

The unit objects given for the widths and heights of a layout may use a special units that only has meaning for layouts. This is the "null" unit, which indicates what relative fraction of the available width/height the column/row occupies. See the reference for a better description of relative widths and heights in layouts.

Value

A Grid layout object.

WARNING

This function must NOT be confused with the base R graphics function `layout`. In particular, do not use `layout` in combination with Grid graphics. The documentation for `layout` may provide some useful information and this function should behave identically in comparable situations. The `grid.layout` function has *added* the ability to specify a broader range of units for row heights and column widths, and allows for nested layouts (see `viewport`).

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

References

Murrell, P. R. (1999), Layouts: A Mechanism for Arranging Plots on a Page, *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, **8**, 121–134.

See Also

[Grid](#), [grid.show.layout](#), [viewport](#), [layout](#)

Examples

```
## A variety of layouts (some a bit mid-bending ...)
layout.torture()
## Demonstration of layout justification
grid.newpage()
testlay <- function(just="centre") {
  pushViewport(viewport(layout=grid.layout(1, 1, widths=unit(1, "inches"),
    heights=unit(0.25, "npc"),
    just=just)))
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.col=1, layout.pos.row=1))
  grid.rect()
  grid.text(paste(just, collapse="-"))
  popViewport(2)
}
testlay()
testlay(c("left", "top"))
testlay(c("right", "top"))
testlay(c("right", "bottom"))
testlay(c("left", "bottom"))
testlay(c("left"))
testlay(c("right"))
testlay(c("bottom"))
testlay(c("top"))
```

grid.lines

Draw Lines in a Grid Viewport

Description

These functions create and draw a series of lines.

Usage

```
grid.lines(x = unit(c(0, 1), "npc"),
  y = unit(c(0, 1), "npc"),
  default.units = "npc",
  arrow = NULL, name = NULL,
  gp=gpar(), draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)
linesGrob(x = unit(c(0, 1), "npc"),
  y = unit(c(0, 1), "npc"),
  default.units = "npc",
  arrow = NULL, name = NULL,
  gp=gpar(), vp = NULL)
grid.polyline(...)
```

```

polylineGrob(x = unit(c(0, 1), "npc"),
             y = unit(c(0, 1), "npc"),
             id=NULL, id.lengths=NULL,
             default.units = "npc",
             arrow = NULL, name = NULL,
             gp=gpar(), vp = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-values.
<code>y</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-values.
<code>default.units</code>	A string indicating the default units to use if <code>x</code> or <code>y</code> are only given as numeric vectors.
<code>arrow</code>	A list describing arrow heads to place at either end of the line, as produced by the <code>arrow</code> function.
<code>name</code>	A character identifier.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>draw</code>	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or <code>NULL</code>).
<code>id</code>	A numeric vector used to separate locations in <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> into multiple lines. All locations with the same <code>id</code> belong to the same line.
<code>id.lengths</code>	A numeric vector used to separate locations in <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> into multiple lines. Specifies consecutive blocks of locations which make up separate lines.
<code>...</code>	Arguments passed to <code>polylineGrob</code> .

Details

The first two functions create a lines grob (a graphical object describing lines), and `grid.lines` draws the lines (if `draw` is `TRUE`).

The second two functions create or draw a polyline grob, which is just like a lines grob, except that there can be multiple distinct lines drawn.

Value

A lines grob or a polyline grob. `grid.lines` returns a lines grob invisibly.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [arrow](#)

Examples

```

grid.lines()
# Using id (NOTE: locations are not in consecutive blocks)
grid.newpage()
grid.polyline(x=c((0:4)/10, rep(.5, 5), (10:6)/10, rep(.5, 5)),
              y=c(rep(.5, 5), (10:6/10), rep(.5, 5), (0:4)/10),
              id=rep(1:5, 4),
              gp=gpar(col=1:5, lwd=3))
# Using id.lengths
grid.newpage()
grid.polyline(x=outer(c(0, .5, 1, .5), 5:1/5),
              y=outer(c(.5, 1, .5, 0), 5:1/5),
              id.lengths=rep(4, 5),
              gp=gpar(col=1:5, lwd=3))

```

grid.locator

Capture a Mouse Click

Description

Allows the user to click the mouse once within the current graphics device and returns the location of the mouse click within the current viewport, in the specified coordinate system.

Usage

```
grid.locator(unit = "native")
```

Arguments

unit	The coordinate system in which to return the location of the mouse click. See the unit function for valid coordinate systems.
------	---

Details

This function is modal (like the graphics package function `locator`) so the command line and graphics drawing is blocked until the use has clicked the mouse in the current device.

Value

A unit object representing the location of the mouse click within the current viewport, in the specified coordinate system.

If the user did not click mouse button 1, the function (invisibly) returns `NULL`.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[viewport](#), [unit](#), [locator](#) in package **graphics**, and for an application see [trellis.focus](#) and [panel.identify](#) in package **lattice**.

Examples

```
if (interactive()) {
  ## Need to write a more sophisticated unit as.character method
  unittrim <- function(unit) {
    sub("^[0-9]+|[0-9]+[.][0-9]*", "\\1", as.character(unit))
  }
  do.click <- function(unit) {
    click.locn <- grid.locator(unit)
    grid.segments(unit.c(click.locn$x, unit(0, "npc")),
                  unit.c(unit(0, "npc"), click.locn$y),
                  click.locn$x, click.locn$y,
                  gp=gpar(lty="dashed", col="grey"))
    grid.points(click.locn$x, click.locn$y, pch=16, size=unit(1, "mm"))
    clickx <- unittrim(click.locn$x)
    clicky <- unittrim(click.locn$y)
    grid.text(paste0("(", clickx, ", ", clicky, ")"),
              click.locn$x + unit(2, "mm"), click.locn$y,
              just="left")
  }
  do.click("inches")
  pushViewport(viewport(width=0.5, height=0.5,
                        xscale=c(0, 100), yscale=c(0, 10)))

  grid.rect()
  grid.xaxis()
  grid.yaxis()
  do.click("native")
  popViewport()
}
```

grid.ls

List the names of grobs or viewports

Description

Return a listing of the names of grobs or viewports.

This is a generic function with methods for grobs (including gTrees) and viewports (including vpTrees).

Usage

```
grid.ls(x=NULL, grobs=TRUE, viewports=FALSE, fullNames=FALSE,
        recursive=TRUE, print=TRUE, flatten=TRUE, ...)
```



```
nestedListing(x, gindent=" ", vpindent=gindent)
pathListing(x, gvpSep=" | ", gAlign=TRUE)
grobPathListing(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A grob or viewport or NULL. If NULL, the current grid display list is listed. For print functions, this should be the result of a call to <code>grid.ls</code> .
<code>grobs</code>	A logical value indicating whether to list grobs.
<code>viewports</code>	A logical value indicating whether to list viewports.
<code>fullNames</code>	A logical value indicating whether to embellish object names with information about the object type.
<code>recursive</code>	A logical value indicating whether recursive structures should also list their children.
<code>print</code>	A logical indicating whether to print the listing or a function that will print the listing.
<code>flatten</code>	A logical value indicating whether to flatten the listing. Otherwise a more complex hierarchical object is produced.
<code>gindent</code>	The indent used to show nesting in the output for grobs.
<code>vpindent</code>	The indent used to show nesting in the output for viewports.
<code>gvpSep</code>	The string used to separate viewport paths from grob paths.
<code>gAlign</code>	Logical indicating whether to align the left hand edge of all grob paths.
<code>...</code>	Arguments passed to the print function.

Details

If the argument `x` is NULL, the current contents of the grid display list are listed (both viewports and grobs). In other words, all objects representing the current scene are listed.

Otherwise, `x` should be a grob or a viewport.

The default behaviour of this function is to print information about the grobs in the current scene. It is also possible to add information about the viewports in the scene. By default, the listing is recursive, so all children of `gTrees` and all nested viewports are reported.

The format of the information can be controlled via the `print` argument, which can be given a function to perform the formatting. The `nestedListing` function produces a line per grob or viewport, with indenting used to show nesting. The `pathListing` function produces a line per grob or viewport, with viewport paths and grob paths used to show nesting. The `grobPathListing` is a simple derivation that only shows lines for grobs. The user can define new functions.

Value

The result of this function is either a "gridFlatListing" object (if `flatten` is TRUE) or a "gridListing" object.

The former is a simple (flat) list of vectors. This is convenient, for example, for working programmatically with the list of grob and viewport names, or for writing a new display function for the listing.

The latter is a more complex hierarchical object (list of lists), but it does contain more detailed information so may be of use for more advanced customisations.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grob viewport](#)

Examples

```
# A gTree, called "parent", with childrenvp vpTree (vp2 within vp1)
# and child grob, called "child", with vp vpPath (down to vp2)
sampleGTree <- gTree(name="parent",
                      children=gList(grob(name="child", vp="vp1::vp2")),
                      childrenvp=vpTree(parent=viewport(name="vp1"),
                                         children=vpList(viewport(name="vp2"))))

grid.ls(sampleGTree)
# Show viewports too
grid.ls(sampleGTree, view=TRUE)
# Only show viewports
grid.ls(sampleGTree, view=TRUE, grob=FALSE)
# Alternate displays
# nested listing, custom indent
grid.ls(sampleGTree, view=TRUE, print=nestedListing, gindent="--")
# path listing
grid.ls(sampleGTree, view=TRUE, print=pathListing)
# path listing, without grobs aligned
grid.ls(sampleGTree, view=TRUE, print=pathListing, gAlign=FALSE)
# grob path listing
grid.ls(sampleGTree, view=TRUE, print=grobPathListing)
# path listing, grobs only
grid.ls(sampleGTree, print=pathListing)
# path listing, viewports only
grid.ls(sampleGTree, view=TRUE, grob=FALSE, print=pathListing)
# raw flat listing
str(grid.ls(sampleGTree, view=TRUE, print=FALSE))
```

grid.move.to

Move or Draw to a Specified Position

Description

Grid has the notion of a current location. These functions sets that location.

Usage

```

grid.move.to(x = 0, y = 0, default.units = "npc", name = NULL,
             draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)

moveToGrob(x = 0, y = 0, default.units = "npc", name = NULL,
           vp = NULL)

grid.line.to(x = 1, y = 1, default.units = "npc",
             arrow = NULL, name = NULL,
             gp = gpar(), draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)

lineToGrob(x = 1, y = 1, default.units = "npc", arrow = NULL,
           name = NULL, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A numeric value or a unit object specifying an x-value.
<code>y</code>	A numeric value or a unit object specifying a y-value.
<code>default.units</code>	A string indicating the default units to use if <code>x</code> or <code>y</code> are only given as numeric values.
<code>arrow</code>	A list describing arrow heads to place at either end of the line, as produced by the <code>arrow</code> function.
<code>name</code>	A character identifier.
<code>draw</code>	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or <code>NULL</code>).

Details

Both functions create a `move.to/line.to` grob (a graphical object describing a `move.to/line.to`), but only `grid.move.to/line.to()` draws the `move.to/line.to` (and then only if `draw` is `TRUE`).

Value

A `move.to/line.to` grob. `grid.move.to/line.to()` returns the value invisibly.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [arrow](#)

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
grid.move.to(0.5, 0.5)
grid.line.to(1, 1)
grid.line.to(0.5, 0)
pushViewport(viewport(x=0, y=0, w=0.25, h=0.25, just=c("left", "bottom")))
grid.rect()
grid.grill()
grid.line.to(0.5, 0.5)
popViewport()
```

grid.newpage

Move to a New Page on a Grid Device

Description

This function erases the current device or moves to a new page.

Usage

```
grid.newpage(recording = TRUE)
```

Arguments

recording	A logical value to indicate whether the new-page operation should be saved onto the Grid display list.
-----------	--

Details

The new page is painted with the fill colour (`gpar("fill")`), which is often transparent. For devices with a *canvas* colour (the on-screen devices X11, windows and quartz), the page is first painted with the canvas colour and then the background colour.

There are two hooks called "before.grid.newpage" and "grid.newpage" (see [setHook](#)). The latter is used in the testing code to annotate the new page. The hook function(s) are called with no argument. (If the value is a character string, `get` is called on it from within the **grid** namespace.)

Value

None.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#)

grid.null

*Null Graphical Object***Description**

These functions create a NULL graphical object, which has zero width, zero height, and draw nothing. It can be used as a place-holder or as an invisible reference point for other drawing.

Usage

```
nullGrob(x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
         default.units = "npc",
         name = NULL, vp = NULL)
grid.null(...)
```

Arguments

x	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-location.
y	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-location.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x, y, width, or height are only given as numeric vectors.
name	A character identifier.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).
...	Arguments passed to nullGrob().

Value

A null grob.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
grid.null(name="ref")
grid.rect(height=grobHeight("ref"))
grid.segments(0, 0, grobX("ref", 0), grobY("ref", 0))
```

grid.pack

*Pack an Object within a Frame***Description**

these functions, together with `grid.frame` and `frameGrob` are part of a GUI-builder-like interface to constructing graphical images. The idea is that you create a frame with `grid.frame` or `frameGrob` then use these functions to pack objects into the frame.

Usage

```
grid.pack(gPath, grob, redraw = TRUE, side = NULL,
         row = NULL, row.before = NULL, row.after = NULL,
         col = NULL, col.before = NULL, col.after = NULL,
         width = NULL, height = NULL,
         force.width = FALSE, force.height = FALSE, border = NULL,
         dynamic = FALSE)
```

```
packGrob(frame, grob, side = NULL,
         row = NULL, row.before = NULL, row.after = NULL,
         col = NULL, col.before = NULL, col.after = NULL,
         width = NULL, height = NULL,
         force.width = FALSE, force.height = FALSE, border = NULL,
         dynamic = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>gPath</code>	A <code>gPath</code> object, which specifies a frame on the display list.
<code>frame</code>	An object of class <code>frame</code> , typically the output from a call to <code>grid.frame</code> .
<code>grob</code>	An object of class <code>grob</code> . The object to be packed.
<code>redraw</code>	A boolean indicating whether the output should be updated.
<code>side</code>	One of "left", "top", "right", "bottom" to indicate which side to pack the object on.
<code>row</code>	Which row to add the object to. Must be between 1 and the-number-of-rows-currently-in-the-frame + 1, or NULL in which case the object occupies all rows.
<code>row.before</code>	Add the object to a new row just before this row.
<code>row.after</code>	Add the object to a new row just after this row.
<code>col</code>	Which col to add the object to. Must be between 1 and the-number-of-cols-currently-in-the-frame + 1, or NULL in which case the object occupies all cols.
<code>col.before</code>	Add the object to a new col just before this col.
<code>col.after</code>	Add the object to a new col just after this col.
<code>width</code>	Specifies the width of the column that the object is added to (rather than allowing the width to be taken from the object).

height	Specifies the height of the row that the object is added to (rather than allowing the height to be taken from the object).
force.width	A logical value indicating whether the width of the column that the grob is being packed into should be EITHER the width specified in the call to <code>grid.pack</code> OR the maximum of that width and the pre-existing width.
force.height	A logical value indicating whether the height of the column that the grob is being packed into should be EITHER the height specified in the call to <code>grid.pack</code> OR the maximum of that height and the pre-existing height.
border	A unit object of length 4 indicating the borders around the object.
dynamic	If the width/height is taken from the grob being packed, this boolean flag indicates whether the grobwidth/height unit refers directly to the grob, or uses a <code>gPath</code> to the grob. In the latter case, changes to the grob will trigger a recalculation of the width/height.

Details

`packGrob` modifies the given frame grob and returns the modified frame grob.

`grid.pack` destructively modifies a frame grob on the display list (and redraws the display list if `redraw` is TRUE).

These are (meant to be) very flexible functions. There are many different ways to specify where the new object is to be added relative to the objects already in the frame. The function checks that the specification is not self-contradictory.

NOTE that the width/height of the row/col that the object is added to is taken from the object itself unless the width/height is specified.

Value

`packGrob` returns a frame grob, but `grid.pack` returns NULL.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.frame](#), [grid.place](#), [grid.edit](#), and [gPath](#).

grid.path

Draw a Path

Description

These functions create and draw a path. The final point will automatically be connected to the initial point.

Usage

```
pathGrob(x, y,
         id=NULL, id.lengths=NULL,
         rule="winding",
         default.units="npc",
         name=NULL, gp=gpar(), vp=NULL)
grid.path(...)
```

Arguments

x	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-locations.
y	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-locations.
id	A numeric vector used to separate locations in x and y into sub-paths. All locations with the same id belong to the same sub-path.
id.lengths	A numeric vector used to separate locations in x and y into sub-paths. Specifies consecutive blocks of locations which make up separate sub-paths.
rule	A character value specifying the fill rule: either "winding" or "evenodd".
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x or y are only given as numeric vectors.
name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).
...	Arguments passed to pathGrob().

Details

Both functions create a path grob (a graphical object describing a path), but only `grid.path` draws the path (and then only if `draw` is `TRUE`).

A path is like a polygon except that the former can contain holes, as interpreted by the fill rule; these fill a region if the path border encircles it an odd or non-zero number of times, respectively.

Not all graphics devices support this function: for example `xfig` and `pictex` do not.

Value

A grob object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

Examples

```

pathSample <- function(x, y, rule, gp = gpar()) {
  if (is.na(rule))
    grid.path(x, y, id = rep(1:2, each = 4), gp = gp)
  else
    grid.path(x, y, id = rep(1:2, each = 4), rule = rule, gp = gp)
  if (!is.na(rule))
    grid.text(paste("Rule:", rule), y = 0, just = "bottom")
}

pathTriplet <- function(x, y, title) {
  pushViewport(viewport(height = 0.9, layout = grid.layout(1, 3),
    gp = gpar(cex = .7)))
  grid.rect(y = 1, height = unit(1, "char"), just = "top",
    gp = gpar(col = NA, fill = "grey"))
  grid.text(title, y = 1, just = "top")
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.col = 1))
  pathSample(x, y, rule = "winding",
    gp = gpar(fill = "grey"))
  popViewport()
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.col = 2))
  pathSample(x, y, rule = "evenodd",
    gp = gpar(fill = "grey"))
  popViewport()
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.col = 3))
  pathSample(x, y, rule = NA)
  popViewport()
  popViewport()
}

pathTest <- function() {
  grid.newpage()
  pushViewport(viewport(layout = grid.layout(5, 1)))
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row = 1))
  pathTriplet(c(.1, .1, .9, .9, .2, .2, .8, .8),
    c(.1, .9, .9, .1, .2, .8, .8, .2),
    "Nested rectangles, both clockwise")
  popViewport()
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row = 2))
  pathTriplet(c(.1, .1, .9, .9, .2, .8, .8, .2),
    c(.1, .9, .9, .1, .2, .2, .8, .8),
    "Nested rectangles, outer clockwise, inner anti-clockwise")
  popViewport()
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row = 3))
  pathTriplet(c(.1, .1, .4, .4, .6, .9, .9, .6),
    c(.1, .4, .4, .1, .6, .6, .9, .9),
    "Disjoint rectangles")
  popViewport()
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row = 4))
  pathTriplet(c(.1, .1, .6, .6, .4, .4, .9, .9),
    c(.1, .6, .6, .1, .4, .9, .9, .4),
    "Overlapping rectangles, both clockwise")
}

```

```

    popViewport()
    pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row = 5))
    pathTriplet(c(.1, .1, .6, .6, .4, .9, .9, .4),
                c(.1, .6, .6, .1, .4, .4, .9, .9),
                "Overlapping rectangles, one clockwise, other anti-clockwise")
    popViewport()
    popViewport()
}

pathTest()

```

grid.place

*Place an Object within a Frame***Description**

These functions provide a simpler (and faster) alternative to the `grid.pack()` and `packGrob` functions. They can be used to place objects within the existing rows and columns of a frame layout. They do not provide the ability to add new rows and columns nor do they affect the heights and widths of the rows and columns.

Usage

```

grid.place(gPath, grob, row = 1, col = 1, redraw = TRUE)
placeGrob(frame, grob, row = NULL, col = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>gPath</code>	A <code>gPath</code> object, which specifies a frame on the display list.
<code>frame</code>	An object of class <code>frame</code> , typically the output from a call to <code>grid.frame</code> .
<code>grob</code>	An object of class <code>grob</code> . The object to be placed.
<code>row</code>	Which row to add the object to. Must be between 1 and the-number-of-rows-currently-in-the-frame.
<code>col</code>	Which col to add the object to. Must be between 1 and the-number-of-cols-currently-in-the-frame.
<code>redraw</code>	A boolean indicating whether the output should be updated.

Details

`placeGrob` modifies the given frame `grob` and returns the modified frame `grob`.

`grid.place` destructively modifies a frame `grob` on the display list (and redraws the display list if `redraw` is `TRUE`).

Value

`placeGrob` returns a frame `grob`, but `grid.place` returns `NULL`.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also[grid.frame](#), [grid.pack](#), [grid.edit](#), and [gPath](#).

<code>grid.plot.and.legend</code>	<i>A Simple Plot and Legend Demo</i>
-----------------------------------	--------------------------------------

Description

This function is just a wrapper for a simple demonstration of how a basic plot and legend can be drawn from scratch using grid.

Usage

```
grid.plot.and.legend()
```

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

Examples

```
grid.plot.and.legend()
```

<code>grid.points</code>	<i>Draw Data Symbols</i>
--------------------------	--------------------------

Description

These functions create and draw data symbols.

Usage

```
grid.points(x = stats::runif(10),
            y = stats::runif(10),
            pch = 1, size = unit(1, "char"),
            default.units = "native", name = NULL,
            gp = gpar(), draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)
pointsGrob(x = stats::runif(10),
            y = stats::runif(10),
            pch = 1, size = unit(1, "char"),
            default.units = "native", name = NULL,
            gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	numeric vector or unit object specifying x-values.
y	numeric vector or unit object specifying y-values.
pch	numeric or character vector indicating what sort of plotting symbol to use. See points for the interpretation of these values, and note <code>fill</code> below.
size	unit object specifying the size of the plotting symbols.
default.units	string indicating the default units to use if x or y are only given as numeric vectors.
name	character identifier.
gp	an R object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings; note that <code>fill</code> (and not <code>bg</code> as in package graphics points) is used to “fill”, i.e., color the background of symbols with <code>pch = 21:25</code> .
draw	logical indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

Both functions create a points grob (a graphical object describing points), but only `grid.points` draws the points (and then only if `draw` is TRUE).

Value

A points [grob](#). `grid.points` returns the value invisibly.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

`grid.polygon`*Draw a Polygon*

Description

These functions create and draw a polygon. The final point will automatically be connected to the initial point.

Usage

```

grid.polygon(x=c(0, 0.5, 1, 0.5), y=c(0.5, 1, 0.5, 0),
             id=NULL, id.lengths=NULL,
             default.units="npc", name=NULL,
             gp=gpar(), draw=TRUE, vp=NULL)
polygonGrob(x=c(0, 0.5, 1, 0.5), y=c(0.5, 1, 0.5, 0),
            id=NULL, id.lengths=NULL,
            default.units="npc", name=NULL,
            gp=gpar(), vp=NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-locations.
<code>y</code>	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-locations.
<code>id</code>	A numeric vector used to separate locations in <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> into multiple polygons. All locations with the same <code>id</code> belong to the same polygon.
<code>id.lengths</code>	A numeric vector used to separate locations in <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> into multiple polygons. Specifies consecutive blocks of locations which make up separate polygons.
<code>default.units</code>	A string indicating the default units to use if <code>x</code> , <code>y</code> , width, or height are only given as numeric vectors.
<code>name</code>	A character identifier.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>draw</code>	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or <code>NULL</code>).

Details

Both functions create a polygon grob (a graphical object describing a polygon), but only `grid.polygon` draws the polygon (and then only if `draw` is `TRUE`).

Value

A grob object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

Examples

```
grid.polygon()
# Using id (NOTE: locations are not in consecutive blocks)
grid.newpage()
grid.polygon(x=c((0:4)/10, rep(.5, 5), (10:6)/10, rep(.5, 5)),
             y=c(rep(.5, 5), (10:6/10), rep(.5, 5), (0:4)/10),
             id=rep(1:5, 4),
             gp=gpar(fill=1:5))
# Using id.lengths
grid.newpage()
grid.polygon(x=outer(c(0, .5, 1, .5), 5:1/5),
             y=outer(c(.5, 1, .5, 0), 5:1/5),
             id.lengths=rep(4, 5),
             gp=gpar(fill=1:5))
```

`grid.pretty`*Generate a Sensible Set of Breakpoints*

Description

Produces a pretty set of breakpoints within the range given.

Usage

```
grid.pretty(range)
```

Arguments

`range` A numeric vector

Value

A numeric vector of breakpoints.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

grid.raster	<i>Render a raster object</i>
-------------	-------------------------------

Description

Render a raster object (bitmap image) at the given location, size, and orientation.

Usage

```
grid.raster(image,
            x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
            width = NULL, height = NULL,
            just = "centre", hjust = NULL, vjust = NULL,
            interpolate = TRUE, default.units = "npc",
            name = NULL, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)

rasterGrob(image,
            x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
            width = NULL, height = NULL,
            just = "centre", hjust = NULL, vjust = NULL,
            interpolate = TRUE, default.units = "npc",
            name = NULL, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)
```

Arguments

image	Any R object that can be coerced to a raster object.
x	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-location.
y	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-location.
width	A numeric vector or unit object specifying width.
height	A numeric vector or unit object specifying height.
just	The justification of the rectangle relative to its (x, y) location. If there are two values, the first value specifies horizontal justification and the second value specifies vertical justification. Possible string values are: "left", "right", "centre", "center", "bottom", and "top". For numeric values, 0 means left alignment and 1 means right alignment.
hjust	A numeric vector specifying horizontal justification. If specified, overrides the just setting.
vjust	A numeric vector specifying vertical justification. If specified, overrides the just setting.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x, y, width, or height are only given as numeric vectors.
name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.

vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).
interpolate	A logical value indicating whether to linearly interpolate the image (the alternative is to use nearest-neighbour interpolation, which gives a more blocky result).

Details

Neither width nor height needs to be specified, in which case, the aspect ratio of the image is preserved. If both width and height are specified, it is likely that the image will be distorted.

Not all graphics devices are capable of rendering raster images and some may not be able to produce rotated images (i.e., if a raster object is rendered within a rotated viewport). See also the comments under [rasterImage](#).

All graphical parameter settings in gp will be ignored, including alpha.

Value

A rastergrob grob.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[as.raster](#).

[dev.capabilities](#) to see if it is supported.

Examples

```
redGradient <- matrix(hcl(0, 80, seq(50, 80, 10)),
                      nrow=4, ncol=5)
# interpolated
grid.newpage()
grid.raster(redGradient)
# blocky
grid.newpage()
grid.raster(redGradient, interpolate=FALSE)
# blocky and stretched
grid.newpage()
grid.raster(redGradient, interpolate=FALSE, height=unit(1, "npc"))

# The same raster drawn several times
grid.newpage()
grid.raster(0, x=1:3/4, y=1:3/4, w=.1, interp=FALSE)
```

`grid.record`*Encapsulate calculations and drawing*

Description

Evaluates an expression that includes both calculations and drawing that depends on the calculations so that both the calculations and the drawing will be rerun when the scene is redrawn (e.g., device resize or editing).

Intended *only* for expert use.

Usage

```
recordGrob(expr, list, name=NULL, gp=NULL, vp=NULL)
grid.record(expr, list, name=NULL, gp=NULL, vp=NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	object of mode expression or call or an unevaluated expression.
<code>list</code>	a list defining the environment in which <code>expr</code> is to be evaluated.
<code>name</code>	A character identifier.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or <code>NULL</code>).

Details

A grob is created of special class "recordedGrob" (and drawn, in the case of `grid.record`). The `drawDetails` method for this class evaluates the expression with the `list` as the evaluation environment (and the `grid` Namespace as the parent of that environment).

Note

This function *must* be used instead of the function `recordGraphics`; all of the dire warnings about using `recordGraphics` responsibly also apply here.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[recordGraphics](#)

Examples

```
grid.record({
  w <- convertWidth(unit(1, "inches"), "npc")
  grid.rect(width=w)
},
list())
```

grid.rect

*Draw rectangles***Description**

These functions create and draw rectangles.

Usage

```
grid.rect(x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
  width = unit(1, "npc"), height = unit(1, "npc"),
  just = "centre", hjust = NULL, vjust = NULL,
  default.units = "npc", name = NULL,
  gp=gpar(), draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)
rectGrob(x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
  width = unit(1, "npc"), height = unit(1, "npc"),
  just = "centre", hjust = NULL, vjust = NULL,
  default.units = "npc", name = NULL,
  gp=gpar(), vp = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-location.
y	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-location.
width	A numeric vector or unit object specifying width.
height	A numeric vector or unit object specifying height.
just	The justification of the rectangle relative to its (x, y) location. If there are two values, the first value specifies horizontal justification and the second value specifies vertical justification. Possible string values are: "left", "right", "centre", "center", "bottom", and "top". For numeric values, 0 means left alignment and 1 means right alignment.
hjust	A numeric vector specifying horizontal justification. If specified, overrides the just setting.
vjust	A numeric vector specifying vertical justification. If specified, overrides the just setting.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x, y, width, or height are only given as numeric vectors.

name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
draw	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

Both functions create a rect grob (a graphical object describing rectangles), but only `grid.rect` draws the rectangles (and then only if `draw` is TRUE).

Value

A rect grob. `grid.rect` returns the value invisibly.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

grid.refresh

Refresh the current grid scene

Description

Replays the current grid display list.

Usage

```
grid.refresh()
```

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

grid.remove	<i>Remove a Grid Graphical Object</i>
-------------	---------------------------------------

Description

Remove a grob from a gTree or a descendant of a gTree.

Usage

```
grid.remove(gPath, warn = TRUE, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE,
            global = FALSE, allDevices = FALSE, redraw = TRUE)
```

```
grid.gremove(..., grep = TRUE, global = TRUE)
```

```
removeGrob(gTree, gPath, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE,
            global = FALSE, warn = TRUE)
```

Arguments

gTree	A gTree object.
gPath	A gPath object. For grid.remove this specifies a gTree on the display list. For removeGrob this specifies a descendant of the specified gTree.
strict	A boolean indicating whether the gPath must be matched exactly.
grep	A boolean indicating whether the gPath should be treated as a regular expression. Values are recycled across elements of the gPath (e.g., c(TRUE, FALSE) means that every odd element of the gPath will be treated as a regular expression).
global	A boolean indicating whether the function should affect just the first match of the gPath, or whether all matches should be affected.
allDevices	A boolean indicating whether all open devices should be searched for matches, or just the current device. NOT YET IMPLEMENTED.
warn	A logical to indicate whether failing to find the specified grob should trigger an error.
redraw	A logical value to indicate whether to redraw the grob.
...	Arguments that are passed to grid.get.

Details

removeGrob copies the specified grob and returns a modified grob.

grid.remove destructively modifies a grob on the display list. If redraw is TRUE it then redraws everything to reflect the change.

grid.gremove (g for global) is just a convenience wrapper for grid.remove with different defaults.

Value

removeGrob returns a grob object; grid.remove returns NULL.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grob](#), [getGrob](#), [removeGrob](#), [removeGrob](#).

grid.reorder

Reorder the children of a gTree

Description

Change the order in which the children of a gTree get drawn.

Usage

```
grid.reorder(gPath, order, back=TRUE, grep=FALSE, redraw=TRUE)
reorderGrob(x, order, back=TRUE)
```

Arguments

gPath	A gPath object specifying a gTree within the current scene.
x	A gTree object to be modified.
order	A character vector or a numeric vector that specifies the new drawing order for the children of the gTree. May not refer to all children of the gTree (see Details).
back	Controls what happens when the order does not specify all children of the gTree (see Details).
grep	Should the gPath be treated as a regular expression?
redraw	Should the modified scene be redrawn?

Details

In the simplest case, order specifies a new ordering for all of the children of the gTree. The children may be specified either by name or by existing numerical order.

If the order does not specify all children of the gTree then, by default, the children specified by order are drawn first and then all remaining children are drawn. If back=FALSE then the children not specified in order are drawn first, followed by the specified children. This makes it easy to specify a send-to-back or bring-to-front reordering. The order argument is *always* in back-to-front order.

It is not possible to reorder the grid display list (the top-level grobs in the current scene) because the display list is a mixture of grobs and viewports (so it is not clear what reordering even means and it would be too easy to end up with a scene that would not draw). If you want to reorder the grid display list, try `grid.grab()` to create a gTree and then reorder (and redraw) that gTree.

Value

grid.reorder() is called for its side-effect of modifying the current scene. reorderGrob() returns the modified gTree.

Warning

This function may return a gTree that will not draw. For example, a gTree has two children, A and B (in that order), and the width of child B depends on the width of child A (e.g., a box around a piece of text). Switching the order so that B is drawn before A will not allow B to be drawn. If this happens with grid.reorder(), the modification will not be performed. If this happens with reorderGrob() it should be possible simply to restore the original order.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

Examples

```
# gTree with two children, "red-rect" and "blue-rect" (in that order)
gt <- gTree(children=gList(
  rectGrob(gp=gpar(col=NA, fill="red"),
    width=.8, height=.2, name="red-rect"),
  rectGrob(gp=gpar(col=NA, fill="blue"),
    width=.2, height=.8, name="blue-rect")),
  name="gt")
grid.newpage()
grid.draw(gt)
# Spec entire order as numeric (blue-rect, red-rect)
grid.reorder("gt", 2:1)
# Spec entire order as character
grid.reorder("gt", c("red-rect", "blue-rect"))
# Only spec the one I want behind as character
grid.reorder("gt", "blue-rect")
# Only spec the one I want in front as character
grid.reorder("gt", "blue-rect", back=FALSE)
```

grid.segments

Draw Line Segments

Description

These functions create and draw line segments.

Usage

```
grid.segments(x0 = unit(0, "npc"), y0 = unit(0, "npc"),
  x1 = unit(1, "npc"), y1 = unit(1, "npc"),
  default.units = "npc",
```

```

        arrow = NULL,
        name = NULL, gp = gpar(), draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)
segmentsGrob(x0 = unit(0, "npc"), y0 = unit(0, "npc"),
             x1 = unit(1, "npc"), y1 = unit(1, "npc"),
             default.units = "npc",
             arrow = NULL, name = NULL, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>x0</code>	Numeric indicating the starting x-values of the line segments.
<code>y0</code>	Numeric indicating the starting y-values of the line segments.
<code>x1</code>	Numeric indicating the stopping x-values of the line segments.
<code>y1</code>	Numeric indicating the stopping y-values of the line segments.
<code>default.units</code>	A string.
<code>arrow</code>	A list describing arrow heads to place at either end of the line segments, as produced by the <code>arrow</code> function.
<code>name</code>	A character identifier.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> .
<code>draw</code>	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or <code>NULL</code>).

Details

Both functions create a segments grob (a graphical object describing segments), but only `grid.segments` draws the segments (and then only if `draw` is `TRUE`).

Value

A segments grob. `grid.segments` returns the value invisibly.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [arrow](#)

grid.set	<i>Set a Grid Graphical Object</i>
----------	------------------------------------

Description

Replace a grob or a descendant of a grob.

Usage

```
grid.set(gPath, newGrob, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE,  
         redraw = TRUE)
```

```
setGrob(gTree, gPath, newGrob, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE)
```

Arguments

gTree	A gTree object.
gPath	A gPath object. For <code>grid.set</code> this specifies a grob on the display list. For <code>setGrob</code> this specifies a descendant of the specified gTree.
newGrob	A grob object.
strict	A boolean indicating whether the gPath must be matched exactly.
grep	A boolean indicating whether the gPath should be treated as a regular expression. Values are recycled across elements of the gPath (e.g., <code>c(TRUE, FALSE)</code> means that every odd element of the gPath will be treated as a regular expression).
redraw	A logical value to indicate whether to redraw the grob.

Details

`setGrob` copies the specified grob and returns a modified grob.

`grid.set` destructively replaces a grob on the display list. If `redraw` is `TRUE` it then redraws everything to reflect the change.

These functions should not normally be called by the user.

Value

`setGrob` returns a grob object; `grid.set` returns `NULL`.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.grob](#).

`grid.show.layout`*Draw a Diagram of a Grid Layout*

Description

This function uses Grid graphics to draw a diagram of a Grid layout.

Usage

```
grid.show.layout(l, newpage=TRUE, vp.ex = 0.8, bg = "light grey",  
                cell.border = "blue", cell.fill = "light blue",  
                cell.label = TRUE, label.col = "blue",  
                unit.col = "red", vp = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>l</code>	A Grid layout object.
<code>newpage</code>	A logical value indicating whether to move on to a new page before drawing the diagram.
<code>vp.ex</code>	positive number, typically in (0, 1], specifying the scaling of the layout.
<code>bg</code>	The colour used for the background.
<code>cell.border</code>	The colour used to draw the borders of the cells in the layout.
<code>cell.fill</code>	The colour used to fill the cells in the layout.
<code>cell.label</code>	A logical indicating whether the layout cells should be labelled.
<code>label.col</code>	The colour used for layout cell labels.
<code>unit.col</code>	The colour used for labelling the widths/heights of columns/rows.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

A viewport is created within `vp` to provide a margin for annotation, and the layout is drawn within that new viewport. The margin is filled with light grey, the new viewport is filled with white and framed with a black border, and the layout regions are filled with light blue and framed with a blue border. The diagram is annotated with the widths and heights (including units) of the columns and rows of the layout using red text. (All colours are defaults and may be customised via function arguments.)

Value

None.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [grid.layout](#)

Examples

```
## Diagram of a simple layout
grid.show.layout(grid.layout(4,2,
    heights=unit(rep(1, 4),
        c("lines", "lines", "lines", "null")),
    widths=unit(c(1, 1), "inches")))
```

grid.show.viewport	<i>Draw a Diagram of a Grid Viewport</i>
--------------------	--

Description

This function uses Grid graphics to draw a diagram of a Grid viewport.

Usage

```
grid.show.viewport(v, parent.layout = NULL, newpage = TRUE,
    vp.ex = 0.8, border.fill="light grey",
    vp.col="blue", vp.fill="light blue",
    scale.col="red",
    vp = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>v</code>	A Grid viewport object.
<code>parent.layout</code>	A grid layout object. If this is not NULL and the viewport given in <code>v</code> has its location specified relative to the layout, then the diagram shows the layout and which cells <code>v</code> occupies within the layout.
<code>newpage</code>	A logical value to indicate whether to move to a new page before drawing the diagram.
<code>vp.ex</code>	positive number, typically in $(0, 1]$, specifying the scaling of the layout.
<code>border.fill</code>	Colour to fill the border margin.
<code>vp.col</code>	Colour for the border of the viewport region.
<code>vp.fill</code>	Colour to fill the viewport region.
<code>scale.col</code>	Colour to draw the viewport axes.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

A viewport is created within vp to provide a margin for annotation, and the diagram is drawn within that new viewport. By default, the margin is filled with light grey, the new viewport is filled with white and framed with a black border, and the viewport region is filled with light blue and framed with a blue border. The diagram is annotated with the width and height (including units) of the viewport, the (x, y) location of the viewport, and the x- and y-scales of the viewport, using red lines and text.

Value

None.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

Examples

```
## Diagram of a sample viewport
grid.show.viewport(viewport(x=0.6, y=0.6,
                             w=unit(1, "inches"), h=unit(1, "inches")))
grid.show.viewport(viewport(layout.pos.row=2, layout.pos.col=2:3),
                    grid.layout(3, 4))
```

grid.text

Draw Text

Description

These functions create and draw text and [plotmath](#) expressions.

Usage

```
grid.text(label, x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
          just = "centre", hjust = NULL, vjust = NULL, rot = 0,
          check.overlap = FALSE, default.units = "npc",
          name = NULL, gp = gpar(), draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)

textGrob(label, x = unit(0.5, "npc"), y = unit(0.5, "npc"),
          just = "centre", hjust = NULL, vjust = NULL, rot = 0,
          check.overlap = FALSE, default.units = "npc",
          name = NULL, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)
```

Arguments

label	A character or expression vector. Other objects are coerced by as.graphicsAnnot .
x	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-values.
y	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-values.
just	The justification of the text relative to its (x, y) location. If there are two values, the first value specifies horizontal justification and the second value specifies vertical justification. Possible string values are: "left", "right", "centre", "center", "bottom", and "top". For numeric values, 0 means left alignment and 1 means right alignment.
hjust	A numeric vector specifying horizontal justification. If specified, overrides the just setting.
vjust	A numeric vector specifying vertical justification. If specified, overrides the just setting.
rot	The angle to rotate the text.
check.overlap	A logical value to indicate whether to check for and omit overlapping text.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x or y are only given as numeric vectors.
name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
draw	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

Both functions create a text grob (a graphical object describing text), but only `grid.text` draws the text (and then only if `draw` is TRUE).

If the `label` argument is an expression, the output is formatted as a mathematical annotation, as for base graphics text.

Value

A text grob. `grid.text` returns the value invisibly.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#)

Examples

```

grid.newpage()
x <- stats::runif(20)
y <- stats::runif(20)
rot <- stats::runif(20, 0, 360)
grid.text("SOMETHING NICE AND BIG", x=x, y=y, rot=rot,
          gp=gpar(fontsize=20, col="grey"))
grid.text("SOMETHING NICE AND BIG", x=x, y=y, rot=rot,
          gp=gpar(fontsize=20, check=TRUE))
grid.newpage()
draw.text <- function(just, i, j) {
  grid.text("ABCD", x=x[j], y=y[i], just=just)
  grid.text(deparse(substitute(just)), x=x[j], y=y[i] + unit(2, "lines"),
            gp=gpar(col="grey", fontsize=8))
}
x <- unit(1:4/5, "npc")
y <- unit(1:4/5, "npc")
grid.grill(h=y, v=x, gp=gpar(col="grey"))
draw.text(c("bottom"), 1, 1)
draw.text(c("left", "bottom"), 2, 1)
draw.text(c("right", "bottom"), 3, 1)
draw.text(c("centre", "bottom"), 4, 1)
draw.text(c("centre"), 1, 2)
draw.text(c("left", "centre"), 2, 2)
draw.text(c("right", "centre"), 3, 2)
draw.text(c("centre", "centre"), 4, 2)
draw.text(c("top"), 1, 3)
draw.text(c("left", "top"), 2, 3)
draw.text(c("right", "top"), 3, 3)
draw.text(c("centre", "top"), 4, 3)
draw.text(c(), 1, 4)
draw.text(c("left"), 2, 4)
draw.text(c("right"), 3, 4)
draw.text(c("centre"), 4, 4)

```

grid.xaxis

Draw an X-Axis

Description

These functions create and draw an x-axis.

Usage

```

grid.xaxis(at = NULL, label = TRUE, main = TRUE,
           edits = NULL, name = NULL,
           gp = gpar(), draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)

xaxisGrob(at = NULL, label = TRUE, main = TRUE,

```

```

        edits = NULL, name = NULL,
        gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>at</code>	A numeric vector of x-value locations for the tick marks.
<code>label</code>	A logical value indicating whether to draw the labels on the tick marks, or an expression or character vector which specify the labels to use. If not logical, must be the same length as the <code>at</code> argument.
<code>main</code>	A logical value indicating whether to draw the axis at the bottom (TRUE) or at the top (FALSE) of the viewport.
<code>edits</code>	A <code>gEdit</code> or <code>gEditList</code> containing edit operations to apply (to the children of the axis) when the axis is first created and during redrawing whenever <code>at</code> is NULL.
<code>name</code>	A character identifier.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>draw</code>	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

Both functions create an xaxis grob (a graphical object describing an xaxis), but only `grid.xaxis` draws the xaxis (and then only if `draw` is TRUE).

Value

An xaxis grob. `grid.xaxis` returns the value invisibly.

Children

If the `at` slot of an xaxis grob is not NULL then the xaxis will have the following children:

major representing the line at the base of the tick marks.

ticks representing the tick marks.

labels representing the tick labels.

If the `at` slot is NULL then there are no children and ticks are drawn based on the current viewport scale.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [grid.yaxis](#)

grid.xspline

*Draw an Xspline***Description**

These functions create and draw an xspline, a curve drawn relative to control points.

Usage

```
grid.xspline(...)
xsplineGrob(x = c(0, 0.5, 1, 0.5), y = c(0.5, 1, 0.5, 0),
            id = NULL, id.lengths = NULL,
            default.units = "npc",
            shape = 0, open = TRUE, arrow = NULL, repEnds = TRUE,
            name = NULL, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	A numeric vector or unit object specifying x-locations of spline control points.
y	A numeric vector or unit object specifying y-locations of spline control points.
id	A numeric vector used to separate locations in x and y into multiple xsplines. All locations with the same id belong to the same xspline.
id.lengths	A numeric vector used to separate locations in x and y into multiple xspline. Specifies consecutive blocks of locations which make up separate xsplines.
default.units	A string indicating the default units to use if x or y are only given as numeric vectors.
shape	A numeric vector of values between -1 and 1, which control the shape of the spline relative to the control points.
open	A logical value indicating whether the spline is a line or a closed shape.
arrow	A list describing arrow heads to place at either end of the xspline, as produced by the arrow function.
repEnds	A logical value indicating whether the first and last control points should be replicated for drawing the curve (see Details below).
name	A character identifier.
gp	An object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar. This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
vp	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).
...	Arguments to be passed to xsplineGrob.

Details

Both functions create an `xspline` grob (a graphical object describing an `xspline`), but only `grid.xspline` draws the `xspline`.

An `xspline` is a line drawn relative to control points. For each control point, the line may pass through (interpolate) the control point or it may only approach (approximate) the control point; the behaviour is determined by a shape parameter for each control point.

If the shape parameter is greater than zero, the spline approximates the control points (and is very similar to a cubic B-spline when the shape is 1). If the shape parameter is less than zero, the spline interpolates the control points (and is very similar to a Catmull-Rom spline when the shape is -1). If the shape parameter is 0, the spline forms a sharp corner at that control point.

For open `xsplines`, the start and end control points must have a shape of 0 (and non-zero values are silently converted to zero without warning).

For open `xsplines`, by default the start and end control points are actually replicated before the curve is drawn. A curve is drawn between (interpolating or approximating) the second and third of each set of four control points, so this default behaviour ensures that the resulting curve starts at the first control point you have specified and ends at the last control point. The default behaviour can be turned off via the `repEnds` argument, in which case the curve that is drawn starts (approximately) at the second control point and ends (approximately) at the first and second-to-last control point.

The `repEnds` argument is ignored for closed `xsplines`.

Missing values are not allowed for `x` and `y` (i.e., it is not valid for a control point to be missing).

For closed `xsplines`, a curve is automatically drawn between the final control point and the initial control point.

Value

A grob object.

References

Blanc, C. and Schlick, C. (1995), "X-splines : A Spline Model Designed for the End User", in *Proceedings of SIGGRAPH 95*, pp. 377–386. <http://dept-info.labri.fr/~schlick/DOC/sig1.html>

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [arrow](#).
[xspline](#).

Examples

```
x <- c(0.25, 0.25, 0.75, 0.75)
y <- c(0.25, 0.75, 0.75, 0.25)

xsplineTest <- function(s, i, j, open) {
  pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.col=j, layout.pos.row=i))
  grid.points(x, y, default.units="npc", pch=16, size=unit(2, "mm"))
  grid.xspline(x, y, shape=s, open=open, gp=gpar(fill="grey"))
}
```



```

    grid.text(s, gp=gpar(col="grey"),
              x=unit(x, "npc") + unit(c(-1, -1, 1, 1), "mm"),
              y=unit(y, "npc") + unit(c(-1, 1, 1, -1), "mm"),
              hjust=c(1, 1, 0, 0),
              vjust=c(1, 0, 0, 1))
  popViewport()
}

pushViewport(viewport(width=.5, x=0, just="left",
                      layout=grid.layout(3, 3, respect=TRUE)))
pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row=1))
grid.text("Open Splines", y=1, just="bottom")
popViewport()
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, -1, 0), 1, 1, TRUE)
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, 0, 0), 1, 2, TRUE)
xsplineTest(c(0, -1, 1, 0), 1, 3, TRUE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, -1, 0), 2, 1, TRUE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, 0, 0), 2, 2, TRUE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, 1, 0), 2, 3, TRUE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, -1, 0), 3, 1, TRUE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, 0, 0), 3, 2, TRUE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 1, 1, 0), 3, 3, TRUE)
popViewport()
pushViewport(viewport(width=.5, x=1, just="right",
                      layout=grid.layout(3, 3, respect=TRUE)))
pushViewport(viewport(layout.pos.row=1))
grid.text("Closed Splines", y=1, just="bottom")
popViewport()
xsplineTest(c(-1, -1, -1, -1), 1, 1, FALSE)
xsplineTest(c(-1, -1, 0, -1), 1, 2, FALSE)
xsplineTest(c(-1, -1, 1, -1), 1, 3, FALSE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, -1, 0), 2, 1, FALSE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, 0, 0), 2, 2, FALSE)
xsplineTest(c(0, 0, 1, 0), 2, 3, FALSE)
xsplineTest(c(1, 1, -1, 1), 3, 1, FALSE)
xsplineTest(c(1, 1, 0, 1), 3, 2, FALSE)
xsplineTest(c(1, 1, 1, 1), 3, 3, FALSE)
popViewport()

```

grid.yaxis

Draw a Y-Axis

Description

These functions create and draw a y-axis.

Usage

```

grid.yaxis(at = NULL, label = TRUE, main = TRUE,
           edits = NULL, name = NULL,

```

```

gp = gpar(), draw = TRUE, vp = NULL)

yaxisGrob(at = NULL, label = TRUE, main = TRUE,
          edits = NULL, name = NULL,
          gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>at</code>	A numeric vector of y-value locations for the tick marks.
<code>label</code>	A logical value indicating whether to draw the labels on the tick marks, or an expression or character vector which specify the labels to use. If not logical, must be the same length as the <code>at</code> argument.
<code>main</code>	A logical value indicating whether to draw the axis at the left (TRUE) or at the right (FALSE) of the viewport.
<code>edits</code>	A <code>gEdit</code> or <code>gEditList</code> containing edit operations to apply (to the children of the axis) when the axis is first created and during redrawing whenever <code>at</code> is NULL.
<code>name</code>	A character identifier.
<code>gp</code>	An object of class <code>gpar</code> , typically the output from a call to the function <code>gpar</code> . This is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
<code>draw</code>	A logical value indicating whether graphics output should be produced.
<code>vp</code>	A Grid viewport object (or NULL).

Details

Both functions create a `yaxis grob` (a graphical object describing a `yaxis`), but only `grid.yaxis` draws the `yaxis` (and then only if `draw` is TRUE).

Value

A `yaxis grob`. `grid.yaxis` returns the value invisibly.

Children

If the `at` slot of an `xaxis grob` is not NULL then the `xaxis` will have the following children:

major representing the line at the base of the tick marks.

ticks representing the tick marks.

labels representing the tick labels.

If the `at` slot is NULL then there are no children and ticks are drawn based on the current viewport scale.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#), [grid.xaxis](#)

grobName	<i>Generate a Name for a Grob</i>
----------	-----------------------------------

Description

This function generates a unique (within-session) name for a grob, based on the grob's class.

Usage

```
grobName(grob = NULL, prefix = "GRID")
```

Arguments

grob	A grob object or NULL.
prefix	The prefix part of the name.

Value

A character string of the form `prefix.class(grob).index`

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

grobWidth	<i>Create a Unit Describing the Width of a Grob</i>
-----------	---

Description

These functions create a unit object describing the width or height of a grob. They are generic.

Usage

```
grobWidth(x)  
grobHeight(x)  
grobAscent(x)  
grobDescent(x)
```

Arguments

x	A grob object.
---	----------------

Value

A unit object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also[unit](#) and [stringWidth](#)

grobX

*Create a Unit Describing a Grob Boundary Location***Description**

These functions create a unit object describing a location somewhere on the boundary of a grob. They are generic.

Usage

```
grobX(x, theta)
grobY(x, theta)
```

Arguments

x	A grob, or gList, or gTree, or gPath.
theta	An angle indicating where the location is on the grob boundary. Can be one of "east", "north", "west", or "south", which correspond to angles 0, 90, 180, and 270, respectively.

Details

The angle is anti-clockwise with zero corresponding to a line with an origin centred between the extreme points of the shape, and pointing at 3 o'clock.

If the grob describes a single shape, the boundary value should correspond to the exact edge of the shape.

If the grob describes multiple shapes, the boundary value will either correspond to the edge of a bounding box around all of the shapes described by the grob (for multiple rectangles, circles, xsplines, or text), or to a convex hull around all vertices of all shapes described by the grob (for multiple polygons, points, lines, polylines, and segments).

Points grobs are currently a special case because the convex hull is based on the data symbol *locations* and does not take into account the extent of the data symbols themselves.

The extents of any arrow heads are currently *not* taken into account.

Value

A unit object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also[unit](#) and [grobWidth](#)

legendGrob

*Constructing a Legend Grob***Description**

Constructing a legend grob (in progress)

Usage

```
legendGrob(labels, nrow, ncol, byrow = FALSE,
           do.lines = has.lty || has.lwd, lines.first = TRUE,
           hgap = unit(1, "lines"), vgap = unit(1, "lines"),
           default.units = "lines", pch, gp = gpar(), vp = NULL)
```

```
grid.legend(..., draw=TRUE)
```

Arguments

labels	legend labels (expressions)
nrow, ncol	integer; the number of rows or columns, respectively of the legend “layout”. nrow is optional and typically computed from the number of labels and ncol.
byrow	logical indicating whether rows of the legend are filled first.
do.lines	logical indicating whether legend lines are drawn.
lines.first	logical indicating whether legend lines are drawn first and hence in a plain “below” legend symbols.
hgap	horizontal space between the legend entries
vgap	vertical space between the legend entries
default.units	default units, see unit .
pch	legend symbol, numeric or character, passed to pointsGrob() ; see also points for interpretation of the numeric codes.
gp	an R object of class gpar, typically the output from a call to the function gpar, is basically a list of graphical parameter settings.
vp	a Grid viewport object (or NULL).
...	for grid.legend() : all the arguments above are passed to legendGrob() .
draw	logical indicating whether graphics output should be produced.

Value

Both functions create a legend [grob](#) (a graphical object describing a plot legend), but only `grid.legend` draws it (only if `draw` is `TRUE`).

See Also

[Grid](#), [viewport](#); [pointsGrob](#), [linesGrob](#).

[grid.plot.and.legend](#) contains a simple example.

Examples

```
## Data:
n <- 10
x <- stats::runif(n) ; y1 <- stats::runif(n) ; y2 <- stats::runif(n)
## Construct the grobs :
plot <- gTree(children=gList(rectGrob(),
                             pointsGrob(x, y1, pch=21, gp=gpar(col=2, fill="gray")),
                             pointsGrob(x, y2, pch=22, gp=gpar(col=3, fill="gray")),
                             xaxisGrob(),
                             yaxisGrob()))
legd <- legendGrob(c("Girls", "Boys", "Other"), pch=21:23,
                  gp=gpar(col = 2:4, fill = "gray"))
gg <- packGrob(packGrob(frameGrob(), plot),
              legd, height=unit(1,"null"), side="right")

## Now draw it on a new device page:
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(width=0.8, height=0.8))
grid.draw(gg)
```

makeContent

Customised grid Grobs

Description

These generic hook functions are called whenever a grid grob is drawn. They provide an opportunity for customising the drawing context and drawing content of a new class derived from `grob` (or `gTree`).

Usage

```
makeContext(x)
makeContent(x)
```

Arguments

`x` A grid grob.

Details

These functions are called by the `grid.draw` methods for grobs and gTrees.

`makeContext` is called first during the drawing of a grob. This function should be used to *modify* the vp slot of `x` (and/or the `childrenvp` slot if `x` is a gTree). The function *must* return the modified `x`. Note that the default behaviour for grobs is to push any viewports in the vp slot, and for gTrees is to also push and up any viewports in the `childrenvp` slot, so this function is used to customise the drawing context for a grob or gTree.

`makeContent` is called next and is where any additional calculations should occur and graphical content should be generated (see, for example, `grid::makeContent.xaxis`). This function should be used to *modify* the children of a gTree. The function *must* return the modified `x`. Note that the default behaviour for gTrees is to draw all grobs in the children slot, so this function is used to customise the drawing content for a gTree. It is also possible to customise the drawing content for a simple grob, but more care needs to be taken; for example, the function should return a standard grid primitive with a `drawDetails()` method in this case.

Note that these functions should be *cumulative* in their effects, so that the `x` returned by `makeContent()` *includes* any changes made by `makeContext()`.

Note that `makeContext` is also called in the calculation of "grobwidth" and "grobheight" units.

Value

Both functions are expected to return a grob or gTree (a modified version of `x`).

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.draw](#)

plotViewport

Create a Viewport with a Standard Plot Layout

Description

This is a convenience function for producing a viewport with the common S-style plot layout – i.e., a central plot region surrounded by margins given in terms of a number of lines of text.

Usage

```
plotViewport(margins=c(5.1, 4.1, 4.1, 2.1), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>margins</code>	A numeric vector interpreted in the same way as <code>par(mar)</code> in base graphics.
<code>...</code>	All other arguments will be passed to a call to the <code>viewport()</code> function.

Value

A grid viewport object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[viewport](#) and [dataViewport](#).

Querying the Viewport Tree

Get the Current Grid Viewport (Tree)

Description

`current.viewport()` returns the viewport that Grid is going to draw into.

`current.parent` returns the parent of the current viewport.

`current.vpTree` returns the entire Grid viewport tree.

`current.vpPath` returns the viewport path to the current viewport.

`current.transform` returns the transformation matrix for the current viewport.

`current.rotation` returns the (total) rotation for the current viewport.

Usage

```
current.viewport()
current.parent(n=1)
current.vpTree(all=TRUE)
current.vpPath()
current.transform()
```

Arguments

<code>n</code>	The number of generations to go up.
<code>all</code>	A logical value indicating whether the entire viewport tree should be returned.

Details

It is possible to get the grandparent of the current viewport (or higher) using the `n` argument to `current.parent()`.

The parent of the ROOT viewport is NULL. It is an error to request the grandparent of the ROOT viewport.

If `all` is FALSE then `current.vpTree` only returns the subtree below the current viewport.

Value

A Grid viewport object from `current.viewport` or `current.vpTree`.

`current.transform` returns a 4x4 transformation matrix.

The viewport path returned by `current.vpPath` is NULL if the current viewport is the ROOT viewport

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[viewport](#)

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(width=0.8, height=0.8, name="A"))
pushViewport(viewport(x=0.1, width=0.3, height=0.6,
  just="left", name="B"))
upViewport(1)
pushViewport(viewport(x=0.5, width=0.4, height=0.8,
  just="left", name="C"))
pushViewport(viewport(width=0.8, height=0.8, name="D"))
current.vpPath()
upViewport(1)
current.vpPath()
current.vpTree()
current.viewport()
current.vpTree(all=FALSE)
popViewport(0)
```

resolveRasterSize

Utility function to resolve the size of a raster grob

Description

Determine the width and height of a raster grob when one or both are not given explicitly.

The result depends on both the aspect ratio of the raster image and the aspect ratio of the physical drawing context, so the result is only valid for the drawing context in which this function is called.

Usage

```
resolveRasterSize(x)
```

Arguments

x A raster grob

Details

A raster grob can be specified with width and/or height of NULL, which means that the size at which the raster is drawn will be decided at drawing time.

Value

A raster grob, with explicit width and height.

See Also

[grid.raster](#)

Examples

```
# Square raster
rg <- rasterGrob(matrix(0))
# Fill the complete page (if page is square)
grid.newpage()
resolveRasterSize(rg)$height
grid.draw(rg)
# Forced to fit tall thin region
grid.newpage()
pushViewport(viewport(width=.1))
resolveRasterSize(rg)$height
grid.draw(rg)
```

roundrect

Draw a rectangle with rounded corners

Description

Draw a *single* rectangle with rounded corners.

Usage

```
roundrectGrob(x=0.5, y=0.5, width=1, height=1,
              default.units="npc",
              r=unit(0.1, "snpc"),
              just="centre",
              name=NULL, gp=NULL, vp=NULL)
grid.roundrect(...)
```

Arguments

x, y, width, height

The location and size of the rectangle.

default.units A string indicating the default units to use if x, y, width, or height are only given as numeric vectors.

<code>r</code>	The radius of the rounded corners.
<code>just</code>	The justification of the rectangle relative to its location.
<code>name</code>	A name to identify the grob.
<code>gp</code>	Graphical parameters to apply to the grob.
<code>vp</code>	A viewport object or NULL.
<code>...</code>	Arguments to be passed to <code>roundrectGrob()</code> .

Details

At present, this function can only be used to draw *one* rounded rectangle.

Examples

```
grid.roundrect(width=.5, height=.5, name="rr")
theta <- seq(0, 360, length=50)
for (i in 1:50)
  grid.circle(x=grobX("rr", theta[i]),
             y=grobY("rr", theta[i]),
             r=unit(1, "mm"),
             gp=gpar(fill="black"))
```

showGrob

Label grid grobs.

Description

Produces a graphical display of (by default) the current grid scene, with labels showing the names of each grob in the scene. It is also possible to label only specific grobs in the scene.

Usage

```
showGrob(x = NULL,
        gPath = NULL, strict = FALSE, grep = FALSE,
        recurse = TRUE, depth = NULL,
        labelfun = grobLabel, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	If NULL, the current grid scene is labelled. Otherwise, a grob (or gTree) to draw and then label.
<code>gPath</code>	A path identifying a subset of the current scene or grob to be labelled.
<code>strict</code>	Logical indicating whether the gPath is strict.
<code>grep</code>	Logical indicating whether the gPath is a regular expression.
<code>recurse</code>	Should the children of gTrees also be labelled?
<code>depth</code>	Only display grobs at the specified depth (may be a vector of depths).
<code>labelfun</code>	Function used to generate a label from each grob.
<code>...</code>	Arguments passed to <code>labelfun</code> to control fine details of the generated label.

Details

None of the labelling is recorded on the grid display list so the original scene can be reproduced by calling `grid.refresh`.

See Also

[grob](#) and [gTree](#)

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
gt <- gTree(childrenvp=vpStack(
  viewport(x=0, width=.5, just="left", name="vp"),
  viewport(y=.5, height=.5, just="bottom", name="vp2")),
  children=gList(rectGrob(vp="vp:vp2", name="child")),
  name="parent")
grid.draw(gt)
showGrob()
showGrob(gPath="child")
showGrob(recurse=FALSE)
showGrob(depth=1)
showGrob(depth=2)
showGrob(depth=1:2)
showGrob(gt)
showGrob(gt, gPath="child")
showGrob(just="left", gp=gpar(col="red", cex=.5), rot=45)
showGrob(labelfun=function(grob, ...) {
  x <- grobX(grob, "west")
  y <- grobY(grob, "north")
  gTree(children=gList(rectGrob(x=x, y=y,
    width=stringWidth(grob$name) + unit(2, "mm"),
    height=stringHeight(grob$name) + unit(2, "mm"),
    gp=gpar(col=NA, fill=rgb(1, 0, 0, .5)),
    just=c("left", "top")),
    textGrob(grob$name,
      x=x + unit(1, "mm"), y=y - unit(1, "mm"),
      just=c("left", "top")))))
})

## Not run:
# Examples from higher-level packages

library(lattice)
# Ctrl-c after first example
example(histogram)
showGrob()
showGrob(gPath="plot_01.ylab")

library(ggplot2)
# Ctrl-c after first example
example(qplot)
showGrob()
```

```

showGrob(recurse=FALSE)
showGrob(gPath="panel-3-3")
showGrob(gPath="axis.title", grep=TRUE)
showGrob(depth=2)

## End(Not run)

```

showViewport	<i>Display grid viewports.</i>
--------------	--------------------------------

Description

Produces a graphical display of (by default) the current grid viewport tree. It is also possible to display only specific viewports. Each viewport is drawn as a rectangle and the leaf viewports are labelled with the viewport name.

Usage

```

showViewport(vp = NULL, recurse = TRUE, depth = NULL,
             newpage = FALSE, leaves = FALSE,
             col = rgb(0, 0, 1, 0.2), fill = rgb(0, 0, 1, 0.1),
             label = TRUE, nrow = 3, ncol = nrow)

```

Arguments

vp	If NULL, the current viewport tree is displayed. Otherwise, a viewport (or vpList, or vpStack, or vpTree) or a vpPath that specifies which viewport to display.
recurse	Should the children of the specified viewport also be displayed?
depth	Only display viewports at the specified depth (may be a vector of depths).
newpage	Start a new page for the display? Otherwise, the viewports are displayed on top of the current plot.
leaves	Produce a matrix of smaller displays, with each leaf viewport in its own display.
col	The colour used to draw the border of the rectangle for each viewport <i>and</i> to draw the label for each viewport. If a vector, then the first colour is used for the top-level viewport, the second colour is used for its children, the third colour for their children, and so on.
fill	The colour used to fill each viewport. May be a vector as per col.
label	Should the viewports be labelled (with the viewport name)?
nrow, ncol	The number of rows and columns when leaves is TRUE. Otherwise ignored.

See Also

[viewport](#) and [grid.show.viewport](#)

Examples

```
showViewport(viewport(width=.5, height=.5, name="vp"))

showViewport(vpStack(viewport(width=.5, height=.5, name="vp1"),
                        viewport(width=.5, height=.5, name="vp2")),
              newpage=TRUE)

showViewport(vpStack(viewport(width=.5, height=.5, name="vp1"),
                        viewport(width=.5, height=.5, name="vp2")),
              fill=rgb(1:0, 0:1, 0, .1),
              newpage=TRUE)
```

stringWidth	<i>Create a Unit Describing the Width and Height of a String or Math Expression</i>
-------------	---

Description

These functions create a unit object describing the width or height of a string.

Usage

```
stringWidth(string)
stringHeight(string)
stringAscent(string)
stringDescent(string)
```

Arguments

string A character vector or a language object (as used for ‘[plotmath](#)’ calls).

Value

A [unit](#) object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[unit](#) and [grobWidth](#)

strwidth in the **graphics** package for more details of the typographic concepts behind the computations.

unit

Function to Create a Unit Object

Description

This function creates a unit object — a vector of unit values. A unit value is typically just a single numeric value with an associated unit.

Usage

```
unit(x, units, data=NULL)
```

Arguments

x	A numeric vector.
units	A character vector specifying the units for the corresponding numeric values.
data	This argument is used to supply extra information for special unit types.

Details

Unit objects allow the user to specify locations and dimensions in a large number of different coordinate systems. All drawing occurs relative to a viewport and the `units` specifies what coordinate system to use within that viewport.

Possible `units` (coordinate systems) are:

"npc" Normalised Parent Coordinates (the default). The origin of the viewport is (0, 0) and the viewport has a width and height of 1 unit. For example, (0.5, 0.5) is the centre of the viewport.

"cm" Centimetres.

"inches" Inches. 1 in = 2.54 cm.

"mm" Millimetres. 10 mm = 1 cm.

"points" Points. 72.27 pt = 1 in.

"picas" Picas. 1 pc = 12 pt.

"bigpts" Big Points. 72 bp = 1 in.

"dida" Dida. 1157 dd = 1238 pt.

"cicero" Cicero. 1 cc = 12 dd.

"scaledpts" Scaled Points. 65536 sp = 1 pt.

"lines" Lines of text. Locations and dimensions are in terms of multiples of the default text size of the viewport (as specified by the viewport's `fontsize` and `lineheight`).

"char" Multiples of nominal font height of the viewport (as specified by the viewport's `fontsize`).

"native" Locations and dimensions are relative to the viewport's `xscale` and `yscale`.

"snpc" Square Normalised Parent Coordinates. Same as Normalised Parent Coordinates, except gives the same answer for horizontal and vertical locations/dimensions. It uses the *lesser* of npc-width and npc-height. This is useful for making things which are a proportion of the viewport, but have to be square (or have a fixed aspect ratio).

"strwidth" Multiples of the width of the string specified in the data argument. The font size is determined by the pointsize of the viewport.

"strheight" Multiples of the height of the string specified in the data argument. The font size is determined by the pointsize of the viewport.

"grobwidth" Multiples of the width of the grob specified in the data argument.

"grobheight" Multiples of the height of the grob specified in the data argument.

A number of variations are also allowed for the most common units. For example, it is possible to use "in" or "inch" instead of "inches" and "centimetre" or "centimeter" instead of "cm".

A special units value of "null" is also allowed, but only makes sense when used in specifying widths of columns or heights of rows in grid layouts (see [grid.layout](#)).

The data argument must be a list when the `unit.length()` is greater than 1. For example,

```
unit(rep(1, 3), c("npc", "strwidth", "inches"),
data = list(NULL, "my string", NULL))
```

.

It is possible to subset unit objects in the normal way (e.g., `unit(1:5, "npc")[2:4]`), but a special function `unit.c` is provided for combining unit objects.

Certain arithmetic and summary operations are defined for unit objects. In particular, it is possible to add and subtract unit objects (e.g., `unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "inches")`), and to specify the minimum or maximum of a list of unit objects (e.g., `min(unit(0.5, "npc"), unit(1, "inches"))`).

Value

An object of class "unit".

WARNING

There is a special function `unit.c` for concatenating several unit objects.

The `c` function will not give the right answer.

There used to be "mylines", "mychar", "mystrwidth", "mystrheight" units. These will still be accepted, but work exactly the same as "lines", "char", "strwidth", "strheight".

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[unit.c](#)

Examples

```
unit(1, "npc")
unit(1:3/4, "npc")
unit(1:3/4, "npc") + unit(1, "inches")
min(unit(0.5, "npc"), unit(1, "inches"))
unit.c(unit(0.5, "npc"), unit(2, "inches") + unit(1:3/4, "npc"),
        unit(1, "strwidth", "hi there"))
```

<code>unit.c</code>	<i>Combine Unit Objects</i>
---------------------	-----------------------------

Description

This function produces a new unit object by combining the unit objects specified as arguments.

Usage

```
unit.c(...)
```

Arguments

... An arbitrary number of unit objects.

Value

An object of class `unit`.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[unit.](#)

<code>unit.length</code>	<i>Length of a Unit Object</i>
--------------------------	--------------------------------

Description

The length of a unit object is defined as the number of unit values in the unit object.
This function has been deprecated in favour of a unit method for the generic `length` function.

Usage

```
unit.length(unit)
```

Arguments

unit A unit object.

Value

An integer value.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[unit](#)

Examples

```
length(unit(1:3, "npc"))
length(unit(1:3, "npc") + unit(1, "inches"))
length(max(unit(1:3, "npc") + unit(1, "inches")))
length(max(unit(1:3, "npc") + unit(1, "strwidth", "a"))*4)
length(unit(1:3, "npc") + unit(1, "strwidth", "a")*4)
```

unit.pmin

Parallel Unit Minima and Maxima

Description

Returns a unit object whose i'th value is the minimum (or maximum) of the i'th values of the arguments.

Usage

```
unit.pmin(...)
unit.pmax(...)
```

Arguments

... One or more unit objects.

Details

The length of the result is the maximum of the lengths of the arguments; shorter arguments are recycled in the usual manner.

Value

A unit object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

Examples

```
max(unit(1:3, "cm"), unit(0.5, "npc"))
unit.pmax(unit(1:3, "cm"), unit(0.5, "npc"))
```

unit.rep

*Replicate Elements of Unit Objects***Description**

Replicates the units according to the values given in times and length.out.

This function has been deprecated in favour of a unit method for the generic rep function.

Usage

```
unit.rep(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x An object of class "unit".

... arguments to be passed to [rep](#) such as times and length.out.

Value

An object of class "unit".

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[rep](#)

Examples

```
rep(unit(1:3, "npc"), 3)
rep(unit(1:3, "npc"), 1:3)
rep(unit(1:3, "npc") + unit(1, "inches"), 3)
rep(max(unit(1:3, "npc") + unit(1, "inches")), 3)
rep(max(unit(1:3, "npc") + unit(1, "strwidth", "a"))*4, 3)
rep(unit(1:3, "npc") + unit(1, "strwidth", "a")*4, 3)
```

valid.just	<i>Validate a Justification</i>
------------	---------------------------------

Description

Utility functions for determining whether a justification specification is valid and for resolving a single justification value from a combination of character and numeric values.

Usage

```
valid.just(just)
resolveHJust(just, hjust)
resolveVJust(just, vjust)
```

Arguments

just	A justification either as a character value, e.g., "left", or as a numeric value, e.g., 0.
hjust	A numeric horizontal justification
vjust	A numeric vertical justification

Details

These functions may be useful within a validDetails method when writing a new grob class.

Value

A numeric representation of the justification (e.g., "left" becomes 0, "right" becomes 1, etc, ...). An error is given if the justification is not valid.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

validDetails	<i>Customising grid grob Validation</i>
--------------	---

Description

This generic hook function is called whenever a grid grob is created or edited via grob, gTree, grid.edit or editGrob. This provides an opportunity for customising the validation of a new class derived from grob (or gTree).

Usage

```
validDetails(x)
```

Arguments

x A grid grob.

Details

This function is called by `grob`, `gTree`, `grid.edit` and `editGrob`. A method should be written for classes derived from `grob` or `gTree` to validate the values of slots specific to the new class. (e.g., see `grid::validDetails.axis`).

Note that the standard slots for grobs and gTrees are automatically validated (e.g., `vp`, `gp` slots for grobs and, in addition, `children`, and `childrenvp` slots for gTrees) so only slots specific to a new class need to be addressed.

Value

The function MUST return the validated grob.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grid.edit](#)

vpPath

Concatenate Viewport Names

Description

This function can be used to generate a viewport path for use in `downViewport` or `seekViewport`. A viewport path is a list of nested viewport names.

Usage

`vpPath(...)`

Arguments

... Character values which are viewport names.

Details

Viewport names must only be unique amongst viewports which share the same parent in the viewport tree.

This function can be used to generate a specification for a viewport that includes the viewport's parent's name (and the name of its parent and so on).

For interactive use, it is possible to directly specify a path, but it is strongly recommended that this function is used otherwise in case the path separator is changed in future versions of `grid`.

Value

A `vpPath` object.

See Also

[viewport](#), [pushViewport](#), [popViewport](#), [downViewport](#), [seekViewport](#), [upViewport](#)

Examples

```
vpPath("vp1", "vp2")
```

widthDetails

Width and Height of a grid grob

Description

These generic functions are used to determine the size of grid grobs.

Usage

```
widthDetails(x)
heightDetails(x)
ascentDetails(x)
descentDetails(x)
```

Arguments

`x` A grid grob.

Details

These functions are called in the calculation of "grobwidth" and "grobheight" units. Methods should be written for classes derived from `grob` or `gTree` where the size of the grob can be determined (see, for example `grid::widthDetails.frame`).

The ascent of a grob is the height of the grob by default and the descent of a grob is zero by default, except for text grobs where the label is a single character value or expression.

Value

A unit object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[absolute.size](#).

Working with Viewports

Maintaining and Navigating the Grid Viewport Tree

Description

Grid maintains a tree of viewports — nested drawing contexts.

These functions provide ways to add or remove viewports and to navigate amongst viewports in the tree.

Usage

```
pushViewport(..., recording=TRUE)
popViewport(n = 1, recording=TRUE)
downViewport(name, strict=FALSE, recording=TRUE)
seekViewport(name, recording=TRUE)
upViewport(n = 1, recording=TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	One or more objects of class "viewport".
<code>n</code>	An integer value indicating how many viewports to pop or navigate up. The special value 0 indicates to pop or navigate viewports right up to the root viewport.
<code>name</code>	A character value to identify a viewport in the tree.
<code>strict</code>	A boolean indicating whether the vpPath must be matched exactly.
<code>recording</code>	A logical value to indicate whether the viewport operation should be recorded on the Grid display list.

Details

Objects created by the `viewport()` function are only descriptions of a drawing context. A viewport object must be pushed onto the viewport tree before it has any effect on drawing.

The viewport tree always has a single root viewport (created by the system) which corresponds to the entire device (and default graphical parameter settings). Viewports may be added to the tree using `pushViewport()` and removed from the tree using `popViewport()`.

There is only ever one current viewport, which is the current position within the viewport tree. All drawing and viewport operations are relative to the current viewport. When a viewport is pushed it becomes the current viewport. When a viewport is popped, the parent viewport becomes the current viewport. Use `upViewport` to navigate to the parent of the current viewport, without removing the current viewport from the viewport tree. Use `downViewport` to navigate to a viewport further down the viewport tree and `seekViewport` to navigate to a viewport anywhere else in the tree.

If a viewport is pushed and it has the same name as a viewport at the same level in the tree, then it replaces the existing viewport in the tree.

Value

`downViewport` returns the number of viewports it went down.

This can be useful for returning to your starting point by doing something like `depth <- downViewport()` then `upViewport(depth)`.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[viewport](#) and [vpPath](#).

Examples

```
# push the same viewport several times
grid.newpage()
vp <- viewport(width=0.5, height=0.5)
pushViewport(vp)
grid.rect(gp=gpar(col="blue"))
grid.text("Quarter of the device",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="blue"))
pushViewport(vp)
grid.rect(gp=gpar(col="red"))
grid.text("Quarter of the parent viewport",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="red"))
popViewport(2)
# push several viewports then navigate amongst them
grid.newpage()
grid.rect(gp=gpar(col="grey"))
grid.text("Top-level viewport",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="grey"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
pushViewport(viewport(width=0.8, height=0.7, name="A"))
grid.rect(gp=gpar(col="blue"))
grid.text("1. Push Viewport A",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="blue"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
pushViewport(viewport(x=0.1, width=0.3, height=0.6,
  just="left", name="B"))
grid.rect(gp=gpar(col="red"))
grid.text("2. Push Viewport B (in A)",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="red"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
upViewport(1)
grid.text("3. Up from B to A",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(2, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="blue"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
pushViewport(viewport(x=0.5, width=0.4, height=0.8,
  just="left", name="C"))
grid.rect(gp=gpar(col="green"))
```



```

grid.text("4. Push Viewport C (in A)",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="green"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
pushViewport(viewport(width=0.8, height=0.6, name="D"))
grid.rect()
grid.text("5. Push Viewport D (in C)",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "lines"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
upViewport(0)
grid.text("6. Up from D to top-level",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(2, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="grey"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
downViewport("D")
grid.text("7. Down from top-level to D",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(2, "lines"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
seekViewport("B")
grid.text("8. Seek from D to B",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(2, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="red"))
pushViewport(viewport(width=0.9, height=0.5, name="A"))
grid.rect()
grid.text("9. Push Viewport A (in B)",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(1, "lines"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
seekViewport("A")
grid.text("10. Seek from B to A (in ROOT)",
  y=unit(1, "npc") - unit(3, "lines"), gp=gpar(col="blue"))
if (interactive()) Sys.sleep(1.0)
seekViewport(vpPath("B", "A"))
grid.text("11. Seek from\nA (in ROOT)\nto A (in B)")
popViewport(0)

```

xDetails

Boundary of a grid grob

Description

These generic functions are used to determine a location on the boundary of a grid grob.

Usage

```

xDetails(x, theta)
yDetails(x, theta)

```

Arguments

x	A grid grob.
theta	A numeric angle, in degrees, measured anti-clockwise from the 3 o'clock <i>or</i> one of the following character strings: "north", "east", "west", "south".

Details

The location on the grob boundary is determined by taking a line from the centre of the grob at the angle theta and intersecting it with the convex hull of the grob (for the basic grob primitives, the centre is determined as half way between the minimum and maximum values in x and y directions).

These functions are called in the calculation of "grobX" and "grobY" units as produced by the grobX and grobY functions. Methods should be written for classes derived from grob or gTree where the boundary of the grob can be determined.

Value

A unit object.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[grobX](#), [grobY](#).

xsplinePoints	<i>Return the points that would be used to draw an Xspline (or a Bezier curve).</i>
---------------	---

Description

Rather than drawing an Xspline (or Bezier curve), this function returns the points that would be used to draw the series of line segments for the Xspline. This may be useful to post-process the Xspline curve, for example, to clip the curve.

Usage

```
xsplinePoints(x)
bezierPoints(x)
```

Arguments

x	An Xspline grob, as produced by the xsplineGrob() function (or a beziergrob, as produced by the bezierGrob() function).
---	---

Details

The points returned by this function will only be relevant for the drawing context in force when this function was called.

Value

Depends on how many Xsplines would be drawn. If only one, then a list with two components, named `x` and `y`, both of which are unit objects (in inches). If several Xsplines would be drawn then the result of this function is a list of lists.

Author(s)

Paul Murrell

See Also

[xsplineGrob](#) and [bezierGrob](#)

Examples

```
grid.newpage()
xsg <- xsplineGrob(c(.1, .1, .9, .9), c(.1, .9, .9, .1), shape=1)
grid.draw(xsg)
trace <- xsplinePoints(xsg)
grid.circle(trace$x, trace$y, default.units="inches", r=unit(.5, "mm"))

grid.newpage()
vp <- viewport(width=.5)
xg <- xsplineGrob(x=c(0, .2, .4, .2, .5, .7, .9, .7),
                  y=c(.5, 1, .5, 0, .5, 1, .5, 0),
                  id=rep(1:2, each=4),
                  shape=1,
                  vp=vp)
grid.draw(xg)
trace <- xsplinePoints(xg)
pushViewport(vp)
invisible(lapply(trace, function(t) grid.lines(t$x, t$y, gp=gpar(col="red"))))
popViewport()

grid.newpage()
bg <- bezierGrob(c(.2, .2, .8, .8), c(.2, .8, .8, .2))
grid.draw(bg)
trace <- bezierPoints(bg)
grid.circle(trace$x, trace$y, default.units="inches", r=unit(.5, "mm"))
```

Chapter 7

The methods package

methods-package

Formal Methods and Classes

Description

Formally defined methods and classes for R objects, plus other programming tools, as described in the references.

Details

This package provides the ‘S4’ or ‘S version 4’ approach to methods and classes in a functional language.

See the documentation entries [Classes](#), [Methods](#), and [GenericFunctions](#) for general discussion of these topics, at a fairly technical level. Links from those pages, and the documentation of [setClass](#) and [setMethod](#) cover the main programming tools needed.

For a complete list of functions and classes, use `library(help="methods")`.

Author(s)

R Core Team

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

`.BasicFunsList`

List of Builtin and Special Functions

Description

A named list providing instructions for turning builtin and special functions into generic functions.

Functions in R that are defined as `.Primitive(<name>)` are not suitable for formal methods, because they lack the basic reflectance property. You can't find the argument list for these functions by examining the function object itself.

Future versions of R may fix this by attaching a formal argument list to the corresponding function. While generally the names of arguments are not checked by the internal code implementing the function, the number of arguments frequently is.

In any case, some definition of a formal argument list is needed if users are to define methods for these functions. In particular, if methods are to be merged from multiple packages, the different sets of methods need to agree on the formal arguments.

In the absence of reflectance, this list provides the relevant information via a dummy function associated with each of the known specials for which methods are allowed.

At the same, the list flags those specials for which methods are meaningless (e.g., `for`) or just a very bad idea (e.g., `.Primitive`).

A generic function created via `setMethod`, for example, for one of these special functions will have the argument list from `.BasicFunsList`. If no entry exists, the argument list `(x, ...)` is assumed.

`as`

Force an Object to Belong to a Class

Description

These functions manage the relations that allow coercing an object to a given class.

Usage

```
as(object, Class, strict=TRUE, ext)
```

```
as(object, Class) <- value
```

```
setAs(from, to, def, replace, where = topenv(parent.frame()))
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	any R object.
<code>Class</code>	the name of the class to which <code>object</code> should be coerced.
<code>strict</code>	logical flag. If <code>TRUE</code> , the returned object must be strictly from the target class (unless that class is a virtual class, in which case the object will be from the closest actual class, in particular the original object, if that class extends the virtual class directly). If <code>strict = FALSE</code> , any simple extension of the target class will be returned, without further change. A simple extension is, roughly, one that just adds slots to an existing class.
<code>value</code>	The value to use to modify <code>object</code> (see the discussion below). You should supply an object with class <code>Class</code> ; some coercion is done, but you're unwise to rely on it.
<code>from, to</code>	The classes between which the coerce methods <code>def</code> and <code>replace</code> perform coercion.
<code>def</code>	function of one argument. It will get an object from class <code>from</code> and had better return an object of class <code>to</code> . The convention is that the name of the argument is <code>from</code> ; if another argument name is used, <code>setAs</code> will attempt to substitute <code>from</code> .
<code>replace</code>	if supplied, the function to use as a replacement method, when <code>as</code> is used on the left of an assignment. Should be a function of two arguments, <code>from</code> , <code>value</code> , although <code>setAs</code> will attempt to substitute if the arguments differ.
<code>where</code>	the position or environment in which to store the resulting methods. For most applications, it is recommended to omit this argument and to include the call to <code>setAs</code> in source code that is evaluated at the top level; that is, either in an R session by something equivalent to a call to source , or as part of the R source code for a package.
<code>ext</code>	the optional object defining how <code>Class</code> is extended by the class of the object (as returned by possibleExtends). This argument is used internally (to provide essential information for non-public classes), but you are unlikely to want to use it directly.

Summary of Functions

as: Returns the version of this object coerced to be the given `Class`. When used in the replacement form on the left of an assignment, the portion of the object corresponding to `Class` is replaced by `value`.

The operation of `as()` in either form depends on the definition of coerce methods. Methods are defined automatically when the two classes are related by inheritance; that is, when one of the classes is a subclass of the other. See the section on inheritance below for details.

Coerce methods are also predefined for basic classes (including all the types of vectors, functions and a few others). See `showMethods(coerce)` for a list of these.

Beyond these two sources of methods, further methods are defined by calls to the `setAs` function.

setAs: Define methods for coercing an object of class `from` to be of class `to`; the `def` argument provides for direct coercing and the `replace` argument, if included, provides for replacement. See the “How” section below for details.

`coerce, coerce<-`: Coerce from to be of the same class as to.

These functions should not be called explicitly. The function `setAs` creates methods for them for the `as` function to use.

Inheritance and Coercion

Objects from one class can turn into objects from another class either automatically or by an explicit call to the `as` function. Automatic conversion is special, and comes from the designer of one class of objects asserting that this class extends another class. The most common case is that one or more class names are supplied in the `contains=` argument to `setClass`, in which case the new class extends each of the earlier classes (in the usual terminology, the earlier classes are *superclasses* of the new class and it is a *subclass* of each of them).

This form of inheritance is called *simple* inheritance in R. See `setClass` for details. Inheritance can also be defined explicitly by a call to `setIs`. The two versions have slightly different implications for coerce methods. Simple inheritance implies that inherited slots behave identically in the subclass and the superclass. Whenever two classes are related by simple inheritance, corresponding coerce methods are defined for both direct and replacement use of `as`. In the case of simple inheritance, these methods do the obvious computation: they extract or replace the slots in the object that correspond to those in the superclass definition.

The implicitly defined coerce methods may be overridden by a call to `setAs`; note, however, that the implicit methods are defined for each subclass-superclass pair, so that you must override each of these explicitly, not rely on inheritance.

When inheritance is defined by a call to `setIs`, the coerce methods are provided explicitly, not generated automatically. Inheritance will apply (to the `from` argument, as described in the section below). You could also supply methods via `setAs` for non-inherited relationships, and now these also can be inherited.

For further on the distinction between simple and explicit inheritance, see `setIs`.

How Functions 'as' and 'setAs' Work

The function `as` turns object into an object of class `Class`. In doing so, it applies a “coerce method”, using S4 classes and methods, but in a somewhat special way. Coerce methods are methods for the function `coerce` or, in the replacement case the function ``coerce<-``. These functions have two arguments in method signatures, `from` and `to`, corresponding to the class of the object and the desired coerce class. These functions must not be called directly, but are used to store tables of methods for the use of `as`, directly and for replacements. In this section we will describe the direct case, but except where noted the replacement case works the same way, using ``coerce<-`` and the `replace` argument to `setAs`, rather than `coerce` and the `def` argument.

Assuming the object is not already of the desired class, `as` first looks for a method in the table of methods for the function `coerce` for the signature `c(from = class(object), to = Class)`, in the same way method selection would do its initial lookup. To be precise, this means the table of both direct and inherited methods, but inheritance is used specially in this case (see below).

If no method is found, `as` looks for one. First, if either `Class` or `class(object)` is a superclass of the other, the class definition will contain the information needed to construct a coerce method. In the usual case that the subclass contains the superclass (i.e., has all its slots), the method is constructed either by extracting or replacing the inherited slots. Non-simple extensions (the result of a call to `setIs`) will usually contain explicit methods, though possibly not for replacement.

If no subclass/superclass relationship provides a method, `as` looks for an inherited method, but applying inheritance for the argument `from` only, not for the argument `to` (if you think about it, you'll probably agree that you wouldn't want the result to be from some class other than the `Class` specified). Thus, `selectMethod("coerce", sig, useInherited= c(from=TRUE, to= FALSE))` replicates the method selection used by `as()`.

In nearly all cases the method found in this way will be cached in the table of coerce methods (the exception being subclass relationships with a test, which are legal but discouraged). So the detailed calculations should be done only on the first occurrence of a coerce from `class(object)` to `Class`.

Note that `coerce` is not a standard generic function. It is not intended to be called directly. To prevent accidentally caching an invalid inherited method, calls are routed to an equivalent call to `as`, and a warning is issued. Also, calls to `selectMethod` for this function may not represent the method that `as` will choose. You can only trust the result if the corresponding call to `as` has occurred previously in this session.

With this explanation as background, the function `setAs` does a fairly obvious computation: It constructs and sets a method for the function `coerce` with signature `c(from, to)`, using the `def` argument to define the body of the method. The function supplied as `def` can have one argument (interpreted as an object to be coerced) or two arguments (the `from` object and the `to` class). Either way, `setAs` constructs a function of two arguments, with the second defaulting to the name of the `to` class. The method will be called from `as` with the object as the `from` argument and no `to` argument, with the default for this argument being the name of the intended `to` class, so the method can use this information in messages.

The direct version of the `as` function also has a `strict=` argument that defaults to `TRUE`. Calls during the evaluation of methods for other functions will set this argument to `FALSE`. The distinction is relevant when the object being coerced is from a simple subclass of the `to` class; if `strict=FALSE` in this case, nothing need be done. For most user-written coerce methods, when the two classes have no subclass/superclass, the `strict=` argument is irrelevant.

The `replace` argument to `setAs` provides a method for ``coerce<-``. As with all replacement methods, the last argument of the method must have the name `value` for the object on the right of the assignment. As with the `coerce` method, the first two arguments are `from, to`; there is no `strict=` option for the `replace` case.

The function `coerce` exists as a repository for such methods, to be selected as described above by the `as` function. Actually dispatching the methods using `standardGeneric` could produce incorrect inherited methods, by using inheritance on the `to` argument; as mentioned, this is not the logic used for `as`. To prevent selecting and caching invalid methods, calls to `coerce` are currently mapped into calls to `as`, with a warning message.

Basic Coercion Methods

Methods are pre-defined for coercing any object to one of the basic datatypes. For example, `as(x, "numeric")` uses the existing `as.numeric` function. These built-in methods can be listed by `showMethods("coerce")`.

References

- Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)
- Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

If you think of using `try(as(x, cl))`, consider `canCoerce(x, cl)` instead.

Examples

```
## using the definition of class "track" from \link{setClass}

setAs("track", "numeric", function(from) from@y)

t1 <- new("track", x=1:20, y=(1:20)^2)

as(t1, "numeric")

## The next example shows:
## 1. A virtual class to define setAs for several classes at once.
## 2. as() using inherited information

setClass("ca", representation(a = "character", id = "numeric"))

setClass("cb", representation(b = "character", id = "numeric"))

setClass("id")
setIs("ca", "id")
setIs("cb", "id")

setAs("id", "numeric", function(from) from@id)

CA <- new("ca", a = "A", id = 1)
CB <- new("cb", b = "B", id = 2)

setAs("cb", "ca", function(from, to )new(to, a=from@b, id = from@id))

as(CB, "numeric")
```

BasicClasses*Classes Corresponding to Basic Data Types*

Description

Formal classes exist corresponding to the basic R object types, allowing these types to be used in method signatures, as slots in class definitions, and to be extended by new classes.

Usage

```

### The following are all basic vector classes.
### They can appear as class names in method signatures,
### in calls to as(), is(), and new().
"character"
"complex"
"double"
"expression"
"integer"
"list"
"logical"
"numeric"
"single"
"raw"

### the class
"vector"
### is a virtual class, extended by all the above

### the class
"S4"
### is an object type for S4 objects that do not extend
### any of the basic vector classes. It is a virtual class.

### The following are additional basic classes
"NULL"      # NULL objects
"function"  # function objects, including primitives
"externalptr" # raw external pointers for use in C code

"ANY"      # virtual classes used by the methods package itself
"VIRTUAL"
"missing"

"namedList" # the alternative to "list" that preserves
             # the names attribute

```

Objects from the Classes

If a class is not virtual (see section in [Classes](#)), objects can be created by calls of the form `new(Class, ...)`, where `Class` is the quoted class name, and the remaining arguments if any are objects to be interpreted as vectors of this class. Multiple arguments will be concatenated.

The class `"expression"` is slightly odd, in that the `...` arguments will *not* be evaluated; therefore, don't enclose them in a call to `quote()`.

Note that class `"list"` is a pure vector. Although lists with names go back to the earliest versions of S, they are an extension of the vector concept in that they have an attribute (which can now be a slot) and which is either `NULL` or a character vector of the same length as the vector. If you want to guarantee that list names are preserved, use class `"namedList"`, rather than `"list"`. Objects from this class must have a `names` attribute, corresponding to slot `"names"`, of type `"character"`.

Internally, R treats names for lists specially, which makes it impractical to have the corresponding slot in class "namedList" be a union of character names and NULL.

Classes and Types

The basic classes include classes for the basic R types. Note that objects of these types will not usually be S4 objects (`isS4` will return FALSE), although objects from classes that contain the basic class will be S4 objects, still with the same type. The type as returned by `typeof` will sometimes differ from the class, either just from a choice of terminology (type "symbol" and class "name", for example) or because there is not a one-to-one correspondence between class and type (most of the classes that inherit from class "language" have type "language", for example).

Extends

The vector classes extend "vector", directly.

Methods

coerce Methods are defined to coerce arbitrary objects to the vector classes, by calling the corresponding basic function, for example, `as(x, "numeric")` calls `as.numeric(x)`.

callGeneric

Call the Current Generic Function from a Method

Description

A call to `callGeneric` can only appear inside a method definition. It then results in a call to the current generic function. The value of that call is the value of `callGeneric`. While it can be called from any method, it is useful and typically used in methods for group generic functions.

Usage

```
callGeneric(...)
```

Arguments

... Optionally, the arguments to the function in its next call.
 If no arguments are included in the call to `callGeneric`, the effect is to call the function with the current arguments. See the detailed description for what this really means.

Details

The name and package of the current generic function is stored in the environment of the method definition object. This name is looked up and the corresponding function called.

The statement that passing no arguments to `callGeneric` causes the generic function to be called with the current arguments is more precisely as follows. Arguments that were missing in the current call are still missing (remember that "missing" is a valid class in a method signature). For a formal argument, say `x`, that appears in the original call, there is a corresponding argument in the generated call equivalent to `x = x`. In effect, this means that the generic function sees the same actual arguments, but arguments are evaluated only once.

Using `callGeneric` with no arguments is prone to creating infinite recursion, unless one of the arguments in the signature has been modified in the current method so that a different method is selected.

Value

The value returned by the new call.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[GroupGenericFunctions](#) for other information about group generic functions; [Methods](#) for the general behavior of method dispatch

Examples

```
## the method for group generic function Ops
## for signature( e1="structure", e2="vector")
function (e1, e2)
{
  value <- callGeneric(e1@.Data, e2)
  if (length(value) == length(e1)) {
    e1@.Data <- value
    e1
  }
  else value
}

## For more examples
## Not run:
showMethods("Ops", includeDefs = TRUE)

## End(Not run)
```

callNextMethod

Call an Inherited Method

Description

A call to `callNextMethod` can only appear inside a method definition. It then results in a call to the first inherited method after the current method, with the arguments to the current method passed down to the next method. The value of that method call is the value of `callNextMethod`.

Usage

```
callNextMethod(...)
```

Arguments

... Optionally, the arguments to the function in its next call (but note that the dispatch is as in the detailed description below; the arguments have no effect on selecting the next method.)

If no arguments are included in the call to `callNextMethod`, the effect is to call the method with the current arguments. See the detailed description for what this really means.

Calling with no arguments is often the natural way to use `callNextMethod`; see the examples.

Details

The ‘next’ method (i.e., the first inherited method) is defined to be that method which *would* have been called if the current method did not exist. This is more-or-less literally what happens: The current method (to be precise, the method with signature given by the defined slot of the method from which `callNextMethod` is called) is deleted from a copy of the methods for the current generic, and `selectMethod` is called to find the next method (the result is cached in a special object, so the search only typically happens once per session per combination of argument classes).

Note that the preceding definition means that the next method is defined uniquely when `setMethod` inserts the method containing the `callNextMethod` call, given the definitions of the classes in the signature. The choice does not depend on the path that gets us to that method (for example, through inheritance or from another `callNextMethod` call). This definition was not enforced in versions of R prior to 2.3.0, where the method was selected based on the target signature, and so could vary depending on the actual arguments.

It is also legal, and often useful, for the method called by `callNextMethod` to itself have a call to `callNextMethod`. This generally works as you would expect, but for completeness be aware that it is possible to have ambiguous inheritance in the S structure, in the sense that the same two classes can appear as superclasses *in the opposite order* in two other class definitions. In this case the effect of a nested instance of `callNextMethod` is not well defined. Such inconsistent class hierarchies are both rare and nearly always the result of bad design, but they are possible, and currently undetected.

The statement that the method is called with the current arguments is more precisely as follows. Arguments that were missing in the current call are still missing (remember that “missing” is a

valid class in a method signature). For a formal argument, say `x`, that appears in the original call, there is a corresponding argument in the next method call equivalent to `x = x`. In effect, this means that the next method sees the same actual arguments, but arguments are evaluated only once.

Value

The value returned by the selected method.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[callGeneric](#) to call the generic function with the current dispatch rules (typically for a group generic function); [Methods](#) for the general behavior of method dispatch.

Examples

```
## some class definitions with simple inheritance
setClass("B0" , representation(b0 = "numeric"))

setClass("B1", representation(b1 = "character"), contains = "B0")

setClass("B2", representation(b2 = "logical"), contains = "B1")

## and a rather silly function to illustrate callNextMethod

f <- function(x) class(x)

setMethod("f", "B0", function(x) c(x@b0^2, callNextMethod()))
setMethod("f", "B1", function(x) c(paste(x@b1, ":"), callNextMethod()))
setMethod("f", "B2", function(x) c(x@b2, callNextMethod()))

b1 <- new("B1", b0 = 2, b1 = "Testing")

b2 <- new("B2", b2 = FALSE, b1 = "More testing", b0 = 10)

f(b2)
stopifnot(identical(f(b2), c(b2@b2, paste(b2@b1, ":"), b2@b0^2, "B2")))

f(b1)

## a sneakier method: the *changed* x is used:
setMethod("f", "B2",
  function(x) {x@b0 <- 111; c(x@b2, callNextMethod())})
f(b2)
stopifnot(identical(f(b2), c(b2@b2, paste(b2@b1, ":"), 111^2, "B2")))
```

`canCoerce`*Can an Object be Coerced to a Certain S4 Class?*

Description

Test if an object can be coerced to a given S4 class. Maybe useful inside `if()` to ensure that calling `as(object, Class)` will find a method.

Usage

```
canCoerce(object, Class)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	any R object, typically of a formal S4 class.
<code>Class</code>	an S4 class (see isClass).

Value

a scalar logical, TRUE if there is a coerce method (as defined by e.g. [setAs](#)) for the signature (from = `class(object)`, to = `Class`).

See Also

[as](#), [setAs](#), [selectMethod](#), [setClass](#),

Examples

```
m <- matrix(pi, 2,3)
canCoerce(m, "numeric") # TRUE
canCoerce(m, "array")   # TRUE
```

cbind2*Combine two Objects by Columns or Rows*

Description

Combine two matrix-like R objects by columns (`cbind2`) or rows (`rbind2`). These are (S4) generic functions with default methods.

Usage

```
cbind2(x, y, ...)  
rbind2(x, y, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	any R object, typically matrix-like.
<code>y</code>	any R object, typically similar to <code>x</code> , or missing completely.
<code>...</code>	optional arguments for methods.

Details

The main use of `cbind2` (`rbind2`) is to be called recursively by `cbind()` (`rbind()`) when both of these requirements are met:

- There is at least one argument that is an S4 object, and
- S3 dispatch fails (see the Dispatch section under `cbind`).

The methods on `cbind2` and `rbind2` effectively define the type promotion policy when combining a heterogeneous set of arguments. The homogeneous case, where all objects derive from some S4 class, can be handled via S4 dispatch on the `...` argument via an externally defined S4 `cbind` (`rbind`) generic.

Since (for legacy reasons) S3 dispatch is attempted first, it is generally a good idea to additionally define an S3 method on `cbind` (`rbind`) for the S4 class. The S3 method will be invoked when the arguments include objects of the S4 class, along with arguments of classes for which no S3 method exists. Also, in case there is an argument that selects a different S3 method (like the one for `data.frame`), this S3 method serves to introduce an ambiguity in dispatch that triggers the recursive fallback to `cbind2` (`rbind2`). Otherwise, the other S3 method would be called, which may not be appropriate.

Value

A matrix (or matrix like object) combining the columns (or rows) of `x` and `y`. Note that methods must construct `colnames` and `rownames` from the corresponding column and row names of `x` and `y` (but not from deparsing argument names such as in `cbind(..., deparse.level = d)` for $d \geq 1$).

Methods

`signature(x = "ANY", y = "ANY")` the default method using R's internal code.

`signature(x = "ANY", y = "missing")` the default method for one argument using R's internal code.

See Also

[cbind](#), [rbind](#); further, [cBind](#), [rBind](#) in the **Matrix** package.

Examples

```
cbind2(1:3, 4)
m <- matrix(3:8, 2,3, dimnames=list(c("a","b"), LETTERS[1:3]))
cbind2(1:2, m) # keeps dimnames from m

## rbind() and cbind() now make use of rbind2()/cbind2() methods
setClass("Num", contains="numeric")
setMethod("cbind2", c("Num", "missing"),
  function(x,y, ...) { cat("Num-miss--meth\n"); as.matrix(x)})
setMethod("cbind2", c("Num","ANY"), function(x,y, ...) {
  cat("Num-A.--method\n") ; cbind(getDataPart(x), y, ...) })
setMethod("cbind2", c("ANY","Num"), function(x,y, ...) {
  cat("A.-Num--method\n") ; cbind(x, getDataPart(y), ...) })

a <- new("Num", 1:3)
trace("cbind2")
cbind(a)
cbind(a, four=4, 7:9)# calling cbind2() twice

cbind(m,a, ch=c("D","E"), a*3)
cbind(1,a, m) # ok with a warning
untrace("cbind2")
```

Classes

Class Definitions

Description

Class definitions are objects that contain the formal definition of a class of R objects, usually referred to as an S4 class, to distinguish them from the informal S3 classes. This document gives an overview of S4 classes; for details of the class representation objects, see help for the class [classRepresentation](#).

Metadata Information

When a class is defined, an object is stored that contains the information about that class. The object, known as the *metadata* defining the class, is not stored under the name of the class (to allow programmers to write generating functions of that name), but under a specially constructed name. To examine the class definition, call `getClass`. The information in the metadata object includes:

Slots: The data contained in an object from an S4 class is defined by the *slots* in the class definition.

Each slot in an object is a component of the object; like components (that is, elements) of a list, these may be extracted and set, using the function `slot()` or more often the operator `@`. However, they differ from list components in important ways. First, slots can only be referred to by name, not by position, and there is no partial matching of names as with list elements.

All the objects from a particular class have the same set of slot names; specifically, the slot names that are contained in the class definition. Each slot in each object always is an object of the class specified for this slot in the definition of the current class. The word “is” corresponds to the R function of the same name (`is`), meaning that the class of the object in the slot must be the same as the class specified in the definition, or some class that extends the one in the definition (a *subclass*).

A special slot name, `.Data`, stands for the ‘data part’ of the object. An object from a class with a data part is defined by specifying that the class contains one of the R object types or one of the special pseudo-classes, `matrix` or `array`, usually because the definition of the class, or of one of its superclasses, has included the type or pseudo-class in its `contains` argument. A second special slot name, `.xData`, is used to enable inheritance from abnormal types such as “environment” See the section on inheriting from non-S4 classes for details on the representation and for the behavior of S3 methods with objects from these classes.

Some slot names correspond to attributes used in old-style S3 objects and in R objects without an explicit class, for example, the `names` attribute. If you define a class for which that attribute will be set, such as a subclass of named vectors, you should include “names” as a slot. See the definition of class “`namedList`” for an example. Using the `names()` assignment to set such names will generate a warning if there is no names slot and an error if the object in question is not a vector type. A slot called “names” can be used anywhere, but only if it is assigned as a slot, not via the default `names()` assignment.

Superclasses: The definition of a class includes the *superclasses* —the classes that this class extends. A class `Fancy`, say, extends a class `Simple` if an object from the `Fancy` class has all the capabilities of the `Simple` class (and probably some more as well). In particular, and very usefully, any method defined to work for a `Simple` object can be applied to a `Fancy` object as well.

This relationship is expressed equivalently by saying that `Simple` is a superclass of `Fancy`, or that `Fancy` is a subclass of `Simple`.

The direct superclasses of a class are those superclasses explicitly defined. Direct superclasses can be defined in three ways. Most commonly, the superclasses are listed in the `contains=` argument in the call to `setClass` that creates the subclass. In this case the subclass will contain all the slots of the superclass, and the relation between the class is called *simple*, as it in fact is. Superclasses can also be defined explicitly by a call to `setIs`; in this case, the relation requires methods to be specified to go from subclass to superclass. Thirdly, a class union is a superclass of all the members of the union. In this case too the relation is *simple*, but notice that the relation is defined when the superclass is created, not when the subclass is created as with the `contains=` mechanism.

The definition of a superclass will also potentially contain its own direct superclasses. These are considered (and shown) as superclasses at distance 2 from the original class; their direct superclasses are at distance 3, and so on. All these are legitimate superclasses for purposes such as method selection.

When superclasses are defined by including the names of superclasses in the `contains=` argument to `setClass`, an object from the class will have all the slots defined for its own class *and* all the slots defined for all its superclasses as well.

The information about the relation between a class and a particular superclass is encoded as an object of class `SClassExtension`. A list of such objects for the superclasses (and sometimes for the subclasses) is included in the metadata object defining the class. If you need to compute with these objects (for example, to compare the distances), call the function `extends` with argument `fullInfo=TRUE`.

Prototype: The objects from a class created by a call to `new` are defined by the *prototype* object for the class and by additional arguments in the call to `new`, which are passed to a method for that class for the function `initialize`.

Each class representation object contains a prototype object for the class (although for a virtual class the prototype may be `NULL`). The prototype object must have values for all the slots of the class. By default, these are the prototypes of the corresponding slot classes. However, the definition of the class can specify any valid object for any of the slots.

Virtual classes; Basic classes

Classes exist for which no actual objects can be created by a call to `new`, the *virtual* classes, in fact a very important programming tool. They are used to group together ordinary classes that want to share some programming behavior, without necessarily restricting how the behavior is implemented. Virtual class definitions may if you want include slots (to provide some common behavior without fully defining the object—see the class `traceable` for an example).

A simple and useful form of virtual class is the *class union*, a virtual class that is defined in a call to `setClassUnion` by listing one or more of subclasses (classes that extend the class union). Class unions can include as subclasses basic object types (whose definition is otherwise sealed).

There are a number of ‘basic’ classes, corresponding to the ordinary kinds of data occurring in R. For example, “numeric” is a class corresponding to numeric vectors. The other vector basic classes are “logical”, “integer”, “complex”, “character”, “raw”, “list” and “expression”. The prototypes for the vector classes are vectors of length 0 of the corresponding type. Notice that basic classes are unusual in that the prototype object is from the class itself.

In addition to the vector classes there are also basic classes corresponding to objects in the language, such as “function” and “call”. These classes are subclasses of the virtual class “language”. Finally, there are object types and corresponding basic classes for “abnormal” objects, such as “environment” and “externalptr”. These objects do not follow the functional behavior of the language; in particular, they are not copied and so cannot have attributes or slots defined locally.

All these classes can be used as slots or as superclasses for any other class definitions, although they do not themselves come with an explicit class. For the abnormal object types, a special mechanism is used to enable inheritance as described below.

Inheriting from non-S4 Classes

A class definition can extend classes other than regular S4 classes, usually by specifying them in the `contains=` argument to `setClass`. Three groups of such classes behave distinctly:

1. S3 classes, which must have been registered by a previous call to `setOldClass` (you can check that this has been done by calling `getClass`, which should return a class that extends `oldClass`);
2. One of the R object types, typically a vector type, which then defines the type of the S4 objects, but also a type such as `environment` that can not be used directly as a type for an S4 object. See below.
3. One of the pseudo-classes `matrix` and `array`, implying objects with arbitrary vector types plus the `dim` and `dimnames` attributes.

This section describes the approach to combining S4 computations with older S3 computations by using such classes as superclasses. The design goal is to allow the S4 class to inherit S3 methods and default computations in as consistent a form as possible.

As part of a general effort to make the S4 and S3 code in R more consistent, when objects from an S4 class are used as the first argument to a non-default S3 method, either for an S3 generic function (one that calls `UseMethod`) or for one of the primitive functions that dispatches S3 methods, an effort is made to provide a valid object for that method. In particular, if the S4 class extends an S3 class or `matrix` or `array`, and there is an S3 method matching one of these classes, the S4 object will be coerced to a valid S3 object, to the extent that is possible given that there is no formal definition of an S3 class.

For example, suppose "myFrame" is an S4 class that includes the S3 class "data.frame" in the `contains=` argument to `setClass`. If an object from this S4 class is passed to a function, say `as.matrix`, that has an S3 method for "data.frame", the internal code for `UseMethod` will convert the object to a data frame; in particular, to an S3 object whose class attribute will be the vector corresponding to the S3 class (possibly containing multiple class names). Similarly for an S4 object inheriting from "matrix" or "array", the S4 object will be converted to a valid S3 matrix or array.

Note that the conversion is *not* applied when an S4 object is passed to the default S3 method. Some S3 generics attempt to deal with general objects, including S4 objects. Also, no transformation is applied to S4 objects that do not correspond to a selected S3 method; in particular, to objects from a class that does not contain either an S3 class or one of the basic types. See `asS4` for the transformation details.

In addition to explicit S3 generic functions, S3 methods are defined for a variety of operators and functions implemented as primitives. These methods are dispatched by some internal C code that operates partly through the same code as real S3 generic functions and partly via special considerations (for example, both arguments to a binary operator are examined when looking for methods). The same mechanism for adapting S4 objects to S3 methods has been applied to these computations as well, with a few exceptions such as generating an error if an S4 object that does not extend an appropriate S3 class or type is passed to a binary operator.

The remainder of this section discusses the mechanisms for inheriting from basic object types. See `matrix` or `array` for inhering from the matrix and array pseudo-classes, or from time-series. For the corresponding details for inheritance from S3 classes, see `setOldClass`.

An object from a class that directly and simply contains one of the basic object types in R, has implicitly a corresponding `.Data` slot of that type, allowing computations to extract or replace the data part while leaving other slots unchanged. If the type is one that can accept attributes and is duplicated normally, the inheritance also determines the type of the object; if the class definition has a `.Data` slot corresponding to a normal type, the class of the slot determines the type of the object (that is, the value of `typeof(x)`). For such classes, `.Data` is a pseudo-slot; that is, extracting

or setting it modifies the non-slot data in the object. The functions [getDataPart](#) and [setDataPart](#) are a cleaner, but essentially equivalent way to deal with the data part.

Extending a basic type this way allows objects to use old-style code for the corresponding type as well as S4 methods. Any basic type can be used for `.Data`, but a few types are treated differently because they do not behave like ordinary objects; for example, "NULL", environments, and external pointers. Classes extend these types by having a slot, `.xData`, itself inherited from an internally defined S4 class. This slot actually contains an object of the inherited type, to protect computations from the reference semantics of the type. Coercing to the nonstandard object type then requires an actual computation, rather than the "simple" inclusion for other types and classes. The intent is that programmers will not need to take account of the mechanism, but one implication is that you should *not* explicitly use the type of an S4 object to detect inheritance from an arbitrary object type. Use [is](#) and similar functions instead.

References

- Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)
- Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)
- Chambers, John M. and Hastie, Trevor J. eds (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole (Appendix A for S3 classes.)
- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (Out of print.) (The description of vectors, matrix, array and time-series objects.)

See Also

[Methods](#) for analogous discussion of methods, [setClass](#) for details of specifying class definitions, [is](#), [as](#), [new](#), [slot](#)

classesToAM

Compute an Adjacency Matrix for Superclasses of Class Definitions

Description

Given a vector of class names or a list of class definitions, the function returns an adjacency matrix of the superclasses of these classes; that is, a matrix with class names as the row and column names and with element `[i, j]` being 1 if the class in column `j` is a direct superclass of the class in row `i`, and 0 otherwise.

The matrix has the information implied by the `contains` slot of the class definitions, but in a form that is often more convenient for further analysis; for example, an adjacency matrix is used in packages and other software to construct graph representations of relationships.

Usage

```
classesToAM(classes, includeSubclasses = FALSE,
             abbreviate = 2)
```

Arguments

classes	Either a character vector of class names or a list, whose elements can be either class names or class definitions. The list is convenient, for example, to include the package slot for the class name. See the examples.
includeSubclasses	A logical flag; if TRUE, then the matrix will include all the known subclasses of the specified classes as well as the superclasses. The argument can also be a logical vector of the same length as classes, to include subclasses for some but not all the classes.
abbreviate	Control of the abbreviation of the row and/or column labels of the matrix returned: values 0, 1, 2, or 3 abbreviate neither, rows, columns or both. The default, 2, is useful for printing the matrix, since class names tend to be more than one character long, making for spread-out printing. Values of 0 or 3 would be appropriate for making a graph (3 avoids the tendency of some graph plotting software to produce labels in minuscule font size).

Details

For each of the classes, the calculation gets all the superclass names from the class definition, and finds the edges in those classes' definitions; that is, all the superclasses at distance 1. The corresponding elements of the adjacency matrix are set to 1.

The adjacency matrices for the individual class definitions are merged. Note two possible kinds of inconsistency, neither of which should cause problems except possibly with identically named classes from different packages. Edges are computed from each superclass definition, so that information overrides a possible inference from extension elements with distance > 1 (and it should). When matrices from successive classes in the argument are merged, the computations do not currently check for inconsistencies—this is the area where possible multiple classes with the same name could cause confusion. A later revision may include consistency checks.

Value

As described, a matrix with entries 0 or 1, non-zero values indicating that the class corresponding to the column is a direct superclass of the class corresponding to the row. The row and column names are the class names (without package slot).

See Also

[extends](#) and [classRepresentation](#) for the underlying information from the class definition.

Examples

```
## the super- and subclasses of "standardGeneric"
## and "derivedDefaultMethod"
am <- classesToAM(list(class(show), class(getMethod(show))), TRUE)
am

## Not run:
## the following function depends on the Bioconductor package Rgraphviz
```

```

plotInheritance <- function(classes, subclasses = FALSE, ...) {
  if(!require("Rgraphviz", quietly=TRUE))
    stop("Only implemented if Rgraphviz is available")
  mm <- classesToAM(classes, subclasses)
  classes <- rownames(mm); rownames(mm) <- colnames(mm)
  graph <- new("graphAM", mm, "directed", ...)
  plot(graph)
  cat("Key:\n", paste(abbreviate(classes), " = ", classes, ", ", ",
    sep = """), sep = "", fill = TRUE)
  invisible(graph)
}

## The plot of the class inheritance of the package "graph"
require(graph)
plotInheritance(getClasses("package:graph"))

## End(Not run)

```

className

Class names including the corresponding package

Description

The function `className()` generates a valid references to a class, including the name of the package containing the class definition. The object returned, from class "className", is the unambiguous way to refer to a class, for example when calling [setMethod](#), just in case multiple definitions of the class exist.

Function "multipleClasses" returns information about multiple definitions of classes with the same name from different packages.

Usage

```
className(class, package)
```

```
multipleClasses(details = FALSE)
```

Arguments

class, package The character string name of a class and, optionally, of the package to which it belongs. If argument `package` is missing and the `class` argument has a package slot, that is used (in particular, passing in an object from class "className" returns itself in this case, but changes the package slot if the second argument is supplied).

If there is no package argument or slot, a definition for the class must exist and will be used to define the package. If there are multiple definitions, one will be chosen and a warning printed giving the other possibilities.

details If FALSE, the default, `multipleClasses()` returns a character vector of those classes currently known with multiple definitions.

If TRUE, a named list of those class definitions is returned. Each element of the list is itself a list of the corresponding class definitions, with the package names as the names of the list. Note that identical class definitions will not be considered “multiple” definitions (see the discussion of the details below).

Details

The table of class definitions used internally can maintain multiple definitions for classes with the same name but coming from different packages. If identical class definitions are encountered, only one class definition is kept; this occurs most often with S3 classes that have been specified in calls to [setOldClass](#). For true classes, multiple class definitions are unavoidable in general if two packages happen to have used the same name, independently.

Overriding a class definition in another package with the same name deliberately is usually a bad idea. Although R attempts to keep and use the two definitions (as of version 2.14.0), ambiguities are always possible. It is more sensible to define a new class that extends an existing class but has a different name.

Value

A call to `className()` returns an object from class “className”.

A call to `multipleClasses()` returns either a character vector or a named list of class definitions. In either case, testing the length of the returned value for being greater than 0 is a check for the existence of multiply defined classes.

Objects from the Class

The class “className” extends “character” and has a slot “package”, also of class “character”.

Examples

```
## Not run:
className("vector") # will be found, from package "methods"
className("vector", "magic") # OK, even though the class doesn't exist

className("An unknown class") # Will cause an error

## End(Not run)
```

`classRepresentation-class`*Class Objects*

Description

These are the objects that hold the definition of classes of objects. They are constructed and stored as meta-data by calls to the function `setClass`. Don't manipulate them directly, except perhaps to look at individual slots.

Details

Class definitions are stored as metadata in various packages. Additional metadata supplies information on inheritance (the result of calls to `setIs`). Inheritance information implied by the class definition itself (because the class contains one or more other classes) is also constructed automatically.

When a class is to be used in an R session, this information is assembled to complete the class definition. The completion is a second object of class "classRepresentation", cached for the session or until something happens to change the information. A call to `getClass` returns the completed definition of a class; a call to `getClassDef` returns the stored definition (uncompleted).

In particular, completion fills in the upward- and downward-pointing inheritance information for the class, in slots `contains` and `subclasses` respectively. It's in principle important to note that this information can depend on which packages are installed, since these may define additional subclasses or superclasses.

Slots

slots: A named list of the slots in this class; the elements of the list are the classes to which the slots must belong (or extend), and the names of the list gives the corresponding slot names.

contains: A named list of the classes this class 'contains'; the elements of the list are objects of `SClassExtension`. The list may be only the direct extensions or all the currently known extensions (see the details).

virtual: Logical flag, set to TRUE if this is a virtual class.

prototype: The object that represents the standard prototype for this class; i.e., the data and slots returned by a call to `new` for this class with no special arguments. Don't mess with the prototype object directly.

validity: Optionally, a function to be used to test the validity of objects from this class. See `validObject`.

access: Access control information. Not currently used.

className: The character string name of the class.

package: The character string name of the package to which the class belongs. Nearly always the package on which the metadata for the class is stored, but in operations such as constructing inheritance information, the internal package name rules.

subclasses: A named list of the classes known to extend this class'; the elements of the list are objects of class `SClassExtension`. The list is currently only filled in when completing the class definition (see the details).

versionKey: Object of class "externalptr"; eventually will perhaps hold some versioning information, but not currently used.

sealed: Object of class "logical"; is this class sealed? If so, no modifications are allowed.

See Also

See function `setClass` to supply the information in the class definition. See [Classes](#) for a more basic discussion of class information.

Documentation

Using and Creating On-line Documentation for Classes and Methods

Description

Special documentation can be supplied to describe the classes and methods that are created by the software in the methods package. Techniques to access this documentation and to create it in R help files are described here.

Getting documentation on classes and methods

You can ask for on-line help for class definitions, for specific methods for a generic function, and for general discussion of methods for a generic function. These requests use the `?` operator (see [help](#) for a general description of the operator). Of course, you are at the mercy of the implementer as to whether there *is* any documentation on the corresponding topics.

Documentation on a class uses the argument `class` on the left of the `?`, and the name of the class on the right; for example,

```
class ? genericFunction
```

to ask for documentation on the class "genericFunction".

When you want documentation for the methods defined for a particular function, you can ask either for a general discussion of the methods or for documentation of a particular method (that is, the method that would be selected for a particular set of actual arguments).

Overall methods documentation is requested by calling the `?` operator with `methods` as the left-side argument and the name of the function as the right-side argument. For example,

```
methods ? initialize
```

asks for documentation on the methods for the `initialize` function.

Asking for documentation on a particular method is done by giving a function call expression as the right-hand argument to the `"?"` operator. There are two forms, depending on whether you prefer to give the class names for the arguments or expressions that you intend to use in the actual call.

If you planned to evaluate a function call, say `myFun(x, sqrt(wt))` and wanted to find out something about the method that would be used for this call, put the call on the right of the `"?"` operator:

```
?myFun(x, sqrt(wt))
```

A method will be selected, as it would be for the call itself, and documentation for that method will be requested. If `myFun` is not a generic function, ordinary documentation for the function will be requested.

If you know the actual classes for which you would like method documentation, you can supply these explicitly in place of the argument expressions. In the example above, if you want method documentation for the first argument having class `"maybeNumber"` and the second `"logical"`, call the `"?"` operator, this time with a left-side argument method, and with a function call on the right using the class names as arguments:

```
method ? myFun("maybeNumber", "logical")
```

Once again, a method will be selected, this time corresponding to the specified classes, and method documentation will be requested. This version only works with generic functions.

The two forms each have advantages. The version with actual arguments doesn't require you to figure out (or guess at) the classes of the arguments. On the other hand, evaluating the arguments may take some time, depending on the example. The version with class names does require you to pick classes, but it's otherwise unambiguous. It has a subtler advantage, in that the classes supplied may be virtual classes, in which case no actual argument will have specifically this class. The class `"maybeNumber"`, for example, might be a class union (see the example for [setClassUnion](#)).

In either form, methods will be selected as they would be in actual computation, including use of inheritance and group generic functions. See [selectMethod](#) for the details, since it is the function used to find the appropriate method.

Writing Documentation for Methods

The on-line documentation for methods and classes uses some extensions to the R documentation format to implement the requests for class and method documentation described above. See the document *Writing R Extensions* for the available markup commands (you should have consulted this document already if you are at the stage of documenting your software).

In addition to the specific markup commands to be described, you can create an initial, overall file with a skeleton of documentation for the methods defined for a particular generic function:

```
promptMethods("myFun")
```

will create a file, `'myFun-methods.Rd'` with a skeleton of documentation for the methods defined for function `myFun`. The output from `promptMethods` is suitable if you want to describe all or most of the methods for the function in one file, separate from the documentation of the generic function itself. Once the file has been filled in and moved to the `'man'` subdirectory of your source package, requests for methods documentation will use that file, both for specific methods documentation as described above, and for overall documentation requested by

```
methods ? myFun
```

You are not required to use `promptMethods`, and if you do, you may not want to use the entire file created:

- If you want to document the methods in the file containing the documentation for the generic function itself, you can cut-and-paste to move the `\alias` lines and the `Methods` section from the file created by `promptMethods` to the existing file.

- On the other hand, if these are auxiliary methods, and you only want to document the added or modified software, you should strip out all but the relevant `\alias` lines for the methods of interest, and remove all but the corresponding `\item` entries in the `Methods` section. Note that in this case you will usually remove the first `\alias` line as well, since that is the marker for general methods documentation on this function (in the example, `\alias{myfun-methods}`).

If you simply want to direct documentation for one or more methods to a particular R documentation file, insert the appropriate alias.

dotsMethods

The Use of ... in Method Signatures

Description

The “...” argument in R functions is treated specially, in that it matches zero, one or more actual arguments (and so, objects). A mechanism has been added to R to allow “...” as the signature of a generic function. Methods defined for such functions will be selected and called when *all* the arguments matching “...” are from the specified class or from some subclass of that class.

Using “...” in a Signature

Beginning with version 2.8.0 of R, S4 methods can be dispatched (selected and called) corresponding to the special argument “...”. Currently, “...” cannot be mixed with other formal arguments: either the signature of the generic function is “...” only, or it does not contain “...”. (This restriction may be lifted in a future version.)

Given a suitable generic function, methods are specified in the usual way by a call to `setMethod`. The method definition must be written expecting all the arguments corresponding to “...” to be from the class specified in the method’s signature, or from a class that extends that class (i.e., a subclass of that class).

Typically the methods will pass “...” down to another function or will create a list of the arguments and iterate over that. See the examples below.

When you have a computation that is suitable for more than one existing class, a convenient approach may be to define a union of these classes by a call to `setClassUnion`. See the example below.

Method Selection and Dispatch for “...”

See [Methods](#) for a general discussion. The following assumes you have read the “Method Selection and Dispatch” section of that documentation.

A method selecting on “...” is specified by a single class in the call to `setMethod`. If all the actual arguments corresponding to “...” have this class, the corresponding method is selected directly.

Otherwise, the class of each argument and that class’ superclasses are computed, beginning with the first “...” argument. For the first argument, eligible methods are those for any of the classes. For each succeeding argument that introduces a class not considered previously, the eligible methods are further restricted to those matching the argument’s class or superclasses. If no further eligible classes exist, the iteration breaks out and the default method, if any, is selected.

At the end of the iteration, one or more methods may be eligible. If more than one, the selection looks for the method with the least distance to the actual arguments. For each argument, any inherited method corresponds to a distance, available from the `contains` slot of the class definition. Since the same class can arise for more than one argument, there may be several distances associated with it. Combining them is inevitably arbitrary: the current computation uses the minimum distance. Thus, for example, if a method matched one argument directly, one as first generation superclass and another as a second generation superclass, the distances are 0, 1 and 2. The current selection computation would use distance 0 for this method. In particular, this selection criterion tends to use a method that matches exactly one or more of the arguments' class.

As with ordinary method selection, there may be multiple methods with the same distance. A warning message is issued and one of the methods is chosen (the first encountered, which in this case is rather arbitrary).

Notice that, while the computation examines all arguments, the essential cost of dispatch goes up with the number of *distinct* classes among the arguments, likely to be much smaller than the number of arguments when the latter is large.

Implementation Details

Methods dispatching on “...” were introduced in version 2.8.0 of R. The initial implementation of the corresponding selection and dispatch is in an R function, for flexibility while the new mechanism is being studied. In this implementation, a local version of `setGeneric` is inserted in the generic function's environment. The local version selects a method according to the criteria above and calls that method, from the environment of the generic function. This is slightly different from the action taken by the C implementation when “...” is not involved. Aside from the extra computing time required, the method is evaluated in a true function call, as opposed to the special context constructed by the C version (which cannot be exactly replicated in R code.) However, situations in which different computational results would be obtained have not been encountered so far, and seem very unlikely.

Methods dispatching on arguments other than “...” are *cached* by storing the inherited method in the table of all methods, where it will be found on the next selection with the same combination of classes in the actual arguments (but not used for inheritance searches). Methods based on “...” are also cached, but not found quite as immediately. As noted, the selected method depends only on the set of classes that occur in the “...” arguments. Each of these classes can appear one or more times, so many combinations of actual argument classes will give rise to the same effective signature. The selection computation first computes and sorts the distinct classes encountered. This gives a label that will be cached in the table of all methods, avoiding any further search for inherited classes after the first occurrence. A call to `showMethods` will expose such inherited methods.

The intention is that the “...” features will be added to the standard C code when enough experience with them has been obtained. It is possible that at the same time, combinations of “...” with other arguments in signatures may be supported.

References

- Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)
- Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

For the general discussion of methods, see [Methods](#) and links from there.

Examples

```
cc <- function(...)c(...)

setGeneric("cc")

setMethod("cc", "character", function(...)paste(...))

setClassUnion("Number", c("numeric", "complex"))

setMethod("cc", "Number", function(...) sum(...))

setClass("cdate", contains = "character", representation(date = "Date"))

setClass("vdate", contains = "vector", representation(date = "Date"))

cd1 <- new("cdate", "abcdef", date = Sys.Date())

cd2 <- new("vdate", "abcdef", date = Sys.Date())

stopifnot(identical(cc(letters, character(), cd1),
  paste(letters, character(), cd1))) # the "character" method

stopifnot(identical(cc(letters, character(), cd2),
  c(letters, character(), cd2)))
# the default, because "vdate" doesn't extend "character"

stopifnot(identical(cc(1:10, 1+1i), sum(1:10, 1+1i))) # the "Number" method

stopifnot(identical(cc(1:10, 1+1i, TRUE), c(1:10, 1+1i, TRUE))) # the default

stopifnot(identical(cc(), c())) # no arguments implies the default method

setGeneric("numMax", function(...)standardGeneric("numMax"))

setMethod("numMax", "numeric", function(...)max(...))
# won't work for complex data
setMethod("numMax", "Number", function(...) paste(...))
# should not be selected w/o complex args

stopifnot(identical(numMax(1:10, pi, 1+1i), paste(1:10, pi, 1+1i)))
stopifnot(identical(numMax(1:10, pi, 1), max(1:10, pi, 1)))

try(numMax(1:10, pi, TRUE)) # should be an error: no default method

## A generic version of paste(), dispatching on the "..." argument:
setGeneric("paste", signature = "...")

setMethod("paste", "Number", function(..., sep, collapse) c(...))
```

```
stopifnot(identical(paste(1:10, pi, 1), c(1:10, pi, 1)))
```

environment-class	<i>Class "environment"</i>
-------------------	----------------------------

Description

A formal class for R environments.

Objects from the Class

Objects can be created by calls of the form `new("environment", ...)`. The arguments in `...`, if any, should be named and will be assigned to the newly created environment.

Methods

coerce signature(from = "ANY", to = "environment"): calls [as.environment](#).

initialize signature(object = "environment"): Implements the assignments in the new environment. Note that the object argument is ignored; a new environment is *always* created, since environments are not protected by copying.

See Also

[new.env](#)

envRefClass-class	<i>Class "envRefClass"</i>
-------------------	----------------------------

Description

Support Class to Implement R Objects using Reference Semantics

NOTE:

The software described here is an initial version. The eventual goal is to support reference-style classes with software in R itself or using inter-system interfaces. The current implementation (R version 2.12.0) is preliminary and subject to change, and currently includes only the R-only implementation. Developers are encouraged to experiment with the software, but the description here is more than usually subject to change.

Purpose of the Class

This class implements basic reference-style semantics for R objects. Objects normally do not come directly from this class, but from subclasses defined by a call to `setRefClass`. The documentation below is technical background describing the implementation, but applications should use the interface documented under `setRefClass`, in particular the `$` operator and field accessor functions as described there.

A Basic Reference Class

The design of reference classes for R divides those classes up according to the mechanism used for implementing references, fields, and class methods. Each version of this mechanism is defined by a *basic reference class*, which must implement a set of methods and provide some further information used by `setRefClass`.

The required methods are for operators `$` and `$<-` to get and set a field in an object, and for `initialize` to initialize objects.

To support these methods, the basic reference class needs to have some implementation mechanism to store and retrieve data from fields in the object. The mechanism needs to be consistent with reference semantics; that is, changes made to the contents of an object are global, seen by any code accessing that object, rather than only local to the function call where the change takes place. As described below, class `envRefClass` implements reference semantics through specialized use of `environment` objects. Other basic reference classes may use an interface to a language such as Java or C++ using reference semantics for classes.

Usually, the R user will be able to invoke class methods on the class, using the `$` operator. The basic reference class method for `$` needs to make this possible. Essentially, the operator must return an R function corresponding to the object and the class method name.

Class methods may include an implementation of data abstraction, in the sense that fields are accessed by “get” and “set” methods. The basic reference class provides this facility by setting the “fieldAccessorGenerator” slot in its definition to a function of one variable. This function will be called by `setRefClass` with the vector of field names as arguments. The generator function must return a list of defined accessor functions. An element corresponding to a get operation is invoked with no arguments and should extract the corresponding field; an element for a set operation will be invoked with a single argument, the value to be assigned to the field. The implementation needs to supply the object, since that is not an argument in the method invocation. The mechanism used currently by `envRefClass` is described below.

Support Classes

Two virtual classes are supplied to test for reference objects: `is(x, "refClass")` tests whether `x` comes from a class defined using the reference class mechanism described here; `is(x, "refObject")` tests whether the object has reference semantics generally, including the previous classes and also classes inheriting from the R types with reference semantics, such as “environment”.

Installed class methods are “classMethodDefinition” objects, with slots that identify the name of the function as a class method and the other class methods called from this method. The latter information is determined heuristically when the class is defined by using the `codetools` recommended package. This package must be installed when reference classes are defined, but is not needed in order to use existing reference classes.

Author(s)

John Chambers

evalSource	<i>Use Function Definitions from a Source File without Reinstalling a Package</i>
------------	---

Description

Definitions of functions and/or methods from a source file are inserted into a package, using the [trace](#) mechanism. Typically, this allows testing or debugging modified versions of a few functions without reinstalling a large package.

Usage

```
evalSource(source, package = "", lock = TRUE, cache = FALSE)

insertSource(source, package = "", functions = , methods = ,
             force = )
```

Arguments

source	<p>A file to be parsed and evaluated by evalSource to find the new function and method definitions.</p> <p>The argument to insertSource can be an object of class "sourceEnvironment" returned from a previous call to evalSource. If a file name is passed to insertSource it calls evalSource to obtain the corresponding object. See the section on the class for details.</p>
package	<p>Optionally, the name of the package to which the new code corresponds and into which it will be inserted. Although the computations will attempt to infer the package if it is omitted, the safe approach is to supply it. In the case of a package that is not attached to the search list, the package name must be supplied.</p>
functions, methods	<p>Optionally, the character-string names of the functions to be used in the insertion. Names supplied in the functions argument are expected to be defined as functions in the source. For names supplied in the methods argument, a table of methods is expected (as generated by calls to setMethod, see the details section); methods from this table will be inserted by insertSource. In both cases, the revised function or method is inserted only if it differs from the version in the corresponding package as loaded.</p> <p>If what is omitted, the results of evaluating the source file will be compared to the contents of the package (see the details section).</p>

lock, cache	<p>Optional arguments to control the actions taken by evalSource. If lock is TRUE, the environment in the object returned will be locked, and so will all its bindings. If cache is FALSE, the normal caching of method and class definitions will be suppressed during evaluation of the source file.</p> <p>The default settings are generally recommended, the lock to support the credibility of the object returned as a snapshot of the source file, and the second so that method definitions can be inserted later by insertSource using the trace mechanism.</p>
force	<p>If FALSE, only functions currently in the environment will be redefined, using trace. If TRUE, other objects/functions will be simply assigned. By default, TRUE if neither the functions nor the methods argument is supplied.</p>

Details

The source file is parsed and evaluated, suppressing by default the actual caching of method and class definitions contained in it, so that functions and methods can be tested out in a reversible way. The result, if all goes well, is an environment containing the assigned objects and metadata corresponding to method and class definitions in the source file.

From this environment, the objects are inserted into the package, into its namespace if it has one, for use during the current session or until reverting to the original version by a call to [untrace](#). The insertion is done by calls to the internal version of [trace](#), to make reversion possible.

Because the trace mechanism is used, only function-type objects will be inserted, functions themselves or S4 methods.

When the functions and methods arguments are both omitted, insertSource selects all suitable objects from the result of evaluating the source file.

In all cases, only objects in the source file that differ from the corresponding objects in the package are inserted. The definition of “differ” is that either the argument list (including default expressions) or the body of the function is not identical. Note that in the case of a method, there need be no specific method for the corresponding signature in the package: the comparison is made to the method that would be selected for that signature.

Nothing in the computation requires that the source file supplied be the same file as in the original package source, although that case is both likely and sensible if one is revising the package. Nothing in the computations compares source files: the objects generated by evaluating source are compared as objects to the content of the package.

Value

An object from class “sourceEnvironment”, a subclass of “environment” (see the section on the class) The environment contains the versions of *all* object resulting from evaluation of the source file. The class also has slots for the time of creation, the source file and the package name. Future extensions may use these objects for versioning or other code tools.

The object returned can be used in debugging (see the section on that topic) or as the source argument in a future call to insertSource. If only some of the revised functions were inserted in the first call, others can be inserted in a later call without re-evaluating the source file, by supplying the environment and optionally suitable functions and/or methods argument.

Debugging

Once a function or method has been inserted into a package by `insertSource`, it can be studied by the standard debugging tools; for example, `debug` or the various versions of `trace`.

Calls to `trace` should take the extra argument `edit = env`, where `env` is the value returned by the call to `evalSource`. The trace mechanism has been used to install the revised version from the source file, and supplying the argument ensures that it is this version, not the original, that will be traced. See the example below.

To turn tracing off, but retain the source version, use `trace(x, edit = env)` as in the example. To return to the original version from the package, use `untrace(x)`.

Class "sourceEnvironment"

Objects from this class can be treated as environments, to extract the version of functions and methods generated by `evalSource`. The objects also have the following slots:

packageName: The character-string name of the package to which the source code corresponds.

dateCreated: The date and time that the source file was evaluated (usually from a call to `Sys.time`).

sourceFile: The character-string name of the source file used.

Note that using the environment does not change the `dateCreated`.

See Also

`trace` for the underlying mechanism, and also for the `edit=` argument that can be used for somewhat similar purposes; that function and also `debug` and `setBreakpoint`, for techniques more oriented to traditional debugging styles. The present function is directly intended for the case that one is modifying some of the source for an existing package, although it can be used as well by inserting debugging code in the source (more useful if the debugging involved is non-trivial). As noted in the details section, the source file need not be the same one in the original package source.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Suppose package P0 has a source file "all.R"
## First, evaluate the source, and from it
## insert the revised version of methods for summary()
env <- insertSource("./P0/R/all.R", package = "P0",
  methods = "summary")
## now test one of the methods, tracing the version from the source
trace("summary", signature = "myMat", browser, edit = env)
## After testing, remove the browser() call but keep the source
trace("summary", signature = "myMat", edit = env)
## Now insert all the (other) revised functions and methods
## without re-evaluating the source file.
## The package name is included in the object env.
insertSource(env)

## End(Not run)
```

findClass	<i>Computations with Classes</i>
-----------	----------------------------------

Description

Functions to find and manipulate class definitions.

Usage

```
isClass(Class, formal=TRUE, where)

getClasses(where, inherits = missing(where))

findClass(Class, where, unique = "")

removeClass(Class, where,
             resolve.msg = getOption("removeClass.msg", default=TRUE))

resetClass(Class, classDef, where)

sealClass(Class, where)
```

Arguments

Class	character string name for the class. The functions will usually take a class definition instead of the string. To restrict the class to those defined in a particular package, set the <code>packageSlot</code> of the character string.
where	the <code>environment</code> in which to modify or remove the definition. Defaults to the top-level environment of the calling function (the global environment for ordinary computations, but the environment or namespace of a package in the source for a package). When searching for class definitions, where defines where to do the search, and the default is to search from the top-level environment or namespace of the caller to this function.
formal	<code>logical</code> indicating if a formal definition is required.
unique	if <code>findClass</code> expects a unique location for the class, unique is a character string explaining the purpose of the search (and is used in warning and error messages). By default, multiple locations are possible and the function always returns a list.
inherits	in a call to <code>getClasses</code> , should the value returned include all parent environments of where, or that environment only? Defaults to TRUE if where is omitted, and to FALSE otherwise.
resolve.msg	<code>logical</code> indicating if R should <code>message()</code> its decision if Class is found in multiple namespaces and one is chosen.
classDef	For <code>resetClass</code> , the optional class definition (but usually it's better for Class to be the class definition, and to omit classDef).

Details

These are the functions that test and manipulate formal class definitions. Brief documentation is provided below. See the references for an introduction and for more details.

removeClass: Remove the definition of this class, from the environment where if this argument is supplied; if not, `removeClass` will search for a definition, starting in the top-level environment of the call to `removeClass`, and remove the (first) definition found.

isClass: Is this the name of a formally defined class? (Argument `formal` is for compatibility and is ignored.)

getClasses: The names of all the classes formally defined on where. If called with no argument, all the classes visible from the calling function (if called from the top-level, all the classes in any of the environments on the search list). The `inherits` argument can be used to search a particular environment and all its parents, but usually the default setting is what you want.

findClass: The list of environments or positions on the search list in which a class definition of `Class` is found. If `where` is supplied, this is an environment (or namespace) from which the search takes place; otherwise the top-level environment of the caller is used. If `unique` is supplied as a character string, `findClass` returns a single environment or position. By default, it always returns a list. The calling function should select, say, the first element as a position or environment for functions such as [get](#).

If `unique` is supplied as a character string, `findClass` will warn if there is more than one definition visible (using the string to identify the purpose of the call), and will generate an error if no definition can be found.

resetClass: Reset the internal definition of a class. Causes the complete definition of the class to be re-computed, from the representation and superclasses specified in the original call to `setClass`.

This function is called when aspects of the class definition are changed. You would need to call it explicitly if you changed the definition of a class that this class extends (but doing that in the middle of a session is living dangerously, since it may invalidate existing objects).

sealClass: Seal the current definition of the specified class, to prevent further changes. It is possible to seal a class in the call to `setClass`, but sometimes further changes have to be made (e.g., by calls to `setIs`). If so, call `sealClass` after all the relevant changes have been made.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[setClassUnion](#), [Methods](#), [makeClassRepresentation](#)

findMethods

*Description of the Methods Defined for a Generic Function***Description**

The function `findMethods` converts the methods defined in a table for a generic function (as used for selection of methods) into a list, for study or display. The list is actually from the class `listOfMethods` (see the section describing the class, below).

The list will be limited to the methods defined in environment `where` if that argument is supplied and limited to those including one or more of the specified classes in the method signature if that argument is supplied.

To see the actual table (an environment) used for methods dispatch, call `getMethodsForDispatch`. The names of the list returned by `findMethods` are the names of the objects in the table.

The function `findMethodSignatures` returns a character matrix whose rows are the class names from the signature of the corresponding methods; it operates either from a list returned by `findMethods`, or by computing such a list itself, given the same arguments as `findMethods`.

The function `hasMethods` returns `TRUE` or `FALSE` according to whether there is a non-empty table of methods for function `f` in the environment or search position `where` (or for the generic function generally if `where` is missing).

The defunct function `getMethods` is an older alternative to `findMethods`, returning information in the form of an object of class `MethodsList`, previously used for method dispatch. It is not recommended, since this class of objects is deprecated generally and will disappear in a future version of R.

Usage

```
findMethods(f, where, classes = character(), inherited = FALSE,
            package = "")
```

```
findMethodSignatures(..., target = TRUE, methods = )
```

```
hasMethods(f, where, package)
```

```
## Deprecated in 2010 and defunct in 2015 for \code{table = FALSE}:
getMethods(f, where, table = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	A generic function or the character-string name of one.
<code>where</code>	Optionally, an environment or position on the search list to look for methods metadata. If <code>where</code> is missing, <code>findMethods</code> uses the current table of methods in the generic function itself, and <code>hasMethods</code> looks for metadata anywhere in the search list.

table	If TRUE in a call to getMethods the returned value is the table used for dispatch, including inherited methods discovered to date. Used internally, but since the default result is the now unused mlist object, the default will likely be changed at some point.
classes	If supplied, only methods whose signatures contain at least one of the supplied classes will be included in the value returned.
inherited	Logical flag; if TRUE, the table of all methods, inherited or defined directly, will be used; otherwise, only the methods explicitly defined. Option TRUE is meaningful only if where is missing.
...	In the call to findMethodSignatures, any arguments that might be given to findMethods.
target	Optional flag to findMethodSignatures; if TRUE, the signatures used are the target signatures (the classes for which the method will be selected); if FALSE, they will be the signatures are defined. The difference is only meaningful if inherited is TRUE.
methods	In the call to findMethodSignatures, an optional list of methods, presumably returned by a previous call to findMethods. If missing, that function will be call with the ...arguments.
package	In a call to hasMethods, the package name for the generic function (e.g., "base" for primitives). If missing this will be inferred either from the "package" attribute of the function name, if any, or from the package slot of the generic function. See 'Details'.

Details

The functions obtain a table of the defined methods, either from the generic function or from the stored metadata object in the environment specified by where. In a call to getMethods, the information in the table is converted as described above to produce the returned value, except with the table argument.

Note that hasMethods, but not the other functions, can be used even if no generic function of this name is currently found. In this case package must either be supplied as an argument or included as an attribute of f, since the package name is part of the identification of the methods tables.

The Class for lists of methods

The class "listOfMethods" returns the methods as a named list of method definitions (or a primitive function, see the slot documentation below). The names are the strings used to store the corresponding objects in the environment from which method dispatch is computed. The current implementation uses the names of the corresponding classes in the method signature, separated by "#" if more than one argument is involved in the signature.

Slots

.Data: Object of class "list" The method definitions.

Note that these may include the primitive function itself as default method, when the generic corresponds to a primitive. (Basically, because primitive functions are abnormal R objects, which cannot currently be extended as method definitions.) Computations that use the returned

list to derive other information need to take account of this possibility. See the implementation of `findMethodSignatures` for an example.

arguments: Object of class "character". The names of the formal arguments in the signature of the generic function.

signatures: Object of class "list". A list of the signatures of the individual methods. This is currently the result of splitting the names according to the "#" separator.

If the object has been constructed from a table, as when returned by `findMethods`, the signatures will all have the same length. However, a list rather than a character matrix is used for generality. Calling `findMethodSignatures` as in the example below will always convert to the matrix form.

generic: Object of class "genericFunction". The generic function corresponding to these methods. There are plans to generalize this slot to allow reference to the function.

names: Object of class "character". The names as noted are the class names separated by "#".

Extends

Class "namedList", directly.

Class "list", by class "namedList", distance 2.

Class "vector", by class "namedList", distance 3.

See Also

[showMethods](#), [selectMethod](#), [Methods](#)

Examples

```
mm <- findMethods("Ops")
findMethodSignatures(methods = mm)
```

fixPre1.8

Fix Objects Saved from R Versions Previous to 1.8

Description

Beginning with R version 1.8.0, the class of an object contains the identification of the package in which the class is defined. The function `fixPre1.8` fixes and re-assigns objects missing that information (typically because they were loaded from a file saved with a previous version of R.)

Usage

```
fixPre1.8(names, where)
```

Arguments

names	Character vector of the names of all the objects to be fixed and re-assigned.
where	The environment from which to look for the objects, and for class definitions. Defaults to the top environment of the call to <code>fixPre1.8</code> , the global environment if the function is used interactively.

Details

The named object will be saved where it was found. Its class attribute will be changed to the full form required by R 1.8; otherwise, the contents of the object should be unchanged.

Objects will be fixed and re-assigned only if all the following conditions hold:

1. The named object exists.
2. It is from a defined class (not a basic datatype which has no actual class attribute).
3. The object appears to be from an earlier version of R.
4. The class is currently defined.
5. The object is consistent with the current class definition.

If any condition except the second fails, a warning message is generated.

Note that `fixPre1.8` currently fixes *only* the change in class attributes. In particular, it will not fix binary versions of packages installed with earlier versions of R if these use incompatible features. Such packages must be re-installed from source, which is the wise approach always when major version changes occur in R.

Value

The names of all the objects that were in fact re-assigned.

genericFunction-class *Generic Function Objects*

Description

Generic functions (objects from or extending class `genericFunction`) are extended function objects, containing information used in creating and dispatching methods for this function. They also identify the package associated with the function and its methods.

Objects from the Class

Generic functions are created and assigned by `setGeneric` or `setGroupGeneric` and, indirectly, by `setMethod`.

As you might expect `setGeneric` and `setGroupGeneric` create objects of class `"genericFunction"` and `"groupGenericFunction"` respectively.

Slots

.Data: Object of class `"function"`, the function definition of the generic, usually created automatically as a call to `standardGeneric`.

generic: Object of class `"character"`, the name of the generic function.

package: Object of class `"character"`, the name of the package to which the function definition belongs (and *not* necessarily where the generic function is stored). If the package is not specified explicitly in the call to `setGeneric`, it is usually the package on which the corresponding non-generic function exists.

group: Object of class "list", the group or groups to which this generic function belongs. Empty by default.

valueClass: Object of class "character"; if not an empty character vector, identifies one or more classes. It is asserted that all methods for this function return objects from these class (or from classes that extend them).

signature: Object of class "character", the vector of formal argument names that can appear in the signature of methods for this generic function. By default, it is all the formal arguments, except for Order matters for efficiency: the most commonly used arguments in specifying methods should come first.

default: Object of class "optionalMethod" (a union of classes "function" and "NULL"), containing the default method for this function if any. Generated automatically and used to initialize method dispatch.

skeleton: Object of class "call", a slot used internally in method dispatch. Don't expect to use it directly.

Extends

Class "function", from data part.
 Class "OptionalMethods", by class "function".
 Class "PossibleMethod", by class "function".

Methods

Generic function objects are used in the creation and dispatch of formal methods; information from the object is used to create methods list objects and to merge or update the existing methods for this generic.

GenericFunctions	<i>Tools for Managing Generic Functions</i>
------------------	---

Description

The functions documented here manage collections of methods associated with a generic function, as well as providing information about the generic functions themselves.

Usage

```
isGeneric(f, where, fdef, getName = FALSE)
isGroup(f, where, fdef)
removeGeneric(f, where)

dumpMethod(f, signature, file, where, def)
findFunction(f, generic = TRUE, where = topenv(parent.frame()))
dumpMethods(f, file, signature, methods, where)
signature(...)
```

```
removeMethods(f, where = toplevel(parent.frame()), all = missing(where))
```

```
setReplaceMethod(f, ..., where = toplevel(parent.frame()))
```

```
getGenerics(where, searchForm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	The character string naming the function.
<code>where</code>	The environment, namespace, or search-list position from which to search for objects. By default, start at the top-level environment of the calling function, typically the global environment (i.e., use the search list), or the namespace of a package from which the call came. It is important to supply this argument when calling any of these functions indirectly. With package namespaces, the default is likely to be wrong in such calls.
<code>signature</code>	The class signature of the relevant method. A signature is a named or unnamed vector of character strings. If named, the names must be formal argument names for the generic function. Signatures are matched to the arguments specified in the signature slot of the generic function (see the Details section of the setMethod documentation). The signature argument to <code>dumpMethods</code> is ignored (it was used internally in previous implementations).
<code>file</code>	The file or connection on which to dump method definitions.
<code>def</code>	The function object defining the method; if omitted, the current method definition corresponding to the signature.
<code>...</code>	Named or unnamed arguments to form a signature.
<code>generic</code>	In testing or finding functions, should generic functions be included. Supply <code>FALSE</code> to get only non-generic functions.
<code>fdef</code>	Optional, the generic function definition. Usually omitted in calls to <code>isGeneric</code>
<code>getName</code>	If <code>TRUE</code> , <code>isGeneric</code> returns the name of the generic. By default, it returns <code>TRUE</code> .
<code>methods</code>	The methods object containing the methods to be dumped. By default, the methods defined for this generic (optionally on the specified where location).
<code>all</code>	in <code>removeMethods</code> , logical indicating if all (default) or only the first method found should be removed.
<code>searchForm</code>	In <code>getGenerics</code> , if <code>TRUE</code> , the package slot of the returned result is in the form used by <code>search()</code> , otherwise as the simple package name (e.g, "package:base" vs "base").

Summary of Functions

isGeneric: Is there a function named `f`, and if so, is it a generic?

The `getName` argument allows a function to find the name from a function definition. If it is `TRUE` then the name of the generic is returned, or `FALSE` if this is not a generic function definition.

The behavior of `isGeneric` and `getGeneric` for primitive functions is slightly different. These functions don't exist as formal function objects (for efficiency and historical reasons), regardless of whether methods have been defined for them. A call to `isGeneric` tells you whether methods have been defined for this primitive function, anywhere in the current search list, or in the specified position where. In contrast, a call to `getGeneric` will return what the generic for that function would be, even if no methods have been currently defined for it.

removeGeneric, removeMethods: Remove all the methods for the generic function of this name. In addition, `removeGeneric` removes the function itself; `removeMethods` restores the non-generic function which was the default method. If there was no default method, `removeMethods` leaves a generic function with no methods.

standardGeneric: Dispatches a method from the current function call for the generic function `f`. It is an error to call `standardGeneric` anywhere except in the body of the corresponding generic function.

Note that `standardGeneric` is a primitive function in the **base** package for efficiency reasons, but rather documented here where it belongs naturally.

dumpMethod: Dump the method for this generic function and signature.

findFunction: return a list of either the positions on the search list, or the current top-level environment, on which a function object for name exists. The returned value is *always* a list, use the first element to access the first visible version of the function. See the example.

NOTE: Use this rather than `find` with `mode="function"`, which is not as meaningful, and has a few subtle bugs from its use of regular expressions. Also, `findFunction` works correctly in the code for a package when attaching the package via a call to `library`.

dumpMethods: Dump all the methods for this generic.

signature: Returns a named list of classes to be matched to arguments of a generic function.

getGenerics: returns the names of the generic functions that have methods defined on where; this argument can be an environment or an index into the search list. By default, the whole search list is used.

The methods definitions are stored with package qualifiers; for example, methods for function "initialize" might refer to two different functions of that name, on different packages. The package names corresponding to the method list object are contained in the slot package of the returned object. The form of the returned name can be plain (e.g., "base"), or in the form used in the search list ("package:base") according to the value of `searchForm`

Details

setGeneric: If there is already a non-generic function of this name, it will be used to define the generic unless `def` is supplied, and the current function will become the default method for the generic.

If `def` is supplied, this defines the generic function, and no default method will exist (often a good feature, if the function should only be available for a meaningful subset of all objects).

Arguments `group` and `valueClass` are retained for consistency with S-Plus, but are currently not used.

isGeneric: If the `fdef` argument is supplied, take this as the definition of the generic, and test whether it is really a generic, with `f` as the name of the generic. (This argument is not available in S-Plus.)

removeGeneric: If where supplied, just remove the version on this element of the search list; otherwise, removes the first version encountered.

standardGeneric: Generic functions should usually have a call to `standardGeneric` as their entire body. They can, however, do any other computations as well.

The usual `setGeneric` (directly or through calling `setMethod`) creates a function with a call to `standardGeneric`.

dumpMethod: The resulting source file will recreate the method.

findFunction: If `generic` is `FALSE`, ignore generic functions.

dumpMethods: If `signature` is supplied only the methods matching this initial signature are dumped. (This feature is not found in S-Plus: don't use it if you want compatibility.)

signature: The advantage of using `signature` is to provide a check on which arguments you meant, as well as clearer documentation in your method specification. In addition, `signature` checks that each of the elements is a single character string.

removeMethods: Returns `TRUE` if `f` was a generic function, `FALSE` (silently) otherwise.

If there is a default method, the function will be re-assigned as a simple function with this definition. Otherwise, the generic function remains but with no methods (so any call to it will generate an error). In either case, a following call to `setMethod` will consistently re-establish the same generic function as before.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[getMethod](#) (also for [selectMethod](#)), [setGeneric](#), [setClass](#), [showMethods](#)

Examples

```
require(stats) # for lm

## get the function "myFun" -- throw an error if 0 or > 1 versions visible:
findFuncStrict <- function(fName) {
  allF <- findFunction(fName)
  if(length(allF) == 0)
    stop("No versions of ", fName, " visible")
  else if(length(allF) > 1)
    stop(fName, " is ambiguous: ", length(allF), " versions")
  else
    get(fName, allF[[1]])
}

try(findFuncStrict("myFun"))# Error: no version
lm <- function(x) x+1
try(findFuncStrict("lm"))# Error: 2 versions
findFuncStrict("findFuncStrict")# just 1 version
```

```
rm(lm)

## method dumping -----

setClass("A", representation(a="numeric"))
setMethod("plot", "A", function(x,y,...){ cat("A meth\n") })
dumpMethod("plot","A", file="")
## Not run:
setMethod("plot", "A",
function (x, y, ...)
{
    cat("AAAAA\n")
}
)

## End(Not run)
tmp <- tempfile()
dumpMethod("plot","A", file=tmp)
## now remove, and see if we can parse the dump
stopifnot(removeMethod("plot", "A"))
source(tmp)
stopifnot(is(getMethod("plot", "A"), "MethodDefinition"))

## same with dumpMethods() :
setClass("B", contains="A")
setMethod("plot", "B", function(x,y,...){ cat("B ... \n") })
dumpMethods("plot", file=tmp)
stopifnot(removeMethod("plot", "A"),
          removeMethod("plot", "B"))
source(tmp)
stopifnot(is(getMethod("plot", "A"), "MethodDefinition"),
          is(getMethod("plot", "B"), "MethodDefinition"))
```

 getClass

Get Class Definition

Description

Get the definition of a class.

Usage

```
getClass (Class, .Force = FALSE, where,
         resolve.msg = getOption("getClass.msg", default=TRUE))
getClassDef(Class, where, package, inherits = TRUE,
           resolve.msg = getOption("getClass.msg", default=TRUE))
```

Arguments

Class	the character-string name of the class, often with a "package" attribute as noted below under package.
.Force	if TRUE, return NULL if the class is undefined; otherwise, an undefined class results in an error.
where	environment from which to begin the search for the definition; by default, start at the top-level (global) environment and proceed through the search list.
package	the name of the package asserted to hold the definition. If it is a non-empty string it is used instead of where, as the first place to look for the class. Note that the package must be loaded but need not be attached. By default, the package attribute of the Class argument is used, if any. There will usually be a package attribute if Class comes from <code>class(x)</code> for some object.
inherits	logical; should the class definition be retrieved from any enclosing environment and also from the cache? If FALSE only a definition in the environment where will be returned.
resolve.msg	logical indicating if R should <code>message()</code> its decision if Class is found in multiple namespaces and one is chosen.

Details

Class definitions are stored in metadata objects in a package namespace or other environment where they are defined. When packages are loaded, the class definitions in the package are cached in an internal table. Therefore, most calls to `getClassDef` will find the class in the cache or fail to find it at all, unless `inherits` is FALSE, in which case only the environment(s) defined by package or where are searched.

The class cache allows for multiple definitions of the same class name in separate environments, with of course the limitation that the package attribute or package name must be provided in the call to

Value

The object defining the class. If the class definition is not found, `getClassDef` returns NULL, while `getClass`, which calls `getClassDef`, either generates an error or, if `.Force` is TRUE, returns a simple definition for the class. The latter case is used internally, but is not typically sensible in user code.

The non-null returned value is an object of class `classRepresentation`. For all reasonable purposes, use this object only to extract information, rather than trying to modify it: Use functions such as `setClass` and `setIs` to create or modify class definitions.

References

- Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)
- Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[Classes](#), [setClass](#), [isClass](#).

Examples

```
getClass("numeric") ## a built in class

cld <- getClass("thisIsAnUndefinedClass", .Force = TRUE)
cld ## a NULL prototype
## If you are really curious:
utils::str(cld)
## Whereas these generate errors:
try(getClass("thisIsAnUndefinedClass"))
try(getClassDef("thisIsAnUndefinedClass"))
```

getMethod

Get or Test for the Definition of a Method

Description

Functions to look for a method corresponding to a given generic function and signature. The functions `getMethod` and `selectMethod` return the method; the functions `existsMethod` and `hasMethod` test for its existence. In both cases the first function only gets direct definitions and the second uses inheritance. In all cases, the search is in the generic function itself or in the package/environment specified by argument `where`.

The function `findMethod` returns the package(s) in the search list (or in the packages specified by the `where` argument) that contain a method for this function and signature.

Usage

```
getMethod(f, signature=character(), where, optional = FALSE,
          mlist, fdef)
```

```
existsMethod(f, signature = character(), where)
```

```
findMethod(f, signature, where)
```

```
selectMethod(f, signature, optional = FALSE, useInherited =,
             mlist = , fdef = , verbose = , doCache = )
```

```
hasMethod(f, signature=character(), where)
```


Arguments

<code>f</code>	A generic function or the character-string name of one.
<code>signature</code>	the signature of classes to match to the arguments of <code>f</code> . See the details below.
<code>where</code>	The position or environment in which to look for the method(s): by default, the table of methods defined in the generic function itself is used.
<code>optional</code>	If the selection in <code>selectMethod</code> does not find a valid method an error is generated, unless this argument is <code>TRUE</code> . In that case, the value returned is <code>NULL</code> if no method matches.
<code>mlist</code> , <code>fdef</code> , <code>useInherited</code> , <code>verbose</code> , <code>doCache</code>	Optional arguments to <code>getMethod</code> and <code>selectMethod</code> for internal use. Avoid these: some will work as expected and others will not, and none of them is required for normal use of the functions.

Details

The `signature` argument specifies classes, corresponding to formal arguments of the generic function; to be precise, to the signature slot of the generic function object. The argument may be a vector of strings identifying classes, and may be named or not. Names, if supplied, match the names of those formal arguments included in the signature of the generic. That signature is normally all the arguments except However, generic functions can be specified with only a subset of the arguments permitted, or with the signature taking the arguments in a different order.

It's a good idea to name the arguments in the signature to avoid confusion, if you're dealing with a generic that does something special with its signature. In any case, the elements of the signature are matched to the formal signature by the same rules used in matching arguments in function calls (see [match.call](#)).

The strings in the signature may be class names, "missing" or "ANY". See [Methods](#) for the meaning of these in method selection. Arguments not supplied in the signature implicitly correspond to class "ANY"; in particular, giving an empty signature means to look for the default method.

A call to `getMethod` returns the method for a particular function and signature. As with other `get` functions, argument `where` controls where the function looks (by default anywhere in the search list) and argument `optional` controls whether the function returns `NULL` or generates an error if the method is not found. The search for the method makes no use of inheritance.

The function `selectMethod` also looks for a method given the function and signature, but makes full use of the method dispatch mechanism; i.e., inherited methods and group generics are taken into account just as they would be in dispatching a method for the corresponding signature, with the one exception that conditional inheritance is not used. Like `getMethod`, `selectMethod` returns `NULL` or generates an error if the method is not found, depending on the argument `optional`.

The functions `existsMethod` and `hasMethod` return `TRUE` or `FALSE` according to whether a method is found, the first corresponding to `getMethod` (no inheritance) and the second to `selectMethod`.

Value

The call to `selectMethod` or `getMethod` returns the selected method, if one is found. (This class extends `function`, so you can use the result directly as a function if that is what you want.) Otherwise an error is thrown if `optional` is `FALSE` and `NULL` is returned if `optional` is `TRUE`.

The returned method object is a [MethodDefinition](#) object, *except* that the default method for a primitive function is required to be the primitive itself. Note therefore that the only reliable test that the search failed is `is.null()`.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[Methods](#) for the details of method selection; [GenericFunctions](#) for other functions manipulating methods and generic function objects; [MethodDefinition](#) for the class that represents method definitions.

Examples

```
setGeneric("testFun", function(x)standardGeneric("testFun"))
setMethod("testFun", "numeric", function(x)x+1)
hasMethod("testFun", "numeric")
## Not run: [1] TRUE
hasMethod("testFun", "integer") #inherited
## Not run: [1] TRUE
existsMethod("testFun", "integer")
## Not run: [1] FALSE
hasMethod("testFun") # default method
## Not run: [1] FALSE
hasMethod("testFun", "ANY")
## Not run: [1] FALSE
```

getPackageName

The Name associated with a Given Package

Description

The functions below produce the package associated with a particular environment or position on the search list, or of the package containing a particular function. They are primarily used to support computations that need to differentiate objects on multiple packages.

Usage

```
getPackageName(where, create = TRUE)
setPackageName(pkg, env)

packageSlot(object)
packageSlot(object) <- value
```

Arguments

where	the environment or position on the search list associated with the desired package.
object	object providing a character string name, plus the package in which this object is to be found.
value	the name of the package.
create	flag, should a package name be created if none can be inferred? If TRUE and no non-empty package name is found, the current date and time are used as a package name, and a warning is issued. The created name is stored in the environment if that environment is not locked.
pkg, env	make the string in pkg the internal package name for all computations that set class and method definitions in environment env.

Details

Package names are normally installed during loading of the package, by the [INSTALL](#) script or by the [library](#) function. (Currently, the name is stored as the object `.packageName` but don't trust this for the future.)

Value

`getPackageName` returns the character-string name of the package (without the extraneous "package:" found in the search list).

`packageSlot` returns or sets the package name slot (currently an attribute, not a formal slot, but this may change someday).

`setPackageName` can be used to establish a package name in an environment that would otherwise not have one. This allows you to create classes and/or methods in an arbitrary environment, but it is usually preferable to create packages by the standard R programming tools ([package.skeleton](#), etc.)

See Also

[search](#), [packageName](#)

Examples

```
## all the following usually return "base"
getPackageName(length(search()))
getPackageName(baseenv())
getPackageName(asNamespace("base"))
getPackageName("package:base")
```

hasArg	<i>Look for an Argument in the Call</i>
--------	---

Description

Returns TRUE if name corresponds to an argument in the call, either a formal argument to the function, or a component of ..., and FALSE otherwise.

Usage

```
hasArg(name)
```

Arguments

name	The name of a potential argument, as an unquoted name or character string.
------	--

Details

The expression hasArg(x), for example, is similar to !missing(x), with two exceptions. First, hasArg will look for an argument named x in the call if x is not a formal argument to the calling function, but ... is. Second, hasArg never generates an error if given a name as an argument, whereas missing(x) generates an error if x is not a formal argument.

Value

Always TRUE or FALSE as described above.

See Also

[missing](#)

Examples

```
fctest <- function(x1, ...) c(hasArg(x1), hasArg("y2"))

fctest(1) ## c(TRUE, FALSE)
fctest(1, 2) ## c(TRUE, FALSE)
fctest(y2 = 2) ## c(FALSE, TRUE)
fctest(y = 2) ## c(FALSE, FALSE) (no partial matching)
fctest(y2 = 2, x = 1) ## c(TRUE, TRUE) partial match x1
```

implicitGeneric

*Manage Implicit Versions of Generic Functions***Description**

Create or access implicit generic functions, used to enforce consistent generic versions of functions that are not currently generic. Function `implicitGeneric()` returns the implicit generic version, `setGenericImplicit()` turns a generic implicit, `prohibitGeneric()` prevents your function from being made generic, and `registerImplicitGenerics()` saves a set of implicit generic definitions in the cached table of the current session.

Usage

```
implicitGeneric(name, where, generic)
setGenericImplicit(name, where, restore = TRUE)
prohibitGeneric(name, where)
registerImplicitGenerics(what, where)
```

Arguments

name	Character string name of the function.
where	Package or environment in which to register the implicit generics. When using the functions from the top level of your own package source, this argument can usually be omitted (and should be).
generic	Optionally, the generic function definition to be cached, but usually omitted. See Details section.
restore	Should the non-generic version of the function be restored after the current.
what	For <code>registerImplicitGenerics()</code> , Optional table of the implicit generics to register, but nearly always omitted. See Details section.

Details

Multiple packages may define methods for the same function, using the version of a function stored in one package. All these methods should be marshaled and dispatched consistently when a user calls the function. For consistency, the generic version of the function must have a unique definition (the same arguments allowed in methods signatures, the same values for optional slots such as the value class, and the same standard or non-standard definition of the function itself).

If the original function is already an S4 generic, there is no problem. The implicit generic mechanism enforces consistency when the version in the package owning the function is *not* generic. If a call to `setGeneric()` attempts to turn a function in another package into a generic, the mechanism compares the proposed new generic function to the implicit generic version of that function. If the two agree, all is well. If not, and if the function belongs to another package, then the new generic will not be associated with that package. Instead, a warning is issued and a separate generic function is created, with its package slot set to the current package, not the one that owns the non-generic version of the function. The effect is that the new package can still define methods for this function,

but it will not share the methods in other packages, since it is forcing a different definition of the generic function.

The right way to proceed in nearly all cases is to call `setGeneric("foo")`, giving *only* the name of the function; this will automatically use the implicit generic version. If you don't like that version, the best solution is to convince the owner of the other package to agree with you and to insert code to define the non-default properties of the function (even if the owner does not want `foo()` to be a generic by default).

For any function, the implicit generic form is a standard generic in which all formal arguments, except for `...`, are allowed in the signature of methods. If that is the suitable generic for a function, no action is needed. If not, the best mechanism is to set up the generic in the code of the package owning the function, and to then call `setGenericImplicit()` to record the implicit generic and restore the non-generic version. See the example.

Note that the package can define methods for the implicit generic as well; when the implicit generic is made a real generic, those methods will be included.

Other than predefining methods, the usual reason for having a non-default implicit generic is to provide a non-default signature, and the usual reason for *that* is to allow lazy evaluation of some arguments. See the example. All arguments in the signature of a generic function must be evaluated at the time the function needs to select a method. (But those arguments can be missing, with or without a default expression being defined; you can always examine `missing(x)` even for arguments in the signature.)

If you want to completely prohibit anyone from turning your function into a generic, call `prohibitGeneric()`.

Value

Function `implicitGeneric()` returns the implicit generic definition (and caches that definition the first time if it has to construct it).

The other functions exist for their side effect and return nothing useful.

See Also

[setGeneric](#)

Examples

```
### How we would make the function \link{with}() into a generic:

## Since the second argument, 'expr' is used literally, we want
## with() to only have "data" in the signature.

## Note that 'methods'-internal code now has already extended with()
## to do the equivalent of the following
## Not run:
setGeneric("with", signature = "data")
## Now we could predefine methods for "with" if we wanted to.

## When ready, we store the generic as implicit, and restore the original
```

```

setGenericImplicit("with")

## (This example would only work if we "owned" function with(),
## but it is in base.)
## End(Not run)

implicitGeneric("with")

```

inheritedSlotNames	<i>Names of Slots Inherited From a Super Class</i>
--------------------	--

Description

For a class (or class definition, see [getClass](#) and the description of class [classRepresentation](#)), give the names which are inherited from “above”, i.e., super classes, rather than by this class’ definition itself.

Usage

```
inheritedSlotNames(Class, where = topenv(parent.frame()))
```

Arguments

Class	character string or classRepresentation , i.e., resulting from getClass .
where	environment, to be passed further to isClass and getClass .

Value

character vector of slot names, or [NULL](#).

See Also

[slotNames](#), [slot](#), [setClass](#), etc.

Examples

```

.srch <- search()
library(stats4)
inheritedSlotNames("mle")

if(require("Matrix")) {
  print( inheritedSlotNames("Matrix") ) # NULL
  ## whereas
  print( inheritedSlotNames("sparseMatrix") ) # --> Dim & Dimnames
  ## i.e. inherited from "Matrix" class

  print( cl <- getClass("dgCMatrix") ) # six slots, etc

  print( inheritedSlotNames(cl) ) # *all* six slots are inherited

```

```

}
## Not run:

## detach package we've attached above:
for(n in rev(which(is.na(match(search(), .srch)))))
  try( detach(pos = n) )

## End(Not run)

```

initialize-methods

Methods to Initialize New Objects from a Class

Description

The arguments to function `new` to create an object from a particular class can be interpreted specially for that class, by the definition of a method for function `initialize` for the class. This documentation describes some existing methods, and also outlines how to write new ones.

Methods

`signature(.Object = "ANY")` The default method for `initialize` takes either named or unnamed arguments. Argument names must be the names of slots in this class definition, and the corresponding arguments must be valid objects for the slot (that is, have the same class as specified for the slot, or some superclass of that class). If the object comes from a superclass, it is not coerced strictly, so normally it will retain its current class (specifically, `as(object, Class, strict = FALSE)`).

Unnamed arguments must be objects of this class, of one of its superclasses, or one of its subclasses (from the class, from a class this class extends, or from a class that extends this class). If the object is from a superclass, this normally defines some of the slots in the object. If the object is from a subclass, the new object is that argument, coerced to the current class.

Unnamed arguments are processed first, in the order they appear. Then named arguments are processed. Therefore, explicit values for slots always override any values inferred from superclass or subclass arguments.

`signature(.Object = "traceable")` Objects of a class that extends `traceable` are used to implement debug tracing (see class `traceable` and `trace`).

The `initialize` method for these classes takes special arguments `def`, `tracer`, `exit`, `at`, `print`. The first of these is the object to use as the original definition (e.g., a function). The others correspond to the arguments to `trace`.

`signature(.Object = "environment"), signature(.Object = ".environment")` The `initialize` method for environments takes a named list of objects to be used to initialize the environment. Subclasses of `"environment"` inherit an `initialize` method through `".environment"`, which has the additional effect of allocating a new environment. If you define your own method for such a subclass, be sure either to call the existing method via `callNextMethod` or allocate an environment in your method, since environments are references and are not duplicated automatically.

`signature(.Object = "signature")` This is a method for internal use only. It takes an optional `functionDef` argument to provide a generic function with a signature slot to define the argument names. See [Methods](#) for details.

Writing Initialization Methods

Initialization methods provide a general mechanism corresponding to generator functions in other languages.

The arguments to `initialize` are `.Object` and `...`. Nearly always, `initialize` is called from `new`, not directly. The `.Object` argument is then the prototype object from the class.

Two techniques are often appropriate for `initialize` methods: special argument names and `callNextMethod`.

You may want argument names that are more natural to your users than the (default) slot names. These will be the formal arguments to your method definition, in addition to `.Object` (always) and `...` (optionally). For example, the method for class "traceable" documented above would be created by a call to `setMethod` of the form:

```
setMethod("initialize", "traceable",
  function(.Object, def, tracer, exit, at, print) ...
)
```

In this example, no other arguments are meaningful, and the resulting method will throw an error if other names are supplied.

When your new class extends another class, you may want to call the `initialize` method for this superclass (either a special method or the default). For example, suppose you want to define a method for your class, with special argument `x`, but you also want users to be able to set slots specifically. If you want `x` to override the slot information, the beginning of your method definition might look something like this:

```
function(.Object, x, ...) {
  Object <- callNextMethod(.Object, ...)
  if(!missing(x)) { # do something with x
```

You could also choose to have the inherited method override, by first interpreting `x`, and then calling the next method.

is

Is an Object from a Class?

Description

Functions to test inheritance relationships between an object and a class (`is`) or between two classes (`extends`), and to establish such relationships (`setIs`, an explicit alternative to the `contains=` argument to `setClass`).

Usage

```

is(object, class2)

extends(class1, class2, maybe = TRUE, fullInfo = FALSE)

setIs(class1, class2, test=NULL, coerce=NULL, replace=NULL,
      by = character(), where = topenv(parent.frame()), classDef =,
      extensionObject = NULL, doComplete = TRUE)

```

Arguments

object	any R object.
class1, class2	the names of the classes between which is relations are to be examined defined, or (more efficiently) the class definition objects for the classes.
maybe, fullInfo	In a call to extends, maybe is the value returned if a relation is conditional. In a call with class2 missing, fullInfo is a flag, which if TRUE causes a list of objects of class classExtension to be returned, rather than just the names of the classes.
coerce, replace	In a call to setIs, functions optionally supplied to coerce the object to class2, and to alter the object so that is(object, class2) is identical to value. See the details section below.
test	In a call to setIs, a <i>conditional</i> relationship is defined by supplying this function. Conditional relations are discouraged and are not included in selecting methods. See the details section below. The remaining arguments are for internal use and/or usually omitted.
extensionObject	alternative to the test, coerce, replace, by arguments; an object from class SClassExtension describing the relation. (Used in internal calls.)
doComplete	when TRUE, the class definitions will be augmented with indirect relations as well. (Used in internal calls.)
by	In a call to setIs, the name of an intermediary class. Coercion will proceed by first coercing to this class and from there to the target class. (The intermediate coercions have to be valid.)
where	In a call to setIs, where to store the metadata defining the relationship. Default is the global environment for calls from the top level of the session or a source file evaluated there. When the call occurs in the top level of a file in the source of a package, the default will be the namespace or environment of the package. Other uses are tricky and not usually a good idea, unless you really know what you are doing.
classDef	Optional class definition for class, required internally when setIs is called during the initial definition of the class by a call to setClass . <i>Don't</i> use this argument, unless you really know why you're doing so.

Summary of Functions

- is:** With two arguments, tests whether object can be treated as from class2.
 With one argument, returns all the super-classes of this object's class.
- extends:** Does the first class extend the second class? The call returns maybe if the extension includes a test.
 When called with one argument, the value is a vector of the superclasses of class1. If argument `fullInfo` is TRUE, the call returns a named list of objects of class `SClassExtension`; otherwise, just the names of the superclasses.
- setIs:** Defines class1 to be an extension (subclass) of class2. If class2 is an existing virtual class, such as a class union, then only the two classes need to be supplied in the call, if the implied inherited methods work for class1. See the details section below.
 Alternatively, arguments `coerce` and `replace` should be supplied, defining methods to coerce to the superclass and to replace the part corresponding to the superclass. As discussed in the details and other sections below, this form is often less recommended than the corresponding call to `setAs`, to which it is an alternative.
 Argument `test` allows conditional inheritance, in which the `is()` result is tested for each object rather than being determined by the class definition. This form is discouraged when it can be avoided; in particular, note that conditional inheritance is *not* used to select methods for dispatch.

Details

Arranging for a class to inherit from another class is a key tool in programming. In R, there are three basic techniques, the first two providing what is called “simple” inheritance, the preferred form:

1. By the `contains=` argument in a call to `setClass`. This is and should be the most common mechanism. It arranges that the new class contains all the structure of the existing class, and in particular all the slots with the same class specified. The resulting class extension is defined to be simple, with important implications for method definition (see the section on this topic below).
2. Making class1 a subclass of a virtual class either by a call to `setClassUnion` to make the subclass a member of a new class union, or by a call to `setIs` to add a class to an existing class union or as a new subclass of an existing virtual class. In either case, the implication should be that methods defined for the class union or other superclass all work correctly for the subclass. This may depend on some similarity in the structure of the subclasses or simply indicate that the superclass methods are defined in terms of generic functions that apply to all the subclasses. These relationships are also generally simple.
3. Supplying `coerce` and `replace` arguments to `setAs`. R allows arbitrary inheritance relationships, using the same mechanism for defining coerce methods by a call to `setAs`. The difference between the two is simply that `setAs` will require a call to `as` for a conversion to take place, whereas after the call to `setIs`, objects will be automatically converted to the superclass.

The automatic feature is the dangerous part, mainly because it results in the subclass potentially inheriting methods that do not work. See the section on inheritance below. If the two classes involved do not actually inherit a large collection of methods, as in the first example below, the danger may be relatively slight.

If the superclass inherits methods where the subclass has only a default or remotely inherited method, problems are more likely. In this case, a general recommendation is to use the [setAs](#) mechanism instead, unless there is a strong counter reason. Otherwise, be prepared to override some of the methods inherited.

With this caution given, the rest of this section describes what happens when `coerce=` and `replace=` arguments are supplied to `setIs`.

The `coerce` and `replace` arguments are functions that define how to coerce a `class1` object to `class2`, and how to replace the part of the subclass object that corresponds to `class2`. The first of these is a function of one argument which should be `from`, and the second of two arguments (`from`, `value`). For details, see the section on `coerce` functions below .

When `by` is specified, the `coerce` process first coerces to this class and then to `class2`. It's unlikely you would use the `by` argument directly, but it is used in defining cached information about classes.

The value returned (invisibly) by `setIs` is the revised class definition of `class1`.

Coerce, replace, and test functions

The `coerce` argument is a function that turns a `class1` object into a `class2` object. The `replace` argument is a function of two arguments that modifies a `class1` object (the first argument) to replace the part of it that corresponds to `class2` (supplied as `value`, the second argument). It then returns the modified object as the value of the call. In other words, it acts as a replacement method to implement the expression `as(object, class2) <- value`.

The easiest way to think of the `coerce` and `replace` functions is by thinking of the case that `class1` contains `class2` in the usual sense, by including the slots of the second class. (To repeat, in this situation you would not call `setIs`, but the analogy shows what happens when you do.)

The `coerce` function in this case would just make a `class2` object by extracting the corresponding slots from the `class1` object. The `replace` function would replace in the `class1` object the slots corresponding to `class2`, and return the modified object as its value.

For additional discussion of these functions, see the documentation of the [setAs](#) function. (Unfortunately, argument `def` to that function corresponds to argument `coerce` here.)

The inheritance relationship can also be conditional, if a function is supplied as the `test` argument. This should be a function of one argument that returns `TRUE` or `FALSE` according to whether the object supplied satisfies the relation `is(object, class2)`. Conditional relations between classes are discouraged in general because they require a per-object calculation to determine their validity. They cannot be applied as efficiently as ordinary relations and tend to make the code that uses them harder to interpret. *NOTE: conditional inheritance is not used to dispatch methods.* Methods for conditional superclasses will not be inherited. Instead, a method for the subclass should be defined that tests the conditional relationship.

Inherited methods

A method written for a particular signature (classes matched to one or more formal arguments to the function) naturally assumes that the objects corresponding to the arguments can be treated as coming from the corresponding classes. The objects will have all the slots and available methods for the classes.

The code that selects and dispatches the methods ensures that this assumption is correct. If the inheritance was “simple”, that is, defined by one or more uses of the `contains=` argument in a call

to `setClass`, no extra work is generally needed. Classes are inherited from the superclass, with the same definition.

When inheritance is defined by a general call to `setIs`, extra computations are required. This form of inheritance implies that the subclass does *not* just contain the slots of the superclass, but instead requires the explicit call to the `coerce` and/or `replace` method. To ensure correct computation, the inherited method is supplemented by calls to `as` before the body of the method is evaluated.

The calls to `as` generated in this case have the argument `strict = FALSE`, meaning that extra information can be left in the converted object, so long as it has all the appropriate slots. (It's this option that allows simple subclass objects to be used without any change.) When you are writing your `coerce` method, you may want to take advantage of that option.

Methods inherited through non-simple extensions can result in ambiguities or unexpected selections. If `class2` is a specialized class with just a few applicable methods, creating the inheritance relation may have little effect on the behavior of `class1`. But if `class2` is a class with many methods, you may find that you now inherit some undesirable methods for `class1`, in some cases, fail to inherit expected methods. In the second example below, the non-simple inheritance from class "factor" might be assumed to inherit S3 methods via that class. But the S3 class is ambiguous, and in fact is "character" rather than "factor".

For some generic functions, methods inherited by non-simple extensions are either known to be invalid or sufficiently likely to be so that the generic function has been defined to exclude such inheritance. For example `initialize` methods must return an object of the target class; this is straightforward if the extension is simple, because no change is made to the argument object, but is essentially impossible. For this reason, the generic function insists on only simple extensions for inheritance. See the `simpleInheritanceOnly` argument to `setGeneric` for the mechanism. You can use this mechanism when defining new generic functions.

If you get into problems with functions that do allow non-simple inheritance, there are two basic choices. Either back off from the `setIs` call and settle for explicit coercing defined by a call to `setAs`; or, define explicit methods involving `class1` to override the bad inherited methods. The first choice is the safer, when there are serious problems.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

`inherits` is nearly always equivalent to `is`, both for S4 and non-S4 objects, and is somewhat faster. The non-equivalence applies to classes that have conditional superclasses, with a non-trivial `test=` in the relation (not common and discouraged): for these, `is` tests for the relation but `inherits` by definition ignores conditional inheritance for S4 objects.

`selectSuperClasses(cl)` has similar semantics as `extends(cl)`, typically returning subsets of the latter.

Examples

```

## Two examples of setIs() with coerce= and replace= arguments
## The first one works fairly well, because neither class has many
## inherited methods do be disturbed by the new inheritance

## The second example does NOT work well, because the new superclass,
## "factor", causes methods to be inherited that should not be.

## First example:
## a class definition (see \link{setClass} for class "track")
setClass("trackCurve", contains = "track",
        representation( smooth = "numeric"))
## A class similar to "trackCurve", but with different structure
## allowing matrices for the "y" and "smooth" slots
setClass("trackMultiCurve",
        representation(x="numeric", y="matrix", smooth="matrix"),
        prototype = structure(list(), x=numeric(), y=matrix(0,0,0),
                                smooth= matrix(0,0,0)))
## Automatically convert an object from class "trackCurve" into
## "trackMultiCurve", by making the y, smooth slots into 1-column matrices
setIs("trackCurve",
      "trackMultiCurve",
      coerce = function(obj) {
        new("trackMultiCurve",
            x = obj@x,
            y = as.matrix(obj@y),
            smooth = as.matrix(obj@smooth))
      },
      replace = function(obj, value) {
        obj@y <- as.matrix(value@y)
        obj@x <- value@x
        obj@smooth <- as.matrix(value@smooth)
        obj})

## Second Example:
## A class that adds a slot to "character"
setClass("stringsDated", contains = "character",
        representation(stamp="POSIXt"))

## Convert automatically to a factor by explicit coerce
setIs("stringsDated", "factor",
      coerce = function(from) factor(from@.Data),
      replace= function(from, value) {
        from@.Data <- as.character(value); from })

l1 <- sample(letters, 10, replace = TRUE)
ld <- new("stringsDated", l1, stamp = Sys.time())

levels(as(ld, "factor"))
levels(ld) # will be NULL--see comment in section on inheritance above.

```

```
## In contrast, a class that simply extends "factor"
## has no such ambiguities
setClass("factorDated", contains = "factor",
        representation(stamp="POSIXt"))
fd <- new("factorDated", factor(11), stamp = Sys.time())
identical(levels(fd), levels(as(fd, "factor")))
```

isSealedMethod

Check for a Sealed Method or Class

Description

These functions check for either a method or a class that has been *sealed* when it was defined, and which therefore cannot be re-defined.

Usage

```
isSealedMethod(f, signature, fdef, where)
isSealedClass(Class, where)
```

Arguments

f	The quoted name of the generic function.
signature	The class names in the method's signature, as they would be supplied to setMethod .
fdef	Optional, and usually omitted: the generic function definition for f.
Class	The quoted name of the class.
where	where to search for the method or class definition. By default, searches from the top environment of the call to <code>isSealedMethod</code> or <code>isSealedClass</code> , typically the global environment or the namespace of a package containing a call to one of the functions.

Details

In the R implementation of classes and methods, it is possible to seal the definition of either a class or a method. The basic classes (numeric and other types of vectors, matrix and array data) are sealed. So also are the methods for the primitive functions on those data types. The effect is that programmers cannot re-define the meaning of these basic data types and computations. More precisely, for primitive functions that depend on only one data argument, methods cannot be specified for basic classes. For functions (such as the arithmetic operators) that depend on two arguments, methods can be specified if *one* of those arguments is a basic class, but not if both are.

Programmers can seal other class and method definitions by using the sealed argument to [setClass](#) or [setMethod](#).

Value

The functions return FALSE if the method or class is not sealed (including the case that it is not defined); TRUE if it is.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

Examples

```
## these are both TRUE
isSealedMethod("+", c("numeric", "character"))
isSealedClass("matrix")

setClass("track",
         representation(x="numeric", y="numeric"))
## but this is FALSE
isSealedClass("track")
## and so is this
isSealedClass("A Name for an undefined Class")
## and so are these, because only one of the two arguments is basic
isSealedMethod("+", c("track", "numeric"))
isSealedMethod("+", c("numeric", "track"))
```

language-class

Classes to Represent Unevaluated Language Objects

Description

The virtual class "language" and the specific classes that extend it represent unevaluated objects, as produced for example by the parser or by functions such as [quote](#).

Usage

```
### each of these classes corresponds to an unevaluated object
### in the S language.
### The class name can appear in method signatures,
### and in a few other contexts (such as some calls to as()).

"("
"<-"
"call"
"for"
"if"
```



```

"repeat"
"while"
"name"
"{"

### Each of the classes above extends the virtual class
"language"

```

Objects from the Class

"language" is a virtual class; no objects may be created from it.

Objects from the other classes can be generated by a call to `new(Class, ...)`, where `Class` is the quoted class name, and the `...` arguments are either empty or a *single* object that is from this class (or an extension).

Methods

coerce signature(from = "ANY", to = "call"). A method exists for `as(object, "call")`, calling `as.call()`.

LinearMethodsList-class

Class "LinearMethodsList"

Description

A version of methods lists that has been 'linearized' for producing summary information. The actual objects from class "MethodsList" used for method dispatch are defined recursively over the arguments involved.

Objects from the Class

The function `linearizeMlist` converts an ordinary methods list object into the linearized form.

Slots

methods: Object of class "list", the method definitions.

arguments: Object of class "list", the corresponding formal arguments, namely as many of the arguments in the signature of the generic function as are active in the relevant method table.

classes: Object of class "list", the corresponding classes in the signatures.

generic: Object of class "genericFunction"; the generic function to which the methods correspond.

Future Note

The current version of `linearizeMlist` does not take advantage of the `MethodDefinition` class, and therefore does more work for less effect than it could. In particular, we may move to redefine both the function and the class to take advantage of the stored signatures. Don't write code depending precisely on the present form, although all the current information will be obtainable in the future.

See Also

Function `linearizeMlist` for the computation, and class `MethodsList` for the original, recursive form.

LocalReferenceClasses *Localized Objects based on Reference Classes*

Description

Local reference classes are modified `ReferenceClasses` that isolate the objects to the local frame. Therefore, they do *not* propagate changes back to the calling environment. At the same time, they use the reference field semantics locally, avoiding the automatic duplication applied to standard `R` objects.

The current implementation has no special construction. To create a local reference class, call `setRefClass()` with a `contains=` argument that includes "localRefClass". See the example below.

Local reference classes operate essentially as do regular, functional classes in `R`; that is, changes are made by assignment and take place in the local frame. The essential difference is that replacement operations (like the change to the `twiddle` field in the example) do not cause duplication of the entire object, as would be the case for a formal class or for data with attributes or in a named list. The purpose is to allow large objects in some fields that are not changed along with potentially frequent changes to other fields, but without copying the large fields.

Usage

```
setRefClass(Class, fields = , contains = c("localRefClass",...),
           methods =, where =, ...)
```

Details

Localization of objects is only partially automated in the current implementation. Replacement expressions using the `$<=` operator are safe.

However, if reference methods for the class themselves modify fields, using `<<=`, for example, then one must ensure that the object is local to the relevant frame before any such method is called. Otherwise, standard reference class behavior still prevails.

There are two ways to ensure locality. The direct way is to invoke the special method `x$ensureLocal()` on the object. The other way is to modify a field explicitly by `x$field <- ...`

It's only necessary that one or the other of these happens once for each object, in order to trigger the shallow copy that provides locality for the references. In the example below, we show both mechanisms.

However it's done, localization must occur *before* any methods make changes. (Eventually, some use of code tools should at least largely automate this process, although it may be difficult to guarantee success under arbitrary circumstances.)

Author(s)

John Chambers

Examples

```
## class "myIter" has a BigData field for the real (big) data
## and a "twiddle" field for some parameters that it twiddles
## ( for some reason)

myIter <- setRefClass("myIter", contains = "localRefClass",
  fields = list(BigData = "numeric", twiddle = "numeric"))

tw <- rnorm(3)
x1 <- myIter(BigData = rnorm(1000), twiddle = tw) # OK, not REALLY big

twiddler <- function(x, n) {
  x$ensureLocal() # see the Details. Not really needed in this example
  for(i in seq(length = n)) {
    x$twiddle <- x$twiddle + rnorm(length(x$twiddle))
    ## then do something ....
    ## Snooping in gdb, etc will show that x$BigData is not copied
  }
  return(x)
}

x2 <- twiddler(x1, 10)

stopifnot(identical(x1$twiddle, tw), !identical(x1$twiddle, x2$twiddle))
```

makeClassRepresentation

Create a Class Definition

Description

Constructs an object of class `classRepresentation` to describe a particular class. Mostly a utility function, but you can call it to create a class definition without assigning it, as `setClass` would do.

Usage

```
makeClassRepresentation(name, slots=list(), superClasses=character(),
                        prototype=NULL, package, validity, access,
                        version, sealed, virtual=NA, where)
```

Arguments

name	character string name for the class
slots	named list of slot classes as would be supplied to <code>setClass</code> , but <i>without</i> the unnamed arguments for <code>superClasses</code> if any.
superClasses	what classes does this class extend
prototype	an object providing the default data for the class, e.g., the result of a call to prototype .
package	The character string name for the package in which the class will be stored; see getPackageName .
validity	Optional validity method. See validObject , and the discussion of validity methods in the reference.
access	Access information. Not currently used.
version	Optional version key for version control. Currently generated, but not used.
sealed	Is the class sealed? See setClass .
virtual	Is this known to be a virtual class?
where	The environment from which to look for class definitions needed (e.g., for slots or superclasses). See the discussion of this argument under GenericFunctions .

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[setClass](#)

method.skeleton

Create a Skeleton File for a New Method

Description

This function writes a source file containing a call to [setMethod](#) to define a method for the generic function and signature supplied. By default the method definition is in line in the call, but can be made an external (previously assigned) function.

Usage

```
method.skeleton(generic, signature, file, external = FALSE, where)
```

Arguments

generic	the character string name of the generic function, or the generic function itself. In the first case, the function need not currently be a generic, as it would not for the resulting call to setMethod .
signature	the method signature, as it would be given to setMethod
file	a character string name for the output file, or a writable connection. By default the generic function name and the classes in the signature are concatenated, with separating underscore characters. The file name should normally end in ".R". To write multiple method skeletons to one file, open the file connection first and then pass it to <code>method.skeleton()</code> in multiple calls.
external	flag to control whether the function definition for the method should be a separate external object assigned in the source file, or included in line in the call to setMethod . If supplied as a character string, this will be used as the name for the external function; by default the name concatenates the generic and signature names, with separating underscores.
where	The environment in which to look for the function; by default, the top-level environment of the call to <code>method.skeleton</code> .

Value

The file argument, invisibly, but the function is used for its side effect.

See Also

[setMethod](#), [package.skeleton](#)

Examples

```
setClass("track", representation(x="numeric", y="numeric"))
method.skeleton("show", "track")          ## writes show_track.R
method.skeleton("Ops", c("track", "track")) ## writes "Ops_track_track.R"

## write multiple method skeletons to one file
con <- file("./Math_track.R", "w")
method.skeleton("Math", "track", con)
method.skeleton("exp", "track", con)
method.skeleton("log", "track", con)
close(con)
```

MethodDefinition-class

Classes to Represent Method Definitions

Description

These classes extend the basic class "function" when functions are to be stored and used as method definitions.

Details

Method definition objects are functions with additional information defining how the function is being used as a method. The `target` slot is the class signature for which the method will be dispatched, and the `defined` slot the signature for which the method was originally specified (that is, the one that appeared in some call to [setMethod](#)).

Objects from the Class

The action of setting a method by a call to [setMethod](#) creates an object of this class. It's unwise to create them directly.

The class "SealedMethodDefinition" is created by a call to [setMethod](#) with argument `sealed = TRUE`. It has the same representation as "MethodDefinition".

Slots

`.Data`: Object of class "function"; the data part of the definition.

`target`: Object of class "signature"; the signature for which the method was wanted.

`defined`: Object of class "signature"; the signature for which a method was found. If the method was inherited, this will not be identical to `target`.

`generic`: Object of class "character"; the function for which the method was created.

Extends

Class "function", from data part.

Class "PossibleMethod", directly.

Class "OptionalMethods", by class "function".

See Also

class [MethodsList](#) for the objects defining sets of methods associated with a particular generic function. The individual method definitions stored in these objects are from class `MethodDefinition`, or an extension. Class [MethodWithNext](#) for an extension used by [callNextMethod](#).

Description

This documentation section covers some general topics on how methods work and how the **methods** package interacts with the rest of R. The information is usually not needed to get started with methods and classes, but may be helpful for moderately ambitious projects, or when something doesn't work as expected.

The section “How Methods Work” describes the underlying mechanism; “S3 Methods and Generic Functions” gives the rules applied when S4 classes and methods interact with older S3 methods; “Method Selection and Dispatch” provides more details on how class definitions determine which methods are used; “Generic Functions” discusses generic functions as objects. For additional information specifically about class definitions, see [Classes](#).

How Methods Work

A generic function has associated with it a collection of other functions (the methods), all of which have the same formal arguments as the generic. See the “Generic Functions” section below for more on generic functions themselves.

Each R package will include methods metadata objects corresponding to each generic function for which methods have been defined in that package. When the package is loaded into an R session, the methods for each generic function are *cached*, that is, stored in the environment of the generic function along with the methods from previously loaded packages. This merged table of methods is used to dispatch or select methods from the generic, using class inheritance and possibly group generic functions (see [GroupGenericFunctions](#)) to find an applicable method. See the “Method Selection and Dispatch” section below. The caching computations ensure that only one version of each generic function is visible globally; although different attached packages may contain a copy of the generic function, these behave identically with respect to method selection. In contrast, it is possible for the same function name to refer to more than one generic function, when these have different package slots. In the latter case, R considers the functions unrelated: A generic function is defined by the combination of name and package. See the “Generic Functions” section below.

The methods for a generic are stored according to the corresponding signature in the call to [setMethod](#) that defined the method. The signature associates one class name with each of a subset of the formal arguments to the generic function. Which formal arguments are available, and the order in which they appear, are determined by the “signature” slot of the generic function itself. By default, the signature of the generic consists of all the formal arguments except ..., in the order they appear in the function definition.

Trailing arguments in the signature of the generic will be *inactive* if no method has yet been specified that included those arguments in its signature. Inactive arguments are not needed or used in labeling the cached methods. (The distinction does not change which methods are dispatched, but ignoring inactive arguments improves the efficiency of dispatch.)

All arguments in the signature of the generic function will be evaluated when the function is called, rather than using the traditional lazy evaluation rules of S. Therefore, it's important to *exclude* from the signature any arguments that need to be dealt with symbolically (such as the first argument to

function `substitute`). Note that only actual arguments are evaluated, not default expressions. A missing argument enters into the method selection as class "missing".

The cached methods are stored in an environment object. The names used for assignment are a concatenation of the class names for the active arguments in the method signature.

Methods for S3 Generic Functions

S4 methods may be wanted for functions that also have S3 methods, corresponding to classes for the first formal argument of an S3 generic function—either a regular R function in which there is a call to the S3 dispatch function, `UseMethod`, or one of a fixed set of primitive functions, which are not true functions but go directly to C code. In either case S3 method dispatch looks at the class of the first argument or the class of either argument in a call to one of the primitive binary operators. S3 methods are ordinary functions with the same arguments as the generic function (for primitives the formal arguments are not actually part of the object, but are simulated when the object is printed or viewed by `args()`). The “signature” of an S3 method is identified by the name to which the method is assigned, composed of the name of the generic function, followed by ".", followed by the name of the class. For details, see [S3Methods](#).

To implement a method for one of these functions corresponding to S4 classes, there are two possibilities: either an S4 method or an S3 method with the S4 class name. The S3 method is only possible if the intended signature has the first argument and nothing else. In this case, the recommended approach is to define the S3 method and also supply the identical function as the definition of the S4 method. If the S3 generic function was `f3(x, ...)` and the S4 class for the new method was "myClass":

```
f3.myClass <- function(x, ...) { ..... }
setMethod("f3", "myClass", f3.myClass)
```

The reasons for defining both S3 and S4 methods are as follows:

1. An S4 method alone will not be seen if the S3 generic function is called directly. However, primitive functions and operators are exceptions: The internal C code will look for S4 methods if and only if the object is an S4 object. In the examples, the method for ``[`` for class "myFrame" will always be called for objects of this class.

For the same reason, an S4 method defined for an S3 class will not be called from internal code for a non-S4 object. (See the example for function `Math` and class "data.frame" in the examples.)

2. An S3 method alone will not be called if there is *any* eligible non-default S4 method. (See the example for function `f3` and class "classA" in the examples.)

Details of the selection computations are given below.

When an S4 method is defined for an existing function that is not an S4 generic function (whether or not the existing function is an S3 generic), an S4 generic function will be created corresponding to the existing function and the package in which it is found (more precisely, according to the implicit generic function either specified or inferred from the ordinary function; see [implicitGeneric](#)). A message is printed after the initial call to `setMethod`; this is not an error, just a reminder that you have created the generic. Creating the generic explicitly by the call

```
setGeneric("f3")
```


avoids the message, but has the same effect. The existing function becomes the default method for the S4 generic function. Primitive functions work the same way, but the S4 generic function is not explicitly created (as discussed below).

S4 and S3 method selection are designed to follow compatible rules of inheritance, as far as possible. S3 classes can be used for any S4 method selection, provided that the S3 classes have been registered by a call to `setOldClass`, with that call specifying the correct S3 inheritance pattern. S4 classes can be used for any S3 method selection; when an S4 object is detected, S3 method selection uses the contents of `extends(class(x))` as the equivalent of the S3 inheritance (the inheritance is cached after the first call).

An existing S3 method may not behave as desired for an S4 subclass, in which case utilities such as `asS3` and `S3Part` may be useful. If the S3 method fails on the S4 object, `asS3(x)` may be passed instead; if the object returned by the S3 method needs to be incorporated in the S4 object, the replacement function for `S3Part` may be useful, as in the method for class "myFrame" in the examples.

Here are details explaining the reasons for defining both S3 and S4 methods. Calls still accessing the S3 generic function directly will not see S4 methods, except in the case of primitive functions. This means that calls to the generic function from namespaces that import the S3 generic but not the S4 version will only see S3 methods. On the other hand, S3 methods will only be selected from the S4 generic function as part of its default ("ANY") method. If there are inherited S4 non-default methods, these will be chosen in preference to *any* S3 method.

S3 generic functions implemented as primitive functions (including binary operators) are an exception to recognizing only S3 methods. These functions dispatch both S4 and S3 methods from the internal C code. There is no explicit generic function, either S3 or S4. The internal code looks for S4 methods if the first argument, or either of the arguments in the case of a binary operator, is an S4 object. If no S4 method is found, a search is made for an S3 method.

S4 methods can be defined for an S3 generic function and an S3 class, but if the function is a primitive, such methods will not be selected if the object in question is not an S4 object. In the examples below, for instance, an S4 method for signature "data.frame" for function `f3()` would be called for the S3 object `df1`. A similar S4 method for primitive function ``[`` would be ignored for that object, but would be called for the S4 object `mydf1` that inherits from "data.frame". Defining both an S3 and S4 method removes this inconsistency.

Method Selection and Dispatch: Details

When a call to a generic function is evaluated, a method is selected corresponding to the classes of the actual arguments in the signature. First, the cached methods table is searched for an exact match; that is, a method stored under the signature defined by the string value of `class(x)` for each non-missing argument, and "missing" for each missing argument. If no method is found directly for the actual arguments in a call to a generic function, an attempt is made to match the available methods to the arguments by using the superclass information about the actual classes.

Each class definition may include a list of one or more *superclasses* of the new class. The simplest and most common specification is by the `contains=` argument in the call to `setClass`. Each class named in this argument is a superclass of the new class. Two additional mechanisms for defining superclasses exist. A call to `setClassUnion` creates a union class that is a superclass of each of the members of the union. A call to `setIs` can create an inheritance relationship that is not the simple one of containing the superclass representation in the new class. Arguments `coerce` and `replace` supply methods to convert to the superclass and to replace the part corresponding to the superclass.

(In addition, a `test=` argument allows conditional inheritance; conditional inheritance is not recommended and is not used in method selection.) All three mechanisms are treated equivalently for purposes of method selection: they define the *direct* superclasses of a particular class. For more details on the mechanisms, see [Classes](#).

The direct superclasses themselves may have superclasses, defined by any of the same mechanisms, and similarly through further generations. Putting all this information together produces the full list of superclasses for this class. The superclass list is included in the definition of the class that is cached during the R session. Each element of the list describes the nature of the relationship (see [SClassExtension](#) for details). Included in the element is a distance slot containing the path length for the relationship: 1 for direct superclasses (regardless of which mechanism defined them), then 2 for the direct superclasses of those classes, and so on. In addition, any class implicitly has class "ANY" as a superclass. The distance to "ANY" is treated as larger than the distance to any actual class. The special class "missing" corresponding to missing arguments has only "ANY" as a superclass, while "ANY" has no superclasses.

When a class definition is created or modified, the superclasses are ordered, first by a stable sort of the all superclasses by distance. If the set of superclasses has duplicates (that is, if some class is inherited through more than one relationship), these are removed, if possible, so that the list of superclasses is consistent with the superclasses of all direct superclasses. See the reference on inheritance for details.

The information about superclasses is summarized when a class definition is printed.

When a method is to be selected by inheritance, a search is made in the table for all methods directly corresponding to a combination of either the direct class or one of its superclasses, for each argument in the active signature. For an example, suppose there is only one argument in the signature and that the class of the corresponding object was "dgeMatrix" (from the recommended package `Matrix`). This class has two direct superclasses and through these 4 additional superclasses. Method selection finds all the methods in the table of directly specified methods labeled by one of these classes, or by "ANY".

When there are multiple arguments in the signature, each argument will generate a similar list of inherited classes. The possible matches are now all the combinations of classes from each argument (think of the function `outer` generating an array of all possible combinations). The search now finds all the methods matching any of this combination of classes. For each argument, the position in the list of superclasses of that argument's class defines which method or methods (if the same class appears more than once) match best. When there is only one argument, the best match is unambiguous. With more than one argument, there may be zero or one match that is among the best matches for *all* arguments.

If there is no best match, the selection is ambiguous and a message is printed noting which method was selected (the first method lexicographically in the ordering) and what other methods could have been selected. Since the ambiguity is usually nothing the end user could control, this is not a warning. Package authors should examine their package for possible ambiguous inheritance by calling [testInheritedMethods](#).

When the inherited method has been selected, the selection is cached in the generic function so that future calls with the same class will not require repeating the search. Cached inherited selections are not themselves used in future inheritance searches, since that could result in invalid selections. If you want inheritance computations to be done again (for example, because a newly loaded package has a more direct method than one that has already been used in this session), call [resetGeneric](#). Because classes and methods involving them tend to come from the same package, the current implementation does not reset all generics every time a new package is loaded.

Besides being initiated through calls to the generic function, method selection can be done explicitly by calling the function `selectMethod`.

Once a method has been selected, the evaluator creates a new context in which a call to the method is evaluated. The context is initialized with the arguments from the call to the generic function. These arguments are not rematched. All the arguments in the signature of the generic will have been evaluated (including any that are currently inactive); arguments that are not in the signature will obey the usual lazy evaluation rules of the language. If an argument was missing in the call, its default expression if any will *not* have been evaluated, since method dispatch always uses class missing for such arguments.

A call to a generic function therefore has two contexts: one for the function and a second for the method. The argument objects will be copied to the second context, but not any local objects created in a nonstandard generic function. The other important distinction is that the parent (“enclosing”) environment of the second context is the environment of the method as a function, so that all R programming techniques using such environments apply to method definitions as ordinary functions.

For further discussion of method selection and dispatch, see the first reference.

Generic Functions

In principle, a generic function could be any function that evaluates a call to `standardGeneric()`, the internal function that selects a method and evaluates a call to the selected method. In practice, generic functions are special objects that in addition to being from a subclass of class “function” also extend the class `genericFunction`. Such objects have slots to define information needed to deal with their methods. They also have specialized environments, containing the tables used in method selection.

The slots “generic” and “package” in the object are the character string names of the generic function itself and of the package from which the function is defined. As with classes, generic functions are uniquely defined in R by the combination of the two names. There can be generic functions of the same name associated with different packages (although inevitably keeping such functions cleanly distinguished is not always easy). On the other hand, R will enforce that only one definition of a generic function can be associated with a particular combination of function and package name, in the current session or other active version of R.

Tables of methods for a particular generic function, in this sense, will often be spread over several other packages. The total set of methods for a given generic function may change during a session, as additional packages are loaded. Each table must be consistent in the signature assumed for the generic function.

R distinguishes *standard* and *nonstandard* generic functions, with the former having a function body that does nothing but dispatch a method. For the most part, the distinction is just one of simplicity: knowing that a generic function only dispatches a method call allows some efficiencies and also removes some uncertainties.

In most cases, the generic function is the visible function corresponding to that name, in the corresponding package. There are two exceptions, *implicit* generic functions and the special computations required to deal with R’s *primitive* functions. Packages can contain a table of implicit generic versions of functions in the package, if the package wishes to leave a function non-generic but to constrain what the function would be like if it were generic. Such implicit generic functions are created during the installation of the package, essentially by defining the generic function and possibly methods for it, and then reverting the function to its non-generic form. (See `implicitGeneric` for how this is done.) The mechanism is mainly used for functions in the older packages in R,

which may prefer to ignore S4 methods. Even in this case, the actual mechanism is only needed if something special has to be specified. All functions have a corresponding implicit generic version defined automatically (an implicit, implicit generic function one might say). This function is a standard generic with the same arguments as the non-generic function, with the non-generic version as the default (and only) method, and with the generic signature being all the formal arguments except

The implicit generic mechanism is needed only to override some aspect of the default definition. One reason to do so would be to remove some arguments from the signature. Arguments that may need to be interpreted literally, or for which the lazy evaluation mechanism of the language is needed, must *not* be included in the signature of the generic function, since all arguments in the signature will be evaluated in order to select a method. For example, the argument `expr` to the function `with` is treated literally and must therefore be excluded from the signature.

One would also need to define an implicit generic if the existing non-generic function were not suitable as the default method. Perhaps the function only applies to some classes of objects, and the package designer prefers to have no general default method. In the other direction, the package designer might have some ideas about suitable methods for some classes, if the function were generic. With reasonably modern packages, the simple approach in all these cases is just to define the function as a generic. The implicit generic mechanism is mainly attractive for older packages that do not want to require the methods package to be available.

Generic functions will also be defined but not obviously visible for functions implemented as *primitive* functions in the base package. Primitive functions look like ordinary functions when printed but are in fact not function objects but objects of two types interpreted by the R evaluator to call underlying C code directly. Since their entire justification is efficiency, R refuses to hide primitives behind a generic function object. Methods may be defined for most primitives, and corresponding metadata objects will be created to store them. Calls to the primitive still go directly to the C code, which will sometimes check for applicable methods. The definition of “sometimes” is that methods must have been detected for the function in some package loaded in the session and `isS4(x)` is TRUE for the first argument (or for the second argument, in the case of binary operators). You can test whether methods have been detected by calling `isGeneric` for the relevant function and you can examine the generic function by calling `getGeneric`, whether or not methods have been detected. For more on generic functions, see the first reference and also section 2 of *R Internals*.

Method Definitions

All method definitions are stored as objects from the `MethodDefinition` class. Like the class of generic functions, this class extends ordinary R functions with some additional slots: “generic”, containing the name and package of the generic function, and two signature slots, “defined” and “target”, the first being the signature supplied when the method was defined by a call to `setMethod`. The “target” slot starts off equal to the “defined” slot. When an inherited method is cached after being selected, as described above, a copy is made with the appropriate “target” signature. Output from `showMethods`, for example, includes both signatures.

Method definitions are required to have the same formal arguments as the generic function, since the method dispatch mechanism does not rematch arguments, for reasons of both efficiency and consistency.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version: see section 10.6 for method selection and section 10.5 for generic functions).

Chambers, John M. (2009) *Developments in Class Inheritance and Method Selection* <https://statweb.stanford.edu/~jmc4/classInheritance.pdf>.

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

For more specific information, see [setGeneric](#), [setMethod](#), and [setClass](#).

For the use of ... in methods, see [dotsMethods](#).

Examples

```
## A class that extends a registered S3 class inherits that class' S3
## methods.

setClass("myFrame", contains = "data.frame",
  representation(timestamps = "POSIXt"))

df1 <- data.frame(x = 1:10, y = rnorm(10), z = sample(letters,10))

mydf1 <- new("myFrame", df1, timestamps = Sys.time())

## "myFrame" objects inherit "data.frame" S3 methods; e.g., for `[`

mydf1[1:2, ] # a data frame object (with extra attributes)

## a method explicitly for "myFrame" class

setMethod("[",
  signature(x = "myFrame"),
  function (x, i, j, ..., drop = TRUE)
  {
    S3Part(x) <- callNextMethod()
    x@timestamps <- c(Sys.time(), as.POSIXct(x@timestamps))
    x
  }
)

mydf1[1:2, ]

setClass("myDateTime", contains = "POSIXt")

now <- Sys.time() # class(now) is c("POSIXct", "POSIXt")
nowLt <- as.POSIXlt(now) # class(nowLt) is c("POSIXlt", "POSIXt")

mCt <- new("myDateTime", now)
```

```

mLt <- new("myDateTime", nowLt)

## S3 methods for an S4 object will be selected using S4 inheritance
## Objects mCt and mLt have different S3Class() values, but this is
## not used.
f3 <- function(x)UseMethod("f3") # an S3 generic to illustrate inheritance

f3.POSIXct <- function(x) "The POSIXct result"
f3.POSIXlt <- function(x) "The POSIXlt result"
f3.POSIXt <- function(x) "The POSIXt result"

stopifnot(identical(f3(mCt), f3.POSIXt(mCt)))
stopifnot(identical(f3(mLt), f3.POSIXt(mLt)))

## An S4 object selects S3 methods according to its S4 "inheritance"

setClass("classA", contains = "numeric",
         representation(realData = "numeric"))

Math.classA <- function(x) {(getFunction(.Generic))(x@realData)}
setMethod("Math", "classA", Math.classA)

x <- new("classA", log(1:10), realData = 1:10)

stopifnot(identical(abs(x), 1:10))

setClass("classB", contains = "classA")

y <- new("classB", x)

stopifnot(identical(abs(y), 1:10)) # (version 2.9.0 or earlier fails here)

## an S3 generic: just for demonstration purposes
f3 <- function(x, ...) UseMethod("f3")

f3.default <- function(x, ...) "Default f3"

## S3 method (only) for classA
f3.classA <- function(x, ...) "Class classA for f3"

## S3 and S4 method for numeric
f3.numeric <- function(x, ...) "Class numeric for f3"
setMethod("f3", "numeric", f3.numeric)

## The S3 method for classA and the closest inherited S3 method for classB
## are not found.

f3(x); f3(y) # both choose "numeric" method

```

```
## to obtain the natural inheritance, set identical S3 and S4 methods
setMethod("f3", "classA", f3.classA)

f3(x); f3(y) # now both choose "classA" method

## Need to define an S3 as well as S4 method to use on an S3 object
## or if called from a package without the S4 generic

MathFun <- function(x) { # a smarter "data.frame" method for Math group
  for (i in seq(length = ncol(x))[sapply(x, is.numeric)])
    x[, i] <- (getFunction(.Generic))(x[, i])
  x
}
setMethod("Math", "data.frame", MathFun)

## S4 method works for an S4 class containing data.frame,
## but not for data.frame objects (not S4 objects)

try(logIris <- log(iris)) #gets an error from the old method

## Define an S3 method with the same computation

Math.data.frame <- MathFun

logIris <- log(iris)
```

MethodsList-class

Class MethodsList, Defunct Representation of Methods

Description

This class of objects was used in the original implementation of the package to control method dispatch. Its use is now defunct, but object appear as the default method slot in generic functions. This and any other remaining uses will be removed in the future.

For the modern alternative, see [listOfMethods](#).

The details in this documentation are retained to allow analysis of old-style objects.

Details

Suppose a function *f* has formal arguments *x* and *y*. The methods list object for that function has the object `as.name("x")` as its argument slot. An element of the methods named "track" is selected if the actual argument corresponding to *x* is an object of class "track". If there is such an element, it can generally be either a function or another methods list object.

In the first case, the function defines the method to use for any call in which x is of class "track". In the second case, the new methods list object defines the available methods depending on the remaining formal arguments, in this example, y.

Each method corresponds conceptually to a *signature*; that is a named list of classes, with names corresponding to some or all of the formal arguments. In the previous example, if selecting class "track" for x, finding that the selection was another methods list and then selecting class "numeric" for y would produce a method associated with the signature x = "track", y = "numeric".

Slots

- argument: Object of class "name". The name of the argument being used for dispatch at this level.
- methods: A named list of the methods (and method lists) defined *explicitly* for this argument. The names are the names of classes, and the corresponding element defines the method or methods to be used if the corresponding argument has that class. See the details below.
- allMethods: A named list, contains all the directly defined methods from the methods slot, plus any inherited methods. Ignored when methods tables are used for dispatch (see [Methods](#))

Extends

Class "OptionalMethods", directly.

MethodWithNext-class	Class MethodWithNext
----------------------	----------------------

Description

Class of method definitions set up for callNextMethod

Objects from the Class

Objects from this class are generated as a side-effect of calls to [callNextMethod](#).

Slots

- .Data: Object of class "function"; the actual function definition.
- nextMethod: Object of class "PossibleMethod" the method to use in response to a [callNextMethod\(\)](#) call.
- excluded: Object of class "list"; one or more signatures excluded in finding the next method.
- target: Object of class "signature", from class "MethodDefinition"
- defined: Object of class "signature", from class "MethodDefinition"
- generic: Object of class "character"; the function for which the method was created.

Extends

Class "MethodDefinition", directly.
Class "function", from data part.
Class "PossibleMethod", by class "MethodDefinition".
Class "OptionalMethods", by class "MethodDefinition".

Methods

findNextMethod signature(method = "MethodWithNext"): used internally by method dispatch.
loadMethod signature(method = "MethodWithNext"): used internally by method dispatch.
show signature(object = "MethodWithNext")

See Also

[callNextMethod](#), and class [MethodDefinition](#).

new	<i>Generate an Object from a Class</i>
-----	--

Description

Given the name or the definition of a class, plus optionally data to be included in the object, new returns an object from that class.

Usage

```
new(Class, ...)  
  
initialize(.Object, ...)
```

Arguments

Class	either the name of a class, a character string, (the usual case) or the object describing the class (e.g., the value returned by getClass).
...	data to include in the new object. Named arguments correspond to slots in the class definition. Unnamed arguments must be objects from classes that this class extends.
.Object	An object: see the Details section.

Details

The function `new` begins by copying the prototype object from the class definition. Then information is inserted according to the `...` arguments, if any. As of version 2.4 of R, the type of the prototype object, and therefore of all objects returned by `new()`, is "S4" except for classes that extend one of the basic types, where the prototype has that basic type. User functions that depend on `typeof(object)` should be careful to handle "S4" as a possible type.

Note that the *name* of the first argument, "Class" entails that "Class" is an undesirable slot name in any formal class: `new("myClass", Class = <value>)` will not work.

The interpretation of the `...` arguments can be specialized to particular classes, if an appropriate method has been defined for the generic function "initialize". The new function calls `initialize` with the object generated from the prototype as the `.Object` argument to `initialize`.

By default, unnamed arguments in the `...` are interpreted as objects from a superclass, and named arguments are interpreted as objects to be assigned into the correspondingly named slots. Thus, explicit slots override inherited information for the same slot, regardless of the order in which the arguments appear.

The `initialize` methods do not have to have `...` as their second argument (see the examples). Initialize methods are often written when the natural parameters describing the new object are not the names of the slots. If you do define such a method, note the implications for future subclasses of your class. If these have additional slots, and your `initialize` method has `...` as a formal argument, then your method should pass such arguments along via `callNextMethod`. If your method does not have this argument, then either a subclass must have its own method or else the added slots must be specified by users in some way other than as arguments to `new`.

For examples of `initialize` methods, see [initialize-methods](#) for existing methods for classes "traceable" and "environment", among others. See the comments there on subclasses of "environment"; any `initialize` methods for these should be sure to allocate a new environment.

Methods for `initialize` can be inherited only by simple inheritance, since it is a requirement that the method return an object from the target class. See the `simpleInheritanceOnly` argument to `setGeneric` and the discussion in [setIs](#) for the general concept.

Note that the basic vector classes, "numeric", etc. are implicitly defined, so one can use `new` for these classes.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[Classes](#) for an overview of defining class, and [setOldClass](#) for the relation to S3 classes.

Examples

```
## using the definition of class "track" from \link{setClass}
```

```

## a new object with two slots specified
t1 <- new("track", x = seq_along(ydata), y = ydata)

# a new object including an object from a superclass, plus a slot
t2 <- new("trackCurve", t1, smooth = ysmooth)

### define a method for initialize, to ensure that new objects have
### equal-length x and y slots.

setMethod("initialize",
  "track",
  function(.Object, x = numeric(0), y = numeric(0)) {
    if(nargs() > 1) {
      if(length(x) != length(y))
        stop("specified x and y of different lengths")
      .Object@x <- x
      .Object@y <- y
    }
    .Object
  })

### the next example will cause an error (x will be numeric(0)),
### because we didn't build in defaults for x,
### although we could with a more elaborate method for initialize

try(new("track", y = sort(stats::rnorm(10))))

## a better way to implement the previous initialize method.
## Why? By using callNextMethod to call the default initialize method
## we don't inhibit classes that extend "track" from using the general
## form of the new() function. In the previous version, they could only
## use x and y as arguments to new, unless they wrote their own
## initialize method.

setMethod("initialize", "track", function(.Object, ...) {
  .Object <- callNextMethod()
  if(length(.Object@x) != length(.Object@y))
    stop("specified x and y of different lengths")
  .Object
})

```

nonStructure-class	<i>A non-structure S4 Class for basic types</i>
--------------------	---

Description

S4 classes that are defined to extend one of the basic vector classes should contain the class `structure` if they behave like structures; that is, if they should retain their class behavior under

math functions or operators, so long as their length is unchanged. On the other hand, if their class depends on the values in the object, not just its structure, then they should lose that class under any such transformations. In the latter case, they should be defined to contain `nonStructure`.

If neither of these strategies applies, the class likely needs some methods of its own for `Ops`, `Math`, and/or other generic functions. What is not usually a good idea is to allow such computations to drop down to the default, base code. This is inconsistent with most definitions of such classes.

Methods

Methods are defined for operators and math functions (groups `Ops`, `Math` and `Math2`. In all cases the result is an ordinary vector of the appropriate type.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer.

See Also

[structure](#)

Examples

```
setClass("NumericNotStructure", contains = c("numeric", "nonStructure"))
xx <- new("NumericNotStructure", 1:10)
xx + 1 # vector
log(xx) # vector
sample(xx) # vector
```

ObjectsWithPackage-class

A Vector of Object Names, with associated Package Names

Description

This class of objects is used to represent ordinary character string object names, extended with a package slot naming the package associated with each object.

Objects from the Class

The function `getGenerics` returns an object of this class.

Slots

.Data: Object of class "character": the object names.

package: Object of class "character" the package names.

Extends

Class "character", from data part.
 Class "vector", by class "character".

See Also

Methods for general background.

promptClass	<i>Generate a Shell for Documentation of a Formal Class</i>
-------------	---

Description

Assembles all relevant slot and method information for a class, with minimal markup for Rd processing; no QC facilities at present.

Usage

```
promptClass(clName, filename = NULL, type = "class",
            keywords = "classes", where = topenv(parent.frame()),
            generatorName = clName)
```

Arguments

clName	a character string naming the class to be documented.
filename	usually, a connection or a character string giving the name of the file to which the documentation shell should be written. The default corresponds to a file whose name is the topic name for the class documentation, followed by ".Rd". Can also be NA (see below).
type	the documentation type to be declared in the output file.
keywords	the keywords to include in the shell of the documentation. The keyword "classes" should be one of them.
where	where to look for the definition of the class and of methods that use it.
generatorName	the name for a generator function for this class; only required if a generator function was created <i>and</i> saved under a name different from the class name.

Details

The class definition is found on the search list. Using that definition, information about classes extended and slots is determined.

In addition, the currently available generics with methods for this class are found (using [getGenerics](#)). Note that these methods need not be in the same environment as the class definition; in particular, this part of the output may depend on which packages are currently in the search list.

As with other prompt-style functions, unless `filename` is `NA`, the documentation shell is written to a file, and a message about this is given. The file will need editing to give information about the *meaning* of the class. The output of `promptClass` can only contain information from the metadata about the formal definition and how it is used.

If `filename` is `NA`, a list-style representation of the documentation shell is created and returned. Writing the shell to a file amounts to `cat(unlist(x), file = filename, sep = "\n")`, where `x` is the list-style representation.

If a generator function is found assigned under the class name or the optional `generatorName`, skeleton documentation for that function is added to the file.

Value

If `filename` is `NA`, a list-style representation of the documentation shell. Otherwise, the name of the file written to is returned invisibly.

Author(s)

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References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[prompt](#) for documentation of functions, [promptMethods](#) for documentation of method definitions.

For processing of the edited documentation, either use R CMD [Rdconv](#), or include the edited file in the ‘man’ subdirectory of a package.

Examples

```
## Not run: > promptClass("track")
A shell of class documentation has been written to the
file "track-class.Rd".

## End(Not run)
```

promptMethods

Generate a Shell for Documentation of Formal Methods

Description

Generates a shell of documentation for the methods of a generic function.

Usage

```
promptMethods(f, filename = NULL, methods)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|----------|---|
| f | a character string naming the generic function whose methods are to be documented. |
| filename | usually, a connection or a character string giving the name of the file to which the documentation shell should be written. The default corresponds to the coded topic name for these methods (currently, f followed by "-methods.Rd"). Can also be FALSE or NA (see below). |
| methods | Optional methods list object giving the methods to be documented. By default, the first methods object for this generic is used (for example, if the current global environment has some methods for f, these would be documented).
If this argument is supplied, it is likely to be <code>getMethods(f, where)</code> , with where some package containing methods for f. |

Details

If filename is FALSE, the text created is returned, presumably to be inserted some other documentation file, such as the documentation of the generic function itself (see [prompt](#)).

If filename is NA, a list-style representation of the documentation shell is created and returned. Writing the shell to a file amounts to `cat(unlist(x), file = filename, sep = "\n")`, where x is the list-style representation.

Otherwise, the documentation shell is written to the file specified by filename.

Value

If filename is FALSE, the text generated; if filename is NA, a list-style representation of the documentation shell. Otherwise, the name of the file written to is returned invisibly.

References

- Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)
- Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[prompt](#) and [promptClass](#)

ReferenceClasses

Objects With Fields Treated by Reference (OOP-style)

Description

The software described here supports reference classes whose objects have fields accessed by reference in the style of “OOP” languages such as Java and C++. Computations with these objects invoke methods on them and extract or set their fields. The field and method computations potentially modify the object. All computations referring to the objects see the modifications, in contrast to the usual functional programming model in R. Reference classes can be used to program in R directly or in combination with an interface to an OOP-style language, allowing R-written methods to extend the interface.

Usage

```
setRefClass(Class, fields = , contains = , methods =,
            where =, inheritPackage =, ...)
```

```
getRefClass(Class, where =)
```

Arguments

Class	<p>character string name for the class.</p> <p>In the call to <code>getRefClass()</code> this argument can also be any object from the relevant class; note also the corresponding reference class methods documented in the section on “Writing Reference Methods”.</p>
fields	<p>either a character vector of field names or a named list of the fields. The resulting fields will be accessed with reference semantics (see the section on “Reference Objects”). If the argument is a list, the elements of the list can be the character string name of a class, in which case the field must be from that class or a subclass.</p> <p>The element in the list can alternatively be an <i>accessor function</i>, a function of one argument that returns the field if called with no argument or sets it to the value of the argument otherwise. Accessor functions are used internally and for inter-system interface applications. Their definition follows the rules for writing methods for the class: they can refer to other fields and can call other methods for this class or its superclasses. See the section on “Implementation” for the internal mechanism used by accessor functions.</p> <p>Note that fields are distinct from the slots, if any, in the object. Slots are, as always, handled by standard R object management. It is not generally a good idea to mix slots and fields in the same class; this confuses the distinction in behavior between reference classes and regular S4 classes. See the comments in the “Implementation” section.</p>

contains	optional vector of superclasses for this class. If a superclass is also a reference class, the fields and class-based methods will be inherited.
methods	<p>a named list of function definitions that can be invoked on objects from this class. These can also be created by invoking the <code>\$methods</code> method on the generator object returned. See the section on “Writing Reference Methods” for details.</p> <p>Two optional method names are interpreted specially, <code>initialize</code> and <code>finalize</code>. If an <code>initialize</code> method is defined, it will be invoked when an object is generated from the class. See the discussion of method <code>\$new(...)</code> in the section “Reference Object Generators”.</p> <p>If a <code>finalize</code> method is defined, a function will be registered to invoke it before the environment in the object is discarded by the garbage collector. See the matrix viewer example for both <code>initialize</code> and <code>finalize</code> methods.</p>
where	the environment in which to store the class definition (or to begin the search for it, in the case of <code>getRefClass()</code>). Defaults to the package namespace or environment for code that is part of an R package, and to the global environment for code sourced directly at the session top level.
inheritPackage	Should objects from the new class inherit the package environment of a contained superclass? Default <code>FALSE</code> . See the Section “Inter-Package Superclasses and External Methods”.
...	other arguments to be passed to setClass .

Value

`setRefClass()` returns a generator function suitable for creating objects from the class, invisibly. A call to this function takes any number of arguments, which will be passed on to the `initialize` method. If no `initialize` method is defined for the class or one of its superclasses, the default method expects named arguments with the name of one of the fields and unnamed arguments, if any, that are objects from one of the superclasses of this class (but only superclasses that are themselves reference classes have any effect).

The generator function is similar to the S4 generator function returned by [setClass](#). In addition to being a generator function, however, it is also a reference class generator object, with reference class methods for various utilities. See the section on reference class generator objects below.

If the class has a method defined for `$initialize()`, this method will be called once the reference object has been created. You should write such a method for a class that needs to do some special initialization. In particular, a reference method is recommended rather than a method for the S4 generic function `initialize()`, because some special initialization is required for reference objects *before* the initialization of fields. As with S4 classes, methods are written for `$initialize()` and not for `$new()`, both for the previous reason and also because `$new()` is invoked on the generator object and would be a method for that class.

The default method for `$initialize()` is equivalent to invoking the method `$initFields(...)`. Named arguments assign initial values to the corresponding fields. Unnamed arguments must be objects from this class or a reference superclass of this class. Fields will be initialized to the contents of the fields in such objects, but named arguments override the corresponding inherited fields. Note that fields are simply assigned. If the field is itself a reference object, that object is not copied. The new and previous object will share the reference. Also, a field assigned from an unnamed argument counts as an assignment for locked fields. To override an inherited value for a locked field, the new

value must be one of the named arguments in the initializing call. A later assignment of the field will result in an error.

Initialization methods need some care in design. The generator for a reference class will be called with no arguments, for example when copying the object. To ensure that these calls do not fail, the method must have defaults for all arguments or check for `missing()`. The method should include `...` as an argument and pass this on via `$callSuper()` (or `$initFields()` if you know that your superclasses have no initialization methods). This allows future class definitions that subclass this class, with additional fields.

`getRefClass()` also returns the generator function for the class. Note that the package slot in the value is the correct package from the class definition, regardless of the `where` argument, which is used only to find the class if necessary.

Reference Objects

Normal objects in R are passed as arguments in function calls consistently with functional programming semantics; that is, changes made to an object passed as an argument are local to the function call. The object that supplied the argument is unchanged.

The functional model (sometimes called pass-by-value, although this is inaccurate for R) is suitable for many statistical computations and is implicit, for example, in the basic R software for fitting statistical models. In some other situations, one would like all the code dealing with an object to see the exact same content, so that changes made in any computation would be reflected everywhere. This is often suitable if the object has some “objective” reality, such as a window in a user interface.

In addition, commonly used languages, including Java, C++ and many others, support a version of classes and methods assuming reference semantics. The corresponding programming mechanism is to invoke a method on an object. In the R syntax we use “\$” for this operation; one invokes a method, `m1` say, on an object `x` by the expression `x$m1(...)`.

Methods in this paradigm are associated with the object, or more precisely with the class of the object, as opposed to methods in a function-based class/method system, which are fundamentally associated with the function (in R, for example, a generic function in an R session has a table of all its currently known methods). In this document “methods for a class” as opposed to “methods for a function” will make the distinction.

Objects in this paradigm usually have named fields on which the methods operate. In the R implementation, the fields are defined when the class is created. The field itself can optionally have a specified class, meaning that only objects from this class or one of its subclasses can be assigned to the field. By default, fields have class “ANY”. Fields may also be defined by supplying an accessor function which will be called to get or set the field. Accessor functions are likely when reference classes are part of an inter-system interface. The interface will usually supply the accessor functions automatically based on the definition of the corresponding class in the other language.

Fields are accessed by reference. In particular, invoking a method may modify the content of the fields.

Programming for such classes involves writing new methods for a particular class. In the R implementation, these methods are R functions, with zero or more formal arguments. The object on which the methods are invoked is not an explicit argument to the method. Instead, fields and methods for the class can be referred to by name in the method definition. The implementation uses R environments to make fields and methods available by name. Additional special fields allow reference to the complete object and to the definition of the class. See the section on “Writing Reference Methods”.

The goal of the software described here is to provide a uniform programming style in R for software dealing with reference classes, whether implemented directly in R or through an interface to one of the OOP languages.

Writing Reference Methods

Reference methods are functions supplied as elements of a named list, either when invoking `g$methods()` on a generator object `g` or as the argument `methods` in a call to `setRefClass`. They are written as ordinary R functions but have some special features and restrictions. The body of the function can contain calls to any other reference method, including those inherited from other reference classes and may refer to fields in the object by name.

Alternatively, a method may be an *external* method, a function whose first argument is `.self`. The body of such methods works like any ordinary function. The methods are called like other methods (without the `.self` argument, which is supplied internally and always refers to the object itself). External methods exist so that reference classes can inherit the package environment of superclasses in other packages; see the Section “Inter-Package Superclasses and External Methods”.

Fields may be modified in a method by using the non-local assignment operator, `<<-`, as in the `$edit` and `$undo` methods in the example below. Note that non-local assignment is required: a local assignment with the `<-` operator just creates a local object in the function call, as it would in any R function. When methods are installed, a heuristic check is made for local assignments to field names and a warning issued if any are detected.

Reference methods should be kept simple; if they need to do some specialized R computation, that computation should use a separate R function that is called from the reference method. Specifically, methods can not use special features of the enclosing environment mechanism, since the method’s environment is used to access fields and other methods. In particular, methods should not use non-exported entries in the package’s namespace, because the methods may be inherited by a reference class in another package.

Methods for `$initialize()` have special requirements. See the comments in the “Value” section.

Reference methods can not themselves be generic functions; if you want additional function-based method dispatch, write a separate generic function and call that from the method.

The entire object can be referred to in a method by the reserved name `.self`, as shown in the `save` method of the example. The special object `.refClassDef` contains the definition of the class of the object. These fields are read-only (it makes no sense to modify these references), with one exception. In principal, the `.self` field can be modified in the `$initialize` method, because the object is still being created at this stage. This is definitely not recommended, unless to set some non-reference properties of the object defined for this class, which is itself not recommended if it mixes slots and fields.

The methods available include methods inherited from superclasses, as discussed in the next section.

Only methods actually used will be included in the environment corresponding to an individual object. To declare that a method requires a particular other method, the first method should include a call to `$usingMethods()` with the name of the other method as an argument. Declaring the methods this way is essential if the other method is used indirectly (e.g., via `sapply()` or `do.call()`). If it is called directly, code analysis will find it. Declaring the method is harmless in any case, however, and may aid readability of the source code.

Documentation for the methods can be obtained by the `$help` method for the generator object. Methods for classes are not documented in the Rd format used for R functions. Instead, the `$help`

method prints the calling sequence of the method, followed by self-documentation from the method definition, in the style of Python. If the first element of the body of the method is a literal character string (possibly multi-line), that string is interpreted as documentation. See the method definitions in the example.

Inheritance

Reference classes inherit from other reference classes by using the standard R inheritance; that is, by including the superclasses in the `contains=` argument when creating the new class. The names of the reference superclasses are in slot `refSuperClasses` of the class definition. Reference classes can inherit from ordinary S4 classes also, but this is usually a bad idea if it mixes reference fields and non-reference slots. See the comments in the section on “Implementation”.

Class fields are inherited. A class definition can override a field of the same name in a superclass only if the overriding class is a subclass of the class of the inherited field. This ensures that a valid object in the field remains valid for the superclass as well.

Inherited methods are installed in the same way as directly specified methods. The code in a method can refer to inherited methods in the same way as directly specified methods.

A method may override a method of the same name in a superclass. The overriding method can call the superclass method by `callSuper(...)` as described below.

All reference classes inherit from the class “`envRefClass`”, which provides the following methods.

`$callSuper(...)` Calls the method inherited from a reference superclass. The call is meaningful only from within another method, and will be resolved to call the inherited method of the same name. The arguments to `$callSuper` are passed to the superclass version. See the matrix viewer class in the example.

Note that the intended arguments for the superclass method must be supplied explicitly; there is no convention for supplying the arguments automatically, in contrast to the similar mechanism for functional methods.

`$copy(shallow = FALSE)` Creates a copy of the object. With reference classes, unlike ordinary R objects, merely assigning the object with a different name does not create an independent copy. If `shallow` is `FALSE`, any field that is itself a reference object will also be copied, and similarly recursively for its fields. Otherwise, while reassigning a field to a new reference object will have no side effect, modifying such a field will still be reflected in both copies of the object. The argument has no effect on non-reference objects in fields. When there are reference objects in some fields but it is asserted that they will not be modified, using `shallow = TRUE` will save some memory and time.

`$field(name, value)` With one argument, returns the field of the object with character string `name`. With two arguments, the corresponding field is assigned `value`. Assignment checks that `name` specifies a valid field, but the single-argument version will attempt to get anything of that name from the object’s environment.

The `$field()` method replaces the direct use of a field name, when the name of the field must be calculated, or for looping over several fields.

`$export(Class)` Returns the result of coercing the object to `Class` (typically one of the superclasses of the object’s class). Calling the method has no side effect on the object itself.

`$getRefClass()`; `$getClass()` These return respectively the generator object and the formal class definition for the reference class of this object, efficiently.

`$import(value, Class = class(value))` Import the object value into the current object, replacing the corresponding fields in the current object. Object value must come from one of the superclasses of the current object's class. If argument `Class` is supplied, value is first coerced to that class.

`$initFields(...)` Initialize the fields of the object from the supplied arguments. This method is usually only called from a class with a `$initialize()` method. It corresponds to the default initialization for reference classes. If there are slots and non-reference superclasses, these may be supplied in the `...` argument as well.

Typically, a specialized `$initialize()` method carries out its own computations, then invokes `$initFields()` to perform standard initialization, as shown in the `matrixViewer` class in the example below.

`$show()` This method is called when the object is printed automatically, analogously to the `show` function. A general method is defined for class `"envRefClass"`. User-defined reference classes will often define their own method: see the Example below.

Note two points in the example. As with any `show()` method, it is a good idea to print the class explicitly to allow for subclasses using the method. Second, to call the *function* `show()` from the method, as opposed to the `$show()` method itself, refer to `methods::show()` explicitly.

`$trace(what, ...)`, `$untrace(what)` Apply the tracing and debugging facilities of the `trace` function to the reference method `what`.

All the arguments of the `trace` function can be supplied, except for signature, which is not meaningful.

The reference method can be invoked on either an object or the generator for the class. See the section on Debugging below for details.

`$usingMethods(...)` Reference methods used by this method are named as the arguments either quoted or unquoted. In the code analysis phase of installing the the present method, the declared methods will be included. It is essential to declare any methods used in a nonstandard way (e.g., via an `apply` function). Methods called directly do not need to be declared, but it is harmless to do so. `$usingMethods()` does nothing at run time.

Objects also inherit two reserved fields:

- `.self` a reference to the entire object;
- `.refClassDef` the class definition.

The defined fields should not override these, and in general it is unwise to define a field whose name begins with `"."`, since the implementation may use such names for special purposes.

Inter-Package Superclasses and External Methods

The environment of a method in a reference class is the object itself, as an environment. This allows the method to refer directly to fields and other methods, without using the whole object and the `"$"` operator. The parent of that environment is the namespace of the package in which the reference class is defined. Computations in the method have access to all the objects in the package's namespace, exported or not.

When defining a class that contains a reference superclass in another package, there is an ambiguity about which package namespace should have that role. The argument `inheritPackage` to `setRefClass()` controls whether the environment of new objects should inherit from an inherited class in another package or continue to inherit from the current package's namespace.

If the superclass is “lean”, with few methods, or exists primarily to support a family of subclasses, then it may be better to continue to use the new package’s environment. On the other hand, if the superclass was originally written as a standalone, this choice may invalidate existing superclass methods. For the superclass methods to continue to work, they must use only exported functions in their package and the new package must import these.

Either way, some methods may need to be written that do *not* assume the standard model for reference class methods, but behave essentially as ordinary functions would in dealing with reference class objects.

The mechanism is to recognize *external methods*. An external method is written as a function in which the first argument, named `.self`, stands for the reference class object. This function is supplied as the definition for a reference class method. The method will be called, automatically, with the first argument being the current object and the other arguments, if any, passed along from the actual call.

Since an external method is an ordinary function in the source code for its package, it has access to all the objects in the namespace. Fields and methods in the reference class must be referred to in the form `.self$name`.

If for some reason you do not want to use `.self` as the first argument, a function `f()` can be converted explicitly as `externalRefMethod(f)`, which returns an object of class “externalRefMethod” that can be supplied as a method for the class. The first argument will still correspond to the whole object.

External methods can be supplied for any reference class, but there is no obvious advantage unless they are needed. They are more work to write, harder to read and (slightly) slower to execute.

NOTE: If you are the author of a package whose reference classes are likely to be subclassed in other packages, you can avoid these questions entirely by writing methods that *only* use exported functions from your package, so that all the methods will work from another package that imports yours.

Reference Class Generators

The call to `setRefClass` defines the specified class and returns a “generator function” object for that class. This object has class “refObjectGenerator”; it inherits from “function” via “classGeneratorFunction” and can be called to generate new objects from the reference class.

The returned object is also a reference class object, although not of the standard construction. It can be used to invoke reference methods and access fields in the usual way, but instead of being implemented directly as an environment it has a subsidiary generator object as a slot, a standard reference object (of class “refGeneratorSlot”). Note that if one wanted to extend the reference class generator capability with a subclass, this should be done by subclassing “refGeneratorSlot”, not “refObjectGenerator”.

The fields are `def`, the class definition, and `className`, the character string name of the class. Methods generate objects from the class, to access help on reference methods, and to define new reference methods for the class. The currently available methods are:

`$new(...)` This method is equivalent to calling the generator function returned by `setRefClass`.

`$help(topic)` Prints brief help on the topic. The topics recognized are reference method names, quoted or not.

The information printed is the calling sequence for the method, plus self-documentation if any. Reference methods can have an initial character string or vector as the first element in the body of the function defining the method. If so, this string is taken as self-documentation for the method (see the section on “Writing Reference Methods” for details).

If no topic is given or if the topic is not a method name, the definition of the class is printed.

`$methods(...)` With no arguments, returns the names of the reference methods for this class. With one character string argument, returns the method of that name.

Named arguments are method definitions, which will be installed in the class, as if they had been supplied in the methods argument to `setRefClass()`. Supplying methods in this way, rather than in the call to `setRefClass()`, is recommended for the sake of clearer source code. See the section on “Writing Reference Methods” for details.

All methods for a class should be defined in the source code that defines the class, typically as part of a package. In particular, methods can not be redefined in a class in an attached package with a namespace: The class method checks for a locked binding of the class definition.

The new methods can refer to any currently defined method by name (including other methods supplied in this call to `$methods()`). Note though that previously defined methods are not re-analyzed meaning that they will not call the new method (unless it redefines an existing method of the same name).

To remove a method, supply NULL as its new definition.

`$fields()` Returns a list of the fields, each with its corresponding class. Fields for which an accessor function was supplied in the definition have class “activeBindingFunction”.

`$lock(...)` The fields named in the arguments are locked; specifically, after the lock method is called, the field may be set once. Any further attempt to set it will generate an error.

If called with no arguments, the method returns the names of the locked fields.

Fields that are defined by an explicit accessor function can not be locked (on the other hand, the accessor function can be defined to generate an error if called with an argument).

All code to lock fields should normally be part of the definition of a class; that is, the read-only nature of the fields is meant to be part of the class definition, not a dynamic property added later. In particular, fields can not be locked in a class in an attached package with a namespace: The class method checks for a locked binding of the class definition. Locked fields can not be subsequently unlocked.

`$trace(what, ..., classMethod = FALSE)` Establish a traced version of method `what` for objects generated from this class. The generator object tracing works like the `$trace()` method for objects from the class, with two differences. Since it changes the method definition in the class object itself, tracing applies to all objects, not just the one on which the trace method is invoked.

Second, the optional argument `classMethod = TRUE` allows tracing on the methods of the generator object itself. By default, `what` is interpreted as the name of a method in the class for which this object is the generator.

`$accessors(...)` A number of systems using the OOP programming paradigm recommend or enforce *getter and setter methods* corresponding to each field, rather than direct access by name. If you like this style and want to extract a field named `abc` by `x$getAbc()` and assign it by `x$setAbc(value)`, the `$accessors` method is a convenience function that creates such getter and setter methods for the specified fields. Otherwise there is no reason to use this mechanism. In particular, it has nothing to do with the general ability to define fields by functions as described in the section on “Reference Objects”.

Implementation

Reference classes are implemented as S4 classes with a data part of type "environment". Fields correspond to named objects in the environment. A field associated with a function is implemented as an [active binding](#). In particular, fields with a specified class are implemented as a special form of active binding to enforce valid assignment to the field. A field, say data, can be accessed generally by an expression of the form `x$data` for any object from the relevant class. In a method for this class, the field can be accessed by the name data. A field that is not locked can be set by an expression of the form `x$data <- value`. Inside a method, a field can be assigned by an expression of the form `x <<- value`. Note the [non-local assignment](#) operator. The standard R interpretation of this operator works to assign it in the environment of the object. If the field has an accessor function defined, getting and setting will call that function.

When a method is invoked on an object, the function defining the method is installed in the object's environment, with the same environment as the environment of the function.

Because of the implementation, new reference classes can inherit from non-reference S4 classes as well as reference classes. This is usually a bad idea, if the slots from the non-reference class are thought of as alternatives to fields. Unless there is some special argument in favor, mixing the functional and reference paradigms for properties of the same object is conceptually unclear. In addition, the initialization method for the class will have to sort out fields from slots, with a good chance of creating anomalous behavior for subclasses of this class. Better in general to define fields analogous to the slots in the S4 class, and to initialize those from an S4 object of that class.

Inter-System Interfaces

A number of languages use a similar reference-based programming model with classes and class-based methods. Aside from differences in choice of terminology and other details, many of these languages are compatible with the programming style described here. R interfaces to the languages exist in a number of packages.

The reference class definitions here provide a hook for classes in the foreign language to be exposed in R. Access to fields and/or methods in the class can be implemented by defining an R reference class corresponding to classes made available through the interface. Typically, the inter-system interface will take care of the details of creating the R class, given a description of the foreign class (what fields and methods it has, the classes for the fields, whether any are read-only, etc.) The specifics for the fields and methods can be implemented via reference methods for the R class. In particular, the use of active bindings allows field access for getting and setting, with actual access handled by the inter-system interface.

R methods and/or fields can be included in the class definition as for any reference class. The methods can use or set fields and can call other methods transparently whether the field or method comes from the interface or is defined directly in R.

For an inter-system interface using this approach, see the code for package Rcpp, version 0.8.7 or later.

Debugging

The standard R debugging and tracing facilities can be applied to reference methods. Reference methods can be passed to [debug](#) and its relatives from an object to debug further method invocations on that object; for example, `debug(xx$edit)`.

Somewhat more flexible use is available for a reference method version of the `trace` function. A corresponding `$trace()` reference method is available for either an object or for the reference class generator (`xx$trace()` or `mEdit$trace()` in the example below). Using `$trace()` on an object sets up a tracing version for future invocations of the specified method for that object. Using `$trace()` on the generator for the class sets up a tracing version for all future objects from that class (and sometimes for existing objects from the class if the method is not declared or previously invoked).

In either case, all the arguments to the standard `trace` function are available, except for `signature=` which is meaningless since reference methods can not be S4 generic functions. This includes the typical style `trace(what, browser)` for interactive debugging and `trace(what, edit = TRUE)` to edit the reference method interactively.

Author(s)

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Examples

```
## a simple editor for matrix objects. Method $edit() changes some
## range of values; method $undo() undoes the last edit.
mEdit <- setRefClass("mEdit",
  fields = list( data = "matrix",
    edits = "list"),
  methods = list(
    edit = function(i, j, value) {
      ## the following string documents the edit method
      'Replaces the range [i, j] of the
      object by value.
      '
      backup <-
        list(i, j, data[i,j])
      data[i,j] <- value
      edits <- c(edits, list(backup))
      invisible(value)
    },
    undo = function() {
      'Undoes the last edit() operation
      and update the edits field accordingly.
      '
      prev <- edits
      if(length(prev)) prev <- prev[[length(prev)]]
      else stop("No more edits to undo")
      edit(prev[[1]], prev[[2]], prev[[3]])
      ## trim the edits list
      length(edits) <- length(edits) - 2
      invisible(prev)
    },
    show = function() {
      'Method for automatically printing matrix editors'
      cat("Reference matrix editor object of class",
        classLabel(class(.self)), "\n")
    }
  )
}
```

```

        cat("Data: \n")
        methods::show(data)
        cat("Undo list is of length", length(edits), "\n")
    }
    ))

xMat <- matrix(1:12,4,3)
xx <- mEdit(data = xMat)
xx$edit(2, 2, 0)
xx
xx$undo()
mEdit$help("undo")
stopifnot(all.equal(xx$data, xMat))

utils::str(xx) # show fields and names of non-trivial methods

## add a method to save the object
mEdit$methods(
  save = function(file) {
    'Save the current object on the file
    in R external object format.
    '
    base::save(.self, file = file)
  }
)

tf <- tempfile()
xx$save(tf)

## Not run:
## Inheriting a reference class: a matrix viewer
mv <- setRefClass("matrixViewer",
  fields = c("viewerDevice", "viewerFile"),
  contains = "mEdit",
  methods = list( view = function() {
    dd <- dev.cur(); dev.set(viewerDevice)
    devAskNewPage(FALSE)
    matplot(data, main = paste("After",length(edits),"edits"))
    dev.set(dd)},
    edit = # invoke previous method, then replot
    function(i, j, value) {
      callSuper(i, j, value)
      view()
    })

## initialize and finalize methods
mv$methods( initialize =
  function(file = "./matrixView.pdf", ...) {
    viewerFile <- file
    pdf(viewerFile)
    viewerDevice <- dev.cur()
    dev.set(dev.prev())

```

```

        callSuper(...)
    },
    finalize = function() {
        dev.off(viewerDevice)
    })

## debugging an object: call browser() in method $edit()
xx$trace(edit, browser)

## debugging all objects from class mEdit in method $undo()
mEdit$trace(undo, browser)

## End(Not run)

```

representation

Construct a Representation or a Prototype for a Class Definition

Description

These are old utility functions to construct, respectively a list designed to represent the slots and superclasses and a list of prototype specifications. The `representation()` function is no longer useful, since the arguments `slots` and `contains` to `setClass` are now recommended.

The `prototype()` function may still be used for the corresponding argument, but a simple list of the same arguments works as well.

Usage

```

representation(...)
prototype(...)

```

Arguments

... The call to `representation` takes arguments that are single character strings. Unnamed arguments are classes that a newly defined class extends; named arguments name the explicit slots in the new class, and specify what class each slot should have.

In the call to `prototype`, if an unnamed argument is supplied, it unconditionally forms the basis for the prototype object. Remaining arguments are taken to correspond to slots of this object. It is an error to supply more than one unnamed argument.

Details

The `representation` function applies tests for the validity of the arguments. Each must specify the name of a class.

The classes named don't have to exist when `representation` is called, but if they do, then the function will check for any duplicate slot names introduced by each of the inherited classes.

The arguments to `prototype` are usually named initial values for slots, plus an optional first argument that gives the object itself. The unnamed argument is typically useful if there is a data part to the definition (see the examples below).

Value

The value of representation is just the list of arguments, after these have been checked for validity.

The value of `prototype` is the object to be used as the prototype. Slots will have been set consistently with the arguments, but the construction does *not* use the class definition to test validity of the contents (it hardly can, since the prototype object is usually supplied to create the definition).

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[setClass](#)

Examples

```
## representation for a new class with a directly define slot "smooth"
## which should be a "numeric" object, and extending class "track"
representation("track", smooth ="numeric")
```

```
setClass("Character",representation("character"))
setClass("TypedCharacter",representation("Character",type="character"),
        prototype(character(0),type="plain"))
ttt <- new("TypedCharacter", "foo", type = "character")
```

```
setClass("num1", representation(comment = "character"),
        contains = "numeric",
        prototype = prototype(pi, comment = "Start with pi"))
```

Description

Old-style (S3) classes may be registered as S4 classes (by calling [setOldClass](#), and many have been. These classes can then be contained in (that is, superclasses of) regular S4 classes, allowing formal methods and slots to be added to the S3 behavior. The function `S3Part` extracts or replaces the S3 part of such an object. `S3Class` extracts or replaces the S3-style class. `S3Class` also applies to object from an S4 class with `S3methods=TRUE` in the call to [setClass](#).

See the details below. Also discussed are S3 <-> S4 coercion; see the section “S3 and S4 objects”

Usage

```
S3Part(object, strictS3 = FALSE, S3Class)

S3Part(object, strictS3 = FALSE, needClass = ) <- value

S3Class(object)

S3Class(object) <- value

isXS3Class(classDef)

slotsFromS3(object)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	An object from some class that extends a registered S3 class, usually because the class has as one of its superclasses an S3 class registered by a call to setOldClass , or from a class that extends a basic vector, matrix or array object type. See the details. For most of the functions, an S3 object can also be supplied, with the interpretation that it is its own S3 part.
<code>strictS3</code>	If TRUE, the value returned by <code>S3Part</code> will be an S3 object, with all the S4 slots removed. Otherwise, an S4 object will always be returned; for example, from the S4 class created by setOldClass as a proxy for an S3 class, rather than the underlying S3 object.
<code>S3Class</code>	The character vector to be stored as the S3 class slot in the object. Usually, and by default, retains the slot from object.
<code>needClass</code>	Require that the replacement value be this class or a subclass of it.
<code>value</code>	For <code>S3Part<-</code> , the replacement value for the S3 part of the object. This does <i>not</i> need to be an S4 object; in fact, the usual way to create objects from these classes is by giving an S3 object of the right class as an argument to new . For <code>S3Class<-</code> , the character vector that will be used as a proxy for <code>class(x)</code> in S3 method dispatch. This replacement function can be used to control S3 per-object method selection.
<code>classDef</code>	A class definition object, as returned by getClass .

Details

Classes that register S3 classes by a call to `setOldClass` have slot `".S3Class"` to hold the corresponding S3 vector of class strings. The prototype of such a class has the value for this slot determined by the argument to `setOldClass`. Other S4 classes will have the same slot if the argument `S3methods = TRUE` is supplied to `setClass`; in this case, the slot is set to the S4 inheritance of the class.

New S4 classes that extend (contain) such classes also have the same slot, and by default the prototype has the value determined by the `contains=` argument to `setClass`. Individual objects from the S4 class may have an S3 class corresponding to the value in the prototype or to an (S3) subclass of that value. See the examples below.

`S3Part()` with `strictS3 = TRUE` constructs the underlying S3 object by eliminating all the formally defined slots and turning off the S4 bit of the object. With `strictS3 = FALSE` the object returned is from the corresponding S4 class. For consistency and generality, `S3Part()` works also for classes that extend the basic vector, matrix and array classes. Since R is somewhat arbitrary about what it treats as an S3 class ("`ts`" is, but "`matrix`" is not), `S3Part()` tries to return an S3 (that is, non-S4) object whenever the S4 class has a suitable superclass, of either S3 or basic object type.

One general application that relies on this generality is to use `S3Part()` to get a superclass object that is guaranteed not to be an S4 object. If you are calling some function that checks for S4 objects, you need to be careful not to end up in a closed loop (`fooS4` calls `fooS3`, which checks for an S4 object and calls `fooS4` again, maybe indirectly). Using `S3Part()` with `strictS3 = TRUE` is a mechanism to avoid such loops.

Because the contents of S3 class objects have no definition or guarantee, the computations involving S3 parts do *not* check for slot validity. Slots are implemented internally in R as attributes, which are copied when present in the S3 part. Grave problems can occur if an S4 class extending an S3 class uses the name of an S3 attribute as the name of an S4 slot, and S3 code sets the attribute to an object from an invalid class according to the S4 definition.

Frequently, `S3Part` can and should be avoided by simply coercing objects to the desired class; methods are automatically defined to deal correctly with the slots when `as` is called to extract or replace superclass objects.

The function `slotsFromS3()` is a generic function used internally to access the slots associated with the S3 part of the object. Methods for this function are created automatically when `setOldClass` is called with the `S4Class` argument. Usually, there is only one S3 slot, containing the S3 class, but the `S4Class` argument may provide additional slots, in the case that the S3 class has some guaranteed attributes that can be used as formal S4 slots. See the corresponding section in the documentation of `setOldClass`.

Value

S3Part: Returns or sets the S3 information (and possibly some S4 slots as well, depending on arguments `S3Class` and `keepSlots`). See the discussion of argument `strict` above. If it is `TRUE` the value returned is an S3 object.

S3Class: Returns or sets the character vector of S3 class(es) stored in the object, if the class has the corresponding `.S3Class` slot. Currently, the function defaults to `class` otherwise.

isXS3Class: Returns `TRUE` or `FALSE` according to whether the class defined by `ClassDef` extends S3 classes (specifically, whether it has the slot for holding the S3 class).

slotsFromS3: returns a list of the relevant slot classes, or an empty list for any other object.

S3 and S4 Objects: Conversion Mechanisms

Objects in R have an internal bit that indicates whether or not to treat the object as coming from an S4 class. This bit is tested by `isS4` and can be set on or off by `asS4`. The latter function, however, does no checking or interpretation; you should only use it if you are very certain every detail has been handled correctly.

As a friendlier alternative, methods have been defined for coercing to the virtual classes "S3" and "S4". The expressions `as(object, "S3")` and `as(object, "S4")` return S3 and S4 objects, respectively. In addition, they attempt to do conversions in a valid way, and also check validity when coercing to S4.

The expression `as(object, "S3")` can be used in two ways. For objects from one of the registered S3 classes, the expression will ensure that the class attribute is the full multi-string S3 class implied by `class(object)`. If the registered class has known attribute/slots, these will also be provided.

Another use of `as(object, "S3")` is to take an S4 object and turn it into an S3 object with corresponding attributes. This is only meaningful with S4 classes that have a data part. If you want to operate on the object without invoking S4 methods, this conversion is usually the safest way.

The expression `as(object, "S4")` will use the attributes in the object to create an object from the S4 definition of `class(object)`. This is a general mechanism to create partially defined version of S4 objects via S3 computations (not much different from invoking `new` with corresponding arguments, but usable in this form even if the S4 object has an initialize method with different arguments).

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version).

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[setOldClass](#)

Examples

```
## two examples extending S3 class "lm", class "xlm" directly
## and "ylm" indirectly
setClass("xlm", representation(eps = "numeric"), contains = "lm")
setClass("ylm", representation(header = "character"), contains = "xlm")

## lm.D9 is as computed in the example for stats::lm
y1 = new("ylm", lm.D9, header = "test", eps = .1)
xx = new("xlm", lm.D9, eps = .1)
y2 = new("ylm", xx, header = "test")
stopifnot(inherits(y2, "lm"))
stopifnot(identical(y1, y2))
stopifnot(identical(S3Part(y1, strict = TRUE), lm.D9))
```

```
## note the these classes can insert an S3 subclass of "lm" as the S3 part:
myData <- data.frame(time = 1:10, y = (1:10)^.5)
myLm <- lm(cbind(y, y^3) ~ time, myData) # S3 class: c("mlm", "lm")
ym1 = new("ylm", myLm, header = "Example", eps = 0.)

##similar classes to "xlm" and "ylm", but extending S3 class c("mlm", "lm")
setClass("xmm", representation(eps = "numeric"), contains = "mlm")
setClass("ymm", representation(header="character"), contains = "xmm")

ym2 <- new("ymm", myLm, header = "Example2", eps = .001)

# but for class "ymm", an S3 part of class "lm" is an error:
try(new("ymm", lm.D9, header = "Example2", eps = .001))

setClass("dataFramed", representation(date = "Date"),
        contains = "data.frame")
myDD <- new("dataFramed", myData, date = Sys.Date())

## S3Part() applied to classes with a data part (.Data slot)

setClass("NumX", contains="numeric", representation(id="character"))
nn = new("NumX", 1:10, id="test")
stopifnot(identical(1:10, S3Part(nn, strict = TRUE)))

m1 = cbind(group, weight)
setClass("MatX", contains = "matrix", representation(date = "Date"))
mx1 = new("MatX", m1, date = Sys.Date())
stopifnot(identical(m1, S3Part(mx1, strict = TRUE)))
```

S4groupGeneric

S4 Group Generic Functions

Description

Methods can be defined for *group generic functions*. Each group generic function has a number of *member* generic functions associated with it.

Methods defined for a group generic function cause the same method to be defined for each member of the group, but a method explicitly defined for a member of the group takes precedence over a method defined, with the same signature, for the group generic.

The functions shown in this documentation page all reside in the **methods** package, but the mechanism is available to any programmer, by calling [setGroupGeneric](#) (provided package **methods** is attached).

Usage

```
## S4 group generics:
Arith(e1, e2)
```



```

Compare(e1, e2)
Ops(e1, e2)
Logic(e1, e2)
Math(x)
Math2(x, digits)
Summary(x, ..., na.rm = FALSE)
Complex(z)

```

Arguments

<code>x, z, e1, e2</code>	objects.
<code>digits</code>	number of digits to be used in round or signif.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from methods.
<code>na.rm</code>	logical: should missing values be removed?

Details

Methods can be defined for the group generic functions by calls to [setMethod](#) in the usual way. Note that the group generic functions should never be called directly – a suitable error message will result if they are. When metadata for a group generic is loaded, the methods defined become methods for the members of the group, but only if no method has been specified directly for the member function for the same signature. The effect is that group generic definitions are selected before inherited methods but after directly specified methods. For more on method selection, see [Methods](#).

There are also S3 groups Math, Ops, Summary and Complex, see [?S3groupGeneric](#), with no corresponding R objects, but these are irrelevant for S4 group generic functions.

The members of the group defined by a particular generic can be obtained by calling [getGroupMembers](#). For the group generic functions currently defined in this package the members are as follows:

```

Arith "+", "-", "*", "^", "%%", "%/%", "/"
Compare "==", ">", "<", "!=", "<=", ">="
Logic "&", "|".
Ops "Arith", "Compare", "Logic"
Math "abs", "sign", "sqrt", "ceiling", "floor", "trunc", "cummax", "cummin", "cumprod",
    "cumsum", "log", "log10", "log2", "log1p", "acos", "acosh", "asin", "asinh", "atan",
    "atanh", "exp", "expm1", "cos", "cosh", "cospi", "sin", "sinh", "sinpi", "tan",
    "tanh", "tanpi", "gamma", "lgamma", "digamma", "trigamma"
Math2 "round", "signif"
Summary "max", "min", "range", "prod", "sum", "any", "all"
Complex "Arg", "Conj", "Im", "Mod", "Re"

```

Note that Ops merely consists of three sub groups.

All the functions in these groups (other than the group generics themselves) are basic functions in R. They are not by default S4 generic functions, and many of them are defined as primitives. However, you can still define formal methods for them, both individually and via the group generics. It all

works more or less as you might expect, admittedly via a bit of trickery in the background. See [Methods](#) for details.

Note that two members of the Math group, [log](#) and [trunc](#), have ... as an extra formal argument. Since methods for Math will have only one formal argument, you must set a specific method for these functions in order to call them with the extra argument(s).

For further details about group generic functions see section 10.5 of *Software for Data Analysis*.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version).

See Also

The function [callGeneric](#) is nearly always relevant when writing a method for a group generic. See the examples below and in section 10.5 of *Software for Data Analysis*.

See [S3groupGeneric](#) for S3 group generics.

Examples

```
setClass("testComplex", representation(zz = "complex"))
## method for whole group "Complex"
setMethod("Complex", "testComplex",
  function(z) c("groupMethod", callGeneric(z@zz)))
## exception for Arg() :
setMethod("Arg", "testComplex",
  function(z) c("ArgMethod", Arg(z@zz)))
z1 <- 1+2i
z2 <- new("testComplex", zz = z1)
stopifnot(identical(Mod(z2), c("groupMethod", Mod(z1))))
stopifnot(identical(Arg(z2), c("ArgMethod", Arg(z1))))
```

SClassExtension-class *Class to Represent Inheritance (Extension) Relations*

Description

An object from this class represents a single 'is' relationship; lists of these objects are used to represent all the extensions (superclasses) and subclasses for a given class. The object contains information about how the relation is defined and methods to coerce, test, and replace correspondingly.

Objects from the Class

Objects from this class are generated by [setIs](#), from direct calls and from the contains= information in a call to [setClass](#), and from class unions created by [setClassUnion](#). In the last case, the information is stored in defining the *subclasses* of the union class (allowing unions to contain sealed classes).

Slots

subClass, superClass: The classes being extended: corresponding to the `from`, and to arguments to `setIs`.

package: The package to which that class belongs.

coerce: A function to carry out the `as()` computation implied by the relation. Note that these functions should *not* be used directly. They only deal with the `strict=TRUE` calls to the `as` function, with the full method constructed from this mechanically.

test: The function that would test whether the relation holds. Except for explicitly specified test arguments to `setIs`, this function is trivial.

replace: The method used to implement `as(x, Class) <- value`.

simple: A "logical" flag, TRUE if this is a simple relation, either because one class is contained in the definition of another, or because a class has been explicitly stated to extend a virtual class. For simple extensions, the three methods are generated automatically.

by: If this relation has been constructed transitively, the first intermediate class from the subclass.

dataPart: A "logical" flag, TRUE if the extended class is in fact the data part of the subclass. In this case the extended class is a basic class (i.e., a type).

distance: The distance between the two classes, 1 for directly contained classes, plus the number of generations between otherwise.

Methods

No methods defined with class "SClassExtension" in the signature.

See Also

`is`, `as`, and the `classRepresentation` class.

selectSuperClasses	<i>Super Classes (of Specific Kinds) of a Class</i>
--------------------	---

Description

Return superclasses of `ClassDef`, possibly only non-virtual or direct or simple ones.

These functions are designed to be fast, and consequently only work with the `contains` slot of the corresponding class definitions.

Usage

```
selectSuperClasses(Class, dropVirtual = FALSE, namesOnly = TRUE,
                    directOnly = TRUE, simpleOnly = directOnly,
                    where = topenv(parent.frame()))
```

```
.selectSuperClasses(ext, dropVirtual = FALSE, namesOnly = TRUE,
                    directOnly = TRUE, simpleOnly = directOnly)
```

Arguments

Class	name of the class or (more efficiently) the class definition object (see getClass).
dropVirtual	logical indicating if only non-virtual superclasses should be returned.
namesOnly	logical indicating if only a vector names instead of a named list class-extensions should be returned.
directOnly	logical indicating if only a <i>direct</i> super classes should be returned.
simpleOnly	logical indicating if only simple class extensions should be returned.
where	(only used when Class is not a class definition) environment where the class definition of Class is found.
ext	for <code>.selectSuperClasses()</code> only, a list of class extensions, typically <code>getClassDef(..)@contains</code> .

Value

a [character](#) vector (if namesOnly is true, as per default) or a list of class extensions (as the contains slot in the result of [getClass](#)).

Note

The typical user level function is `selectSuperClasses()` which calls `.selectSuperClasses()`; i.e., the latter should only be used for efficiency reasons by experienced useRs.

See Also

[is](#), [getClass](#); further, the more technical class [classRepresentation](#) documentation.

Examples

```
setClass("Root")
setClass("Base", contains = "Root", representation(length = "integer"))
setClass("A", contains = "Base", representation(x = "numeric"))
setClass("B", contains = "Base", representation(y = "character"))
setClass("C", contains = c("A", "B"))

extends("C") #--> "C" "A" "B" "Base" "Root"
selectSuperClasses("C") # "A" "B"
selectSuperClasses("C", direct=FALSE) # "A" "B" "Base" "Root"
selectSuperClasses("C", dropVirt = TRUE, direct=FALSE)# ditto w/o "Root"
```

setClass

Create a Class Definition

Description

Create a class definition, specifying the representation (the slots) and/or the classes contained in this one (the superclasses), plus other optional details. As a side effect, the class definition is stored in the specified environment. A generator function is returned as the value of `setClass()`, suitable for creating objects from the class if the class is not virtual. Of the many arguments to the function only `Class`, `slots=` and `contains=` are usually needed.

Usage

```
setClass(Class, representation, prototype, contains=character(),
         validity, access, where, version, sealed, package,
         S3methods = FALSE, slots)
```

Arguments

<code>Class</code>	character string name for the class.
<code>slots</code>	<p>a named list or named character vector. The names are the names of the slots in the new class and the elements are the character string names of the corresponding classes.</p> <p>In rare cases where there is ambiguity about the class of a slot, because two classes of the same name are imported from different packages, the corresponding element of the argument must have a "package" attribute to disambiguate the choice.</p> <p>It is allowed to provide an unnamed character vector as a limiting case, with the elements taken as slot names and all slots having the unrestricted class "ANY".</p>
<code>contains</code>	the names (and optionally package slots) for the <i>superclasses</i> of this class. The special superclass "VIRTUAL" causes the new class to be created as a virtual class; see the section on virtual classes in Classes .
<code>prototype</code>	an object providing the default data for the slots in this class. By default, each will be the prototype object for the superclass. If provided, using a call to prototype will carry out some checks.
<code>where</code>	the environment in which to store the definition. Should not be supplied in standard use. For calls to <code>setClass()</code> appearing in the source code for a package, will default to the namespace of the package. For calls typed or sourced at the top level in a session, will default to the global environment.
<code>validity</code>	if supplied, should be a validity-checking method for objects from this class (a function that returns TRUE if its argument is a valid object of this class and one or more strings describing the failures otherwise). See validObject for details.
<code>S3methods</code> , <code>representation</code> , <code>access</code> , <code>version</code>	All these arguments are deprecated from version 3.0.0 of R and should be avoided.

S3methods is a flag indicating that old-style methods will be written involving this class. Modern versions of R attempt to match formal and old-style methods consistently, so this argument is largely irrelevant.

representation is an argument inherited from S that included both slots and contains, but the use of the latter two arguments is clearer and recommended.

access and version are included for historical compatibility with S-Plus, but ignored.

sealed	if TRUE, the class definition will be sealed, so that another call to setClass will fail on this class name.
package	an optional package name for the class. Should very rarely be used. By default the name of the package in which the class definition is assigned.

Value

A generator function suitable for creating objects from the class is returned, invisibly. A call to this function generates a call to [new](#) for the class. The call takes any number of arguments, which will be passed on to the initialize method. If no initialize method is defined for the class or one of its superclasses, the default method expects named arguments with the name of one of the slots.

Typically the generator function is assigned the name of the class, for programming clarity. This is not a requirement and objects from the class can also be generated directly from [new](#). The advantages of the generator function are a slightly simpler and clearer call, and that the call will contain the package name of the class (eliminating any ambiguity if two classes from different packages have the same name).

If the class is virtual, an attempt to generate an object from either the generator or `new()` will result in an error.

Basic Use: Slots and Inheritance

The two essential arguments other than the class name are `slots` and `contains`, defining the explicit slots and the inheritance (superclasses). Together, these arguments define all the information in an object from this class; that is, the names of all the slots and the classes required for each of them.

The name of the class determines which methods apply directly to objects from this class. The inheritance information specifies which methods apply indirectly, through inheritance. See [Methods](#).

The slots in a class definition will be the union of all the slots specified directly by `slots` and all the slots in all the contained classes. There can only be one slot with a given name; specifically, the direct and inherited slot names must be unique. That does not, however, prevent the same class from being inherited via more than one path.

One kind of element in the `contains=` argument is `special`, specifying one of the R object types or one of a few other special R types (`matrix` and `array`). See the section on inheriting from object types, below.

Slot names `"class"` and `"Class"` are not allowed. There are other slot names with a special meaning; these names start with the `"."` character. To be safe, you should define all of your own slots with names starting with an alphabetic character.

Inheriting from Object Types

In addition to containing other S4 classes, a class definition can contain either an S3 class (see the next section) or a built-in R pseudo-class—one of the R object types or one of the special R pseudo-classes "matrix" and "array". A class can contain at most one of the object types, directly or indirectly. When it does, that contained class determines the "data part" of the class.

Objects from the new class try to inherit the built in behavior of the contained type. In the case of normal R data types, including vectors, functions and expressions, the implementation is relatively straightforward. For any object *x* from the class, `typeof(x)` will be the contained basic type; and a special pseudo-slot, `.Data`, will be shown with the corresponding class. See the "numWithId" example below.

Classes may also inherit from "vector", "matrix" or "array". The data part of these objects can be any vector data type.

For an object from any class that does *not* contain one of these types or classes, `typeof(x)` will be "S4".

Some R data types do not behave normally, in the sense that they are non-local references or other objects that are not duplicated. Examples include those corresponding to classes "environment", "externalptr", and "name". These can not be the types for objects with user-defined classes (either S4 or S3) because setting an attribute overwrites the object in all contexts. It is possible to define a class that inherits from such types, through an indirect mechanism that stores the inherited object in a reserved slot. See the example for class "stampedEnv" below. S3 method dispatch and the relevant `as.type()` functions should behave correctly, but code that uses the type of the object directly will not.

Also, keep in mind that the object passed to low-level computations will be the underlying object type, *without* any of the slots defined in the class. To return the full information, you will usually have to define a method that sets the data part.

Inheriting from S3 Classes

Old-style S3 classes have no formal definition. Objects are "from" the class when their class attribute contains the character string considered to be the class name.

Using such classes with formal classes and methods is necessarily a risky business, since there are no guarantees about the content of the objects or about consistency of inherited methods. Given that, it is still possible to define a class that inherits from an S3 class, providing that class has been registered as an old class (see [setOldClass](#)).

Broadly speaking, both S3 and S4 method dispatch try to behave sensibly with respect to inheritance in either system. Given an S4 object, S3 method dispatch and the `inherits` function should use the S4 inheritance information. Given an S3 object, an S4 generic function will dispatch S4 methods using the S3 inheritance, provided that inheritance has been declared via [setOldClass](#).

Classes and Packages

Class definitions normally belong to packages (but can be defined in the global environment as well, by evaluating the expression on the command line or in a file sourced from the command line). The corresponding package name is part of the class definition; that is, part of the `classRepresentation` object holding that definition. Thus, two classes with the same name can exist in different packages, for most purposes.

When a class name is supplied for a slot or a superclass in a call to `setClass`, a corresponding class definition will be found, looking from the namespace of the current package, assuming the call in question appears directly in the source for the package, as it should to avoid ambiguity. The class definition must be found in the namespace of the current package, in the imports for that namespace or in the basic classes defined by the methods package. (The methods package must be included in the Depends directive of the package's "DESCRIPTION" file in order for the "CMD check" utility to find these classes.)

When this rule does not identify a class uniquely (because it appears in more than one imported package) then the `packageSlot` of the character string name needs to be supplied with the name. This should be a rare occurrence.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[Classes](#) for a general discussion of classes, [Methods](#) for an analogous discussion of methods, [makeClassRepresentation](#)

Examples

```
## A simple class with two slots
track <- setClass("track",
  slots = c(x="numeric", y="numeric"))
## an object from the class
t1 <- track(x = 1:10, y = 1:10 + rnorm(10))

## A class extending the previous, adding one more slot
trackCurve <- setClass("trackCurve",
  slots = c(smooth = "numeric"),
  contains = "track")

## an object containing a superclass object
t1s <- trackCurve(t1, smooth = 1:10)

## A class similar to "trackCurve", but with different structure
## allowing matrices for the "y" and "smooth" slots
setClass("trackMultiCurve",
  slots = c(x="numeric", y="matrix", smooth="matrix"),
  prototype = list(x=numeric(), y=matrix(0,0,0),
    smooth= matrix(0,0,0)))
## See ?setIs for further examples using these classes

## A class that extends the built-in data type "numeric"
numWithId <- setClass("numWithId", slots = c(id = "character"),
  contains = "numeric")
```



```

numWithId(1:3, id = "An Example")

## inherit from reference object of type "environment"
stampedEnv <- setClass("stampedEnv", contains = "environment",
  slots = c(update = "POSIXct"))
setMethod("[[<-", c("stampedEnv", "character", "missing"),
  function(x, i, j, ..., value) {
    ev <- as(x, "environment")
    ev[[i]] <- value #update the object in the environment
    x@update <- Sys.time() # and the update time
    x})

e1 <- stampedEnv(update = Sys.time())

e1[["noise"]] <- rnorm(10)

```

setClassUnion

Classes Defined as the Union of Other Classes

Description

A class may be defined as the *union* of other classes; that is, as a virtual class defined as a superclass of several other classes. Class unions are useful in method signatures or as slots in other classes, when we want to allow one of several classes to be supplied.

Usage

```

setClassUnion(name, members, where)
isClassUnion(Class)

```

Arguments

name	the name for the new union class.
members	the classes that should be members of this union.
where	where to save the new class definition; by default, the environment of the package in which the setClassUnion call appears, or the global environment if called outside of the source of a package.
Class	the name or definition of a class.

Details

The classes in `members` must be defined before creating the union. However, members can be added later on to an existing union, as shown in the example below. Class unions can be members of other class unions.

The prototype object in the class union definition will be `NULL` if class `"NULL"` is a member of the union and the prototype object of the first member class otherwise (as of version 2.15.0 of R; earlier versions had a `NULL` prototype even if that was not valid).

Class unions are the only way to create a class that is extended by a class whose definition is sealed (for example, the basic datatypes or other classes defined in the base or methods package in R are sealed). You cannot say `setIs("function", "other")` unless `"other"` is a class union. In general, a `setIs` call of this form changes the definition of the first class mentioned (adding `"other"` to the list of superclasses contained in the definition of `"function"`).

Class unions get around this by not modifying the first class definition, relying instead on storing information in the subclasses slot of the class union. In order for this technique to work, the internal computations for expressions such as `extends(class1, class2)` work differently for class unions than for regular classes; specifically, they test whether any class is in common between the superclasses of `class1` and the subclasses of `class2`.

The different behavior for class unions is made possible because the class definition object for class unions has itself a special class, `"ClassUnionRepresentation"`, an extension of class `classRepresentation`.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

Examples

```
## a class for either numeric or logical data
setClassUnion("maybeNumber", c("numeric", "logical"))

## use the union as the data part of another class
setClass("withId", representation("maybeNumber", id = "character"))

w1 <- new("withId", 1:10, id = "test 1")
w2 <- new("withId", sqrt(w1)%%1 < .01, id = "Perfect squares")

## add class "complex" to the union "maybeNumber"
setIs("complex", "maybeNumber")

w3 <- new("withId", complex(real = 1:10, imaginary = sqrt(1:10)))

## a class union containing the existing class union "OptionalFunction"
setClassUnion("maybeCode",
  c("expression", "language", "OptionalFunction"))

is(quote(sqrt(1:10)), "maybeCode") ## TRUE
```

setGeneric

Define a New Generic Function

Description

Create a new generic function of the given name, that is, a function that dispatches methods according to the classes of the arguments, from among the formal methods defined for this function.

Usage

```
setGeneric(name, def= , group=list(), valueClass=character(),
           where= , package= , signature= , useAsDefault= ,
           genericFunction= , simpleInheritanceOnly = )

setGroupGeneric(name, def= , group=list(), valueClass=character(),
               knownMembers=list(), package= , where= )
```

Arguments

name	The character string name of the generic function. The simplest (and recommended) call, <code>setGeneric(name)</code> , looks for a function with this name and creates a corresponding generic function, if the function found was not generic. In the latter case, the existing function becomes the default method.
def	<p>An optional function object, defining the generic. Don't supply this argument if you want to turn an existing non-generic function into a generic. In this case, you usually want to use the simple call with one argument.</p> <p>Do supply <code>def</code> if there is no current function of this name or for some reason you do not want to use that function to define the generic. In that case, the formal arguments and default values for the generic are taken from <code>def</code>. In most cases, the body of <code>def</code> will then define the default method, as the existing function did in the one-argument call.</p> <p>If you want to create a new generic function with <i>no</i> default method, then <code>def</code> should be only a call to <code>standardGeneric</code> with the same character string as <code>name</code>.</p>
group	Optionally, a character string giving the name of the group generic function to which this function belongs. See Methods for details of group generic functions in method selection.
valueClass	An optional character vector of one or more class names. The value returned by the generic function must have (or extend) this class, or one of the classes; otherwise, an error is generated.
package	The name of the package with which this function is associated. Usually determined automatically (as the package containing the non-generic version if there is one, or else the package where this generic is to be saved).

where	Where to store the resulting initial methods definition, and possibly the generic function; by default, stored into the top-level environment.
signature	<p>Optionally, the vector of names, from among the formal arguments to the function, that can appear in the signature of methods for this function, in calls to setMethod. If <code>...</code> is one of the formal arguments, it is treated specially. Starting with version 2.8.0 of R, <code>...</code> may be signature of the generic function. Methods will then be selected if their signature matches all the <code>...</code> arguments. See the documentation for topic dotsMethods for details. In the present version, it is not possible to mix <code>...</code> and other arguments in the signature (this restriction may be lifted in later versions).</p> <p>By default, the signature is inferred from the implicit generic function corresponding to a non-generic function. If no implicit generic function has been defined, the default is all the formal arguments except <code>...</code>, in the order they appear in the function definition. In the case that <code>...</code> is the only formal argument, that is also the default signature. To use <code>...</code> as the signature in a function that has any other arguments, you must supply the signature argument explicitly. See the “Implicit Generic” section below for more details.</p>
useAsDefault	Override the usual choice of default argument. Argument <code>useAsDefault</code> can be supplied, either as a function to use for the default, or as a logical value. This argument is now rarely needed. See the section ‘Details’.
simpleInheritanceOnly	Supply this argument as TRUE to require that methods selected be inherited through simple inheritance only; that is, from superclasses specified in the <code>contains=</code> argument to setClass , or by simple inheritance to a class union or other virtual class. Generic functions should require simple inheritance if they need to be assured that they get the complete original object, not one that has been transformed. Examples of functions requiring simple inheritance are initialize , because by definition it must return an object from the same class as its argument, and show , because it claims to give a full description of the object provided as its argument.
genericFunction	Don’t use; for (possible) internal use only.
knownMembers	(For <code>setGroupGeneric</code> only.) The names of functions that are known to be members of this group. This information is used to reset cached definitions of the member generics when information about the group generic is changed.

Value

The `setGeneric` function exists for its side effect: saving the generic function to allow methods to be specified later. It returns `name`.

Basic Use

The `setGeneric` function is called to initialize a generic function as preparation for defining some methods for that function.

The simplest and most common situation is that `name` is already an ordinary non-generic non-primitive function, and you now want to turn this function into a generic. In this case you will most often supply only `name`, for example:

```
setGeneric("colSums")
```

There must be an existing function of this name, on some attached package (in this case package "base"). A generic version of this function will be created in the current package (or in the global environment if the call to `setGeneric()` is from an ordinary source file or is entered on the command line). The existing function becomes the default method, and the package slot of the new generic function is set to the location of the original function ("base" in the example). It's an important feature that the same generic function definition is created each time, depending in the example only on the definition of `print` and where it is found. The signature of the generic function, defining which of the formal arguments can be used in specifying methods, is set by default to all the formal arguments except . . .

Note that calling `setGeneric()` in this form is not strictly necessary before calling `setMethod()` for the same function. If the function specified in the call to `setMethod` is not generic, `setMethod` will execute the call to `setGeneric` itself. Declaring explicitly that you want the function to be generic can be considered better programming style; the only difference in the result, however, is that not doing so produces a message noting the creation of the generic function.

You cannot (and never need to) create an explicit generic version of the primitive functions in the base package. Those which can be treated as generic functions have methods selected and dispatched from the internal C code, to satisfy concerns for efficiency, and the others cannot be made generic. See the section on Primitive Functions below.

The description above is the effect when the package that owns the non-generic function has not created an implicit generic version. Otherwise, it is this implicit generic function that is used. See the section on Implicit Generic Functions below. Either way, the essential result is that the *same* version of the generic function will be created each time.

The second common use of `setGeneric()` is to create a new generic function, unrelated to any existing function, and frequently having no default method. In this case, you need to supply a skeleton of the function definition, to define the arguments for the function. The body of a generic function is usually a standard form, `standardGeneric(name)` where `name` is the quoted name of the generic function. When calling `setGeneric` in this form, you would normally supply the `def` argument as a function of this form. See the second and third examples below.

The `useAsDefault` argument controls the default method for the new generic. If not told otherwise, `setGeneric` will try to find a non-generic version of the function to use as a default. So, if you do have a suitable default method, it is often simpler to first set this up as a non-generic function, and then use the one-argument call to `setGeneric` at the beginning of this section. See the first example in the Examples section below.

If you *don't* want the existing function to be taken as default, supply the argument `useAsDefault`. That argument can be the function you want to be the default method, or `FALSE` to force no default (i.e., to cause an error if there is no direct or inherited method selected for a call to the function).

Details

The great majority of calls to `setGeneric()` should either have one argument to ensure that an existing function can have methods, or arguments `name` and `def` to create a new generic function and optionally a default method. If that's not what you plan to do, read on.

If you want to change the behavior of an existing function (typically, one in another package) when you create a generic version, you must supply arguments to `setGeneric` correspondingly. Whatever changes are made, the new generic function will be assigned with a package slot set to the *current*

package, not the one in which the non-generic version of the function is found. This step is required because the version you are creating is no longer the same as that implied by the function in the other package. A message will be printed to indicate that this has taken place and noting one of the differences between the two functions. It tends to be a bad idea, because the two versions are now competing for methods, with many chances for mistakes in programming.

The body of a generic function usually does nothing except for dispatching methods by a call to `standardGeneric`. Under some circumstances you might just want to do some additional computation in the generic function itself. As long as your function eventually calls `standardGeneric` that is permissible (though perhaps not a good idea, in that it may make the behavior of your function less easy to understand). If your explicit definition of the generic function does *not* call `standardGeneric` you are in trouble, because none of the methods for the function will ever be dispatched.

By default, the generic function can return any object. If `valueClass` is supplied, it should be a vector of class names; the value returned by a method is then required to satisfy `is(object, Class)` for one of the specified classes. An empty (i.e., zero length) vector of classes means anything is allowed. Note that more complicated requirements on the result can be specified explicitly, by defining a non-standard generic function.

The `setGroupGeneric` function behaves like `setGeneric` except that it constructs a group generic function, differing in two ways from an ordinary generic function. First, this function cannot be called directly, and the body of the function created will contain a stop call with this information. Second, the group generic function contains information about the known members of the group, used to keep the members up to date when the group definition changes, through changes in the search list or direct specification of methods, etc.

Implicit Generic Functions

Saying that a non-generic function “is converted to a generic” is more precisely state that the function is converted to the corresponding *implicit* generic function. If no special action has been taken, any function corresponds implicitly to a generic function with the same arguments, in which all arguments other than `...` can be used. The signature of this generic function is the vector of formal arguments, in order, except for `...`.

The source code for a package can define an implicit generic function version of any function in that package (see [implicitGeneric](#) for the mechanism). You can not, generally, define an implicit generic function in someone else’s package. The usual reason for defining an implicit generic is to prevent certain arguments from appearing in the signature, which you must do if you want the arguments to be used literally or if you want to enforce lazy evaluation for any reason. An implicit generic can also contain some methods that you want to be predefined; in fact, the implicit generic can be any generic version of the non-generic function. The implicit generic mechanism can also be used to prohibit a generic version (see [prohibitGeneric](#)).

Whether defined or inferred automatically, the implicit generic will be compared with the generic function that `setGeneric` creates, when the implicit generic is in another package. If the two functions are identical, then the package slot of the created generic will have the name of the package containing the implicit generic. Otherwise, the slot will be the name of the package in which the generic is assigned.

The purpose of this rule is to ensure that all methods defined for a particular combination of generic function and package names correspond to a single, consistent version of the generic function.

Calling `setGeneric` with only `name` and possibly `package` as arguments guarantees getting the implicit generic version, if one exists.

Including any of the other arguments can force a new, local version of the generic function. If you don't want to create a new version, don't use the extra arguments.

Generic Functions and Primitive Functions

A number of the basic R functions are specially implemented as primitive functions, to be evaluated directly in the underlying C code rather than by evaluating an R language definition. Most have implicit generics (see [implicitGeneric](#)), and become generic as soon as methods (including group methods) are defined on them. Others cannot be made generic.

Even when methods are defined for such functions, the generic version is not visible on the search list, in order that the C version continues to be called. Method selection will be initiated in the C code. Note, however, that the result is to restrict methods for primitive functions to signatures in which at least one of the classes in the signature is a formal S4 class.

To see the generic version of a primitive function, use `getGeneric(name)`. The function `isGeneric` will tell you whether methods are defined for the function in the current session.

Note that S4 methods can only be set on those primitives which are 'internal generic', plus `%*%`.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[Methods](#) and the links there for a general discussion, [dotsMethods](#) for methods that dispatch on ..., and [setMethod](#) for method definitions.

Examples

```
## create a new generic function, with a default method
setGeneric("props", function(object) attributes(object))

## A new generic function with no default method
setGeneric("increment",
  function(object, step, ...)
    standardGeneric("increment")
)

### A non-standard generic function. It insists that the methods
### return a non-empty character vector (a stronger requirement than
### valueClass = "character" in the call to setGeneric)

setGeneric("authorNames",
```

```

function(text) {
  value <- standardGeneric("authorNames")
  if(!(is(value, "character") && any(nchar(value)>0)))
    stop("authorNames methods must return non-empty strings")
  value
})

## An example of group generic methods, using the class
## "track"; see the documentation of 'setClass' for its definition

## define a method for the Arith group

setMethod("Arith", c("track", "numeric"),
  function(e1, e2) {
    e1@y <- callGeneric(e1@y , e2)
    e1
  })

setMethod("Arith", c("numeric", "track"),
  function(e1, e2) {
    e2@y <- callGeneric(e1, e2@y)
    e2
  })

## now arithmetic operators will dispatch methods:

t1 <- new("track", x=1:10, y=sort(stats::rnorm(10)))

t1 - 100
1/t1

```

setLoadActions

Set Actions For Package Loading

Description

These functions provide a mechanism for packages to specify computations to be done during the loading of a package namespace. Such actions are a flexible way to provide information only available at load time (such as locations in a dynamically linked library).

A call to `setLoadAction()` or `setLoadActions()` specifies one or more functions to be called when the corresponding namespace is loaded, with the ... argument names being used as identifying names for the actions.

`getLoadActions` reports the currently defined load actions, given a package's namespace as its argument.

hasLoadAction returns TRUE if a load action corresponding to the given name has previously been set for the where namespace.

evalOnLoad() and evalqOnLoad() schedule a specific expression for evaluation at load time.

Usage

```
setLoadAction(action, aname=, where=)
```

```
setLoadActions(..., .where=)
```

```
getLoadActions(where=)
```

```
hasLoadAction(aname, where=)
```

```
evalOnLoad(expr, where=, aname=)
```

```
evalqOnLoad(expr, where=, aname=)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| action, ... | functions of one or more arguments, to be called when this package is loaded. The functions will be called with one argument (the package namespace) so all following arguments must have default values.
If the elements of ... are named, these names will be used for the corresponding load metadata. |
| where, .where | the namespace of the package for which the list of load actions are defined. This argument is normally omitted if the call comes from the source code for the package itself, but will be needed if a package supplies load actions for another package. |
| aname | the name for the action. If an action is set without supplying a name, the default uses the position in the sequence of actions specified (" . 1 ", etc.). |
| expr | an expression to be evaluated in a load action in environment where. In the case of evalqOnLoad(), the expression is interpreted literally, in that of evalOnLoad() it must be precomputed, typically as an object of type "language". |

Details

The evalOnLoad() and evalqOnLoad() functions are for convenience. They construct a function to evaluate the expression and call setLoadAction() to schedule a call to that function.

Each of the functions supplied as an argument to setLoadAction() or setLoadActions() is saved as metadata in the namespace, typically that of the package containing the call to setLoadActions(). When this package's namespace is loaded, each of these functions will be called. Action functions are called in the order they are supplied to setLoadActions(). The objects assigned have metadata names constructed from the names supplied in the call; unnamed arguments are taken to be named by their position in the list of actions (" . 1 ", etc.).

Multiple calls to `setLoadAction()` or `setLoadActions()` can be used in a package's code; the actions will be scheduled after any previously specified, except if the name given to `setLoadAction()` is that of an existing action. In typical applications, `setLoadActions()` is more convenient when calling from the package's own code to set several actions. Calls to `setLoadAction()` are more convenient if the action name is to be constructed, which is more typical when one package constructs load actions for another package.

Actions can be revised by assigning with the same name, actual or constructed, in a subsequent call. The replacement must still be a valid function, but can of course do nothing if the intention was to remove a previously specified action.

The functions must have at least one argument. They will be called with one argument, the namespace of the package. The functions will be called at the end of processing of S4 metadata, after dynamically linking any compiled code, the call to `.onLoad()`, if any, and caching method and class definitions, but before the namespace is sealed. (Load actions are only called if methods dispatch is on.)

Functions may therefore assign or modify objects in the namespace supplied as the argument in the call. The mechanism allows packages to save information not available until load time, such as values obtained from a dynamically linked library.

Load actions should be contrasted with user load hooks supplied by `setHook()`. User hooks are generally provided from outside the package and are run after the namespace has been sealed. Load actions are normally part of the package code, and the list of actions is normally established when the package is installed.

Load actions can be supplied directly in the source code for a package. It is also possible and useful to provide facilities in one package to create load actions in another package. The software needs to be careful to assign the action functions in the correct environment, namely the namespace of the target package.

Value

`setLoadAction()` and `setLoadActions()` are called for their side effect and return no useful value.

`getLoadActions()` returns a named list of the actions in the supplied namespace.

`hasLoadAction()` returns TRUE if the specified action name appears in the actions for this package.

See Also

[setHook](#) for safer (since they are run after the namespace is sealed) and more comprehensive versions in the base package.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## in the code for some package

## ... somewhere else
setLoadActions(function(ns)
  cat("Loaded package", sQuote(getNamespaceName(ns)),
    "at", format(Sys.time()), "\n"),
  setCount = function(ns) assign("myCount", 1, envir = ns),
```

```

function(ns) assign("myPointer", getMyExternalPointer(), envir = ns))
... somewhere later
if(countShouldBe0)
  setLoadAction(function(ns) assign("myCount", 0, envir = ns), "setCount")

## End(Not run)

```

setMethod

*Create and Save a Method***Description**

Create and save a formal method for a given function and list of classes.

Usage

```

setMethod(f, signature=character(), definition,
          where = topenv(parent.frame()),
          valueClass = NULL, sealed = FALSE)

```

```

removeMethod(f, signature, where)

```

Arguments

f	A generic function or the character-string name of the function.
signature	A match of formal argument names for f with the character-string names of corresponding classes. See the details below; however, if the signature is not trivial, you should use method.skeleton to generate a valid call to setMethod.
definition	A function definition, which will become the method called when the arguments in a call to f match the classes in signature, directly or through inheritance.
where	the environment in which to store the definition of the method. For setMethod, it is recommended to omit this argument and to include the call in source code that is evaluated at the top level; that is, either in an R session by something equivalent to a call to source , or as part of the R source code for a package. For removeMethod, the default is the location of the (first) instance of the method for this signature.
valueClass	Obsolete and unused, but see the same argument for setGeneric .
sealed	If TRUE, the method so defined cannot be redefined by another call to setMethod (although it can be removed and then re-assigned).

Details

The call to setMethod stores the supplied method definition in the metadata table for this generic function in the environment, typically the global environment or the namespace of a package. In the case of a package, the table object becomes part of the namespace or environment of the package.

When the package is loaded into a later session, the methods will be merged into the table of methods in the corresponding generic function object.

Generic functions are referenced by the combination of the function name and the package name; for example, the function "show" from the package "methods". Metadata for methods is identified by the two strings; in particular, the generic function object itself has slots containing its name and its package name. The package name of a generic is set according to the package from which it originally comes; in particular, and frequently, the package where a non-generic version of the function originated. For example, generic functions for all the functions in package **base** will have "base" as the package name, although none of them is an S4 generic on that package. These include most of the base functions that are primitives, rather than true functions; see the section on primitive functions in the documentation for [setGeneric](#) for details.

Multiple packages can have methods for the same generic function; that is, for the same combination of generic function name and package name. Even though the methods are stored in separate tables in separate environments, loading the corresponding packages adds the methods to the table in the generic function itself, for the duration of the session.

The class names in the signature can be any formal class, including basic classes such as "numeric", "character", and "matrix". Two additional special class names can appear: "ANY", meaning that this argument can have any class at all; and "missing", meaning that this argument *must not* appear in the call in order to match this signature. Don't confuse these two: if an argument isn't mentioned in a signature, it corresponds implicitly to class "ANY", not to "missing". See the example below. Old-style ('S3') classes can also be used, if you need compatibility with these, but you should definitely declare these classes by calling [setOldClass](#) if you want S3-style inheritance to work.

Method definitions can have default expressions for arguments, but a current limitation is that the generic function must have *some* default expression for the same argument in order for the method's defaults to be used. If so, and if the corresponding argument is missing in the call to the generic function, the default expression in the method is used. If the method definition has no default for the argument, then the expression supplied in the definition of the generic function itself is used, but note that this expression will be evaluated using the enclosing environment of the method, not of the generic function. Note also that specifying class "missing" in the signature does not require any default expressions, and method selection does not evaluate default expressions. All actual (non-missing) arguments in the signature of the generic function will be evaluated when a method is selected—when the call to `standardGeneric(f)` occurs.

It is possible to have some differences between the formal arguments to a method supplied to `setMethod` and those of the generic. Roughly, if the generic has ... as one of its arguments, then the method may have extra formal arguments, which will be matched from the arguments matching ... in the call to `f`. (What actually happens is that a local function is created inside the method, with the modified formal arguments, and the method is re-defined to call that local function.)

Method dispatch tries to match the class of the actual arguments in a call to the available methods collected for `f`. If there is a method defined for the exact same classes as in this call, that method is used. Otherwise, all possible signatures are considered corresponding to the actual classes or to superclasses of the actual classes (including "ANY"). The method having the least distance from the actual classes is chosen; if more than one method has minimal distance, one is chosen (the lexicographically first in terms of superclasses) but a warning is issued. All inherited methods chosen are stored in another table, so that the inheritance calculations only need to be done once per session per sequence of actual classes. See [Methods](#) for more details.

The function `removeMethod` removes the specified method from the metadata table in the corresponding environment. It's not a function that is used much, since one normally wants to redefine a

method rather than leave no definition.

Value

These functions exist for their side-effect, in setting or removing a method in the object defining methods for the specified generic.

The value returned by `removeMethod` is TRUE if a method was found to be removed.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[method.skeleton](#), which is the recommended way to generate a skeleton of the call to `setMethod`, with the correct formal arguments and other details.

[Methods](#) and the links there for a general discussion, [dotsMethods](#) for methods that dispatch on "...", and [setGeneric](#) for generic functions.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
## methods for plotting track objects (see the example for \link{setClass})
##
## First, with only one object as argument:
setMethod("plot", signature(x="track", y="missing"),
  function(x, y, ...) plot(slot(x, "x"), slot(x, "y"), ...)
)
## Second, plot the data from the track on the y-axis against anything
## as the x data.
setMethod("plot", signature(y = "track"),
  function(x, y, ...) plot(x, slot(y, "y"), ...)
)
## and similarly with the track on the x-axis (using the short form of
## specification for signatures)
setMethod("plot", "track",
  function(x, y, ...) plot(slot(x, "y"), y, ...)
)
t1 <- new("track", x=1:20, y=(1:20)^2)
tc1 <- new("trackCurve", t1)
slot(tc1, "smooth") <- smooth.spline(slot(tc1, "x"), slot(tc1, "y"))$y
plot(t1)
plot(qnorm(ppoints(20)), t1)
## An example of inherited methods, and of conforming method arguments
## (note the dotCurve argument in the method, which will be pulled out
## of ... in the generic.
setMethod("plot", c("trackCurve", "missing"),
```

```

function(x, y, dotCurve = FALSE, ...) {
  plot(as(x, "track"))
  if(length(slot(x, "smooth") > 0))
    lines(slot(x, "x"), slot(x, "smooth"),
          lty = if(dotCurve) 2 else 1)
}
)
## the plot of tc1 alone has an added curve; other uses of tc1
## are treated as if it were a "track" object.
plot(tc1, dotCurve = TRUE)
plot(qnorm(ppoints(20)), tc1)

## defining methods for a special function.
## Although "[" and "length" are not ordinary functions
## methods can be defined for them.
setMethod("[", "track",
  function(x, i, j, ..., drop) {
    x@x <- x@x[i]; x@y <- x@y[i]
    x
  })
plot(t1[1:15])

setMethod("length", "track", function(x)length(x@y))
length(t1)

## methods can be defined for missing arguments as well
setGeneric("summary") ## make the function into a generic

## A method for summary()
## The method definition can include the arguments, but
## if they're omitted, class "missing" is assumed.

setMethod("summary", "missing", function() "<No Object>")

```

setOldClass

Register Old-Style (S3) Classes and Inheritance

Description

Register an old-style (a.k.a. ‘S3’) class as a formally defined class. The `Classes` argument is the character vector used as the class attribute; in particular, if there is more than one string, old-style class inheritance is mimicked. Registering via `setOldClass` allows S3 classes to appear in method signatures, as a slot in an S4 class, or as a superclass of an S4 class.

Usage

```
setOldClass(Classes, prototype, where, test = FALSE, S4Class)
```

Arguments

Classes	A character vector, giving the names for S3 classes, as they would appear on the right side of an assignment of the <code>class</code> attribute in S3 computations. In addition to S3 classes, an object type or other valid data part can be specified, if the S3 class is known to require its data to be of that form.
prototype	An optional object to use as the prototype. This should be provided as the default S3 object for the class. If omitted, the S4 class created to register the S3 class is VIRTUAL. See the details.
where	Where to store the class definitions, the global or top-level environment by default. (When either function is called in the source for a package, the class definitions will be included in the package's environment by default.)
test	flag, if TRUE, arrange to test inheritance explicitly for each object, needed if the S3 class can have a different set of class strings, with the same first string. This is a different mechanism in implementation and should be specified separately for each pair of classes that have an optional inheritance. See the 'Details'.
S4Class	optionally, the class definition or the class name of an S4 class. The new class will have all the slots and other properties of this class, plus its S3 inheritance as defined by the <code>Classes</code> argument. Arguments <code>prototype</code> and <code>test</code> must not be supplied in this case. See the section on "S3 classes with known attributes" below.

Details

Each of the names will be defined as an S4 class, extending the remaining classes in `Classes`, and the class `oldClass`, which is the 'root' of all old-style classes. S3 classes have no formal definition, and therefore no formally defined slots. If a `prototype` argument is supplied in the call to `setOldClass()`, objects from the class can be generated, by a call to [new](#); however, this usually not as relevant as generating objects from subclasses (see the section on extending S3 classes below). If a `prototype` is not provided, the class will be created as a virtual S4 class. The main disadvantage is that the `prototype` object in an S4 class that uses this class as a slot will have a NULL object in that slot, which can sometimes lead to confusion.

Beginning with version 2.8.0 of R, support is provided for using a (registered) S3 class as a superclass of a new S4 class. See the section on extending S3 classes below, and the examples.

See [Methods](#) for the details of method dispatch and inheritance.

Some S3 classes cannot be represented as an ordinary combination of S4 classes and superclasses, because objects from the S3 class can have a variable set of strings in the class. It is still possible to register such classes as S4 classes, but now the inheritance has to be verified for each object, and you must call `setOldClass` with argument `test=TRUE` once for each superclass.

For example, ordered factors *always* have the S3 class `c("ordered", "factor")`. This is proper behavior, and maps simply into two S4 classes, with "ordered" extending "factor".

But objects whose class attribute has "POSIXt" as the first string may have either (or neither) of "POSIXct" or "POSIXlt" as the second string. This behavior can be mapped into S4 classes but now to evaluate `is(x, "POSIXlt")`, for example, requires checking the S3 class attribute on each object. Supplying the `test=TRUE` argument to `setOldClass` causes an explicit test to be included in the class definitions. It's never wrong to have this test, but since it adds significant overhead to

methods defined for the inherited classes, you should only supply this argument if it's known that object-specific tests are needed.

The list `.OldClassesList` contains the old-style classes that are defined by the `methods` package. Each element of the list is a character vector, with multiple strings if inheritance is included. Each element of the list was passed to `setOldClass` when creating the **methods** package; therefore, these classes can be used in `setMethod` calls, with the inheritance as implied by the list.

Extending S3 classes

A call to `setOldClass` creates formal classes corresponding to S3 classes, allows these to be used as slots in other classes or in a signature in `setMethod`, and mimics the S3 inheritance.

In documentation for the initial implementation of S4 classes in R, users were warned against defining S4 classes that contained S3 classes, even if those had been registered. The warning was based mainly on two points. 1: The S3 behavior of the objects would fail because the S3 class would not be visible, for example, when S3 methods are dispatched. 2: Because S3 classes have no formal definition, nothing can be asserted in general about the S3 part of an object from such a class. (The warning was repeated as recently as the first reference below.)

Nevertheless, defining S4 classes to contain an S3 class and extend its behavior is attractive in many applications. The alternative is to be stuck with S3 programming, without the flexibility and security of formal class and method definitions.

Beginning with version 2.8.0, R provides support for extending registered S3 classes; that is, for new classes defined by a call to `setClass` in which the `contains=` argument includes an S3 class. See the examples below. The support is aimed primarily at providing the S3 class information for all classes that extend class `oldClass`, in particular by ensuring that all objects from such classes contain the S3 class in a special slot.

There are three different ways to indicate an extension to an existing S3 class: `setOldClass()`, `setClass()` and `setIs()`. In most cases, calling `setOldClass` is the best approach, but the alternatives may be preferred in the special circumstances described below.

Suppose "A" is any class extending "oldClass". then

```
setOldClass(c("B", "A"))
```

creates a new class "B" whose S3 class concatenates "B" with `S3Class("A")`. The new class is a virtual class. If "A" was defined with known attribute/slots, then "B" has these slots also; therefore, you must believe that the corresponding S3 objects from class "B" do indeed have the claimed attributes. Notice that you can supply an S4 definition for the new class to specify additional attributes (as described in the next section.) The first alternative call produces a non-virtual class.

```
setClass("B", contains = "A")
```

This creates a non-virtual class with the same slots and superclasses as class "A". However, class "B" is not included in the S3 class slot of the new class, unless you provide it explicitly in the prototype.

```
setClass("B"); setIs("B", "A", ....)
```

This creates a virtual class that extends "A", but does not contain the slots of "A". The additional arguments to `setIs` should provide a coerce and replacement method. In order for the new class to inherit S3 methods, the coerce method must ensure that the class "A" object produced has a suitable S3 class. The only likely reason to prefer this third approach is that class "B" is not consistent with known attributes in class "A".

Beginning with version 2.9.0 of R, objects from a class extending an S3 class will be converted to the corresponding S3 class when being passed to an S3 method defined for that class (that is, for one of the strings in the S3 class attribute). This is intended to ensure, as far as possible, that such methods will work if they work for ordinary S3 objects. See [Classes](#) for details.

S3 Classes with known attributes

A further specification of an S3 class can be made *if* the class is guaranteed to have some attributes of known class (where as with slots, “known” means that the attribute is an object of a specified class, or a subclass of that class).

In this case, the call to `setOldClass()` can supply an S4 class definition representing the known structure. Since S4 slots are implemented as attributes (largely for just this reason), the known attributes can be specified in the representation of the S4 class. The usual technique will be to create an S4 class with the desired structure, and then supply the class name or definition as the argument `S4Class` to `setOldClass()`.

See the definition of class “ts” in the examples below. The call to [setClass](#) to create the S4 class can use the same class name, as here, so long as the class definition is not sealed. In the example, we define “ts” as a vector structure with a numeric slot for “tsp”. The validity of this definition relies on an assertion that all the S3 code for this class is consistent with that definition; specifically, that all “ts” objects will behave as vector structures and will have a numeric “tsp” attribute. We believe this to be true of all the base code in R, but as always with S3 classes, no guarantee is possible.

The S4 class definition can have virtual superclasses (as in the “ts” case) if the S3 class is asserted to behave consistently with these (in the example, time-series objects are asserted to be consistent with the [structure](#) class).

For another example, look at the S4 class definition for “data.frame”.

Be warned that failures of the S3 class to live up to its asserted behavior will usually go uncorrected, since S3 classes inherently have no definition, and the resulting invalid S4 objects can cause all sorts of grief. Many S3 classes are not candidates for known slots, either because the presence or class of the attributes are not guaranteed (e.g., `dimnames` in arrays, although these are not even S3 classes), or because the class uses named components of a list rather than attributes (e.g., “lm”). An attribute that is sometimes missing cannot be represented as a slot, not even by pretending that it is present with class “NULL”, because attributes unlike slots can not have value NULL.

One irregularity that is usually tolerated, however, is to optionally add other attributes to those guaranteed to exist (for example, “terms” in “data.frame” objects returned by [model.frame](#)). As of version 2.8.0, validity checks by [validObject](#) ignore extra attributes; even if this check is tightened in the future, classes extending S3 classes would likely be exempted because extra attributes are so common.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version: see section 10.6 for method selection and section 13.4 for generic functions).

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[setClass](#), [setMethod](#)

Examples

```
require(stats)
setOldClass(c("mlm", "lm"))
setGeneric("dfResidual", function(model)standardGeneric("dfResidual"))
setMethod("dfResidual", "lm", function(model)model$df.residual)

## dfResidual will work on mlm objects as well as lm objects
myData <- data.frame(time = 1:10, y = (1:10)^.5)
myLm <- lm(cbind(y, y^3) ~ time, myData)

showClass("data.frame")# to see the predefined S4 "oldClass"

## two examples extending S3 class "lm", class "xlm" directly
## and "ylm" indirectly
setClass("xlm", representation(eps = "numeric"), contains = "lm")
setClass("ylm", representation(header = "character"), contains = "xlm")
ym1 = new("ylm", myLm, header = "Example", eps = 0.)
## for more examples, see ?\link{S3Class}.

utils::str(.OldClassesList)

## Examples of S3 classes with guaranteed attributes
## an S3 class "stamped" with a vector and a "date" attribute
## Here is a generator function and an S3 print method.
## NOTE: it's essential that the generator checks the attribute classes
stamped <- function(x, date = Sys.time()) {
  if(!inherits(date, "POSIXt"))
    stop("bad date argument")
  if(!is.vector(x))
    stop("x must be a vector")
  attr(x, "date") <- date
  class(x) <- "stamped"
  x
}

print.stamped <- function(x, ...) {
  print(as.vector(x))
  cat("Date: ", format(attr(x,"date")), "\n")
}

## Now, an S4 class with the same structure:
setClass("stamped4", contains = "vector", representation(date = "POSIXt"))

## We can use the S4 class to register "stamped", with its attributes:
setOldClass("stamped", S4Class = "stamped4")
selectMethod("show", "stamped")
```

```
## and then remove "stamped4" to clean up
removeClass("stamped4")

someLetters <- stamped(sample(letters, 10),
                        ISOdatetime(2008, 10, 15, 12, 0, 0))

st <- new("stamped", someLetters)
st
# show() method prints the object's class, then calls the S3 print method.

stopifnot(identical(S3Part(st, TRUE), someLetters))

# creating the S4 object directly from its data part and slots
new("stamped", 1:10, date = ISOdatetime(1976, 5, 5, 15, 10, 0))

## Not run:
## The code in R that defines "ts" as an S4 class
setClass("ts", contains = "structure",
        representation(tsp = "numeric"),
        prototype(NA, tsp = rep(1,3)))
# prototype to be a legal S3 time-series
## and now registers it as an S3 class
setOldClass("ts", S4Class = "ts", where = envir)

## End(Not run)
```

show

Show an Object

Description

Display the object, by printing, plotting or whatever suits its class. This function exists to be specialized by methods. The default method calls [showDefault](#).

Formal methods for show will usually be invoked for automatic printing (see the details).

Usage

```
show(object)
```

Arguments

object	Any R object
--------	--------------

Details

Objects from an S4 class (a class defined by a call to [setClass](#)) will be displayed automatically if by a call to `show`. S4 objects that occur as attributes of S3 objects will also be displayed in this form; conversely, S3 objects encountered as slots in S4 objects will be printed using the S3 convention, as if by a call to [print](#).

Methods defined for `show` will only be inherited by simple inheritance, since otherwise the method would not receive the complete, original object, with misleading results. See the `simpleInheritanceOnly` argument to [setGeneric](#) and the discussion in [setIs](#) for the general concept.

Value

`show` returns an invisible NULL.

See Also

[showMethods](#) prints all the methods for one or more functions.

Examples

```
## following the example shown in the setMethod documentation ...
setClass("track",
  representation(x="numeric", y="numeric"))
setClass("trackCurve",
  representation("track", smooth = "numeric"))

t1 <- new("track", x=1:20, y=(1:20)^2)

tc1 <- new("trackCurve", t1)

setMethod("show", "track",
  function(object)print(rbind(x = object@x, y=object@y))
)
## The method will now be used for automatic printing of t1

t1

## Not run:   [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10] [,11] [,12]
x    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9  10  11  12
y    1   4   9  16  25  36  49  64  81 100 121 144
  [,13] [,14] [,15] [,16] [,17] [,18] [,19] [,20]
x   13  14  15  16  17  18  19  20
y  169 196 225 256 289 324 361 400

## End(Not run)
## and also for tc1, an object of a class that extends "track"
tc1

## Not run:   [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10] [,11] [,12]
x    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9  10  11  12
y    1   4   9  16  25  36  49  64  81 100 121 144
```

```
      [,13] [,14] [,15] [,16] [,17] [,18] [,19] [,20]
x      13    14    15    16    17    18    19    20
y     169   196   225   256   289   324   361   400

## End(Not run)
```

showMethods	<i>Show all the methods for the specified function(s) or class</i>
-------------	--

Description

Show a summary of the methods for one or more generic functions, possibly restricted to those involving specified classes.

Usage

```
showMethods(f = character(), where = topenv(parent.frame()),
            classes = NULL, includeDefs = FALSE,
            inherited = !includeDefs,
            showEmpty, printTo = stdout(), fdef)
.S4methods(generic.function, class)
```

Arguments

f	one or more function names. If omitted, all functions will be shown that match the other arguments. The argument can also be an expression that evaluates to a single generic function, in which case argument fdef is ignored. Providing an expression for the function allows examination of hidden or anonymous functions; see the example for isDiagonal().
where	Where to find the generic function, if not supplied as an argument. When f is missing, or length 0, this also determines which generic functions to examine. If where is supplied, only the generic functions returned by getGenerics(where) are eligible for printing. If where is also missing, all the cached generic functions are considered.
classes	If argument classes is supplied, it is a vector of class names that restricts the displayed results to those methods whose signatures include one or more of those classes.
includeDefs	If includeDefs is TRUE, include the definitions of the individual methods in the printout.
inherited	logical indicating if methods that have been found by inheritance, so far in the session, will be included and marked as inherited. Note that an inherited method will not usually appear until it has been used in this session. See selectMethod if you want to know what method would be dispatched for particular classes of arguments.

showEmpty	logical indicating whether methods with no defined methods matching the other criteria should be shown at all. By default, TRUE if and only if argument f is not missing.
printTo	The connection on which the information will be shown; by default, on standard output.
fdef	Optionally, the generic function definition to use; if missing, one is found, looking in where if that is specified. See also comment in 'Details'.
generic.function, class	See methods.

Details

See methods for a description of .S4methods.

The name and package of the generic are followed by the list of signatures for which methods are currently defined, according to the criteria determined by the various arguments. Note that the package refers to the source of the generic function. Individual methods for that generic can come from other packages as well.

When more than one generic function is involved, either as specified or because f was missing, the functions are found and showMethods is recalled for each, including the generic as the argument fdef. In complicated situations, this can avoid some anomalous results.

Value

If printTo is FALSE, the character vector that would have been printed is returned; otherwise the value is the connection or filename, via [invisible](#).

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[setMethod](#), and [GenericFunctions](#) for other tools involving methods; [selectMethod](#) will show you the method dispatched for a particular function and signature of classes for the arguments.

[methods](#) provides method discovery tools for light-weight interactive use.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Assuming the methods for plot
## are set up as in the example of help(setMethod),
## print (without definitions) the methods that involve class "track":
showMethods("plot", classes = "track")
## Not run:
# Function "plot":
```

```

# x = ANY, y = track
# x = track, y = missing
# x = track, y = ANY

require("Matrix")
showMethods("%*%")# many!
  methods(class = "Matrix")# nothing
showMethods(class = "Matrix")# everything
showMethods(Matrix::isDiagonal) # a non-exported generic

## End(Not run)

if(no4 <- is.na(match("stats4", loadedNamespaces()))){
  loadNamespace("stats4")
showMethods(classes = "mle") # -> a method for show()
if(no4) unloadNamespace("stats4")
}

```

signature-class

Class "signature" For Method Definitions

Description

This class represents the mapping of some of the formal arguments of a function onto the corresponding classes. It is used for two slots in the [MethodDefinition](#) class.

Objects from the Class

Objects can be created by calls of the form `new("signature", functionDef, ...)`. The `functionDef` argument, if it is supplied as a function object, defines the formal names. The other arguments define the classes. More typically, the objects are created as side effects of defining methods. Either way, note that the classes are expected to be well defined, usually because the corresponding class definitions exist. See the comment on the package slot.

Slots

.Data: Object of class "character" the class names.

names: Object of class "character" the corresponding argument names.

package: Object of class "character" the names of the packages corresponding to the class names. The combination of class name and package uniquely defines the class. In principle, the same class name could appear in more than one package, in which case the package information is required for the signature to be well defined.

Extends

Class "character", from data part. Class "vector", by class "character".

Methods

initialize signature(object = "signature"): see the discussion of objects from the class, above.

See Also

class [MethodDefinition](#) for the use of this class.

slot

The Slots in an Object from a Formal Class

Description

These functions return or set information about the individual slots in an object.

Usage

```
object@name
object@name <- value

slot(object, name)
slot(object, name, check = TRUE) <- value
.hasSlot(object, name)

slotNames(x)
getSlots(x)
```

Arguments

object	An object from a formally defined class.
name	The name of the slot. The operator takes a fixed name, which can be unquoted if it is syntactically a name in the language. A slot name can be any non-empty string, but if the name is not made up of letters, numbers, and ., it needs to be quoted (by backticks or single or double quotes). In the case of the slot function, name can be any expression that evaluates to a valid slot in the class definition. Generally, the only reason to use the functional form rather than the simpler operator is <i>because</i> the slot name has to be computed.
value	A new value for the named slot. The value must be valid for this slot in this object's class.
check	In the replacement version of slot, a flag. If TRUE, check the assigned value for validity as the value of this slot. User's coded should not set this to FALSE in normal use, since the resulting object can be invalid.
x	either the name of a class (as character string), or a class definition. If given an argument that is neither a character string nor a class definition, slotNames (only) uses class(x) instead.

Details

The definition of the class specifies all slots directly and indirectly defined for that class. Each slot has a name and an associated class. Extracting a slot returns an object from that class. Setting a slot first coerces the value to the specified slot and then stores it.

Unlike general attributes, slots are not partially matched, and asking for (or trying to set) a slot with an invalid name for that class generates an error.

The `@` extraction operator and `slot` function themselves do no checking against the class definition, simply matching the name in the object itself. The replacement forms do check (except for `slot` in the case `check=FALSE`). So long as slots are set without cheating, the extracted slots will be valid.

Be aware that there are two ways to cheat, both to be avoided but with no guarantees. The obvious way is to assign a slot with `check=FALSE`. Also, slots in **R** are implemented as attributes, for the sake of some back compatibility. The current implementation does not prevent attributes being assigned, via `attr<-`, and such assignments are not checked for legitimate slot names.

Note that the `"@"` operators for extraction and replacement are primitive and actually reside in the **base** package.

The replacement versions of `"@"` and `slot()` differ in the computations done to coerce the right side of the assignment to the declared class of the slot. Both verify that the value provided is from a subclass of the declared slot class. The `slot()` version will go on to call the `coerce` method if there is one, in effect doing the computation `as(value, slotClass, strict = FALSE)`. The `"@"` version just verifies the relation, leaving any coerce to be done later (e.g., when a relevant method is dispatched).

In most uses the result is equivalent, and the `"@"` version saves an extra function call, but if empirical evidence shows that a conversion is needed, either call `as()` before the replacement or use the replacement version of `slot()`.

Value

The `"@"` operator and the `slot` function extract or replace the formally defined slots for the object.

Functions `slotNames` and `getSlots` return respectively the names of the slots and the classes associated with the slots in the specified class definition. Except for its extended interpretation of `x` (above), `slotNames(x)` is just `names(getSlots(x))`.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

[@](#), [Classes](#), [Methods](#), [getClass](#), [names](#).

Examples

```

setClass("track", representation(x="numeric", y="numeric"))
myTrack <- new("track", x = -4:4, y = exp(-4:4))
slot(myTrack, "x")
slot(myTrack, "y") <- log(slot(myTrack, "y"))
utils::str(myTrack)

getSlots("track") # or
getSlots(getClass("track"))
slotNames(class(myTrack)) # is the same as
slotNames(myTrack)

```

StructureClasses

Classes Corresponding to Basic Structures

Description

The virtual class structure and classes that extend it are formal classes analogous to S language structures such as arrays and time-series.

Usage

```
## The following class names can appear in method signatures,
## as the class in as() and is() expressions, and, except for
## the classes commented as VIRTUAL, in calls to new()
```

```

"matrix"
"array"
"ts"

```

```
"structure" ## VIRTUAL
```

Objects from the Classes

Objects can be created by calls of the form `new(Class, ...)`, where `Class` is the quoted name of the specific class (e.g., `"matrix"`), and the other arguments, if any, are interpreted as arguments to the corresponding function, e.g., to function `matrix()`. There is no particular advantage over calling those functions directly, unless you are writing software designed to work for multiple classes, perhaps with the class name and the arguments passed in.

Objects created from the classes `"matrix"` and `"array"` are unusual, to put it mildly, and have been for some time. Although they may appear to be objects from these classes, they do not have the internal structure of either an S3 or S4 class object. In particular, they have no `"class"` attribute and are not recognized as objects with classes (that is, both `is.object` and `isS4` will return `FALSE` for such objects). However, methods (both S4 and S3) can be defined for these pseudo-classes and new classes (both S4 and S3) can inherit from them.

That the objects still behave as if they came from the corresponding class (most of the time, anyway) results from special code recognizing such objects being built into the base code of R. For most

purposes, treating the classes in the usual way will work, fortunately. One consequence of the special treatment is that these two classes *may* be used as the data part of an S4 class; for example, you can get away with `contains = "matrix"` in a call to `setGeneric` to create an S4 class that is a subclass of "matrix". There is no guarantee that everything will work perfectly, but a number of classes have been written in this form successfully.

Note that a class containing "matrix" or "array" will have a `.Data` slot with that class. This is the only use of `.Data` other than as a pseudo-class indicating the type of the object. In this case the type of the object will be the type of the contained matrix or array. See [Classes](#) for a general discussion.

The class "ts" is basically an S3 class that has been registered with S4, using the `setOldClass` mechanism. Versions of R through 2.7.0 treated this class as a pure S4 class, which was in principal a good idea, but in practice did not allow subclasses to be defined and had other intrinsic problems. (For example, setting the "tsp" parameters as a slot often fails because the built-in implementation does not allow the slot to be temporarily inconsistent with the length of the data. Also, the S4 class prevented the correct specification of the S3 inheritance for class "mts".)

Time-series objects, in contrast to matrices and arrays, have a valid S3 class, "ts", registered using an S4-style definition (see the documentation for `setOldClass` in the examples section for an abbreviated listing of how this is done. The S3 inheritance of "mts" in package **stats** is also registered. These classes, as well as "matrix" and "array" should be valid in most examples as superclasses for new S4 class definitions.

All of these classes have special S4 methods for `initialize` that accept the same arguments as the basic generator functions, `matrix`, `array`, and `ts`, in so far as possible. The limitation is that a class that has more than one non-virtual superclass must accept objects from that superclass in the call to `new`; therefore, a such a class (what is called a "mixin" in some languages) uses the default method for `initialize`, with no special arguments.

Extends

The specific classes all extend class "structure", directly, and class "vector", by class "structure".

Methods

coerce Methods are defined to coerce arbitrary objects to these classes, by calling the corresponding basic function, for example, `as(x, "matrix")` calls `as.matrix(x)`. If `strict = TRUE` in the call to `as()`, the method goes on to delete all other slots and attributes other than the `dim` and `dimnames`.

Ops Group methods (see, e.g., `S4groupGeneric`) are defined for combinations of structures and vectors (including special cases for array and matrix), implementing the concept of vector structures as in the reference. Essentially, structures combined with vectors retain the structure as long as the resulting object has the same length. Structures combined with other structures remove the structure, since there is no automatic way to determine what should happen to the slots defining the structure.

Note that these methods will be activated when a package is loaded containing a class that inherits from any of the structure classes or class "vector".

References

- Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)
- Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)
- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole (for the original vector structures).

See Also

Class [nonStructure](#), which enforces the alternative model, in which all slots are dropped if any math transformation or operation is applied to an object from a class extending one of the basic classes.

Examples

```
showClass("structure")

## explore a bit :
showClass("ts")
(ts0 <- new("ts"))
str(ts0)

showMethods("Ops") # six methods from these classes, but maybe many more
```

testInheritedMethods *Test for and Report about Selection of Inherited Methods*

Description

A set of distinct inherited signatures is generated to test inheritance for all the methods of a specified generic function. If method selection is ambiguous for some of these, a summary of the ambiguities is attached to the returned object. This test should be performed by package authors *before* releasing a package.

Usage

```
testInheritedMethods(f, signatures, test = TRUE, virtual = FALSE,
                     groupMethods = TRUE, where = .GlobalEnv)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|------------|--|
| f | a generic function or the character string name of one. By default, all currently defined subclasses of all the method signatures for this generic will be examined. The other arguments are mainly options to modify which inheritance patterns will be examined. |
| signatures | An optional set of subclass signatures to use instead of the relevant subclasses computed by testInheritedMethods. See the Details for how this is done. This argument might be supplied after a call with test = FALSE, to test selection in batches. |

test	optional flag to control whether method selection is actually tested. If FALSE, returns just the list of relevant signatures for subclasses, without calling <code>selectMethod</code> for each signature. If there are a very large number of signatures, you may want to collect the full list and then test them in batches.
virtual	should virtual classes be included in the relevant subclasses. Normally not, since only the classes of actual arguments will trigger the inheritance calculation in a call to the generic function. Including virtual classes may be useful if the class has no current non-virtual subclasses but you anticipate your users may define such classes in the future.
groupMethods	should methods for the group generic function be included?
where	the environment in which to look for class definitions. Nearly always, use the default global environment after attaching all the packages with relevant methods and/or class definitions.

Details

The following description applies when the optional arguments are omitted, the usual case. First, the defining signatures for all methods are computed by calls to `findMethodSignatures`. From these all the known non-virtual subclasses are found for each class that appears in the signature of some method. These subclasses are split into groups according to which class they inherit from, and only one subclass from each group is retained (for each argument in the generic signature). So if a method was defined with class "vector" for some argument, one actual vector class is chosen arbitrarily. The case of "ANY" is dealt with specially, since all classes extend it. A dummy, nonvirtual class, ".Other", is used to correspond to all classes that have no superclasses among those being tested.

All combinations of retained subclasses for the arguments in the generic signature are then computed. Each row of the resulting matrix is a signature to be tested by a call to `selectMethod`. To collect information on ambiguous selections, `testInheritedMethods` establishes a calling handler for the special signal "ambiguousMethodSelection", by setting the corresponding option.

Value

An object of class "methodSelectionReport". The details of this class are currently subject to change. It has slots "target", "selected", "candidates", and "note", all referring to the ambiguous cases (and so of length 0 if there were none). These slots are intended to be examined by the programmer to detect and preferably fix ambiguous method selections. The object contains in addition slots "generic", the name of the generic function, and "allSelections", giving the vector of labels for all the signatures tested.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (Section 10.6 for basics of method selection.)

Chambers, John M. (2009) *Class Inheritance in R* <https://statweb.stanford.edu/~jmc4/classInheritance.pdf>.

Examples

```
## if no other attached packages have methods for `+` or its group
## generic functions, this returns a 16 by 2 matrix of selection
## patterns (in R 2.9.0)
testInheritedMethods("+")
```

TraceClasses

*Classes Used Internally to Control Tracing***Description**

The classes described here are used by the R function `trace` to create versions of functions and methods including browser calls, etc., and also to `untrace` the same objects.

Usage

```
### Objects from the following classes are generated
### by calling trace() on an object from the corresponding
### class without the "WithTrace" in the name.

"functionWithTrace"
"MethodDefinitionWithTrace"
"MethodWithNextWithTrace"
"genericFunctionWithTrace"
"groupGenericFunctionWithTrace"

### the following is a virtual class extended by each of the
### classes above

"traceable"
```

Objects from the Class

Objects will be created from these classes by calls to `trace`. (There is an `initialize` method for class "traceable", but you are unlikely to need it directly.)

Slots

.Data: The data part, which will be "function" for class "functionWithTrace", and similarly for the other classes.

original: Object of the original class; e.g., "function" for class "functionWithTrace".

Extends

Each of the classes extends the corresponding untraced class, from the data part; e.g., "functionWithTrace" extends "function". Each of the specific classes extends "traceable", directly, and class "VIRTUAL", by class "traceable".

Methods

The point of the specific classes is that objects generated from them, by function `trace()`, remain callable or dispatchable, in addition to their new trace information.

See Also

function [trace](#)

validObject	<i>Test the Validity of an Object</i>
-------------	---------------------------------------

Description

The validity of object related to its class definition is tested. If the object is valid, TRUE is returned; otherwise, either a vector of strings describing validity failures is returned, or an error is generated (according to whether `test` is TRUE). Optionally, all slots in the object can also be validated.

The function `setValidity` sets the validity method of a class (but more normally, this method will be supplied as the `validity` argument to [setClass](#)). The method should be a function of one object that returns TRUE or a description of the non-validity.

Usage

```
validObject(object, test = FALSE, complete = FALSE)

setValidity(Class, method, where = toparent(parent.frame()) )

getValidity(ClassDef)
```

Arguments

object	any object, but not much will happen unless the object's class has a formal definition.
test	logical; if TRUE and validity fails, the function returns a vector of strings describing the problems. If test is FALSE (the default) validity failure generates an error.
complete	logical; if TRUE, validity methods will be applied recursively to any of the slots that have such methods.
Class	the name or class definition of the class whose validity method is to be set.
ClassDef	a class definition object, as from getClassDef .
method	a validity method; that is, either NULL or a function of one argument (object). Like <code>validObject</code> , the function should return TRUE if the object is valid, and one or more descriptive strings if any problems are found. Unlike <code>validObject</code> , it should never generate an error.

where the modified class definition will be stored in this environment.

Note that validity methods do not have to check validity of superclasses: the logic of `validObject` ensures these tests are done once only. As a consequence, if one validity method wants to use another, it should extract and call the method from the other definition of the other class by calling `getValidity()`: it should *not* call `validObject`.

Details

Validity testing takes place ‘bottom up’: Optionally, if `complete=TRUE`, the validity of the object’s slots, if any, is tested. Then, in all cases, for each of the classes that this class extends (the ‘superclasses’), the explicit validity method of that class is called, if one exists. Finally, the validity method of object’s class is called, if there is one.

Testing generally stops at the first stage of finding an error, except that all the slots will be examined even if a slot has failed its validity test.

The standard validity test (with `complete=FALSE`) is applied when an object is created via `new` with any optional arguments (without the extra arguments the result is just the class prototype object).

An attempt is made to fix up the definition of a validity method if its argument is not object.

Value

`validObject` returns TRUE if the object is valid. Otherwise a vector of strings describing problems found, except that if test is FALSE, validity failure generates an error, with the corresponding strings in the error message.

References

Chambers, John M. (2008) *Software for Data Analysis: Programming with R* Springer. (For the R version.)

Chambers, John M. (1998) *Programming with Data* Springer (For the original S4 version.)

See Also

`setClass`; class `classRepresentation`.

Examples

```
setClass("track",
  representation(x="numeric", y = "numeric"))
t1 <- new("track", x=1:10, y=sort(stats::rnorm(10)))
## A valid "track" object has the same number of x, y values
validTrackObject <- function(object) {
  if(length(object@x) == length(object@y)) TRUE
  else paste("Unequal x,y lengths: ", length(object@x), ", ",
    length(object@y), sep="")
}
## assign the function as the validity method for the class
setValidity("track", validTrackObject)
## t1 should be a valid "track" object
```



```
validObject(t1)
## Now we do something bad
t2 <- t1
t2@x <- 1:20
## This should generate an error
## Not run: try(validObject(t2))

setClass("trackCurve",
         representation("track", smooth = "numeric"))

## all superclass validity methods are used when validObject
## is called from initialize() with arguments, so this fails
## Not run: trynew("trackCurve", t2)

setClass("twoTrack", representation(tr1 = "track", tr2 = "track"))

## validity tests are not applied recursively by default,
## so this object is created (invalidly)
tT <- new("twoTrack", tr2 = t2)

## A stricter test detects the problem
## Not run: try(validObject(tT, complete = TRUE))
```

Chapter 8

The parallel package

parallel-package

Support for Parallel Computation

Description

Support for parallel computation, including random-number generation.

Details

This package is under development: a first version was released with R 2.14.0.

There is support for multiple RNG streams with the “L'Ecuyer-CMRG” [RNG](#): see [nextRNGStream](#).

It contains functionality derived from and pretty much equivalent to that contained in packages **multicore** (with some low-level functions renamed and not exported) and **snow** (for socket clusters only, but MPI and NWS clusters generated by **snow** are also supported). This package also provides [makeForkCluster](#).

For a complete list of exported functions, use `library(help = "parallel")`.

Author(s)

Brian Ripley, Luke Tierney and Simon Urbanek

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

See Also

Parallel computation involves launching worker processes: functions [psnice](#) and [pskill](#) in package **tools** provide means to manage such processes.

clusterApply

Apply Operations using Clusters

Description

These functions provide several ways to parallelize computations using a cluster.

Usage

```
clusterCall(cl = NULL, fun, ...)
clusterApply(cl = NULL, x, fun, ...)
clusterApplyLB(cl = NULL, x, fun, ...)
clusterEvalQ(cl = NULL, expr)
clusterExport(cl = NULL, varlist, envir = .GlobalEnv)
clusterMap(cl = NULL, fun, ..., MoreArgs = NULL, RECYCLE = TRUE,
           SIMPLIFY = FALSE, USE.NAMES = TRUE,
           .scheduling = c("static", "dynamic"))
clusterSplit(cl = NULL, seq)

parLapply(cl = NULL, X, fun, ...)
parSapply(cl = NULL, X, FUN, ..., simplify = TRUE,
          USE.NAMES = TRUE)
parApply(cl = NULL, X, MARGIN, FUN, ...)
parRapply(cl = NULL, x, FUN, ...)
parCapply(cl = NULL, x, FUN, ...)

parLapplyLB(cl = NULL, X, fun, ...)
parSapplyLB(cl = NULL, X, FUN, ..., simplify = TRUE,
            USE.NAMES = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>cl</code>	a cluster object, created by this package or by package snow . If <code>NULL</code> , use the registered default cluster.
<code>fun</code> , <code>FUN</code>	function or character string naming a function.
<code>expr</code>	expression to evaluate.
<code>seq</code>	vector to split.
<code>varlist</code>	character vector of names of objects to export.
<code>envir</code>	environment from which to export variables
<code>x</code>	a vector for <code>clusterApply</code> and <code>clusterApplyLB</code> , a matrix for <code>parRapply</code> and <code>parCapply</code> .
<code>...</code>	additional arguments to pass to <code>fun</code> or <code>FUN</code> : beware of partial matching to earlier arguments.
<code>MoreArgs</code>	additional arguments for <code>fun</code> .

RECYCLE	logical; if true shorter arguments are recycled.
X	A vector (atomic or list) for parLapply and parSapply, an array for parApply.
MARGIN	vector specifying the dimensions to use.
simplify, USE.NAMES	logical; see sapply .
SIMPLIFY	logical; see mapply .
.scheduling	should tasks be statically allocated to nodes or dynamic load-balancing used?

Details

`clusterCall` calls a function `fun` with identical arguments ... on each node.

`clusterEvalQ` evaluates a literal expression on each cluster node. It is a parallel version of [evalq](#), and is a convenience function invoking `clusterCall`.

`clusterApply` calls `fun` on the first node with arguments `seq[[1]]` and ..., on the second node with `seq[[2]]` and ..., and so on, recycling nodes as needed.

`clusterApplyLB` is a load balancing version of `clusterApply`. If the length `p` of `seq` is not greater than the number of nodes `n`, then a job is sent to `p` nodes. Otherwise the first `n` jobs are placed in order on the `n` nodes. When the first job completes, the next job is placed on the node that has become free; this continues until all jobs are complete. Using `clusterApplyLB` can result in better cluster utilization than using `clusterApply`, but increased communication can reduce performance. Furthermore, the node that executes a particular job is non-deterministic.

`clusterMap` is a multi-argument version of `clusterApply`, analogous to [mapply](#) and [Map](#). If `RECYCLE` is true shorter arguments are recycled (and either none or all must be of length zero); otherwise, the result length is the length of the shortest argument. Nodes are recycled if the length of the result is greater than the number of nodes. ([mapply](#) always uses `RECYCLE = TRUE`, and has argument `SIMPLIFY = TRUE`. [Map](#) always uses `RECYCLE = TRUE`.)

`clusterExport` assigns the values on the master R process of the variables named in `varlist` to variables of the same names in the global environment (aka ‘workspace’) of each node. The environment on the master from which variables are exported defaults to the global environment.

`clusterSplit` splits `seq` into a consecutive piece for each cluster and returns the result as a list with length equal to the number of nodes. Currently the pieces are chosen to be close to equal in length: the computation is done on the master.

`parLapply`, `parSapply`, and `parApply` are parallel versions of `lapply`, `sapply` and `apply`. `parLapplyLB`, `parSapplyLB` are load-balancing versions, intended for use when applying `FUN` to different elements of `X` takes quite variable amounts of time, and either the function is deterministic or reproducible results are not required.

`parRapply` and `parCapply` are parallel row and column apply functions for a matrix `x`; they may be slightly more efficient than `parApply` but do less post-processing of the result.

Value

For `clusterCall`, `clusterEvalQ` and `clusterSplit`, a list with one element per node.

For `clusterApply` and `clusterApplyLB`, a list the same length as `seq`.

`clusterMap` follows [mapply](#).

clusterExport returns nothing.

parLapply returns a list the length of X.

parSapply and parApply follow [sapply](#) and [apply](#) respectively.

parRapply and parCapply always return a vector. If FUN always returns a scalar result this will be of length the number of rows or columns: otherwise it will be the concatenation of the returned values.

An error is signalled on the master if any of the workers produces an error.

Note

These functions are almost identical to those in package **snow**.

Two exceptions: parLapply has argument X not x for consistency with [lapply](#), and parSapply has been updated to match [sapply](#).

Author(s)

Luke Tierney and R Core.

Derived from the **snow** package.

Examples

```
## Use option cl.cores to choose an appropriate cluster size.
cl <- makeCluster(getOption("cl.cores", 2))

clusterApply(cl, 1:2, get("+"), 3)
xx <- 1
clusterExport(cl, "xx")
clusterCall(cl, function(y) xx + y, 2)

## Use clusterMap like an mapply example
clusterMap(cl, function(x, y) seq_len(x) + y,
           c(a = 1, b = 2, c = 3), c(A = 10, B = 0, C = -10))

parSapply(cl, 1:20, get("+"), 3)

## A bootstrapping example, which can be done in many ways:
clusterEvalQ(cl, {
  ## set up each worker. Could also use clusterExport()
  library(boot)
  cd4.rg <- function(data, mle) MASS::mvrnorm(nrow(data), mle$m, mle$v)
  cd4.mle <- list(m = colMeans(cd4), v = var(cd4))
  NULL
})
res <- clusterEvalQ(cl, boot(cd4, corr, R = 100,
                           sim = "parametric", ran.gen = cd4.rg, mle = cd4.mle))
library(boot)
cd4.boot <- do.call(c, res)
boot.ci(cd4.boot, type = c("norm", "basic", "perc"),
```

```

        conf = 0.9, h = atanh, hinv = tanh)
stopCluster(cl)

## or
library(boot)
run1 <- function(...) {
  library(boot)
  cd4.rg <- function(data, mle) MASS::mvrnorm(nrow(data), mle$m, mle$v)
  cd4.mle <- list(m = colMeans(cd4), v = var(cd4))
  boot(cd4, corr, R = 500, sim = "parametric",
        ran.gen = cd4.rg, mle = cd4.mle)
}
cl <- makeCluster(mc <- getOption("cl.cores", 2))
## to make this reproducible
clusterSetRNGStream(cl, 123)
cd4.boot <- do.call(c, parLapply(cl, seq_len(mc), run1))
boot.ci(cd4.boot, type = c("norm", "basic", "perc"),
        conf = 0.9, h = atanh, hinv = tanh)
stopCluster(cl)

```

detectCores

Detect the Number of CPU Cores

Description

Attempt to detect the number of CPU cores on the current host.

Usage

```
detectCores(all.tests = FALSE, logical = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>all.tests</code>	Logical: if true apply all known tests.
<code>logical</code>	Logical: if possible, use the number of physical CPUs/cores (if FALSE) or logical CPUs (if TRUE). The default is TRUE on Windows and FALSE elsewhere.

Details

This attempts to detect the number of CPU cores in the current machine.

It has methods to do so for Linux, OS X, FreeBSD, OpenBSD, Solaris, Irix and Windows. `detectCores(TRUE)` could be tried on other Unix-alike systems.

Currently `logical` is supported on Solaris and Windows only.

Value

An integer, NA if the answer is unknown.

Exactly what this represents is OS-dependent: where possible by default it counts physical cores and not logical (e.g., hyperthreaded) CPUs. However, on Linux, OS X, FreeBSD and OpenBSD it currently returns the number of logical CPUs.

On Windows the default is the number of logical CPUs.

Currently `logical` makes a difference on Sparc Solaris: there `logical = FALSE` returns the number of physical cores and `logical = TRUE` returns the number of available hardware threads. (Some Sparc CPUs which do have multiple cores per CPU, others have multiple threads per core and some have both.) For example, the UltraSparc T2 CPU in the CRAN check server is a single physical CPU with 8 cores, and each core supports 8 hardware threads. So `detectCores(logical = FALSE)` returns 8, and `detectCores(logical = TRUE)` returns 64.

Where virtual machines are in use, one would hope that the result represents the number of CPUs available (or potentially available) to that particular VM.

Note

This is not suitable for use directly for the `mc.cores` argument of `mclapply` nor specifying the number of cores in `makeCluster`. First because it may return NA, and second because it does not give the number of *allowed* cores.

Author(s)

Simon Urbanek and Brian Ripley

Examples

```
detectCores()
detectCores(logical = TRUE)
```

makeCluster

Create a Parallel Socket Cluster

Description

Creates a set of copies of R running in parallel and communicating over sockets.

Usage

```
makeCluster(spec, type, ...)
makePSOCKcluster(names, ...)
makeForkCluster(nnodes = getOption("mc.cores", 2L), ...)

stopCluster(cl = NULL)

setDefaultCluster(cl = NULL)
```

Arguments

spec	A specification appropriate to the type of cluster.
names	Either a character vector of host names on which to run the worker copies of R, or a positive integer (in which case that number of copies is run on 'localhost').
nnodes	The number of nodes to be forked.
type	One of the supported types: see 'Details'.
...	Options to be passed to the function spawning the workers. See 'Details'.
cl	an object of class "cluster".

Details

makeCluster creates a cluster of one of the supported types. The default type, "PSOCK", calls makePSOCKcluster. Type "FORK" calls makeForkCluster. Other types are passed to package **snov**.

makePSOCKcluster is an enhanced version of makeSOCKcluster in package **snov**. It runs Rscript on the specified host(s) to set up a worker process which listens on a socket for expressions to evaluate, and returns the results (as serialized objects).

makeForkCluster is merely a stub on Windows. On Unix-alike platforms it creates the worker process by forking.

The workers are most often running on the same host as the master, when no options need be set.

Several options are supported (mainly for makePSOCKcluster):

master The host name of the master, as known to the workers. This may not be the same as it is known to the master, and on private subnets it may be necessary to specify this as a numeric IP address. For example, OS X is likely to detect a machine as 'somename.local', a name known only to itself.

port The port number for the socket connection, default taken from the environment variable R_PARALLEL_PORT, then a randomly chosen port in the range 11000:11999.

timeout The timeout in seconds for that port. Default 30 days (and the POSIX standard only requires values up to 31 days to be supported).

outfile Where to direct the **stdout** and **stderr** connection output from the workers. "" indicates no redirection (which may only be useful for workers on the local machine). Defaults to '/dev/null' ('nul:' on Windows). The other possibility is a file path on the worker's host. Files will be opened in append mode, as all workers log to the same file.

homogeneous Logical. Are all the hosts running identical setups, so Rscript can be launched using the same path on each? Otherwise Rscript has to be in the default path on the workers.

rscript The path to Rscript on the workers, used if homogeneous is true. Defaults to the full path on the master.

rscript_args Character vector of additional arguments for Rscript such as '--no-environ'.

renice A numerical 'niceness' to set for the worker processes, e.g. 15 for a low priority. OS-dependent: see **psnice** for details.

rshcmd The command to be run on the master to launch a process on another host. Defaults to ssh.

user The user name to be used when communicating with another host.

manual Logical. If true the workers will need to be run manually.

methods Logical. If true (default) the workers will load the **methods** package: not loading it saves ca 30% of the startup CPU time of the cluster.

useXDR Logical. If true (default) serialization will use XDR: where large amounts of data are to be transferred and all the nodes are little-endian, communication may be substantially faster if this is set to false.

Function `makeForkCluster` creates a socket cluster by forking (and hence is not available on Windows). It supports options `port`, `timeout` and `outfile`, and always uses `useXDR = FALSE`.

It is good practice to shut down the workers by calling `stopCluster`: however the workers will terminate themselves once the socket on which they are listening for commands becomes unavailable, which it should if the master R session is completed (or its process dies).

Function `setDefaultCluster` registers a cluster as the default one for the current session. Using `setDefaultCluster(NULL)` removes the registered cluster, as does stopping that cluster.

Value

An object of class `c("SOCKcluster", "cluster")`.

Author(s)

Luke Tierney and R Core.

Derived from the **snow** package.

mcaffinity

Get or Set CPU Affinity Mask of the Current Process

Description

`mcaffinity` retrieves or sets the CPU affinity mask of the current process, i.e., the set of CPUs the process is allowed to be run on. (CPU here means logical CPU which can be CPU, core or hyperthread unit.)

Usage

```
mcaffinity(affinity = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>affinity</code>	specification of the CPUs to lock this process to (numeric vector) or NULL if no change is requested
-----------------------	--

Details

`mcaffinity` can be used to obtain (`affinity = NULL`) or set the CPU affinity mask of the current process. The affinity mask is a list of integer CPU identifiers (starting from 1) that this process is allowed to run on. Not all systems provide user access to the process CPU affinity, in cases where no support is present at all `mcaffinity()` will return `NULL`. Some systems may take into account only the number of CPUs present in the mask.

Typically, it is legal to specify larger set than the number of logical CPUs (but at most as many as the OS can handle) and the system will return back the actually present set.

Value

`NULL` if CPU affinity is not supported by the system or an integer vector with the set of CPUs in the active affinity mask for this process (this may be different than `affinity`).

Author(s)

Simon Urbanek.

See Also

[mcparallel](#)

mcchildren

Low-level Functions for Management of Forked Processes

Description

These are low-level support functions for the forking approach.

They are not available on Windows, and not exported from the namespace.

Usage

```
children(select)
readChild(child)
readChildren(timeout = 0)
selectChildren(children = NULL, timeout = 0)
sendChildStdin(child, what)
sendMaster(what)

mckill(process, signal = 2L)
```

Arguments

select	if omitted, all active children are returned, otherwise select should be a list of processes and only those from the list that are active will be returned.
child	child process (object of the class "childProcess") or a process ID (pid). See also 'Details'.
timeout	timeout (in seconds, fractions supported) to wait for a response before giving up.
children	list of child processes or a single child process object or a vector of process IDs or NULL. If NULL behaves as if all currently known children were supplied.
what	For sendChildStdin: Character or raw vector. In the former case elements are collapsed using the newline character. (But no trailing newline is added at the end!) For sendMaster: Data to send to the master process. If what is not a raw vector, it will be serialized into a raw vector. Do NOT send an empty raw vector – that is reserved for internal use.
process	process (object of the class process) or a process ID (pid)
signal	integer: signal to send. Values of 2 (SIGINT), 9 (SIGKILL) and 15 (SIGTERM) are pretty much portable, but for maximal portability use <code>tools::SIGTERM</code> and so on.

Details

children returns currently active children.

readChild reads data from a given child process.

selectChildren checks children for available data.

readChildren checks all children for available data and reads from the first child that has available data.

sendChildStdin sends a string (or data) to one or more child's standard input. Note that if the master session was interactive, it will also be echoed on the standard output of the master process (unless disabled). The function is vector-compatible, so you can specify child as a list or a vector of process IDs.

sendMaster sends data from the child to the master process.

mckill sends a signal to a child process: it is equivalent to `pskill` in package **tools**.

Value

children returns a (possibly empty) list of objects of class "process", the process ID.

readChild and readChildren return a raw vector with a "pid" attribute if data were available, an integer vector of length one with the process ID if a child terminated or NULL if the child no longer exists (no children at all for readChildren).

selectChildren returns TRUE is the timeout was reached, FALSE if an error occurred (e.g., if the master process was interrupted) or an integer vector of process IDs with children that have data available, or NULL if there are no children.

sendChildStdin returns a vector of TRUE values (one for each member of child) or throws an error.

sendMaster returns TRUE or throws an error.

mckill returns TRUE.

Warning

This is a very low-level API for expert use only.

Author(s)

Simon Urbanek and R Core.

Derived from the **multicore** package.

See Also

[mcfork](#), [sendMaster](#), [mcparallel](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:
p <- mcparallel(scan(n = 1, quiet = TRUE))
sendChildStdin(p, "17.4\n")
mccollect(p)[[1]]

## End(Not run)
```

mcfork

Fork a Copy of the Current R Process

Description

These are low-level functions, not available on Windows, and not exported from the namespace.

mcfork creates a new child process as a copy of the current R process.

mcexit closes the current child process, informing the master process as necessary.

Usage

```
mcfork(estranged = FALSE)
```

```
mcexit(exit.code = 0L, send = NULL)
```

Arguments

estranged	logical, if TRUE then the new process has no ties to the parent process, will not show in the list of children and will not be killed on exit.
exit.code	process exit code. By convention 0L signifies a clean exit, 1L an error.
send	if not NULL send this data before exiting (equivalent to using sendMaster).

Details

The `mcfork` function provides an interface to the `fork` system call. In addition it sets up a pipe between the master and child process that can be used to send data from the child process to the master (see [sendMaster](#)) and child's `'stdin'` is re-mapped to another pipe held by the master process (see [sendChildStdin](#)).

If you are not familiar with the `fork` system call, do not use this function directly as it leads to very complex inter-process interactions amongst the R processes involved.

In a nutshell `fork` spawns a copy (child) of the current process, that can work in parallel to the master (parent) process. At the point of forking both processes share exactly the same state including the workspace, global options, loaded packages etc. Forking is relatively cheap in modern operating systems and no real copy of the used memory is created, instead both processes share the same memory and only modified parts are copied. This makes `mcfork` an ideal tool for parallel processing since there is no need to setup the parallel working environment, data and code is shared automatically from the start.

`mcexit` is to be run in the child process. It sends `send` to the master (unless `NULL`) and then shuts down the child process. The child can also be shut down by sending it the signal `SIGUSR1`, as is done by the unexported function `parallel:::rmChild`.

Value

`mcfork` returns an object of the class `"childProcess"` to the master and of class `"masterProcess"` to the child: both the classes inherit from class `"process"`. If `estranged` is set to `TRUE` then the child process will be of the class `"estrangedProcess"` and cannot communicate with the master process nor will it show up on the list of children. These are lists with components `pid` (the process id of the *other* process) and a vector `fd` of the two file descriptor numbers for ends in the current process of the inter-process pipes.

`mcexit` never returns.

GUI/embedded environments

It is *strongly discouraged* to use `mcfork` and the higher-level functions which rely on it (e.g., `mcpipeline`, `mclapply` and `pvec`) in GUI or embedded environments, because it leads to several processes sharing the same GUI which will likely cause chaos (and possibly crashes). Child processes should never use on-screen graphics devices. Some precautions have been taken to make this usable in R.app on OS X, but users of third-party front-ends should consult their documentation.

This can also apply to other connections (e.g., to an X server) created before forking, and to files opened by e.g. graphics devices.

Note that **tcltk** counts as a GUI for these purposes since Tcl runs an event loop. That event loop is inhibited in a child process but there could still be problems with Tk graphical connections.

Warning

This is a very low-level API for expert use only.

Author(s)

Simon Urbanek and R Core.

Derived from the **multicore** package.

See Also

[mcparallel](#), [sendMaster](#)

Examples

```
## This will work when run as an example, but not when pasted in.
p <- parallel::mcfork()
if (inherits(p, "masterProcess")) {
  cat("I'm a child! ", Sys.getpid(), "\n")
  parallel::mcexit("I was a child")
}
cat("I'm the master\n")
unserialize(parallel::readChildren(1.5))
```

mclapply

Parallel Versions of lapply and mapply using Forking

Description

mclapply is a parallelized version of [lapply](#), it returns a list of the same length as X, each element of which is the result of applying FUN to the corresponding element of X.

It relies on forking and hence is not available on Windows unless `mc.cores = 1`.

mcmapply is a parallelized version of [mapply](#), and mcMap corresponds to [Map](#).

Usage

```
mclapply(X, FUN, ...,
         mc.preschedule = TRUE, mc.set.seed = TRUE,
         mc.silent = FALSE, mc.cores = getOption("mc.cores", 2L),
         mc.cleanup = TRUE, mc.allow.recursive = TRUE)

mcmapply(FUN, ...,
         MoreArgs = NULL, SIMPLIFY = TRUE, USE.NAMES = TRUE,
         mc.preschedule = TRUE, mc.set.seed = TRUE,
         mc.silent = FALSE, mc.cores = getOption("mc.cores", 2L),
         mc.cleanup = TRUE)

mcMap(f, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>X</code>	a vector (atomic or list) or an expressions vector. Other objects (including classed objects) will be coerced by as.list .
<code>FUN</code>	the function to be applied to (<code>mclapply</code>) each element of <code>X</code> or (<code>mcmapply</code>) in parallel to
<code>f</code>	the function to be applied in parallel to
<code>...</code>	For <code>mclapply</code> , optional arguments to <code>FUN</code> . For <code>mcmapply</code> and <code>mcMap</code> , vector or list inputs: see mapply .
<code>MoreArgs</code> , <code>SIMPLIFY</code> , <code>USE.NAMES</code>	see mapply .
<code>mc.preschedule</code>	if set to <code>TRUE</code> then the computation is first divided to (at most) as many jobs as there are cores and then the jobs are started, each job possibly covering more than one value. If set to <code>FALSE</code> then one job is forked for each value of <code>X</code> . The former is better for short computations or large number of values in <code>X</code> , the latter is better for jobs that have high variance of completion time and not too many values of <code>X</code> compared to <code>mc.cores</code> .
<code>mc.set.seed</code>	See mcparallel .
<code>mc.silent</code>	if set to <code>TRUE</code> then all output on ‘ <code>stdout</code> ’ will be suppressed for all parallel processes forked (‘ <code>stderr</code> ’ is not affected).
<code>mc.cores</code>	The number of cores to use, i.e. at most how many child processes will be run simultaneously. The option is initialized from environment variable <code>MC_CORES</code> if set. Must be at least one, and parallelization requires at least two cores.
<code>mc.cleanup</code>	if set to <code>TRUE</code> then all children that have been forked by this function will be killed (by sending <code>SIGTERM</code>) before this function returns. Under normal circumstances <code>mclapply</code> waits for the children to deliver results, so this option usually has only effect when <code>mclapply</code> is interrupted. If set to <code>FALSE</code> then child processes are collected, but not forcefully terminated. As a special case this argument can be set to the number of the signal that should be used to kill the children instead of <code>SIGTERM</code> .
<code>mc.allow.recursive</code>	Unless true, calling <code>mclapply</code> in a child process will use the child and not fork again.

Details

`mclapply` is a parallelized version of [lapply](#), provided `mc.cores > 1`: for `mc.cores == 1` it simply calls `lapply`.

By default (`mc.preschedule = TRUE`) the input `X` is split into as many parts as there are cores (currently the values are spread across the cores sequentially, i.e. first value to core 1, second to core 2, ... (core + 1)-th value to core 1 etc.) and then one process is forked to each core and the results are collected.

Without prescheduling, a separate job is forked for each value of `X`. To ensure that no more than `mc.cores` jobs are running at once, once that number has been forked the master process waits for a child to complete before the next fork.

Due to the parallel nature of the execution random numbers are not sequential (in the random number sequence) as they would be when using `lapply`. They are sequential for each forked process, but not all jobs as a whole. See [mcparallel](#) or the package's vignette for ways to make the results reproducible with `mc.preschedule = TRUE`.

Note: the number of file descriptors (and processes) is usually limited by the operating system, so you may have trouble using more than 100 cores or so (see `ulimit -n` or similar in your OS documentation) unless you raise the limit of permissible open file descriptors (fork will fail with error "unable to create a pipe").

Value

For `mclapply`, a list of the same length as `X` and named by `X`.

For `mcmapply`, a list, vector or array: see [mapply](#).

For `mcMap`, a list.

Each forked process runs its job inside `try(..., silent = TRUE)` so if errors occur they will be stored as class "try-error" objects in the return value and a warning will be given. Note that the job will typically involve more than one value of `X` and hence a "try-error" object will be returned for all the values involved in the failure, even if not all of them failed.

Warning

It is *strongly discouraged* to use these functions in GUI or embedded environments, because it leads to several processes sharing the same GUI which will likely cause chaos (and possibly crashes). Child processes should never use on-screen graphics devices.

Some precautions have been taken to make this usable in R .app on OS X, but users of third-party front-ends should consult their documentation.

Note that **teltk** counts as a GUI for these purposes since Tcl runs an event loop. That event loop is inhibited in a child process but there could still be problems with Tk graphical connections.

Author(s)

Simon Urbanek and R Core.

Derived from the **multicore** package.

See Also

[mcparallel](#), [pvec](#), [parLapply](#), [clusterMap](#).

[simplify2array](#) for results like [sapply](#).

Examples

```
simplify2array(mclapply(rep(4, 5), rnorm))
# use the same random numbers for all values
set.seed(1)
simplify2array(mclapply(rep(4, 5), rnorm, mc.preschedule = FALSE,
                        mc.set.seed = FALSE))
```



```
## Contrast this with the examples for clusterCall
library(boot)
cd4.rg <- function(data, mle) MASS::mvrnorm(nrow(data), mle$m, mle$v)
cd4.mle <- list(m = colMeans(cd4), v = var(cd4))
mc <- getOption("mc.cores", 2)
run1 <- function(...) boot(cd4, corr, R = 500, sim = "parametric",
                           ran.gen = cd4.rg, mle = cd4.mle)

## To make this reproducible:
set.seed(123, "L'Ecuyer")
res <- mclapply(seq_len(mc), run1)
cd4.boot <- do.call(c, res)
boot.ci(cd4.boot, type = c("norm", "basic", "perc"),
        conf = 0.9, h = atanh, hinv = tanh)
```

mcparallel

Evaluate an R Expression Asynchronously in a Separate Process

Description

These functions are based on forking and so are not available on Windows.

mcparallel starts a parallel R process which evaluates the given expression.

mccollect collects results from one or more parallel processes.

Usage

```
mcparallel(expr, name, mc.set.seed = TRUE, silent = FALSE,
           mc.affinity = NULL, mc.interactive = FALSE,
           detached = FALSE)
```

```
mccollect(jobs, wait = TRUE, timeout = 0, intermediate = FALSE)
```

Arguments

expr	expression to evaluate (do <i>not</i> use any on-screen devices or GUI elements in this code).
name	an optional name (character vector of length one) that can be associated with the job.
mc.set.seed	logical: see section ‘Random numbers’.
silent	if set to TRUE then all output on stdout will be suppressed (stderr is not affected).
mc.affinity	either a numeric vector specifying CPUs to restrict the child process to (1-based) or NULL to not modify the CPU affinity
mc.interactive	logical, if TRUE or FALSE then the child process will be set as interactive or non-interactive respectively. If NA then the child process will inherit the interactive flag from the parent.
detached	logical, if TRUE then the job is detached from the current session and cannot deliver any results back - it is used for the code side-effect only.

<code>jobs</code>	list of jobs (or a single job) to collect results for. Alternatively <code>jobs</code> can also be an integer vector of process IDs. If omitted <code>collect</code> will wait for all currently existing children.
<code>wait</code>	if set to <code>FALSE</code> it checks for any results that are available within <code>timeout</code> seconds from now, otherwise it waits for all specified jobs to finish.
<code>timeout</code>	timeout (in seconds) to check for job results – applies only if <code>wait</code> is <code>FALSE</code> .
<code>intermediate</code>	<code>FALSE</code> or a function which will be called while <code>collect</code> waits for results. The function will be called with one parameter which is the list of results received so far.

Details

`mcpParallel` evaluates the `expr` expression in parallel to the current R process. Everything is shared read-only (or in fact copy-on-write) between the parallel process and the current process, i.e. no side-effects of the expression affect the main process. The result of the parallel execution can be collected using `mccollect` function.

`mccollect` function collects any available results from parallel jobs (or in fact any child process). If `wait` is `TRUE` then `collect` waits for all specified jobs to finish before returning a list containing the last reported result for each job. If `wait` is `FALSE` then `mccollect` merely checks for any results available at the moment and will not wait for jobs to finish. If `jobs` is specified, jobs not listed there will not be affected or acted upon.

Note: If `expr` uses low-level multicore functions such as `sendMaster` a single job can deliver results multiple times and it is the responsibility of the user to interpret them correctly. `mccollect` will return `NULL` for a terminating job that has sent its results already after which the job is no longer available.

The `mc.affinity` parameter can be used to try to restrict the child process to specific CPUs. The availability and the extent of this feature is system-dependent (e.g., some systems will only consider the CPU count, others will ignore it completely).

Value

`mcpParallel` returns an object of the class `"parallelJob"` which inherits from `"childProcess"` (see the ‘Value’ section of the help for `mcfork`). If argument `name` was supplied this will have an additional component `name`.

`mccollect` returns any results that are available in a list. The results will have the same order as the specified jobs. If there are multiple jobs and a job has a name it will be used to name the result, otherwise its process ID will be used. If none of the specified children are still running, it returns `NULL`.

Random numbers

If `mc.set.seed = FALSE`, the child process has the same initial random number generator (RNG) state as the current R session. If the RNG has been used (or `.Random.seed` was restored from a saved workspace), the child will start drawing random numbers at the same point as the current session. If the RNG has not yet been used, the child will set a seed based on the time and process ID when it first uses the RNG: this is pretty much guaranteed to give a different random-number stream from the current session and any other child process.

The behaviour with `mc.set.seed = TRUE` is different only if `RNGkind("L'Ecuyer-CMRG")` has been selected. Then each time a child is forked it is given the next stream (see `nextRNGStream`). So if you select that generator, set a seed and call `mc.reset.stream` just before the first use of `mcpParallel` the results of simulations will be reproducible provided the same tasks are given to the first, second, ... forked process.

Note

Package **multicore** also exported functions `collect` and `parallel`. These names are easily masked (for example package **lattice** also has a function `parallel`) and they are not supplied in this package.

Author(s)

Simon Urbanek and R Core.

Derived from the **multicore** package (but with different handling of the RNG stream).

See Also

`pvec`, `mclapply`

Examples

```
p <- mcpParallel(1:10)
q <- mcpParallel(1:20)
# wait for both jobs to finish and collect all results
res <- mcollect(list(p, q))

p <- mcpParallel(1:10)
mcollect(p, wait = FALSE, 10) # will retrieve the result (since it's fast)
mcollect(p, wait = FALSE)    # will signal the job as terminating
mcollect(p, wait = FALSE)    # there is no longer such a job

# a naive parallel lapply can be created using mcpParallel alone:
jobs <- lapply(1:10, function(x) mcpParallel(rnorm(x), name = x))
mcollect(jobs)
```

pvec

Parallelize a Vector Map Function using Forking

Description

`pvec` parallelizes the execution of a function on vector elements by splitting the vector and submitting each part to one core. The function must be a vectorized map, i.e. it takes a vector input and creates a vector output of exactly the same length as the input which doesn't depend on the partition of the vector.

It relies on forking and hence is not available on Windows unless `mc.cores = 1`.

Usage

```
pvec(v, FUN, ..., mc.set.seed = TRUE, mc.silent = FALSE,
      mc.cores = getOption("mc.cores", 2L), mc.cleanup = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>v</code>	vector to operate on
<code>FUN</code>	function to call on each part of the vector
<code>...</code>	any further arguments passed to <code>FUN</code> after the vector
<code>mc.set.seed</code>	See mcparallel .
<code>mc.silent</code>	if set to <code>TRUE</code> then all output on ‘ <code>stdout</code> ’ will be suppressed for all parallel processes forked (‘ <code>stderr</code> ’ is not affected).
<code>mc.cores</code>	The number of cores to use, i.e. at most how many child processes will be run simultaneously. Must be at least one, and at least two for parallel operation. The option is initialized from environment variable <code>MC_CORES</code> if set.
<code>mc.cleanup</code>	See the description of this argument in mclapply .

Details

`pvec` parallelizes `FUN(x, ...)` where `FUN` is a function that returns a vector of the same length as `x`. `FUN` must also be pure (i.e., without side-effects) since side-effects are not collected from the parallel processes. The vector is split into nearly identically sized subvectors on which `FUN` is run. Although it is in principle possible to use functions that are not necessarily maps, the interpretation would be case-specific as the splitting is in theory arbitrary (a warning is given in such cases).

The major difference between `pvec` and [mclapply](#) is that `mclapply` will run `FUN` on each element separately whereas `pvec` assumes that `c(FUN(x[1]), FUN(x[2]))` is equivalent to `FUN(x[1:2])` and thus will split into as many calls to `FUN` as there are cores (or elements, if fewer), each handling a subset vector. This makes it more efficient than `mclapply` but requires the above assumption on `FUN`.

If `mc.cores == 1` this evaluates `FUN(v, ...)` in the current process.

Value

The result of the computation – in a successful case it should be of the same length as `v`. If an error occurred or the function was not a map the result may be shorter or longer, and a warning is given.

Note

Due to the nature of the parallelization, error handling does not follow the usual rules since errors will be returned as strings and results from killed child processes will show up simply as non-existent data. Therefore it is the responsibility of the user to check the length of the result to make sure it is of the correct size. `pvec` raises a warning if that is the case since it does not know whether such an outcome is intentional or not.

See [mcfork](#) for the inadvisability of using this with GUI front-ends.

Author(s)

Simon Urbanek and R Core.

Derived from the **multicore** package.

See Also

[mcparallel](#), [mclapply](#), [parLapply](#), [clusterMap](#).

Examples

```
x <- pvec(1:1000, sqrt)
stopifnot(all(x == sqrt(1:1000)))

# One use is to convert date strings to unix time in large datasets
# as that is a relatively slow operation.
# So let's get some random dates first
# (A small test only with 2 cores: set options("mc.cores")
# and increase N for a larger-scale test.)
N <- 1e5
dates <- sprintf('%04d-%02d-%02d', as.integer(2000+rnorm(N)),
                 as.integer(runif(N, 1, 12)), as.integer(runif(N, 1, 28)))

system.time(a <- as.POSIXct(dates))

# But specifying the format is faster
system.time(a <- as.POSIXct(dates, format = "%Y-%m-%d"))

# pvec ought to be faster, but system overhead can be high
system.time(b <- pvec(dates, as.POSIXct, format = "%Y-%m-%d"))
stopifnot(all(a == b))

# using mclapply for this would much slower because each value
# will require a separate call to as.POSIXct()
# as lapply(dates, as.POSIXct) does
system.time(c <- unlist(mclapply(dates, as.POSIXct, format = "%Y-%m-%d")))
stopifnot(all(a == c))
```

Description

This is an R re-implementation of Pierre L'Ecuyer's 'RngStreams' multiple streams of pseudo-random numbers.

Usage

```
nextRNGStream(seed)
nextRNGSubStream(seed)

clusterSetRNGStream(cl = NULL, iseed)
mc.reset.stream()
```

Arguments

seed	An integer vector of length 7 as given by <code>.Random.seed</code> when the "L'Ecuyer-CMRG" RNG is in use. See RNG for the valid values.
cl	A cluster from this package or package snow , or (if NULL) the registered cluster.
iseed	An integer to be supplied to set.seed , or NULL not to set reproducible seeds.

Details

The 'RngStream' interface works with (potentially) multiple streams of pseudo-random numbers: this is particularly suitable for working with parallel computations since each task can be assigned a separate RNG stream.

This uses as its underlying generator `RNGkind("L'Ecuyer-CMRG")`, of L'Ecuyer (1999), which has a seed vector of 6 (signed) integers and a period of around 2^{191} . Each 'stream' is a subsequence of the period of length 2^{127} which is in turn divided into 'substreams' of length 2^{76} .

The idea of L'Ecuyer *et al* (2002) is to use a separate stream for each of the parallel computations (which ensures that the random numbers generated never get into to sync) and the parallel computations can themselves use substreams if required. The original interface stores the original seed of the first stream, the original seed of the current stream and the current seed: this could be implemented in R, but it is as easy to work by saving the relevant values of `.Random.seed`: see the examples.

`clusterSetRNGStream` selects the "L'Ecuyer-CMRG" RNG and then distributes streams to the members of a cluster, optionally setting the seed of the streams by `set.seed(iseed)` (otherwise they are set from the current seed of the master process: after selecting the L'Ecuyer generator).

Calling `mc.reset.stream()` after setting the L'Ecuyer random number generator and seed makes runs from `mcparallel(mc.set.seed = TRUE)` reproducible. This is done internally in `mclapply` and `pvec`. (Note that it does not set the seed in the master process, so does not affect the fallback-to-serial versions of these functions.)

Value

For `nextRNGStream` and `nextRNGSubStream`, a value which can be assigned to `.Random.seed`.

Note

Interfaces to L'Ecuyer's C code are available in CRAN packages **rlecuyer** and **rstream**.

Author(s)

Brian Ripley

References

L'Ecuyer, P. (1999) Good parameters and implementations for combined multiple recursive random number generators. *Operations Research* **47**, 159–164.

L'Ecuyer, P., Simard, R., Chen, E. J. and Kelton, W. D. (2002) An object-oriented random-number package with many long streams and substreams. *Operations Research* **50** 1073–5.

See Also

[RNG](#) for fuller details of R's built-in random number generators.

The vignette for package **parallel**.

Examples

```
RNGkind("L'Ecuyer-CMRG")
set.seed(123)
(s <- .Random.seed)
## do some work involving random numbers.
nextRNGStream(s)
nextRNGSubStream(s)
```

splitIndices

Divide Tasks for Distribution in a Cluster

Description

This divides up $1:nx$ into ncl lists of approximately equal size, as a way to allocate tasks to nodes in a cluster.

It is mainly for internal use, but some package authors have found it useful.

Usage

```
splitIndices(nx, ncl)
```

Arguments

<code>nx</code>	Number of tasks.
<code>ncl</code>	Number of cluster nodes.

Value

A list of length ncl , each element being an integer vector.

Examples

```
splitIndices(20, 3)
```

Chapter 9

The splines package

splines-package

Regression Spline Functions and Classes

Description

Regression spline functions and classes.

Details

This package provides functions for working with regression splines using the B-spline basis, [bs](#), and the natural cubic spline basis, [ns](#).

For a complete list of functions, use `library(help = "splines")`.

Author(s)

Douglas M. Bates <bates@stat.wisc.edu> and William N. Venables
<Bill.Venables@csiro.au>

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

asVector

Coerce an Object to a Vector

Description

This is a generic function. Methods for this function coerce objects of given classes to vectors.

Usage

`asVector(object)`

Arguments

object An object.

Details

Methods for vector coercion in new classes must be created for the `asVector` generic instead of `as.vector`. The `as.vector` function is internal and not easily extended. Currently the only class with an `asVector` method is the `xyVector` class.

Value

a vector

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

See Also

[xyVector](#)

Examples

```
require(stats)
ispl <- interpSpline( weight ~ height, women )
pred <- predict(ispl)
class(pred)
utils::str(pred)
asVector(pred)
```

backSpline

Monotone Inverse Spline

Description

Create a monotone inverse of a monotone natural spline.

Usage

```
backSpline(object)
```

Arguments

object an object that inherits from class `nbSpline` or `npolySpline`. That is, the object must represent a natural interpolation spline but it can be either in the B-spline representation or the piecewise polynomial one. The spline is checked to see if it represents a monotone function.

Value

An object of class `polySpline` that contains the piecewise polynomial representation of a function that has the appropriate values and derivatives at the knot positions to be an inverse of the spline represented by object. Technically this object is not a spline because the second derivative is not constrained to be continuous at the knot positions. However, it is often a much better approximation to the inverse than fitting an interpolation spline to the y/x pairs.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

See Also

[interpSpline](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)
ispl <- interpSpline( women$height, women$weight )
bspl <- backSpline( ispl )
plot( bspl )           # plots over the range of the knots
points( women$weight, women$height )
```

bs	<i>B-spline Basis for Polynomial Splines</i>
----	--

Description

Generate the B-spline basis matrix for a polynomial spline.

Usage

```
bs(x, df = NULL, knots = NULL, degree = 3, intercept = FALSE,
   Boundary.knots = range(x))
```

Arguments

- | | |
|--------|--|
| x | the predictor variable. Missing values are allowed. |
| df | degrees of freedom; one can specify <code>df</code> rather than <code>knots</code> ; <code>bs()</code> then chooses <code>df-degree</code> (minus one if there is an intercept) knots at suitable quantiles of <code>x</code> (which will ignore missing values). The default, <code>NULL</code> , corresponds to <i>no</i> inner knots, i.e., <code>degree - intercept</code> . |
| knots | the <i>internal</i> breakpoints that define the spline. The default is <code>NULL</code> , which results in a basis for ordinary polynomial regression. Typical values are the mean or median for one knot, quantiles for more knots. See also <code>Boundary.knots</code> . |
| degree | degree of the piecewise polynomial—default is 3 for cubic splines. |

`intercept` if TRUE, an intercept is included in the basis; default is FALSE.

`Boundary.knots` boundary points at which to anchor the B-spline basis (default the range of the non-NA data). If both `knots` and `Boundary.knots` are supplied, the basis parameters do not depend on `x`. Data can extend beyond `Boundary.knots`.

Details

`bs` is based on the function [spline.des](#). It generates a basis matrix for representing the family of piecewise polynomials with the specified interior knots and degree, evaluated at the values of `x`. A primary use is in modeling formulas to directly specify a piecewise polynomial term in a model.

When `Boundary.knots` are set *inside* `range(x)`, `bs()` now uses a ‘pivot’ inside the respective boundary knot which is important for derivative evaluation. In R versions $\leq 3.2.2$, the boundary knot itself had been used as pivot, which lead to somewhat wrong extrapolations.

Value

A matrix of dimension `c(length(x), df)`, where either `df` was supplied or if `knots` were supplied, `df = length(knots) + degree plus one` if there is an intercept. Attributes are returned that correspond to the arguments to `bs`, and explicitly give the `knots`, `Boundary.knots` etc for use by `predict.bs()`.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables. Tweaks by R Core, and a patch fixing extrapolation “outside” `Boundary.knots` by Trevor Hastie.

References

Hastie, T. J. (1992) Generalized additive models. Chapter 7 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[ns](#), [poly](#), [smooth.spline](#), [predict.bs](#), [SafePrediction](#)

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
bs(women$height, df = 5)
summary(fm1 <- lm(weight ~ bs(height, df = 5), data = women))

## example of safe prediction
plot(women, xlab = "Height (in)", ylab = "Weight (lb)")
ht <- seq(57, 73, length.out = 200)
lines(ht, predict(fm1, data.frame(height = ht)))
```

interpSpline	Create an Interpolation Spline
--------------	--------------------------------

Description

Create an interpolation spline, either from x and y vectors (default method), or from a formula / data.frame combination (formula method).

Usage

```
interpSpline(obj1, obj2, bSpline = FALSE, period = NULL,  
             na.action = na.fail, sparse = FALSE)
```

Arguments

obj1	either a numeric vector of x values or a formula.
obj2	if obj1 is numeric this should be a numeric vector of the same length. If obj1 is a formula this can be an optional data frame in which to evaluate the names in the formula.
bSpline	if TRUE the b-spline representation is returned, otherwise the piecewise polynomial representation is returned. Defaults to FALSE.
period	an optional positive numeric value giving a period for a periodic interpolation spline.
na.action	a optional function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default action (<code>na.omit</code>) is to omit any incomplete observations. The alternative action <code>na.fail</code> causes <code>interpSpline</code> to print an error message and terminate if there are any incomplete observations.
sparse	logical passed to the underlying splineDesign . If true, saves memory and is faster when there are more than a few hundred points.

Value

An object that inherits from (S3) class `spline`. The object can be in the B-spline representation, in which case it will be of class `nbSpline` for natural B-spline, or in the piecewise polynomial representation, in which case it will be of class `npolySpline`.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

See Also

[splineKnots](#), [splineOrder](#), [periodicSpline](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics); require(stats)
ispl <- interpSpline( women$height, women$weight )
ispl2 <- interpSpline( weight ~ height, women )
# ispl and ispl2 should be the same
plot( predict( ispl, seq( 55, 75, length.out = 51 ) ), type = "l" )
points( women$height, women$weight )
plot( ispl )      # plots over the range of the knots
points( women$height, women$weight )
splineKnots( ispl )
```

 ns

Generate a Basis Matrix for Natural Cubic Splines

Description

Generate the B-spline basis matrix for a natural cubic spline.

Usage

```
ns(x, df = NULL, knots = NULL, intercept = FALSE,
   Boundary.knots = range(x))
```

Arguments

x	the predictor variable. Missing values are allowed.
df	degrees of freedom. One can supply df rather than knots; ns() then chooses df - 1 - intercept knots at suitably chosen quantiles of x (which will ignore missing values). The default, df = 1, corresponds to <i>no</i> knots.
knots	breakpoints that define the spline. The default is no knots; together with the natural boundary conditions this results in a basis for linear regression on x. Typical values are the mean or median for one knot, quantiles for more knots. See also Boundary.knots.
intercept	if TRUE, an intercept is included in the basis; default is FALSE.
Boundary.knots	boundary points at which to impose the natural boundary conditions and anchor the B-spline basis (default the range of the data). If both knots and Boundary.knots are supplied, the basis parameters do not depend on x. Data can extend beyond Boundary.knots

Details

ns is based on the function [spline.des](#). It generates a basis matrix for representing the family of piecewise-cubic splines with the specified sequence of interior knots, and the natural boundary conditions. These enforce the constraint that the function is linear beyond the boundary knots, which can either be supplied or default to the extremes of the data.

A primary use is in modeling formula to directly specify a natural spline term in a model: see the examples.

Value

A matrix of dimension $\text{length}(x) * df$ where either `df` was supplied or if `knots` were supplied, $df = \text{length}(\text{knots}) + 1 + \text{intercept}$. Attributes are returned that correspond to the arguments to `ns`, and explicitly give the `knots`, `Boundary.knots` etc for use by `predict.ns()`.

References

Hastie, T. J. (1992) Generalized additive models. Chapter 7 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[bs](#), [predict.ns](#), [SafePrediction](#)

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
ns(women$height, df = 5)
summary(fm1 <- lm(weight ~ ns(height, df = 5), data = women))

## To see what knots were selected
attr(terms(fm1), "predvars")

## example of safe prediction
plot(women, xlab = "Height (in)", ylab = "Weight (lb)")
ht <- seq(57, 73, length.out = 200)
lines(ht, predict(fm1, data.frame(height = ht)))
```

periodicSpline

Create a Periodic Interpolation Spline

Description

Create a periodic interpolation spline, either from `x` and `y` vectors, or from a formula/data.frame combination.

Usage

```
periodicSpline(obj1, obj2, knots, period = 2*pi, ord = 4)
```

Arguments

<code>obj1</code>	either a numeric vector of <code>x</code> values or a formula.
<code>obj2</code>	if <code>obj1</code> is numeric this should be a numeric vector of the same length. If <code>obj1</code> is a formula this can be an optional data frame in which to evaluate the names in the formula.
<code>knots</code>	optional numeric vector of knot positions.

period	positive numeric value giving the period for the periodic spline. Defaults to $2 * \pi$.
ord	integer giving the order of the spline, at least 2. Defaults to 4. See splineOrder for a definition of the order of a spline.

Value

An object that inherits from class `spline`. The object can be in the B-spline representation, in which case it will be a `pbSpline` object, or in the piecewise polynomial representation (a `ppolySpline` object).

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

See Also

[splineKnots](#), [interpSpline](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics); require(stats)
xx <- seq( -pi, pi, length.out = 16 )[-1]
yy <- sin( xx )
frm <- data.frame( xx, yy )
pispl <- periodicSpline( xx, yy, period = 2 * pi )
pispl
pispl2 <- periodicSpline( yy ~ xx, frm, period = 2 * pi )
stopifnot(all.equal(pispl, pispl2)) # pispl and pispl2 are the same

plot( pispl )           # displays over one period
points( yy ~ xx, col = "brown")
plot( predict( pispl, seq(-3*pi, 3*pi, length.out = 101) ), type = "l" )
```

polySpline

Piecewise Polynomial Spline Representation

Description

Create the piecewise polynomial representation of a spline object.

Usage

```
polySpline(object, ...)
as.polySpline(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	An object that inherits from class <code>spline</code> .
...	Optional additional arguments. At present no additional arguments are used.

Value

An object that inherits from class `polySpline`. This is the piecewise polynomial representation of a univariate spline function. It is defined by a set of distinct numeric values called knots. The spline function is a polynomial function between each successive pair of knots. At each interior knot the polynomial segments on each side are constrained to have the same value of the function and some of its derivatives.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

See Also

[interpSpline](#), [periodicSpline](#), [splineKnots](#), [splineOrder](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)
ispl <- polySpline(interpSpline( weight ~ height, women, bSpline = TRUE))
print( ispl )    # print the piecewise polynomial representation
plot( ispl )     # plots over the range of the knots
points( women$height, women$weight )
```

predict.bs

Evaluate a Spline Basis

Description

Evaluate a predefined spline basis at given values.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'bs'
predict(object, newx, ...)

## S3 method for class 'ns'
predict(object, newx, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	the result of a call to <code>bs</code> or <code>ns</code> having attributes describing knots, degree, etc.
<code>newx</code>	the x values at which evaluations are required.
<code>...</code>	Optional additional arguments. At present no additional arguments are used.

Value

An object just like object, except evaluated at the new values of x.

These are methods for the generic function `predict` for objects inheriting from classes "bs" or "ns". See `predict` for the general behavior of this function.

See Also

`bs`, `ns`, `poly`.

Examples

```
require(stats)
basis <- ns(women$height, df = 5)
newX <- seq(58, 72, length.out = 51)
# evaluate the basis at the new data
predict(basis, newX)
```

predict.bSpline

Evaluate a Spline at New Values of x

Description

The predict methods for the classes that inherit from the virtual classes bSpline and polySpline are used to evaluate the spline or its derivatives. The plot method for a spline object first evaluates predict with the x argument missing, then plots the resulting xyVector with type = "l".

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'bSpline'
predict(object, x, nseg = 50, deriv = 0, ...)
## S3 method for class 'nbSpline'
predict(object, x, nseg = 50, deriv = 0, ...)
## S3 method for class 'pbSpline'
predict(object, x, nseg = 50, deriv = 0, ...)
## S3 method for class 'npolySpline'
predict(object, x, nseg = 50, deriv = 0, ...)
## S3 method for class 'ppolySpline'
predict(object, x, nseg = 50, deriv = 0, ...)
```

Arguments

object	An object that inherits from the bSpline or the polySpline class.
x	A numeric vector of x values at which to evaluate the spline. If this argument is missing a suitable set of x values is generated as a sequence of nseg segments spanning the range of the knots.

nseg	A positive integer giving the number of segments in a set of equally-spaced x values spanning the range of the knots in object. This value is only used if x is missing.
deriv	An integer between 0 and <code>splineOrder(object) - 1</code> specifying the derivative to evaluate.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

an `xyVector` with components

x	the supplied or inferred numeric vector of x values
y	the value of the spline (or its <code>deriv</code> 'th derivative) at the x vector

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

See Also

[xyVector](#), [interpSpline](#), [periodicSpline](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics); require(stats)
ispl <- interpSpline( weight ~ height, women )
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2, 2), las = 1)
plot(predict(ispl, nseg = 201),      # plots over the range of the knots
      main = "Original data with interpolating spline", type = "l",
      xlab = "height", ylab = "weight")
points(women$height, women$weight, col = 4)
plot(predict(ispl, nseg = 201, deriv = 1),
      main = "First derivative of interpolating spline", type = "l",
      xlab = "height", ylab = "weight")
plot(predict(ispl, nseg = 201, deriv = 2),
      main = "Second derivative of interpolating spline", type = "l",
      xlab = "height", ylab = "weight")
plot(predict(ispl, nseg = 401, deriv = 3),
      main = "Third derivative of interpolating spline", type = "l",
      xlab = "height", ylab = "weight")
par(opar)
```

splineDesign

*Design Matrix for B-splines***Description**

Evaluate the design matrix for the B-splines defined by knots at the values in x.

Usage

```
splineDesign(knots, x, ord = 4, derivs, outer.ok = FALSE,
             sparse = FALSE)
spline.des (knots, x, ord = 4, derivs, outer.ok = FALSE,
           sparse = FALSE)
```

Arguments

knots	a numeric vector of knot positions (which will be sorted increasingly if needed).
x	a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the B-spline functions or derivatives. Unless <code>outer.ok</code> is true, the values in x must be between the “inner” knots <code>knots[ord]</code> and <code>knots[length(knots) - (ord-1)]</code> .
ord	a positive integer giving the order of the spline function. This is the number of coefficients in each piecewise polynomial segment, thus a cubic spline has order 4. Defaults to 4.
derivs	an integer vector with values between 0 and <code>ord - 1</code> , conceptually recycled to the length of x. The derivative of the given order is evaluated at the x positions. Defaults to zero (or a vector of zeroes of the same length as x).
outer.ok	logical indicating if x should be allowed outside the <i>inner</i> knots, see the x argument.
sparse	logical indicating if the result should inherit from class “ <code>sparseMatrix</code> ” (from package Matrix).

Value

A matrix with `length(x)` rows and `length(knots) - ord` columns. The i'th row of the matrix contains the coefficients of the B-splines (or the indicated derivative of the B-splines) defined by the knot vector and evaluated at the i'th value of x. Each B-spline is defined by a set of `ord` successive knots so the total number of B-splines is `length(knots) - ord`.

Note

The older `spline.des` function takes the same arguments but returns a list with several components including `knots`, `ord`, `derivs`, and `design`. The design component is the same as the value of the `splineDesign` function.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

Examples

```

require(graphics)
splineDesign(knots = 1:10, x = 4:7)
splineDesign(knots = 1:10, x = 4:7, deriv = 1)
## visualize band structure
Matrix::drop0(zapsmall(6*splineDesign(knots = 1:40, x = 4:37, sparse = TRUE)))

knots <- c(1,1.8,3:5,6.5,7,8.1,9.2,10) # 10 => 10-4 = 6 Basis splines
x <- seq(min(knots)-1, max(knots)+1, length.out = 501)
bb <- splineDesign(knots, x = x, outer.ok = TRUE)

plot(range(x), c(0,1), type = "n", xlab = "x", ylab = "",
      main = "B-splines - sum to 1 inside inner knots")
mtext(expression(B[j](x) * " and " * sum(B[j](x), j == 1, 6)), adj = 0)
abline(v = knots, lty = 3, col = "light gray")
abline(v = knots[c(4,length(knots)-3)], lty = 3, col = "gray10")
lines(x, rowSums(bb), col = "gray", lwd = 2)
matlines(x, bb, ylim = c(0,1), lty = 1)

```

splineKnots

Knot Vector from a Spline

Description

Return the knot vector corresponding to a spline object.

Usage

```
splineKnots(object)
```

Arguments

object an object that inherits from class "spline".

Value

A non-decreasing numeric vector of knot positions.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

Examples

```

ispl <- interpSpline( weight ~ height, women )
splineKnots( ispl )

```

splineOrder	<i>Determine the Order of a Spline</i>
-------------	--

Description

Return the order of a spline object.

Usage

```
splineOrder(object)
```

Arguments

object An object that inherits from class "spline".

Details

The order of a spline is the number of coefficients in each piece of the piecewise polynomial representation. Thus a cubic spline has order 4.

Value

A positive integer.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

See Also

[splineKnots](#), [interpSpline](#), [periodicSpline](#)

Examples

```
splineOrder( interpSpline( weight ~ height, women ) )
```

`xyVector`*Construct an xyVector Object*

Description

Create an object to represent a set of x-y pairs. The resulting object can be treated as a matrix or as a data frame or as a vector. When treated as a vector it reduces to the y component only.

The result of functions such as `predict.spline` is returned as an `xyVector` object so the x-values used to generate the y-positions are retained, say for purposes of generating plots.

Usage

```
xyVector(x, y)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector
<code>y</code>	a numeric vector of the same length as <code>x</code>

Value

An object of class `xyVector` with components

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector
<code>y</code>	a numeric vector of the same length as <code>x</code>

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Bill Venables

Examples

```
require(stats); require(graphics)
ispl <- interpSpline( weight ~ height, women )
weights <- predict( ispl, seq( 55, 75, length.out = 51 ))
class( weights )
plot( weights, type = "l", xlab = "height", ylab = "weight" )
points( women$height, women$weight )
weights
```


Chapter 10

The stats package

stats-package

The R Stats Package

Description

R statistical functions

Details

This package contains functions for statistical calculations and random number generation.

For a complete list of functions, use `library(help = "stats")`.

Author(s)

R Core Team and contributors worldwide

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

.checkMFClasses

Functions to Check the Type of Variables passed to Model Frames

Description

`.checkMFClasses` checks if the variables used in a predict method agree in type with those used for fitting.

`.MFclass` categorizes variables for this purpose.

Usage

```
.checkMFClasses(cl, m, ordNotOK = FALSE)
```

```
.MFclass(x)
```

```
.getXlevels(Terms, m)
```


Arguments

<code>cl</code>	a character vector of class descriptions to match.
<code>m</code>	a model frame.
<code>x</code>	any R object.
<code>ordNotOK</code>	logical: are ordered factors different?
<code>Terms</code>	a terms object.

Details

For applications involving `model.matrix` such as linear models we do not need to differentiate between ordered factors and factors as although these affect the coding, the coding used in the fit is already recorded and imposed during prediction. However, other applications may treat ordered factors differently: `rpart` does, for example.

Value

`.MFclass` returns a character string, one of "logical", "ordered", "factor", "numeric", "nmatrix.*" (a numeric matrix with a number of columns appended) or "other".

`.getXlevels` returns a named character vector, or NULL.

 acf

Auto- and Cross- Covariance and -Correlation Function Estimation

Description

The function `acf` computes (and by default plots) estimates of the autocovariance or autocorrelation function. Function `pacf` is the function used for the partial autocorrelations. Function `ccf` computes the cross-correlation or cross-covariance of two univariate series.

Usage

```
acf(x, lag.max = NULL,
    type = c("correlation", "covariance", "partial"),
    plot = TRUE, na.action = na.fail, demean = TRUE, ...)

pacf(x, lag.max, plot, na.action, ...)

## Default S3 method:
pacf(x, lag.max = NULL, plot = TRUE, na.action = na.fail,
     ...)

ccf(x, y, lag.max = NULL, type = c("correlation", "covariance"),
    plot = TRUE, na.action = na.fail, ...)

## S3 method for class 'acf'
x[i, j]
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	a univariate or multivariate (not <code>ccf</code>) numeric time series object or a numeric vector or matrix, or an "acf" object.
<code>lag.max</code>	maximum lag at which to calculate the acf. Default is $10 \log_{10}(N/m)$ where N is the number of observations and m the number of series. Will be automatically limited to one less than the number of observations in the series.
<code>type</code>	character string giving the type of acf to be computed. Allowed values are "correlation" (the default), "covariance" or "partial". Will be partially matched.
<code>plot</code>	logical. If TRUE (the default) the acf is plotted.
<code>na.action</code>	function to be called to handle missing values. <code>na.pass</code> can be used.
<code>demean</code>	logical. Should the covariances be about the sample means?
<code>...</code>	further arguments to be passed to <code>plot.acf</code> .
<code>i</code>	a set of lags (time differences) to retain.
<code>j</code>	a set of series (names or numbers) to retain.

Details

For `type = "correlation"` and `"covariance"`, the estimates are based on the sample covariance. (The lag 0 autocorrelation is fixed at 1 by convention.)

By default, no missing values are allowed. If the `na.action` function passes through missing values (as `na.pass` does), the covariances are computed from the complete cases. This means that the estimate computed may well not be a valid autocorrelation sequence, and may contain missing values. Missing values are not allowed when computing the PACF of a multivariate time series.

The partial correlation coefficient is estimated by fitting autoregressive models of successively higher orders up to `lag.max`.

The generic function `plot` has a method for objects of class "acf".

The lag is returned and plotted in units of time, and not numbers of observations.

There are `print` and subsetting methods for objects of class "acf".

Value

An object of class "acf", which is a list with the following elements:

<code>lag</code>	A three dimensional array containing the lags at which the acf is estimated.
<code>acf</code>	An array with the same dimensions as <code>lag</code> containing the estimated acf.
<code>type</code>	The type of correlation (same as the <code>type</code> argument).
<code>n.used</code>	The number of observations in the time series.
<code>series</code>	The name of the series <code>x</code> .
<code>snames</code>	The series names for a multivariate time series.

The lag `k` value returned by `ccf(x, y)` estimates the correlation between `x[t+k]` and `y[t]`.

The result is returned invisibly if `plot` is TRUE.

Author(s)

Original: Paul Gilbert, Martyn Plummer. Extensive modifications and univariate case of pacf by B. D. Ripley.

References

Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. Fourth Edition. Springer-Verlag.

(This contains the exact definitions used.)

See Also

[plot.acf](#), [ARMAacf](#) for the exact autocorrelations of a given ARMA process.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Examples from Venables & Ripley
acf(lh)
acf(lh, type = "covariance")
pacf(lh)

acf(ldeaths)
acf(ldeaths, ci.type = "ma")
acf(ts.union(mdeaths, fdeaths))
ccf(mdeaths, fdeaths, ylab = "cross-correlation")
# (just the cross-correlations)

presidents # contains missing values
acf(presidents, na.action = na.pass)
pacf(presidents, na.action = na.pass)
```

acf2AR

Compute an AR Process Exactly Fitting an ACF

Description

Compute an AR process exactly fitting an autocorrelation function.

Usage

```
acf2AR(acf)
```

Arguments

`acf` An autocorrelation or autocovariance sequence.

Value

A matrix, with one row for the computed AR(p) coefficients for $1 \leq p \leq \text{length}(\text{acf})$.

See Also

[ARMAacf](#), [ar.yw](#) which does this from an empirical ACF.

Examples

```
(Acf <- ARMAacf(c(0.6, 0.3, -0.2)))
acf2AR(Acf)
```

add1

Add or Drop All Possible Single Terms to a Model

Description

Compute all the single terms in the scope argument that can be added to or dropped from the model, fit those models and compute a table of the changes in fit.

Usage

```
add1(object, scope, ...)

## Default S3 method:
add1(object, scope, scale = 0, test = c("none", "Chisq"),
      k = 2, trace = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
add1(object, scope, scale = 0, test = c("none", "Chisq", "F"),
      x = NULL, k = 2, ...)

## S3 method for class 'glm'
add1(object, scope, scale = 0,
      test = c("none", "Rao", "LRT", "Chisq", "F"),
      x = NULL, k = 2, ...)

drop1(object, scope, ...)

## Default S3 method:
drop1(object, scope, scale = 0, test = c("none", "Chisq"),
       k = 2, trace = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
drop1(object, scope, scale = 0, all.cols = TRUE,
       test = c("none", "Chisq", "F"), k = 2, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'glm'
drop1(object, scope, scale = 0,
      test = c("none", "Rao", "LRT", "Chisq", "F"),
      k = 2, ...)
```

Arguments

object	a fitted model object.
scope	a formula giving the terms to be considered for adding or dropping.
scale	an estimate of the residual mean square to be used in computing C_p . Ignored if 0 or NULL.
test	should the results include a test statistic relative to the original model? The F test is only appropriate for <code>lm</code> and <code>aov</code> models or perhaps for <code>glm</code> fits with estimated dispersion. The χ^2 test can be an exact test (<code>lm</code> models with known scale) or a likelihood-ratio test or a test of the reduction in scaled deviance depending on the method. For <code>glm</code> fits, you can also choose "LRT" and "Rao" for likelihood ratio tests and Rao's efficient score test. The former is synonymous with "Chisq" (although both have an asymptotic chi-square distribution). Values can be abbreviated.
k	the penalty constant in AIC / C_p .
trace	if TRUE, print out progress reports.
x	a model matrix containing columns for the fitted model and all terms in the upper scope. Useful if <code>add1</code> is to be called repeatedly. Warning: no checks are done on its validity.
all.cols	(Provided for compatibility with S.) Logical to specify whether all columns of the design matrix should be used. If FALSE then non-estimable columns are dropped, but the result is not usually statistically meaningful.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

For `drop1` methods, a missing scope is taken to be all terms in the model. The hierarchy is respected when considering terms to be added or dropped: all main effects contained in a second-order interaction must remain, and so on.

In a scope formula `.` means 'what is already there'.

The methods for `lm` and `glm` are more efficient in that they do not recompute the model matrix and call the `fit` methods directly.

The default output table gives AIC, defined as minus twice log likelihood plus $2p$ where p is the rank of the model (the number of effective parameters). This is only defined up to an additive constant (like log-likelihoods). For linear Gaussian models with fixed scale, the constant is chosen to give Mallows' C_p , $RSS/scale + 2p - n$. Where C_p is used, the column is labelled as C_p rather than AIC.

The F tests for the "glm" methods are based on analysis of deviance tests, so if the dispersion is estimated it is based on the residual deviance, unlike the F tests of `anova.glm`.

Value

An object of class "anova" summarizing the differences in fit between the models.

Warning

The model fitting must apply the models to the same dataset. Most methods will attempt to use a subset of the data with no missing values for any of the variables if `na.action = na.omit`, but this may give biased results. Only use these functions with data containing missing values with great care.

The default methods make calls to the function `nobs` to check that the number of observations involved in the fitting process remained unchanged.

Note

These are not fully equivalent to the functions in S. There is no `keep` argument, and the methods used are not quite so computationally efficient.

Their authors' definitions of Mallows' C_p and Akaike's AIC are used, not those of the authors of the models chapter of S.

Author(s)

The design was inspired by the S functions of the same names described in Chambers (1992).

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Linear models*. Chapter 4 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[step](#), [aov](#), [lm](#), [extractAIC](#), [anova](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics); require(utils)
## following example(swiss)
lm1 <- lm(Fertility ~ ., data = swiss)
add1(lm1, ~ I(Education^2) + .^2)
drop1(lm1, test = "F") # So called 'type II' anova

## following example(glm)

drop1(glm.D93, test = "Chisq")
drop1(glm.D93, test = "F")
add1(glm.D93, scope = ~outcome*treatment, test = "Rao") ## Pearson Chi-square
```

addmargins

Puts Arbitrary Margins on Multidimensional Tables or Arrays

Description

For a given table one can specify which of the classifying factors to expand by one or more levels to hold margins to be calculated. One may for example form sums and means over the first dimension and medians over the second. The resulting table will then have two extra levels for the first dimension and one extra level for the second. The default is to sum over all margins in the table. Other possibilities may give results that depend on the order in which the margins are computed. This is flagged in the printed output from the function.

Usage

```
addmargins(A, margin = seq_along(dim(A)), FUN = sum, quiet = FALSE)
```

Arguments

A	table or array. The function uses the presence of the "dim" and "dimnames" attributes of A.
margin	vector of dimensions over which to form margins. Margins are formed in the order in which dimensions are specified in margin.
FUN	list of the same length as margin, each element of the list being either a function or a list of functions. Names of the list elements will appear as levels in dimnames of the result. Unnamed list elements will have names constructed: the name of a function or a constructed name based on the position in the table.
quiet	logical which suppresses the message telling the order in which the margins were computed.

Details

If the functions used to form margins are not commutative the result depends on the order in which margins are computed. Annotation of margins is done via naming the FUN list.

Value

A table or array with the same number of dimensions as A, but with extra levels of the dimensions mentioned in margin. The number of levels added to each dimension is the length of the entries in FUN. A message with the order of computation of margins is printed.

Author(s)

Bendix Carstensen, Steno Diabetes Center & Department of Biostatistics, University of Copenhagen, <http://www.biostat.ku.dk/~bxc>, autumn 2003. Margin naming enhanced by Duncan Murdoch.

See Also

[table](#), [ftable](#), [margin.table](#).

Examples

```
Aye <- sample(c("Yes", "Si", "Oui"), 177, replace = TRUE)
Bee <- sample(c("Hum", "Buzz"), 177, replace = TRUE)
Sea <- sample(c("White", "Black", "Red", "Dead"), 177, replace = TRUE)
(A <- table(Aye, Bee, Sea))
addmargins(A)

ftable(A)
ftable(addmargins(A))

# Non-commutative functions - note differences between resulting tables:
ftable(addmargins(A, c(1, 3),
  FUN = list(Sum = sum, list(Min = min, Max = max))))
ftable(addmargins(A, c(3, 1),
  FUN = list(list(Min = min, Max = max), Sum = sum)))

# Weird function needed to return the N when computing percentages
sqsm <- function(x) sum(x)^2/100
B <- table(Sea, Bee)
round(sweep(addmargins(B, 1, list(list(All = sum, N = sqsm))), 2,
  apply(B, 2, sum)/100, "/"), 1)
round(sweep(addmargins(B, 2, list(list(All = sum, N = sqsm))), 1,
  apply(B, 1, sum)/100, "/"), 1)

# A total over Bee requires formation of the Bee-margin first:
mB <- addmargins(B, 2, FUN = list(list(Total = sum)))
round(ftable(sweep(addmargins(mB, 1, list(list(All = sum, N = sqsm))), 2,
  apply(mB, 2, sum)/100, "/"), 1)

## Zero.Printing table+margins:
set.seed(1)
x <- sample( 1:7, 20, replace = TRUE)
y <- sample( 1:7, 20, replace = TRUE)
tx <- addmargins( table(x, y) )
print(tx, zero.print = ".")
```

Description

Splits the data into subsets, computes summary statistics for each, and returns the result in a convenient form.

Usage

```

aggregate(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
aggregate(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
aggregate(x, by, FUN, ..., simplify = TRUE)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
aggregate(formula, data, FUN, ...,
           subset, na.action = na.omit)

## S3 method for class 'ts'
aggregate(x, nfrequency = 1, FUN = sum, ndeltat = 1,
           ts.eps = getOption("ts.eps"), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an R object.
<code>by</code>	a list of grouping elements, each as long as the variables in the data frame <code>x</code> . The elements are coerced to factors before use.
<code>FUN</code>	a function to compute the summary statistics which can be applied to all data subsets.
<code>simplify</code>	a logical indicating whether results should be simplified to a vector or matrix if possible.
<code>formula</code>	a formula , such as <code>y ~ x</code> or <code>cbind(y1, y2) ~ x1 + x2</code> , where the <code>y</code> variables are numeric data to be split into groups according to the grouping <code>x</code> variables (usually factors).
<code>data</code>	a data frame (or list) from which the variables in formula should be taken.
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
<code>na.action</code>	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NA values. The default is to ignore missing values in the given variables.
<code>nfrequency</code>	new number of observations per unit of time; must be a divisor of the frequency of <code>x</code> .
<code>ndeltat</code>	new fraction of the sampling period between successive observations; must be a divisor of the sampling interval of <code>x</code> .
<code>ts.eps</code>	tolerance used to decide if <code>nfrequency</code> is a sub-multiple of the original frequency.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or used by methods.

Details

`aggregate` is a generic function with methods for data frames and time series.

The default method, `aggregate.default`, uses the time series method if `x` is a time series, and otherwise coerces `x` to a data frame and calls the data frame method.

`aggregate.data.frame` is the data frame method. If `x` is not a data frame, it is coerced to one, which must have a non-zero number of rows. Then, each of the variables (columns) in `x` is split into subsets of cases (rows) of identical combinations of the components of `by`, and `FUN` is applied to each such subset with further arguments in `...` passed to it. The result is reformatted into a data frame containing the variables in `by` and `x`. The ones arising from `by` contain the unique combinations of grouping values used for determining the subsets, and the ones arising from `x` the corresponding summaries for the subset of the respective variables in `x`. If `simplify` is true, summaries are simplified to vectors or matrices if they have a common length of one or greater than one, respectively; otherwise, lists of summary results according to subsets are obtained. Rows with missing values in any of the `by` variables will be omitted from the result. (Note that versions of R prior to 2.11.0 required `FUN` to be a scalar function.)

`aggregate.formula` is a standard formula interface to `aggregate.data.frame`.

`aggregate.ts` is the time series method, and requires `FUN` to be a scalar function. If `x` is not a time series, it is coerced to one. Then, the variables in `x` are split into appropriate blocks of length `frequency(x) / nfrequency`, and `FUN` is applied to each such block, with further (named) arguments in `...` passed to it. The result returned is a time series with frequency `nfrequency` holding the aggregated values. Note that this make most sense for a quarterly or yearly result when the original series covers a whole number of quarters or years: in particular aggregating a monthly series to quarters starting in February does not give a conventional quarterly series.

`FUN` is passed to `match.fun`, and hence it can be a function or a symbol or character string naming a function.

Value

For the time series method, a time series of class `"ts"` or class `c("mts", "ts")`.

For the data frame method, a data frame with columns corresponding to the grouping variables in `by` followed by aggregated columns from `x`. If the `by` has names, the non-empty times are used to label the columns in the results, with unnamed grouping variables being named `Group.i` for `by[[i]]`.

Author(s)

Kurt Hornik, with contributions by Arni Magnusson.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[apply](#), [lapply](#), [tapply](#).

Examples

```
## Compute the averages for the variables in 'state.x77', grouped
## according to the region (Northeast, South, North Central, West) that
```

```

## each state belongs to.
aggregate(state.x77, list(Region = state.region), mean)

## Compute the averages according to region and the occurrence of more
## than 130 days of frost.
aggregate(state.x77,
          list(Region = state.region,
               Cold = state.x77[, "Frost"] > 130),
          mean)
## (Note that no state in 'South' is THAT cold.)

## example with character variables and NAs
testDF <- data.frame(v1 = c(1,3,5,7,8,3,5,NA,4,5,7,9),
                     v2 = c(11,33,55,77,88,33,55,NA,44,55,77,99) )
by1 <- c("red", "blue", 1, 2, NA, "big", 1, 2, "red", 1, NA, 12)
by2 <- c("wet", "dry", 99, 95, NA, "damp", 95, 99, "red", 99, NA, NA)
aggregate(x = testDF, by = list(by1, by2), FUN = "mean")

# and if you want to treat NAs as a group
fby1 <- factor(by1, exclude = "")
fby2 <- factor(by2, exclude = "")
aggregate(x = testDF, by = list(fby1, fby2), FUN = "mean")

## Formulas, one ~ one, one ~ many, many ~ one, and many ~ many:
aggregate(weight ~ feed, data = chickwts, mean)
aggregate(breaks ~ wool + tension, data = warpbreaks, mean)
aggregate(cbind(Ozone, Temp) ~ Month, data = airquality, mean)
aggregate(cbind(ncases, ncontrols) ~ alcgp + tobgp, data = esoph, sum)

## Dot notation:
aggregate(. ~ Species, data = iris, mean)
aggregate(len ~ ., data = ToothGrowth, mean)

## Often followed by xtabs():
ag <- aggregate(len ~ ., data = ToothGrowth, mean)
xtabs(len ~ ., data = ag)

## Compute the average annual approval ratings for American presidents.
aggregate(presidents, nfrequency = 1, FUN = mean)
## Give the summer less weight.
aggregate(presidents, nfrequency = 1,
          FUN = weighted.mean, w = c(1, 1, 0.5, 1))

```

Description

Generic function calculating Akaike's 'An Information Criterion' for one or several fitted model objects for which a log-likelihood value can be obtained, according to the formula $-2\log\text{-likelihood} + kn_{par}$, where n_{par} represents the number of parameters in the fitted model, and $k = 2$ for the usual AIC, or $k = \log(n)$ (n being the number of observations) for the so-called BIC or SBC (Schwarz's Bayesian criterion).

Usage

```
AIC(object, ..., k = 2)
```

```
BIC(object, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	a fitted model object for which there exists a <code>logLik</code> method to extract the corresponding log-likelihood, or an object inheriting from class <code>logLik</code> .
<code>...</code>	optionally more fitted model objects.
<code>k</code>	numeric, the <i>penalty</i> per parameter to be used; the default <code>k = 2</code> is the classical AIC.

Details

When comparing models fitted by maximum likelihood to the same data, the smaller the AIC or BIC, the better the fit.

The theory of AIC requires that the log-likelihood has been maximized: whereas AIC can be computed for models not fitted by maximum likelihood, their AIC values should not be compared.

Examples of models not 'fitted to the same data' are where the response is transformed (accelerated-life models are fitted to log-times) and where contingency tables have been used to summarize data.

These are generic functions (with S4 generics defined in package **stats4**): however methods should be defined for the log-likelihood function `logLik` rather than these functions: the action of their default methods is to call `logLik` on all the supplied objects and assemble the results. Note that in several common cases `logLik` does not return the value at the MLE: see its help page.

The log-likelihood and hence the AIC/BIC is only defined up to an additive constant. Different constants have conventionally been used for different purposes and so `extractAIC` and `AIC` may give different values (and do for models of class `"lm"`: see the help for `extractAIC`). Particular care is needed when comparing fits of different classes (with, for example, a comparison of a Poisson and gamma GLM being meaningless since one has a discrete response, the other continuous).

BIC is defined as `AIC(object, ..., k = log(nobs(object)))`. This needs the number of observations to be known: the default method looks first for a `"nobs"` attribute on the return value from the `logLik` method, then tries the `nobs` generic, and if neither succeed returns BIC as NA.

Value

If just one object is provided, a numeric value with the corresponding AIC (or BIC, or ..., depending on `k`).

If multiple objects are provided, a `data.frame` with rows corresponding to the objects and columns representing the number of parameters in the model (`df`) and the AIC or BIC.

Author(s)

Originally by José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates, more recent revisions by R-core.

References

Sakamoto, Y., Ishiguro, M., and Kitagawa G. (1986). *Akaike Information Criterion Statistics*. D. Reidel Publishing Company.

See Also

[extractAIC](#), [logLik](#), [nobs](#).

Examples

```
lm1 <- lm(Fertility ~ . , data = swiss)
AIC(lm1)
stopifnot(all.equal(AIC(lm1),
                    AIC(logLik(lm1))))
BIC(lm1)

lm2 <- update(lm1, . ~ . -Examination)
AIC(lm1, lm2)
BIC(lm1, lm2)
```

alias

Find Aliases (Dependencies) in a Model

Description

Find aliases (linearly dependent terms) in a linear model specified by a formula.

Usage

```
alias(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
alias(object, data, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
alias(object, complete = TRUE, partial = FALSE,
      partial.pattern = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

object	A fitted model object, for example from <code>lm</code> or <code>aov</code> , or a formula for <code>alias.formula</code> .
data	Optionally, a data frame to search for the objects in the formula.
complete	Should information on complete aliasing be included?
partial	Should information on partial aliasing be included?
partial.pattern	Should partial aliasing be presented in a schematic way? If this is done, the results are presented in a more compact way, usually giving the deciles of the coefficients.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Although the main method is for class `"lm"`, `alias` is most useful for experimental designs and so is used with fits from `aov`. Complete aliasing refers to effects in linear models that cannot be estimated independently of the terms which occur earlier in the model and so have their coefficients omitted from the fit. Partial aliasing refers to effects that can be estimated less precisely because of correlations induced by the design.

Some parts of the `"lm"` method require recommended package **MASS** to be installed.

Value

A list (of class `"listof"`) containing components

Model	Description of the model; usually the formula.
Complete	A matrix with columns corresponding to effects that are linearly dependent on the rows.
Partial	The correlations of the estimable effects, with a zero diagonal. An object of class <code>"mtable"</code> which has its own <code>print</code> method.

Note

The aliasing pattern may depend on the contrasts in use: Helmert contrasts are probably most useful. The defaults are different from those in S.

Author(s)

The design was inspired by the S function of the same name described in Chambers *et al* (1992).

References

Chambers, J. M., Freeny, A and Heiberger, R. M. (1992) *Analysis of variance; designed experiments*. Chapter 5 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```
op <- options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.poly"))
npk.aov <- aov(yield ~ block + N*P*K, npk)
alias(npk.aov)
options(op) # reset
```

anova	<i>Anova Tables</i>
-------	---------------------

Description

Compute analysis of variance (or deviance) tables for one or more fitted model objects.

Usage

```
anova(object, ...)
```

Arguments

- object an object containing the results returned by a model fitting function (e.g., `lm` or `glm`).
- ... additional objects of the same type.

Value

This (generic) function returns an object of class `anova`. These objects represent analysis-of-variance and analysis-of-deviance tables. When given a single argument it produces a table which tests whether the model terms are significant.

When given a sequence of objects, `anova` tests the models against one another in the order specified. The print method for `anova` objects prints tables in a ‘pretty’ form.

Warning

The comparison between two or more models will only be valid if they are fitted to the same dataset. This may be a problem if there are missing values and `R`’s default of `na.action = na.omit` is used.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[coefficients](#), [effects](#), [fitted.values](#), [residuals](#), [summary](#), [drop1](#), [add1](#).

anova.glm

*Analysis of Deviance for Generalized Linear Model Fits***Description**

Compute an analysis of deviance table for one or more generalized linear model fits.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'glm'
anova(object, ..., dispersion = NULL, test = NULL)
```

Arguments

object, ...	objects of class glm, typically the result of a call to glm , or a list of objects for the "glmlist" method.
dispersion	the dispersion parameter for the fitting family. By default it is obtained from the object(s).
test	a character string, (partially) matching one of "Chisq", "LRT", "Rao", "F" or "Cp". See stat.anova .

Details

Specifying a single object gives a sequential analysis of deviance table for that fit. That is, the reductions in the residual deviance as each term of the formula is added in turn are given in as the rows of a table, plus the residual deviances themselves.

If more than one object is specified, the table has a row for the residual degrees of freedom and deviance for each model. For all but the first model, the change in degrees of freedom and deviance is also given. (This only makes statistical sense if the models are nested.) It is conventional to list the models from smallest to largest, but this is up to the user.

The table will optionally contain test statistics (and P values) comparing the reduction in deviance for the row to the residuals. For models with known dispersion (e.g., binomial and Poisson fits) the chi-squared test is most appropriate, and for those with dispersion estimated by moments (e.g., gaussian, quasibinomial and quasipoisson fits) the F test is most appropriate. Mallows' C_p statistic is the residual deviance plus twice the estimate of σ^2 times the residual degrees of freedom, which is closely related to AIC (and a multiple of it if the dispersion is known). You can also choose "LRT" and "Rao" for likelihood ratio tests and Rao's efficient score test. The former is synonymous with "Chisq" (although both have an asymptotic chi-square distribution).

The dispersion estimate will be taken from the largest model, using the value returned by [summary.glm](#). As this will in most cases use a Chisquared-based estimate, the F tests are not based on the residual deviance in the analysis of deviance table shown.

Value

An object of class "anova" inheriting from class "data.frame".

Warning

The comparison between two or more models will only be valid if they are fitted to the same dataset. This may be a problem if there are missing values and `R`'s default of `na.action = na.omit` is used, and `anova` will detect this with an error.

References

Hastie, T. J. and Pregibon, D. (1992) *Generalized linear models*. Chapter 6 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[glm](#), [anova](#).
[drop1](#) for so-called ‘type II’ anova where each term is dropped one at a time respecting their hierarchy.

Examples

```
## --- Continuing the Example from '?glm':

anova(glm.D93)
anova(glm.D93, test = "Cp")
anova(glm.D93, test = "Chisq")
glm.D93a <-
  update(glm.D93, ~treatment*outcome) # equivalent to Pearson Chi-square
anova(glm.D93, glm.D93a, test = "Rao")
```

<code>anova.lm</code>	<i>ANOVA for Linear Model Fits</i>
-----------------------	------------------------------------

Description

Compute an analysis of variance table for one or more linear model fits.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'lm'
anova(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lmList'
anova(object, ..., scale = 0, test = "F")
```

Arguments

- `object, ...` objects of class `lm`, usually, a result of a call to [lm](#).
- `test` a character string specifying the test statistic to be used. Can be one of `"F"`, `"Chisq"` or `"Cp"`, with partial matching allowed, or `NULL` for no test.
- `scale` numeric. An estimate of the noise variance σ^2 . If zero this will be estimated from the largest model considered.

Details

Specifying a single object gives a sequential analysis of variance table for that fit. That is, the reductions in the residual sum of squares as each term of the formula is added in turn are given in as the rows of a table, plus the residual sum of squares.

The table will contain F statistics (and P values) comparing the mean square for the row to the residual mean square.

If more than one object is specified, the table has a row for the residual degrees of freedom and sum of squares for each model. For all but the first model, the change in degrees of freedom and sum of squares is also given. (This only make statistical sense if the models are nested.) It is conventional to list the models from smallest to largest, but this is up to the user.

Optionally the table can include test statistics. Normally the F statistic is most appropriate, which compares the mean square for a row to the residual sum of squares for the largest model considered. If scale is specified chi-squared tests can be used. Mallows' C_p statistic is the residual sum of squares plus twice the estimate of σ^2 times the residual degrees of freedom.

Value

An object of class "anova" inheriting from class "data.frame".

Warning

The comparison between two or more models will only be valid if they are fitted to the same dataset. This may be a problem if there are missing values and R's default of `na.action = na.omit` is used, and `anova.lm` will detect this with an error.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Linear models*. Chapter 4 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

The model fitting function [lm](#), [anova](#).

[drop1](#) for so-called 'type II' anova where each term is dropped one at a time respecting their hierarchy.

Examples

```
## sequential table
fit <- lm(sr ~ ., data = LifeCycleSavings)
anova(fit)

## same effect via separate models
fit0 <- lm(sr ~ 1, data = LifeCycleSavings)
fit1 <- update(fit0, . ~ . + pop15)
fit2 <- update(fit1, . ~ . + pop75)
fit3 <- update(fit2, . ~ . + dpi)
fit4 <- update(fit3, . ~ . + ddpi)
anova(fit0, fit1, fit2, fit3, fit4, test = "F")
```

```
anova(fit4, fit2, fit0, test = "F") # unconventional order
```

anova.mlm	<i>Comparisons between Multivariate Linear Models</i>
-----------	---

Description

Compute a (generalized) analysis of variance table for one or more multivariate linear models.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'mlm'
anova(object, ...,
       test = c("Pillai", "Wilks", "Hotelling-Lawley", "Roy",
                "Spherical"),
       Sigma = diag(nrow = p), T = Thin.row(proj(M) - proj(X)),
       M = diag(nrow = p), X = ~0,
       idata = data.frame(index = seq_len(p)), tol = 1e-7)
```

Arguments

object	an object of class "mlm".
...	further objects of class "mlm".
test	choice of test statistic (see below). Can be abbreviated.
Sigma	(only relevant if test == "Spherical"). Covariance matrix assumed proportional to Sigma.
T	transformation matrix. By default computed from M and X.
M	formula or matrix describing the outer projection (see below).
X	formula or matrix describing the inner projection (see below).
idata	data frame describing intra-block design.
tol	tolerance to be used in deciding if the residuals are rank-deficient: see qr .

Details

The `anova.mlm` method uses either a multivariate test statistic for the summary table, or a test based on sphericity assumptions (i.e. that the covariance is proportional to a given matrix).

For the multivariate test, Wilks' statistic is most popular in the literature, but the default Pillai–Bartlett statistic is recommended by Hand and Taylor (1987). See [summary.manova](#) for further details.

For the "Spherical" test, proportionality is usually with the identity matrix but a different matrix can be specified using `Sigma`). Corrections for asphericity known as the Greenhouse–Geisser, respectively Huynh–Feldt, epsilons are given and adjusted *F* tests are performed.

It is common to transform the observations prior to testing. This typically involves transformation to intra-block differences, but more complicated within-block designs can be encountered, making more elaborate transformations necessary. A transformation matrix T can be given directly or specified as the difference between two projections onto the spaces spanned by M and X , which in turn can be given as matrices or as model formulas with respect to `idata` (the tests will be invariant to parametrization of the quotient space M/X).

As with `anova.lm`, all test statistics use the SSD matrix from the largest model considered as the (generalized) denominator.

Contrary to other anova methods, the intercept is not excluded from the display in the single-model case. When contrast transformations are involved, it often makes good sense to test for a zero intercept.

Value

An object of class "anova" inheriting from class "data.frame"

Note

The Huynh–Feldt epsilon differs from that calculated by SAS (as of v. 8.2) except when the DF is equal to the number of observations minus one. This is believed to be a bug in SAS, not in R.

References

Hand, D. J. and Taylor, C. C. (1987) *Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Repeated Measures*. Chapman and Hall.

See Also

[summary.manova](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)
utils::example(SSD) # Brings in the mlmfit and reacttime objects

mlmfit0 <- update(mlmfit, ~0)

### Traditional tests of intrasubj. contrasts
## Using MANOVA techniques on contrasts:
anova(mlmfit, mlmfit0, X = ~1)

## Assuming sphericity
anova(mlmfit, mlmfit0, X = ~1, test = "Spherical")

### tests using intra-subject 3x2 design
idata <- data.frame(deg = gl(3, 1, 6, labels = c(0, 4, 8)),
                    noise = gl(2, 3, 6, labels = c("A", "P")))

anova(mlmfit, mlmfit0, X = ~ deg + noise,
```

```

        idata = idata, test = "Spherical")
anova(mlmfit, mlmfit0, M = ~ deg + noise, X = ~ noise,
       idata = idata, test = "Spherical" )
anova(mlmfit, mlmfit0, M = ~ deg + noise, X = ~ deg,
       idata = idata, test = "Spherical" )

f <- factor(rep(1:2, 5)) # bogus, just for illustration
mlmfit2 <- update(mlmfit, ~f)
anova(mlmfit2, mlmfit, mlmfit0, X = ~1, test = "Spherical")
anova(mlmfit2, X = ~1, test = "Spherical")
# one-model form, equiv. to previous

### There seems to be a strong interaction in these data
plot(colMeans(reacttime))

```

ansari.test

Ansari-Bradley Test

Description

Performs the Ansari-Bradley two-sample test for a difference in scale parameters.

Usage

```

ansari.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
ansari.test(x, y,
            alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
            exact = NULL, conf.int = FALSE, conf.level = 0.95,
            ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
ansari.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)

```

Arguments

x	numeric vector of data values.
y	numeric vector of data values.
alternative	indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided", "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter.
exact	a logical indicating whether an exact p-value should be computed.
conf.int	a logical, indicating whether a confidence interval should be computed.
conf.level	confidence level of the interval.
formula	a formula of the form lhs ~ rhs where lhs is a numeric variable giving the data values and rhs a factor with two levels giving the corresponding groups.

data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

Suppose that x and y are independent samples from distributions with densities $f((t - m)/s)/s$ and $f(t - m)$, respectively, where m is an unknown nuisance parameter and s , the ratio of scales, is the parameter of interest. The Ansari-Bradley test is used for testing the null that s equals 1, the two-sided alternative being that $s \neq 1$ (the distributions differ only in variance), and the one-sided alternatives being $s > 1$ (the distribution underlying x has a larger variance, "greater") or $s < 1$ ("less").

By default (if `exact` is not specified), an exact p-value is computed if both samples contain less than 50 finite values and there are no ties. Otherwise, a normal approximation is used.

Optionally, a nonparametric confidence interval and an estimator for s are computed. If exact p-values are available, an exact confidence interval is obtained by the algorithm described in Bauer (1972), and the Hodges-Lehmann estimator is employed. Otherwise, the returned confidence interval and point estimate are based on normal approximations.

Note that mid-ranks are used in the case of ties rather than average scores as employed in Hollander & Wolfe (1973). See, e.g., Hajek, Sidak and Sen (1999), pages 131ff, for more information.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value of the Ansari-Bradley test statistic.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
null.value	the ratio of scales s under the null, 1.
alternative	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.
method	the string "Ansari-Bradley test".
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.
conf.int	a confidence interval for the scale parameter. (Only present if argument <code>conf.int = TRUE</code> .)
estimate	an estimate of the ratio of scales. (Only present if argument <code>conf.int = TRUE</code> .)

Note

To compare results of the Ansari-Bradley test to those of the F test to compare two variances (under the assumption of normality), observe that s is the ratio of scales and hence s^2 is the ratio of variances (provided they exist), whereas for the F test the ratio of variances itself is the parameter of interest. In particular, confidence intervals are for s in the Ansari-Bradley test but for s^2 in the F test.

References

David F. Bauer (1972), Constructing confidence sets using rank statistics. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* **67**, 687–690.

Jaroslav Hajek, Zbynek Sidak and Pranab K. Sen (1999), *Theory of Rank Tests*. San Diego, London: Academic Press.

Myles Hollander and Douglas A. Wolfe (1973), *Nonparametric Statistical Methods*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 83–92.

See Also

[fligner.test](#) for a rank-based (nonparametric) k -sample test for homogeneity of variances; [mood.test](#) for another rank-based two-sample test for a difference in scale parameters; [var.test](#) and [bartlett.test](#) for parametric tests for the homogeneity in variance.

[ansari.test](#) in package [coin](#) for exact and approximate *conditional* p-values for the Ansari-Bradley test, as well as different methods for handling ties.

Examples

```
## Hollander & Wolfe (1973, p. 86f):
## Serum iron determination using Hyland control sera
ramsay <- c(111, 107, 100, 99, 102, 106, 109, 108, 104, 99,
           101, 96, 97, 102, 107, 113, 116, 113, 110, 98)
jung.parekh <- c(107, 108, 106, 98, 105, 103, 110, 105, 104,
                100, 96, 108, 103, 104, 114, 114, 113, 108, 106, 99)
ansari.test(ramsay, jung.parekh)

ansari.test(rnorm(10), rnorm(10, 0, 2), conf.int = TRUE)

## try more points - failed in 2.4.1
ansari.test(rnorm(100), rnorm(100, 0, 2), conf.int = TRUE)
```

aov

Fit an Analysis of Variance Model

Description

Fit an analysis of variance model by a call to `lm` for each stratum.

Usage

```
aov(formula, data = NULL, projections = FALSE, qr = TRUE,
     contrasts = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>formula</code>	A formula specifying the model.
<code>data</code>	A data frame in which the variables specified in the formula will be found. If missing, the variables are searched for in the standard way.
<code>projections</code>	Logical flag: should the projections be returned?
<code>qr</code>	Logical flag: should the QR decomposition be returned?
<code>contrasts</code>	A list of contrasts to be used for some of the factors in the formula. These are not used for any Error term, and supplying contrasts for factors only in the Error term will give a warning.
<code>...</code>	Arguments to be passed to <code>lm</code> , such as <code>subset</code> or <code>na.action</code> . See ‘Details’ about weights.

Details

This provides a wrapper to `lm` for fitting linear models to balanced or unbalanced experimental designs.

The main difference from `lm` is in the way `print`, `summary` and so on handle the fit: this is expressed in the traditional language of the analysis of variance rather than that of linear models.

If the formula contains a single Error term, this is used to specify error strata, and appropriate models are fitted within each error stratum.

The formula can specify multiple responses.

Weights can be specified by a `weights` argument, but should not be used with an Error term, and are incompletely supported (e.g., not by `model.tables`).

Value

An object of class `c("aov", "lm")` or for multiple responses of class `c("maov", "aov", "mlm", "lm")` or for multiple error strata of class `c("aovlist", "listof")`. There are `print` and `summary` methods available for these.

Note

`aov` is designed for balanced designs, and the results can be hard to interpret without balance: beware that missing values in the response(s) will likely lose the balance. If there are two or more error strata, the methods used are statistically inefficient without balance, and it may be better to use `lme` in package `nlme`.

Balance can be checked with the `replications` function.

The default ‘contrasts’ in R are not orthogonal contrasts, and `aov` and its helper functions will work better with such contrasts: see the examples for how to select these.

Author(s)

The design was inspired by the S function of the same name described in Chambers *et al* (1992).

References

Chambers, J. M., Freeny, A and Heiberger, R. M. (1992) *Analysis of variance; designed experiments*. Chapter 5 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[lm](#), [summary.aov](#), [replications](#), [alias](#), [proj](#), [model.tables](#), [TukeyHSD](#)

Examples

```
## From Venables and Ripley (2002) p.165.

## Set orthogonal contrasts.
op <- options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.poly"))
( npk.aov <- aov(yield ~ block + N*P*K, npk) )
summary(npk.aov)
coefficients(npk.aov)

## to show the effects of re-ordering terms contrast the two fits
aov(yield ~ block + N * P + K, npk)
aov(terms(yield ~ block + N * P + K, keep.order = TRUE), npk)

## as a test, not particularly sensible statistically
npk.aovE <- aov(yield ~ N*P*K + Error(block), npk)
npk.aovE
summary(npk.aovE)
options(op) # reset to previous
```

approxfun

Interpolation Functions

Description

Return a list of points which linearly interpolate given data points, or a function performing the linear (or constant) interpolation.

Usage

```
approx (x, y = NULL, xout, method = "linear", n = 50,
        yleft, yright, rule = 1, f = 0, ties = mean)

approxfun(x, y = NULL,          method = "linear",
          yleft, yright, rule = 1, f = 0, ties = mean)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	numeric vectors giving the coordinates of the points to be interpolated. Alternatively a single plotting structure can be specified: see xy.coords .
<code>xout</code>	an optional set of numeric values specifying where interpolation is to take place.
<code>method</code>	specifies the interpolation method to be used. Choices are "linear" or "constant".
<code>n</code>	If <code>xout</code> is not specified, interpolation takes place at <code>n</code> equally spaced points spanning the interval $[\min(x), \max(x)]$.
<code>yleft</code>	the value to be returned when input <code>x</code> values are less than $\min(x)$. The default is defined by the value of <code>rule</code> given below.
<code>yright</code>	the value to be returned when input <code>x</code> values are greater than $\max(x)$. The default is defined by the value of <code>rule</code> given below.
<code>rule</code>	an integer (of length 1 or 2) describing how interpolation is to take place outside the interval $[\min(x), \max(x)]$. If <code>rule</code> is 1 then NAs are returned for such points and if it is 2, the value at the closest data extreme is used. Use, e.g., <code>rule = 2:1</code> , if the left and right side extrapolation should differ.
<code>f</code>	for <code>method = "constant"</code> a number between 0 and 1 inclusive, indicating a compromise between left- and right-continuous step functions. If <code>y0</code> and <code>y1</code> are the values to the left and right of the point then the value is <code>y0</code> if <code>f == 0</code> , <code>y1</code> if <code>f == 1</code> , and <code>y0*(1-f)+y1*f</code> for intermediate values. In this way the result is right-continuous for <code>f == 0</code> and left-continuous for <code>f == 1</code> , even for non-finite <code>y</code> values.
<code>ties</code>	Handling of tied <code>x</code> values. Either a function with a single vector argument returning a single number result or the string "ordered".

Details

The inputs can contain missing values which are deleted, so at least two complete (`x`, `y`) pairs are required (for `method = "linear"`, one otherwise). If there are duplicated (tied) `x` values and `ties` is a function it is applied to the `y` values for each distinct `x` value. Useful functions in this context include [mean](#), [min](#), and [max](#). If `ties = "ordered"` the `x` values are assumed to be already ordered. The first `y` value will be used for interpolation to the left and the last one for interpolation to the right.

Value

`approx` returns a list with components `x` and `y`, containing `n` coordinates which interpolate the given data points according to the `method` (and `rule`) desired.

The function `approxfun` returns a function performing (linear or constant) interpolation of the given data points. For a given set of `x` values, this function will return the corresponding interpolated values. It uses data stored in its environment when it was created, the details of which are subject to change.

Warning

The value returned by `approxfun` contains references to the code in the current version of R: it is not intended to be saved and loaded into a different R session. This is safer for R \geq 3.0.0.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[spline](#) and [splinefun](#) for spline interpolation.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

x <- 1:10
y <- rnorm(10)
par(mfrow = c(2,1))
plot(x, y, main = "approx(.) and approxfun(.)")
points(approx(x, y), col = 2, pch = "*")
points(approx(x, y, method = "constant"), col = 4, pch = "*")

f <- approxfun(x, y)
curve(f(x), 0, 11, col = "green2")
points(x, y)
is.function(fc <- approxfun(x, y, method = "const")) # TRUE
curve(fc(x), 0, 10, col = "darkblue", add = TRUE)
## different extrapolation on left and right side :
plot(approxfun(x, y, rule = 2:1), 0, 11,
      col = "tomato", add = TRUE, lty = 3, lwd = 2)

## Show treatment of 'ties' :

x <- c(2,2:4,4,4,5,5,7,7,7)
y <- c(1:6, 5:4, 3:1)
approx(x, y, xout = x)$y # warning
(ay <- approx(x, y, xout = x, ties = "ordered"))$y
stopifnot(ay == c(2,2,3,6,6,6,4,4,1,1,1))
approx(x, y, xout = x, ties = min)$y
approx(x, y, xout = x, ties = max)$y
```

Description

Fit an autoregressive time series model to the data, by default selecting the complexity by AIC.

Usage

```

ar(x, aic = TRUE, order.max = NULL,
   method = c("yule-walker", "burg", "ols", "mle", "yw"),
   na.action, series, ...)

ar.burg(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
ar.burg(x, aic = TRUE, order.max = NULL,
        na.action = na.fail, demean = TRUE, series,
        var.method = 1, ...)
## S3 method for class 'mts'
ar.burg(x, aic = TRUE, order.max = NULL,
        na.action = na.fail, demean = TRUE, series,
        var.method = 1, ...)

ar.yw(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
ar.yw(x, aic = TRUE, order.max = NULL,
      na.action = na.fail, demean = TRUE, series, ...)
## S3 method for class 'mts'
ar.yw(x, aic = TRUE, order.max = NULL,
      na.action = na.fail, demean = TRUE, series,
      var.method = 1, ...)

ar.mle(x, aic = TRUE, order.max = NULL, na.action = na.fail,
      demean = TRUE, series, ...)

## S3 method for class 'ar'
predict(object, newdata, n.ahead = 1, se.fit = TRUE, ...)

```

Arguments

x	A univariate or multivariate time series.
aic	Logical flag. If TRUE then the Akaike Information Criterion is used to choose the order of the autoregressive model. If FALSE, the model of order <code>order.max</code> is fitted.
order.max	Maximum order (or order) of model to fit. Defaults to the smaller of $N - 1$ and $10 \log_{10}(N)$ where N is the number of observations except for <code>method = "mle"</code> where it is the minimum of this quantity and 12.
method	Character string giving the method used to fit the model. Must be one of the strings in the default argument (the first few characters are sufficient). Defaults to "yule-walker".
na.action	function to be called to handle missing values.
demean	should a mean be estimated during fitting?
series	names for the series. Defaults to <code>deparse(substitute(x))</code> .
var.method	the method to estimate the innovations variance (see 'Details').

...	additional arguments for specific methods.
object	a fit from <code>ar</code> .
newdata	data to which to apply the prediction.
n.ahead	number of steps ahead at which to predict.
se.fit	logical: return estimated standard errors of the prediction error?

Details

For definiteness, note that the AR coefficients have the sign in

$$x_t - \mu = a_1(x_{t-1} - \mu) + \cdots + a_p(x_{t-p} - \mu) + e_t$$

`ar` is just a wrapper for the functions `ar.yw`, `ar.burg`, [ar.ols](#) and `ar.mle`.

Order selection is done by AIC if `aic` is true. This is problematic, as of the methods here only `ar.mle` performs true maximum likelihood estimation. The AIC is computed as if the variance estimate were the MLE, omitting the determinant term from the likelihood. Note that this is not the same as the Gaussian likelihood evaluated at the estimated parameter values. In `ar.yw` the variance matrix of the innovations is computed from the fitted coefficients and the autocovariance of x .

`ar.burg` allows two methods to estimate the innovations variance and hence AIC. Method 1 is to use the update given by the Levinson-Durbin recursion (Brockwell and Davis, 1991, (8.2.6) on page 242), and follows S-PLUS. Method 2 is the mean of the sum of squares of the forward and backward prediction errors (as in Brockwell and Davis, 1996, page 145). Percival and Walden (1998) discuss both. In the multivariate case the estimated coefficients will depend (slightly) on the variance estimation method.

Remember that `ar` includes by default a constant in the model, by removing the overall mean of x before fitting the AR model, or (`ar.mle`) estimating a constant to subtract.

Value

For `ar` and its methods a list of class "ar" with the following elements:

order	The order of the fitted model. This is chosen by minimizing the AIC if <code>aic = TRUE</code> , otherwise it is <code>order.max</code> .
ar	Estimated autoregression coefficients for the fitted model.
var.pred	The prediction variance: an estimate of the portion of the variance of the time series that is not explained by the autoregressive model.
x.mean	The estimated mean of the series used in fitting and for use in prediction.
x.intercept	(<code>ar.ols</code> only.) The intercept in the model for $x - x.mean$.
aic	The differences in AIC between each model and the best-fitting model. Note that the latter can have an AIC of <code>-Inf</code> .
n.used	The number of observations in the time series.
order.max	The value of the <code>order.max</code> argument.
partialacf	The estimate of the partial autocorrelation function up to lag <code>order.max</code> .

resid	residuals from the fitted model, conditioning on the first order observations. The first order residuals are set to NA. If x is a time series, so is resid.
method	The value of the method argument.
series	The name(s) of the time series.
frequency	The frequency of the time series.
call	The matched call.
asy.var.coef	(univariate case, order > 0.) The asymptotic-theory variance matrix of the coefficient estimates.

For `predict.ar`, a time series of predictions, or if `se.fit = TRUE`, a list with components `pred`, the predictions, and `se`, the estimated standard errors. Both components are time series.

Note

Only the univariate case of `ar.mle` is implemented.
Fitting by `method="mle"` to long series can be very slow.

Author(s)

Martyn Plummer. Univariate case of `ar.yw`, `ar.mle` and C code for univariate case of `ar.burg` by B. D. Ripley.

References

- Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1991) *Time Series and Forecasting Methods*. Second edition. Springer, New York. Section 11.4.
- Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1996) *Introduction to Time Series and Forecasting*. Springer, New York. Sections 5.1 and 7.6.
- Percival, D. P. and Walden, A. T. (1998) *Spectral Analysis for Physical Applications*. Cambridge University Press.
- Whittle, P. (1963) On the fitting of multivariate autoregressions and the approximate canonical factorization of a spectral density matrix. *Biometrika* **40**, 129–134.

See Also

[ar.ols](#), [arima](#) for ARMA models; [acf2AR](#), for AR construction from the ACF.
[arima.sim](#) for simulation of AR processes.

Examples

```
ar(1h)
ar(1h, method = "burg")
ar(1h, method = "ols")
ar(1h, FALSE, 4) # fit ar(4)

(sunspot.ar <- ar(sunspot.year))
predict(sunspot.ar, n.ahead = 25)
```

```
## try the other methods too

ar(ts.union(BJsales, BJsales.lead))
## Burg is quite different here, as is OLS (see ar.ols)
ar(ts.union(BJsales, BJsales.lead), method = "burg")
```

ar.ols	<i>Fit Autoregressive Models to Time Series by OLS</i>
--------	--

Description

Fit an autoregressive time series model to the data by ordinary least squares, by default selecting the complexity by AIC.

Usage

```
ar.ols(x, aic = TRUE, order.max = NULL, na.action = na.fail,
       demean = TRUE, intercept = demean, series, ...)
```

Arguments

x	A univariate or multivariate time series.
aic	Logical flag. If TRUE then the Akaike Information Criterion is used to choose the order of the autoregressive model. If FALSE, the model of order order.max is fitted.
order.max	Maximum order (or order) of model to fit. Defaults to $10 \log_{10}(N)$ where N is the number of observations.
na.action	function to be called to handle missing values.
demean	should the AR model be for x minus its mean?
intercept	should a separate intercept term be fitted?
series	names for the series. Defaults to <code>deparse(substitute(x))</code> .
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

ar.ols fits the general AR model to a possibly non-stationary and/or multivariate system of series x. The resulting unconstrained least squares estimates are consistent, even if some of the series are non-stationary and/or co-integrated. For definiteness, note that the AR coefficients have the sign in

$$x_t - \mu = a_0 + a_1(x_{t-1} - \mu) + \cdots + a_p(x_{t-p} - \mu) + e_t$$

where a_0 is zero unless intercept is true, and μ is the sample mean if demean is true, zero otherwise.

Order selection is done by AIC if aic is true. This is problematic, as ar.ols does not perform true maximum likelihood estimation. The AIC is computed as if the variance estimate (computed

from the variance matrix of the residuals) were the MLE, omitting the determinant term from the likelihood. Note that this is not the same as the Gaussian likelihood evaluated at the estimated parameter values.

Some care is needed if `intercept` is true and `demean` is false. Only use this if the series are roughly centred on zero. Otherwise the computations may be inaccurate or fail entirely.

Value

A list of class "ar" with the following elements:

<code>order</code>	The order of the fitted model. This is chosen by minimizing the AIC if <code>aic = TRUE</code> , otherwise it is <code>order.max</code> .
<code>ar</code>	Estimated autoregression coefficients for the fitted model.
<code>var.pred</code>	The prediction variance: an estimate of the portion of the variance of the time series that is not explained by the autoregressive model.
<code>x.mean</code>	The estimated mean (or zero if <code>demean</code> is false) of the series used in fitting and for use in prediction.
<code>x.intercept</code>	The intercept in the model for $x - x.mean$, or zero if <code>intercept</code> is false.
<code>aic</code>	The differences in AIC between each model and the best-fitting model. Note that the latter can have an AIC of $-\infty$.
<code>n.used</code>	The number of observations in the time series.
<code>order.max</code>	The value of the <code>order.max</code> argument.
<code>partialacf</code>	NULL. For compatibility with <code>ar</code> .
<code>resid</code>	residuals from the fitted model, conditioning on the first order observations. The first order residuals are set to NA. If <code>x</code> is a time series, so is <code>resid</code> .
<code>method</code>	The character string "Unconstrained LS".
<code>series</code>	The name(s) of the time series.
<code>frequency</code>	The frequency of the time series.
<code>call</code>	The matched call.
<code>asy.se.coef</code>	The asymptotic-theory standard errors of the coefficient estimates.

Author(s)

Adrian Trapletti, Brian Ripley.

References

Luetkepohl, H. (1991): *Introduction to Multiple Time Series Analysis*. Springer Verlag, NY, pp. 368–370.

See Also

[ar](#)

Examples

```
ar(lh, method = "burg")
ar.ols(lh)
ar.ols(lh, FALSE, 4) # fit ar(4)

ar.ols(ts.union(BJsales, BJsales.lead))

x <- diff(log(EuStockMarkets))
ar.ols(x, order.max = 6, demean = FALSE, intercept = TRUE)
```

arima	<i>ARIMA Modelling of Time Series</i>
-------	---------------------------------------

Description

Fit an ARIMA model to a univariate time series.

Usage

```
arima(x, order = c(0L, 0L, 0L),
      seasonal = list(order = c(0L, 0L, 0L), period = NA),
      xreg = NULL, include.mean = TRUE,
      transform.pars = TRUE,
      fixed = NULL, init = NULL,
      method = c("CSS-ML", "ML", "CSS"), n.cond,
      SSinit = c("Gardner1980", "Rossignol2011"),
      optim.method = "BFGS",
      optim.control = list(), kappa = 1e6)
```

Arguments

x	a univariate time series
order	A specification of the non-seasonal part of the ARIMA model: the three integer components (p, d, q) are the AR order, the degree of differencing, and the MA order.
seasonal	A specification of the seasonal part of the ARIMA model, plus the period (which defaults to frequency(x)). This should be a list with components order and period, but a specification of just a numeric vector of length 3 will be turned into a suitable list with the specification as the order.
xreg	Optionally, a vector or matrix of external regressors, which must have the same number of rows as x.
include.mean	Should the ARMA model include a mean/intercept term? The default is TRUE for undifferenced series, and it is ignored for ARIMA models with differencing.
transform.pars	logical; if true, the AR parameters are transformed to ensure that they remain in the region of stationarity. Not used for method = "CSS". For method = "ML", it has been advantageous to set transform.pars = FALSE in some cases, see also fixed.

<code>fixed</code>	optional numeric vector of the same length as the total number of parameters. If supplied, only NA entries in <code>fixed</code> will be varied. <code>transform.pars = TRUE</code> will be overridden (with a warning) if any AR parameters are fixed. It may be wise to set <code>transform.pars = FALSE</code> when fixing MA parameters, especially near non-invertibility.
<code>init</code>	optional numeric vector of initial parameter values. Missing values will be filled in, by zeroes except for regression coefficients. Values already specified in <code>fixed</code> will be ignored.
<code>method</code>	fitting method: maximum likelihood or minimize conditional sum-of-squares. The default (unless there are missing values) is to use conditional-sum-of-squares to find starting values, then maximum likelihood. Can be abbreviated.
<code>n.cond</code>	only used if fitting by conditional-sum-of-squares: the number of initial observations to ignore. It will be ignored if less than the maximum lag of an AR term.
<code>SSinit</code>	a string specifying the algorithm to compute the state-space initialization of the likelihood; see KalmanLike for details. Can be abbreviated.
<code>optim.method</code>	The value passed as the method argument to optim .
<code>optim.control</code>	List of control parameters for optim .
<code>kappa</code>	the prior variance (as a multiple of the innovations variance) for the past observations in a differenced model. Do not reduce this.

Details

Different definitions of ARMA models have different signs for the AR and/or MA coefficients. The definition used here has

$$X_t = a_1 X_{t-1} + \cdots + a_p X_{t-p} + e_t + b_1 e_{t-1} + \cdots + b_q e_{t-q}$$

and so the MA coefficients differ in sign from those of S-PLUS. Further, if `include.mean` is true (the default for an ARMA model), this formula applies to $X - m$ rather than X . For ARIMA models with differencing, the differenced series follows a zero-mean ARMA model. If an `xreg` term is included, a linear regression (with a constant term if `include.mean` is true and there is no differencing) is fitted with an ARMA model for the error term.

The variance matrix of the estimates is found from the Hessian of the log-likelihood, and so may only be a rough guide.

Optimization is done by [optim](#). It will work best if the columns in `xreg` are roughly scaled to zero mean and unit variance, but does attempt to estimate suitable scalings.

Value

A list of class "Arima" with components:

<code>coef</code>	a vector of AR, MA and regression coefficients, which can be extracted by the coef method.
<code>sigma2</code>	the MLE of the innovations variance.

<code>var.coef</code>	the estimated variance matrix of the coefficients <code>coef</code> , which can be extracted by the <code>vcov</code> method.
<code>loglik</code>	the maximized log-likelihood (of the differenced data), or the approximation to it used.
<code>arma</code>	A compact form of the specification, as a vector giving the number of AR, MA, seasonal AR and seasonal MA coefficients, plus the period and the number of non-seasonal and seasonal differences.
<code>aic</code>	the AIC value corresponding to the log-likelihood. Only valid for <code>method = "ML"</code> fits.
<code>residuals</code>	the fitted innovations.
<code>call</code>	the matched call.
<code>series</code>	the name of the series <code>x</code> .
<code>code</code>	the convergence value returned by <code>optim</code> .
<code>n.cond</code>	the number of initial observations not used in the fitting.
<code>nobs</code>	the number of “used” observations for the fitting, can also be extracted via <code>nobs()</code> and is used by <code>BIC</code> .
<code>model</code>	A list representing the Kalman Filter used in the fitting. See <code>KalmanLike</code> .

Fitting methods

The exact likelihood is computed via a state-space representation of the ARIMA process, and the innovations and their variance found by a Kalman filter. The initialization of the differenced ARMA process uses stationarity and is based on Gardner *et al* (1980). For a differenced process the non-stationary components are given a diffuse prior (controlled by `kappa`). Observations which are still controlled by the diffuse prior (determined by having a Kalman gain of at least `1e4`) are excluded from the likelihood calculations. (This gives comparable results to `arima0` in the absence of missing values, when the observations excluded are precisely those dropped by the differencing.)

Missing values are allowed, and are handled exactly in method `"ML"`.

If `transform.pars` is true, the optimization is done using an alternative parametrization which is a variation on that suggested by Jones (1980) and ensures that the model is stationary. For an AR(p) model the parametrization is via the inverse tanh of the partial autocorrelations: the same procedure is applied (separately) to the AR and seasonal AR terms. The MA terms are not constrained to be invertible during optimization, but they will be converted to invertible form after optimization if `transform.pars` is true.

Conditional sum-of-squares is provided mainly for expositional purposes. This computes the sum of squares of the fitted innovations from observation `n.cond` on, (where `n.cond` is at least the maximum lag of an AR term), treating all earlier innovations to be zero. Argument `n.cond` can be used to allow comparability between different fits. The ‘part log-likelihood’ is the first term, half the log of the estimated mean square. Missing values are allowed, but will cause many of the innovations to be missing.

When regressors are specified, they are orthogonalized prior to fitting unless any of the coefficients is fixed. It can be helpful to roughly scale the regressors to zero mean and unit variance.

Note

The results are likely to be different from S-PLUS's `arima.mle`, which computes a conditional likelihood and does not include a mean in the model. Further, the convention used by `arima.mle` reverses the signs of the MA coefficients.

`arima` is very similar to `arima0` for ARMA models or for differenced models without missing values, but handles differenced models with missing values exactly. It is somewhat slower than `arima0`, particularly for seasonally differenced models.

References

- Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1996) *Introduction to Time Series and Forecasting*. Springer, New York. Sections 3.3 and 8.3.
- Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Gardner, G, Harvey, A. C. and Phillips, G. D. A. (1980) Algorithm AS154. An algorithm for exact maximum likelihood estimation of autoregressive-moving average models by means of Kalman filtering. *Applied Statistics* **29**, 311–322.
- Harvey, A. C. (1993) *Time Series Models*, 2nd Edition, Harvester Wheatsheaf, sections 3.3 and 4.4.
- Jones, R. H. (1980) Maximum likelihood fitting of ARMA models to time series with missing observations. *Technometrics* **22** 389–395.
- Ripley, B. D. (2002) Time series in R 1.5.0. *R News*, **2/2**, 2–7. https://www.r-project.org/doc/Rnews/Rnews_2002-2.pdf

See Also

`predict.Arima`, `arima.sim` for simulating from an ARIMA model, `tsdiag`, `arima0`, `ar`

Examples

```
arima(lh, order = c(1,0,0))
arima(lh, order = c(3,0,0))
arima(lh, order = c(1,0,1))

arima(lh, order = c(3,0,0), method = "CSS")

arima(USAccDeaths, order = c(0,1,1), seasonal = list(order = c(0,1,1)))
arima(USAccDeaths, order = c(0,1,1), seasonal = list(order = c(0,1,1)),
      method = "CSS") # drops first 13 observations.
# for a model with as few years as this, we want full ML

arima(LakeHuron, order = c(2,0,0), xreg = time(LakeHuron) - 1920)

## presidents contains NAs
## graphs in example(acf) suggest order 1 or 3
require(graphics)
(fit1 <- arima(presidents, c(1, 0, 0)))
nobs(fit1)
tsdiag(fit1)
```

```
(fit3 <- arima(presidents, c(3, 0, 0))) # smaller AIC
tsdiag(fit3)
BIC(fit1, fit3)
## compare a whole set of models; BIC() would choose the smallest
AIC(fit1, arima(presidents, c(2,0,0)),
    arima(presidents, c(2,0,1)), # <- chosen (barely) by AIC
    fit3, arima(presidents, c(3,0,1)))

## An example of ARIMA forecasting:
predict(fit3, 3)
```

arima.sim

*Simulate from an ARIMA Model***Description**

Simulate from an ARIMA model.

Usage

```
arima.sim(model, n, rand.gen = rnorm, innov = rand.gen(n, ...),
          n.start = NA, start.innov = rand.gen(n.start, ...),
          ...)
```

Arguments

<code>model</code>	A list with component <code>ar</code> and/or <code>ma</code> giving the AR and MA coefficients respectively. Optionally a component <code>order</code> can be used. An empty list gives an ARIMA(0, 0, 0) model, that is white noise.
<code>n</code>	length of output series, before un-differencing. A strictly positive integer.
<code>rand.gen</code>	optional: a function to generate the innovations.
<code>innov</code>	an optional times series of innovations. If not provided, <code>rand.gen</code> is used.
<code>n.start</code>	length of ‘burn-in’ period. If NA, the default, a reasonable value is computed.
<code>start.innov</code>	an optional times series of innovations to be used for the burn-in period. If supplied there must be at least <code>n.start</code> values (and <code>n.start</code> is by default computed inside the function).
<code>...</code>	additional arguments for <code>rand.gen</code> . Most usefully, the standard deviation of the innovations generated by <code>rnorm</code> can be specified by <code>sd</code> .

Details

See [arima](#) for the precise definition of an ARIMA model.

The ARMA model is checked for stationarity.

ARIMA models are specified via the order component of `model`, in the same way as for [arima](#). Other aspects of the order component are ignored, but inconsistent specifications of the MA and AR orders are detected. The un-differencing assumes previous values of zero, and to remind the user of this, those values are returned.

Random inputs for the ‘burn-in’ period are generated by calling `rand.gen`.

Value

A time-series object of class "ts".

See Also

[arima](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

arima.sim(n = 63, list(ar = c(0.8897, -0.4858), ma = c(-0.2279, 0.2488)),
          sd = sqrt(0.1796))
# mildly long-tailed
arima.sim(n = 63, list(ar = c(0.8897, -0.4858), ma = c(-0.2279, 0.2488)),
          rand.gen = function(n, ...) sqrt(0.1796) * rt(n, df = 5))

# An ARIMA simulation
ts.sim <- arima.sim(list(order = c(1,1,0), ar = 0.7), n = 200)
ts.plot(ts.sim)
```

arima0

ARIMA Modelling of Time Series – Preliminary Version

Description

Fit an ARIMA model to a univariate time series, and forecast from the fitted model.

Usage

```
arima0(x, order = c(0, 0, 0),
       seasonal = list(order = c(0, 0, 0), period = NA),
       xreg = NULL, include.mean = TRUE, delta = 0.01,
       transform.pars = TRUE, fixed = NULL, init = NULL,
       method = c("ML", "CSS"), n.cond, optim.control = list())

## S3 method for class 'arima0'
predict(object, n.ahead = 1, newxreg, se.fit = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a univariate time series
order	A specification of the non-seasonal part of the ARIMA model: the three components (p, d, q) are the AR order, the degree of differencing, and the MA order.
seasonal	A specification of the seasonal part of the ARIMA model, plus the period (which defaults to frequency(x)). This should be a list with components order and period, but a specification of just a numeric vector of length 3 will be turned into a suitable list with the specification as the order.

<code>xreg</code>	Optionally, a vector or matrix of external regressors, which must have the same number of rows as <code>x</code> .
<code>include.mean</code>	Should the ARIMA model include a mean term? The default is TRUE for undifferenced series, FALSE for differenced ones (where a mean would not affect the fit nor predictions).
<code>delta</code>	A value to indicate at which point ‘fast recursions’ should be used. See the ‘Details’ section.
<code>transform.pars</code>	Logical. If true, the AR parameters are transformed to ensure that they remain in the region of stationarity. Not used for <code>method = "CSS"</code> .
<code>fixed</code>	optional numeric vector of the same length as the total number of parameters. If supplied, only NA entries in <code>fixed</code> will be varied. <code>transform.pars = TRUE</code> will be overridden (with a warning) if any ARMA parameters are fixed.
<code>init</code>	optional numeric vector of initial parameter values. Missing values will be filled in, by zeroes except for regression coefficients. Values already specified in <code>fixed</code> will be ignored.
<code>method</code>	Fitting method: maximum likelihood or minimize conditional sum-of-squares. Can be abbreviated.
<code>n.cond</code>	Only used if fitting by conditional-sum-of-squares: the number of initial observations to ignore. It will be ignored if less than the maximum lag of an AR term.
<code>optim.control</code>	List of control parameters for optim .
<code>object</code>	The result of an <code>arima0</code> fit.
<code>newxreg</code>	New values of <code>xreg</code> to be used for prediction. Must have at least <code>n.ahead</code> rows.
<code>n.ahead</code>	The number of steps ahead for which prediction is required.
<code>se.fit</code>	Logical: should standard errors of prediction be returned?
<code>...</code>	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Different definitions of ARMA models have different signs for the AR and/or MA coefficients. The definition here has

$$X_t = a_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + a_p X_{t-p} + e_t + b_1 e_{t-1} + \dots + b_q e_{t-q}$$

and so the MA coefficients differ in sign from those of S-PLUS. Further, if `include.mean` is true, this formula applies to $X - m$ rather than X . For ARIMA models with differencing, the differenced series follows a zero-mean ARMA model.

The variance matrix of the estimates is found from the Hessian of the log-likelihood, and so may only be a rough guide, especially for fits close to the boundary of invertibility.

Optimization is done by [optim](#). It will work best if the columns in `xreg` are roughly scaled to zero mean and unit variance, but does attempt to estimate suitable scalings.

Finite-history prediction is used. This is only statistically efficient if the MA part of the fit is invertible, so `predict.arima0` will give a warning for non-invertible MA models.

Value

For `arima0`, a list of class "arima0" with components:

<code>coef</code>	a vector of AR, MA and regression coefficients,
<code>sigma2</code>	the MLE of the innovations variance.
<code>var.coef</code>	the estimated variance matrix of the coefficients <code>coef</code> .
<code>loglik</code>	the maximized log-likelihood (of the differenced data), or the approximation to it used.
<code>arma</code>	A compact form of the specification, as a vector giving the number of AR, MA, seasonal AR and seasonal MA coefficients, plus the period and the number of non-seasonal and seasonal differences.
<code>aic</code>	the AIC value corresponding to the log-likelihood. Only valid for <code>method = "ML"</code> fits.
<code>residuals</code>	the fitted innovations.
<code>call</code>	the matched call.
<code>series</code>	the name of the series <code>x</code> .
<code>convergence</code>	the value returned by optim .
<code>n.cond</code>	the number of initial observations not used in the fitting.

For `predict.arima0`, a time series of predictions, or if `se.fit = TRUE`, a list with components `pred`, the predictions, and `se`, the estimated standard errors. Both components are time series.

Fitting methods

The exact likelihood is computed via a state-space representation of the ARMA process, and the innovations and their variance found by a Kalman filter based on Gardner *et al* (1980). This has the option to switch to 'fast recursions' (assume an effectively infinite past) if the innovations variance is close enough to its asymptotic bound. The argument `delta` sets the tolerance: at its default value the approximation is normally negligible and the speed-up considerable. Exact computations can be ensured by setting `delta` to a negative value.

If `transform.pars` is true, the optimization is done using an alternative parametrization which is a variation on that suggested by Jones (1980) and ensures that the model is stationary. For an AR(p) model the parametrization is via the inverse tanh of the partial autocorrelations: the same procedure is applied (separately) to the AR and seasonal AR terms. The MA terms are also constrained to be invertible during optimization by the same transformation if `transform.pars` is true. Note that the MLE for MA terms does sometimes occur for MA polynomials with unit roots: such models can be fitted by using `transform.pars = FALSE` and specifying a good set of initial values (often obtainable from a fit with `transform.pars = TRUE`).

Missing values are allowed, but any missing values will force `delta` to be ignored and full recursions used. Note that missing values will be propagated by differencing, so the procedure used in this function is not fully efficient in that case.

Conditional sum-of-squares is provided mainly for expositional purposes. This computes the sum of squares of the fitted innovations from observation `n.cond` on, (where `n.cond` is at least the maximum lag of an AR term), treating all earlier innovations to be zero. Argument `n.cond` can

be used to allow comparability between different fits. The ‘part log-likelihood’ is the first term, half the log of the estimated mean square. Missing values are allowed, but will cause many of the innovations to be missing.

When regressors are specified, they are orthogonalized prior to fitting unless any of the coefficients is fixed. It can be helpful to roughly scale the regressors to zero mean and unit variance.

Note

This is a preliminary version, and will be replaced by [arima](#).

The standard errors of prediction exclude the uncertainty in the estimation of the ARMA model and the regression coefficients.

The results are likely to be different from S-PLUS’s `arima.mle`, which computes a conditional likelihood and does not include a mean in the model. Further, the convention used by `arima.mle` reverses the signs of the MA coefficients.

References

Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1996) *Introduction to Time Series and Forecasting*. Springer, New York. Sections 3.3 and 8.3.

Gardner, G, Harvey, A. C. and Phillips, G. D. A. (1980) Algorithm AS154. An algorithm for exact maximum likelihood estimation of autoregressive-moving average models by means of Kalman filtering. *Applied Statistics* **29**, 311–322.

Harvey, A. C. (1993) *Time Series Models*, 2nd Edition, Harvester Wheatsheaf, sections 3.3 and 4.4.

Harvey, A. C. and McKenzie, C. R. (1982) Algorithm AS182. An algorithm for finite sample prediction from ARIMA processes. *Applied Statistics* **31**, 180–187.

Jones, R. H. (1980) Maximum likelihood fitting of ARMA models to time series with missing observations. *Technometrics* **22** 389–395.

See Also

[arima](#), [ar](#), [tsdiag](#)

Examples

```
## Not run: arima0(lh, order = c(1,0,0))
arima0(lh, order = c(3,0,0))
arima0(lh, order = c(1,0,1))
predict(arima0(lh, order = c(3,0,0)), n.ahead = 12)

arima0(lh, order = c(3,0,0), method = "CSS")

# for a model with as few years as this, we want full ML
(fit <- arima0(USAccDeaths, order = c(0,1,1),
              seasonal = list(order=c(0,1,1)), delta = -1))
predict(fit, n.ahead = 6)

arima0(LakeHuron, order = c(2,0,0), xreg = time(LakeHuron)-1920)
## Not run:
```

```
## presidents contains NAs
## graphs in example(acf) suggest order 1 or 3
(fit1 <- arima0(presidents, c(1, 0, 0), delta = -1)) # avoid warning
tsdiag(fit1)
(fit3 <- arima0(presidents, c(3, 0, 0), delta = -1)) # smaller AIC
tsdiag(fit3)
## End(Not run)
```

ARMAacf

*Compute Theoretical ACF for an ARMA Process***Description**

Compute the theoretical autocorrelation function or partial autocorrelation function for an ARMA process.

Usage

```
ARMAacf(ar = numeric(), ma = numeric(), lag.max = r, pacf = FALSE)
```

Arguments

ar	numeric vector of AR coefficients
ma	numeric vector of MA coefficients
lag.max	integer. Maximum lag required. Defaults to $\max(p, q+1)$, where p , q are the numbers of AR and MA terms respectively.
pacf	logical. Should the partial autocorrelations be returned?

Details

The methods used follow Brockwell & Davis (1991, section 3.3). Their equations (3.3.8) are solved for the autocovariances at lags $0, \dots, \max(p, q + 1)$, and the remaining autocorrelations are given by a recursive filter.

Value

A vector of (partial) autocorrelations, named by the lags.

References

Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1991) *Time Series: Theory and Methods*, Second Edition. Springer.

See Also

[arima](#), [ARMAtoMA](#), [acf2AR](#) for inverting part of ARMAacf; further [filter](#).

Examples

```
ARMAacf(c(1.0, -0.25), 1.0, lag.max = 10)

## Example from Brockwell & Davis (1991, pp.92-4)
## answer:  $2^{(-n)} * (32/3 + 8 * n) / (32/3)$ 
n <- 1:10
a.n <-  $2^{(-n)} * (32/3 + 8 * n) / (32/3)$ 
(A.n <- ARMAacf(c(1.0, -0.25), 1.0, lag.max = 10))
stopifnot(all.equal(unname(A.n), c(1, a.n)))

ARMAacf(c(1.0, -0.25), 1.0, lag.max = 10, pacf = TRUE)
zapsmall(ARMAacf(c(1.0, -0.25), lag.max = 10, pacf = TRUE))

## Cov-Matrix of length-7 sub-sample of AR(1) example:
toeplitz(ARMAacf(0.8, lag.max = 7))
```

ARMAtoMA

*Convert ARMA Process to Infinite MA Process***Description**

Convert ARMA process to infinite MA process.

Usage

```
ARMAtoMA(ar = numeric(), ma = numeric(), lag.max)
```

Arguments

ar	numeric vector of AR coefficients
ma	numeric vector of MA coefficients
lag.max	Largest MA(Inf) coefficient required.

Value

A vector of coefficients.

References

Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1991) *Time Series: Theory and Methods*, Second Edition. Springer.

See Also

[arima](#), [ARMAacf](#).

Examples

```

ARMAtoMA(c(1.0, -0.25), 1.0, 10)
## Example from Brockwell & Davis (1991, p.92)
## answer (1 + 3*n)*2^(-n)
n <- 1:10; (1 + 3*n)*2^(-n)

```

as.hclust

*Convert Objects to Class hclust***Description**

Converts objects from other hierarchical clustering functions to class "hclust".

Usage

```
as.hclust(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x	Hierarchical clustering object
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Currently there is only support for converting objects of class "twins" as produced by the functions *diana* and *agnes* from the package **cluster**. The default method throws an error unless passed an "hclust" object.

Value

An object of class "hclust".

See Also

[hclust](#), and from package **cluster**, [diana](#) and [agnes](#)

Examples

```

x <- matrix(rnorm(30), ncol = 3)
hc <- hclust(dist(x), method = "complete")

if(require("cluster", quietly = TRUE)) {# is a recommended package
  ag <- agnes(x, method = "complete")
  hcag <- as.hclust(ag)
  ## The dendrograms order slightly differently:
  op <- par(mfrow = c(1,2))
  plot(hc) ; mtext("hclust", side = 1)
  plot(hcag); mtext("agnes", side = 1)
  detach("package:cluster")
}

```

asOneSidedFormula	<i>Convert to One-Sided Formula</i>
-------------------	-------------------------------------

Description

Names, expressions, numeric values, and character strings are converted to one-sided formulae. If object is a formula, it must be one-sided, in which case it is returned unaltered.

Usage

```
asOneSidedFormula(object)
```

Arguments

object a one-sided formula, an expression, a numeric value, or a character string.

Value

a one-sided formula representing object

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[formula](#)

Examples

```
asOneSidedFormula("age")
asOneSidedFormula(~ age)
```

ave	<i>Group Averages Over Level Combinations of Factors</i>
-----	--

Description

Subsets of x[] are averaged, where each subset consist of those observations with the same factor levels.

Usage

```
ave(x, ..., FUN = mean)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A numeric.
<code>...</code>	Grouping variables, typically factors, all of the same length as <code>x</code> .
<code>FUN</code>	Function to apply for each factor level combination.

Value

A numeric vector, say `y` of length `length(x)`. If `...` is `g1, g2`, e.g., `y[i]` is equal to `FUN(x[j], for all j with $g1[j] == g1[i]$ and $g2[j] == g2[i]$)`.

See Also

[mean](#), [median](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

ave(1:3) # no grouping -> grand mean

attach(warpbreaks)
ave(breaks, wool)
ave(breaks, tension)
ave(breaks, tension, FUN = function(x) mean(x, trim = 0.1))
plot(breaks, main =
     "ave( Warpbreaks ) for  wool x  tension combinations")
lines(ave(breaks, wool, tension), type = "s", col = "blue")
lines(ave(breaks, wool, tension, FUN = median), type = "s", col = "green")
legend(40, 70, c("mean", "median"), lty = 1,
      col = c("blue", "green"), bg = "gray90")
detach()
```

bandwidth

Bandwidth Selectors for Kernel Density Estimation

Description

Bandwidth selectors for Gaussian kernels in [density](#).

Usage

```
bw.nrd0(x)

bw.nrd(x)

bw.ucv(x, nb = 1000, lower = 0.1 * hmax, upper = hmax,
      tol = 0.1 * lower)
```

```
bw.bcv(x, nb = 1000, lower = 0.1 * hmax, upper = hmax,
       tol = 0.1 * lower)
```

```
bw.SJ(x, nb = 1000, lower = 0.1 * hmax, upper = hmax,
      method = c("ste", "dpi"), tol = 0.1 * lower)
```

Arguments

x	numeric vector.
nb	number of bins to use.
lower, upper	range over which to minimize. The default is almost always satisfactory. hmax is calculated internally from a normal reference bandwidth.
method	either "ste" ("solve-the-equation") or "dpi" ("direct plug-in"). Can be abbreviated.
tol	for method "ste", the convergence tolerance for uniroot . The default leads to bandwidth estimates with only slightly more than one digit accuracy, which is sufficient for practical density estimation, but possibly not for theoretical simulation studies.

Details

`bw.nrd0` implements a rule-of-thumb for choosing the bandwidth of a Gaussian kernel density estimator. It defaults to 0.9 times the minimum of the standard deviation and the interquartile range divided by 1.34 times the sample size to the negative one-fifth power (= Silverman's 'rule of thumb', Silverman (1986, page 48, eqn (3.31)) *unless* the quartiles coincide when a positive result will be guaranteed.

`bw.nrd` is the more common variation given by Scott (1992), using factor 1.06.

`bw.ucv` and `bw.bcv` implement unbiased and biased cross-validation respectively.

`bw.SJ` implements the methods of Sheather & Jones (1991) to select the bandwidth using pilot estimation of derivatives.

The algorithm for method "ste" solves an equation (via [uniroot](#)) and because of that, enlarges the interval `c(lower, upper)` when the boundaries were not user-specified and do not bracket the root.

Value

A bandwidth on a scale suitable for the `bw` argument of `density`.

References

- Scott, D. W. (1992) *Multivariate Density Estimation: Theory, Practice, and Visualization*. Wiley.
- Sheather, S. J. and Jones, M. C. (1991) A reliable data-based bandwidth selection method for kernel density estimation. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society series B*, **53**, 683–690.
- Silverman, B. W. (1986) *Density Estimation*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. Springer.

See Also

[density](#).

[bandwidth.nrd](#), [ucv](#), [bcv](#) and [width.SJ](#) in package **MASS**, which are all scaled to the width argument of [density](#) and so give answers four times as large.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

plot(density(precip, n = 1000))
rug(precip)
lines(density(precip, bw = "nrd"), col = 2)
lines(density(precip, bw = "ucv"), col = 3)
lines(density(precip, bw = "bcv"), col = 4)
lines(density(precip, bw = "SJ-ste"), col = 5)
lines(density(precip, bw = "SJ-dpi"), col = 6)
legend(55, 0.035,
      legend = c("nrd", "nrd", "ucv", "bcv", "SJ-ste", "SJ-dpi"),
      col = 1:6, lty = 1)
```

bartlett.test

Bartlett Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Description

Performs Bartlett's test of the null that the variances in each of the groups (samples) are the same.

Usage

```
bartlett.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
bartlett.test(x, g, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
bartlett.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector of data values, or a list of numeric data vectors representing the respective samples, or fitted linear model objects (inheriting from class "lm").
g	a vector or factor object giving the group for the corresponding elements of x. Ignored if x is a list.
formula	a formula of the form lhs ~ rhs where lhs gives the data values and rhs the corresponding groups.

data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

If `x` is a list, its elements are taken as the samples or fitted linear models to be compared for homogeneity of variances. In this case, the elements must either all be numeric data vectors or fitted linear model objects, `g` is ignored, and one can simply use `bartlett.test(x)` to perform the test. If the samples are not yet contained in a list, use `bartlett.test(list(x, ...))`.

Otherwise, `x` must be a numeric data vector, and `g` must be a vector or factor object of the same length as `x` giving the group for the corresponding elements of `x`.

Value

A list of class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	Bartlett's K-squared test statistic.
parameter	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
method	the character string "Bartlett test of homogeneity of variances".
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

Bartlett, M. S. (1937). Properties of sufficiency and statistical tests. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London Series A* **160**, 268–282.

See Also

[var.test](#) for the special case of comparing variances in two samples from normal distributions; [fligner.test](#) for a rank-based (nonparametric) k -sample test for homogeneity of variances; [ansari.test](#) and [mood.test](#) for two rank based two-sample tests for difference in scale.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

plot(count ~ spray, data = InsectSprays)
bartlett.test(InsectSprays$count, InsectSprays$spray)
bartlett.test(count ~ spray, data = InsectSprays)
```

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the Beta distribution with parameters shape1 and shape2 (and optional non-centrality parameter ncp).

Usage

```
dbeta(x, shape1, shape2, ncp = 0, log = FALSE)
pbeta(q, shape1, shape2, ncp = 0, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qbeta(p, shape1, shape2, ncp = 0, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rbeta(n, shape1, shape2, ncp = 0)
```

Arguments

x, q	vector of quantiles.
p	vector of probabilities.
n	number of observations. If length(n) > 1, the length is taken to be the number required.
shape1, shape2	non-negative parameters of the Beta distribution.
ncp	non-centrality parameter.
log, log.p	logical; if TRUE, probabilities p are given as log(p).
lower.tail	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The Beta distribution with parameters shape1 = a and shape2 = b has density

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1}$$

for $a > 0$, $b > 0$ and $0 \leq x \leq 1$ where the boundary values at $x = 0$ or $x = 1$ are defined as by continuity (as limits).

The mean is $a/(a+b)$ and the variance is $ab/((a+b)^2(a+b+1))$. These moments and all distributional properties can be defined as limits (leading to point masses at 0, 1/2, or 1) when a or b are zero or infinite, and the corresponding [dqr]beta() functions are defined correspondingly.

pbeta is closely related to the incomplete beta function. As defined by Abramowitz and Stegun 6.6.1

$$B_x(a, b) = \int_0^x t^{a-1} (1-t)^{b-1} dt,$$

and 6.6.2 $I_x(a, b) = B_x(a, b)/B(a, b)$ where $B(a, b) = B_1(a, b)$ is the Beta function ([beta](#)).

$I_x(a, b)$ is pbeta(x, a, b).

The noncentral Beta distribution (with ncp = λ) is defined (Johnson *et al*, 1995, pp. 502) as the distribution of $X/(X+Y)$ where $X \sim \chi_{2a}^2(\lambda)$ and $Y \sim \chi_{2b}^2$.

Value

dbeta gives the density, pbeta the distribution function, qbeta the quantile function, and rbeta generates random deviates.

Invalid arguments will result in return value NaN, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by n for rbeta, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

Supplying `ncp = 0` uses the algorithm for the non-central distribution, which is not the same algorithm used if `ncp` is omitted. This is to give consistent behaviour in extreme cases with values of `ncp` very near zero.

Source

The central dbeta is based on a binomial probability, using code contributed by Catherine Loader (see [dbinom](#)) if either shape parameter is larger than one, otherwise directly from the definition. The non-central case is based on the derivation as a Poisson mixture of betas (Johnson *et al*, 1995, pp. 502–3).

The central pbeta uses a C translation (and enhancement for `log_p = TRUE`) of

Didonato, A. and Morris, A., Jr, (1992) Algorithm 708: Significant digit computation of the incomplete beta function ratios, *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **18**, 360–373. (See also Brown, B. and Lawrence Levy, L. (1994) Certification of algorithm 708: Significant digit computation of the incomplete beta, *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **20**, 393–397.)

The non-central pbeta uses a C translation of

Lenth, R. V. (1987) Algorithm AS226: Computing noncentral beta probabilities. *Appl. Statist*, **36**, 241–244, incorporating

Frick, H. (1990)'s AS R84, *Appl. Statist*, **39**, 311–2, and

Lam, M.L. (1995)'s AS R95, *Appl. Statist*, **44**, 551–2.

This computes the lower tail only, so the upper tail suffers from cancellation and a warning will be given when this is likely to be significant.

The central case of qbeta is based on a C translation of

Cran, G. W., K. J. Martin and G. E. Thomas (1977). Remark AS R19 and Algorithm AS 109, *Applied Statistics*, **26**, 111–114, and subsequent remarks (AS83 and correction).

The central case of rbeta is based on a C translation of

R. C. H. Cheng (1978). Generating beta variates with nonintegral shape parameters. *Communications of the ACM*, **21**, 317–322.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Abramowitz, M. and Stegun, I. A. (1972) *Handbook of Mathematical Functions*. New York: Dover. Chapter 6: Gamma and Related Functions.

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 2, especially chapter 25. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions.

[beta](#) for the Beta function.

Examples

```
x <- seq(0, 1, length = 21)
dbeta(x, 1, 1)
pbeta(x, 1, 1)

## Visualization, including limit cases:
pl.beta <- function(a,b, asp = if(isLim) 1, ylim = if(isLim) c(0,1.1)) {
  if(isLim <- a == 0 || b == 0 || a == Inf || b == Inf) {
    eps <- 1e-10
    x <- c(0, eps, (1:7)/16, 1/2+c(-eps,0,eps), (9:15)/16, 1-eps, 1)
  } else {
    x <- seq(0, 1, length = 1025)
  }
  fx <- cbind(dbeta(x, a,b), pbeta(x, a,b), qbeta(x, a,b))
  f <- fx; f[fx == Inf] <- 1e100
  matplot(x, f, ylab="", type="l", ylim=ylim, asp=asp,
    main = sprintf("[dpq]beta(x, a=%g, b=%g)", a,b))
  abline(0,1, col="gray", lty=3)
  abline(h = 0:1, col="gray", lty=3)
  legend("top", paste0(c("d","p","q"), "beta(x, a,b)"),
    col=1:3, lty=1:3, bty = "n")
  invisible(cbind(x, fx))
}

pl.beta(3,1)

pl.beta(2, 4)
pl.beta(3, 7)
pl.beta(3, 7, asp=1)

pl.beta(0, 0) ## point masses at {0, 1}

pl.beta(0, 2) ## point mass at 0 ; the same as
pl.beta(1, Inf)

pl.beta(Inf, 2) ## point mass at 1 ; the same as
pl.beta(3, 0)

pl.beta(Inf, Inf)# point mass at 1/2
```

binom.test

Exact Binomial Test

Description

Performs an exact test of a simple null hypothesis about the probability of success in a Bernoulli experiment.

Usage

```
binom.test(x, n, p = 0.5,  
           alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),  
           conf.level = 0.95)
```

Arguments

x	number of successes, or a vector of length 2 giving the numbers of successes and failures, respectively.
n	number of trials; ignored if x has length 2.
p	hypothesized probability of success.
alternative	indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided", "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter.
conf.level	confidence level for the returned confidence interval.

Details

Confidence intervals are obtained by a procedure first given in Clopper and Pearson (1934). This guarantees that the confidence level is at least `conf.level`, but in general does not give the shortest-length confidence intervals.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the number of successes.
parameter	the number of trials.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
conf.int	a confidence interval for the probability of success.
estimate	the estimated probability of success.
null.value	the probability of success under the null, p.
alternative	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.
method	the character string "Exact binomial test".
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

Clopper, C. J. & Pearson, E. S. (1934). The use of confidence or fiducial limits illustrated in the case of the binomial. *Biometrika*, **26**, 404–413.

William J. Conover (1971), *Practical nonparametric statistics*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 97–104.

Myles Hollander & Douglas A. Wolfe (1973), *Nonparametric Statistical Methods*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 15–22.

See Also

[prop.test](#) for a general (approximate) test for equal or given proportions.

Examples

```
## Conover (1971), p. 97f.  
## Under (the assumption of) simple Mendelian inheritance, a cross  
## between plants of two particular genotypes produces progeny 1/4 of  
## which are "dwarf" and 3/4 of which are "giant", respectively.  
## In an experiment to determine if this assumption is reasonable, a  
## cross results in progeny having 243 dwarf and 682 giant plants.  
## If "giant" is taken as success, the null hypothesis is that p =  
## 3/4 and the alternative that p != 3/4.  
binom.test(c(682, 243), p = 3/4)  
binom.test(682, 682 + 243, p = 3/4) # The same.  
## => Data are in agreement with the null hypothesis.
```

Binomial

The Binomial Distribution

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the binomial distribution with parameters size and prob.

This is conventionally interpreted as the number of ‘successes’ in size trials.

Usage

```
dbinom(x, size, prob, log = FALSE)  
pbinom(q, size, prob, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)  
qbinom(p, size, prob, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)  
rbinom(n, size, prob)
```

Arguments

<code>x, q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>n</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(n) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>size</code>	number of trials (zero or more).
<code>prob</code>	probability of success on each trial.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as <code>log(p)</code> .
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The binomial distribution with `size = n` and `prob = p` has density

$$p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

for $x = 0, \dots, n$. Note that binomial *coefficients* can be computed by `choose` in R.

If an element of `x` is not integer, the result of `dbinom` is zero, with a warning.

$p(x)$ is computed using Loader's algorithm, see the reference below.

The quantile is defined as the smallest value x such that $F(x) \geq p$, where F is the distribution function.

Value

`dbinom` gives the density, `pbinom` gives the distribution function, `qbinom` gives the quantile function and `rbinom` generates random deviates.

If `size` is not an integer, NaN is returned.

The length of the result is determined by `n` for `rbinom`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `n` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Source

For `dbinom` a saddle-point expansion is used: see

Catherine Loader (2000). *Fast and Accurate Computation of Binomial Probabilities*; available from <http://www.herine.net/stat/software/dbinom.html>.

`pbinom` uses `pbeta`.

`qbinom` uses the Cornish–Fisher Expansion to include a skewness correction to a normal approximation, followed by a search.

`rbinom` (for `size < .Machine$integer.max`) is based on

Kachitvichyanukul, V. and Schmeiser, B. W. (1988) Binomial random variate generation. *Communications of the ACM*, **31**, 216–222.

For larger values it uses inversion.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dnbinom](#) for the negative binomial, and [dpois](#) for the Poisson distribution.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
# Compute P(45 < X < 55) for X Binomial(100,0.5)
sum(dbinom(46:54, 100, 0.5))

## Using "log = TRUE" for an extended range :
n <- 2000
k <- seq(0, n, by = 20)
plot(k, dbinom(k, n, pi/10, log = TRUE), type = "l", ylab = "log density",
      main = "dbinom(*, log=TRUE) is better than log(dbinom(*))")
lines(k, log(dbinom(k, n, pi/10)), col = "red", lwd = 2)
## extreme points are omitted since dbinom gives 0.
mtext("dbinom(k, log=TRUE)", adj = 0)
mtext("extended range", adj = 0, line = -1, font = 4)
mtext("log(dbinom(k))", col = "red", adj = 1)
```

biplot

Biplot of Multivariate Data

Description

Plot a biplot on the current graphics device.

Usage

```
biplot(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
biplot(x, y, var.axes = TRUE, col, cex = rep(par("cex"), 2),
       xlabs = NULL, ylabs = NULL, expand = 1,
       xlim = NULL, ylim = NULL, arrow.len = 0.1,
       main = NULL, sub = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	The biplot, a fitted object. For <code>biplot.default</code> , the first set of points (a two-column matrix), usually associated with observations.
<code>y</code>	The second set of points (a two-column matrix), usually associated with variables.
<code>var.axes</code>	If TRUE the second set of points have arrows representing them as (unscaled) axes.

<code>col</code>	A vector of length 2 giving the colours for the first and second set of points respectively (and the corresponding axes). If a single colour is specified it will be used for both sets. If missing the default colour is looked for in the palette : if there it and the next colour as used, otherwise the first two colours of the palette are used.
<code>cex</code>	The character expansion factor used for labelling the points. The labels can be of different sizes for the two sets by supplying a vector of length two.
<code>xlabs</code>	A vector of character strings to label the first set of points: the default is to use the row dimname of <code>x</code> , or <code>1:n</code> if the dimname is <code>NULL</code> .
<code>ylabs</code>	A vector of character strings to label the second set of points: the default is to use the row dimname of <code>y</code> , or <code>1:n</code> if the dimname is <code>NULL</code> .
<code>expand</code>	An expansion factor to apply when plotting the second set of points relative to the first. This can be used to tweak the scaling of the two sets to a physically comparable scale.
<code>arrow.len</code>	The length of the arrow heads on the axes plotted in <code>var.axes</code> is <code>true</code> . The arrow head can be suppressed by <code>arrow.len = 0</code> .
<code>xlim, ylim</code>	Limits for the <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> axes in the units of the first set of variables.
<code>main, sub, xlab, ylab, ...</code>	graphical parameters.

Details

A biplot is plot which aims to represent both the observations and variables of a matrix of multi-variate data on the same plot. There are many variations on biplots (see the references) and perhaps the most widely used one is implemented by [biplot.princomp](#). The function `biplot.default` merely provides the underlying code to plot two sets of variables on the same figure.

Graphical parameters can also be given to `biplot`: the size of `xlabs` and `ylabs` is controlled by `cex`.

Side Effects

a plot is produced on the current graphics device.

References

- K. R. Gabriel (1971). The biplot graphical display of matrices with application to principal component analysis. *Biometrika* **58**, 453–467.
- J.C. Gower and D. J. Hand (1996). *Biplots*. Chapman & Hall.

See Also

[biplot.princomp](#), also for examples.

biplot.princomp	<i>Biplot for Principal Components</i>
-----------------	--

Description

Produces a biplot (in the strict sense) from the output of [princomp](#) or [prcomp](#)

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'prcomp'
biplot(x, choices = 1:2, scale = 1, pc.biplot = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'princomp'
biplot(x, choices = 1:2, scale = 1, pc.biplot = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

x	an object of class "princomp".
choices	length 2 vector specifying the components to plot. Only the default is a biplot in the strict sense.
scale	The variables are scaled by λ^{scale} and the observations are scaled by $\lambda^{(1-\text{scale})}$ where λ are the singular values as computed by princomp . Normally $0 \leq \text{scale} \leq 1$, and a warning will be issued if the specified scale is outside this range.
pc.biplot	If true, use what Gabriel (1971) refers to as a "principal component biplot", with $\lambda = 1$ and observations scaled up by \sqrt{n} and variables scaled down by \sqrt{n} . Then inner products between variables approximate covariances and distances between observations approximate Mahalanobis distance.
...	optional arguments to be passed to biplot.default .

Details

This is a method for the generic function `biplot`. There is considerable confusion over the precise definitions: those of the original paper, Gabriel (1971), are followed here. Gabriel and Odoroff (1990) use the same definitions, but their plots actually correspond to `pc.biplot = TRUE`.

Side Effects

a plot is produced on the current graphics device.

References

Gabriel, K. R. (1971). The biplot graphical display of matrices with applications to principal component analysis. *Biometrika*, **58**, 453–467.

Gabriel, K. R. and Odoroff, C. L. (1990). Biplots in biomedical research. *Statistics in Medicine*, **9**, 469–485.

See Also

[biplot](#), [princomp](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)
biplot(princomp(USArrests))
```

birthday	<i>Probability of coincidences</i>
----------	------------------------------------

Description

Computes answers to a generalised *birthday paradox* problem. `pbirthday` computes the probability of a coincidence and `qbirthday` computes the smallest number of observations needed to have at least a specified probability of coincidence.

Usage

```
qbirthday(prob = 0.5, classes = 365, coincident = 2)
pbirthday(n, classes = 365, coincident = 2)
```

Arguments

<code>classes</code>	How many distinct categories the people could fall into
<code>prob</code>	The desired probability of coincidence
<code>n</code>	The number of people
<code>coincident</code>	The number of people to fall in the same category

Details

The birthday paradox is that a very small number of people, 23, suffices to have a 50–50 chance that two or more of them have the same birthday. This function generalises the calculation to probabilities other than 0.5, numbers of coincident events other than 2, and numbers of classes other than 365.

The formula used is approximate for `coincident > 2`. The approximation is very good for moderate values of `prob` but less good for very small probabilities.

Value

<code>qbirthday</code>	Minimum number of people needed for a probability of at least <code>prob</code> that <code>k</code> or more of them have the same one out of <code>classes</code> equiprobable labels.
<code>pbirthday</code>	Probability of the specified coincidence.

References

Diaconis, P. and Mosteller F. (1989) Methods for studying coincidences. *J. American Statistical Association*, **84**, 853–861.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## the standard version
qbirthday() # 23
## probability of > 2 people with the same birthday
pbirthday(23, coincident = 3)

## examples from Diaconis & Mosteller p. 858.
## 'coincidence' is that husband, wife, daughter all born on the 16th
qbirthday(classes = 30, coincident = 3) # approximately 18
qbirthday(coincident = 4) # exact value 187
qbirthday(coincident = 10) # exact value 1181

## same 4-digit PIN number
qbirthday(classes = 10^4)

## 0.9 probability of three or more coincident birthdays
qbirthday(coincident = 3, prob = 0.9)

## Chance of 4 or more coincident birthdays in 150 people
pbirthday(150, coincident = 4)

## 100 or more coincident birthdays in 1000 people: very rare
pbirthday(1000, coincident = 100)
```

Box.test

Box-Pierce and Ljung-Box Tests

Description

Compute the Box–Pierce or Ljung–Box test statistic for examining the null hypothesis of independence in a given time series. These are sometimes known as ‘portmanteau’ tests.

Usage

```
Box.test(x, lag = 1, type = c("Box-Pierce", "Ljung-Box"), fitdf = 0)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector or univariate time series.
lag	the statistic will be based on lag autocorrelation coefficients.
type	test to be performed: partial matching is used.
fitdf	number of degrees of freedom to be subtracted if x is a series of residuals.

Details

These tests are sometimes applied to the residuals from an ARMA(p , q) fit, in which case the references suggest a better approximation to the null-hypothesis distribution is obtained by setting $\text{fitdf} = p+q$, provided of course that $\text{lag} > \text{fitdf}$.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value of the test statistic.
parameter	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic (taking <code>fitdf</code> into account).
p.value	the p-value of the test.
method	a character string indicating which type of test was performed.
data.name	a character string giving the name of the data.

Note

Missing values are not handled.

Author(s)

A. Trapletti

References

Box, G. E. P. and Pierce, D. A. (1970), Distribution of residual correlations in autoregressive-integrated moving average time series models. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, **65**, 1509–1526.

Ljung, G. M. and Box, G. E. P. (1978), On a measure of lack of fit in time series models. *Biometrika* **65**, 297–303.

Harvey, A. C. (1993) *Time Series Models*. 2nd Edition, Harvester Wheatsheaf, NY, pp. 44, 45.

Examples

```
x <- rnorm(100)
Box.test(x, lag = 1)
Box.test(x, lag = 1, type = "Ljung")
```

C *Sets Contrasts for a Factor*

Description

Sets the "contrasts" attribute for the factor.

Usage

```
C(object, contr, how.many, ...)
```

Arguments

object	a factor or ordered factor
contr	which contrasts to use. Can be a matrix with one row for each level of the factor or a suitable function like <code>contr.poly</code> or a character string giving the name of the function
how.many	the number of contrasts to set, by default one less than <code>nlevels(object)</code> .
...	additional arguments for the function <code>contr</code> .

Details

For compatibility with S, `contr` can be `treatment`, `helmert`, `sum` or `poly` (without quotes) as shorthand for `contr.treatment` and so on.

Value

The factor object with the "contrasts" attribute set.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical models*. Chapter 2 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[contrasts](#), [contr.sum](#), etc.

Examples

```
## reset contrasts to defaults
options(contrasts = c("contr.treatment", "contr.poly"))
tens <- with(warpbreaks, C(tension, poly, 1))
attributes(tens)
## tension SHOULD be an ordered factor, but as it is not we can use
aov(breaks ~ wool + tens + tension, data = warpbreaks)

## show the use of ... The default contrast is contr.treatment here
```

```
summary(lm(breaks ~ wool + C(tension, base = 2), data = warpbreaks))

# following on from help(esoph)
model3 <- glm(cbind(ncases, ncontrols) ~ agegp + C(tobgp, , 1) +
  C(alcgp, , 1), data = esoph, family = binomial())
summary(model3)
```

cancor	<i>Canonical Correlations</i>
--------	-------------------------------

Description

Compute the canonical correlations between two data matrices.

Usage

```
cancor(x, y, xcenter = TRUE, ycenter = TRUE)
```

Arguments

- x numeric matrix ($n \times p_1$), containing the x coordinates.
- y numeric matrix ($n \times p_2$), containing the y coordinates.
- xcenter logical or numeric vector of length p_1 , describing any centering to be done on the x values before the analysis. If TRUE (default), subtract the column means. If FALSE, do not adjust the columns. Otherwise, a vector of values to be subtracted from the columns.
- ycenter analogous to xcenter, but for the y values.

Details

The canonical correlation analysis seeks linear combinations of the y variables which are well explained by linear combinations of the x variables. The relationship is symmetric as ‘well explained’ is measured by correlations.

Value

A list containing the following components:

- cor correlations.
- xcoef estimated coefficients for the x variables.
- ycoef estimated coefficients for the y variables.
- xcenter the values used to adjust the x variables.
- ycenter the values used to adjust the x variables.

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Hotelling H. (1936). Relations between two sets of variables. *Biometrika*, **28**, 321–327.
- Seber, G. A. F. (1984). *Multivariate Observations*. New York: Wiley, p. 506f.

See Also

[qr](#), [svd](#).

Examples

```
## signs of results are random
pop <- LifeCycleSavings[, 2:3]
oec <- LifeCycleSavings[, -(2:3)]
cancor(pop, oec)

x <- matrix(rnorm(150), 50, 3)
y <- matrix(rnorm(250), 50, 5)
(cxy <- cancor(x, y))
all(abs(cor(x %%% cxy$xcoef,
            y %%% cxy$ycoef)[,1:3] - diag(cxy $ cor)) < 1e-15)
all(abs(cor(x %%% cxy$xcoef) - diag(3)) < 1e-15)
all(abs(cor(y %%% cxy$ycoef) - diag(5)) < 1e-15)
```

case+variable.names	<i>Case and Variable Names of Fitted Models</i>
---------------------	---

Description

Simple utilities returning (non-missing) case names, and (non-eliminated) variable names.

Usage

```
case.names(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
case.names(object, full = FALSE, ...)

variable.names(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
variable.names(object, full = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

object	an R object, typically a fitted model.
full	logical; if TRUE, all names (including zero weights, ...) are returned.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

A character vector.

See Also

[lm](#); further, [all.names](#), [all.vars](#) for functions with a similar name but only slightly related purpose.

Examples

```
x <- 1:20
y <- setNames(x + (x/4 - 2)^3 + rnorm(20, sd = 3),
              paste("0", x, sep = "."))
ww <- rep(1, 20); ww[13] <- 0
summary(lmxy <- lm(y ~ x + I(x^2)+I(x^3) + I((x-10)^2), weights = ww),
        cor = TRUE)
variable.names(lmxy)
variable.names(lmxy, full = TRUE) # includes the last
case.names(lmxy)
case.names(lmxy, full = TRUE)      # includes the 0-weight case
```

Cauchy	<i>The Cauchy Distribution</i>
--------	--------------------------------

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the Cauchy distribution with location parameter location and scale parameter scale.

Usage

```
dcauchy(x, location = 0, scale = 1, log = FALSE)
pcauchy(q, location = 0, scale = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qcauchy(p, location = 0, scale = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rcauchy(n, location = 0, scale = 1)
```

Arguments

x, q	vector of quantiles.
p	vector of probabilities.
n	number of observations. If length(n) > 1, the length is taken to be the number required.
location, scale	location and scale parameters.
log, log.p	logical; if TRUE, probabilities p are given as log(p).
lower.tail	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

If location or scale are not specified, they assume the default values of 0 and 1 respectively.

The Cauchy distribution with location l and scale s has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi s} \left(1 + \left(\frac{x-l}{s} \right)^2 \right)^{-1}$$

for all x .

Value

dcauchy, pcauchy, and qcauchy are respectively the density, distribution function and quantile function of the Cauchy distribution. rcauchy generates random deviates from the Cauchy.

The length of the result is determined by n for rcauchy, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Source

dcauchy, pcauchy and qcauchy are all calculated from numerically stable versions of the definitions.

rcauchy uses inversion.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 1, chapter 16. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dt](#) for the t distribution which generalizes dcauchy(*, l = 0, s = 1).

Examples

```
dcauchy(-1:4)
```

chisq.test

Pearson's Chi-squared Test for Count Data

Description

chisq.test performs chi-squared contingency table tests and goodness-of-fit tests.

Usage

```
chisq.test(x, y = NULL, correct = TRUE,
           p = rep(1/length(x), length(x)), rescale.p = FALSE,
           simulate.p.value = FALSE, B = 2000)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector or matrix. x and y can also both be factors.
y	a numeric vector; ignored if x is a matrix. If x is a factor, y should be a factor of the same length.
correct	a logical indicating whether to apply continuity correction when computing the test statistic for 2 by 2 tables: one half is subtracted from all $ O - E $ differences; however, the correction will not be bigger than the differences themselves. No correction is done if simulate.p.value = TRUE.
p	a vector of probabilities of the same length of x. An error is given if any entry of p is negative.
rescale.p	a logical scalar; if TRUE then p is rescaled (if necessary) to sum to 1. If rescale.p is FALSE, and p does not sum to 1, an error is given.
simulate.p.value	a logical indicating whether to compute p-values by Monte Carlo simulation.
B	an integer specifying the number of replicates used in the Monte Carlo test.

Details

If x is a matrix with one row or column, or if x is a vector and y is not given, then a *goodness-of-fit test* is performed (x is treated as a one-dimensional contingency table). The entries of x must be non-negative integers. In this case, the hypothesis tested is whether the population probabilities equal those in p, or are all equal if p is not given.

If x is a matrix with at least two rows and columns, it is taken as a two-dimensional contingency table: the entries of x must be non-negative integers. Otherwise, x and y must be vectors or factors of the same length; cases with missing values are removed, the objects are coerced to factors, and the contingency table is computed from these. Then Pearson's chi-squared test is performed of the null hypothesis that the joint distribution of the cell counts in a 2-dimensional contingency table is the product of the row and column marginals.

If simulate.p.value is FALSE, the p-value is computed from the asymptotic chi-squared distribution of the test statistic; continuity correction is only used in the 2-by-2 case (if correct is TRUE, the default). Otherwise the p-value is computed for a Monte Carlo test (Hope, 1968) with B replicates.

In the contingency table case simulation is done by random sampling from the set of all contingency tables with given marginals, and works only if the marginals are strictly positive. Continuity correction is never used, and the statistic is quoted without it. Note that this is not the usual sampling situation assumed for the chi-squared test but rather that for Fisher's exact test.

In the goodness-of-fit case simulation is done by random sampling from the discrete distribution specified by p , each sample being of size $n = \text{sum}(x)$. This simulation is done in R and may be slow.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value the chi-squared test statistic.
parameter	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic, NA if the p-value is computed by Monte Carlo simulation.
p.value	the p-value for the test.
method	a character string indicating the type of test performed, and whether Monte Carlo simulation or continuity correction was used.
data.name	a character string giving the name(s) of the data.
observed	the observed counts.
expected	the expected counts under the null hypothesis.
residuals	the Pearson residuals, $(\text{observed} - \text{expected}) / \sqrt{\text{expected}}$.
stdres	standardized residuals, $(\text{observed} - \text{expected}) / \sqrt{V}$, where V is the residual cell variance (Agresti, 2007, section 2.4.5 for the case where x is a matrix, $n * p * (1 - p)$ otherwise).

Source

The code for Monte Carlo simulation is a C translation of the Fortran algorithm of Patefield (1981).

References

- Hope, A. C. A. (1968) A simplified Monte Carlo significance test procedure. *J. Roy. Statist. Soc. B* **30**, 582–598.
- Patefield, W. M. (1981) Algorithm AS159. An efficient method of generating $r \times c$ tables with given row and column totals. *Applied Statistics* **30**, 91–97.
- Agresti, A. (2007) *An Introduction to Categorical Data Analysis*, 2nd ed., New York: John Wiley & Sons. Page 38.

See Also

For goodness-of-fit testing, notably of continuous distributions, [ks.test](#).

Examples

```
## From Agresti(2007) p.39
M <- as.table(rbind(c(762, 327, 468), c(484, 239, 477)))
dimnames(M) <- list(gender = c("F", "M"),
                    party = c("Democrat", "Independent", "Republican"))
(Xsq <- chisq.test(M)) # Prints test summary
Xsq$observed # observed counts (same as M)
Xsq$expected # expected counts under the null
Xsq$residuals # Pearson residuals
Xsq$stdres # standardized residuals

## Effect of simulating p-values
x <- matrix(c(12, 5, 7, 7), ncol = 2)
chisq.test(x)$p.value # 0.4233
chisq.test(x, simulate.p.value = TRUE, B = 10000)$p.value
# around 0.29!

## Testing for population probabilities
## Case A. Tabulated data
x <- c(A = 20, B = 15, C = 25)
chisq.test(x)
chisq.test(as.table(x)) # the same
x <- c(89,37,30,28,2)
p <- c(40,20,20,15,5)
try(
  chisq.test(x, p = p) # gives an error
)
chisq.test(x, p = p, rescale.p = TRUE)
# works
p <- c(0.40,0.20,0.20,0.19,0.01)
# Expected count in category 5
# is 1.86 < 5 ==> chi square approx.
chisq.test(x, p = p) # maybe doubtful, but is ok!
chisq.test(x, p = p, simulate.p.value = TRUE)

## Case B. Raw data
x <- trunc(5 * runif(100))
chisq.test(table(x)) # NOT 'chisq.test(x)'
```

Chisquare

The (non-central) Chi-Squared Distribution

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the chi-squared (χ^2) distribution with df degrees of freedom and optional non-centrality parameter ncp.

Usage

```
dchisq(x, df, ncp = 0, log = FALSE)
pchisq(q, df, ncp = 0, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qchisq(p, df, ncp = 0, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rchisq(n, df, ncp = 0)
```

Arguments

<code>x, q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>n</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(n) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>df</code>	degrees of freedom (non-negative, but can be non-integer).
<code>ncp</code>	non-centrality parameter (non-negative).
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as <code>log(p)</code> .
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The chi-squared distribution with $df = n \geq 0$ degrees of freedom has density

$$f_n(x) = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}\Gamma(n/2)} x^{n/2-1} e^{-x/2}$$

for $x > 0$. The mean and variance are n and $2n$.

The non-central chi-squared distribution with $df = n$ degrees of freedom and non-centrality parameter $ncp = \lambda$ has density

$$f(x) = e^{-\lambda/2} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda/2)^r}{r!} f_{n+2r}(x)$$

for $x \geq 0$. For integer n , this is the distribution of the sum of squares of n normals each with variance one, λ being the sum of squares of the normal means; further, $E(X) = n + \lambda$, $Var(X) = 2(n + 2 * \lambda)$, and $E((X - E(X))^3) = 8(n + 3 * \lambda)$.

Note that the degrees of freedom $df = n$, can be non-integer, and also $n = 0$ which is relevant for non-centrality $\lambda > 0$, see Johnson *et al* (1995, chapter 29). In that (noncentral, zero df) case, the distribution is a mixture of a point mass at $x = 0$ (of size `pchisq(0, df=0, ncp=ncp)`) and a continuous part, and `dchisq()` is *not* a density with respect to that mixture measure but rather the limit of the density for $df \rightarrow 0$.

Note that `ncp` values larger than about $1e5$ may give inaccurate results with many warnings for `pchisq` and `qchisq`.

Value

`dchisq` gives the density, `pchisq` gives the distribution function, `qchisq` gives the quantile function, and `rchisq` generates random deviates.

Invalid arguments will result in return value `NaN`, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by n for `rchisq`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

Supplying `ncp = 0` uses the algorithm for the non-central distribution, which is not the same algorithm used if `ncp` is omitted. This is to give consistent behaviour in extreme cases with values of `ncp` very near zero.

The code for non-zero `ncp` is principally intended to be used for moderate values of `ncp`: it will not be highly accurate, especially in the tails, for large values.

Source

The central cases are computed via the gamma distribution.

The non-central `dchisq` and `rchisq` are computed as a Poisson mixture central of chi-squares (Johnson *et al*, 1995, p.436).

The non-central `pchisq` is for `ncp < 80` computed from the Poisson mixture of central chi-squares and for larger `ncp` *via* a C translation of

Ding, C. G. (1992) Algorithm AS275: Computing the non-central chi-squared distribution function. *Appl.Statist.*, **41** 478–482.

which computes the lower tail only (so the upper tail suffers from cancellation and a warning will be given when this is likely to be significant).

The non-central `qchisq` is based on inversion of `pchisq`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, chapters 18 (volume 1) and 29 (volume 2). Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions.

A central chi-squared distribution with n degrees of freedom is the same as a Gamma distribution with shape $\alpha = n/2$ and scale $\sigma = 2$. Hence, see [dgamma](#) for the Gamma distribution.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

dchisq(1, df = 1:3)
pchisq(1, df = 3)
pchisq(1, df = 3, ncp = 0:4) # includes the above
```

```

x <- 1:10
## Chi-squared(df = 2) is a special exponential distribution
all.equal(dchisq(x, df = 2), dexp(x, 1/2))
all.equal(pchisq(x, df = 2), pexp(x, 1/2))

## non-central RNG -- df = 0 with ncp > 0: Z0 has point mass at 0!
Z0 <- rchisq(100, df = 0, ncp = 2.)
graphics::stem(Z0)

## visual testing
## do P-P plots for 1000 points at various degrees of freedom
L <- 1.2; n <- 1000; pp <- ppoints(n)
op <- par(mfrow = c(3,3), mar = c(3,3,1,1)+.1, mgp = c(1.5,.6,0),
          oma = c(0,0,3,0))
for(df in 2^(4*rnorm(9))) {
  plot(pp, sort(pchisq(rr <- rchisq(n, df = df, ncp = L), df = df, ncp = L)),
       ylab = "pchisq(rchisq(.).)", pch = ".")
  mtext(paste("df = ", formatC(df, digits = 4)), line = -2, adj = 0.05)
  abline(0, 1, col = 2)
}
mtext(expression("P-P plots : Noncentral " *
                 chi^2 * "(n=1000, df=X, ncp= 1.2)"),
       cex = 1.5, font = 2, outer = TRUE)
par(op)

## "analytical" test
lam <- seq(0, 100, by = .25)
p00 <- pchisq(0, df = 0, ncp = lam)
p.0 <- pchisq(1e-300, df = 0, ncp = lam)
stopifnot(all.equal(p00, exp(-lam/2)),
          all.equal(p.0, exp(-lam/2)))

```

cmdscale

*Classical (Metric) Multidimensional Scaling***Description**

Classical multidimensional scaling of a data matrix. Also known as *principal coordinates analysis* (Gower, 1966).

Usage

```
cmdscale(d, k = 2, eig = FALSE, add = FALSE, x.ret = FALSE)
```

Arguments

d	a distance structure such as that returned by <code>dist</code> or a full symmetric matrix containing the dissimilarities.
k	the maximum dimension of the space which the data are to be represented in; must be in $\{1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$.

eig	indicates whether eigenvalues should be returned.
add	logical indicating if an additive constant c^* should be computed, and added to the non-diagonal dissimilarities such that the modified dissimilarities are Euclidean.
x.ret	indicates whether the doubly centred symmetric distance matrix should be returned.

Details

Multidimensional scaling takes a set of dissimilarities and returns a set of points such that the distances between the points are approximately equal to the dissimilarities. (It is a major part of what ecologists call ‘ordination’.)

A set of Euclidean distances on n points can be represented exactly in at most $n - 1$ dimensions. cmdscale follows the analysis of Mardia (1978), and returns the best-fitting k -dimensional representation, where k may be less than the argument k .

The representation is only determined up to location (cmdscale takes the column means of the configuration to be at the origin), rotations and reflections. The configuration returned is given in principal-component axes, so the reflection chosen may differ between R platforms (see [prcomp](#)).

When `add = TRUE`, a minimal additive constant c^* is computed such that the the dissimilarities $d_{ij} + c^*$ are Euclidean and hence can be represented in $n - 1$ dimensions. Whereas S (Becker *et al*, 1988) computes this constant using an approximation suggested by Torgerson, R uses the analytical solution of Cailliez (1983), see also Cox and Cox (2001). Note that because of numerical errors the computed eigenvalues need not all be non-negative, and even theoretically the representation could be in fewer than $n - 1$ dimensions.

Value

If `eig = FALSE`, `add = FALSE` and `x.ret = FALSE` (default), a matrix with k columns whose rows give the coordinates of the points chosen to represent the dissimilarities.

Otherwise, a list containing the following components.

points	a matrix with up to k columns whose rows give the coordinates of the points chosen to represent the dissimilarities.
eig	the n eigenvalues computed during the scaling process if eig is true. NB: versions of R before 2.12.1 returned only k but were documented to return $n - 1$.
x	the doubly centered distance matrix if <code>x.ret</code> is true.
ac	the additive constant c^* , 0 if <code>add = FALSE</code> .
GOF	a numeric vector of length 2, equal to say (g_1, g_2) , where $g_i = (\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j) / (\sum_{j=1}^n T_i(\lambda_j))$, where λ_j are the eigenvalues (sorted in decreasing order), $T_1(v) = v $, and $T_2(v) = \max(v, 0)$.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

- Cailliez, F. (1983) The analytical solution of the additive constant problem. *Psychometrika* **48**, 343–349.
- Cox, T. F. and Cox, M. A. A. (2001) *Multidimensional Scaling*. Second edition. Chapman and Hall.
- Gower, J. C. (1966) Some distance properties of latent root and vector methods used in multivariate analysis. *Biometrika* **53**, 325–328.
- Krzanowski, W. J. and Marriott, F. H. C. (1994) *Multivariate Analysis. Part I. Distributions, Ordination and Inference*. London: Edward Arnold. (Especially pp. 108–111.)
- Mardia, K.V. (1978) Some properties of classical multidimensional scaling. *Communications on Statistics – Theory and Methods*, **A7**, 1233–41.
- Mardia, K. V., Kent, J. T. and Bibby, J. M. (1979). Chapter 14 of *Multivariate Analysis*, London: Academic Press.
- Seber, G. A. F. (1984). *Multivariate Observations*. New York: Wiley.
- Torgerson, W. S. (1958). *Theory and Methods of Scaling*. New York: Wiley.

See Also

[dist](#).

[isoMDS](#) and [sammon](#) in package **MASS** provide alternative methods of multidimensional scaling.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

loc <- cmdscale(eurodist)
x <- loc[, 1]
y <- -loc[, 2] # reflect so North is at the top
## note asp = 1, to ensure Euclidean distances are represented correctly
plot(x, y, type = "n", xlab = "", ylab = "", asp = 1, axes = FALSE,
     main = "cmdscale(eurodist)")
text(x, y, rownames(loc), cex = 0.6)
```

coef

Extract Model Coefficients

Description

coef is a generic function which extracts model coefficients from objects returned by modeling functions. coefficients is an *alias* for it.

Usage

```
coef(object, ...)
coefficients(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object an object for which the extraction of model coefficients is meaningful.
 ... other arguments.

Details

All object classes which are returned by model fitting functions should provide a `coef` method or use the default one. (Note that the method is for `coef` and not `coefficients`.)

Class "aov" has a `coef` method that does not report aliased coefficients (see [alias](#)).

Value

Coefficients extracted from the model object object.

For standard model fitting classes this will be a named numeric vector.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[fitted.values](#) and [residuals](#) for related methods; [glm](#), [lm](#) for model fitting.

Examples

```
x <- 1:5; coef(lm(c(1:3, 7, 6) ~ x))
```

complete.cases	<i>Find Complete Cases</i>
----------------	----------------------------

Description

Return a logical vector indicating which cases are complete, i.e., have no missing values.

Usage

```
complete.cases(...)
```

Arguments

... a sequence of vectors, matrices and data frames.

Value

A logical vector specifying which observations/rows have no missing values across the entire sequence.

Note

A current limitation of this function is that it uses low level functions to determine lengths and missingness, ignoring the class. This will lead to spurious errors when some columns have classes with `length` or `is.na` methods, for example `"POSIXlt"`, as described in [PR#16648](#).

See Also

`is.na`, `na.omit`, `na.fail`.

Examples

```
x <- airquality[, -1] # x is a regression design matrix
y <- airquality[, 1] # y is the corresponding response

stopifnot(complete.cases(y) != is.na(y))
ok <- complete.cases(x, y)
sum(!ok) # how many are not "ok" ?
x <- x[ok,]
y <- y[ok]
```

confint

Confidence Intervals for Model Parameters

Description

Computes confidence intervals for one or more parameters in a fitted model. There is a default and a method for objects inheriting from class `"lm"`.

Usage

```
confint(object, parm, level = 0.95, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	a fitted model object.
<code>parm</code>	a specification of which parameters are to be given confidence intervals, either a vector of numbers or a vector of names. If missing, all parameters are considered.
<code>level</code>	the confidence level required.
<code>...</code>	additional argument(s) for methods.

Details

confint is a generic function. The default method assumes asymptotic normality, and needs suitable `coef` and `vcov` methods to be available. The default method can be called directly for comparison with other methods.

For objects of class "lm" the direct formulae based on t values are used.

There are stub methods in package **stats** for classes "glm" and "nls" which call those in package **MASS** (if installed): if the **MASS** namespace has been loaded, its methods will be used directly. (Those methods are based on profile likelihood.)

Value

A matrix (or vector) with columns giving lower and upper confidence limits for each parameter. These will be labelled as (1-level)/2 and 1 - (1-level)/2 in % (by default 2.5% and 97.5%).

See Also

`confint.glm` and `confint.nls` in package **MASS**.

Examples

```
fit <- lm(100/mpg ~ disp + hp + wt + am, data = mtcars)
confint(fit)
confint(fit, "wt")

## from example(glm)
counts <- c(18,17,15,20,10,20,25,13,12)
outcome <- gl(3, 1, 9); treatment <- gl(3, 3)
glm.D93 <- glm(counts ~ outcome + treatment, family = poisson())
confint(glm.D93) # needs MASS to be installed
confint.default(glm.D93) # based on asymptotic normality
```

constrOptim

Linearly Constrained Optimization

Description

Minimise a function subject to linear inequality constraints using an adaptive barrier algorithm.

Usage

```
constrOptim(theta, f, grad, ui, ci, mu = 1e-04, control = list(),
            method = if(is.null(grad)) "Nelder-Mead" else "BFGS",
            outer.iterations = 100, outer.eps = 1e-05, ...,
            hessian = FALSE)
```

Arguments

theta	numeric (vector) starting value (of length p): must be in the feasible region.
f	function to minimise (see below).
grad	gradient of f (a function as well), or NULL (see below).
ui	constraint matrix ($k \times p$), see below.
ci	constraint vector of length k (see below).
mu	(Small) tuning parameter.
control, method, hessian	passed to optim .
outer.iterations	iterations of the barrier algorithm.
outer.eps	non-negative number; the relative convergence tolerance of the barrier algorithm.
...	Other named arguments to be passed to f and grad: needs to be passed through optim so should not match its argument names.

Details

The feasible region is defined by `ui %*% theta - ci >= 0`. The starting value must be in the interior of the feasible region, but the minimum may be on the boundary.

A logarithmic barrier is added to enforce the constraints and then [optim](#) is called. The barrier function is chosen so that the objective function should decrease at each outer iteration. Minima in the interior of the feasible region are typically found quite quickly, but a substantial number of outer iterations may be needed for a minimum on the boundary.

The tuning parameter `mu` multiplies the barrier term. Its precise value is often relatively unimportant. As `mu` increases the augmented objective function becomes closer to the original objective function but also less smooth near the boundary of the feasible region.

Any [optim](#) method that permits infinite values for the objective function may be used (currently all but "L-BFGS-B").

The objective function `f` takes as first argument the vector of parameters over which minimisation is to take place. It should return a scalar result. Optional arguments ... will be passed to [optim](#) and then (if not used by [optim](#)) to `f`. As with [optim](#), the default is to minimise, but maximisation can be performed by setting `control$fnscale` to a negative value.

The gradient function `grad` must be supplied except with `method = "Nelder-Mead"`. It should take arguments matching those of `f` and return a vector containing the gradient.

Value

As for [optim](#), but with two extra components: `barrier.value` giving the value of the barrier function at the optimum and `outer.iterations` gives the number of outer iterations (calls to [optim](#)). The counts component contains the *sum* of all `optim()`\$counts.

References

K. Lange *Numerical Analysis for Statisticians*. Springer 2001, p185ff

See Also

[optim](#), especially method = "L-BFGS-B" which does box-constrained optimisation.

Examples

```
## from optim
fr <- function(x) { ## Rosenbrock Banana function
  x1 <- x[1]
  x2 <- x[2]
  100 * (x2 - x1 * x1)^2 + (1 - x1)^2
}
grr <- function(x) { ## Gradient of 'fr'
  x1 <- x[1]
  x2 <- x[2]
  c(-400 * x1 * (x2 - x1 * x1) - 2 * (1 - x1),
    200 * (x2 - x1 * x1))
}

optim(c(-1.2,1), fr, grr)
#Box-constraint, optimum on the boundary
constrOptim(c(-1.2,0.9), fr, grr, ui = rbind(c(-1,0), c(0,-1)), ci = c(-1,-1))
# x <= 0.9, y - x > 0.1
constrOptim(c(.5,0), fr, grr, ui = rbind(c(-1,0), c(1,-1)), ci = c(-0.9,0.1))

## Solves linear and quadratic programming problems
## but needs a feasible starting value
#
# from example(solve.QP) in 'quadprog'
# no derivative
fQP <- function(b) {-sum(c(0,5,0)*b)+0.5*sum(b*b)}
Amat <- matrix(c(-4,-3,0,2,1,0,0,-2,1), 3, 3)
bvec <- c(-8, 2, 0)
constrOptim(c(2,-1,-1), fQP, NULL, ui = t(Amat), ci = bvec)
# derivative
gQP <- function(b) {-c(0, 5, 0) + b}
constrOptim(c(2,-1,-1), fQP, gQP, ui = t(Amat), ci = bvec)

## Now with maximisation instead of minimisation
hQP <- function(b) {sum(c(0,5,0)*b)-0.5*sum(b*b)}
constrOptim(c(2,-1,-1), hQP, NULL, ui = t(Amat), ci = bvec,
  control = list(fnscale = -1))
```

 contrast

(Possibly Sparse) Contrast Matrices

Description

Return a matrix of contrasts.

Usage

```

contr.helmert(n, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)
contr.poly(n, scores = 1:n, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)
contr.sum(n, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)
contr.treatment(n, base = 1, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)
contr.SAS(n, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)

```

Arguments

n	a vector of levels for a factor, or the number of levels.
contrasts	a logical indicating whether contrasts should be computed.
sparse	logical indicating if the result should be sparse (of class <code>dgCMatrix</code>), using package Matrix .
scores	the set of values over which orthogonal polynomials are to be computed.
base	an integer specifying which group is considered the baseline group. Ignored if contrasts is FALSE.

Details

These functions are used for creating contrast matrices for use in fitting analysis of variance and regression models. The columns of the resulting matrices contain contrasts which can be used for coding a factor with n levels. The returned value contains the computed contrasts. If the argument contrasts is FALSE a square indicator matrix (the dummy coding) is returned **except** for `contr.poly` (which includes the 0-degree, i.e. constant, polynomial when contrasts = FALSE).

`contr.helmert` returns Helmert contrasts, which contrast the second level with the first, the third with the average of the first two, and so on. `contr.poly` returns contrasts based on orthogonal polynomials. `contr.sum` uses 'sum to zero contrasts'.

`contr.treatment` contrasts each level with the baseline level (specified by base): the baseline level is omitted. Note that this does not produce 'contrasts' as defined in the standard theory for linear models as they are not orthogonal to the intercept.

`contr.SAS` is a wrapper for `contr.treatment` that sets the base level to be the last level of the factor. The coefficients produced when using these contrasts should be equivalent to those produced by many (but not all) SAS procedures.

For consistency, sparse is an argument to all these contrast functions, however sparse = TRUE for `contr.poly` is typically pointless and is rarely useful for `contr.helmert`.

Value

A matrix with n rows and k columns, with k=n-1 if contrasts is TRUE and k=n if contrasts is FALSE.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical models*. Chapter 2 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[contrasts](#), [C](#), and [aov](#), [glm](#), [lm](#).

Examples

```
(cH <- contr.helmert(4))
apply(cH, 2, sum) # column sums are 0
crossprod(cH) # diagonal -- columns are orthogonal
contr.helmert(4, contrasts = FALSE) # just the 4 x 4 identity matrix

(cT <- contr.treatment(5))
all(crossprod(cT) == diag(4)) # TRUE: even orthonormal

(cT. <- contr.SAS(5))
all(crossprod(cT.) == diag(4)) # TRUE

zapsmall(cP <- contr.poly(3)) # Linear and Quadratic
zapsmall(crossprod(cP), digits = 15) # orthonormal up to fuzz
```

contrasts	<i>Get and Set Contrast Matrices</i>
-----------	--------------------------------------

Description

Set and view the contrasts associated with a factor.

Usage

```
contrasts(x, contrasts = TRUE, sparse = FALSE)
contrasts(x, how.many) <- value
```

Arguments

x	a factor or a logical variable.
contrasts	logical. See ‘Details’.
sparse	logical indicating if the result should be sparse (of class dgCMatrix), using package Matrix .
how.many	How many contrasts should be made. Defaults to one less than the number of levels of x. This need not be the same as the number of columns of value.
value	either a numeric matrix (or a sparse or dense matrix of a class extending dMatrix from package Matrix) whose columns give coefficients for contrasts in the levels of x, or the (quoted) name of a function which computes such matrices.

Details

If contrasts are not set for a factor the default functions from `options("contrasts")` are used.

A logical vector `x` is converted into a two-level factor with levels `c(FALSE, TRUE)` (regardless of which levels occur in the variable).

The argument `contrasts` is ignored if `x` has a matrix `contrasts` attribute set. Otherwise if `contrasts = TRUE` it is passed to a contrasts function such as `contr.treatment` and if `contrasts = FALSE` an identity matrix is returned. Suitable functions have a first argument which is the character vector of levels, a named argument `contrasts` (always called with `contrasts = TRUE`) and optionally a logical argument `sparse`.

If `value` supplies more than `how.many` contrasts, the first `how.many` are used. If too few are supplied, a suitable contrast matrix is created by extending `value` after ensuring its columns are contrasts (orthogonal to the constant term) and not collinear.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical models*. Chapter 2 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`C`, `contr.helmert`, `contr.poly`, `contr.sum`, `contr.treatment`; `glm`, `aov`, `lm`.

Examples

```
utils::example(factor)
fff <- ff[, drop = TRUE] # reduce to 5 levels.
contrasts(fff) # treatment contrasts by default
contrasts(C(fff, sum))
contrasts(fff, contrasts = FALSE) # the 5x5 identity matrix

contrasts(fff) <- contr.sum(5); contrasts(fff) # set sum contrasts
contrasts(fff, 2) <- contr.sum(5); contrasts(fff) # set 2 contrasts
# supply 2 contrasts, compute 2 more to make full set of 4.
contrasts(fff) <- contr.sum(5)[, 1:2]; contrasts(fff)

## using sparse contrasts: % useful, once model.matrix() works with these :
ffs <- fff
contrasts(ffs) <- contr.sum(5, sparse = TRUE)[, 1:2]; contrasts(ffs)
stopifnot(all.equal(ffs, fff))
contrasts(ffs) <- contr.sum(5, sparse = TRUE); contrasts(ffs)
```

Description

Use the Fast Fourier Transform to compute the several kinds of convolutions of two sequences.

Usage

```
convolve(x, y, conj = TRUE, type = c("circular", "open", "filter"))
```

Arguments

`x`, `y` numeric sequences *of the same length* to be convolved.

`conj` logical; if TRUE, take the complex *conjugate* before back-transforming (default, and used for usual convolution).

`type` character; partially matched to "circular", "open", "filter". For "circular", the two sequences are treated as *circular*, i.e., periodic. For "open" and "filter", the sequences are padded with 0s (from left and right) first; "filter" returns the middle sub-vector of "open", namely, the result of running a weighted mean of `x` with weights `y`.

Details

The Fast Fourier Transform, [fft](#), is used for efficiency.

The input sequences `x` and `y` must have the same length if `circular` is true.

Note that the usual definition of convolution of two sequences `x` and `y` is given by `convolve(x, rev(y), type = "o")`.

Value

If `r <- convolve(x, y, type = "open")` and `n <- length(x)`, `m <- length(y)`, then

$$r_k = \sum_i x_{k-m+i} y_i$$

where the sum is over all valid indices i , for $k = 1, \dots, n + m - 1$.

If `type == "circular"`, $n = m$ is required, and the above is true for $i, k = 1, \dots, n$ when $x_j := x_{n+j}$ for $j < 1$.

References

Brillinger, D. R. (1981) *Time Series: Data Analysis and Theory*, Second Edition. San Francisco: Holden-Day.

See Also

[fft](#), [nextn](#), and particularly [filter](#) (from the **stats** package) which may be more appropriate.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

x <- c(0,0,0,100,0,0,0)
y <- c(0,0,1, 2 ,1,0,0)/4
zapsmall(convolve(x, y))          # *NOT* what you first thought.
zapsmall(convolve(x, y[3:5], type = "f")) # rather
```

```

x <- rnorm(50)
y <- rnorm(50)
# Circular convolution *has* this symmetry:
all.equal(convolve(x, y, conj = FALSE), rev(convolve(rev(y),x)))

n <- length(x <- -20:24)
y <- (x-10)^2/1000 + rnorm(x)/8

Han <- function(y) # Hanning
  convolve(y, c(1,2,1)/4, type = "filter")

plot(x, y, main = "Using convolve(.) for Hanning filters")
lines(x[-c(1, n)], Han(y), col = "red")
lines(x[-c(1:2, (n-1):n)], Han(Han(y)), lwd = 2, col = "dark blue")

```

cophenetic

*Cophenetic Distances for a Hierarchical Clustering***Description**

Computes the cophenetic distances for a hierarchical clustering.

Usage

```

cophenetic(x)
## Default S3 method:
cophenetic(x)
## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
cophenetic(x)

```

Arguments

x an R object representing a hierarchical clustering. For the default method, an object of class "[hclust](#)" or with a method for [as.hclust\(\)](#) such as "[agnes](#)" in package [cluster](#).

Details

The cophenetic distance between two observations that have been clustered is defined to be the intergroup dissimilarity at which the two observations are first combined into a single cluster. Note that this distance has many ties and restrictions.

It can be argued that a dendrogram is an appropriate summary of some data if the correlation between the original distances and the cophenetic distances is high. Otherwise, it should simply be viewed as the description of the output of the clustering algorithm.

`cophenetic` is a generic function. Support for classes which represent hierarchical clusterings (total indexed hierarchies) can be added by providing an [as.hclust\(\)](#) or, more directly, a `cophenetic()` method for such a class.

The method for objects of class "[dendrogram](#)" requires that all leaves of the dendrogram object have non-null labels.

Value

An object of class "dist".

Author(s)

Robert Gentleman

References

Sneath, P.H.A. and Sokal, R.R. (1973) *Numerical Taxonomy: The Principles and Practice of Numerical Classification*, p. 278 ff; Freeman, San Francisco.

See Also

[dist](#), [hclust](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

d1 <- dist(USArrests)
hc <- hclust(d1, "ave")
d2 <- cophenetic(hc)
cor(d1, d2) # 0.7659

## Example from Sneath & Sokal, Fig. 5-29, p.279
d0 <- c(1,3.8,4.4,5.1, 4,4.2,5, 2.6,5.3, 5.4)
attributes(d0) <- list(Size = 5, diag = TRUE)
class(d0) <- "dist"
names(d0) <- letters[1:5]
d0
utils::str(upgma <- hclust(d0, method = "average"))
plot(upgma, hang = -1)
#
(d.coph <- cophenetic(upgma))
cor(d0, d.coph) # 0.9911
```

cor

Correlation, Variance and Covariance (Matrices)

Description

var, cov and cor compute the variance of x and the covariance or correlation of x and y if these are vectors. If x and y are matrices then the covariances (or correlations) between the columns of x and the columns of y are computed.

cov2cor scales a covariance matrix into the corresponding correlation matrix *efficiently*.

Usage

```
var(x, y = NULL, na.rm = FALSE, use)

cov(x, y = NULL, use = "everything",
    method = c("pearson", "kendall", "spearman"))

cor(x, y = NULL, use = "everything",
    method = c("pearson", "kendall", "spearman"))

cov2cor(V)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector, matrix or data frame.
<code>y</code>	NULL (default) or a vector, matrix or data frame with compatible dimensions to <code>x</code> . The default is equivalent to <code>y = x</code> (but more efficient).
<code>na.rm</code>	logical. Should missing values be removed?
<code>use</code>	an optional character string giving a method for computing covariances in the presence of missing values. This must be (an abbreviation of) one of the strings "everything", "all.obs", "complete.obs", "na.or.complete", or "pairwise.complete.obs".
<code>method</code>	a character string indicating which correlation coefficient (or covariance) is to be computed. One of "pearson" (default), "kendall", or "spearman": can be abbreviated.
<code>V</code>	symmetric numeric matrix, usually positive definite such as a covariance matrix.

Details

For `cov` and `cor` one must *either* give a matrix or data frame for `x` *or* give both `x` and `y`.

The inputs must be numeric (as determined by [is.numeric](#): logical values are also allowed for historical compatibility): the "kendall" and "spearman" methods make sense for ordered inputs but [xtfrm](#) can be used to find a suitable prior transformation to numbers.

`var` is just another interface to `cov`, where `na.rm` is used to determine the default for `use` when that is unspecified. If `na.rm` is TRUE then the complete observations (rows) are used (`use = "na.or.complete"`) to compute the variance. Otherwise, by default `use = "everything"`.

If `use` is "everything", NAs will propagate conceptually, i.e., a resulting value will be NA whenever one of its contributing observations is NA.

If `use` is "all.obs", then the presence of missing observations will produce an error. If `use` is "complete.obs" then missing values are handled by casewise deletion (and if there are no complete cases, that gives an error).

"na.or.complete" is the same unless there are no complete cases, that gives NA. Finally, if `use` has the value "pairwise.complete.obs" then the correlation or covariance between each pair of variables is computed using all complete pairs of observations on those variables. This can result in covariance or correlation matrices which are not positive semi-definite, as well as NA entries if there are no complete pairs for that pair of variables. For `cov` and `var`, "pairwise.complete.obs" only

works with the "pearson" method. Note that (the equivalent of) `var(double(0), use = *)` gives NA for `use = "everything"` and `"na.or.complete"`, and gives an error in the other cases.

The denominator $n - 1$ is used which gives an unbiased estimator of the (co)variance for i.i.d. observations. These functions return NA when there is only one observation (whereas S-PLUS has been returning NaN), and fail if `x` has length zero.

For `cor()`, if method is "kendall" or "spearman", Kendall's τ or Spearman's ρ statistic is used to estimate a rank-based measure of association. These are more robust and have been recommended if the data do not necessarily come from a bivariate normal distribution.

For `cov()`, a non-Pearson method is unusual but available for the sake of completeness. Note that "spearman" basically computes `cor(R(x), R(y))` (or `cov(., .)`) where `R(u) := rank(u, na.last = "keep")`. In the case of missing values, the ranks are calculated depending on the value of `use`, either based on complete observations, or based on pairwise completeness with reranking for each pair.

Scaling a covariance matrix into a correlation one can be achieved in many ways, mathematically most appealing by multiplication with a diagonal matrix from left and right, or more efficiently by using `sweep(., FUN = "/")` twice. The `cov2cor` function is even a bit more efficient, and provided mostly for didactical reasons.

Value

For `r <- cor(*, use = "all.obs")`, it is now guaranteed that `all(r <= 1)`.

Note

Some people have noted that the code for Kendall's tau is slow for very large datasets (many more than 1000 cases). It rarely makes sense to do such a computation, but see function `cor.fk` in package **pcaPP**.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`cor.test` for confidence intervals (and tests).

`cov.wt` for *weighted* covariance computation.

`sd` for standard deviation (vectors).

Examples

```
var(1:10) # 9.166667

var(1:5, 1:5) # 2.5

## Two simple vectors
cor(1:10, 2:11) # == 1

## Correlation Matrix of Multivariate sample:
```

```

(C1 <- cor(longley))
## Graphical Correlation Matrix:
symnum(C1) # highly correlated

## Spearman's rho and Kendall's tau
symnum(c1S <- cor(longley, method = "spearman"))
symnum(c1K <- cor(longley, method = "kendall"))
## How much do they differ?
i <- lower.tri(C1)
cor(cbind(P = C1[i], S = c1S[i], K = c1K[i]))

## cov2cor() scales a covariance matrix by its diagonal
##           to become the correlation matrix.
cov2cor # see the function definition {and learn ..}
stopifnot(all.equal(C1, cov2cor(cov(longley))),
           all.equal(cor(longley, method = "kendall"),
                     cov2cor(cov(longley, method = "kendall"))))

##--- Missing value treatment:

C1 <- cov(swiss)
range(eigen(C1, only.values = TRUE)$values) # 6.19      1921

## swM := "swiss" with 3 "missing"s :
swM <- swiss
colnames(swM) <- abbreviate(colnames(swiss), min=6)
swM[1,2] <- swM[7,3] <- swM[25,5] <- NA # create 3 "missing"

## Consider all 5 "use" cases :
(C <- cov(swM)) # use="everything" quite a few NA's in cov.matrix
try(cov(swM, use = "all")) # Error: missing obs...
C2 <- cov(swM, use = "complete")
stopifnot(identical(C2, cov(swM, use = "na.or.complete")))
range(eigen(C2, only.values = TRUE)$values) # 6.46      1930
C3 <- cov(swM, use = "pairwise")
range(eigen(C3, only.values = TRUE)$values) # 6.19      1938

## Kendall's tau doesn't change much:
symnum(Rc <- cor(swM, method = "kendall", use = "complete"))
symnum(Rp <- cor(swM, method = "kendall", use = "pairwise"))
symnum(R. <- cor(swiss, method = "kendall"))

## "pairwise" is closer componentwise,
summary(abs(c(1 - Rp/R.)))
summary(abs(c(1 - Rc/R.)))

## but "complete" is closer in Eigen space:
EV <- function(m) eigen(m, only.values=TRUE)$values
summary(abs(1 - EV(Rp)/EV(R.) / abs(1 - EV(Rc)/EV(R.)))

```


cor.test

*Test for Association/Correlation Between Paired Samples***Description**

Test for association between paired samples, using one of Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient, Kendall's τ or Spearman's ρ .

Usage

```
cor.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
cor.test(x, y,
         alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
         method = c("pearson", "kendall", "spearman"),
         exact = NULL, conf.level = 0.95, continuity = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
cor.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

x, y	numeric vectors of data values. x and y must have the same length.
alternative	indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided", "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter. "greater" corresponds to positive association, "less" to negative association.
method	a character string indicating which correlation coefficient is to be used for the test. One of "pearson", "kendall", or "spearman", can be abbreviated.
exact	a logical indicating whether an exact p-value should be computed. Used for Kendall's τ and Spearman's ρ . See 'Details' for the meaning of NULL (the default).
conf.level	confidence level for the returned confidence interval. Currently only used for the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient if there are at least 4 complete pairs of observations.
continuity	logical: if true, a continuity correction is used for Kendall's τ and Spearman's ρ when not computed exactly.
formula	a formula of the form $\sim u + v$, where each of u and v are numeric variables giving the data values for one sample. The samples must be of the same length.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

The three methods each estimate the association between paired samples and compute a test of the value being zero. They use different measures of association, all in the range $[-1, 1]$ with 0 indicating no association. These are sometimes referred to as tests of no *correlation*, but that term is often confined to the default method.

If method is "pearson", the test statistic is based on Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient $\text{cor}(x, y)$ and follows a t distribution with $\text{length}(x)-2$ degrees of freedom if the samples follow independent normal distributions. If there are at least 4 complete pairs of observation, an asymptotic confidence interval is given based on Fisher's Z transform.

If method is "kendall" or "spearman", Kendall's τ or Spearman's ρ statistic is used to estimate a rank-based measure of association. These tests may be used if the data do not necessarily come from a bivariate normal distribution.

For Kendall's test, by default (if exact is NULL), an exact p-value is computed if there are less than 50 paired samples containing finite values and there are no ties. Otherwise, the test statistic is the estimate scaled to zero mean and unit variance, and is approximately normally distributed.

For Spearman's test, p-values are computed using algorithm AS 89 for $n < 1290$ and `exact = TRUE`, otherwise via the asymptotic t approximation. Note that these are 'exact' for $n < 10$, and use an Edgeworth series approximation for larger sample sizes (the cutoff has been changed from the original paper).

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value of the test statistic.
parameter	the degrees of freedom of the test statistic in the case that it follows a t distribution.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
estimate	the estimated measure of association, with name "cor", "tau", or "rho" corresponding to the method employed.
null.value	the value of the association measure under the null hypothesis, always 0.
alternative	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.
method	a character string indicating how the association was measured.
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.
conf.int	a confidence interval for the measure of association. Currently only given for Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient in case of at least 4 complete pairs of observations.

References

- D. J. Best & D. E. Roberts (1975), Algorithm AS 89: The Upper Tail Probabilities of Spearman's ρ . *Applied Statistics*, **24**, 377–379.
- Myles Hollander & Douglas A. Wolfe (1973), *Nonparametric Statistical Methods*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 185–194 (Kendall and Spearman tests).

See Also

[Kendall](#) in package **Kendall**.

[pKendall](#) and [pSpearman](#) in package **SuppDists**, [spearman.test](#) in package **pspearman**, which supply different (and often more accurate) approximations.

Examples

```
## Hollander & Wolfe (1973), p. 187f.
## Assessment of tuna quality. We compare the Hunter L measure of
## lightness to the averages of consumer panel scores (recoded as
## integer values from 1 to 6 and averaged over 80 such values) in
## 9 lots of canned tuna.

x <- c(44.4, 45.9, 41.9, 53.3, 44.7, 44.1, 50.7, 45.2, 60.1)
y <- c( 2.6,  3.1,  2.5,  5.0,  3.6,  4.0,  5.2,  2.8,  3.8)

## The alternative hypothesis of interest is that the
## Hunter L value is positively associated with the panel score.

cor.test(x, y, method = "kendall", alternative = "greater")
## => p=0.05972

cor.test(x, y, method = "kendall", alternative = "greater",
         exact = FALSE) # using large sample approximation
## => p=0.04765

## Compare this to
cor.test(x, y, method = "spearman", alternative = "g")
cor.test(x, y,                alternative = "g")

## Formula interface.
require(graphics)
pairs(USJudgeRatings)
cor.test(~ CONT + INTG, data = USJudgeRatings)
```

cov.wt

Weighted Covariance Matrices

Description

Returns a list containing estimates of the weighted covariance matrix and the mean of the data, and optionally of the (weighted) correlation matrix.

Usage

```
cov.wt(x, wt = rep(1/nrow(x), nrow(x)), cor = FALSE, center = TRUE,
       method = c("unbiased", "ML"))
```

Arguments

x	a matrix or data frame. As usual, rows are observations and columns are variables.
wt	a non-negative and non-zero vector of weights for each observation. Its length must equal the number of rows of x.
cor	a logical indicating whether the estimated correlation weighted matrix will be returned as well.
center	either a logical or a numeric vector specifying the centers to be used when computing covariances. If TRUE, the (weighted) mean of each variable is used, if FALSE, zero is used. If center is numeric, its length must equal the number of columns of x.
method	string specifying how the result is scaled, see ‘Details’ below. Can be abbreviated.

Details

By default, `method = "unbiased"`, The covariance matrix is divided by one minus the sum of squares of the weights, so if the weights are the default ($1/n$) the conventional unbiased estimate of the covariance matrix with divisor $(n - 1)$ is obtained. This differs from the behaviour in S-PLUS which corresponds to `method = "ML"` and does not divide.

Value

A list containing the following named components:

cov	the estimated (weighted) covariance matrix
center	an estimate for the center (mean) of the data.
n.obs	the number of observations (rows) in x.
wt	the weights used in the estimation. Only returned if given as an argument.
cor	the estimated correlation matrix. Only returned if <code>cor</code> is TRUE.

See Also

[cov](#) and [var](#).

Examples

```
(xy <- cbind(x = 1:10, y = c(1:3, 8:5, 8:10)))
w1 <- c(0,0,0,1,1,1,1,1,0,0)
cov.wt(xy, wt = w1) # i.e. method = "unbiased"
cov.wt(xy, wt = w1, method = "ML", cor = TRUE)
```

`cpgram`*Plot Cumulative Periodogram*

Description

Plots a cumulative periodogram.

Usage

```
cpgram(ts, taper = 0.1,  
       main = paste("Series: ", deparse(substitute(ts))),  
       ci.col = "blue")
```

Arguments

<code>ts</code>	a univariate time series
<code>taper</code>	proportion tapered in forming the periodogram
<code>main</code>	main title
<code>ci.col</code>	colour for confidence band.

Value

None.

Side Effects

Plots the cumulative periodogram in a square plot.

Note

From package **MASS**.

Author(s)

B.D. Ripley

Examples

```
require(graphics)  
  
par(pty = "s", mfrow = c(1,2))  
cpgram(lh)  
lh.ar <- ar(lh, order.max = 9)  
cpgram(lh.ar$resid, main = "AR(3) fit to lh")  
  
cpgram(ldeaths)
```

cutree*Cut a Tree into Groups of Data*

Description

Cuts a tree, e.g., as resulting from [hclust](#), into several groups either by specifying the desired number(s) of groups or the cut height(s).

Usage

```
cutree(tree, k = NULL, h = NULL)
```

Arguments

tree	a tree as produced by hclust . cutree() only expects a list with components merge, height, and labels, of appropriate content each.
k	an integer scalar or vector with the desired number of groups
h	numeric scalar or vector with heights where the tree should be cut. At least one of k or h must be specified, k overrides h if both are given.

Details

Cutting trees at a given height is only possible for ultrametric trees (with monotone clustering heights).

Value

cutree returns a vector with group memberships if k or h are scalar, otherwise a matrix with group memberships is returned where each column corresponds to the elements of k or h, respectively (which are also used as column names).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[hclust](#), [dendrogram](#) for cutting trees themselves.

Examples

```
hc <- hclust(dist(USArrests))

cutree(hc, k = 1:5) #k = 1 is trivial
cutree(hc, h = 250)

## Compare the 2 and 4 grouping:
```

```
g24 <- cutree(hc, k = c(2,4))
table(grp2 = g24[, "2"], grp4 = g24[, "4"])
```

decompose	<i>Classical Seasonal Decomposition by Moving Averages</i>
-----------	--

Description

Decompose a time series into seasonal, trend and irregular components using moving averages. Deals with additive or multiplicative seasonal component.

Usage

```
decompose(x, type = c("additive", "multiplicative"), filter = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	A time series.
type	The type of seasonal component. Can be abbreviated.
filter	A vector of filter coefficients in reverse time order (as for AR or MA coefficients), used for filtering out the seasonal component. If NULL, a moving average with symmetric window is performed.

Details

The additive model used is:

$$Y_t = T_t + S_t + e_t$$

The multiplicative model used is:

$$Y_t = T_t S_t e_t$$

The function first determines the trend component using a moving average (if filter is NULL, a symmetric window with equal weights is used), and removes it from the time series. Then, the seasonal figure is computed by averaging, for each time unit, over all periods. The seasonal figure is then centered. Finally, the error component is determined by removing trend and seasonal figure (recycled as needed) from the original time series.

This only works well if x covers an integer number of complete periods.

Value

An object of class "decomposed.ts" with following components:

x	The original series. (Only since R 2.14.0.)
seasonal	The seasonal component (i.e., the repeated seasonal figure).
figure	The estimated seasonal figure only.
trend	The trend component.
random	The remainder part.
type	The value of type.

Note

The function `stl` provides a much more sophisticated decomposition.

Author(s)

David Meyer <David.Meyer@wu.ac.at>

References

M. Kendall and A. Stuart (1983) *The Advanced Theory of Statistics*, Vol.3, Griffin. pp. 410–414.

See Also

`stl`

Examples

```
require(graphics)

m <- decompose(co2)
m$figure
plot(m)

## example taken from Kendall/Stuart
x <- c(-50, 175, 149, 214, 247, 237, 225, 329, 729, 809,
      530, 489, 540, 457, 195, 176, 337, 239, 128, 102, 232, 429, 3,
      98, 43, -141, -77, -13, 125, 361, -45, 184)
x <- ts(x, start = c(1951, 1), end = c(1958, 4), frequency = 4)
m <- decompose(x)
## seasonal figure: 6.25, 8.62, -8.84, -6.03
round(decompose(x)$figure / 10, 2)
```

delete.response

Modify Terms Objects

Description

`delete.response` returns a terms object for the same model but with no response variable.

`drop.terms` removes variables from the right-hand side of the model. There is also a "`[.terms`" method to perform the same function (with `keep.response = TRUE`).

`reformulate` creates a formula from a character vector.

Usage

```
delete.response(termobj)
```

```
reformulate(termlabels, response = NULL, intercept = TRUE)
```

```
drop.terms(termobj, dropx = NULL, keep.response = FALSE)
```


Arguments

<code>termobj</code>	A terms object
<code>termlabels</code>	character vector giving the right-hand side of a model formula. Cannot be zero-length.
<code>response</code>	character string, symbol or call giving the left-hand side of a model formula, or NULL.
<code>intercept</code>	logical: should the formula have an intercept?
<code>dropx</code>	vector of positions of variables to drop from the right-hand side of the model.
<code>keep.response</code>	Keep the response in the resulting object?

Value

`delete.response` and `drop.terms` return a terms object.

`reformulate` returns a formula.

See Also

[terms](#)

Examples

```
ff <- y ~ z + x + w
tt <- terms(ff)
tt
delete.response(tt)
drop.terms(tt, 2:3, keep.response = TRUE)
tt[-1]
tt[2:3]
reformulate(attr(tt, "term.labels"))

## keep LHS :
reformulate("x*w", ff[[2]])
fS <- surv(ft, case) ~ a + b
reformulate(c("a", "b*f"), fS[[2]])

## using non-syntactic names:
reformulate(c("`P/E`", "`% Growth`"), response = as.name("+"))

stopifnot(identical(      ~ var, reformulate("var")),
           identical(~ a + b + c, reformulate(letters[1:3])),
           identical( y ~ a + b, reformulate(letters[1:2], "y"))
          )
```

dendrapply*Apply a Function to All Nodes of a Dendrogram*

Description

Apply function FUN to each node of a [dendrogram](#) recursively. When `y <- dendrapply(x, fn)`, then `y` is a dendrogram of the same graph structure as `x` and for each node, `y.node[j] <- FUN(x.node[j], ...)` (where `y.node[j]` is an (invalid!) notation for the `j`-th node of `y`).

Usage

```
dendrapply(X, FUN, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>X</code>	an object of class " dendrogram ".
<code>FUN</code>	an R function to be applied to each dendrogram node, typically working on its attributes alone, returning an altered version of the same node.
<code>...</code>	potential further arguments passed to FUN.

Value

Usually a dendrogram of the same (graph) structure as `X`. For that, the function must be conceptually of the form `FUN <- function(X) { attributes(X) <-; X }`, i.e., returning the node with some attributes added or changed.

Note

this is still somewhat experimental, and suggestions for enhancements (or nice examples of usage) are very welcome.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

[as.dendrogram](#), [lapply](#) for applying a function to each component of a list, [rapply](#) for doing so to each non-list component of a nested list.

Examples

```

require(graphics)

## a smallish simple dendrogram
dhc <- as.dendrogram(hc <- hclust(dist(USArrests), "ave"))
(dhc21 <- dhc[[2]][[1]])

## too simple:
dendrappl(dhc21, function(n) utils::str(attributes(n)))

## toy example to set colored leaf labels :
local({
  collab <- function(n) {
    if(is.leaf(n)) {
      a <- attributes(n)
      i <- i+1
      attr(n, "nodePar") <-
        c(a$nodePar, list(lab.col = mycols[i], lab.font = i%3))
    }
    n
  }
  mycols <- grDevices::rainbow(attr(dhc21,"members"))
  i <- 0
})
dL <- dendrappl(dhc21, collab)
op <- par(mfrow = 2:1)
plot(dhc21)
plot(dL) ## --> colored labels!
par(op)

```

dendrogram

General Tree Structures

Description

Class "dendrogram" provides general functions for handling tree-like structures. It is intended as a replacement for similar functions in hierarchical clustering and classification/regression trees, such that all of these can use the same engine for plotting or cutting trees.

Usage

```

as.dendrogram(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'hclust'
as.dendrogram(object, hang = -1, check = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
as.hclust(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'

```

```

plot(x, type = c("rectangle", "triangle"),
     center = FALSE,
     edge.root = is.leaf(x) || !is.null(attr(x,"edgetext")),
     nodePar = NULL, edgePar = list(),
     leaflab = c("perpendicular", "textlike", "none"),
     dLeaf = NULL, xlab = "", ylab = "", xaxt = "n", yaxt = "s",
     horiz = FALSE, frame.plot = FALSE, xlim, ylim, ...)

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
cut(x, h, ...)

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
merge(x, y, ..., height,
      adjust = c("auto", "add.max", "none"))

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
nobs(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
print(x, digits, ...)

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
rev(x)

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
str(object, max.level = NA, digits.d = 3,
     give.attr = FALSE, wid = getOption("width"),
     nest.lev = 0, indent.str = "",
     last.str = getOption("str.dendrogram.last"), stem = "--",
     ...)

is.leaf(object)

```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	any R object that can be made into one of class "dendrogram".
<code>x, y</code>	object(s) of class "dendrogram".
<code>hang</code>	numeric scalar indicating how the <i>height</i> of leaves should be computed from the heights of their parents; see plot.hclust .
<code>check</code>	logical indicating if object should be checked for validity. This check is not necessary when x is known to be valid such as when it is the direct result of <code>hclust()</code> . The default is <code>check=TRUE</code> , e.g. for protecting against memory explosion with invalid inputs.
<code>type</code>	type of plot.
<code>center</code>	logical; if TRUE, nodes are plotted centered with respect to the leaves in the branch. Otherwise (default), plot them in the middle of all direct child nodes.
<code>edge.root</code>	logical; if true, draw an edge to the root node.

nodePar	a list of plotting parameters to use for the nodes (see points) or NULL by default which does not draw symbols at the nodes. The list may contain components named pch, cex, col, xpd, and/or bg each of which can have length two for specifying separate attributes for <i>inner</i> nodes and <i>leaves</i> . Note that the default of pch is 1:2, so you may want to use pch = NA if you specify nodePar.
edgePar	a list of plotting parameters to use for the edge segments and labels (if there's an edgetext). The list may contain components named col, lty and lwd (for the segments), p.col, p.lwd, and p.lty (for the polygon around the text) and t.col for the text color. As with nodePar, each can have length two for differentiating leaves and inner nodes.
leaflab	a string specifying how leaves are labeled. The default "perpendicular" write text vertically (by default). "textlike" writes text horizontally (in a rectangle), and "none" suppresses leaf labels.
dLeaf	a number specifying the distance in user coordinates between the tip of a leaf and its label. If NULL as per default, 3/4 of a letter width or height is used.
horiz	logical indicating if the dendrogram should be drawn <i>horizontally</i> or not.
frame.plot	logical indicating if a box around the plot should be drawn, see plot.default .
h	height at which the tree is cut.
height	height at which the two dendrograms should be merged. If not specified (or NULL), the default is ten percent larger than the (larger of the) two component heights.
adjust	a string determining if the leaf values should be adjusted. The default, "auto", checks if the (first) two dendrograms both start at 1; if they do, code "add.max" is chosen, which adds the maximum of the previous dendrogram leaf values to each leaf of the "next" dendrogram. Specifying adjust to another value skips the check and hence is a tad more efficient.
xlim, ylim	optional x- and y-limits of the plot, passed to plot.default . The defaults for these show the full dendrogram.
..., xlab, ylab, xaxt, yaxt	graphical parameters, or arguments for other methods.
digits	integer specifying the precision for printing, see print.default .
max.level, digits.d, give.attr, wid, nest.lev, indent.str	arguments to str, see str.default (). Note that give.attr = FALSE still shows height and members attributes for each node.
last.str, stem	strings used for str() specifying how the last branch (at each level) should start and the <i>stem</i> to use for each dendrogram branch. In some environments, using last.str = "" will provide much nicer looking output, than the historical default last.str = "`".

Details

The dendrogram is directly represented as a nested list where each component corresponds to a branch of the tree. Hence, the first branch of tree *z* is *z*[[1]], the second branch of the corresponding subtree is *z*[[1]][[2]], or shorter *z*[[c(1,2)]], etc.. Each node of the tree carries some

information needed for efficient plotting or cutting as attributes, of which only `members`, `height` and `leaf` for leaves are compulsory:

`members` total number of leaves in the branch

`height` numeric non-negative height at which the node is plotted.

`midpoint` numeric horizontal distance of the node from the left border (the leftmost leaf) of the branch (unit 1 between all leaves). This is used for `plot(*, center = FALSE)`.

`label` character; the label of the node

`x.member` for `cut()$upper`, the number of *former* members; more generally a substitute for the `members` component used for ‘horizontal’ (when `horiz = FALSE`, else ‘vertical’) alignment.

`edgetext` character; the label for the edge leading to the node

`nodePar` a named list (of length-1 components) specifying node-specific attributes for `points` plotting, see the `nodePar` argument above.

`edgePar` a named list (of length-1 components) specifying attributes for `segments` plotting of the edge leading to the node, and drawing of the `edgetext` if available, see the `edgePar` argument above.

`leaf` logical, if `TRUE`, the node is a leaf of the tree.

`cut.dendrogram()` returns a list with components `$upper` and `$lower`, the first is a truncated version of the original tree, also of class `dendrogram`, the latter a list with the branches obtained from cutting the tree, each a `dendrogram`.

There are `[[`, `print`, and `str` methods for “`dendrogram`” objects where the first one (extraction) ensures that selecting sub-branches keeps the class, i.e., returns a `dendrogram` even if only a leaf. On the other hand, `[` (*single* bracket) extraction returns the underlying list structure.

Objects of class “`hclust`” can be converted to class “`dendrogram`” using method `as.dendrogram()`, and since R 2.13.0, there is also a `as.hclust()` method as an inverse.

`rev.dendrogram` simply returns the `dendrogram` `x` with reversed nodes, see also `reorder.dendrogram`.

The `merge(x, y, ...)` method merges two or more `dendrograms` into a new one which has `x` and `y` (and optional further arguments) as branches. Note that before R 3.1.2, `adjust = "none"` was used implicitly, which is invalid when, e.g., the `dendrograms` are from `as.dendrogram(hclust(...))`.

`nobs(object)` returns the total number of leaves (the `members` attribute, see above).

`is.leaf(object)` returns logical indicating if `object` is a leaf (the most simple `dendrogram`).

`plotNode()` and `plotNodeLimit()` are helper functions.

Warning

Some operations on `dendrograms` (including plotting) make use of recursion. For very deep trees It may be necessary to increase `options("expressions")`: if you do you are likely to need to set the C stack size larger than the default where possible.

Note

`plot()`: When using `type = "triangle"`, `center = TRUE` often looks better.

`str(d)`: If you really want to see the *internal* structure, use `str(unclass(d))` instead.

See Also

`dendrapply` for applying a function to *each* node. `order.dendrogram` and `reorder.dendrogram`; further, the `labels` method.

Examples

```
require(graphics); require(utils)

hc <- hclust(dist(USArrests), "ave")
(dend1 <- as.dendrogram(hc)) # "print()" method
str(dend1)                  # "str()" method
str(dend1, max = 2, last.str = "'") # only the first two sub-levels
oo <- options(str.dendrogram.last = "\\") # yet another possibility
str(dend1, max = 2) # only the first two sub-levels
options(oo) # .. resetting them

op <- par(mfrow = c(2,2), mar = c(5,2,1,4))
plot(dend1)
## "triangle" type and show inner nodes:
plot(dend1, nodePar = list(pch = c(1,NA), cex = 0.8, lab.cex = 0.8),
     type = "t", center = TRUE)
plot(dend1, edgePar = list(col = 1:2, lty = 2:3),
     dLeaf = 1, edge.root = TRUE)
plot(dend1, nodePar = list(pch = 2:1, cex = .4*2:1, col = 2:3),
     horiz = TRUE)

## simple test for as.hclust() as the inverse of as.dendrogram():
stopifnot(identical(as.hclust(dend1)[1:4], hc[1:4]))

dend2 <- cut(dend1, h = 70)
plot(dend2$upper)
## leaves are wrong horizontally:
plot(dend2$upper, nodePar = list(pch = c(1,7), col = 2:1))
## dend2$lower is *NOT* a dendrogram, but a list of .. :
plot(dend2$lower[[3]], nodePar = list(col = 4), horiz = TRUE, type = "tr")
## "inner" and "leaf" edges in different type & color :
plot(dend2$lower[[2]], nodePar = list(col = 1), # non empty list
     edgePar = list(lty = 1:2, col = 2:1), edge.root = TRUE)
par(op)
d3 <- dend2$lower[[2]][[2]][[1]]
stopifnot(identical(d3, dend2$lower[[2]][[c(2,1)]]))
str(d3, last.str = "'")

## to peek at the inner structure "if you must", use '[' indexing :
str(d3[2][[1]]) ## or the full
str(d3[])

## merge() to join dendrograms:
(d13 <- merge(dend2$lower[[1]], dend2$lower[[3]]))
## merge() all parts back (using default 'height' instead of original one):
den.1 <- Reduce(merge, dend2$lower)
## or merge() all four parts at same height --> 4 branches (!)
```

```

d. <- merge(dend2$lower[[1]], dend2$lower[[2]], dend2$lower[[3]],
            dend2$lower[[4]])
## (with a warning) or the same using do.call :
stopifnot(identical(d., do.call(merge, dend2$lower)))
plot(d., main = "merge(d1, d2, d3, d4) |-> dendrogram with a 4-split")

## "Zoom" in to the first dendrogram :
plot(dend1, xlim = c(1,20), ylim = c(1,50))

nP <- list(col = 3:2, cex = c(2.0, 0.75), pch = 21:22,
          bg = c("light blue", "pink"),
          lab.cex = 0.75, lab.col = "tomato")
plot(d3, nodePar= nP, edgePar = list(col = "gray", lwd = 2), horiz = TRUE)

addE <- function(n) {
  if(!is.leaf(n)) {
    attr(n, "edgePar") <- list(p.col = "plum")
    attr(n, "edgetext") <- paste(attr(n, "members"), "members")
  }
  n
}
d3e <- dendrapply(d3, addE)
plot(d3e, nodePar = nP)
plot(d3e, nodePar = nP, leaflab = "textlike")

```

density

Kernel Density Estimation

Description

The (S3) generic function `density` computes kernel density estimates. Its default method does so with the given kernel and bandwidth for univariate observations.

Usage

```

density(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
density(x, bw = "nrd0", adjust = 1,
        kernel = c("gaussian", "epanechnikov", "rectangular",
                    "triangular", "biweight",
                    "cosine", "optcosine"),
        weights = NULL, window = kernel, width,
        give.Rkern = FALSE,
        n = 512, from, to, cut = 3, na.rm = FALSE, ...)

```


Arguments

<code>x</code>	the data from which the estimate is to be computed.
<code>bw</code>	<p>the smoothing bandwidth to be used. The kernels are scaled such that this is the standard deviation of the smoothing kernel. (Note this differs from the reference books cited below, and from S-PLUS.)</p> <p><code>bw</code> can also be a character string giving a rule to choose the bandwidth. See bw.nrd.</p> <p>The default, <code>"nrd0"</code>, has remained the default for historical and compatibility reasons, rather than as a general recommendation, where e.g., <code>"SJ"</code> would rather fit, see also Venables and Ripley (2002).</p> <p>The specified (or computed) value of <code>bw</code> is multiplied by <code>adjust</code>.</p>
<code>adjust</code>	the bandwidth used is actually <code>adjust*bw</code> . This makes it easy to specify values like ‘half the default’ bandwidth.
<code>kernel, window</code>	<p>a character string giving the smoothing kernel to be used. This must partially match one of <code>"gaussian"</code>, <code>"rectangular"</code>, <code>"triangular"</code>, <code>"epanechnikov"</code>, <code>"biweight"</code>, <code>"cosine"</code> or <code>"optcosine"</code>, with default <code>"gaussian"</code>, and may be abbreviated to a unique prefix (single letter).</p> <p><code>"cosine"</code> is smoother than <code>"optcosine"</code>, which is the usual ‘cosine’ kernel in the literature and almost MSE-efficient. However, <code>"cosine"</code> is the version used by S.</p>
<code>weights</code>	numeric vector of non-negative observation weights, hence of same length as <code>x</code> . The default <code>NULL</code> is equivalent to <code>weights = rep(1/nx, nx)</code> where <code>nx</code> is the length of (the finite entries of) <code>x[]</code> .
<code>width</code>	this exists for compatibility with S; if given, and <code>bw</code> is not, will set <code>bw</code> to <code>width</code> if this is a character string, or to a kernel-dependent multiple of <code>width</code> if this is numeric.
<code>give.Rkern</code>	logical; if true, <i>no</i> density is estimated, and the ‘canonical bandwidth’ of the chosen kernel is returned instead.
<code>n</code>	the number of equally spaced points at which the density is to be estimated. When <code>n > 512</code> , it is rounded up to a power of 2 during the calculations (as fft is used) and the final result is interpolated by approx . So it almost always makes sense to specify <code>n</code> as a power of two.
<code>from,to</code>	the left and right-most points of the grid at which the density is to be estimated; the defaults are <code>cut * bw</code> outside of <code>range(x)</code> .
<code>cut</code>	by default, the values of <code>from</code> and <code>to</code> are cut bandwidths beyond the extremes of the data. This allows the estimated density to drop to approximately zero at the extremes.
<code>na.rm</code>	logical; if TRUE, missing values are removed from <code>x</code> . If FALSE any missing values cause an error.
<code>...</code>	further arguments for (non-default) methods.

Details

The algorithm used in `density.default` disperses the mass of the empirical distribution function over a regular grid of at least 512 points and then uses the fast Fourier transform to convolve this ap-

proximation with a discretized version of the kernel and then uses linear approximation to evaluate the density at the specified points.

The statistical properties of a kernel are determined by $\sigma_K^2 = \int t^2 K(t) dt$ which is always $= 1$ for our kernels (and hence the bandwidth `bw` is the standard deviation of the kernel) and $R(K) = \int K^2(t) dt$.

MSE-equivalent bandwidths (for different kernels) are proportional to $\sigma_K R(K)$ which is scale invariant and for our kernels equal to $R(K)$. This value is returned when `give.Rkern = TRUE`. See the examples for using exact equivalent bandwidths.

Infinite values in `x` are assumed to correspond to a point mass at $\pm \text{Inf}$ and the density estimate is of the sub-density on $(-\text{Inf}, +\text{Inf})$.

Value

If `give.Rkern` is true, the number $R(K)$, otherwise an object with class "density" whose underlying structure is a list containing the following components.

<code>x</code>	the <code>n</code> coordinates of the points where the density is estimated.
<code>y</code>	the estimated density values. These will be non-negative, but can be zero.
<code>bw</code>	the bandwidth used.
<code>n</code>	the sample size after elimination of missing values.
<code>call</code>	the call which produced the result.
<code>data.name</code>	the deparsed name of the <code>x</code> argument.
<code>has.na</code>	logical, for compatibility (always FALSE).

The `print` method reports [summary](#) values on the `x` and `y` components.

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole (for S version).
- Scott, D. W. (1992) *Multivariate Density Estimation. Theory, Practice and Visualization*. New York: Wiley.
- Sheather, S. J. and Jones M. C. (1991) A reliable data-based bandwidth selection method for kernel density estimation. *J. Roy. Statist. Soc. B*, 683–690.
- Silverman, B. W. (1986) *Density Estimation*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. New York: Springer.

See Also

[bw.nrd](#), [plot.density](#), [hist](#).

Examples

```

require(graphics)

plot(density(c(-20, rep(0,98), 20)), xlim = c(-4, 4)) # IQR = 0

# The Old Faithful geyser data
d <- density(faithful$eruptions, bw = "sj")
d
plot(d)

plot(d, type = "n")
polygon(d, col = "wheat")

## Missing values:
x <- xx <- faithful$eruptions
x[i.out <- sample(length(x), 10)] <- NA
doR <- density(x, bw = 0.15, na.rm = TRUE)
lines(doR, col = "blue")
points(xx[i.out], rep(0.01, 10))

## Weighted observations:
fe <- sort(faithful$eruptions) # has quite a few non-unique values
## use 'counts / n' as weights:
dw <- density(unique(fe), weights = table(fe)/length(fe), bw = d$bw)
utils::str(dw) ## smaller n: only 126, but identical estimate:
stopifnot(all.equal(d[1:3], dw[1:3]))

## simulation from a density() fit:
# a kernel density fit is an equally-weighted mixture.
fit <- density(xx)
N <- 1e6
x.new <- rnorm(N, sample(xx, size = N, replace = TRUE), fit$bw)
plot(fit)
lines(density(x.new), col = "blue")

(kernels <- eval(formals(density.default)$kernel))

## show the kernels in the R parametrization
plot (density(0, bw = 1), xlab = "",
      main = "R's density() kernels with bw = 1")
for(i in 2:length(kernels))
  lines(density(0, bw = 1, kernel = kernels[i]), col = i)
legend(1.5,.4, legend = kernels, col = seq(kernels),
      lty = 1, cex = .8, y.intersp = 1)

## show the kernels in the S parametrization
plot(density(0, from = -1.2, to = 1.2, width = 2, kernel = "gaussian"),
      type = "l", ylim = c(0, 1), xlab = "",
      main = "R's density() kernels with width = 1")
for(i in 2:length(kernels))
  lines(density(0, width = 2, kernel = kernels[i]), col = i)

```

```

legend(0.6, 1.0, legend = kernels, col = seq(kernels), lty = 1)

##----- Semi-advanced theoretic from here on -----

(RKs <- cbind(sapply(kernels,
                    function(k) density(kernel = k, give.Rkern = TRUE))))
100*round(RKs[,"epanechnikov",]/RKs, 4) ## Efficiencies

bw <- bw.SJ(precip) ## sensible automatic choice
plot(density(precip, bw = bw),
     main = "same sd bandwidths, 7 different kernels")
for(i in 2:length(kernels))
  lines(density(precip, bw = bw, kernel = kernels[i]), col = i)

## Bandwidth Adjustment for "Exactly Equivalent Kernels"
h.f <- sapply(kernels, function(k) density(kernel = k, give.Rkern = TRUE))
(h.f <- (h.f["gaussian"] / h.f)^ .2)
## -> 1, 1.01, .995, 1.007,... close to 1 => adjustment barely visible..

plot(density(precip, bw = bw),
     main = "equivalent bandwidths, 7 different kernels")
for(i in 2:length(kernels))
  lines(density(precip, bw = bw, adjust = h.f[i], kernel = kernels[i]),
       col = i)
legend(55, 0.035, legend = kernels, col = seq(kernels), lty = 1)

```

deriv

Symbolic and Algorithmic Derivatives of Simple Expressions

Description

Compute derivatives of simple expressions, symbolically.

Usage

```

D (expr, name)
deriv(expr, ...)
deriv3(expr, ...)

## Default S3 method:
deriv(expr, namevec, function.arg = NULL, tag = ".expr",
      hessian = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'formula'
deriv(expr, namevec, function.arg = NULL, tag = ".expr",
      hessian = FALSE, ...)

## Default S3 method:
deriv3(expr, namevec, function.arg = NULL, tag = ".expr",

```

```

        hessian = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'formula'
deriv3(expr, namevec, function.arg = NULL, tag = ".expr",
        hessian = TRUE, ...)

```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	A expression or call or (except D) a formula with no lhs.
<code>name, namevec</code>	character vector, giving the variable names (only one for <code>D()</code>) with respect to which derivatives will be computed.
<code>function.arg</code>	If specified and non-NULL, a character vector of arguments for a function return, or a function (with empty body) or TRUE, the latter indicating that a function with argument names <code>namevec</code> should be used.
<code>tag</code>	character; the prefix to be used for the locally created variables in result.
<code>hessian</code>	a logical value indicating whether the second derivatives should be calculated and incorporated in the return value.
<code>...</code>	arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

D is modelled after its S namesake for taking simple symbolic derivatives.

`deriv` is a *generic* function with a default and a [formula](#) method. It returns a [call](#) for computing the `expr` and its (partial) derivatives, simultaneously. It uses so-called *algorithmic derivatives*. If `function.arg` is a function, its arguments can have default values, see the `fx` example below.

Currently, `deriv.formula` just calls `deriv.default` after extracting the expression to the right of `~`.

`deriv3` and its methods are equivalent to `deriv` and its methods except that `hessian` defaults to TRUE for `deriv3`.

The internal code knows about the arithmetic operators `+`, `-`, `*`, `/` and `^`, and the single-variable functions `exp`, `log`, `sin`, `cos`, `tan`, `sinh`, `cosh`, `sqrt`, `pnorm`, `dnorm`, `asin`, `acos`, `atan`, `gamma`, `lgamma`, `digamma` and `trigamma`, as well as `psigamma` for one or two arguments (but derivative only with respect to the first). (Note that only the standard normal distribution is considered.)

Value

D returns a `call` and therefore can easily be iterated for higher derivatives.

`deriv` and `deriv3` normally return an [expression](#) object whose evaluation returns the function values with a "gradient" attribute containing the gradient matrix. If `hessian` is TRUE the evaluation also returns a "hessian" attribute containing the Hessian array.

If `function.arg` is not NULL, `deriv` and `deriv3` return a function with those arguments rather than an expression.

References

Griewank, A. and Corliss, G. F. (1991) *Automatic Differentiation of Algorithms: Theory, Implementation, and Application*. SIAM proceedings, Philadelphia.

Bates, D. M. and Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Nonlinear models*. Chapter 10 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[nlm](#) and [optim](#) for numeric minimization which could make use of derivatives,

Examples

```
## formula argument :
dx2x <- deriv(~ x^2, "x") ; dx2x
## Not run: expression({
  .value <- x^2
  .grad <- array(0, c(length(.value), 1), list(NULL, c("x")))
  .grad[, "x"] <- 2 * x
  attr(.value, "gradient") <- .grad
  .value
})
## End(Not run)
mode(dx2x)
x <- -1:2
eval(dx2x)

## Something 'tougher':
trig.exp <- expression(sin(cos(x + y^2)))
( D.sc <- D(trig.exp, "x") )
all.equal(D(trig.exp[[1]], "x"), D.sc)

( dxy <- deriv(trig.exp, c("x", "y")) )
y <- 1
eval(dxy)
eval(D.sc)

## function returned:
deriv((y ~ sin(cos(x) * y)), c("x","y"), func = TRUE)

## function with defaulted arguments:
(fx <- deriv(y ~ b0 + b1 * 2^(-x/th), c("b0", "b1", "th"),
  function(b0, b1, th, x = 1:7){} ) )
fx(2, 3, 4)

## Higher derivatives
deriv3(y ~ b0 + b1 * 2^(-x/th), c("b0", "b1", "th"),
  c("b0", "b1", "th", "x") )

## Higher derivatives:
DD <- function(expr, name, order = 1) {
  if(order < 1) stop("'order' must be >= 1")

```

```

    if(order == 1) D(expr, name)
    else DD(D(expr, name), name, order - 1)
  }
  DD(expression(sin(x^2)), "x", 3)
  ## showing the limits of the internal "simplify()" :
  ## Not run:
  -sin(x^2) * (2 * x) * 2 + ((cos(x^2) * (2 * x) * (2 * x) + sin(x^2) *
    2) * (2 * x) + sin(x^2) * (2 * x) * 2)

  ## End(Not run)

```

deviance

Model Deviance

Description

Returns the deviance of a fitted model object.

Usage

```
deviance(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	an object for which the deviance is desired.
...	additional optional argument.

Details

This is a generic function which can be used to extract deviances for fitted models. Consult the individual modeling functions for details on how to use this function.

Value

The value of the deviance extracted from the object object.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[df.residual](#), [extractAIC](#), [glm](#), [lm](#).

df.residual	<i>Residual Degrees-of-Freedom</i>
-------------	------------------------------------

Description

Returns the residual degrees-of-freedom extracted from a fitted model object.

Usage

```
df.residual(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	an object for which the degrees-of-freedom are desired.
...	additional optional arguments.

Details

This is a generic function which can be used to extract residual degrees-of-freedom for fitted models. Consult the individual modeling functions for details on how to use this function.

The default method just extracts the `df.residual` component.

Value

The value of the residual degrees-of-freedom extracted from the object `x`.

See Also

[deviance](#), [glm](#), [lm](#).

diffinv	<i>Discrete Integration: Inverse of Differencing</i>
---------	--

Description

Computes the inverse function of the lagged differences function [diff](#).

Usage

```
diffinv(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
diffinv(x, lag = 1, differences = 1, xi, ...)
## S3 method for class 'ts'
diffinv(x, lag = 1, differences = 1, xi, ...)
```


Arguments

x	a numeric vector, matrix, or time series.
lag	a scalar lag parameter.
differences	an integer representing the order of the difference.
xi	a numeric vector, matrix, or time series containing the initial values for the integrals. If missing, zeros are used.
...	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

diffinv is a generic function with methods for class "ts" and default for vectors and matrices. Missing values are not handled.

Value

A numeric vector, matrix, or time series (the latter for the "ts" method) representing the discrete integral of x.

Author(s)

A. Trapletti

See Also

[diff](#)

Examples

```
s <- 1:10
d <- diff(s)
diffinv(d, xi = 1)
```

dist

Distance Matrix Computation

Description

This function computes and returns the distance matrix computed by using the specified distance measure to compute the distances between the rows of a data matrix.

Usage

```

dist(x, method = "euclidean", diag = FALSE, upper = FALSE, p = 2)

as.dist(m, diag = FALSE, upper = FALSE)
## Default S3 method:
as.dist(m, diag = FALSE, upper = FALSE)

## S3 method for class 'dist'
print(x, diag = NULL, upper = NULL,
      digits = getOption("digits"), justify = "none",
      right = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'dist'
as.matrix(x, ...)

```

Arguments

x	a numeric matrix, data frame or "dist" object.
method	the distance measure to be used. This must be one of "euclidean", "maximum", "manhattan", "canberra", "binary" or "minkowski". Any unambiguous substring can be given.
diag	logical value indicating whether the diagonal of the distance matrix should be printed by <code>print.dist</code> .
upper	logical value indicating whether the upper triangle of the distance matrix should be printed by <code>print.dist</code> .
p	The power of the Minkowski distance.
m	An object with distance information to be converted to a "dist" object. For the default method, a "dist" object, or a matrix (of distances) or an object which can be coerced to such a matrix using <code>as.matrix()</code> . (Only the lower triangle of the matrix is used, the rest is ignored).
digits, justify	passed to <code>format</code> inside of <code>print()</code> .
right, ...	further arguments, passed to other methods.

Details

Available distance measures are (written for two vectors x and y):

euclidean: Usual distance between the two vectors (2 norm aka L_2), $\sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - y_i)^2}$.

maximum: Maximum distance between two components of x and y (supremum norm)

manhattan: Absolute distance between the two vectors (1 norm aka L_1).

canberra: $\sum_i |x_i - y_i| / |x_i + y_i|$. Terms with zero numerator and denominator are omitted from the sum and treated as if the values were missing.

This is intended for non-negative values (e.g., counts): taking the absolute value of the denominator is a 1998 R modification to avoid negative distances.

binary: (aka *asymmetric binary*): The vectors are regarded as binary bits, so non-zero elements are 'on' and zero elements are 'off'. The distance is the *proportion* of bits in which only one is on amongst those in which at least one is on.

minkowski: The p norm, the p th root of the sum of the p th powers of the differences of the components.

Missing values are allowed, and are excluded from all computations involving the rows within which they occur. Further, when Inf values are involved, all pairs of values are excluded when their contribution to the distance gave NaN or NA. If some columns are excluded in calculating a Euclidean, Manhattan, Canberra or Minkowski distance, the sum is scaled up proportionally to the number of columns used. If all pairs are excluded when calculating a particular distance, the value is NA.

The "dist" method of `as.matrix()` and `as.dist()` can be used for conversion between objects of class "dist" and conventional distance matrices.

`as.dist()` is a generic function. Its default method handles objects inheriting from class "dist", or coercible to matrices using `as.matrix()`. Support for classes representing distances (also known as dissimilarities) can be added by providing an `as.matrix()` or, more directly, an `as.dist` method for such a class.

Value

`dist` returns an object of class "dist".

The lower triangle of the distance matrix stored by columns in a vector, say `do`. If n is the number of observations, i.e., $n \leftarrow \text{attr}(do, "Size")$, then for $i < j \leq n$, the dissimilarity between (row) i and j is $do[n*(i-1) - i*(i-1)/2 + j-i]$. The length of the vector is $n * (n - 1)/2$, i.e., of order n^2 .

The object has the following attributes (besides "class" equal to "dist"):

Size	integer, the number of observations in the dataset.
Labels	optionally, contains the labels, if any, of the observations of the dataset.
Diag, Upper	logicals corresponding to the arguments <code>diag</code> and <code>upper</code> above, specifying how the object should be printed.
call	optionally, the <code>call</code> used to create the object.
method	optionally, the distance method used; resulting from <code>dist()</code> , the <code>(match.arg())</code> method argument.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Mardia, K. V., Kent, J. T. and Bibby, J. M. (1979) *Multivariate Analysis*. Academic Press.

Borg, I. and Groenen, P. (1997) *Modern Multidimensional Scaling. Theory and Applications*. Springer.

See Also

`daisy` in the `cluster` package with more possibilities in the case of *mixed* (continuous / categorical) variables. `hclust`.

Examples

```

require(graphics)

x <- matrix(rnorm(100), nrow = 5)
dist(x)
dist(x, diag = TRUE)
dist(x, upper = TRUE)
m <- as.matrix(dist(x))
d <- as.dist(m)
stopifnot(d == dist(x))

## Use correlations between variables "as distance"
dd <- as.dist((1 - cor(USJudgeRatings))/2)
round(1000 * dd) # (prints more nicely)
plot(hclust(dd)) # to see a dendrogram of clustered variables

## example of binary and canberra distances.
x <- c(0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1)
y <- c(1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1)
dist(rbind(x, y), method = "binary")
## answer 0.4 = 2/5
dist(rbind(x, y), method = "canberra")
## answer 2 * (6/5)

## To find the names
labels(eurodist)

## Examples involving "Inf" :
## 1)
x[6] <- Inf
(m2 <- rbind(x, y))
dist(m2, method = "binary") # warning, answer 0.5 = 2/4
## These all give "Inf":
stopifnot(Inf == dist(m2, method = "euclidean"),
          Inf == dist(m2, method = "maximum"),
          Inf == dist(m2, method = "manhattan"))
## "Inf" is same as very large number:
x1 <- x; x1[6] <- 1e100
stopifnot(dist(cbind(x, y), method = "canberra") ==
          print(dist(cbind(x1, y), method = "canberra"))))

## 2)
y[6] <- Inf #-> 6-th pair is excluded
dist(rbind(x, y), method = "binary" ) # warning; 0.5
dist(rbind(x, y), method = "canberra" ) # 3
dist(rbind(x, y), method = "maximum" ) # 1
dist(rbind(x, y), method = "manhattan" ) # 2.4

```

Description

Density, cumulative distribution function, quantile function and random variate generation for many standard probability distributions are available in the **stats** package.

Details

The functions for the density/mass function, cumulative distribution function, quantile function and random variate generation are named in the form `dxxx`, `pxxx`, `qxxx` and `rxxx` respectively.

For the beta distribution see [dbeta](#).

For the binomial (including Bernoulli) distribution see [dbinom](#).

For the Cauchy distribution see [dcauchy](#).

For the chi-squared distribution see [dchisq](#).

For the exponential distribution see [dexp](#).

For the F distribution see [df](#).

For the gamma distribution see [dgamma](#).

For the geometric distribution see [dgeom](#). (This is also a special case of the negative binomial.)

For the hypergeometric distribution see [dhyper](#).

For the log-normal distribution see [dlnorm](#).

For the multinomial distribution see [dmultinom](#).

For the negative binomial distribution see [dnbinom](#).

For the normal distribution see [dnorm](#).

For the Poisson distribution see [dpois](#).

For the Student's t distribution see [dt](#).

For the uniform distribution see [dunif](#).

For the Weibull distribution see [dweibull](#).

For less common distributions of test statistics see [pbirthday](#), [dsignrank](#), [ptukey](#) and [dwilcox](#) (and see the 'See Also' section of [cor.test](#)).

See Also

[RNG](#) about random number generation in R.

The CRAN task view on distributions, <https://cran.r-project.org/web/views/Distributions.html>, mentioning several CRAN packages for additional distributions.

dummy.coef

*Extract Coefficients in Original Coding***Description**

This extracts coefficients in terms of the original levels of the coefficients rather than the coded variables.

Usage

```
dummy.coef(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
dummy.coef(object, use.na = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'aovlist'
dummy.coef(object, use.na = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

object	a linear model fit.
use.na	logical flag for coefficients in a singular model. If use.na is true, undetermined coefficients will be missing; if false they will get one possible value.
...	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

A fitted linear model has coefficients for the contrasts of the factor terms, usually one less in number than the number of levels. This function re-expresses the coefficients in the original coding; as the coefficients will have been fitted in the reduced basis, any implied constraints (e.g., zero sum for `contr.helmert` or `contr.sum`) will be respected. There will be little point in using `dummy.coef` for `contr.treatment` contrasts, as the missing coefficients are by definition zero.

The method used has some limitations, and will give incomplete results for terms such as `poly(x, 2)`. However, it is adequate for its main purpose, aov models.

Value

A list giving for each term the values of the coefficients. For a multistratum aov model, such a list for each stratum.

Warning

This function is intended for human inspection of the output: it should not be used for calculations. Use coded variables for all calculations.

The results differ from S for singular values, where S can be incorrect.

See Also

[aov](#), [model.tables](#)

Examples

```
options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.poly"))
## From Venables and Ripley (2002) p.165.
npk.aov <- aov(yield ~ block + N*P*K, npk)
dummy.coef(npk.aov)

npk.aovE <- aov(yield ~ N*P*K + Error(block), npk)
dummy.coef(npk.aovE)
```

ecdf

Empirical Cumulative Distribution Function

Description

Compute an empirical cumulative distribution function, with several methods for plotting, printing and computing with such an “ecdf” object.

Usage

```
ecdf(x)

## S3 method for class 'ecdf'
plot(x, ..., ylab="Fn(x)", verticals = FALSE,
      col.01line = "gray70", pch = 19)

## S3 method for class 'ecdf'
print(x, digits= getOption("digits") - 2, ...)

## S3 method for class 'ecdf'
summary(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'ecdf'
quantile(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code> , <code>object</code>	numeric vector of the observations for ecdf; for the methods, an object inheriting from class “ecdf”.
<code>...</code>	arguments to be passed to subsequent methods, e.g., plot.stepfun for the plot method.
<code>ylab</code>	label for the y-axis.
<code>verticals</code>	see plot.stepfun .

<code>col.01line</code>	numeric or character specifying the color of the horizontal lines at $y = 0$ and 1 , see colors .
<code>pch</code>	plotting character.
<code>digits</code>	number of significant digits to use, see print .

Details

The e.c.d.f. (empirical cumulative distribution function) F_n is a step function with jumps i/n at observation values, where i is the number of tied observations at that value. Missing values are ignored.

For observations $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, F_n is the fraction of observations less or equal to t , i.e.,

$$F_n(t) = \#\{x_i \leq t\} / n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{[x_i \leq t]}.$$

The function `plot.ecdf` which implements the [plot](#) method for `ecdf` objects, is implemented via a call to [plot.stepfun](#); see its documentation.

Value

For `ecdf`, a function of class `"ecdf"`, inheriting from the `"stepfun"` class, and hence inheriting a [knots\(\)](#) method.

For the summary method, a summary of the knots of object with a `"header"` attribute.

The [quantile\(obj, ...\)](#) method computes the same quantiles as `quantile(x, ...)` would where x is the original sample.

Note

The objects of class `"ecdf"` are not intended to be used for permanent storage and may change structure between versions of R (and did at R 3.0.0). They can usually be re-created by

```
eval(attr(old_obj, "call"), environment(old_obj))
```

since the data used is stored as part of the object's environment.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler; fixes and new features by other R-core members.

See Also

[stepfun](#), the more general class of step functions, [approxfun](#) and [splinefun](#).

Examples

```
##-- Simple didactical ecdf example :
x <- rnorm(12)
Fn <- ecdf(x)
Fn      # a *function*
Fn(x)   # returns the percentiles for x
tt <- seq(-2, 2, by = 0.1)
12 * Fn(tt) # Fn is a 'simple' function {with values k/12}
summary(Fn)
##--> see below for graphics
knots(Fn) # the unique data values {12 of them if there were no ties}

y <- round(rnorm(12), 1); y[3] <- y[1]
Fn12 <- ecdf(y)
Fn12
knots(Fn12) # unique values (always less than 12!)
summary(Fn12)
summary.stepfun(Fn12)

## Advanced: What's inside the function closure?
print(ls.Fn12 <- ls(environment(Fn12)))
##[1] "f" "method" "n" "x" "y" "yleft" "yright"
utils::ls.str(environment(Fn12))
stopifnot(all.equal(quantile(Fn12), quantile(y)))

###----- Plotting -----
require(graphics)

op <- par(mfrow = c(3, 1), mgp = c(1.5, 0.8, 0), mar = .1+c(3,3,2,1))

F10 <- ecdf(rnorm(10))
summary(F10)

plot(F10)
plot(F10, verticals = TRUE, do.points = FALSE)

plot(Fn12 , lwd = 2) ; mtext("lwd = 2", adj = 1)
xx <- unique(sort(c(seq(-3, 2, length = 201), knots(Fn12))))
lines(xx, Fn12(xx), col = "blue")
abline(v = knots(Fn12), lty = 2, col = "gray70")

plot(xx, Fn12(xx), type = "o", cex = .1) #- plot.default {ugly}
plot(Fn12, col.hor = "red", add = TRUE) #- plot method
abline(v = knots(Fn12), lty = 2, col = "gray70")
## luxury plot
plot(Fn12, verticals = TRUE, col.points = "blue",
     col.hor = "red", col.vert = "bisque")

##-- this works too (automatic call to ecdf(.)):
plot.ecdf(rnorm(24))
title("via simple plot.ecdf(x)", adj = 1)
```

```
par(op)
```

```
eff.aovlist
```

Compute Efficiencies of Multistratum Analysis of Variance

Description

Computes the efficiencies of fixed-effect terms in an analysis of variance model with multiple strata.

Usage

```
eff.aovlist(aovlist)
```

Arguments

`aovlist` The result of a call to `aov` with an Error term.

Details

Fixed-effect terms in an analysis of variance model with multiple strata may be estimable in more than one stratum, in which case there is less than complete information in each. The efficiency for a term is the fraction of the maximum possible precision (inverse variance) obtainable by estimating in just that stratum. Under the assumption of balance, this is the same for all contrasts involving that term.

This function is used to pick strata in which to estimate terms in `model.tables.aovlist` and `se.contrast.aovlist`.

In many cases terms will only occur in one stratum, when all the efficiencies will be one: this is detected and no further calculations are done.

The calculation used requires orthogonal contrasts for each term, and will throw an error if non-orthogonal contrasts (e.g., treatment contrasts or an unbalanced design) are detected.

Value

A matrix giving for each non-pure-error stratum (row) the efficiencies for each fixed-effect term in the model.

References

Heiberger, R. M. (1989) *Computation for the Analysis of Designed Experiments*. Wiley.

See Also

`aov`, `model.tables.aovlist`, `se.contrast.aovlist`

Examples

```
## An example from Yates (1932),
## a 2^3 design in 2 blocks replicated 4 times

Block <- gl(8, 4)
A <- factor(c(0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1,
             0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1))
B <- factor(c(0,0,1,1,0,0,1,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,1,0,0,0,1,1,
             0,0,1,1,0,0,1,1,0,0,1,1))
C <- factor(c(0,1,1,0,1,0,0,1,0,0,1,1,0,0,1,1,0,1,0,1,
             1,0,1,0,0,0,1,1,1,1,0,0))
Yield <- c(101, 373, 398, 291, 312, 106, 265, 450, 106, 306, 324, 449,
          272, 89, 407, 338, 87, 324, 279, 471, 323, 128, 423, 334,
          131, 103, 445, 437, 324, 361, 302, 272)
aovdat <- data.frame(Block, A, B, C, Yield)

old <- getOption("contrasts")
options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.poly"))
(fit <- aov(Yield ~ A*B*C + Error(Block), data = aovdat))
eff.aovlist(fit)
options(contrasts = old)
```

effects	<i>Effects from Fitted Model</i>
---------	----------------------------------

Description

Returns (orthogonal) effects from a fitted model, usually a linear model. This is a generic function, but currently only has a methods for objects inheriting from classes "lm" and "glm".

Usage

```
effects(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
effects(object, set.sign = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

- object an R object; typically, the result of a model fitting function such as [lm](#).
- set.sign logical. If TRUE, the sign of the effects corresponding to coefficients in the model will be set to agree with the signs of the corresponding coefficients, otherwise the sign is arbitrary.
- ... arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

For a linear model fitted by `lm` or `aov`, the effects are the uncorrelated single-degree-of-freedom values obtained by projecting the data onto the successive orthogonal subspaces generated by the QR decomposition during the fitting process. The first r (the rank of the model) are associated with coefficients and the remainder span the space of residuals (but are not associated with particular residuals).

Empty models do not have effects.

Value

A (named) numeric vector of the same length as `residuals`, or a matrix if there were multiple responses in the fitted model, in either case of class "coef".

The first r rows are labelled by the corresponding coefficients, and the remaining rows are unlabelled. Note that in rank-deficient models the corresponding coefficients will be in a different order if pivoting occurred.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`coef`

Examples

```
y <- c(1:3, 7, 5)
x <- c(1:3, 6:7)
( ee <- effects(lm(y ~ x)) )
c( round(ee - effects(lm(y+10 ~ I(x-3.8))), 3) )
# just the first is different
```

embed

Embedding a Time Series

Description

Embeds the time series `x` into a low-dimensional Euclidean space.

Usage

```
embed (x, dimension = 1)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector, matrix, or time series.
<code>dimension</code>	a scalar representing the embedding dimension.

Details

Each row of the resulting matrix consists of sequences $x[t]$, $x[t-1]$, ..., $x[t-\text{dimension}+1]$, where t is the original index of x . If x is a matrix, i.e., x contains more than one variable, then $x[t]$ consists of the t th observation on each variable.

Value

A matrix containing the embedded time series x .

Author(s)

A. Trapletti, B.D. Ripley

Examples

```
x <- 1:10
embed(x, 3)
```

<code>expand.model.frame</code>	<i>Add new variables to a model frame</i>
---------------------------------	---

Description

Evaluates new variables as if they had been part of the formula of the specified model. This ensures that the same `na.action` and `subset` arguments are applied and allows, for example, x to be recovered for a model using $\sin(x)$ as a predictor.

Usage

```
expand.model.frame(model, extras,
                    envir = environment(formula(model)),
                    na.expand = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>model</code>	a fitted model
<code>extras</code>	one-sided formula or vector of character strings describing new variables to be added
<code>envir</code>	an environment to evaluate things in
<code>na.expand</code>	logical; see below

Details

If `na.expand = FALSE` then NA values in the extra variables will be passed to the `na.action` function used in `model`. This may result in a shorter data frame (with `na.omit`) or an error (with `na.fail`). If `na.expand = TRUE` the returned data frame will have precisely the same rows as `model.frame(model)`, but the columns corresponding to the extra variables may contain NA.

Value

A data frame.

See Also

[model.frame](#), [predict](#)

Examples

```
model <- lm(log(Volume) ~ log(Girth) + log(Height), data = trees)
expand.model.frame(model, ~ Girth) # prints data.frame like

dd <- data.frame(x = 1:5, y = rnorm(5), z = c(1,2,NA,4,5))
model <- glm(y ~ x, data = dd, subset = 1:4, na.action = na.omit)
expand.model.frame(model, "z", na.expand = FALSE) # = default
expand.model.frame(model, "z", na.expand = TRUE)
```

Exponential	<i>The Exponential Distribution</i>
-------------	-------------------------------------

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the exponential distribution with rate *rate* (i.e., mean $1/\text{rate}$).

Usage

```
dexp(x, rate = 1, log = FALSE)
pexp(q, rate = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qexp(p, rate = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rexp(n, rate = 1)
```

Arguments

<i>x</i> , <i>q</i>	vector of quantiles.
<i>p</i>	vector of probabilities.
<i>n</i>	number of observations. If <code>length(n) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<i>rate</i>	vector of rates.
<i>log</i> , <i>log.p</i>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <i>p</i> are given as $\log(p)$.
<i>lower.tail</i>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

If rate is not specified, it assumes the default value of 1.

The exponential distribution with rate λ has density

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$$

for $x \geq 0$.

Value

dexp gives the density, pexp gives the distribution function, qexp gives the quantile function, and rexp generates random deviates.

The length of the result is determined by n for rexp, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

The cumulative hazard $H(t) = -\log(1 - F(t))$ is `-pexp(t, r, lower = FALSE, log = TRUE)`.

Source

dexp, pexp and qexp are all calculated from numerically stable versions of the definitions.

rexp uses

Ahrens, J. H. and Dieter, U. (1972). Computer methods for sampling from the exponential and normal distributions. *Communications of the ACM*, **15**, 873–882.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 1, chapter 19. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[exp](#) for the exponential function.

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dgamma](#) for the gamma distribution and [dweibull](#) for the Weibull distribution, both of which generalize the exponential.

Examples

```
dexp(1) - exp(-1) #-> 0
```

```
## a fast way to generate *sorted* U[0,1] random numbers:
rsunif <- function(n) { n1 <- n+1
  cE <- cumsum(rexp(n1)); cE[seq_len(n)]/cE[n1] }
```

```
plot(rsunif(1000), ylim=0:1, pch=".")
abline(0,1/(1000+1), col=adjustcolor(1, 0.5))
```

extractAIC	<i>Extract AIC from a Fitted Model</i>
------------	--

Description

Computes the (generalized) Akaike **A**n **I**nformation **C**riterion for a fitted parametric model.

Usage

```
extractAIC(fit, scale, k = 2, ...)
```

Arguments

fit	fitted model, usually the result of a fitter like lm .
scale	optional numeric specifying the scale parameter of the model, see scale in step . Currently only used in the "lm" method, where scale specifies the estimate of the error variance, and scale = 0 indicates that it is to be estimated by maximum likelihood.
k	numeric specifying the 'weight' of the <i>equivalent degrees of freedom</i> (\equiv edf) part in the AIC formula.
...	further arguments (currently unused in base R).

Details

This is a generic function, with methods in base R for classes "aov", "glm" and "lm" as well as for "negbin" (package **MASS**) and "coxph" and "survreg" (package **survival**).

The criterion used is

$$AIC = -2 \log L + k \times \text{edf},$$

where L is the likelihood and edf the equivalent degrees of freedom (i.e., the number of free parameters for usual parametric models) of fit.

For linear models with unknown scale (i.e., for [lm](#) and [aov](#)), $-2 \log L$ is computed from the *deviance* and uses a different additive constant to [logLik](#) and hence [AIC](#). If RSS denotes the (weighted) residual sum of squares then extractAIC uses for $-2 \log L$ the formulae $RSS/s - n$ (corresponding to Mallows' C_p) in the case of known scale s and $n \log(RSS/n)$ for unknown scale. [AIC](#) only handles unknown scale and uses the formula $n \log(RSS/n) + n + n \log 2\pi - \sum \log w$ where w are the weights. Further AIC counts the scale estimation as a parameter in the edf and extractAIC does not.

For glm fits the family's `aic()` function is used to compute the AIC: see the note under `logLik` about the assumptions this makes.

$k = 2$ corresponds to the traditional AIC, using $k = \log(n)$ provides the BIC (Bayesian IC) instead.

Note that the methods for this function may differ in their assumptions from those of methods for [AIC](#) (usually *via* a method for [logLik](#)). We have already mentioned the case of "lm" models with estimated scale, and there are similar issues in the "glm" and "negbin" methods where the dispersion parameter may or may not be taken as 'free'. This is immaterial as `extractAIC` is only used to compare models of the same class (where only differences in AIC values are considered).

Value

A numeric vector of length 2, with first and second elements giving

<code>edf</code>	the 'equivalent degrees of freedom' for the fitted model fit.
<code>AIC</code>	the (generalized) Akaike Information Criterion for fit.

Note

This function is used in [add1](#), [drop1](#) and [step](#) and the similar functions in package **MASS** from which it was adopted.

Author(s)

B. D. Ripley

References

Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. New York: Springer (4th ed).

See Also

[AIC](#), [deviance](#), [add1](#), [step](#)

Examples

```
utils::example(glm)
extractAIC(glm.D93) #>> 5 15.129
```

factanal

Factor Analysis

Description

Perform maximum-likelihood factor analysis on a covariance matrix or data matrix.

Usage

```
factanal(x, factors, data = NULL, covmat = NULL, n.obs = NA,
         subset, na.action, start = NULL,
         scores = c("none", "regression", "Bartlett"),
         rotation = "varimax", control = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A formula or a numeric matrix or an object that can be coerced to a numeric matrix.
<code>factors</code>	The number of factors to be fitted.
<code>data</code>	An optional data frame (or similar: see model.frame), used only if <code>x</code> is a formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
<code>covmat</code>	A covariance matrix, or a covariance list as returned by cov.wt . Of course, correlation matrices are covariance matrices.
<code>n.obs</code>	The number of observations, used if <code>covmat</code> is a covariance matrix.
<code>subset</code>	A specification of the cases to be used, if <code>x</code> is used as a matrix or formula.
<code>na.action</code>	The <code>na.action</code> to be used if <code>x</code> is used as a formula.
<code>start</code>	NULL or a matrix of starting values, each column giving an initial set of uniquenesses.
<code>scores</code>	Type of scores to produce, if any. The default is none, "regression" gives Thompson's scores, "Bartlett" given Bartlett's weighted least-squares scores. Partial matching allows these names to be abbreviated.
<code>rotation</code>	character. "none" or the name of a function to be used to rotate the factors: it will be called with first argument the loadings matrix, and should return a list with component loadings giving the rotated loadings, or just the rotated loadings.
<code>control</code>	A list of control values, nstart The number of starting values to be tried if <code>start = NULL</code> . Default 1. trace logical. Output tracing information? Default FALSE. lower The lower bound for uniquenesses during optimization. Should be > 0. Default 0.005. opt A list of control values to be passed to optim 's <code>control</code> argument. rotate a list of additional arguments for the rotation function.
<code>...</code>	Components of <code>control</code> can also be supplied as named arguments to <code>factanal</code> .

Details

The factor analysis model is

$$x = \Lambda f + e$$

for a p -element vector x , a $p \times k$ matrix Λ of *loadings*, a k -element vector f of *scores* and a p -element vector e of errors. None of the components other than x is observed, but the major restriction is that the scores be uncorrelated and of unit variance, and that the errors be independent with variances Ψ , the *uniquenesses*. It is also common to scale the observed variables to unit variance, and done in this function.

Thus factor analysis is in essence a model for the correlation matrix of x ,

$$\Sigma = \Lambda \Lambda' + \Psi$$

There is still some indeterminacy in the model for it is unchanged if Λ is replaced by $G\Lambda$ for any orthogonal matrix G . Such matrices G are known as *rotations* (although the term is applied also to non-orthogonal invertible matrices).

If `covmat` is supplied it is used. Otherwise `x` is used if it is a matrix, or a formula `x` is used with data to construct a model matrix, and that is used to construct a covariance matrix. (It makes no sense for the formula to have a response, and all the variables must be numeric.) Once a covariance matrix is found or calculated from `x`, it is converted to a correlation matrix for analysis. The correlation matrix is returned as component `correlation` of the result.

The fit is done by optimizing the log likelihood assuming multivariate normality over the uniquenesses. (The maximizing loadings for given uniquenesses can be found analytically: Lawley & Maxwell (1971, p. 27).) All the starting values supplied in `start` are tried in turn and the best fit obtained is used. If `start = NULL` then the first fit is started at the value suggested by Jöreskog (1963) and given by Lawley & Maxwell (1971, p. 31), and then `control$start - 1` other values are tried, randomly selected as equal values of the uniquenesses.

The uniquenesses are technically constrained to lie in $[0, 1]$, but near-zero values are problematical, and the optimization is done with a lower bound of `control$lower`, default 0.005 (Lawley & Maxwell, 1971, p. 32).

Scores can only be produced if a data matrix is supplied and used. The first method is the regression method of Thomson (1951), the second the weighted least squares method of Bartlett (1937, 8). Both are estimates of the unobserved scores f . Thomson's method regresses (in the population) the unknown f on x to yield

$$\hat{f} = \Lambda' \Sigma^{-1} x$$

and then substitutes the sample estimates of the quantities on the right-hand side. Bartlett's method minimizes the sum of squares of standardized errors over the choice of f , given (the fitted) Λ .

If `x` is a formula then the standard NA-handling is applied to the scores (if requested): see [napredict](#).

The `print` method (documented under [loadings](#)) follows the factor analysis convention of drawing attention to the patterns of the results, so the default precision is three decimal places, and small loadings are suppressed.

Value

An object of class "factanal" with components

<code>loadings</code>	A matrix of loadings, one column for each factor. The factors are ordered in decreasing order of sums of squares of loadings, and given the sign that will make the sum of the loadings positive. This is of class "loadings": see loadings for its <code>print</code> method.
<code>uniquenesses</code>	The uniquenesses computed.
<code>correlation</code>	The correlation matrix used.
<code>criteria</code>	The results of the optimization: the value of the criterion (a linear function of the negative log-likelihood) and information on the iterations used.
<code>factors</code>	The argument factors.
<code>dof</code>	The number of degrees of freedom of the factor analysis model.
<code>method</code>	The method: always "mle".
<code>rotmat</code>	The rotation matrix if relevant.
<code>scores</code>	If requested, a matrix of scores. <code>napredict</code> is applied to handle the treatment of values omitted by the <code>na.action</code> .

n.obs	The number of observations if available, or NA.
call	The matched call.
na.action	If relevant.
STATISTIC, PVAL	The significance-test statistic and P value, if it can be computed.

Note

There are so many variations on factor analysis that it is hard to compare output from different programs. Further, the optimization in maximum likelihood factor analysis is hard, and many other examples we compared had less good fits than produced by this function. In particular, solutions which are ‘Heywood cases’ (with one or more uniquenesses essentially zero) are much more common than most texts and some other programs would lead one to believe.

References

- Bartlett, M. S. (1937) The statistical conception of mental factors. *British Journal of Psychology*, **28**, 97–104.
- Bartlett, M. S. (1938) Methods of estimating mental factors. *Nature*, **141**, 609–610.
- Jöreskog, K. G. (1963) *Statistical Estimation in Factor Analysis*. Almqvist and Wicksell.
- Lawley, D. N. and Maxwell, A. E. (1971) *Factor Analysis as a Statistical Method*. Second edition. Butterworths.
- Thomson, G. H. (1951) *The Factorial Analysis of Human Ability*. London University Press.

See Also

[loadings](#) (which explains some details of the print method), [varimax](#), [princomp](#), [ability.cov](#), [Harman23.cor](#), [Harman74.cor](#).

Other rotation methods are available in various contributed packages, including **GPArotation** and **psych**.

Examples

```
# A little demonstration, v2 is just v1 with noise,
# and same for v4 vs. v3 and v6 vs. v5
# Last four cases are there to add noise
# and introduce a positive manifold (g factor)
v1 <- c(1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,3,3,3,3,3,4,5,6)
v2 <- c(1,2,1,1,1,1,2,1,2,1,3,4,3,3,3,4,6,5)
v3 <- c(3,3,3,3,3,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,5,4,6)
v4 <- c(3,3,4,3,3,1,1,2,1,1,1,1,2,1,1,5,6,4)
v5 <- c(1,1,1,1,1,3,3,3,3,3,1,1,1,1,1,6,4,5)
v6 <- c(1,1,1,2,1,3,3,3,4,3,1,1,1,2,1,6,5,4)
m1 <- cbind(v1,v2,v3,v4,v5,v6)
cor(m1)
factanal(m1, factors = 3) # varimax is the default
factanal(m1, factors = 3, rotation = "promax")
# The following shows the g factor as PC1
```

```
prcomp(m1) # signs may depend on platform

## formula interface
factanal(~v1+v2+v3+v4+v5+v6, factors = 3,
         scores = "Bartlett")$scores

## a realistic example from Bartholomew (1987, pp. 61-65)
utils::example(ability.cov)
```

factor.scope	<i>Compute Allowed Changes in Adding to or Dropping from a Formula</i>
--------------	--

Description

add.scope and drop.scope compute those terms that can be individually added to or dropped from a model while respecting the hierarchy of terms.

Usage

```
add.scope(terms1, terms2)

drop.scope(terms1, terms2)

factor.scope(factor, scope)
```

Arguments

- terms1 the terms or formula for the base model.
- terms2 the terms or formula for the upper (add.scope) or lower (drop.scope) scope. If missing for drop.scope it is taken to be the null formula, so all terms (except any intercept) are candidates to be dropped.
- factor the "factor" attribute of the terms of the base object.
- scope a list with one or both components drop and add giving the "factor" attribute of the lower and upper scopes respectively.

Details

factor.scope is not intended to be called directly by users.

Value

For add.scope and drop.scope a character vector of terms labels. For factor.scope, a list with components drop and add, character vectors of terms labels.

See Also

```
add1, drop1, aov, lm
```

Examples

```
add.scope( ~ a + b + c + a:b, ~ (a + b + c)^3)
# [1] "a:c" "b:c"
drop.scope( ~ a + b + c + a:b)
# [1] "c"   "a:b"
```

family

*Family Objects for Models***Description**

Family objects provide a convenient way to specify the details of the models used by functions such as `glm`. See the documentation for `glm` for the details on how such model fitting takes place.

Usage

```
family(object, ...)

binomial(link = "logit")
gaussian(link = "identity")
Gamma(link = "inverse")
inverse.gaussian(link = "1/mu^2")
poisson(link = "log")
quasi(link = "identity", variance = "constant")
quasibinomial(link = "logit")
quasipoisson(link = "log")
```

Arguments

link	<p>a specification for the model link function. This can be a name/expression, a literal character string, a length-one character vector or an object of class <code>"link-glm"</code> (such as generated by <code>make.link</code>) provided it is not specified <i>via</i> one of the standard names given next.</p> <p>The gaussian family accepts the links (as names) identity, log and inverse; the binomial family the links logit, probit, cauchit, (corresponding to logistic, normal and Cauchy CDFs respectively) log and cloglog (complementary log-log); the Gamma family the links inverse, identity and log; the poisson family the links log, identity, and sqrt and the inverse.gaussian family the links 1/mu^2, inverse, identity and log.</p> <p>The quasi family accepts the links logit, probit, cloglog, identity, inverse, log, 1/mu^2 and sqrt, and the function <code>power</code> can be used to create a power link function.</p>
variance	<p>for all families other than quasi, the variance function is determined by the family. The quasi family will accept the literal character string (or unquoted as a name/expression) specifications "constant", "mu(1-mu)", "mu", "mu^2" and "mu^3", a length-one character vector taking one of those values, or a list containing components <code>varfun</code>, <code>validmu</code>, <code>dev.resids</code>, <code>initialize</code> and <code>name</code>.</p>

object	the function <code>family</code> accesses the family objects which are stored within objects created by modelling functions (e.g., <code>glm</code>).
...	further arguments passed to methods.

Details

`family` is a generic function with methods for classes `"glm"` and `"lm"` (the latter returning `gaussian()`).

For the binomial and quasibinomial families the response can be specified in one of three ways:

1. As a factor: 'success' is interpreted as the factor not having the first level (and hence usually of having the second level).
2. As a numerical vector with values between 0 and 1, interpreted as the proportion of successful cases (with the total number of cases given by the weights).
3. As a two-column integer matrix: the first column gives the number of successes and the second the number of failures.

The quasibinomial and quasipoisson families differ from the binomial and poisson families only in that the dispersion parameter is not fixed at one, so they can model over-dispersion. For the binomial case see McCullagh and Nelder (1989, pp. 124–8). Although they show that there is (under some restrictions) a model with variance proportional to mean as in the quasi-binomial model, note that `glm` does not compute maximum-likelihood estimates in that model. The behaviour of `S` is closer to the quasi- variants.

Value

An object of class `"family"` (which has a concise print method). This is a list with elements

<code>family</code>	character: the family name.
<code>link</code>	character: the link name.
<code>linkfun</code>	function: the link.
<code>linkinv</code>	function: the inverse of the link function.
<code>variance</code>	function: the variance as a function of the mean.
<code>dev.resids</code>	function giving the deviance residuals as a function of (y, μ, wt) .
<code>aic</code>	function giving the AIC value if appropriate (but NA for the quasi- families). See logLik for the assumptions made about the dispersion parameter.
<code>mu.eta</code>	function: derivative function(η) $d\mu/d\eta$.
<code>initialize</code>	expression. This needs to set up whatever data objects are needed for the family as well as <code>n</code> (needed for AIC in the binomial family) and <code>mustart</code> (see glm).
<code>validmu</code>	logical function. Returns TRUE if a mean vector μ is within the domain of variance.
<code>valideta</code>	logical function. Returns TRUE if a linear predictor η is within the domain of <code>linkinv</code> .
<code>simulate</code>	(optional) function <code>simulate(object, nsim)</code> to be called by the <code>"lm"</code> method of simulate . It will normally return a matrix with <code>nsim</code> columns and one row for each fitted value, but it can also return a list of length <code>nsim</code> . Clearly this will be missing for 'quasi-' families.

Note

The link and variance arguments have rather awkward semantics for back-compatibility. The recommended way is to supply them as quoted character strings, but they can also be supplied unquoted (as names or expressions). In addition, they can also be supplied as a length-one character vector giving the name of one of the options, or as a list (for link, of class "link-glm"). The restrictions apply only to links given as names: when given as a character string all the links known to `make.link` are accepted.

This is potentially ambiguous: supplying `link = logit` could mean the unquoted name of a link or the value of object `logit`. It is interpreted if possible as the name of an allowed link, then as an object. (You can force the interpretation to always be the value of an object via `logit[1]`.)

Author(s)

The design was inspired by S functions of the same names described in Hastie & Pregibon (1992) (except quasibinomial and quasipoisson).

References

- McCullagh P. and Nelder, J. A. (1989) *Generalized Linear Models*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Dobson, A. J. (1983) *An Introduction to Statistical Modelling*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Cox, D. R. and Snell, E. J. (1981). *Applied Statistics; Principles and Examples*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Hastie, T. J. and Pregibon, D. (1992) *Generalized linear models*. Chapter 6 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`glm`, `power`, `make.link`.

For binomial *coefficients*, `choose`; the binomial and negative binomial *distributions*, `Binomial`, and `NegBinomial`.

Examples

```
require(utils) # for str

nf <- gaussian() # Normal family
nf
str(nf)

gf <- Gamma()
gf
str(gf)
gf$linkinv
gf$variance(-3:4) #- == (.)^2

## quasipoisson. compare with example(glm)
counts <- c(18,17,15,20,10,20,25,13,12)
outcome <- gl(3,1,9)
```



```

treatment <- gl(3,3)
d.AD <- data.frame(treatment, outcome, counts)
glm.qD93 <- glm(counts ~ outcome + treatment, family = quasipoisson())

glm.qD93
anova(glm.qD93, test = "F")
summary(glm.qD93)
## for Poisson results use
anova(glm.qD93, dispersion = 1, test = "Chisq")
summary(glm.qD93, dispersion = 1)

## Example of user-specified link, a logit model for p^days
## See Shaffer, T. 2004. Auk 121(2): 526-540.
logexp <- function(days = 1)
{
  linkfun <- function(mu) qlogis(mu^(1/days))
  linkinv <- function(eta) plogis(eta)^days
  mu.eta <- function(eta) days * plogis(eta)^(days-1) * binomial()$mu_eta
  valideta <- function(eta) TRUE
  link <- paste0("logexp(", days, ")")
  structure(list(linkfun = linkfun, linkinv = linkinv,
                 mu.eta = mu.eta, valideta = valideta, name = link),
            class = "link-glm")
}
binomial(logexp(3))
## in practice this would be used with a vector of 'days', in
## which case use an offset of 0 in the corresponding formula
## to get the null deviance right.

## Binomial with identity link: often not a good idea.
## Not run: binomial(link = make.link("identity"))

## tests of quasi
x <- rnorm(100)
y <- rpois(100, exp(1+x))
glm(y ~ x, family = quasi(variance = "mu", link = "log"))
# which is the same as
glm(y ~ x, family = poisson)
glm(y ~ x, family = quasi(variance = "mu^2", link = "log"))
## Not run: glm(y ~ x, family = quasi(variance = "mu^3", link = "log")) # fails
y <- rbinom(100, 1, plogis(x))
# needs to set a starting value for the next fit
glm(y ~ x, family = quasi(variance = "mu(1-mu)", link = "logit"), start = c(0,1))

```

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the F distribution with df1 and df2 degrees of freedom (and optional non-centrality parameter ncp).

Usage

```
df(x, df1, df2, ncp, log = FALSE)
pf(q, df1, df2, ncp, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qf(p, df1, df2, ncp, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rf(n, df1, df2, ncp)
```

Arguments

<code>x, q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>n</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(n) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>df1, df2</code>	degrees of freedom. Inf is allowed.
<code>ncp</code>	non-centrality parameter. If omitted the central F is assumed.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as <code>log(p)</code> .
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The F distribution with $df1 = n_1$ and $df2 = n_2$ degrees of freedom has density

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(n_1/2 + n_2/2)}{\Gamma(n_1/2)\Gamma(n_2/2)} \left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^{n_1/2} x^{n_1/2-1} \left(1 + \frac{n_1 x}{n_2}\right)^{-(n_1+n_2)/2}$$

for $x > 0$.

It is the distribution of the ratio of the mean squares of n_1 and n_2 independent standard normals, and hence of the ratio of two independent chi-squared variates each divided by its degrees of freedom. Since the ratio of a normal and the root mean-square of m independent normals has a Student's t_m distribution, the square of a t_m variate has a F distribution on 1 and m degrees of freedom.

The non-central F distribution is again the ratio of mean squares of independent normals of unit variance, but those in the numerator are allowed to have non-zero means and `ncp` is the sum of squares of the means. See [Chisquare](#) for further details on non-central distributions.

Value

`df` gives the density, `pf` gives the distribution function `qf` gives the quantile function, and `rf` generates random deviates.

Invalid arguments will result in return value `NaN`, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by `n` for `rf`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `n` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

Supplying `ncp = 0` uses the algorithm for the non-central distribution, which is not the same algorithm used if `ncp` is omitted. This is to give consistent behaviour in extreme cases with values of `ncp` very near zero.

The code for non-zero `ncp` is principally intended to be used for moderate values of `ncp`: it will not be highly accurate, especially in the tails, for large values.

Source

For the central case of `df`, computed *via* a binomial probability, code contributed by Catherine Loader (see [dbinom](#)); for the non-central case computed *via* [dbeta](#), code contributed by Peter Ruckdeschel.

For `pf`, *via* [pbeta](#) (or for large `df2`, *via* [pchisq](#)).

For `qf`, *via* [qchisq](#) for large `df2`, else *via* [qbeta](#).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 2, chapters 27 and 30. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dchisq](#) for chi-squared and [dt](#) for Student's *t* distributions.

Examples

```
## Equivalence of pt(.,nu) with pf(.^2, 1,nu):
x <- seq(0.001, 5, len = 100)
nu <- 4
stopifnot(all.equal(2*pt(x,nu) - 1, pf(x^2, 1,nu)),
  ## upper tails:
  all.equal(2*pt(x, nu, lower=FALSE),
    pf(x^2, 1,nu, lower=FALSE)))

## the density of the square of a t_m is 2*dt(x, m)/(2*x)
# check this is the same as the density of F_{1,m}
all.equal(df(x^2, 1, 5), dt(x, 5)/x)

## Identity: qf(2*p - 1, 1, df)) == qt(p, df)^2 for p >= 1/2
p <- seq(1/2, .99, length = 50); df <- 10
rel.err <- function(x, y) ifelse(x == y, 0, abs(x-y)/mean(abs(c(x,y))))
quantile(rel.err(qf(2*p - 1, df1 = 1, df2 = df), qt(p, df)^2), .90) # ~ = 7e-9
```

 fft

Fast Discrete Fourier Transform (FFT)

Description

Computes the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) of an array with a fast algorithm, the “Fast Fourier Transform” (FFT).

Usage

```
fft(z, inverse = FALSE)
mvfft(z, inverse = FALSE)
```

Arguments

z	a real or complex array containing the values to be transformed.
inverse	if TRUE, the unnormalized inverse transform is computed (the inverse has a + in the exponent of e , but here, we do <i>not</i> divide by $1/\text{length}(x)$).

Value

When z is a vector, the value computed and returned by `fft` is the unnormalized univariate discrete Fourier transform of the sequence of values in z . Specifically, `y <- fft(z)` returns

$$y[h] = \sum_{k=1}^n z[k] \exp(-2\pi i(k-1)(h-1)/n)$$

for $h = 1, \dots, n$ where $n = \text{length}(y)$. If `inverse` is TRUE, $\exp(-2\pi \dots)$ is replaced with $\exp(2\pi \dots)$.

When z contains an array, `fft` computes and returns the multivariate (spatial) transform. If `inverse` is TRUE, the (unnormalized) inverse Fourier transform is returned, i.e., if `y <- fft(z)`, then z is `fft(y, inverse = TRUE) / length(y)`.

By contrast, `mvfft` takes a real or complex matrix as argument, and returns a similar shaped matrix, but with each column replaced by its discrete Fourier transform. This is useful for analyzing vector-valued series.

The FFT is fastest when the length of the series being transformed is highly composite (i.e., has many factors). If this is not the case, the transform may take a long time to compute and will use a large amount of memory.

Source

Uses C translation of Fortran code in Singleton (1979).

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Singleton, R. C. (1979) Mixed Radix Fast Fourier Transforms, in *Programs for Digital Signal Processing*, IEEE Digital Signal Processing Committee eds. IEEE Press.
- Cooley, James W., and Tukey, John W. (1965) An algorithm for the machine calculation of complex Fourier series, *Math. Comput.* **19**(90), 297–301. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1090/S0025-5718-1965-0178586-1>

See Also

[convolve](#), [nextn](#).

Examples

```
x <- 1:4
fft(x)
fft(fft(x), inverse = TRUE)/length(x)

## Slow Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) - e.g., for checking the formula
fft0 <- function(z, inverse=FALSE) {
  n <- length(z)
  if(n == 0) return(z)
  k <- 0:(n-1)
  ff <- (if(inverse) 1 else -1) * 2*pi * 1i * k/n
  vapply(1:n, function(h) sum(z * exp(ff*(h-1))), complex(1))
}

reld <- function(x,y) 2* abs(x - y) / abs(x + y)
n <- 2^8
z <- complex(n, rnorm(n), rnorm(n))
## relative differences in the order of 4*10^{-14} :
summary(reld(fft(z), fft0(z)))
summary(reld(fft(z, inverse=TRUE), fft0(z, inverse=TRUE)))
```

filter

Linear Filtering on a Time Series

Description

Applies linear filtering to a univariate time series or to each series separately of a multivariate time series.

Usage

```
filter(x, filter, method = c("convolution", "recursive"),
       sides = 2, circular = FALSE, init)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a univariate or multivariate time series.
<code>filter</code>	a vector of filter coefficients in reverse time order (as for AR or MA coefficients).
<code>method</code>	Either "convolution" or "recursive" (and can be abbreviated). If "convolution" a moving average is used: if "recursive" an autoregression is used.
<code>sides</code>	for convolution filters only. If <code>sides = 1</code> the filter coefficients are for past values only; if <code>sides = 2</code> they are centred around lag 0. In this case the length of the filter should be odd, but if it is even, more of the filter is forward in time than backward.
<code>circular</code>	for convolution filters only. If TRUE, wrap the filter around the ends of the series, otherwise assume external values are missing (NA).
<code>init</code>	for recursive filters only. Specifies the initial values of the time series just prior to the start value, in reverse time order. The default is a set of zeros.

Details

Missing values are allowed in `x` but not in `filter` (where they would lead to missing values everywhere in the output).

Note that there is an implied coefficient 1 at lag 0 in the recursive filter, which gives

$$y_i = x_i + f_1 y_{i-1} + \cdots + f_p y_{i-p}$$

No check is made to see if recursive filter is invertible: the output may diverge if it is not.

The convolution filter is

$$y_i = f_1 x_{i+o} + \cdots + f_p x_{i+o-(p-1)}$$

where `o` is the offset: see `sides` for how it is determined.

Value

A time series object.

Note

`convolve(, type = "filter")` uses the FFT for computations and so *may* be faster for long filters on univariate series, but it does not return a time series (and so the time alignment is unclear), nor does it handle missing values. `filter` is faster for a filter of length 100 on a series of length 1000, for example.

See Also

`convolve`, `arima.sim`

Examples

```
x <- 1:100
filter(x, rep(1, 3))
filter(x, rep(1, 3), sides = 1)
filter(x, rep(1, 3), sides = 1, circular = TRUE)

filter(presidents, rep(1, 3))
```

fisher.test	<i>Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data</i>
-------------	---

Description

Performs Fisher's exact test for testing the null of independence of rows and columns in a contingency table with fixed marginals.

Usage

```
fisher.test(x, y = NULL, workspace = 200000, hybrid = FALSE,
            control = list(), or = 1, alternative = "two.sided",
            conf.int = TRUE, conf.level = 0.95,
            simulate.p.value = FALSE, B = 2000)
```

Arguments

x	either a two-dimensional contingency table in matrix form, or a factor object.
y	a factor object; ignored if x is a matrix.
workspace	an integer specifying the size of the workspace used in the network algorithm. In units of 4 bytes. Only used for non-simulated p-values larger than 2×2 tables.
hybrid	a logical. Only used for larger than 2×2 tables, in which cases it indicates whether the exact probabilities (default) or a hybrid approximation thereof should be computed. See 'Details'.
control	a list with named components for low level algorithm control. At present the only one used is "mult", a positive integer ≥ 2 with default 30 used only for larger than 2×2 tables. This says how many times as much space should be allocated to paths as to keys: see file 'fexact.c' in the sources of this package.
or	the hypothesized odds ratio. Only used in the 2×2 case.
alternative	indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided", "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter. Only used in the 2×2 case.
conf.int	logical indicating if a confidence interval for the odds ratio in a 2×2 table should be computed (and returned).
conf.level	confidence level for the returned confidence interval. Only used in the 2×2 case and if conf.int = TRUE.

`simulate.p.value` a logical indicating whether to compute p-values by Monte Carlo simulation, in larger than 2×2 tables.

`B` an integer specifying the number of replicates used in the Monte Carlo test.

Details

If `x` is a matrix, it is taken as a two-dimensional contingency table, and hence its entries should be nonnegative integers. Otherwise, both `x` and `y` must be vectors of the same length. Incomplete cases are removed, the vectors are coerced into factor objects, and the contingency table is computed from these.

For 2×2 cases, p-values are obtained directly using the (central or non-central) hypergeometric distribution. Otherwise, computations are based on a C version of the FORTRAN subroutine FEXACT which implements the network developed by Mehta and Patel (1986) and improved by Clarkson, Fan and Joe (1993). The FORTRAN code can be obtained from <http://www.netlib.org/toms/643>. Note this fails (with an error message) when the entries of the table are too large. (It transposes the table if necessary so it has no more rows than columns. One constraint is that the product of the row marginals be less than $2^{31} - 1$.)

For 2×2 tables, the null of conditional independence is equivalent to the hypothesis that the odds ratio equals one. ‘Exact’ inference can be based on observing that in general, given all marginal totals fixed, the first element of the contingency table has a non-central hypergeometric distribution with non-centrality parameter given by the odds ratio (Fisher, 1935). The alternative for a one-sided test is based on the odds ratio, so `alternative = "greater"` is a test of the odds ratio being bigger than or.

Two-sided tests are based on the probabilities of the tables, and take as ‘more extreme’ all tables with probabilities less than or equal to that of the observed table, the p-value being the sum of such probabilities.

For larger than 2×2 tables and `hybrid = TRUE`, asymptotic chi-squared probabilities are only used if the ‘Cochran conditions’ are satisfied, that is if no cell has count zero, and more than 80% of the cells have counts at least 5: otherwise the exact calculation is used.

Simulation is done conditional on the row and column marginals, and works only if the marginals are strictly positive. (A C translation of the algorithm of Patefield (1981) is used.)

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

`p.value` the p-value of the test.

`conf.int` a confidence interval for the odds ratio. Only present in the 2×2 case and if argument `conf.int = TRUE`.

`estimate` an estimate of the odds ratio. Note that the *conditional* Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE) rather than the unconditional MLE (the sample odds ratio) is used. Only present in the 2×2 case.

`null.value` the odds ratio under the null, or. Only present in the 2×2 case.

`alternative` a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.

`method` the character string "Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data".

`data.name` a character string giving the names of the data.

References

- Agresti, A. (1990) *Categorical data analysis*. New York: Wiley. Pages 59–66.
- Agresti, A. (2002) *Categorical data analysis*. Second edition. New York: Wiley. Pages 91–101.
- Fisher, R. A. (1935) The logic of inductive inference. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series A* **98**, 39–54.
- Fisher, R. A. (1962) Confidence limits for a cross-product ratio. *Australian Journal of Statistics* **4**, 41.
- Fisher, R. A. (1970) *Statistical Methods for Research Workers*. Oliver & Boyd.
- Mehta, C. R. and Patel, N. R. (1986) Algorithm 643. FEXACT: A Fortran subroutine for Fisher's exact test on unordered $r \times c$ contingency tables. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **12**, 154–161.
- Clarkson, D. B., Fan, Y. and Joe, H. (1993) A Remark on Algorithm 643: FEXACT: An Algorithm for Performing Fisher's Exact Test in $r \times c$ Contingency Tables. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **19**, 484–488.
- Patefield, W. M. (1981) Algorithm AS159. An efficient method of generating $r \times c$ tables with given row and column totals. *Applied Statistics* **30**, 91–97.

See Also

[chisq.test](#)

fisher.exact in package **exact2x2** for alternative interpretations of two-sided tests and confidence intervals for 2×2 tables.

Examples

```
## Agresti (1990, p. 61f; 2002, p. 91) Fisher's Tea Drinker
## A British woman claimed to be able to distinguish whether milk or
## tea was added to the cup first. To test, she was given 8 cups of
## tea, in four of which milk was added first. The null hypothesis
## is that there is no association between the true order of pouring
## and the woman's guess, the alternative that there is a positive
## association (that the odds ratio is greater than 1).
TeaTasting <-
matrix(c(3, 1, 1, 3),
      nrow = 2,
      dimnames = list(Guess = c("Milk", "Tea"),
                      Truth = c("Milk", "Tea")))
fisher.test(TeaTasting, alternative = "greater")
## => p = 0.2429, association could not be established

## Fisher (1962, 1970), Criminal convictions of like-sex twins
Convictions <-
matrix(c(2, 10, 15, 3),
      nrow = 2,
      dimnames =
      list(c("Dizygotic", "Monozygotic"),
           c("Convicted", "Not convicted")))
Convictions
```

```

fisher.test(Convictions, alternative = "less")
fisher.test(Convictions, conf.int = FALSE)
fisher.test(Convictions, conf.level = 0.95)$conf.int
fisher.test(Convictions, conf.level = 0.99)$conf.int

## A r x c table Agresti (2002, p. 57) Job Satisfaction
Job <- matrix(c(1,2,1,0, 3,3,6,1, 10,10,14,9, 6,7,12,11), 4, 4,
dimnames = list(income = c("< 15k", "15-25k", "25-40k", "> 40k"),
satisfaction = c("VeryD", "LittleD", "ModerateS", "VeryS")))
fisher.test(Job)
fisher.test(Job, simulate.p.value = TRUE, B = 1e5)

```

fitted

Extract Model Fitted Values

Description

`fitted` is a generic function which extracts fitted values from objects returned by modeling functions. `fitted.values` is an alias for it.

All object classes which are returned by model fitting functions should provide a `fitted` method. (Note that the generic is `fitted` and not `fitted.values`.)

Methods can make use of [napredict](#) methods to compensate for the omission of missing values. The default and [nls](#) methods do.

Usage

```

fitted(object, ...)
fitted.values(object, ...)

```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	an object for which the extraction of model fitted values is meaningful.
<code>...</code>	other arguments.

Value

Fitted values extracted from the object `object`.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[coefficients](#), [glm](#), [lm](#), [residuals](#).

fivenum	<i>Tukey Five-Number Summaries</i>
---------	------------------------------------

Description

Returns Tukey's five number summary (minimum, lower-hinge, median, upper-hinge, maximum) for the input data.

Usage

```
fivenum(x, na.rm = TRUE)
```

Arguments

x	numeric, maybe including NAs and \pm Infs.
na.rm	logical; if TRUE, all NA and NaNs are dropped, before the statistics are computed.

Value

A numeric vector of length 5 containing the summary information. See [boxplot.stats](#) for more details.

See Also

[IQR](#), [boxplot.stats](#), [median](#), [quantile](#), [range](#).

Examples

```
fivenum(c(rnorm(100), -1:1/0))
```

fligner.test	<i>Fligner-Killeen Test of Homogeneity of Variances</i>
--------------	---

Description

Performs a Fligner-Killeen (median) test of the null that the variances in each of the groups (samples) are the same.

Usage

```
fligner.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
fligner.test(x, g, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
fligner.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector of data values, or a list of numeric data vectors.
g	a vector or factor object giving the group for the corresponding elements of x. Ignored if x is a list.
formula	a formula of the form <code>lhs ~ rhs</code> where lhs gives the data values and rhs the corresponding groups.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see <code>model.frame</code>) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

If x is a list, its elements are taken as the samples to be compared for homogeneity of variances, and hence have to be numeric data vectors. In this case, g is ignored, and one can simply use `fligner.test(x)` to perform the test. If the samples are not yet contained in a list, use `fligner.test(list(x, ...))`.

Otherwise, x must be a numeric data vector, and g must be a vector or factor object of the same length as x giving the group for the corresponding elements of x.

The Fligner-Killeen (median) test has been determined in a simulation study as one of the many tests for homogeneity of variances which is most robust against departures from normality, see Conover, Johnson & Johnson (1981). It is a k -sample simple linear rank which uses the ranks of the absolute values of the centered samples and weights $a(i) = \text{qnorm}((1 + i/(n + 1))/2)$. The version implemented here uses median centering in each of the samples (F-K:med X^2 in the reference).

Value

A list of class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the Fligner-Killeen:med X^2 test statistic.
parameter	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
method	the character string "Fligner-Killeen test of homogeneity of variances".
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

William J. Conover, Mark E. Johnson and Myrle M. Johnson (1981). A comparative study of tests for homogeneity of variances, with applications to the outer continental shelf bidding data. *Technometrics* **23**, 351–361.

See Also

[ansari.test](#) and [mood.test](#) for rank-based two-sample test for a difference in scale parameters;
[var.test](#) and [bartlett.test](#) for parametric tests for the homogeneity of variances.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

plot(count ~ spray, data = InsectSprays)
fligner.test(InsectSprays$count, InsectSprays$spray)
fligner.test(count ~ spray, data = InsectSprays)
## Compare this to bartlett.test()
```

formula

*Model Formulae***Description**

The generic function `formula` and its specific methods provide a way of extracting formulae which have been included in other objects.

`as.formula` is almost identical, additionally preserving attributes when object already inherits from "formula".

Usage

```
formula(x, ...)
as.formula(object, env = parent.frame())

## S3 method for class 'formula'
print(x, showEnv = !identical(e, .GlobalEnv), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, object</code>	R object.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.
<code>env</code>	the environment to associate with the result, if not already a formula.
<code>showEnv</code>	logical indicating if the environment should be printed as well.

Details

The models fit by, e.g., the [lm](#) and [glm](#) functions are specified in a compact symbolic form. The `~` operator is basic in the formation of such models. An expression of the form `y ~ model` is interpreted as a specification that the response `y` is modelled by a linear predictor specified symbolically by `model`. Such a model consists of a series of terms separated by `+` operators. The terms themselves consist of variable and factor names separated by `:` operators. Such a term is interpreted as the interaction of all the variables and factors appearing in the term.

In addition to `+` and `:`, a number of other operators are useful in model formulae. The `*` operator denotes factor crossing: `a*b` interpreted as `a+b+a:b`. The `^` operator indicates crossing to the specified degree. For example `(a+b+c)^2` is identical to `(a+b+c)*(a+b+c)` which in turn expands to a formula containing the main effects for `a`, `b` and `c` together with their second-order interactions. The `%in%` operator indicates that the terms on its left are nested within those on the right. For example `a + b %in% a` expands to the formula `a + a:b`. The `-` operator removes the specified terms, so that `(a+b+c)^2 - a:b` is identical to `a + b + c + b:c + a:c`. It can also be used to remove the intercept term: when fitting a linear model `y ~ x - 1` specifies a line through the origin. A model with no intercept can be also specified as `y ~ x + 0` or `y ~ 0 + x`.

While formulae usually involve just variable and factor names, they can also involve arithmetic expressions. The formula `log(y) ~ a + log(x)` is quite legal. When such arithmetic expressions involve operators which are also used symbolically in model formulae, there can be confusion between arithmetic and symbolic operator use.

To avoid this confusion, the function `I()` can be used to bracket those portions of a model formula where the operators are used in their arithmetic sense. For example, in the formula `y ~ a + I(b+c)`, the term `b+c` is to be interpreted as the sum of `b` and `c`.

Variable names can be quoted by backticks ``like this`` in formulae, although there is no guarantee that all code using formulae will accept such non-syntactic names.

Most model-fitting functions accept formulae with right-hand-side including the function `offset` to indicate terms with a fixed coefficient of one. Some functions accept other ‘specials’ such as `strata` or `cluster` (see the `specials` argument of `terms.formula`).

There are two special interpretations of `.` in a formula. The usual one is in the context of a data argument of model fitting functions and means ‘all columns not otherwise in the formula’: see `terms.formula`. In the context of `update.formula`, **only**, it means ‘what was previously in this part of the formula’.

When `formula` is called on a fitted model object, either a specific method is used (such as that for class `"nls"`) or the default method. The default first looks for a `"formula"` component of the object (and evaluates it), then a `"terms"` component, then a `formula` parameter of the call (and evaluates its value) and finally a `"formula"` attribute.

There is a `formula` method for data frames. If there is only one column this forms the RHS with an empty LHS. For more columns, the first column is the LHS of the formula and the remaining columns separated by `+` form the RHS.

Value

All the functions above produce an object of class `"formula"` which contains a symbolic model formula.

Environments

A formula object has an associated environment, and this environment (rather than the parent environment) is used by `model.frame` to evaluate variables that are not found in the supplied data argument.

Formulas created with the `~` operator use the environment in which they were created. Formulas created with `as.formula` will use the `env` argument for their environment.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical models*. Chapter 2 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[I](#), [offset](#).

For formula manipulation: [terms](#), and [all.vars](#); for typical use: [lm](#), [glm](#), and [coplot](#).

Examples

```
class(fo <- y ~ x1*x2) # "formula"
fo
typeof(fo) # R internal : "language"
terms(fo)

environment(fo)
environment(as.formula("y ~ x"))
environment(as.formula("y ~ x", env = new.env()))

## Create a formula for a model with a large number of variables:
xnam <- paste0("x", 1:25)
(fmla <- as.formula(paste("y ~ ", paste(xnam, collapse= "+"))))
```

formula.nls

Extract Model Formula from nls Object

Description

Returns the model used to fit object.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'nls'
formula(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x an object inheriting from class "nls", representing a nonlinear least squares fit.
... further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

a formula representing the model used to obtain object.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [formula](#)

Examples

```
fm1 <- nls(circumference ~ A/(1+exp((B-age)/C)), Orange,
          start = list(A = 160, B = 700, C = 350))
formula(fm1)
```

friedman.test	<i>Friedman Rank Sum Test</i>
---------------	-------------------------------

Description

Performs a Friedman rank sum test with unreplicated blocked data.

Usage

```
friedman.test(y, ...)

## Default S3 method:
friedman.test(y, groups, blocks, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
friedman.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

y	either a numeric vector of data values, or a data matrix.
groups	a vector giving the group for the corresponding elements of y if this is a vector; ignored if y is a matrix. If not a factor object, it is coerced to one.
blocks	a vector giving the block for the corresponding elements of y if this is a vector; ignored if y is a matrix. If not a factor object, it is coerced to one.
formula	a formula of the form $a \sim b \mid c$, where a, b and c give the data values and corresponding groups and blocks, respectively.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

`friedman.test` can be used for analyzing unreplicated complete block designs (i.e., there is exactly one observation in `y` for each combination of levels of groups and blocks) where the normality assumption may be violated.

The null hypothesis is that apart from an effect of blocks, the location parameter of `y` is the same in each of the groups.

If `y` is a matrix, groups and blocks are obtained from the column and row indices, respectively. NA's are not allowed in groups or blocks; if `y` contains NA's, corresponding blocks are removed.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

<code>statistic</code>	the value of Friedman's chi-squared statistic.
<code>parameter</code>	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic.
<code>p.value</code>	the p-value of the test.
<code>method</code>	the character string "Friedman rank sum test".
<code>data.name</code>	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

Myles Hollander and Douglas A. Wolfe (1973), *Nonparametric Statistical Methods*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 139–146.

See Also

[quade.test](#).

Examples

```
## Hollander & Wolfe (1973), p. 140ff.
## Comparison of three methods ("round out", "narrow angle", and
## "wide angle") for rounding first base. For each of 18 players
## and the three method, the average time of two runs from a point on
## the first base line 35ft from home plate to a point 15ft short of
## second base is recorded.
RoundingTimes <-
matrix(c(5.40, 5.50, 5.55,
        5.85, 5.70, 5.75,
        5.20, 5.60, 5.50,
        5.55, 5.50, 5.40,
        5.90, 5.85, 5.70,
        5.45, 5.55, 5.60,
        5.40, 5.40, 5.35,
        5.45, 5.50, 5.35,
        5.25, 5.15, 5.00,
        5.85, 5.80, 5.70,
        5.25, 5.20, 5.10,
```

```

      5.65, 5.55, 5.45,
      5.60, 5.35, 5.45,
      5.05, 5.00, 4.95,
      5.50, 5.50, 5.40,
      5.45, 5.55, 5.50,
      5.55, 5.55, 5.35,
      5.45, 5.50, 5.55,
      5.50, 5.45, 5.25,
      5.65, 5.60, 5.40,
      5.70, 5.65, 5.55,
      6.30, 6.30, 6.25),
  nrow = 22,
  byrow = TRUE,
  dimnames = list(1 : 22,
                  c("Round Out", "Narrow Angle", "Wide Angle")))
friedman.test(RoundingTimes)
## => strong evidence against the null that the methods are equivalent
##   with respect to speed

wb <- aggregate(warpbreaks$breaks,
                by = list(w = warpbreaks$wool,
                          t = warpbreaks$tension),
                FUN = mean)

wb
friedman.test(wb$x, wb$w, wb$t)
friedman.test(x ~ w | t, data = wb)

```

ftable

*Flat Contingency Tables***Description**

Create ‘flat’ contingency tables.

Usage

```
ftable(x, ...)
```

```
## Default S3 method:
```

```
ftable(..., exclude = c(NA, NaN), row.vars = NULL,
       col.vars = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x, ...</code>	R objects which can be interpreted as factors (including character strings), or a list (or data frame) whose components can be so interpreted, or a contingency table object of class "table" or "ftable".
<code>exclude</code>	values to use in the exclude argument of factor when interpreting non-factor objects.

<code>row.vars</code>	a vector of integers giving the numbers of the variables, or a character vector giving the names of the variables to be used for the rows of the flat contingency table.
<code>col.vars</code>	a vector of integers giving the numbers of the variables, or a character vector giving the names of the variables to be used for the columns of the flat contingency table.

Details

`ftable` creates ‘flat’ contingency tables. Similar to the usual contingency tables, these contain the counts of each combination of the levels of the variables (factors) involved. This information is then re-arranged as a matrix whose rows and columns correspond to unique combinations of the levels of the row and column variables (as specified by `row.vars` and `col.vars`, respectively). The combinations are created by looping over the variables in reverse order (so that the levels of the left-most variable vary the slowest). Displaying a contingency table in this flat matrix form (via `print.ftable`, the print method for objects of class “`ftable`”) is often preferable to showing it as a higher-dimensional array.

`ftable` is a generic function. Its default method, `ftable.default`, first creates a contingency table in array form from all arguments except `row.vars` and `col.vars`. If the first argument is of class “`table`”, it represents a contingency table and is used as is; if it is a flat table of class “`ftable`”, the information it contains is converted to the usual array representation using `as.ftable`. Otherwise, the arguments should be R objects which can be interpreted as factors (including character strings), or a list (or data frame) whose components can be so interpreted, which are cross-tabulated using `table`. Then, the arguments `row.vars` and `col.vars` are used to collapse the contingency table into flat form. If neither of these two is given, the last variable is used for the columns. If both are given and their union is a proper subset of all variables involved, the other variables are summed out.

When the arguments are R expressions interpreted as factors, additional arguments will be passed to `table` to control how the variable names are displayed; see the last example below.

Function `ftable.formula` provides a formula method for creating flat contingency tables.

There are methods for `as.table`, `as.matrix` and `as.data.frame`.

Value

`ftable` returns an object of class “`ftable`”, which is a matrix with counts of each combination of the levels of variables with information on the names and levels of the (row and columns) variables stored as attributes “`row.vars`” and “`col.vars`”.

See Also

`ftable.formula` for the formula interface (which allows a `data = .` argument); `read.ftable` for information on reading, writing and coercing flat contingency tables; `table` for ordinary cross-tabulation; `xtabs` for formula-based cross-tabulation.

Examples

```
## Start with a contingency table.
ftable(Titanic, row.vars = 1:3)
```

```
ftable(Titanic, row.vars = 1:2, col.vars = "Survived")
ftable(Titanic, row.vars = 2:1, col.vars = "Survived")

## Start with a data frame.
x <- ftable(mtcars[c("cyl", "vs", "am", "gear")])
x
ftable(x, row.vars = c(2, 4))

## Start with expressions, use table()'s "dnn" to change labels
ftable(mtcars$cyl, mtcars$vs, mtcars$am, mtcars$gear, row.vars = c(2, 4),
       dnn = c("Cylinders", "V/S", "Transmission", "Gears"))
```

<code>ftable.formula</code>	<i>Formula Notation for Flat Contingency Tables</i>
-----------------------------	---

Description

Produce or manipulate a flat contingency table using formula notation.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'formula'
ftable(formula, data = NULL, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>formula</code>	a formula object with both left and right hand sides specifying the column and row variables of the flat table.
<code>data</code>	a data frame, list or environment (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables to be cross-tabulated, or a contingency table (see below).
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used. Ignored if data is a contingency table.
<code>na.action</code>	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Ignored if data is a contingency table.
<code>...</code>	further arguments to the default ftable method may also be passed as arguments, see ftable.default .

Details

This is a method of the generic function [ftable](#).

The left and right hand side of formula specify the column and row variables, respectively, of the flat contingency table to be created. Only the + operator is allowed for combining the variables. A . may be used once in the formula to indicate inclusion of all the remaining variables.

If data is an object of class "table" or an array with more than 2 dimensions, it is taken as a contingency table, and hence all entries should be nonnegative. Otherwise, if it is not a flat contingency table (i.e., an object of class "ftable"), it should be a data frame or matrix, list or

environment containing the variables to be cross-tabulated. In this case, `na.action` is applied to the data to handle missing values, and, after possibly selecting a subset of the data as specified by the `subset` argument, a contingency table is computed from the variables.

The contingency table is then collapsed to a flat table, according to the row and column variables specified by `formula`.

Value

A flat contingency table which contains the counts of each combination of the levels of the variables, collapsed into a matrix for suitably displaying the counts.

See Also

[ftable](#), [ftable.default](#); [table](#).

Examples

```
Titanic
x <- ftable(Survived ~ ., data = Titanic)
x
ftable(Sex ~ Class + Age, data = x)
```

GammaDist	<i>The Gamma Distribution</i>
-----------	-------------------------------

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the Gamma distribution with parameters `shape` and `scale`.

Usage

```
dgamma(x, shape, rate = 1, scale = 1/rate, log = FALSE)
pgamma(q, shape, rate = 1, scale = 1/rate, lower.tail = TRUE,
       log.p = FALSE)
qgamma(p, shape, rate = 1, scale = 1/rate, lower.tail = TRUE,
       log.p = FALSE)
rgamma(n, shape, rate = 1, scale = 1/rate)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code> , <code>q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>n</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(n) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>rate</code>	an alternative way to specify the scale.
<code>shape</code> , <code>scale</code>	shape and scale parameters. Must be positive, scale strictly.
<code>log</code> , <code>log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities/densities <i>p</i> are returned as <i>log(p)</i> .
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

If scale is omitted, it assumes the default value of 1.

The Gamma distribution with parameters $\text{shape} = \alpha$ and $\text{scale} = \sigma$ has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\sigma}$$

for $x \geq 0$, $\alpha > 0$ and $\sigma > 0$. (Here $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is the function implemented by R's `gamma()` and defined in its help. Note that $a = 0$ corresponds to the trivial distribution with all mass at point 0.)

The mean and variance are $E(X) = \alpha\sigma$ and $\text{Var}(X) = \alpha\sigma^2$.

The cumulative hazard $H(t) = -\log(1 - F(t))$ is

`-pgamma(t, ..., lower = FALSE, log = TRUE)`

Note that for smallish values of shape (and moderate scale) a large parts of the mass of the Gamma distribution is on values of x so near zero that they will be represented as zero in computer arithmetic. So `rgamma` may well return values which will be represented as zero. (This will also happen for very large values of scale since the actual generation is done for `scale = 1`.)

Value

`dgamma` gives the density, `pgamma` gives the distribution function, `qgamma` gives the quantile function, and `rgamma` generates random deviates.

Invalid arguments will result in return value NaN, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by `n` for `rgamma`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `n` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

The S (Becker *et al* (1988) parametrization was via shape and rate: S had no scale parameter. In R 2.x.y scale took precedence over rate, but now it is an error to supply both.

`pgamma` is closely related to the incomplete gamma function. As defined by Abramowitz and Stegun 6.5.1 (and by 'Numerical Recipes') this is

$$P(a, x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_0^x t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$$

$P(a, x)$ is `pgamma(x, a)`. Other authors (for example Karl Pearson in his 1922 tables) omit the normalizing factor, defining the incomplete gamma function $\gamma(a, x)$ as $\gamma(a, x) = \int_0^x t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$, i.e., `pgamma(x, a) * gamma(a)`. Yet other use the 'upper' incomplete gamma function,

$$\Gamma(a, x) = \int_x^\infty t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt,$$

which can be computed by `pgamma(x, a, lower = FALSE) * gamma(a)`.

Note however that `pgamma(x, a, ...)` currently requires $a > 0$, whereas the incomplete gamma function is also defined for negative a . In that case, you can use `gamma_inc(a,x)` (for $\Gamma(a,x)$) from package **gsl**.

See also https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Incomplete_gamma_function, or <http://dlmf.nist.gov/8.2#i>.

Source

`dgamma` is computed via the Poisson density, using code contributed by Catherine Loader (see [dbinom](#)).

`pgamma` uses an unpublished (and not otherwise documented) algorithm ‘mainly by Morten Welinder’.

`qgamma` is based on a C translation of

Best, D. J. and D. E. Roberts (1975). Algorithm AS91. Percentage points of the chi-squared distribution. *Applied Statistics*, **24**, 385–388.

plus a final Newton step to improve the approximation.

`rgamma` for `shape >= 1` uses

Ahrens, J. H. and Dieter, U. (1982). Generating gamma variates by a modified rejection technique. *Communications of the ACM*, **25**, 47–54,

and for $0 < \text{shape} < 1$ uses

Ahrens, J. H. and Dieter, U. (1974). Computer methods for sampling from gamma, beta, Poisson and binomial distributions. *Computing*, **12**, 223–246.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Shea, B. L. (1988) Algorithm AS 239, Chi-squared and incomplete Gamma integral, *Applied Statistics (JRSS C)* **37**, 466–473.

Abramowitz, M. and Stegun, I. A. (1972) *Handbook of Mathematical Functions*. New York: Dover. Chapter 6: Gamma and Related Functions.

NIST Digital Library of Mathematical Functions. <http://dlmf.nist.gov/>, section 8.2.

See Also

[gamma](#) for the gamma function.

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dbeta](#) for the Beta distribution and [dchisq](#) for the chi-squared distribution which is a special case of the Gamma distribution.

Examples

```
-log(dgamma(1:4, shape = 1))
p <- (1:9)/10
pgamma(qgamma(p, shape = 2), shape = 2)
1 - 1/exp(qgamma(p, shape = 1))
```

```
# even for shape = 0.001 about half the mass is on numbers
# that cannot be represented accurately (and most of those as zero)
pgamma(.Machine$double.xmin, 0.001)
pgamma(5e-324, 0.001) # on most machines 5e-324 is the smallest
                        # representable non-zero number
table(rgamma(1e4, 0.001) == 0)/1e4
```

Geometric

The Geometric Distribution

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the geometric distribution with parameter prob.

Usage

```
dgeom(x, prob, log = FALSE)
pgeom(q, prob, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qgeom(p, prob, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rgeom(n, prob)
```

Arguments

<code>x, q</code>	vector of quantiles representing the number of failures in a sequence of Bernoulli trials before success occurs.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>n</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(n) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>prob</code>	probability of success in each trial. $0 < \text{prob} \leq 1$.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as $\log(p)$.
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The geometric distribution with $\text{prob} = p$ has density

$$p(x) = p(1 - p)^x$$

for $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 0 < p \leq 1$.

If an element of `x` is not integer, the result of `dgeom` is zero, with a warning.

The quantile is defined as the smallest value x such that $F(x) \geq p$, where F is the distribution function.

Value

dgeom gives the density, pgeom gives the distribution function, qgeom gives the quantile function, and rgeom generates random deviates.

Invalid prob will result in return value NaN, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by n for rgeom, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Source

dgeom computes via dbinom, using code contributed by Catherine Loader (see [dbinom](#)).

pgeom and qgeom are based on the closed-form formulae.

rgeom uses the derivation as an exponential mixture of Poissons, see

Devroye, L. (1986) *Non-Uniform Random Variate Generation*. Springer-Verlag, New York. Page 480.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dnbinom](#) for the negative binomial which generalizes the geometric distribution.

Examples

```
qgeom((1:9)/10, prob = .2)
Ni <- rgeom(20, prob = 1/4); table(factor(Ni, 0:max(Ni)))
```

getInitial

Get Initial Parameter Estimates

Description

This function evaluates initial parameter estimates for a nonlinear regression model. If data is a parameterized data frame or pframe object, its parameters attribute is returned. Otherwise the object is examined to see if it contains a call to a selfStart object whose initial attribute can be evaluated.

Usage

```
getInitial(object, data, ...)
```

Arguments

object	a formula or a selfStart model that defines a nonlinear regression model
data	a data frame in which the expressions in the formula or arguments to the selfStart model can be evaluated
...	optional additional arguments

Value

A named numeric vector or list of starting estimates for the parameters. The construction of many `selfStart` models is such that these "starting" estimates are, in fact, the converged parameter estimates.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#), [selfStart.default](#), [selfStart.formula](#)

Examples

```
PurTrt <- Puromycin[ Puromycin$state == "treated", ]
print(getInitial( rate ~ SSmicmen( conc, Vm, K ), PurTrt ), digits = 3)
```

glm

Fitting Generalized Linear Models

Description

`glm` is used to fit generalized linear models, specified by giving a symbolic description of the linear predictor and a description of the error distribution.

Usage

```
glm(formula, family = gaussian, data, weights, subset,
    na.action, start = NULL, etastart, mustart, offset,
    control = list(...), model = TRUE, method = "glm.fit",
    x = FALSE, y = TRUE, contrasts = NULL, ...)
```

```
glm.fit(x, y, weights = rep(1, nobs),
    start = NULL, etastart = NULL, mustart = NULL,
    offset = rep(0, nobs), family = gaussian(),
    control = list(), intercept = TRUE)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'glm'
weights(object, type = c("prior", "working"), ...)
```

Arguments

formula	an object of class " formula " (or one that can be coerced to that class): a symbolic description of the model to be fitted. The details of model specification are given under 'Details'.
---------	--

family	a description of the error distribution and link function to be used in the model. For <code>glm</code> this can be a character string naming a family function, a family function or the result of a call to a family function. For <code>glm.fit</code> only the third option is supported. (See family for details of family functions.)
data	an optional data frame, list or environment (or object coercible by as.data.frame to a data frame) containing the variables in the model. If not found in data, the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> , typically the environment from which <code>glm</code> is called.
weights	an optional vector of ‘prior weights’ to be used in the fitting process. Should be <code>NULL</code> or a numeric vector.
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used in the fitting process.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is set by the <code>na.action</code> setting of options , and is <code>na.fail</code> if that is unset. The ‘factory-fresh’ default is <code>na.omit</code> . Another possible value is <code>NULL</code> , no action. Value <code>na.exclude</code> can be useful.
start	starting values for the parameters in the linear predictor.
etastart	starting values for the linear predictor.
mustart	starting values for the vector of means.
offset	this can be used to specify an <i>a priori</i> known component to be included in the linear predictor during fitting. This should be <code>NULL</code> or a numeric vector of length equal to the number of cases. One or more offset terms can be included in the formula instead or as well, and if more than one is specified their sum is used. See model.offset .
control	a list of parameters for controlling the fitting process. For <code>glm.fit</code> this is passed to glm.control .
model	a logical value indicating whether <i>model frame</i> should be included as a component of the returned value.
method	the method to be used in fitting the model. The default method “ <code>glm.fit</code> ” uses iteratively reweighted least squares (IWLS): the alternative “ <code>model.frame</code> ” returns the model frame and does no fitting. User-supplied fitting functions can be supplied either as a function or a character string naming a function, with a function which takes the same arguments as <code>glm.fit</code> . If specified as a character string it is looked up from within the stats namespace.
x, y	For <code>glm</code> : logical values indicating whether the response vector and model matrix used in the fitting process should be returned as components of the returned value. For <code>glm.fit</code> : <code>x</code> is a design matrix of dimension $n * p$, and <code>y</code> is a vector of observations of length <code>n</code> .
contrasts	an optional list. See the <code>contrasts.arg</code> of <code>model.matrix.default</code> .
intercept	logical. Should an intercept be included in the <i>null</i> model?
object	an object inheriting from class “ <code>glm</code> ”.

type	character, partial matching allowed. Type of weights to extract from the fitted model object. Can be abbreviated.
...	For glm: arguments to be used to form the default control argument if it is not supplied directly. For weights: further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

A typical predictor has the form `response ~ terms` where `response` is the (numeric) response vector and `terms` is a series of terms which specifies a linear predictor for response. For binomial and quasibinomial families the response can also be specified as a [factor](#) (when the first level denotes failure and all others success) or as a two-column matrix with the columns giving the numbers of successes and failures. A terms specification of the form `first + second` indicates all the terms in `first` together with all the terms in `second` with any duplicates removed.

A specification of the form `first:second` indicates the set of terms obtained by taking the interactions of all terms in `first` with all terms in `second`. The specification `first*second` indicates the *cross* of `first` and `second`. This is the same as `first + second + first:second`.

The terms in the formula will be re-ordered so that main effects come first, followed by the interactions, all second-order, all third-order and so on: to avoid this pass a `terms` object as the formula.

Non-NULL `weights` can be used to indicate that different observations have different dispersions (with the values in `weights` being inversely proportional to the dispersions); or equivalently, when the elements of `weights` are positive integers w_i , that each response y_i is the mean of w_i unit-weight observations. For a binomial GLM prior weights are used to give the number of trials when the response is the proportion of successes: they would rarely be used for a Poisson GLM.

`glm.fit` is the workhorse function: it is not normally called directly but can be more efficient where the response vector, design matrix and family have already been calculated.

If more than one of `etastart`, `start` and `mustart` is specified, the first in the list will be used. It is often advisable to supply starting values for a [quasi](#) family, and also for families with unusual links such as `gaussian("log")`.

All of `weights`, `subset`, `offset`, `etastart` and `mustart` are evaluated in the same way as variables in formula, that is first in data and then in the environment of formula.

For the background to warning messages about ‘fitted probabilities numerically 0 or 1 occurred’ for binomial GLMs, see Venables & Ripley (2002, pp. 197–8).

Value

`glm` returns an object of class inheriting from `"glm"` which inherits from the class `"lm"`. See later in this section. If a non-standard method is used, the object will also inherit from the class (if any) returned by that function.

The function [summary](#) (i.e., [summary.glm](#)) can be used to obtain or print a summary of the results and the function [anova](#) (i.e., [anova.glm](#)) to produce an analysis of variance table.

The generic accessor functions [coefficients](#), [effects](#), [fitted.values](#) and [residuals](#) can be used to extract various useful features of the value returned by `glm`.

`weights` extracts a vector of weights, one for each case in the fit (after subsetting and `na.action`).

An object of class `"glm"` is a list containing at least the following components:

<code>coefficients</code>	a named vector of coefficients
<code>residuals</code>	the <i>working</i> residuals, that is the residuals in the final iteration of the IWLS fit. Since cases with zero weights are omitted, their working residuals are NA.
<code>fitted.values</code>	the fitted mean values, obtained by transforming the linear predictors by the inverse of the link function.
<code>rank</code>	the numeric rank of the fitted linear model.
<code>family</code>	the <code>family</code> object used.
<code>linear.predictors</code>	the linear fit on link scale.
<code>deviance</code>	up to a constant, minus twice the maximized log-likelihood. Where sensible, the constant is chosen so that a saturated model has deviance zero.
<code>aic</code>	A version of Akaike's <i>An Information Criterion</i> , minus twice the maximized log-likelihood plus twice the number of parameters, computed by the <code>aic</code> component of the family. For binomial and Poisson families the dispersion is fixed at one and the number of parameters is the number of coefficients. For gaussian, Gamma and inverse gaussian families the dispersion is estimated from the residual deviance, and the number of parameters is the number of coefficients plus one. For a gaussian family the MLE of the dispersion is used so this is a valid value of AIC, but for Gamma and inverse gaussian families it is not. For families fitted by quasi-likelihood the value is NA.
<code>null.deviance</code>	The deviance for the null model, comparable with deviance. The null model will include the offset, and an intercept if there is one in the model. Note that this will be incorrect if the link function depends on the data other than through the fitted mean: specify a zero offset to force a correct calculation.
<code>iter</code>	the number of iterations of IWLS used.
<code>weights</code>	the <i>working</i> weights, that is the weights in the final iteration of the IWLS fit.
<code>prior.weights</code>	the weights initially supplied, a vector of 1s if none were.
<code>df.residual</code>	the residual degrees of freedom.
<code>df.null</code>	the residual degrees of freedom for the null model.
<code>y</code>	if requested (the default) the <code>y</code> vector used. (It is a vector even for a binomial model.)
<code>x</code>	if requested, the model matrix.
<code>model</code>	if requested (the default), the model frame.
<code>converged</code>	logical. Was the IWLS algorithm judged to have converged?
<code>boundary</code>	logical. Is the fitted value on the boundary of the attainable values?
<code>call</code>	the matched call.
<code>formula</code>	the formula supplied.
<code>terms</code>	the <code>terms</code> object used.
<code>data</code>	the <code>data</code> argument.
<code>offset</code>	the offset vector used.
<code>control</code>	the value of the <code>control</code> argument used.

method	the name of the fitter function used, currently always "glm.fit".
contrasts	(where relevant) the contrasts used.
xlevels	(where relevant) a record of the levels of the factors used in fitting.
na.action	(where relevant) information returned by <code>model.frame</code> on the special handling of NAs.

In addition, non-empty fits will have components `qr`, `R` and `effects` relating to the final weighted linear fit.

Objects of class "glm" are normally of class `c("glm", "lm")`, that is inherit from class "lm", and well-designed methods for class "lm" will be applied to the weighted linear model at the final iteration of IWLS. However, care is needed, as extractor functions for class "glm" such as `residuals` and `weights` do **not** just pick out the component of the fit with the same name.

If a `binomial` glm model was specified by giving a two-column response, the weights returned by `prior.weights` are the total numbers of cases (factored by the supplied case weights) and the component `y` of the result is the proportion of successes.

Fitting functions

The argument `method` serves two purposes. One is to allow the model frame to be recreated with no fitting. The other is to allow the default fitting function `glm.fit` to be replaced by a function which takes the same arguments and uses a different fitting algorithm. If `glm.fit` is supplied as a character string it is used to search for a function of that name, starting in the **stats** namespace.

The class of the object return by the fitter (if any) will be prepended to the class returned by `glm`.

Author(s)

The original R implementation of `glm` was written by Simon Davies working for Ross Ihaka at the University of Auckland, but has since been extensively re-written by members of the R Core team.

The design was inspired by the S function of the same name described in Hastie & Pregibon (1992).

References

- Dobson, A. J. (1990) *An Introduction to Generalized Linear Models*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Hastie, T. J. and Pregibon, D. (1992) *Generalized linear models*. Chapter 6 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- McCullagh P. and Nelder, J. A. (1989) *Generalized Linear Models*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. New York: Springer.

See Also

`anova.glm`, `summary.glm`, etc. for glm methods, and the generic functions `anova`, `summary`, `effects`, `fitted.values`, and `residuals`.

`lm` for non-generalized *linear* models (which SAS calls GLMs, for 'general' linear models).

`loglin` and `loglm` (package **MASS**) for fitting log-linear models (which binomial and Poisson GLMs are) to contingency tables.

bigglm in package **biglm** for an alternative way to fit GLMs to large datasets (especially those with many cases).

[esoph](#), [infert](#) and [predict.glm](#) have examples of fitting binomial glms.

Examples

```
## Dobson (1990) Page 93: Randomized Controlled Trial :
counts <- c(18,17,15,20,10,20,25,13,12)
outcome <- gl(3,1,9)
treatment <- gl(3,3)
print(d.AD <- data.frame(treatment, outcome, counts))
glm.D93 <- glm(counts ~ outcome + treatment, family = poisson())
anova(glm.D93)
summary(glm.D93)

## an example with offsets from Venables & Ripley (2002, p.189)
utils::data(anorexia, package = "MASS")

anorex.1 <- glm(Postwt ~ Prewt + Treat + offset(Prewt),
               family = gaussian, data = anorexia)
summary(anorex.1)

# A Gamma example, from McCullagh & Nelder (1989, pp. 300-2)
clotting <- data.frame(
  u = c(5,10,15,20,30,40,60,80,100),
  lot1 = c(118,58,42,35,27,25,21,19,18),
  lot2 = c(69,35,26,21,18,16,13,12,12))
summary(glm(lot1 ~ log(u), data = clotting, family = Gamma))
summary(glm(lot2 ~ log(u), data = clotting, family = Gamma))

## Not run:
## for an example of the use of a terms object as a formula
demo(glm.vr)

## End(Not run)
```

glm.control

Auxiliary for Controlling GLM Fitting

Description

Auxiliary function for [glm](#) fitting. Typically only used internally by [glm.fit](#), but may be used to construct a control argument to either function.

Usage

```
glm.control(epsilon = 1e-8, maxit = 25, trace = FALSE)
```

Arguments

epsilon	positive convergence tolerance ϵ ; the iterations converge when $ dev - dev_{old} /(dev + 0.1) < \epsilon$.
maxit	integer giving the maximal number of IWLS iterations.
trace	logical indicating if output should be produced for each iteration.

Details

The control argument of `glm` is by default passed to the control argument of `glm.fit`, which uses its elements as arguments to `glm.control`: the latter provides defaults and sanity checking.

If epsilon is small (less than 10^{-10}) it is also used as the tolerance for the detection of collinearity in the least squares solution.

When trace is true, calls to `cat` produce the output for each IWLS iteration. Hence, `options(digits = *)` can be used to increase the precision, see the example.

Value

A list with components named as the arguments.

References

Hastie, T. J. and Pregibon, D. (1992) *Generalized linear models*. Chapter 6 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`glm.fit`, the fitting procedure used by `glm`.

Examples

```
### A variation on example(glm) :

## Annette Dobson's example ...
counts <- c(18,17,15,20,10,20,25,13,12)
outcome <- gl(3,1,9)
treatment <- gl(3,3)
oo <- options(digits = 12) # to see more when tracing :
glm.D93X <- glm(counts ~ outcome + treatment, family = poisson(),
               trace = TRUE, epsilon = 1e-14)
options(oo)
coef(glm.D93X) # the last two are closer to 0 than in ?glm's glm.D93
```


Description

These functions are all [methods](#) for class `glm` or `summary.glm` objects.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'glm'
family(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'glm'
residuals(object, type = c("deviance", "pearson", "working",
                           "response", "partial"), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	an object of class <code>glm</code> , typically the result of a call to glm .
<code>type</code>	the type of residuals which should be returned. The alternatives are: "deviance" (default), "pearson", "working", "response", and "partial". Can be abbreviated.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The references define the types of residuals: Davison & Snell is a good reference for the usages of each.

The partial residuals are a matrix of working residuals, with each column formed by omitting a term from the model.

How residuals treats cases with missing values in the original fit is determined by the `na.action` argument of that fit. If `na.action = na.omit` omitted cases will not appear in the residuals, whereas if `na.action = na.exclude` they will appear, with residual value NA. See also [naresid](#).

For fits done with `y = FALSE` the response values are computed from other components.

References

Davison, A. C. and Snell, E. J. (1991) *Residuals and diagnostics*. In: Statistical Theory and Modelling. In Honour of Sir David Cox, FRS, eds. Hinkley, D. V., Reid, N. and Snell, E. J., Chapman & Hall.

Hastie, T. J. and Pregibon, D. (1992) *Generalized linear models*. Chapter 6 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

McCullagh P. and Nelder, J. A. (1989) *Generalized Linear Models*. London: Chapman and Hall.

See Also

[glm](#) for computing `glm.obj`, [anova.glm](#); the corresponding *generic* functions, [summary.glm](#), [coef](#), [deviance](#), [df.residual](#), [effects](#), [fitted](#), [residuals](#).

[influence.measures](#) for deletion diagnostics, including standardized ([rstandard](#)) and studentized ([rstudent](#)) residuals.

hclust

*Hierarchical Clustering***Description**

Hierarchical cluster analysis on a set of dissimilarities and methods for analyzing it.

Usage

```
hclust(d, method = "complete", members = NULL)

## S3 method for class 'hclust'
plot(x, labels = NULL, hang = 0.1, check = TRUE,
     axes = TRUE, frame.plot = FALSE, ann = TRUE,
     main = "Cluster Dendrogram",
     sub = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = "Height", ...)
```

Arguments

<code>d</code>	a dissimilarity structure as produced by <code>dist</code> .
<code>method</code>	the agglomeration method to be used. This should be (an unambiguous abbreviation of) one of "ward.D", "ward.D2", "single", "complete", "average" (= UPGMA), "mcquitty" (= WPGMA), "median" (= WPGMC) or "centroid" (= UPGMC).
<code>members</code>	NULL or a vector with length size of <code>d</code> . See the ‘Details’ section.
<code>x</code>	an object of the type produced by <code>hclust</code> .
<code>hang</code>	The fraction of the plot height by which labels should hang below the rest of the plot. A negative value will cause the labels to hang down from 0.
<code>check</code>	logical indicating if the <code>x</code> object should be checked for validity. This check is not necessary when <code>x</code> is known to be valid such as when it is the direct result of <code>hclust()</code> . The default is <code>check=TRUE</code> , as invalid inputs may crash R due to memory violation in the internal C plotting code.
<code>labels</code>	A character vector of labels for the leaves of the tree. By default the row names or row numbers of the original data are used. If <code>labels = FALSE</code> no labels at all are plotted.
<code>axes, frame.plot, ann</code>	logical flags as in plot.default .

```

main, sub, xlab, ylab
    character strings for title. sub and xlab have a non-NULL default when
    there's a tree$call.
...
    Further graphical arguments. E.g., cex controls the size of the labels (if plotted)
    in the same way as text.

```

Details

This function performs a hierarchical cluster analysis using a set of dissimilarities for the n objects being clustered. Initially, each object is assigned to its own cluster and then the algorithm proceeds iteratively, at each stage joining the two most similar clusters, continuing until there is just a single cluster. At each stage distances between clusters are recomputed by the Lance–Williams dissimilarity update formula according to the particular clustering method being used.

A number of different clustering methods are provided. *Ward's* minimum variance method aims at finding compact, spherical clusters. The *complete linkage* method finds similar clusters. The *single linkage* method (which is closely related to the minimal spanning tree) adopts a 'friends of friends' clustering strategy. The other methods can be regarded as aiming for clusters with characteristics somewhere between the single and complete link methods. Note however, that methods "median" and "centroid" are *not* leading to a *monotone distance* measure, or equivalently the resulting dendrograms can have so called *inversions* or *reversals* which are hard to interpret, but note the trichotomies in Legendre and Legendre (2012).

Two different algorithms are found in the literature for Ward clustering. The one used by option "ward.D" (equivalent to the only Ward option "ward" in R versions $\leq 3.0.3$) *does not* implement Ward's (1963) clustering criterion, whereas option "ward.D2" implements that criterion (Murtagh and Legendre 2014). With the latter, the dissimilarities are *squared* before cluster updating. Note that `agnes(*, method="ward")` corresponds to `hclust(*, "ward.D2")`.

If `members != NULL`, then `d` is taken to be a dissimilarity matrix between clusters instead of dissimilarities between singletons and `members` gives the number of observations per cluster. This way the hierarchical cluster algorithm can be 'started in the middle of the dendrogram', e.g., in order to reconstruct the part of the tree above a cut (see examples). Dissimilarities between clusters can be efficiently computed (i.e., without `hclust` itself) only for a limited number of distance/linkage combinations, the simplest one being *squared* Euclidean distance and centroid linkage. In this case the dissimilarities between the clusters are the squared Euclidean distances between cluster means.

In hierarchical cluster displays, a decision is needed at each merge to specify which subtree should go on the left and which on the right. Since, for n observations there are $n - 1$ merges, there are $2^{(n-1)}$ possible orderings for the leaves in a cluster tree, or dendrogram. The algorithm used in `hclust` is to order the subtree so that the tighter cluster is on the left (the last, i.e., most recent, merge of the left subtree is at a lower value than the last merge of the right subtree). Single observations are the tightest clusters possible, and merges involving two observations place them in order by their observation sequence number.

Value

An object of class **hclust** which describes the tree produced by the clustering process. The object is a list with components:

```

merge      an  $n - 1$  by 2 matrix. Row  $i$  of merge describes the merging of clusters at step  $i$ 
            of the clustering. If an element  $j$  in the row is negative, then observation  $-j$  was

```

	merged at this stage. If j is positive then the merge was with the cluster formed at the (earlier) stage j of the algorithm. Thus negative entries in merge indicate agglomerations of singletons, and positive entries indicate agglomerations of non-singletons.
height	a set of $n - 1$ real values (non-decreasing for ultrametric trees). The clustering <i>height</i> : that is, the value of the criterion associated with the clustering method for the particular agglomeration.
order	a vector giving the permutation of the original observations suitable for plotting, in the sense that a cluster plot using this ordering and matrix merge will not have crossings of the branches.
labels	labels for each of the objects being clustered.
call	the call which produced the result.
method	the cluster method that has been used.
dist.method	the distance that has been used to create d (only returned if the distance object has a "method" attribute).

There are `print`, `plot` and `identify` (see `identify.hclust`) methods and the `rect.hclust()` function for hclust objects.

Note

Method "centroid" is typically meant to be used with *squared* Euclidean distances.

Author(s)

The hclust function is based on Fortran code contributed to STATLIB by F. Murtagh.

References

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- Legendre, P. and L. Legendre (2012). *Numerical Ecology*, 3rd English ed. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science BV.
- Murtagh, Fionn and Legendre, Pierre (2014). Ward's hierarchical agglomerative clustering method: which algorithms implement Ward's criterion? *Journal of Classification* **31** (forthcoming).

See Also

[identify.hclust](#), [rect.hclust](#), [cutree](#), [dendrogram](#), [kmeans](#).

For the Lance–Williams formula and methods that apply it generally, see [agnes](#) from package [cluster](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

### Example 1: Violent crime rates by US state

hc <- hclust(dist(USArrests), "ave")
plot(hc)
plot(hc, hang = -1)

## Do the same with centroid clustering and *squared* Euclidean distance,
## cut the tree into ten clusters and reconstruct the upper part of the
## tree from the cluster centers.
hc <- hclust(dist(USArrests)^2, "cen")
memb <- cutree(hc, k = 10)
cent <- NULL
for(k in 1:10){
  cent <- rbind(cent, colMeans(USArrests[memb == k, , drop = FALSE]))
}
hc1 <- hclust(dist(cent)^2, method = "cen", members = table(memb))
opar <- par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
plot(hc, labels = FALSE, hang = -1, main = "Original Tree")
plot(hc1, labels = FALSE, hang = -1, main = "Re-start from 10 clusters")
par(opar)

### Example 2: Straight-line distances among 10 US cities
## Compare the results of algorithms "ward.D" and "ward.D2"

data(UScitiesD)

mds2 <- -cmdscale(UScitiesD)
plot(mds2, type="n", axes=FALSE, ann=FALSE)
text(mds2, labels=rownames(mds2), xpd = NA)

hcity.D <- hclust(UScitiesD, "ward.D") # "wrong"
hcity.D2 <- hclust(UScitiesD, "ward.D2")
opar <- par(mfrow = c(1, 2))
plot(hcity.D, hang=-1)
plot(hcity.D2, hang=-1)
par(opar)
```

Description

A heat map is a false color image (basically `image(t(x))`) with a dendrogram added to the left side and to the top. Typically, reordering of the rows and columns according to some set of values (row or column means) within the restrictions imposed by the dendrogram is carried out.

Usage

```
heatmap(x, Rowv = NULL, Colv = if(symm)"Rowv" else NULL,
        distfun = dist, hclustfun = hclust,
        reorderfun = function(d, w) reorder(d, w),
        add.expr, symm = FALSE, revC = identical(Colv, "Rowv"),
        scale = c("row", "column", "none"), na.rm = TRUE,
        margins = c(5, 5), ColSideColors, RowSideColors,
        cexRow = 0.2 + 1/log10(nr), cexCol = 0.2 + 1/log10(nc),
        labRow = NULL, labCol = NULL, main = NULL,
        xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
        keep.dendro = FALSE, verbose = getOption("verbose"), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	numeric matrix of the values to be plotted.
<code>Rowv</code>	determines if and how the <i>row</i> dendrogram should be computed and reordered. Either a dendrogram or a vector of values used to reorder the row dendrogram or <code>NA</code> to suppress any row dendrogram (and reordering) or by default, <code>NULL</code> , see ‘Details’ below.
<code>Colv</code>	determines if and how the <i>column</i> dendrogram should be reordered. Has the same options as the <code>Rowv</code> argument above and <i>additionally</i> when <code>x</code> is a square matrix, <code>Colv = "Rowv"</code> means that columns should be treated identically to the rows (and so if there is to be no row dendrogram there will not be a column one either).
<code>distfun</code>	function used to compute the distance (dissimilarity) between both rows and columns. Defaults to dist .
<code>hclustfun</code>	function used to compute the hierarchical clustering when <code>Rowv</code> or <code>Colv</code> are not dendrograms. Defaults to hclust . Should take as argument a result of <code>distfun</code> and return an object to which as.dendrogram can be applied.
<code>reorderfun</code>	<code>function(d, w)</code> of dendrogram and weights for reordering the row and column dendrograms. The default uses reorder.dendrogram .
<code>add.expr</code>	expression that will be evaluated after the call to <code>image</code> . Can be used to add components to the plot.
<code>symm</code>	logical indicating if <code>x</code> should be treated symmetrically ; can only be true when <code>x</code> is a square matrix.
<code>revC</code>	logical indicating if the column order should be reversed for plotting, such that e.g., for the symmetric case, the symmetry axis is as usual.
<code>scale</code>	character indicating if the values should be centered and scaled in either the row direction or the column direction, or none. The default is <code>"row"</code> if <code>symm</code> false, and <code>"none"</code> otherwise.

<code>na.rm</code>	logical indicating whether NA's should be removed.
<code>margins</code>	numeric vector of length 2 containing the margins (see <code>par(mar = *)</code>) for column and row names, respectively.
<code>ColSideColors</code>	(optional) character vector of length <code>ncol(x)</code> containing the color names for a horizontal side bar that may be used to annotate the columns of <code>x</code> .
<code>RowSideColors</code>	(optional) character vector of length <code>nrow(x)</code> containing the color names for a vertical side bar that may be used to annotate the rows of <code>x</code> .
<code>cexRow, cexCol</code>	positive numbers, used as <code>cex.axis</code> in for the row or column axis labeling. The defaults currently only use number of rows or columns, respectively.
<code>labRow, labCol</code>	character vectors with row and column labels to use; these default to <code>rownames(x)</code> or <code>colnames(x)</code> , respectively.
<code>main, xlab, ylab</code>	main, x- and y-axis titles; defaults to none.
<code>keep.dendro</code>	logical indicating if the dendrogram(s) should be kept as part of the result (when <code>Rowv</code> and/or <code>Colv</code> are not NA).
<code>verbose</code>	logical indicating if information should be printed.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments passed on to <code>image</code> , e.g., <code>col</code> specifying the colors.

Details

If either `Rowv` or `Colv` are dendrograms they are honored (and not reordered). Otherwise, dendrograms are computed as `dd <- as.dendrogram(hclustfun(distfun(X)))` where `X` is either `x` or `t(x)`.

If either is a vector (of 'weights') then the appropriate dendrogram is reordered according to the supplied values subject to the constraints imposed by the dendrogram, by `reorder(dd, Rowv)`, in the row case. If either is missing, as by default, then the ordering of the corresponding dendrogram is by the mean value of the rows/columns, i.e., in the case of rows, `Rowv <- rowMeans(x, na.rm = na.rm)`. If either is `NA`, *no reordering* will be done for the corresponding side.

By default (`scale = "row"`) the rows are scaled to have mean zero and standard deviation one. There is some empirical evidence from genomic plotting that this is useful.

The default colors are not pretty. Consider using enhancements such as the **RColorBrewer** package.

Value

Invisibly, a list with components

<code>rowInd</code>	row index permutation vector as returned by <code>order.dendrogram</code> .
<code>colInd</code>	column index permutation vector.
<code>Rowv</code>	the row dendrogram; only if input <code>Rowv</code> was not NA and <code>keep.dendro</code> is true.
<code>Colv</code>	the column dendrogram; only if input <code>Colv</code> was not NA and <code>keep.dendro</code> is true.

Note

Unless `Rowv = NA` (or `Colv = NA`), the original rows and columns are reordered *in any case* to match the dendrogram, e.g., the rows by `order.dendrogram(Rowv)` where `Rowv` is the (possibly `reorder()`ed) row dendrogram.

`heatmap()` uses `layout` and draws the `image` in the lower right corner of a 2x2 layout. Consequently, it can **not** be used in a multi column/row layout, i.e., when `par(mfrow = *)` or `(mfcol = *)` has been called.

Author(s)

Andy Liaw, original; R. Gentleman, M. Maechler, W. Huber, revisions.

See Also

[image](#), [hclust](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics); require(grDevices)
x <- as.matrix(mtcars)
rc <- rainbow(nrow(x), start = 0, end = .3)
cc <- rainbow(ncol(x), start = 0, end = .3)
hv <- heatmap(x, col = cm.colors(256), scale = "column",
              RowSideColors = rc, ColSideColors = cc, margins = c(5,10),
              xlab = "specification variables", ylab = "Car Models",
              main = "heatmap(<Mtcars data>, ..., scale = \"column\")")
utils::str(hv) # the two re-ordering index vectors

## no column dendrogram (nor reordering) at all:
heatmap(x, Colv = NA, col = cm.colors(256), scale = "column",
        RowSideColors = rc, margins = c(5,10),
        xlab = "specification variables", ylab = "Car Models",
        main = "heatmap(<Mtcars data>, ..., scale = \"column\")")

## "no nothing"
heatmap(x, Rowv = NA, Colv = NA, scale = "column",
        main = "heatmap(*, NA, NA) ~ image(t(x))")

round(Ca <- cor(attitude), 2)
symnum(Ca) # simple graphic
heatmap(Ca, symm = TRUE, margins = c(6,6)) # with reorder()
heatmap(Ca, Rowv = FALSE, symm = TRUE, margins = c(6,6)) # _NO_ reorder()
## slightly artificial with color bar, without and with ordering:
cc <- rainbow(nrow(Ca))
heatmap(Ca, Rowv = FALSE, symm = TRUE, RowSideColors = cc, ColSideColors = cc,
        margins = c(6,6))
heatmap(Ca, symm = TRUE, RowSideColors = cc, ColSideColors = cc,
        margins = c(6,6))

## For variable clustering, rather use distance based on cor():
```



```

symnum( cU <- cor(USJudgeRatings) )

hU <- heatmap(cU, Rowv = FALSE, symm = TRUE, col = topo.colors(16),
             distfun = function(c) as.dist(1 - c), keep.dendro = TRUE)
## The Correlation matrix with same reordering:
round(100 * cU[hU[[1]], hU[[2]])
## The column dendrogram:
utils::str(hU$Colv)

```

HoltWinters

*Holt-Winters Filtering***Description**

Computes Holt-Winters Filtering of a given time series. Unknown parameters are determined by minimizing the squared prediction error.

Usage

```

HoltWinters(x, alpha = NULL, beta = NULL, gamma = NULL,
           seasonal = c("additive", "multiplicative"),
           start.periods = 2, l.start = NULL, b.start = NULL,
           s.start = NULL,
           optim.start = c(alpha = 0.3, beta = 0.1, gamma = 0.1),
           optim.control = list())

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	An object of class <code>ts</code>
<code>alpha</code>	<i>alpha</i> parameter of Holt-Winters Filter.
<code>beta</code>	<i>beta</i> parameter of Holt-Winters Filter. If set to <code>FALSE</code> , the function will do exponential smoothing.
<code>gamma</code>	<i>gamma</i> parameter used for the seasonal component. If set to <code>FALSE</code> , a non-seasonal model is fitted.
<code>seasonal</code>	Character string to select an "additive" (the default) or "multiplicative" seasonal model. The first few characters are sufficient. (Only takes effect if <i>gamma</i> is non-zero).
<code>start.periods</code>	Start periods used in the autodetection of start values. Must be at least 2.
<code>l.start</code>	Start value for level ($a[0]$).
<code>b.start</code>	Start value for trend ($b[0]$).
<code>s.start</code>	Vector of start values for the seasonal component ($s_1[0] \dots s_p[0]$)
<code>optim.start</code>	Vector with named components <i>alpha</i> , <i>beta</i> , and <i>gamma</i> containing the starting values for the optimizer. Only the values needed must be specified. Ignored in the one-parameter case.
<code>optim.control</code>	Optional list with additional control parameters passed to <code>optim</code> if this is used. Ignored in the one-parameter case.

Details

The additive Holt-Winters prediction function (for time series with period length p) is

$$\hat{Y}[t+h] = a[t] + hb[t] + s[t-p+1+(h-1) \bmod p],$$

where $a[t]$, $b[t]$ and $s[t]$ are given by

$$a[t] = \alpha(Y[t] - s[t-p]) + (1-\alpha)(a[t-1] + b[t-1])$$

$$b[t] = \beta(a[t] - a[t-1]) + (1-\beta)b[t-1]$$

$$s[t] = \gamma(Y[t] - a[t]) + (1-\gamma)s[t-p]$$

The multiplicative Holt-Winters prediction function (for time series with period length p) is

$$\hat{Y}[t+h] = (a[t] + hb[t]) \times s[t-p+1+(h-1) \bmod p].$$

where $a[t]$, $b[t]$ and $s[t]$ are given by

$$a[t] = \alpha(Y[t]/s[t-p]) + (1-\alpha)(a[t-1] + b[t-1])$$

$$b[t] = \beta(a[t] - a[t-1]) + (1-\beta)b[t-1]$$

$$s[t] = \gamma(Y[t]/a[t]) + (1-\gamma)s[t-p]$$

The data in x are required to be non-zero for a multiplicative model, but it makes most sense if they are all positive.

The function tries to find the optimal values of α and/or β and/or γ by minimizing the squared one-step prediction error if they are NULL (the default). `optimize` will be used for the single-parameter case, and `optim` otherwise.

For seasonal models, start values for a , b and s are inferred by performing a simple decomposition in trend and seasonal component using moving averages (see function [decompose](#)) on the `start.periods` first periods (a simple linear regression on the trend component is used for starting level and trend). For level/trend-models (no seasonal component), start values for a and b are $x[2]$ and $x[2] - x[1]$, respectively. For level-only models (ordinary exponential smoothing), the start value for a is $x[1]$.

Value

An object of class "HoltWinters", a list with components:

<code>fitted</code>	A multiple time series with one column for the filtered series as well as for the level, trend and seasonal components, estimated contemporaneously (that is at time t and not at the end of the series).
<code>x</code>	The original series
<code>alpha</code>	alpha used for filtering
<code>beta</code>	beta used for filtering
<code>gamma</code>	gamma used for filtering
<code>coefficients</code>	A vector with named components a , b , s_1 , \dots , s_p containing the estimated values for the level, trend and seasonal components
<code>seasonal</code>	The specified seasonal parameter
<code>SSE</code>	The final sum of squared errors achieved in optimizing
<code>call</code>	The call used

Author(s)

David Meyer <David.Meyer@wu.ac.at>

References

C. C. Holt (1957) Forecasting trends and seasonals by exponentially weighted moving averages, *ONR Research Memorandum, Carnegie Institute of Technology* **52**.

P. R. Winters (1960) Forecasting sales by exponentially weighted moving averages, *Management Science* **6**, 324–342.

See Also

[predict.HoltWinters](#), [optim](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Seasonal Holt-Winters
(m <- HoltWinters(co2))
plot(m)
plot(fitted(m))

(m <- HoltWinters(AirPassengers, seasonal = "mult"))
plot(m)

## Non-Seasonal Holt-Winters
x <- uspop + rnorm(uspop, sd = 5)
m <- HoltWinters(x, gamma = FALSE)
plot(m)

## Exponential Smoothing
m2 <- HoltWinters(x, gamma = FALSE, beta = FALSE)
lines(fitted(m2)[,1], col = 3)
```

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the hypergeometric distribution.

Usage

```

dhyper(x, m, n, k, log = FALSE)
phyper(q, m, n, k, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qhyper(p, m, n, k, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rhyper(nn, m, n, k)

```

Arguments

<code>x, q</code>	vector of quantiles representing the number of white balls drawn without replacement from an urn which contains both black and white balls.
<code>m</code>	the number of white balls in the urn.
<code>n</code>	the number of black balls in the urn.
<code>k</code>	the number of balls drawn from the urn.
<code>p</code>	probability, it must be between 0 and 1.
<code>nn</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(nn) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as <code>log(p)</code> .
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The hypergeometric distribution is used for sampling *without* replacement. The density of this distribution with parameters `m`, `n` and `k` (named Np , $N - Np$, and n , respectively in the reference below) is given by

$$p(x) = \binom{m}{x} \binom{n}{k-x} / \binom{m+n}{k}$$

for $x = 0, \dots, k$.

The quantile is defined as the smallest value x such that $F(x) \geq p$, where F is the distribution function.

Value

`dhyper` gives the density, `phyper` gives the distribution function, `qhyper` gives the quantile function, and `rhyper` generates random deviates.

Invalid arguments will result in return value `NaN`, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by `n` for `rhyper`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `n` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Source

dhyper computes via binomial probabilities, using code contributed by Catherine Loader (see [dbinom](#)).

phyper is based on calculating dhyper and `phyper(...)/dhyper(...)` (as a summation), based on ideas of Ian Smith and Morten Welinder.

qhyper is based on inversion.

rhyper is based on a corrected version of

Kachitvichyanukul, V. and Schmeiser, B. (1985). Computer generation of hypergeometric random variates. *Journal of Statistical Computation and Simulation*, **22**, 127–145.

References

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S., and Kemp, A. W. (1992) *Univariate Discrete Distributions*, Second Edition. New York: Wiley.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions.

Examples

```
m <- 10; n <- 7; k <- 8
x <- 0:(k+1)
rbind(phyper(x, m, n, k), dhyper(x, m, n, k))
all(phyper(x, m, n, k) == cumsum(dhyper(x, m, n, k))) # FALSE
## but error is very small:
signif(phyper(x, m, n, k) - cumsum(dhyper(x, m, n, k)), digits = 3)
```

identify.hclust

Identify Clusters in a Dendrogram

Description

identify.hclust reads the position of the graphics pointer when the (first) mouse button is pressed. It then cuts the tree at the vertical position of the pointer and highlights the cluster containing the horizontal position of the pointer. Optionally a function is applied to the index of data points contained in the cluster.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'hclust'
identify(x, FUN = NULL, N = 20, MAXCLUSTER = 20, DEV.FUN = NULL,
...)
```

Arguments

x	an object of the type produced by hclust.
FUN	(optional) function to be applied to the index numbers of the data points in a cluster (see ‘Details’ below).
N	the maximum number of clusters to be identified.
MAXCLUSTER	the maximum number of clusters that can be produced by a cut (limits the effective vertical range of the pointer).
DEV.FUN	(optional) integer scalar. If specified, the corresponding graphics device is made active before FUN is applied.
...	further arguments to FUN.

Details

By default clusters can be identified using the mouse and an [invisible](#) list of indices of the respective data points is returned.

If FUN is not NULL, then the index vector of data points is passed to this function as first argument, see the examples below. The active graphics device for FUN can be specified using DEV.FUN.

The identification process is terminated by pressing any mouse button other than the first, see also [identify](#).

Value

Either a list of data point index vectors or a list of return values of FUN.

See Also

[hclust](#), [rect.hclust](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:
require(graphics)

hca <- hclust(dist(USArrests))
plot(hca)
(x <- identify(hca)) ## Terminate with 2nd mouse button !!

hci <- hclust(dist(iris[,1:4]))
plot(hci)
identify(hci, function(k) print(table(iris[k,5])))

# open a new device (one for dendrogram, one for bars):
dev.new() # << make that narrow (& small)
          # and *beside* 1st one
nD <- dev.cur() # to be for the barplot
dev.set(dev.prev()) # old one for dendrogram
plot(hci)
## select subtrees in dendrogram and "see" the species distribution:
```

```

identify(hci, function(k) barplot(table(iris[k,5]), col = 2:4), DEV.FUN = nD)

## End(Not run)

```

influence.measures *Regression Deletion Diagnostics*

Description

This suite of functions can be used to compute some of the regression (leave-one-out deletion) diagnostics for linear and generalized linear models discussed in Belsley, Kuh and Welsch (1980), Cook and Weisberg (1982), etc.

Usage

```

influence.measures(model)

rstandard(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
rstandard(model, infl = lm.influence(model, do.coef = FALSE),
          sd = sqrt(deviance(model)/df.residual(model)), ...)
## S3 method for class 'glm'
rstandard(model, infl = influence(model, do.coef = FALSE),
          type = c("deviance", "pearson"), ...)

rstudent(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
rstudent(model, infl = lm.influence(model, do.coef = FALSE),
          res = infl$wt.res, ...)
## S3 method for class 'glm'
rstudent(model, infl = influence(model, do.coef = FALSE), ...)

dffits(model, infl = , res = )

dfbeta(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
dfbeta(model, infl = lm.influence(model, do.coef = TRUE), ...)

dfbetas(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
dfbetas(model, infl = lm.influence(model, do.coef = TRUE), ...)

covratio(model, infl = lm.influence(model, do.coef = FALSE),
          res = weighted.residuals(model))

cooks.distance(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'

```

```

cooks.distance(model, infl = lm.influence(model, do.coef = FALSE),
               res = weighted.residuals(model),
               sd = sqrt(deviance(model)/df.residual(model)),
               hat = infl$hat, ...)
## S3 method for class 'glm'
cooks.distance(model, infl = influence(model, do.coef = FALSE),
               res = infl$pear.res,
               dispersion = summary(model)$dispersion,
               hat = infl$hat, ...)

hatvalues(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
hatvalues(model, infl = lm.influence(model, do.coef = FALSE), ...)

hat(x, intercept = TRUE)

```

Arguments

<code>model</code>	an R object, typically returned by <code>lm</code> or <code>glm</code> .
<code>infl</code>	influence structure as returned by <code>lm.influence</code> or <code>influence</code> (the latter only for the <code>glm</code> method of <code>rstudent</code> and <code>cooks.distance</code>).
<code>res</code>	(possibly weighted) residuals, with proper default.
<code>sd</code>	standard deviation to use, see default.
<code>dispersion</code>	dispersion (for <code>glm</code> objects) to use, see default.
<code>hat</code>	hat values H_{ii} , see default.
<code>type</code>	type of residuals for <code>glm</code> method for <code>rstandard</code> . Can be abbreviated.
<code>x</code>	the X or design matrix.
<code>intercept</code>	should an intercept column be prepended to <code>x</code> ?
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The primary high-level function is `influence.measures` which produces a class "infl" object tabular display showing the DFBETAS for each model variable, DFFITS, covariance ratios, Cook's distances and the diagonal elements of the hat matrix. Cases which are influential with respect to any of these measures are marked with an asterisk.

The functions `dfbetas`, `dffits`, `covratio` and `cooks.distance` provide direct access to the corresponding diagnostic quantities. Functions `rstandard` and `rstudent` give the standardized and Studentized residuals respectively. (These re-normalize the residuals to have unit variance, using an overall and leave-one-out measure of the error variance respectively.)

Values for generalized linear models are approximations, as described in Williams (1987) (except that Cook's distances are scaled as F rather than as chi-square values). The approximations can be poor when some cases have large influence.

The optional `infl`, `res` and `sd` arguments are there to encourage the use of these direct access functions, in situations where, e.g., the underlying basic influence measures (from `lm.influence` or the generic `influence`) are already available.

Note that cases with `weights == 0` are *dropped* from all these functions, but that if a linear model has been fitted with `na.action = na.exclude`, suitable values are filled in for the cases excluded during fitting.

The function `hat()` exists mainly for S (version 2) compatibility; we recommend using `hatvalues()` instead.

Note

For `hatvalues`, `dfbeta`, and `dfbetas`, the method for linear models also works for generalized linear models.

Author(s)

Several R core team members and John Fox, originally in his ‘car’ package.

References

- Belsley, D. A., Kuh, E. and Welsch, R. E. (1980) *Regression Diagnostics*. New York: Wiley.
- Cook, R. D. and Weisberg, S. (1982) *Residuals and Influence in Regression*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Williams, D. A. (1987) Generalized linear model diagnostics using the deviance and single case deletions. *Applied Statistics* **36**, 181–191.
- Fox, J. (1997) *Applied Regression, Linear Models, and Related Methods*. Sage.
- Fox, J. (2002) *An R and S-Plus Companion to Applied Regression*. Sage Publ.
- Fox, J. and Weisberg, S. (2011) *An R Companion to Applied Regression*, second edition. Sage Publ; <https://socserv.mcmaster.ca/jfox/Books/Companion/index.html>.

See Also

`influence` (containing `lm.influence`).

‘`plotmath`’ for the use of `hat` in plot annotation.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Analysis of the life-cycle savings data
## given in Belsley, Kuh and Welsch.
lm.SR <- lm(sr ~ pop15 + pop75 + dpi + ddpi, data = LifeCycleSavings)

inflm.SR <- influence.measures(lm.SR)
which(apply(inflm.SR$is.inf, 1, any))
# which observations 'are' influential
summary(inflm.SR) # only these
inflm.SR          # all
plot(rstudent(lm.SR) ~ hatvalues(lm.SR)) # recommended by some

## The 'infl' argument is not needed, but avoids recomputation:
```

```

rs <- rstandard(lm.SR)
iflSR <- influence(lm.SR)
identical(rs, rstandard(lm.SR, infl = iflSR))
## to "see" the larger values:
1000 * round(dfbetas(lm.SR, infl = iflSR), 3)

## Huber's data [Atkinson 1985]
xh <- c(-4:0, 10)
yh <- c(2.48, .73, -.04, -1.44, -1.32, 0)
summary(lmH <- lm(yh ~ xh))
(im <- influence.measures(lmH))
plot(xh,yh, main = "Huber's data: L.S. line and influential obs.")
abline(lmH); points(xh[im$is.inf], yh[im$is.inf], pch = 20, col = 2)

## Irwin's data [Williams 1987]
xi <- 1:5
yi <- c(0,2,14,19,30) # number of mice responding to dose xi
mi <- rep(40, 5)      # number of mice exposed
summary(lmI <- glm(cbind(yi, mi -yi) ~ xi, family = binomial))
signif(cooks.distance(lmI), 3) # ~= Ci in Table 3, p.184
(imI <- influence.measures(lmI))
stopifnot(all.equal(imI$infmat[, "cook.d"],
                    cooks.distance(lmI)))

```

integrate

Integration of One-Dimensional Functions

Description

Adaptive quadrature of functions of one variable over a finite or infinite interval.

Usage

```

integrate(f, lower, upper, ..., subdivisions = 100L,
          rel.tol = .Machine$double.eps^0.25, abs.tol = rel.tol,
          stop.on.error = TRUE, keep.xy = FALSE, aux = NULL)

```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	an R function taking a numeric first argument and returning a numeric vector of the same length. Returning a non-finite element will generate an error.
<code>lower, upper</code>	the limits of integration. Can be infinite.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments to be passed to <code>f</code> .
<code>subdivisions</code>	the maximum number of subintervals.
<code>rel.tol</code>	relative accuracy requested.
<code>abs.tol</code>	absolute accuracy requested.
<code>stop.on.error</code>	logical. If true (the default) an error stops the function. If false some errors will give a result with a warning in the message component.

<code>keep.xy</code>	unused. For compatibility with S.
<code>aux</code>	unused. For compatibility with S.

Details

Note that arguments after `...` must be matched exactly.

If one or both limits are infinite, the infinite range is mapped onto a finite interval.

For a finite interval, globally adaptive interval subdivision is used in connection with extrapolation by Wynn's Epsilon algorithm, with the basic step being Gauss–Kronrod quadrature.

`rel.tol` cannot be less than $\max(50 * \text{Machine\$double.eps}, 0.5e-28)$ if `abs.tol` ≤ 0 .

Value

A list of class "integrate" with components

<code>value</code>	the final estimate of the integral.
<code>abs.error</code>	estimate of the modulus of the absolute error.
<code>subdivisions</code>	the number of subintervals produced in the subdivision process.
<code>message</code>	"OK" or a character string giving the error message.
<code>call</code>	the matched call.

Note

Like all numerical integration routines, these evaluate the function on a finite set of points. If the function is approximately constant (in particular, zero) over nearly all its range it is possible that the result and error estimate may be seriously wrong.

When integrating over infinite intervals do so explicitly, rather than just using a large number as the endpoint. This increases the chance of a correct answer – any function whose integral over an infinite interval is finite must be near zero for most of that interval.

For values at a finite set of points to be a fair reflection of the behaviour of the function elsewhere, the function needs to be well-behaved, for example differentiable except perhaps for a small number of jumps or integrable singularities.

`f` must accept a vector of inputs and produce a vector of function evaluations at those points. The [Vectorize](#) function may be helpful to convert `f` to this form.

Source

Based on QUADPACK routines `dqags` and `dqagi` by R. Piessens and E. deDoncker–Kapenga, available from Netlib.

References

R. Piessens, E. deDoncker–Kapenga, C. Uberhuber, D. Kahaner (1983) *Quadpack: a Subroutine Package for Automatic Integration*; Springer Verlag.

Examples

```

integrate(dnorm, -1.96, 1.96)
integrate(dnorm, -Inf, Inf)

## a slowly-convergent integral
integrand <- function(x) {1/((x+1)*sqrt(x))}
integrate(integrand, lower = 0, upper = Inf)

## don't do this if you really want the integral from 0 to Inf
integrate(integrand, lower = 0, upper = 10)
integrate(integrand, lower = 0, upper = 100000)
integrate(integrand, lower = 0, upper = 1000000, stop.on.error = FALSE)

## some functions do not handle vector input properly
f <- function(x) 2.0
try(integrate(f, 0, 1))
integrate(Vectorize(f), 0, 1) ## correct
integrate(function(x) rep(2.0, length(x)), 0, 1) ## correct

## integrate can fail if misused
integrate(dnorm, 0, 2)
integrate(dnorm, 0, 20)
integrate(dnorm, 0, 200)
integrate(dnorm, 0, 2000)
integrate(dnorm, 0, 20000) ## fails on many systems
integrate(dnorm, 0, Inf) ## works

```

interaction.plot

Two-way Interaction Plot

Description

Plots the mean (or other summary) of the response for two-way combinations of factors, thereby illustrating possible interactions.

Usage

```

interaction.plot(x.factor, trace.factor, response, fun = mean,
                type = c("l", "p", "b", "o", "c"), legend = TRUE,
                trace.label = deparse(substitute(trace.factor)),
                fixed = FALSE,
                xlab = deparse(substitute(x.factor)),
                ylab = ylabel,
                ylim = range(cells, na.rm = TRUE),
                lty = nc:1, col = 1, pch = c(1:9, 0, letters),
                xpd = NULL, leg.bg = par("bg"), leg.bty = "n",
                xtick = FALSE, xaxt = par("xaxt"), axes = TRUE,
                ...)

```

Arguments

<code>x.factor</code>	a factor whose levels will form the x axis.
<code>trace.factor</code>	another factor whose levels will form the traces.
<code>response</code>	a numeric variable giving the response
<code>fun</code>	the function to compute the summary. Should return a single real value.
<code>type</code>	the type of plot (see plot.default): lines or points or both.
<code>legend</code>	logical. Should a legend be included?
<code>trace.label</code>	overall label for the legend.
<code>fixed</code>	logical. Should the legend be in the order of the levels of <code>trace.factor</code> or in the order of the traces at their right-hand ends?
<code>xlab, ylab</code>	the x and y label of the plot each with a sensible default.
<code>ylim</code>	numeric of length 2 giving the y limits for the plot.
<code>lty</code>	line type for the lines drawn, with sensible default.
<code>col</code>	the color to be used for plotting.
<code>pch</code>	a vector of plotting symbols or characters, with sensible default.
<code>xpd</code>	determines clipping behaviour for the legend used, see par(xpd) . Per default, the legend is <i>not</i> clipped at the figure border.
<code>leg.bg, leg.bty</code>	arguments passed to legend() .
<code>xtick</code>	logical. Should tick marks be used on the x axis?
<code>xaxt, axes, ...</code>	graphics parameters to be passed to the plotting routines.

Details

By default the levels of `x.factor` are plotted on the x axis in their given order, with extra space left at the right for the legend (if specified). If `x.factor` is an ordered factor and the levels are numeric, these numeric values are used for the x axis.

The response and hence its summary can contain missing values. If so, the missing values and the line segments joining them are omitted from the plot (and this can be somewhat disconcerting).

The graphics parameters `xlab`, `ylab`, `ylim`, `lty`, `col` and `pch` are given suitable defaults (and `xlim` and `xaxs` are set and cannot be overridden). The defaults are to cycle through the line types, use the foreground colour, and to use the symbols 1:9, 0, and the capital letters to plot the traces.

Note

Some of the argument names and the precise behaviour are chosen for S-compatibility.

References

Chambers, J. M., Freeny, A and Heiberger, R. M. (1992) *Analysis of variance; designed experiments*. Chapter 5 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Examples

```

require(graphics)

with(ToothGrowth, {
  interaction.plot(dose, supp, len, fixed = TRUE)
  dose <- ordered(dose)
  interaction.plot(dose, supp, len, fixed = TRUE, col = 2:3, leg.bty = "o")
  interaction.plot(dose, supp, len, fixed = TRUE, col = 2:3, type = "p")
})

with(OrchardSprays, {
  interaction.plot(treatment, rowpos, decrease)
  interaction.plot(rowpos, treatment, decrease, cex.axis = 0.8)
  ## order the rows by their mean effect
  rowpos <- factor(rowpos,
    levels = sort.list(tapply(decrease, rowpos, mean)))
  interaction.plot(rowpos, treatment, decrease, col = 2:9, lty = 1)
})

with(esoph, {
  interaction.plot(agegp, alcgp, ncases/ncontrols, main = "'esoph' Data")
  interaction.plot(agegp, tobgp, ncases/ncontrols, trace.label = "tobacco",
    fixed = TRUE, xaxt = "n")
})
## deal with NAs:
esoph[66,] # second to last age group: 65-74
esophNA <- esoph; esophNA$ncases[66] <- NA
with(esophNA, {
  interaction.plot(agegp, alcgp, ncases/ncontrols, col = 2:5)
  # doesn't show *last* group either
  interaction.plot(agegp, alcgp, ncases/ncontrols, col = 2:5, type = "b")
  ## alternative take non-NA's {"cheating"}
  interaction.plot(agegp, alcgp, ncases/ncontrols, col = 2:5,
    fun = function(x) mean(x, na.rm = TRUE),
    sub = "function(x) mean(x, na.rm=TRUE)")
})
rm(esophNA) # to clear up

```

Description

computes interquartile range of the x values.

Usage

```
IQR(x, na.rm = FALSE, type = 7)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector.
na.rm	logical. Should missing values be removed?
type	an integer selecting one of the many quantile algorithms, see quantile .

Details

Note that this function computes the quartiles using the [quantile](#) function rather than following Tukey's recommendations, i.e., $\text{IQR}(x) = \text{quantile}(x, 3/4) - \text{quantile}(x, 1/4)$.

For normally $N(m, 1)$ distributed X , the expected value of $\text{IQR}(X)$ is $2 \cdot \text{qnorm}(3/4) = 1.3490$, i.e., for a normal-consistent estimate of the standard deviation, use $\text{IQR}(x) / 1.349$.

References

Tukey, J. W. (1977). *Exploratory Data Analysis*. Reading: Addison-Wesley.

See Also

[fivenum](#), [mad](#) which is more robust, [range](#), [quantile](#).

Examples

```
IQR(rivers)
```

```
is.empty.model
```

Test if a Model's Formula is Empty

Description

R's formula notation allows models with no intercept and no predictors. These require special handling internally. `is.empty.model()` checks whether an object describes an empty model.

Usage

```
is.empty.model(x)
```

Arguments

x	A terms object or an object with a terms method.
---	--

Value

TRUE if the model is empty

See Also

[lm](#), [glm](#)

Examples

```

y <- rnorm(20)
is.empty.model(y ~ 0)
is.empty.model(y ~ -1)
is.empty.model(lm(y ~ 0))

```

isoreg

*Isotonic / Monotone Regression***Description**

Compute the isotonic (monotonely increasing nonparametric) least squares regression which is piecewise constant.

Usage

```
isoreg(x, y = NULL)
```

Arguments

`x`, `y` coordinate vectors of the regression points. Alternatively a single plotting structure can be specified: see [xy.coords](#).

Details

The algorithm determines the convex minorant $m(x)$ of the *cumulative* data (i.e., `cumsum(y)`) which is piecewise linear and the result is $m'(x)$, a step function with level changes at locations where the convex $m(x)$ touches the cumulative data polygon and changes slope.

[as.stepfun\(\)](#) returns a [stepfun](#) object which can be more parsimonious.

Value

`isoreg()` returns an object of class `isoreg` which is basically a list with components

<code>x</code>	original (constructed) abscissa values <code>x</code> .
<code>y</code>	corresponding <code>y</code> values.
<code>yf</code>	fitted values corresponding to <i>ordered</i> <code>x</code> values.
<code>yc</code>	cumulative <code>y</code> values corresponding to <i>ordered</i> <code>x</code> values.
<code>iKnots</code>	integer vector giving indices where the fitted curve jumps, i.e., where the convex minorant has kinks.
<code>isOrd</code>	logical indicating if original <code>x</code> values were ordered increasingly already.
<code>ord</code>	if (<code>!isOrd</code>): integer permutation order (<code>x</code>) of <i>original</i> <code>x</code> .
<code>call</code>	the call to <code>isoreg()</code> used.

Note

The code should be improved to accept *weights* additionally and solve the corresponding weighted least squares problem.

‘Patches are welcome!’

References

Barlow, R. E., Bartholomew, D. J., Bremner, J. M., and Brunk, H. D. (1972) *Statistical inference under order restrictions*; Wiley, London.

Robertson, T., Wright, F. T. and Dykstra, R. L. (1988) *Order Restricted Statistical Inference*; Wiley, New York.

See Also

the plotting method `plot.isoreg` with more examples; `isoMDS()` from the **MASS** package internally uses isotonic regression.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

(ir <- isoreg(c(1,0,4,3,3,5,4,2,0)))
plot(ir, plot.type = "row")

(ir3 <- isoreg(y3 <- c(1,0,4,3,3,5,4,2, 3))) # last "3", not "0"
(fi3 <- as.stepfun(ir3))
(ir4 <- isoreg(1:10, y4 <- c(5, 9, 1:2, 5:8, 3, 8)))
cat(sprintf("R^2 = %.2f\n",
            1 - sum(residuals(ir4)^2) / ((10-1)*var(y4))))

## If you are interested in the knots alone :
with(ir4, cbind(iKnots, yf[iKnots]))

## Example of unordered x[] with ties:
x <- sample((0:30)/8)
y <- exp(x)
x. <- round(x) # ties!
plot(m <- isoreg(x., y))
stopifnot(all.equal(with(m, yf[iKnots]),
                    as.vector(tapply(y, x., mean)))))
```

Description

Use Kalman Filtering to find the (Gaussian) log-likelihood, or for forecasting or smoothing.

Usage

```

KalmanLike(y, mod, nit = 0L, update = FALSE)
KalmanRun(y, mod, nit = 0L, update = FALSE)
KalmanSmooth(y, mod, nit = 0L)
KalmanForecast(n.ahead = 10L, mod, update = FALSE)

makeARIMA(phi, theta, Delta, kappa = 1e6,
           SSinit = c("Gardner1980", "Rossignol2011"),
           tol = .Machine$double.eps)

```

Arguments

y	a univariate time series.
mod	a list describing the state-space model: see ‘Details’.
nit	the time at which the initialization is computed. <code>nit = 0L</code> implies that the initialization is for a one-step prediction, so P_n should not be computed at the first step.
update	if TRUE the update mod object will be returned as attribute “mod” of the result.
n.ahead	the number of steps ahead for which prediction is required.
phi, theta	numeric vectors of length ≥ 0 giving AR and MA parameters.
Delta	vector of differencing coefficients, so an ARMA model is fitted to $y[t] - \text{Delta}[1]*y[t-1] - \dots$
kappa	the prior variance (as a multiple of the innovations variance) for the past observations in a differenced model.
SSinit	a string specifying the algorithm to compute the P_n part of the state-space initialization; see ‘Details’.
tol	tolerance eventually passed to <code>solve.default</code> when <code>SSinit = "Rossignol2011"</code> .

Details

These functions work with a general univariate state-space model with state vector ‘a’, transitions ‘ $a \leftarrow T a + R e$ ’, $e \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \kappa Q)$ and observation equation ‘ $y = Z'a + \text{eta}$ ’, ($\text{eta} \equiv \eta$), $\eta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \kappa h)$. The likelihood is a profile likelihood after estimation of κ .

The model is specified as a list with at least components

T the transition matrix

Z the observation coefficients

h the observation variance

V ‘RQR’

a the current state estimate

P the current estimate of the state uncertainty matrix Q

P_n the estimate at time $t - 1$ of the state uncertainty matrix Q (not updated by `KalmanForecast`).

KalmanSmooth is the workhorse function for [tsSmooth](#).

makeARIMA constructs the state-space model for an ARIMA model, see also [arima](#).

The state-space initialization has used Gardner *et al*'s method (`SSinit = "Gardner1980"`), as only method for years. However, that suffers sometimes from deficiencies when close to non-stationarity. For this reason, it may be replaced as default in the future and only kept for reproducibility reasons. Explicit specification of `SSinit` is therefore recommended, notably also in [arima\(\)](#). The "Rossignol2011" method has been proposed and partly documented by Raphael Rossignol, Univ. Grenoble, on 2011-09-20 (see PR#14682, below), and later been ported to C by Matvey V. Kornilov. It computes the covariance matrix of $(X_{t-1}, \dots, X_{t-p}, Z_t, \dots, Z_{t-q})$ by the method of difference equations (page 93 of Brockwell and Davis), apparently suggested by a referee of Gardner *et al* (see p.314 of their paper).

Value

For `KalmanLike`, a list with components `Lik` (the log-likelihood less some constants) and `s2`, the estimate of κ .

For `KalmanRun`, a list with components `values`, a vector of length 2 giving the output of `KalmanLike`, `resid` (the residuals) and `states`, the contemporaneous state estimates, a matrix with one row for each observation time.

For `KalmanSmooth`, a list with two components. Component `smooth` is a n by p matrix of state estimates based on all the observations, with one row for each time. Component `var` is a n by p by p array of variance matrices.

For `KalmanForecast`, a list with components `pred`, the predictions, and `var`, the unscaled variances of the prediction errors (to be multiplied by `s2`).

For `makeARIMA`, a model list including components for its arguments.

Warning

These functions are designed to be called from other functions which check the validity of the arguments passed, so very little checking is done.

References

Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press.

Gardner, G, Harvey, A. C. and Phillips, G. D. A. (1980) Algorithm AS154. An algorithm for exact maximum likelihood estimation of autoregressive-moving average models by means of Kalman filtering. *Applied Statistics* **29**, 311–322.

R bug report PR#14682 (2011-2013) https://bugs.r-project.org/bugzilla3/show_bug.cgi?id=14682.

See Also

[arima](#), [StructTS](#), [tsSmooth](#).

Examples

```
## an ARIMA fit
fit3 <- arima(presidents, c(3, 0, 0))
predict(fit3, 12)
## reconstruct this
pr <- KalmanForecast(12, fit3$model)
pr$pred + fit3$coef[4]
sqrt(pr$var * fit3$sigma2)
## and now do it year by year
mod <- fit3$model
for(y in 1:3) {
  pr <- KalmanForecast(4, mod, TRUE)
  print(list(pred = pr$pred + fit3$coef["intercept"],
            se = sqrt(pr$var * fit3$sigma2)))
  mod <- attr(pr, "mod")
}
```

kernapply

*Apply Smoothing Kernel***Description**

kernapply computes the convolution between an input sequence and a specific kernel.

Usage

```
kernapply(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
kernapply(x, k, circular = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'ts'
kernapply(x, k, circular = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'vector'
kernapply(x, k, circular = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'tskernel'
kernapply(x, k, ...)
```

Arguments

x	an input vector, matrix, time series or kernel to be smoothed.
k	smoothing "tskernel" object.
circular	a logical indicating whether the input sequence to be smoothed is treated as circular, i.e., periodic.
...	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

A smoothed version of the input sequence.

Note

This uses `fft` to perform the convolution, so is fastest when `NROW(x)` is a power of 2 or some other highly composite integer.

Author(s)

A. Trapletti

See Also

[kernel](#), [convolve](#), [filter](#), [spectrum](#)

Examples

```
## see 'kernel' for examples
```

kernel

Smoothing Kernel Objects

Description

The "tskernel" class is designed to represent discrete symmetric normalized smoothing kernels. These kernels can be used to smooth vectors, matrices, or time series objects.

There are [print](#), [plot](#) and `[]` methods for these kernel objects.

Usage

```
kernel(coef, m = 2, r, name)

df.kernel(k)
bandwidth.kernel(k)
is.tskernel(k)

## S3 method for class 'tskernel'
plot(x, type = "h", xlab = "k", ylab = "W[k]",
     main = attr(x, "name"), ...)
```

Arguments

coef	the upper half of the smoothing kernel coefficients (including coefficient zero) <i>or</i> the name of a kernel (currently "daniell", "dirichlet", "fejer" or "modified.daniell").
m	the kernel dimension(s) if coef is a name. When m has length larger than one, it means the convolution of kernels of dimension $m[j]$, for j in $1:\text{length}(m)$. Currently this is supported only for the named "*daniell" kernels.
name	the name the kernel will be called.
r	the kernel order for a Fejer kernel.
k, x	a "tskernel" object.
type, xlab, ylab, main, ...	arguments passed to plot.default .

Details

kernel is used to construct a general kernel or named specific kernels. The modified Daniell kernel halves the end coefficients (as used by S-PLUS).

The [\[](#) method allows natural indexing of kernel objects with indices in $(-m) : m$. The normalization is such that for $k \leftarrow \text{kernel}(*), \text{sum}(k[-k\$m : k\$m])$ is one.

`df.kernel` returns the 'equivalent degrees of freedom' of a smoothing kernel as defined in Brockwell and Davis (1991), page 362, and `bandwidth.kernel` returns the equivalent bandwidth as defined in Bloomfield (1976), p. 201, with a continuity correction.

Value

kernel() returns an object of class "tskernel" which is basically a list with the two components coef and the kernel dimension m. An additional attribute is "name".

Author(s)

A. Trapletti; modifications by B.D. Ripley

References

- Bloomfield, P. (1976) *Fourier Analysis of Time Series: An Introduction*. Wiley.
- Brockwell, P.J. and Davis, R.A. (1991) *Time Series: Theory and Methods*. Second edition. Springer, pp. 350–365.

See Also

[kernapply](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Demonstrate a simple trading strategy for the
## financial time series German stock index DAX.
x <- EuStockMarkets[,1]
k1 <- kernel("daniell", 50) # a long moving average
k2 <- kernel("daniell", 10) # and a short one
plot(k1)
plot(k2)
x1 <- kernapply(x, k1)
x2 <- kernapply(x, k2)
plot(x)
lines(x1, col = "red") # go long if the short crosses the long upwards
lines(x2, col = "green") # and go short otherwise

## More interesting kernels
kd <- kernel("daniell", c(3, 3))
kd # note the unusual indexing
kd[-2:2]
plot(kernel("fejer", 100, r = 6))
plot(kernel("modified.daniell", c(7,5,3)))

# Reproduce example 10.4.3 from Brockwell and Davis (1991)
spectrum(sunspot.year, kernel = kernel("daniell", c(11,7,3)), log = "no")
```

kmeans

K-Means Clustering

Description

Perform k-means clustering on a data matrix.

Usage

```
kmeans(x, centers, iter.max = 10, nstart = 1,
       algorithm = c("Hartigan-Wong", "Lloyd", "Forgy",
                     "MacQueen"), trace=FALSE)

## S3 method for class 'kmeans'
fitted(object, method = c("centers", "classes"), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	numeric matrix of data, or an object that can be coerced to such a matrix (such as a numeric vector or a data frame with all numeric columns).
<code>centers</code>	either the number of clusters, say k , or a set of initial (distinct) cluster centres. If a number, a random set of (distinct) rows in <code>x</code> is chosen as the initial centres.
<code>iter.max</code>	the maximum number of iterations allowed.

nstart	if centers is a number, how many random sets should be chosen?
algorithm	character: may be abbreviated. Note that "Lloyd" and "Forgy" are alternative names for one algorithm.
object	an R object of class "kmeans", typically the result of <code>ob <- kmeans(...)</code> .
method	character: may be abbreviated. "centers" causes fitted to return cluster centers (one for each input point) and "classes" causes fitted to return a vector of class assignments.
trace	logical or integer number, currently only used in the default method ("Hartigan-Wong"): if positive (or true), tracing information on the progress of the algorithm is produced. Higher values may produce more tracing information.
...	not used.

Details

The data given by `x` are clustered by the k -means method, which aims to partition the points into k groups such that the sum of squares from points to the assigned cluster centres is minimized. At the minimum, all cluster centres are at the mean of their Voronoi sets (the set of data points which are nearest to the cluster centre).

The algorithm of Hartigan and Wong (1979) is used by default. Note that some authors use k -means to refer to a specific algorithm rather than the general method: most commonly the algorithm given by MacQueen (1967) but sometimes that given by Lloyd (1957) and Forgy (1965). The Hartigan-Wong algorithm generally does a better job than either of those, but trying several random starts (`nstart > 1`) is often recommended. In rare cases, when some of the points (rows of `x`) are extremely close, the algorithm may not converge in the "Quick-Transfer" stage, signalling a warning (and returning `ifault = 4`). Slight rounding of the data may be advisable in that case.

For ease of programmatic exploration, $k = 1$ is allowed, notably returning the center and `withinss`.

Except for the Lloyd-Forgy method, k clusters will always be returned if a number is specified. If an initial matrix of centres is supplied, it is possible that no point will be closest to one or more centres, which is currently an error for the Hartigan-Wong method.

Value

`kmeans` returns an object of class "kmeans" which has a `print` and a `fitted` method. It is a list with at least the following components:

cluster	A vector of integers (from 1:k) indicating the cluster to which each point is allocated.
centers	A matrix of cluster centres.
totss	The total sum of squares.
withinss	Vector of within-cluster sum of squares, one component per cluster.
tot.withinss	Total within-cluster sum of squares, i.e. <code>sum(withinss)</code> .
betweenss	The between-cluster sum of squares, i.e. <code>totss-tot.withinss</code> .
size	The number of points in each cluster.
iter	The number of (outer) iterations.
ifault	integer: indicator of a possible algorithm problem – for experts.

References

- Forgy, E. W. (1965) Cluster analysis of multivariate data: efficiency vs interpretability of classifications. *Biometrics* **21**, 768–769.
- Hartigan, J. A. and Wong, M. A. (1979). A K-means clustering algorithm. *Applied Statistics* **28**, 100–108.
- Lloyd, S. P. (1957, 1982) Least squares quantization in PCM. Technical Note, Bell Laboratories. Published in 1982 in *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory* **28**, 128–137.
- MacQueen, J. (1967) Some methods for classification and analysis of multivariate observations. In *Proceedings of the Fifth Berkeley Symposium on Mathematical Statistics and Probability*, eds L. M. Le Cam & J. Neyman, **1**, pp. 281–297. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

# a 2-dimensional example
x <- rbind(matrix(rnorm(100, sd = 0.3), ncol = 2),
            matrix(rnorm(100, mean = 1, sd = 0.3), ncol = 2))
colnames(x) <- c("x", "y")
(cl <- kmeans(x, 2))
plot(x, col = cl$cluster)
points(cl$centers, col = 1:2, pch = 8, cex = 2)

# sum of squares
ss <- function(x) sum(scale(x, scale = FALSE)^2)

## cluster centers "fitted" to each obs.:
fitted.x <- fitted(cl); head(fitted.x)
resid.x <- x - fitted(cl)

## Equalities : -----
cbind(cl[c("betweenss", "tot.withinss", "totss")], # the same two columns
      c(ss(fitted.x), ss(resid.x), ss(x)))
stopifnot(all.equal(cl$ totss, ss(x)),
          all.equal(cl$ tot.withinss, ss(resid.x)),
          ## these three are the same:
          all.equal(cl$ betweenss, ss(fitted.x)),
          all.equal(cl$ betweenss, cl$totss - cl$tot.withinss),
          ## and hence also
          all.equal(ss(x), ss(fitted.x) + ss(resid.x))
          )

kmeans(x,1)$withinss # trivial one-cluster, (its W.SS == ss(x))

## random starts do help here with too many clusters
## (and are often recommended anyway!):
(cl <- kmeans(x, 5, nstart = 25))
plot(x, col = cl$cluster)
points(cl$centers, col = 1:5, pch = 8)
```

kruskal.test	<i>Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test</i>
--------------	-------------------------------------

Description

Performs a Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test.

Usage

```
kruskal.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
kruskal.test(x, g, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
kruskal.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector of data values, or a list of numeric data vectors. Non-numeric elements of a list will be coerced, with a warning.
g	a vector or factor object giving the group for the corresponding elements of x. Ignored with a warning if x is a list.
formula	a formula of the form response ~ group where response gives the data values and group a vector or factor of the corresponding groups.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

`kruskal.test` performs a Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test of the null that the location parameters of the distribution of x are the same in each group (sample). The alternative is that they differ in at least one.

If x is a list, its elements are taken as the samples to be compared, and hence have to be numeric data vectors. In this case, g is ignored, and one can simply use `kruskal.test(x)` to perform the test. If the samples are not yet contained in a list, use `kruskal.test(list(x, ...))`.

Otherwise, x must be a numeric data vector, and g must be a vector or factor object of the same length as x giving the group for the corresponding elements of x.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum statistic.
parameter	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
method	the character string "Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test".
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

Myles Hollander and Douglas A. Wolfe (1973), *Nonparametric Statistical Methods*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 115–120.

See Also

The Wilcoxon rank sum test ([wilcox.test](#)) as the special case for two samples; [lm](#) together with [anova](#) for performing one-way location analysis under normality assumptions; with Student's t test ([t.test](#)) as the special case for two samples.

[wilcox_test](#) in package [coin](#) for exact, asymptotic and Monte Carlo *conditional* p-values, including in the presence of ties.

Examples

```
## Hollander & Wolfe (1973), 116.
## Mucociliary efficiency from the rate of removal of dust in normal
## subjects, subjects with obstructive airway disease, and subjects
## with asbestosis.
x <- c(2.9, 3.0, 2.5, 2.6, 3.2) # normal subjects
y <- c(3.8, 2.7, 4.0, 2.4)      # with obstructive airway disease
z <- c(2.8, 3.4, 3.7, 2.2, 2.0) # with asbestosis
kruskal.test(list(x, y, z))
## Equivalently,
x <- c(x, y, z)
g <- factor(rep(1:3, c(5, 4, 5)),
             labels = c("Normal subjects",
                        "Subjects with obstructive airway disease",
                        "Subjects with asbestosis"))
kruskal.test(x, g)

## Formula interface.
require(graphics)
boxplot(Ozone ~ Month, data = airquality)
kruskal.test(Ozone ~ Month, data = airquality)
```

ks.test	<i>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests</i>
---------	---------------------------------

Description

Perform a one- or two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

Usage

```
ks.test(x, y, ...,
        alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
        exact = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector of data values.
y	either a numeric vector of data values, or a character string naming a cumulative distribution function or an actual cumulative distribution function such as <code>pnorm</code> . Only continuous CDFs are valid.
...	parameters of the distribution specified (as a character string) by y.
alternative	indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided" (default), "less", or "greater". You can specify just the initial letter of the value, but the argument name must be give in full. See 'Details' for the meanings of the possible values.
exact	NULL or a logical indicating whether an exact p-value should be computed. See 'Details' for the meaning of NULL. Not available in the two-sample case for a one-sided test or if ties are present.

Details

If y is numeric, a two-sample test of the null hypothesis that x and y were drawn from the same *continuous* distribution is performed.

Alternatively, y can be a character string naming a continuous (cumulative) distribution function, or such a function. In this case, a one-sample test is carried out of the null that the distribution function which generated x is distribution y with parameters specified by ...

The presence of ties always generates a warning, since continuous distributions do not generate them. If the ties arose from rounding the tests may be approximately valid, but even modest amounts of rounding can have a significant effect on the calculated statistic.

Missing values are silently omitted from x and (in the two-sample case) y.

The possible values "two.sided", "less" and "greater" of alternative specify the null hypothesis that the true distribution function of x is equal to, not less than or not greater than the hypothesized distribution function (one-sample case) or the distribution function of y (two-sample case), respectively. This is a comparison of cumulative distribution functions, and the test statistic is the maximum difference in value, with the statistic in the "greater" alternative being $D^+ = \max_u [F_x(u) - F_y(u)]$. Thus in the two-sample case `alternative = "greater"` includes

distributions for which x is stochastically *smaller* than y (the CDF of x lies above and hence to the left of that for y), in contrast to `t.test` or `wilcox.test`.

Exact p-values are not available for the two-sample case if one-sided or in the presence of ties. If `exact = NULL` (the default), an exact p-value is computed if the sample size is less than 100 in the one-sample case *and there are no ties*, and if the product of the sample sizes is less than 10000 in the two-sample case. Otherwise, asymptotic distributions are used whose approximations may be inaccurate in small samples. In the one-sample two-sided case, exact p-values are obtained as described in Marsaglia, Tsang & Wang (2003) (but not using the optional approximation in the right tail, so this can be slow for small p-values). The formula of Birnbaum & Tingey (1951) is used for the one-sample one-sided case.

If a single-sample test is used, the parameters specified in `...` must be pre-specified and not estimated from the data. There is some more refined distribution theory for the KS test with estimated parameters (see Durbin, 1973), but that is not implemented in `ks.test`.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

<code>statistic</code>	the value of the test statistic.
<code>p.value</code>	the p-value of the test.
<code>alternative</code>	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.
<code>method</code>	a character string indicating what type of test was performed.
<code>data.name</code>	a character string giving the name(s) of the data.

Source

The two-sided one-sample distribution comes *via* Marsaglia, Tsang and Wang (2003).

References

- Z. W. Birnbaum and Fred H. Tingey (1951), One-sided confidence contours for probability distribution functions. *The Annals of Mathematical Statistics*, **22**/4, 592–596.
- William J. Conover (1971), *Practical Nonparametric Statistics*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 295–301 (one-sample Kolmogorov test), 309–314 (two-sample Smirnov test).
- Durbin, J. (1973), *Distribution theory for tests based on the sample distribution function*. SIAM.
- George Marsaglia, Wai Wan Tsang and Jingbo Wang (2003), Evaluating Kolmogorov's distribution. *Journal of Statistical Software*, **8**/18. <http://www.jstatsoft.org/v08/i18/>.

See Also

`shapiro.test` which performs the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality.

Examples

```

require(graphics)

x <- rnorm(50)
y <- runif(30)
# Do x and y come from the same distribution?
ks.test(x, y)
# Does x come from a shifted gamma distribution with shape 3 and rate 2?
ks.test(x+2, "pgamma", 3, 2) # two-sided, exact
ks.test(x+2, "pgamma", 3, 2, exact = FALSE)
ks.test(x+2, "pgamma", 3, 2, alternative = "gr")

# test if x is stochastically larger than x2
x2 <- rnorm(50, -1)
plot(ecdf(x), xlim = range(c(x, x2)))
plot(ecdf(x2), add = TRUE, lty = "dashed")
t.test(x, x2, alternative = "g")
wilcox.test(x, x2, alternative = "g")
ks.test(x, x2, alternative = "l")

```

ksmooth

*Kernel Regression Smoother***Description**

The Nadaraya–Watson kernel regression estimate.

Usage

```

ksmooth(x, y, kernel = c("box", "normal"), bandwidth = 0.5,
        range.x = range(x),
        n.points = max(100L, length(x)), x.points)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	input x values. Long vectors are supported.
<code>y</code>	input y values. Long vectors are supported.
<code>kernel</code>	the kernel to be used. Can be abbreviated.
<code>bandwidth</code>	the bandwidth. The kernels are scaled so that their quartiles (viewed as probability densities) are at $\pm 0.25 \times \text{bandwidth}$.
<code>range.x</code>	the range of points to be covered in the output.
<code>n.points</code>	the number of points at which to evaluate the fit.
<code>x.points</code>	points at which to evaluate the smoothed fit. If missing, <code>n.points</code> are chosen uniformly to cover <code>range.x</code> . Long vectors are supported.

Value

A list with components

x	values at which the smoothed fit is evaluated. Guaranteed to be in increasing order.
y	fitted values corresponding to x.

Note

This function was implemented for compatibility with S, although it is nowhere near as slow as the S function. Better kernel smoothers are available in other packages such as **KernSmooth**.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

with(cars, {
  plot(speed, dist)
  lines(ksmooth(speed, dist, "normal", bandwidth = 2), col = 2)
  lines(ksmooth(speed, dist, "normal", bandwidth = 5), col = 3)
})
```

lag

Lag a Time Series

Description

Compute a lagged version of a time series, shifting the time base back by a given number of observations.

lag is a generic function; this page documents its default method.

Usage

```
lag(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
lag(x, k = 1, ...)
```

Arguments

x	A vector or matrix or univariate or multivariate time series
k	The number of lags (in units of observations).
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

Vector or matrix arguments x are given a tsp attribute *via* [hasTsp](#).

Value

A time series object with the same class as x.

Note

Note the sign of k: a series lagged by a positive k starts *earlier*.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[diff](#), [deltat](#)

Examples

```
lag(1deaths, 12) # starts one year earlier
```

lag.plot

Time Series Lag Plots

Description

Plot time series against lagged versions of themselves. Helps visualizing ‘auto-dependence’ even when auto-correlations vanish.

Usage

```
lag.plot(x, lags = 1, layout = NULL, set.lags = 1:lags,
        main = NULL, asp = 1,
        diag = TRUE, diag.col = "gray", type = "p", oma = NULL,
        ask = NULL, do.lines = (n <= 150), labels = do.lines,
        ...)
```

Arguments

x	time-series (univariate or multivariate)
lags	number of lag plots desired, see arg set.lags.
layout	the layout of multiple plots, basically the mfrow par() argument. The default uses about a square layout (see n2mfrow such that all plots are on one page.
set.lags	vector of positive integers allowing specification of the set of lags used; defaults to 1:lags.
main	character with a main header title to be done on the top of each page.
asp	Aspect ratio to be fixed, see plot.default .

diag	logical indicating if the x=y diagonal should be drawn.
diag.col	color to be used for the diagonal if(diag).
type	plot type to be used, but see plot.ts about its restricted meaning.
oma	outer margins, see par .
ask	logical or NULL; if true, the user is asked to confirm before a new page is started.
do.lines	logical indicating if lines should be drawn.
labels	logical indicating if labels should be used.
...	Further arguments to plot.ts . Several graphical parameters are set in this function and so cannot be changed: these include xlab, ylab, mgp, col.lab and font.lab: this also applies to the arguments xy.labels and xy.lines.

Details

If just one plot is produced, this is a conventional plot. If more than one plot is to be produced, `par(mfrow)` and several other graphics parameters will be set, so it is not (easily) possible to mix such lag plots with other plots on the same page.

If `ask = NULL`, `par(ask = TRUE)` will be called if more than one page of plots is to be produced and the device is interactive.

Note

It is more flexible and has different default behaviour than the S version. We use `main =` instead of `head =` for internal consistency.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

[plot.ts](#) which is the basic work horse.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

lag.plot(nhtemp, 8, diag.col = "forest green")
lag.plot(nhtemp, 5, main = "Average Temperatures in New Haven")
## ask defaults to TRUE when we have more than one page:
lag.plot(nhtemp, 6, layout = c(2,1), asp = NA,
        main = "New Haven Temperatures", col.main = "blue")

## Multivariate (but non-stationary! ...)
lag.plot(freeny.x, lags = 3)

## no lines for long series :
lag.plot(sqrt(sunspots), set = c(1:4, 9:12), pch = ".", col = "gold")
```

line

Robust Line Fitting

Description

Fit a line robustly as recommended in *Exploratory Data Analysis*.

Usage

```
line(x, y)
```

Arguments

x, y the arguments can be any way of specifying x-y pairs. See [xy.coords](#).

Details

Cases with missing values are omitted.

Long vectors are not supported.

Value

An object of class "tukeyline".

Methods are available for the generic functions `coef`, `residuals`, `fitted`, and `print`.

References

Tukey, J. W. (1977). *Exploratory Data Analysis*, Reading Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

See Also

[lm](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

plot(cars)
(z <- line(cars))
abline(coef(z))
## Tukey-Anscombe Plot :
plot(residuals(z) ~ fitted(z), main = deparse(z$call))
```

listof	<i>A Class for Lists of (Parts of) Model Fits</i>
--------	---

Description

Class "listof" is used by [aov](#) and the "lm" method of [alias](#) for lists of model fits or parts thereof. It is simply a list with an assigned class to control the way methods, especially printing, act on it. It has a [coef](#) method in this package (which returns an object of this class), and `[]` and `print` methods in package **base**.

lm	<i>Fitting Linear Models</i>
----	------------------------------

Description

lm is used to fit linear models. It can be used to carry out regression, single stratum analysis of variance and analysis of covariance (although [aov](#) may provide a more convenient interface for these).

Usage

```
lm(formula, data, subset, weights, na.action,
   method = "qr", model = TRUE, x = FALSE, y = FALSE, qr = TRUE,
   singular.ok = TRUE, contrasts = NULL, offset, ...)
```

Arguments

formula	an object of class " formula " (or one that can be coerced to that class): a symbolic description of the model to be fitted. The details of model specification are given under 'Details'.
data	an optional data frame, list or environment (or object coercible by as.data.frame to a data frame) containing the variables in the model. If not found in data, the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> , typically the environment from which <code>lm</code> is called.
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used in the fitting process.
weights	an optional vector of weights to be used in the fitting process. Should be <code>NULL</code> or a numeric vector. If non- <code>NULL</code> , weighted least squares is used with weights <code>weights</code> (that is, minimizing $\sum(w \cdot e^2)$); otherwise ordinary least squares is used. See also 'Details',
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is set by the <code>na.action</code> setting of options , and is <code>na.fail</code> if that is unset. The 'factory-fresh' default is <code>na.omit</code> . Another possible value is <code>NULL</code> , no action. Value <code>na.exclude</code> can be useful.

method	the method to be used; for fitting, currently only <code>method = "qr"</code> is supported; <code>method = "model.frame"</code> returns the model frame (the same as with <code>model = TRUE</code> , see below).
model, x, y, qr	logicals. If TRUE the corresponding components of the fit (the model frame, the model matrix, the response, the QR decomposition) are returned.
singular.ok	logical. If FALSE (the default in S but not in R) a singular fit is an error.
contrasts	an optional list. See the <code>contrasts.arg</code> of <code>model.matrix.default</code> .
offset	this can be used to specify an <i>a priori</i> known component to be included in the linear predictor during fitting. This should be NULL or a numeric vector of length equal to the number of cases. One or more <code>offset</code> terms can be included in the formula instead or as well, and if more than one are specified their sum is used. See <code>model.offset</code> .
...	additional arguments to be passed to the low level regression fitting functions (see below).

Details

Models for `lm` are specified symbolically. A typical model has the form `response ~ terms` where `response` is the (numeric) response vector and `terms` is a series of terms which specifies a linear predictor for response. A terms specification of the form `first + second` indicates all the terms in `first` together with all the terms in `second` with duplicates removed. A specification of the form `first:second` indicates the set of terms obtained by taking the interactions of all terms in `first` with all terms in `second`. The specification `first*second` indicates the *cross* of `first` and `second`. This is the same as `first + second + first:second`.

If the formula includes an `offset`, this is evaluated and subtracted from the response.

If response is a matrix a linear model is fitted separately by least-squares to each column of the matrix.

See `model.matrix` for some further details. The terms in the formula will be re-ordered so that main effects come first, followed by the interactions, all second-order, all third-order and so on: to avoid this pass a terms object as the formula (see `av` and `demo(glm.vr)` for an example).

A formula has an implied intercept term. To remove this use either `y ~ x - 1` or `y ~ 0 + x`. See `formula` for more details of allowed formulae.

Non-NULL weights can be used to indicate that different observations have different variances (with the values in `weights` being inversely proportional to the variances); or equivalently, when the elements of `weights` are positive integers w_i , that each response y_i is the mean of w_i unit-weight observations (including the case that there are w_i observations equal to y_i and the data have been summarized).

`lm` calls the lower level functions `lm.fit`, etc, see below, for the actual numerical computations. For programming only, you may consider doing likewise.

All of weights, subset and offset are evaluated in the same way as variables in formula, that is first in data and then in the environment of formula.

Value

lm returns an object of `class` "lm" or for multiple responses of class `c("mlm", "lm")`.

The functions `summary` and `anova` are used to obtain and print a summary and analysis of variance table of the results. The generic accessor functions `coefficients`, `effects`, `fitted.values` and `residuals` extract various useful features of the value returned by `lm`.

An object of class "lm" is a list containing at least the following components:

<code>coefficients</code>	a named vector of coefficients
<code>residuals</code>	the residuals, that is response minus fitted values.
<code>fitted.values</code>	the fitted mean values.
<code>rank</code>	the numeric rank of the fitted linear model.
<code>weights</code>	(only for weighted fits) the specified weights.
<code>df.residual</code>	the residual degrees of freedom.
<code>call</code>	the matched call.
<code>terms</code>	the <code>terms</code> object used.
<code>contrasts</code>	(only where relevant) the contrasts used.
<code>xlevels</code>	(only where relevant) a record of the levels of the factors used in fitting.
<code>offset</code>	the offset used (missing if none were used).
<code>y</code>	if requested, the response used.
<code>x</code>	if requested, the model matrix used.
<code>model</code>	if requested (the default), the model frame used.
<code>na.action</code>	(where relevant) information returned by <code>model.frame</code> on the special handling of NAs.

In addition, non-null fits will have components `assign`, `effects` and (unless not requested) `qr` relating to the linear fit, for use by extractor functions such as `summary` and `effects`.

Using time series

Considerable care is needed when using `lm` with time series.

Unless `na.action = NULL`, the time series attributes are stripped from the variables before the regression is done. (This is necessary as omitting NAs would invalidate the time series attributes, and if NAs are omitted in the middle of the series the result would no longer be a regular time series.)

Even if the time series attributes are retained, they are not used to line up series, so that the time shift of a lagged or differenced regressor would be ignored. It is good practice to prepare a data argument by `ts.intersect(..., dframe = TRUE)`, then apply a suitable `na.action` to that data frame and call `lm` with `na.action = NULL` so that residuals and fitted values are time series.

Note

Offsets specified by `offset` will not be included in predictions by `predict.lm`, whereas those specified by an offset term in the formula will be.

Author(s)

The design was inspired by the `S` function of the same name described in Chambers (1992). The implementation of model formula by Ross Ihaka was based on Wilkinson & Rogers (1973).

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Linear models*. Chapter 4 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Wilkinson, G. N. and Rogers, C. E. (1973) Symbolic descriptions of factorial models for analysis of variance. *Applied Statistics*, **22**, 392–9.

See Also

[summary.lm](#) for summaries and [anova.lm](#) for the ANOVA table; [aov](#) for a different interface.

The generic functions [coef](#), [effects](#), [residuals](#), [fitted](#), [vcov](#).

[predict.lm](#) (via [predict](#)) for prediction, including confidence and prediction intervals; [confint](#) for confidence intervals of *parameters*.

[lm.influence](#) for regression diagnostics, and [glm](#) for **generalized** linear models.

The underlying low level functions, [lm.fit](#) for plain, and [lm.wfit](#) for weighted regression fitting.

More `lm()` examples are available e.g., in [anscombe](#), [attitude](#), [freeny](#), [LifeCycleSavings](#), [longley](#), [stackloss](#), [swiss](#).

`biglm` in package **biglm** for an alternative way to fit linear models to large datasets (especially those with many cases).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Annette Dobson (1990) "An Introduction to Generalized Linear Models".
## Page 9: Plant Weight Data.
ctl <- c(4.17,5.58,5.18,6.11,4.50,4.61,5.17,4.53,5.33,5.14)
trt <- c(4.81,4.17,4.41,3.59,5.87,3.83,6.03,4.89,4.32,4.69)
group <- gl(2, 10, 20, labels = c("Ctl","Trt"))
weight <- c(ctl, trt)
lm.D9 <- lm(weight ~ group)
lm.D90 <- lm(weight ~ group - 1) # omitting intercept

anova(lm.D9)
summary(lm.D90)

opar <- par(mfrow = c(2,2), oma = c(0, 0, 1.1, 0))
plot(lm.D9, las = 1)      # Residuals, Fitted, ...
par(opar)

### less simple examples in "See Also" above
```

lm.fit

*Fitter Functions for Linear Models***Description**

These are the basic computing engines called by `lm` used to fit linear models. These should usually *not* be used directly unless by experienced users. `.lm.fit()` is bare bone wrapper to the innermost QR-based C code, on which `glm.fit` and `lsfit` are based as well, for even more experienced users.

Usage

```
lm.fit(x, y, offset = NULL, method = "qr", tol = 1e-7,
       singular.ok = TRUE, ...)
```

```
lm.wfit(x, y, w, offset = NULL, method = "qr", tol = 1e-7,
        singular.ok = TRUE, ...)
```

```
.lm.fit(x, y, tol = 1e-7)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	design matrix of dimension $n * p$.
<code>y</code>	vector of observations of length n , or a matrix with n rows.
<code>w</code>	vector of weights (length n) to be used in the fitting process for the <code>wfit</code> functions. Weighted least squares is used with weights w , i.e., $\sum(w * e^2)$ is minimized.
<code>offset</code>	numeric of length n). This can be used to specify an <i>a priori</i> known component to be included in the linear predictor during fitting.
<code>method</code>	currently, only <code>method = "qr"</code> is supported.
<code>tol</code>	tolerance for the <code>qr</code> decomposition. Default is $1e-7$.
<code>singular.ok</code>	logical. If <code>FALSE</code> , a singular model is an error.
<code>...</code>	currently disregarded.

Value

a `list` with components (for `lm.fit` and `lm.wfit`)

<code>coefficients</code>	p vector
<code>residuals</code>	n vector or matrix
<code>fitted.values</code>	n vector or matrix
<code>effects</code>	n vector of orthogonal single-df effects. The first rank of them correspond to non-aliased coefficients, and are named accordingly.
<code>weights</code>	n vector — <i>only</i> for the <code>*wfit*</code> functions.
<code>rank</code>	integer, giving the rank

df.residual degrees of freedom of residuals
 qr the QR decomposition, see [qr](#).

Fits without any columns or non-zero weights do not have the effects and qr components.

.lm.fit() returns a subset of the above, the qr part unwrapped, plus a logical component pivoted indicating if the underlying QR algorithm did pivot.

See Also

[lm](#) which you should use for linear least squares regression, unless you know better.

Examples

```
require(utils)

set.seed(129)

n <- 7 ; p <- 2
X <- matrix(rnorm(n * p), n, p) # no intercept!
y <- rnorm(n)
w <- rnorm(n)^2

str(lmw <- lm.wfit(x = X, y = y, w = w))

str(lm. <- lm.fit (x = X, y = y))

if(require("microbenchmark")) {
  mb <- microbenchmark(lm(y~X), lm.fit(X,y), .lm.fit(X,y))
  print(mb)
  boxplot(mb, notch=TRUE)
}
```

lm.influence

Regression Diagnostics

Description

This function provides the basic quantities which are used in forming a wide variety of diagnostics for checking the quality of regression fits.

Usage

```
influence(model, ...)
## S3 method for class 'lm'
influence(model, do.coef = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'glm'
```



```
influence(model, do.coef = TRUE, ...)
```

```
lm.influence(model, do.coef = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>model</code>	an object as returned by <code>lm</code> or <code>glm</code> .
<code>do.coef</code>	logical indicating if the changed coefficients (see below) are desired. These need $O(n^2p)$ computing time.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The `influence.measures()` and other functions listed in **See Also** provide a more user oriented way of computing a variety of regression diagnostics. These all build on `lm.influence`. Note that for GLMs (other than the Gaussian family with identity link) these are based on one-step approximations which may be inadequate if a case has high influence.

An attempt is made to ensure that computed hat values that are probably one are treated as one, and the corresponding rows in `sigma` and `coefficients` are `NaN`. (Dropping such a case would normally result in a variable being dropped, so it is not possible to give simple drop-one diagnostics.)

`naresid` is applied to the results and so will fill in with `NA`s if the fit had `na.action = na.exclude`.

Value

A list containing the following components of the same length or number of rows n , which is the number of non-zero weights. Cases omitted in the fit are omitted unless a `na.action` method was used (such as `na.exclude`) which restores them.

<code>hat</code>	a vector containing the diagonal of the ‘hat’ matrix.
<code>coefficients</code>	(unless <code>do.coef</code> is false) a matrix whose i -th row contains the change in the estimated coefficients which results when the i -th case is dropped from the regression. Note that aliased coefficients are not included in the matrix.
<code>sigma</code>	a vector whose i -th element contains the estimate of the residual standard deviation obtained when the i -th case is dropped from the regression. (The approximations needed for GLMs can result in this being <code>NaN</code> .)
<code>wt.res</code>	a vector of <i>weighted</i> (or for class <code>glm</code> rather <i>deviance</i>) residuals.

Note

The coefficients returned by the R version of `lm.influence` differ from those computed by S. Rather than returning the coefficients which result from dropping each case, we return the changes in the coefficients. This is more directly useful in many diagnostic measures.

Since these need $O(n^2p)$ computing time, they can be omitted by `do.coef = FALSE`.

Note that cases with weights `== 0` are *dropped* (contrary to the situation in S).

If a model has been fitted with `na.action = na.exclude` (see `na.exclude`), cases excluded in the fit *are* considered here.

References

See the list in the documentation for [influence.measures](#).

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Linear models*. Chapter 4 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[summary.lm](#) for [summary](#) and related methods;
[influence.measures](#),
[hat](#) for the hat matrix diagonals,
[dfbetas](#), [dffits](#), [covratio](#), [cooks.distance](#), [lm](#).

Examples

```
## Analysis of the life-cycle savings data
## given in Belsley, Kuh and Welsch.
summary(lm.SR <- lm(sr ~ pop15 + pop75 + dpi + ddpi,
                    data = LifeCycleSavings),
        corr = TRUE)
utils::str(lmI <- lm.influence(lm.SR))

## For more "user level" examples, use example(influence.measures)
```

lm.summaries

Accessing Linear Model Fits

Description

All these functions are [methods](#) for class "lm" objects.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'lm'
family(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
formula(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
residuals(object,
           type = c("working", "response", "deviance", "pearson",
                    "partial"),
           ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
labels(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object, x an object inheriting from class `lm`, usually the result of a call to `lm` or `aov`.
 ... further arguments passed to or from other methods.
 type the type of residuals which should be returned. Can be abbreviated.

Details

The generic accessor functions `coef`, `effects`, `fitted` and `residuals` can be used to extract various useful features of the value returned by `lm`.

The working and response residuals are ‘observed - fitted’. The deviance and pearson residuals are weighted residuals, scaled by the square root of the weights used in fitting. The partial residuals are a matrix with each column formed by omitting a term from the model. In all these, zero weight cases are never omitted (as opposed to the standardized `rstudent` residuals, and the `weighted.residuals`).

How `residuals` treats cases with missing values in the original fit is determined by the `na.action` argument of that fit. If `na.action = na.omit` omitted cases will not appear in the residuals, whereas if `na.action = na.exclude` they will appear, with residual value NA. See also `naresid`.

The “`lm`” method for generic `labels` returns the term labels for estimable terms, that is the names of the terms with an least one estimable coefficient.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Linear models*. Chapter 4 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

The model fitting function `lm`, `anova.lm`.

`coef`, `deviance`, `df.residual`, `effects`, `fitted`, `glm` for **generalized** linear models, `influence` (etc on that page) for regression diagnostics, `weighted.residuals`, `residuals`, `residuals.glm`, `summary.lm`, `weights`.

`influence.measures` for deletion diagnostics, including standardized (`rstandard`) and studentized (`rstudent`) residuals.

Examples

```
##-- Continuing the lm(.) example:
coef(lm.D90) # the bare coefficients

## The 2 basic regression diagnostic plots [plot.lm(.) is preferred]
plot(resid(lm.D90), fitted(lm.D90)) # Tukey-Anscombe's
abline(h = 0, lty = 2, col = "gray")

qqnorm(residuals(lm.D90))
```

loadings	<i>Print Loadings in Factor Analysis</i>
----------	--

Description

Extract or print loadings in factor analysis (or principal components analysis).

Usage

```
loadings(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'loadings'
print(x, digits = 3, cutoff = 0.1, sort = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'factanal'
print(x, digits = 3, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object of class " factanal " or " princomp " or the loadings component of such an object.
<code>digits</code>	number of decimal places to use in printing uniquenesses and loadings.
<code>cutoff</code>	loadings smaller than this (in absolute value) are suppressed.
<code>sort</code>	logical. If true, the variables are sorted by their importance on each factor. Each variable with any loading larger than 0.5 (in modulus) is assigned to the factor with the largest loading, and the variables are printed in the order of the factor they are assigned to, then those unassigned.
<code>...</code>	further arguments for other methods, ignored for loadings.

Details

'Loadings' is a term from *factor analysis*, but because factor analysis and principal component analysis (PCA) are often conflated in the social science literature, it was used for PCA by SPSS and hence by [princomp](#) in S-PLUS to help SPSS users.

Small loadings are conventionally not printed (replaced by spaces), to draw the eye to the pattern of the larger loadings.

The print method for class "[factanal](#)" calls the "loadings" method to print the loadings, and so passes down arguments such as `cutoff` and `sort`.

The signs of the loadings vectors are arbitrary for both factor analysis and PCA.

Note

There are other functions called loadings in contributed packages which are S3 or S4 generic: the `...` argument is to make it easier for this one to become a default method.

See Also

[factanal](#), [princomp](#)

loess	<i>Local Polynomial Regression Fitting</i>
-------	--

Description

Fit a polynomial surface determined by one or more numerical predictors, using local fitting.

Usage

```
loess(formula, data, weights, subset, na.action, model = FALSE,
      span = 0.75, enp.target, degree = 2,
      parametric = FALSE, drop.square = FALSE, normalize = TRUE,
      family = c("gaussian", "symmetric"),
      method = c("loess", "model.frame"),
      control = loess.control(...), ...)
```

Arguments

formula	a formula specifying the numeric response and one to four numeric predictors (best specified via an interaction, but can also be specified additively). Will be coerced to a formula if necessary.
data	an optional data frame, list or environment (or object coercible by as.data.frame to a data frame) containing the variables in the model. If not found in data, the variables are taken from environment(formula), typically the environment from which loess is called.
weights	optional weights for each case.
subset	an optional specification of a subset of the data to be used.
na.action	the action to be taken with missing values in the response or predictors. The default is given by <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
model	should the model frame be returned?
span	the parameter α which controls the degree of smoothing.
enp.target	an alternative way to specify span, as the approximate equivalent number of parameters to be used.
degree	the degree of the polynomials to be used, normally 1 or 2. (Degree 0 is also allowed, but see the 'Note'.)
parametric	should any terms be fitted globally rather than locally? Terms can be specified by name, number or as a logical vector of the same length as the number of predictors.
drop.square	for fits with more than one predictor and <code>degree = 2</code> , should the quadratic term be dropped for particular predictors? Terms are specified in the same way as for parametric.

normalize	should the predictors be normalized to a common scale if there is more than one? The normalization used is to set the 10% trimmed standard deviation to one. Set to false for spatial coordinate predictors and others known to be on a common scale.
family	if "gaussian" fitting is by least-squares, and if "symmetric" a re-descending M estimator is used with Tukey's biweight function. Can be abbreviated.
method	fit the model or just extract the model frame. Can be abbreviated.
control	control parameters: see loess.control .
...	control parameters can also be supplied directly (<i>if</i> control is not specified).

Details

Fitting is done locally. That is, for the fit at point x , the fit is made using points in a neighbourhood of x , weighted by their distance from x (with differences in 'parametric' variables being ignored when computing the distance). The size of the neighbourhood is controlled by α (set by `span` or `enp.target`). For $\alpha < 1$, the neighbourhood includes proportion α of the points, and these have tricubic weighting (proportional to $(1 - (\text{dist}/\text{maxdist})^3)^3$). For $\alpha > 1$, all points are used, with the 'maximum distance' assumed to be $\alpha^{1/p}$ times the actual maximum distance for p explanatory variables.

For the default family, fitting is by (weighted) least squares. For `family="symmetric"` a few iterations of an M-estimation procedure with Tukey's biweight are used. Be aware that as the initial value is the least-squares fit, this need not be a very resistant fit.

It can be important to tune the control list to achieve acceptable speed. See [loess.control](#) for details.

Value

An object of class "loess".

Note

As this is based on `cloess`, it is similar to but not identical to the `loess` function of S. In particular, conditioning is not implemented.

The memory usage of this implementation of `loess` is roughly quadratic in the number of points, with 1000 points taking about 10Mb.

`degree = 0`, local constant fitting, is allowed in this implementation but not documented in the reference. It seems very little tested, so use with caution.

Author(s)

B. D. Ripley, based on the `cloess` package of Cleveland, Grosse and Shyu.

Source

The 1998 version of `cloess` package of Cleveland, Grosse and Shyu. A later version is available as `dloess` at <http://www.netlib.org/a>.

References

W. S. Cleveland, E. Grosse and W. M. Shyu (1992) Local regression models. Chapter 8 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J.M. Chambers and T.J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[loess.control](#), [predict.loess](#).
[lowess](#), the ancestor of loess (with different defaults!).

Examples

```
cars.lo <- loess(dist ~ speed, cars)
predict(cars.lo, data.frame(speed = seq(5, 30, 1)), se = TRUE)
# to allow extrapolation
cars.lo2 <- loess(dist ~ speed, cars,
  control = loess.control(surface = "direct"))
predict(cars.lo2, data.frame(speed = seq(5, 30, 1)), se = TRUE)
```

loess.control	<i>Set Parameters for Loess</i>
---------------	---------------------------------

Description

Set control parameters for loess fits.

Usage

```
loess.control(surface = c("interpolate", "direct"),
  statistics = c("approximate", "exact", "none"),
  trace.hat = c("exact", "approximate"),
  cell = 0.2, iterations = 4, iterTrace = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

surface	should the fitted surface be computed exactly ("direct") or via interpolation from a kd tree? Can be abbreviated.
statistics	should the statistics be computed exactly, approximately or not at all? Exact computation can be very slow. Can be abbreviated.
trace.hat	Only for the (default) case (surface = "interpolate", statistics = "approximate"): should the trace of the smoother matrix be computed exactly or approximately? It is recommended to use the approximation for more than about 1000 data points. Can be abbreviated.
cell	if interpolation is used this controls the accuracy of the approximation via the maximum number of points in a cell in the kd tree. Cells with more than floor(n*span*cell) points are subdivided.

iterations	the number of iterations used in robust fitting, i.e. only if family is "symmetric".
iterTrace	logical (or integer) determining if tracing information during the robust iterations ($\text{iterations} \geq 2$) is produced.
...	further arguments which are ignored.

Value

A list with components

- surface
- statistics
- trace.hat
- cell
- iterations
- iterTrace

with meanings as explained under ‘Arguments’.

See Also

[loess](#)

Logistic	<i>The Logistic Distribution</i>
----------	----------------------------------

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the logistic distribution with parameters location and scale.

Usage

```
dlogis(x, location = 0, scale = 1, log = FALSE)
plogis(q, location = 0, scale = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qlogis(p, location = 0, scale = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rlogis(n, location = 0, scale = 1)
```

Arguments

x, q	vector of quantiles.
p	vector of probabilities.
n	number of observations. If $\text{length}(n) > 1$, the length is taken to be the number required.
location, scale	location and scale parameters.
log, log.p	logical; if TRUE, probabilities p are given as $\log(p)$.
lower.tail	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

If location or scale are omitted, they assume the default values of 0 and 1 respectively.

The Logistic distribution with location = μ and scale = σ has distribution function

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(x-\mu)/\sigma}}$$

and density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{e^{(x-\mu)/\sigma}}{(1 + e^{(x-\mu)/\sigma})^2}$$

It is a long-tailed distribution with mean μ and variance $\pi^2/3\sigma^2$.

Value

dlogis gives the density, plogis gives the distribution function, qlogis gives the quantile function, and rlogis generates random deviates.

The length of the result is determined by n for rlogis, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

qlogis(p) is the same as the well known ‘logit’ function, $\text{logit}(p) = \log p/(1-p)$, and plogis(x) has consequently been called the ‘inverse logit’.

The distribution function is a rescaled hyperbolic tangent, $\text{plogis}(x) == (1 + \tanh(x/2))/2$, and it is called a *sigmoid function* in contexts such as neural networks.

Source

[dpq]logis are calculated directly from the definitions.

rlogis uses inversion.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 2, chapter 23. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions.

Examples

```
var(rlogis(4000, 0, scale = 5)) # approximately (+/- 3)
pi^2/3 * 5^2
```

logLik

*Extract Log-Likelihood***Description**

This function is generic; method functions can be written to handle specific classes of objects. Classes which have methods for this function include: "glm", "lm", "nls" and "Arima". Packages contain methods for other classes, such as "fitdistr", "negbin" and "polr" in package **MASS**, "multinom" in package **nnet** and "gls", "gnls" "lme" and others in package **nlme**.

Usage

```
logLik(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
logLik(object, REML = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

object	any object from which a log-likelihood value, or a contribution to a log-likelihood value, can be extracted.
...	some methods for this generic function require additional arguments.
REML	an optional logical value. If TRUE the restricted log-likelihood is returned, else, if FALSE, the log-likelihood is returned. Defaults to FALSE.

Details

logLik is most commonly used for a model fitted by maximum likelihood, and some uses, e.g. by [AIC](#), assume this. So care is needed where other fit criteria have been used, for example REML (the default for "lme").

For a "glm" fit the [family](#) does not have to specify how to calculate the log-likelihood, so this is based on using the family's `aic()` function to compute the AIC. For the [gaussian](#), [Gamma](#) and [inverse.gaussian](#) families it assumed that the dispersion of the GLM is estimated and has been counted as a parameter in the AIC value, and for all other families it is assumed that the dispersion is known. Note that this procedure does not give the maximized likelihood for "glm" fits from the Gamma and inverse gaussian families, as the estimate of dispersion used is not the MLE.

For "lm" fits it is assumed that the scale has been estimated (by maximum likelihood or REML), and all the constants in the log-likelihood are included. That method is only applicable to single-response fits.

Value

Returns an object of class logLik. This is a number with at least one attribute, "df" (**d**egrees of **f**reedom), giving the number of (estimated) parameters in the model.

There is a simple print method for "logLik" objects.

There may be other attributes depending on the method used: see the appropriate documentation. One that is used by several methods is "nobs", the number of observations used in estimation (after the restrictions if REML = TRUE).

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

References

For logLik.lm:

Harville, D.A. (1974). Bayesian inference for variance components using only error contrasts. *Biometrika*, **61**, 383–385.

See Also

[logLik.gls](#), [logLik.lme](#), in package [nlme](#), etc.

[AIC](#)

Examples

```
x <- 1:5
lmx <- lm(x ~ 1)
logLik(lmx) # using print.logLik() method
utils::str(logLik(lmx))

## lm method
(fm1 <- lm(rating ~ ., data = attitude))
logLik(fm1)
logLik(fm1, REML = TRUE)

utils::data(Orthodont, package = "nlme")
fm1 <- lm(distance ~ Sex * age, Orthodont)
logLik(fm1)
logLik(fm1, REML = TRUE)
```

loglin

Fitting Log-Linear Models

Description

loglin is used to fit log-linear models to multidimensional contingency tables by Iterative Proportional Fitting.

Usage

```
loglin(table, margin, start = rep(1, length(table)), fit = FALSE,
       eps = 0.1, iter = 20, param = FALSE, print = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>table</code>	a contingency table to be fit, typically the output from <code>table</code> .
<code>margin</code>	<p>a list of vectors with the marginal totals to be fit.</p> <p>(Hierarchical) log-linear models can be specified in terms of these marginal totals which give the ‘maximal’ factor subsets contained in the model. For example, in a three-factor model, <code>list(c(1, 2), c(1, 3))</code> specifies a model which contains parameters for the grand mean, each factor, and the 1-2 and 1-3 interactions, respectively (but no 2-3 or 1-2-3 interaction), i.e., a model where factors 2 and 3 are independent conditional on factor 1 (sometimes represented as ‘[12][13]’).</p> <p>The names of factors (i.e., <code>names(dimnames(table))</code>) may be used rather than numeric indices.</p>
<code>start</code>	a starting estimate for the fitted table. This optional argument is important for incomplete tables with structural zeros in <code>table</code> which should be preserved in the fit. In this case, the corresponding entries in <code>start</code> should be zero and the others can be taken as one.
<code>fit</code>	a logical indicating whether the fitted values should be returned.
<code>eps</code>	maximum deviation allowed between observed and fitted margins.
<code>iter</code>	maximum number of iterations.
<code>param</code>	a logical indicating whether the parameter values should be returned.
<code>print</code>	a logical. If TRUE, the number of iterations and the final deviation are printed.

Details

The Iterative Proportional Fitting algorithm as presented in Haberman (1972) is used for fitting the model. At most `iter` iterations are performed, convergence is taken to occur when the maximum deviation between observed and fitted margins is less than `eps`. All internal computations are done in double precision; there is no limit on the number of factors (the dimension of the table) in the model.

Assuming that there are no structural zeros, both the Likelihood Ratio Test and Pearson test statistics have an asymptotic chi-squared distribution with `df` degrees of freedom.

Note that the IPF steps are applied to the factors in the order given in `margin`. Hence if the model is decomposable and the order given in `margin` is a running intersection property ordering then IPF will converge in one iteration.

Package **MASS** contains `loglm`, a front-end to `loglin` which allows the log-linear model to be specified and fitted in a formula-based manner similar to that of other fitting functions such as `lm` or `glm`.

Value

A list with the following components.

<code>lrt</code>	the Likelihood Ratio Test statistic.
<code>pearson</code>	the Pearson test statistic (X-squared).

df	the degrees of freedom for the fitted model. There is no adjustment for structural zeros.
margin	list of the margins that were fit. Basically the same as the input margin, but with numbers replaced by names where possible.
fit	An array like table containing the fitted values. Only returned if fit is TRUE.
param	A list containing the estimated parameters of the model. The ‘standard’ constraints of zero marginal sums (e.g., zero row and column sums for a two factor parameter) are employed. Only returned if param is TRUE.

Author(s)

Kurt Hornik

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Haberman, S. J. (1972) Log-linear fit for contingency tables—Algorithm AS51. *Applied Statistics*, **21**, 218–225.

Agresti, A. (1990) *Categorical data analysis*. New York: Wiley.

See Also

[table](#).

[loglm](#) in package **MASS** for a user-friendly wrapper.

[glm](#) for another way to fit log-linear models.

Examples

```
## Model of joint independence of sex from hair and eye color.
fm <- loglin(HairEyeColor, list(c(1, 2), c(1, 3), c(2, 3)))
fm
1 - pchisq(fm$lrt, fm$df)
## Model with no three-factor interactions fits well.
```

Lognormal	<i>The Log Normal Distribution</i>
-----------	------------------------------------

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the log normal distribution whose logarithm has mean equal to meanlog and standard deviation equal to sdlog.

Usage

```

dlnorm(x, meanlog = 0, sdlog = 1, log = FALSE)
plnorm(q, meanlog = 0, sdlog = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qlnorm(p, meanlog = 0, sdlog = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rlnorm(n, meanlog = 0, sdlog = 1)

```

Arguments

`x`, `q` vector of quantiles.

`p` vector of probabilities.

`n` number of observations. If `length(n) > 1`, the length is taken to be the number required.

`meanlog`, `sdlog` mean and standard deviation of the distribution on the log scale with default values of 0 and 1 respectively.

`log`, `log.p` logical; if TRUE, probabilities `p` are given as `log(p)`.

`lower.tail` logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The log normal distribution has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma x} e^{-(\log(x)-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

where μ and σ are the mean and standard deviation of the logarithm. The mean is $E(X) = \exp(\mu + 1/2\sigma^2)$, the median is $med(X) = \exp(\mu)$, and the variance $Var(X) = \exp(2\mu + \sigma^2)(\exp(\sigma^2) - 1)$ and hence the coefficient of variation is $\sqrt{\exp(\sigma^2) - 1}$ which is approximately σ when that is small (e.g., $\sigma < 1/2$).

Value

`dlnorm` gives the density, `plnorm` gives the distribution function, `qlnorm` gives the quantile function, and `rlnorm` generates random deviates.

The length of the result is determined by `n` for `rlnorm`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `n` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

The cumulative hazard $H(t) = -\log(1 - F(t))$ is `-plnorm(t, r, lower = FALSE, log = TRUE)`.

Source

`dlnorm` is calculated from the definition (in ‘Details’). `[pqr]lnorm` are based on the relationship to the normal.

Consequently, they model a single point mass at $\exp(\text{meanlog})$ for the boundary case $\text{sdlog} = 0$.

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 1, chapter 14. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dnorm](#) for the normal distribution.

Examples

```
dlnorm(1) == dnorm(0)
```

lowess

Scatter Plot Smoothing

Description

This function performs the computations for the *LOWESS* smoother which uses locally-weighted polynomial regression (see the references).

Usage

```
lowess(x, y = NULL, f = 2/3, iter = 3, delta = 0.01 * diff(range(x)))
```

Arguments

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| <code>x</code> , <code>y</code> | vectors giving the coordinates of the points in the scatter plot. Alternatively a single plotting structure can be specified – see xy.coords . |
| <code>f</code> | the smoother span. This gives the proportion of points in the plot which influence the smooth at each value. Larger values give more smoothness. |
| <code>iter</code> | the number of ‘robustifying’ iterations which should be performed. Using smaller values of <code>iter</code> will make <code>lowess</code> run faster. |
| <code>delta</code> | See ‘Details’. Defaults to 1/100th of the range of <code>x</code> . |

Details

`lowess` is defined by a complex algorithm, the Ratfor original of which (by W. S. Cleveland) can be found in the R sources as file ‘src/app1/lowess.doc’. Normally a local linear polynomial fit is used, but under some circumstances (see the file) a local constant fit can be used. ‘Local’ is defined by the distance to the $\text{floor}(f \cdot n)$ th nearest neighbour, and tricubic weighting is used for `x` which fall within the neighbourhood.

The initial fit is done using weighted least squares. If `iter > 0`, further weighted fits are done using the product of the weights from the proximity of the `x` values and case weights derived from the residuals at the previous iteration. Specifically, the case weight is Tukey’s biweight, with cutoff 6

times the MAD of the residuals. (The current R implementation differs from the original in stopping iteration if the MAD is effectively zero since the algorithm is highly unstable in that case.)

delta is used to speed up computation: instead of computing the local polynomial fit at each data point it is not computed for points within delta of the last computed point, and linear interpolation is used to fill in the fitted values for the skipped points.

Value

lowess returns a list containing components x and y which give the coordinates of the smooth. The smooth can be added to a plot of the original points with the function lines: see the examples.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Cleveland, W. S. (1979) Robust locally weighted regression and smoothing scatterplots. *J. American Statistical Association* **74**, 829–836.

Cleveland, W. S. (1981) LOWESS: A program for smoothing scatterplots by robust locally weighted regression. *The American Statistician* **35**, 54.

See Also

[loess](#), a newer formula based version of lowess (with different defaults!).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

plot(cars, main = "lowess(cars)")
lines(lowess(cars), col = 2)
lines(lowess(cars, f = .2), col = 3)
legend(5, 120, c(paste("f = ", c("2/3", ".2"))), lty = 1, col = 2:3)
```

ls.diag

Compute Diagnostics for lsfit Regression Results

Description

Computes basic statistics, including standard errors, t- and p-values for the regression coefficients.

Usage

```
ls.diag(ls.out)
```

Arguments

ls.out Typically the result of [lsfit\(\)](#)

Value

A list with the following numeric components.

std.dev	The standard deviation of the errors, an estimate of σ .
hat	diagonal entries h_{ii} of the hat matrix H
std.res	standardized residuals
stud.res	studentized residuals
cooks	Cook's distances
dfits	DFITS statistics
correlation	correlation matrix
std.err	standard errors of the regression coefficients
cov.scaled	Scaled covariance matrix of the coefficients
cov.unscaled	Unscaled covariance matrix of the coefficients

References

Belsley, D. A., Kuh, E. and Welsch, R. E. (1980) *Regression Diagnostics*. New York: Wiley.

See Also

[hat](#) for the hat matrix diagonals, [ls.print](#), [lm.influence](#), [summary.lm](#), [anova](#).

Examples

```
##-- Using the same data as the lm(.) example:
lsD9 <- lsfit(x = as.numeric(gl(2, 10, 20)), y = weight)
dlsD9 <- ls.diag(lsD9)
utils::str(dlsD9, give.attr = FALSE)
abs(1 - sum(dlsD9$hat) / 2) < 10*.Machine$double.eps # sum(h.ii) = p
plot(dlsD9$hat, dlsD9$stud.res, xlim = c(0, 0.11))
abline(h = 0, lty = 2, col = "lightgray")
```

ls.print	<i>Print lsfit Regression Results</i>
----------	---------------------------------------

Description

Computes basic statistics, including standard errors, t- and p-values for the regression coefficients and prints them if `print.it` is TRUE.

Usage

```
ls.print(ls.out, digits = 4, print.it = TRUE)
```

Arguments

ls.out	Typically the result of <code>lsfit()</code>
digits	The number of significant digits used for printing
print.it	a logical indicating whether the result should also be printed

Value

A list with the components	
summary	The ANOVA table of the regression
coef.table	matrix with regression coefficients, standard errors, t- and p-values

Note

Usually you would use `summary(lm(...))` and `anova(lm(...))` to obtain similar output.

See Also

`ls.diag`, `lsfit`, also for examples; `lm`, `lm.influence` which usually are preferable.

lsfit	<i>Find the Least Squares Fit</i>
-------	-----------------------------------

Description

The least squares estimate of β in the model

$$Y = X\beta + \epsilon$$

is found.

Usage

```
lsfit(x, y, wt = NULL, intercept = TRUE, tolerance = 1e-07,
      yname = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	a matrix whose rows correspond to cases and whose columns correspond to variables.
y	the responses, possibly a matrix if you want to fit multiple left hand sides.
wt	an optional vector of weights for performing weighted least squares.
intercept	whether or not an intercept term should be used.
tolerance	the tolerance to be used in the matrix decomposition.
yname	names to be used for the response variables.

Details

If weights are specified then a weighted least squares is performed with the weight given to the j th case specified by the j th entry in `wt`.

If any observation has a missing value in any field, that observation is removed before the analysis is carried out. This can be quite inefficient if there is a lot of missing data.

The implementation is via a modification of the LINPACK subroutines which allow for multiple left-hand sides.

Value

A list with the following named components:

<code>coef</code>	the least squares estimates of the coefficients in the model (β as stated above).
<code>residuals</code>	residuals from the fit.
<code>intercept</code>	indicates whether an intercept was fitted.
<code>qr</code>	the QR decomposition of the design matrix.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`lm` which usually is preferable; `ls.print`, `ls.diag`.

Examples

```
##-- Using the same data as the lm(.) example:
lsD9 <- lsfit(x = unclass(gl(2, 10)), y = weight)
ls.print(lsD9)
```

mad

Median Absolute Deviation

Description

Compute the median absolute deviation, i.e., the (lo-/hi-) median of the absolute deviations from the median, and (by default) adjust by a factor for asymptotically normal consistency.

Usage

```
mad(x, center = median(x), constant = 1.4826, na.rm = FALSE,
    low = FALSE, high = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector.
center	Optionally, the centre: defaults to the median.
constant	scale factor.
na.rm	if TRUE then NA values are stripped from x before computation takes place.
low	if TRUE, compute the 'lo-median', i.e., for even sample size, do not average the two middle values, but take the smaller one.
high	if TRUE, compute the 'hi-median', i.e., take the larger of the two middle values for even sample size.

Details

The actual value calculated is `constant * cMedian(abs(x - center))` with the default value of center being `median(x)`, and `cMedian` being the usual, the 'low' or 'high' median, see the arguments description for low and high above.

The default constant = 1.4826 (approximately $1/\Phi^{-1}(\frac{3}{4}) = 1/\text{qnorm}(3/4)$) ensures consistency, i.e.,

$$E[\text{mad}(X_1, \dots, X_n)] = \sigma$$

for X_i distributed as $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and large n .

If na.rm is TRUE then NA values are stripped from x before computation takes place. If this is not done then an NA value in x will cause mad to return NA.

See Also

[IQR](#) which is simpler but less robust, [median](#), [var](#).

Examples

```
mad(c(1:9))
print(mad(c(1:9), constant = 1)) ==
      mad(c(1:8, 100), constant = 1)      # = 2 ; TRUE
x <- c(1,2,3,5,7,8)
sort(abs(x - median(x)))
c(mad(x, constant = 1),
  mad(x, constant = 1, low = TRUE),
  mad(x, constant = 1, high = TRUE))
```

mahalanobis

Mahalanobis Distance

Description

Returns the squared Mahalanobis distance of all rows in x and the vector μ = center with respect to Σ = cov. This is (for vector x) defined as

$$D^2 = (x - \mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)$$

Usage

```
mahalanobis(x, center, cov, inverted = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	vector or matrix of data with, say, p columns.
<code>center</code>	mean vector of the distribution or second data vector of length p or recyclable to that length. If set to <code>FALSE</code> , the centering step is skipped.
<code>cov</code>	covariance matrix ($p \times p$) of the distribution.
<code>inverted</code>	logical. If <code>TRUE</code> , <code>cov</code> is supposed to contain the <i>inverse</i> of the covariance matrix.
<code>...</code>	passed to <code>solve</code> for computing the inverse of the covariance matrix (if <code>inverted</code> is <code>false</code>).

See Also

`cov`, `var`

Examples

```
require(graphics)

ma <- cbind(1:6, 1:3)
(S <- var(ma))
mahalanobis(c(0, 0), 1:2, S)

x <- matrix(rnorm(100*3), ncol = 3)
stopifnot(mahalanobis(x, 0, diag(ncol(x))) == rowSums(x*x))
##- Here, D^2 = usual squared Euclidean distances

Sx <- cov(x)
D2 <- mahalanobis(x, colMeans(x), Sx)
plot(density(D2, bw = 0.5),
     main="Squared Mahalanobis distances, n=100, p=3") ; rug(D2)
qqplot(qchisq(ppoints(100), df = 3), D2,
      main = expression("Q-Q plot of Mahalanobis" * ~D^2 *
                        " vs. quantiles of" * ~ chi[3]^2))
abline(0, 1, col = 'gray')
```

Description

This function is used with the `family` functions in `glm()`. Given the name of a link, it returns a link function, an inverse link function, the derivative $d\mu/d\eta$ and a function for domain checking.

Usage

```
make.link(link)
```

Arguments

link character; one of "logit", "probit", "cauchit", "cloglog", "identity", "log", "sqrt", "1/mu^2", "inverse".

Value

A object of class "link-glm", a list with components

linkfun	Link function function(mu)
linkinv	Inverse link function function(eta)
mu.eta	Derivative function(eta) $d\mu/d\eta$
valideta	function(eta){ TRUE if eta is in the domain of linkinv }
name	a name to be used for the link

.

See Also

[power](#), [glm](#), [family](#).

Examples

```
utils::str(make.link("logit"))
```

makepredictcall	<i>Utility Function for Safe Prediction</i>
-----------------	---

Description

A utility to help [model.frame.default](#) create the right matrices when predicting from models with terms like (univariate) poly or ns.

Usage

```
makepredictcall(var, call)
```

Arguments

var	A variable.
call	The term in the formula, as a call.

Details

This is a generic function with methods for `poly`, `bs` and `ns`: the default method handles `scale`. If `model.frame.default` encounters such a term when creating a model frame, it modifies the `predvars` attribute of the terms supplied by replacing the term with one which will work for predicting new data. For example `makepredictcall.ns` adds arguments for the knots and intercept.

To make use of this, have your model-fitting function return the `terms` attribute of the model frame, or copy the `predvars` attribute of the `terms` attribute of the model frame to your `terms` object.

To extend this, make sure the term creates variables with a class, and write a suitable method for that class.

Value

A replacement for `call` for the `predvars` attribute of the terms.

See Also

`model.frame`, `poly`, `scale`; `bs` and `ns` in package **splines**.
`cars` for an example of prediction from a polynomial fit.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## using poly: this did not work in R < 1.5.0
fm <- lm(weight ~ poly(height, 2), data = women)
plot(women, xlab = "Height (in)", ylab = "Weight (lb)")
ht <- seq(57, 73, len = 200)
lines(ht, predict(fm, data.frame(height = ht)))

## see also example(cars)

## see bs and ns for spline examples.
```

manova

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

Description

A class for the multivariate analysis of variance.

Usage

```
manova(...)
```

Arguments

... Arguments to be passed to `avov`.

Details

Class "manova" differs from class "aov" in selecting a different summary method. Function manova calls [aov](#) and then add class "manova" to the result object for each stratum.

Value

See [aov](#) and the comments in 'Details' here.

References

Krzanowski, W. J. (1988) *Principles of Multivariate Analysis. A User's Perspective*. Oxford.

Hand, D. J. and Taylor, C. C. (1987) *Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Repeated Measures*. Chapman and Hall.

See Also

[aov](#), [summary.manova](#), the latter containing examples.

Examples

```
## Set orthogonal contrasts.
op <- options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.poly"))

## Fake a 2nd response variable
npk2 <- within(npk, foo <- rnorm(24))
( npk2.aov <- manova(cbind(yield, foo) ~ block + N*P*K, npk2) )
summary(npk2.aov)

( npk2.aovE <- manova(cbind(yield, foo) ~ N*P*K + Error(block), npk2) )
summary(npk2.aovE)
```

mantelhaen.test

Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Squared Test for Count Data

Description

Performs a Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel chi-squared test of the null that two nominal variables are conditionally independent in each stratum, assuming that there is no three-way interaction.

Usage

```
mantelhaen.test(x, y = NULL, z = NULL,
  alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
  correct = TRUE, exact = FALSE, conf.level = 0.95)
```


Arguments

<code>x</code>	either a 3-dimensional contingency table in array form where each dimension is at least 2 and the last dimension corresponds to the strata, or a factor object with at least 2 levels.
<code>y</code>	a factor object with at least 2 levels; ignored if <code>x</code> is an array.
<code>z</code>	a factor object with at least 2 levels identifying to which stratum the corresponding elements in <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> belong; ignored if <code>x</code> is an array.
<code>alternative</code>	indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided", "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter. Only used in the 2 by 2 by K case.
<code>correct</code>	a logical indicating whether to apply continuity correction when computing the test statistic. Only used in the 2 by 2 by K case.
<code>exact</code>	a logical indicating whether the Mantel-Haenszel test or the exact conditional test (given the strata margins) should be computed. Only used in the 2 by 2 by K case.
<code>conf.level</code>	confidence level for the returned confidence interval. Only used in the 2 by 2 by K case.

Details

If `x` is an array, each dimension must be at least 2, and the entries should be nonnegative integers. NA's are not allowed. Otherwise, `x`, `y` and `z` must have the same length. Triples containing NA's are removed. All variables must take at least two different values.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

<code>statistic</code>	Only present if no exact test is performed. In the classical case of a 2 by 2 by K table (i.e., of dichotomous underlying variables), the Mantel-Haenszel chi-squared statistic; otherwise, the generalized Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel statistic.
<code>parameter</code>	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic (1 in the classical case). Only present if no exact test is performed.
<code>p.value</code>	the p-value of the test.
<code>conf.int</code>	a confidence interval for the common odds ratio. Only present in the 2 by 2 by K case.
<code>estimate</code>	an estimate of the common odds ratio. If an exact test is performed, the conditional Maximum Likelihood Estimate is given; otherwise, the Mantel-Haenszel estimate. Only present in the 2 by 2 by K case.
<code>null.value</code>	the common odds ratio under the null of independence, 1. Only present in the 2 by 2 by K case.
<code>alternative</code>	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis. Only present in the 2 by 2 by K case.
<code>method</code>	a character string indicating the method employed, and whether or not continuity correction was used.
<code>data.name</code>	a character string giving the names of the data.

Note

The asymptotic distribution is only valid if there is no three-way interaction. In the classical 2 by 2 by K case, this is equivalent to the conditional odds ratios in each stratum being identical. Currently, no inference on homogeneity of the odds ratios is performed.

See also the example below.

References

Alan Agresti (1990). *Categorical data analysis*. New York: Wiley. Pages 230–235.

Alan Agresti (2002). *Categorical data analysis* (second edition). New York: Wiley.

Examples

```
## Agresti (1990), pages 231--237, Penicillin and Rabbits
## Investigation of the effectiveness of immediately injected or 1.5
## hours delayed penicillin in protecting rabbits against a lethal
## injection with beta-hemolytic streptococci.
Rabbits <-
array(c(0, 0, 6, 5,
        3, 0, 3, 6,
        6, 2, 0, 4,
        5, 6, 1, 0,
        2, 5, 0, 0),
      dim = c(2, 2, 5),
      dimnames = list(
        Delay = c("None", "1.5h"),
        Response = c("Cured", "Died"),
        Penicillin.Level = c("1/8", "1/4", "1/2", "1", "4")))
Rabbits
## Classical Mantel-Haenszel test
mantelhaen.test(Rabbits)
## => p = 0.047, some evidence for higher cure rate of immediate
## injection
## Exact conditional test
mantelhaen.test(Rabbits, exact = TRUE)
## => p = 0.040
## Exact conditional test for one-sided alternative of a higher
## cure rate for immediate injection
mantelhaen.test(Rabbits, exact = TRUE, alternative = "greater")
## => p = 0.020

## UC Berkeley Student Admissions
mantelhaen.test(UCBAdmissions)
## No evidence for association between admission and gender
## when adjusted for department. However,
## apply(UCBAdmissions, 3, function(x) (x[1,1]*x[2,2])/(x[1,2]*x[2,1]))
## This suggests that the assumption of homogeneous (conditional)
## odds ratios may be violated. The traditional approach would be
## using the Woolf test for interaction:
woolf <- function(x) {
  x <- x + 1 / 2
```

```

k <- dim(x)[3]
or <- apply(x, 3, function(x) (x[1,1]*x[2,2])/(x[1,2]*x[2,1]))
w <- apply(x, 3, function(x) 1 / sum(1 / x))
1 - pchisq(sum(w * (log(or) - weighted.mean(log(or), w)) ^ 2), k - 1)
}
woolf(UCBAdmissions)
## => p = 0.003, indicating that there is significant heterogeneity.
## (And hence the Mantel-Haenszel test cannot be used.)

## Agresti (2002), p. 287f and p. 297.
## Job Satisfaction example.
Satisfaction <-
  as.table(array(c(1, 2, 0, 0, 3, 3, 1, 2,
                  11, 17, 8, 4, 2, 3, 5, 2,
                  1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 3, 0, 1,
                  2, 5, 7, 9, 1, 1, 3, 6),
                dim = c(4, 4, 2),
                dimnames =
                  list(Income =
                     c("<5000", "5000-15000",
                       "15000-25000", ">25000"),
                     "Job Satisfaction" =
                     c("V_D", "L_S", "M_S", "V_S"),
                     Gender = c("Female", "Male"))))
## (Satisfaction categories abbreviated for convenience.)
ftable(. ~ Gender + Income, Satisfaction)
## Table 7.8 in Agresti (2002), p. 288.
mantelhaen.test(Satisfaction)
## See Table 7.12 in Agresti (2002), p. 297.

```

mauchly.test

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity

Description

Tests whether a Wishart-distributed covariance matrix (or transformation thereof) is proportional to a given matrix.

Usage

```

mauchly.test(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'mlm'
mauchly.test(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'SSD'
mauchly.test(object, Sigma = diag(nrow = p),
  T = Thin.row(proj(M) - proj(X)), M = diag(nrow = p), X = ~0,
  idata = data.frame(index = seq_len(p)), ...)

```

Arguments

object	object of class SSD or <code>mlm</code> .
Sigma	matrix to be proportional to.
T	transformation matrix. By default computed from M and X.
M	formula or matrix describing the outer projection (see below).
X	formula or matrix describing the inner projection (see below).
idata	data frame describing intra-block design.
...	arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

Mauchly's test test for whether a covariance matrix can be assumed to be proportional to a given matrix.

This is a generic function with methods for classes "`mlm`" and "`SSD`".

The basic method is for objects of class SSD the method for `mlm` objects just extracts the SSD matrix and invokes the corresponding method with the same options and arguments.

The T argument is used to transform the observations prior to testing. This typically involves transformation to intra-block differences, but more complicated within-block designs can be encountered, making more elaborate transformations necessary. A matrix T can be given directly or specified as the difference between two projections onto the spaces spanned by M and X, which in turn can be given as matrices or as model formulas with respect to `idata` (the tests will be invariant to parametrization of the quotient space M/X).

The common use of this test is in repeated measurements designs, with $X = \sim 1$. This is almost, but not quite the same as testing for compound symmetry in the untransformed covariance matrix.

Notice that the defaults involve `p`, which is calculated internally as the dimension of the SSD matrix, and a couple of hidden functions in the **stats** namespace, namely `proj` which calculates projection matrices from design matrices or model formulas and `Thin.row` which removes linearly dependent rows from a matrix until it has full row rank.

Value

An object of class "`htest`"

Note

The p-value differs slightly from that of SAS because a second order term is included in the asymptotic approximation in R.

References

T. W. Anderson (1958). *An Introduction to Multivariate Statistical Analysis*. Wiley.

See Also

[SSD](#), [anova.mlm](#), [rWishart](#)

Examples

```
utils::example(SSD) # Brings in the mlmfit and reacttime objects

### traditional test of intrasubj. contrasts
mauchly.test(mlmfit, X = ~1)

### tests using intra-subject 3x2 design
idata <- data.frame(deg = gl(3, 1, 6, labels = c(0,4,8)),
                    noise = gl(2, 3, 6, labels = c("A","P")))
mauchly.test(mlmfit, X = ~ deg + noise, idata = idata)
mauchly.test(mlmfit, M = ~ deg + noise, X = ~ noise, idata = idata)
```

mcnemar.test

McNemar's Chi-squared Test for Count Data

Description

Performs McNemar's chi-squared test for symmetry of rows and columns in a two-dimensional contingency table.

Usage

```
mcnemar.test(x, y = NULL, correct = TRUE)
```

Arguments

x	either a two-dimensional contingency table in matrix form, or a factor object.
y	a factor object; ignored if x is a matrix.
correct	a logical indicating whether to apply continuity correction when computing the test statistic.

Details

The null is that the probabilities of being classified into cells $[i, j]$ and $[j, i]$ are the same.

If x is a matrix, it is taken as a two-dimensional contingency table, and hence its entries should be nonnegative integers. Otherwise, both x and y must be vectors or factors of the same length. Incomplete cases are removed, vectors are coerced into factors, and the contingency table is computed from these.

Continuity correction is only used in the 2-by-2 case if correct is TRUE.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value of McNemar's statistic.
parameter	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic.

p.value	the p-value of the test.
method	a character string indicating the type of test performed, and whether continuity correction was used.
data.name	a character string giving the name(s) of the data.

References

Alan Agresti (1990). *Categorical data analysis*. New York: Wiley. Pages 350–354.

Examples

```
## Agresti (1990), p. 350.
## Presidential Approval Ratings.
## Approval of the President's performance in office in two surveys,
## one month apart, for a random sample of 1600 voting-age Americans.
Performance <-
matrix(c(794, 86, 150, 570),
       nrow = 2,
       dimnames = list("1st Survey" = c("Approve", "Disapprove"),
                       "2nd Survey" = c("Approve", "Disapprove")))

Performance
mcnemar.test(Performance)
## => significant change (in fact, drop) in approval ratings
```

median	<i>Median Value</i>
--------	---------------------

Description

Compute the sample median.

Usage

```
median(x, na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	an object for which a method has been defined, or a numeric vector containing the values whose median is to be computed.
na.rm	a logical value indicating whether NA values should be stripped before the computation proceeds.

Details

This is a generic function for which methods can be written. However, the default method makes use of `is.na`, `sort` and `mean` from package **base** all of which are generic, and so the default method will work for most classes (e.g., ["Date"](#)) for which a median is a reasonable concept.

Value

The default method returns a length-one object of the same type as `x`, except when `x` is integer of even length, when the result will be double.

If there are no values or if `na.rm = FALSE` and there are NA values the result is NA of the same type as `x` (or more generally the result of `x[FALSE][NA]`).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[quantile](#) for general quantiles.

Examples

```
median(1:4)           # = 2.5 [even number]
median(c(1:3, 100, 1000)) # = 3 [odd, robust]
```

medpolish

Median Polish of a Matrix

Description

Fits an additive model using Tukey's *median polish* procedure.

Usage

```
medpolish(x, eps = 0.01, maxiter = 10, trace.iter = TRUE,
          na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric matrix.
<code>eps</code>	real number greater than 0. A tolerance for convergence: see 'Details'.
<code>maxiter</code>	the maximum number of iterations
<code>trace.iter</code>	logical. Should progress in convergence be reported?
<code>na.rm</code>	logical. Should missing values be removed?

Details

The model fitted is additive (constant + rows + columns). The algorithm works by alternately removing the row and column medians, and continues until the proportional reduction in the sum of absolute residuals is less than `eps` or until there have been `max.iter` iterations. The sum of absolute residuals is printed at each iteration of the fitting process, if `trace.iter` is `TRUE`. If `na.rm` is `FALSE` the presence of any NA value in `x` will cause an error, otherwise NA values are ignored.

`medpolish` returns an object of class `medpolish` (see below). There are printing and plotting methods for this class, which are invoked via by the generics `print` and `plot`.

Value

An object of class `medpolish` with the following named components:

<code>overall</code>	the fitted constant term.
<code>row</code>	the fitted row effects.
<code>col</code>	the fitted column effects.
<code>residuals</code>	the residuals.
<code>name</code>	the name of the dataset.

References

Tukey, J. W. (1977). *Exploratory Data Analysis*, Reading Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

See Also

`median`; `aov` for a *mean* instead of *median* decomposition.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Deaths from sport parachuting; from ABC of EDA, p.224:
deaths <-
  rbind(c(14,15,14),
        c( 7, 4, 7),
        c( 8, 2,10),
        c(15, 9,10),
        c( 0, 2, 0))
dimnames(deaths) <- list(c("1-24", "25-74", "75-199", "200++", "NA"),
                        paste(1973:1975))

deaths
(med.d <- medpolish(deaths))
plot(med.d)
## Check decomposition:
all(deaths ==
    med.d$overall + outer(med.d$row,med.d$col, "+") + med.d$residuals)
```

`model.extract`*Extract Components from a Model Frame*

Description

Returns the response, offset, subset, weights or other special components of a model frame passed as optional arguments to [model.frame](#).

Usage

```
model.extract(frame, component)
model.offset(x)
model.response(data, type = "any")
model.weights(x)
```

Arguments

<code>frame, x, data</code>	A model frame.
<code>component</code>	literal character string or name. The name of a component to extract, such as "weights", "subset".
<code>type</code>	One of "any", "numeric", "double". Using either of latter two coerces the result to have storage mode "double".

Details

`model.extract` is provided for compatibility with S, which does not have the more specific functions. It is also useful to extract e.g. the `etastart` and `mustart` components of a [glm](#) fit.

`model.offset` and `model.response` are equivalent to `model.extract(, "offset")` and `model.extract(, "response")` respectively. `model.offset` sums any terms specified by [offset](#) terms in the formula or by `offset` arguments in the call producing the model frame: it does check that the offset is numeric.

`model.weights` is slightly different from `model.frame(, "weights")` in not naming the vector it returns.

Value

The specified component of the model frame, usually a vector.

See Also

[model.frame](#), [offset](#)

Examples

```

a <- model.frame(cbind(ncases,ncontrols) ~ agegp + tobgp + alcgp, data = esoph)
model.extract(a, "response")
stopifnot(model.extract(a, "response") == model.response(a))

a <- model.frame(ncases/(ncases+ncontrols) ~ agegp + tobgp + alcgp,
                 data = esoph, weights = ncases+ncontrols)
model.response(a)
model.extract(a, "weights")

a <- model.frame(cbind(ncases,ncontrols) ~ agegp,
                 something = tobgp, data = esoph)
names(a)
stopifnot(model.extract(a, "something") == esoph$tobgp)

```

model.frame

Extracting the Model Frame from a Formula or Fit

Description

model.frame (a generic function) and its methods return a [data.frame](#) with the variables needed to use formula and any ... arguments.

Usage

```

model.frame(formula, ...)

## Default S3 method:
model.frame(formula, data = NULL,
            subset = NULL, na.action = na.fail,
            drop.unused.levels = FALSE, xlev = NULL, ...)

## S3 method for class 'aovlist'
model.frame(formula, data = NULL, ...)

## S3 method for class 'glm'
model.frame(formula, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
model.frame(formula, ...)

get_all_vars(formula, data, ...)

```

Arguments

formula a model [formula](#) or [terms](#) object or an R object.

<code>data</code>	a <code>data.frame</code> , list or environment (or object coercible by <code>as.data.frame</code> to a <code>data.frame</code>), containing the variables in <code>formula</code> . Neither a matrix nor an array will be accepted.
<code>subset</code>	a specification of the rows to be used: defaults to all rows. This can be any valid indexing vector (see <code>[.data.frame]</code>) for the rows of <code>data</code> or if that is not supplied, a data frame made up of the variables used in <code>formula</code> .
<code>na.action</code>	how NAs are treated. The default is first, any <code>na.action</code> attribute of <code>data</code> , second a <code>na.action</code> setting of <code>options</code> , and third <code>na.fail</code> if that is unset. The ‘factory-fresh’ default is <code>na.omit</code> . Another possible value is <code>NULL</code> .
<code>drop.unused.levels</code>	should factors have unused levels dropped? Defaults to <code>FALSE</code> .
<code>xlev</code>	a named list of character vectors giving the full set of levels to be assumed for each factor.
<code>...</code>	further arguments such as <code>data</code> , <code>na.action</code> , <code>subset</code> . Any additional arguments such as <code>offset</code> and <code>weights</code> which reach the default method are used to create further columns in the model frame, with parenthesised names such as <code>"(offset)"</code> .

Details

Exactly what happens depends on the class and attributes of the object `formula`. If this is an object of fitted-model class such as `"lm"`, the method will either return the saved model frame used when fitting the model (if any, often selected by argument `model = TRUE`) or pass the call used when fitting on to the default method. The default method itself can cope with rather standard model objects such as those of class `"lqs"` from package **MASS** if no other arguments are supplied.

The rest of this section applies only to the default method.

If either `formula` or `data` is already a model frame (a data frame with a `"terms"` attribute) and the other is missing, the model frame is returned. Unless `formula` is a terms object, `as.formula` and then `terms` is called on it. (If you wish to use the `keep.order` argument of `terms.formula`, pass a terms object rather than a `formula`.)

Row names for the model frame are taken from the `data` argument if present, then from the names of the response in the `formula` (or `rownames` if it is a matrix), if there is one.

All the variables in `formula`, `subset` and in `...` are looked for first in `data` and then in the environment of `formula` (see the help for `formula()` for further details) and collected into a data frame. Then the `subset` expression is evaluated, and it is used as a row index to the data frame. Then the `na.action` function is applied to the data frame (and may well add attributes). The levels of any factors in the data frame are adjusted according to the `drop.unused.levels` and `xlev` arguments: if `xlev` specifies a factor and a character variable is found, it is converted to a factor (as from R 2.10.0).

Unless `na.action = NULL`, time-series attributes will be removed from the variables found (since they will be wrong if NAs are removed).

Note that *all* the variables in the `formula` are included in the data frame, even those preceded by `-`.

Only variables whose type is raw, logical, integer, real, complex or character can be included in a model frame: this includes classed variables such as factors (whose underlying type is integer), but excludes lists.

get_all_vars returns a `data.frame` containing the variables used in formula plus those specified Unlike `model.frame.default`, it returns the input variables and not those resulting from function calls in formula.

Value

A `data.frame` containing the variables used in formula plus those specified in It will have additional attributes, including "terms" for an object of class "terms" derived from formula, and possibly "na.action" giving information on the handling of NAs (which will not be present if no special handling was done, e.g. by `na.pass`).

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Data for models*. Chapter 3 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`model.matrix` for the 'design matrix', `formula` for formulas and `expand.model.frame` for model.frame manipulation.

Examples

```
data.class(model.frame(dist ~ speed, data = cars))
```

model.matrix	<i>Construct Design Matrices</i>
--------------	----------------------------------

Description

model.matrix creates a design (or model) matrix.

Usage

```
model.matrix(object, ...)

## Default S3 method:
model.matrix(object, data = environment(object),
              contrasts.arg = NULL, xlev = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

- object an object of an appropriate class. For the default method, a model `formula` or a `terms` object.
- data a data frame created with `model.frame`. If another sort of object, `model.frame` is called first.

<code>contrasts.arg</code>	A list, whose entries are values (numeric matrices or character strings naming functions) to be used as replacement values for the <code>contrasts</code> replacement function and whose names are the names of columns of data containing factors.
<code>xlev</code>	to be used as argument of <code>model.frame</code> if data is such that <code>model.frame</code> is called.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

`model.matrix` creates a design matrix from the description given in `terms(object)`, using the data in `data` which must supply variables with the same names as would be created by a call to `model.frame(object)` or, more precisely, by evaluating `attr(terms(object), "variables")`. If `data` is a data frame, there may be other columns and the order of columns is not important. Any character variables are coerced to factors. After coercion, all the variables used on the right-hand side of the formula must be logical, integer, numeric or factor.

If `contrasts.arg` is specified for a factor it overrides the default factor coding for that variable and any "contrasts" attribute set by `C` or `contrasts`.

In an interaction term, the variable whose levels vary fastest is the first one to appear in the formula (and not in the term), so in `~ a + b + b:a` the interaction will have a varying fastest.

By convention, if the response variable also appears on the right-hand side of the formula it is dropped (with a warning), although interactions involving the term are retained.

Value

The design matrix for a regression-like model with the specified formula and data.

There is an attribute "assign", an integer vector with an entry for each column in the matrix giving the term in the formula which gave rise to the column. Value 0 corresponds to the intercept (if any), and positive values to terms in the order given by the `term.labels` attribute of the `terms` structure corresponding to `object`.

If there are any factors in `terms` in the model, there is an attribute "contrasts", a named list with an entry for each factor. This specifies the contrasts that would be used in terms in which the factor is coded by contrasts (in some terms dummy coding may be used), either as a character vector naming a function or as a numeric matrix.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Data for models*. Chapter 3 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`model.frame`, `model.extract`, `terms`

Examples

```
ff <- log(Volume) ~ log(Height) + log(Girth)
utils::str(m <- model.frame(ff, trees))
mat <- model.matrix(ff, m)

dd <- data.frame(a = gl(3,4), b = gl(4,1,12)) # balanced 2-way
options("contrasts")
model.matrix(~ a + b, dd)
model.matrix(~ a + b, dd, contrasts = list(a = "contr.sum"))
model.matrix(~ a + b, dd, contrasts = list(a = "contr.sum", b = "contr.poly"))
m.orth <- model.matrix(~a+b, dd, contrasts = list(a = "contr.helmert"))
crossprod(m.orth) # m.orth is ALMOST orthogonal
```

model.tables

*Compute Tables of Results from an Aov Model Fit***Description**

Computes summary tables for model fits, especially complex aov fits.

Usage

```
model.tables(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'aov'
model.tables(x, type = "effects", se = FALSE, cterms, ...)

## S3 method for class 'aovlist'
model.tables(x, type = "effects", se = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a model object, usually produced by aov
type	type of table: currently only "effects" and "means" are implemented. Can be abbreviated.
se	should standard errors be computed?
cterm	A character vector giving the names of the terms for which tables should be computed. The default is all tables.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

For type = "effects" give tables of the coefficients for each term, optionally with standard errors.

For type = "means" give tables of the mean response for each combinations of levels of the factors in a term.

The "aov" method cannot be applied to components of a "aovlist" fit.

Value

An object of class "tables.aov", as list which may contain components

tables	A list of tables for each requested term.
n	The replication information for each term.
se	Standard error information.

Warning

The implementation is incomplete, and only the simpler cases have been tested thoroughly.
Weighted aov fits are not supported.

See Also

[aov](#), [proj](#), [replications](#), [TukeyHSD](#), [se.contrast](#)

Examples

```
options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.treatment"))
npk.aov <- aov(yield ~ block + N*P*K, npk)
model.tables(npk.aov, "means", se = TRUE)

## as a test, not particularly sensible statistically
npk.aovE <- aov(yield ~ N*P*K + Error(block), npk)
model.tables(npk.aovE, se = TRUE)
model.tables(npk.aovE, "means")
```

monthplot

Plot a Seasonal or other Subseries from a Time Series

Description

These functions plot seasonal (or other) subseries of a time series. For each season (or other category), a time series is plotted.

Usage

```
monthplot(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'stl'
monthplot(x, labels = NULL, ylab = choice, choice = "seasonal",
          ...)

## S3 method for class 'StructTS'
monthplot(x, labels = NULL, ylab = choice, choice = "sea", ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'ts'
monthplot(x, labels = NULL, times = time(x), phase = cycle(x),
          ylab = deparse(substitute(x)), ...)

## Default S3 method:
monthplot(x, labels = 1L:12L,
          ylab = deparse(substitute(x)),
          times = seq_along(x),
          phase = (times - 1L)%length(labels) + 1L, base = mean,
          axes = TRUE, type = c("l", "h"), box = TRUE,
          add = FALSE,
          col = par("col"), lty = par("lty"), lwd = par("lwd"),
          col.base = col, lty.base = lty, lwd.base = lwd, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	Time series or related object.
<code>labels</code>	Labels to use for each ‘season’.
<code>ylab</code>	y label.
<code>times</code>	Time of each observation.
<code>phase</code>	Indicator for each ‘season’.
<code>base</code>	Function to use for reference line for subseries.
<code>choice</code>	Which series of an <code>stl</code> or <code>StructTS</code> object?
<code>...</code>	Arguments to be passed to the default method or graphical parameters.
<code>axes</code>	Should axes be drawn (ignored if <code>add = TRUE</code>)?
<code>type</code>	Type of plot. The default is to join the points with lines, and “h” is for histogram-like vertical lines.
<code>box</code>	Should a box be drawn (ignored if <code>add = TRUE</code>)?
<code>add</code>	Should thus just add on an existing plot.
<code>col, lty, lwd</code>	Graphics parameters for the series.
<code>col.base, lty.base, lwd.base</code>	Graphics parameters for the segments used for the reference lines.

Details

These functions extract subseries from a time series and plot them all in one frame. The `ts`, `stl`, and `StructTS` methods use the internally recorded frequency and start and finish times to set the scale and the seasons. The default method assumes observations come in groups of 12 (though this can be changed).

If the `labels` are not given but the `phase` is given, then the `labels` default to the unique values of the `phase`. If both are given, then the `phase` values are assumed to be indices into the `labels` array, i.e., they should be in the range from 1 to `length(labels)`.

Value

These functions are executed for their side effect of drawing a seasonal subseries plot on the current graphical window.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[ts](#), [stl](#), [StructTS](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## The CO2 data
fit <- stl(log(co2), s.window = 20, t.window = 20)
plot(fit)
op <- par(mfrow = c(2,2))
monthplot(co2, ylab = "data", cex.axis = 0.8)
monthplot(fit, choice = "seasonal", cex.axis = 0.8)
monthplot(fit, choice = "trend", cex.axis = 0.8)
monthplot(fit, choice = "remainder", type = "h", cex.axis = 0.8)
par(op)

## The CO2 data, grouped quarterly
quarter <- (cycle(co2) - 1) %% 3
monthplot(co2, phase = quarter)

## see also JohnsonJohnson
```

mood.test

Mood Two-Sample Test of Scale

Description

Performs Mood's two-sample test for a difference in scale parameters.

Usage

```
mood.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
mood.test(x, y,
          alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"), ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
mood.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	numeric vectors of data values.
<code>alternative</code>	indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided" (default), "greater" or "less" all of which can be abbreviated.
<code>formula</code>	a formula of the form <code>lhs ~ rhs</code> where <code>lhs</code> is a numeric variable giving the data values and <code>rhs</code> a factor with two levels giving the corresponding groups.
<code>data</code>	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula <code>formula</code> . By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
<code>na.action</code>	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
<code>...</code>	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

The underlying model is that the two samples are drawn from $f(x - l)$ and $f((x - l)/s)/s$, respectively, where l is a common location parameter and s is a scale parameter.

The null hypothesis is $s = 1$.

There are more useful tests for this problem.

In the case of ties, the formulation of Mielke (1967) is employed.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

<code>statistic</code>	the value of the test statistic.
<code>p.value</code>	the p-value of the test.
<code>alternative</code>	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis. You can specify just the initial letter.
<code>method</code>	the character string "Mood two-sample test of scale".
<code>data.name</code>	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

- William J. Conover (1971), *Practical nonparametric statistics*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 234f.
- Paul W. Mielke, Jr. (1967), Note on some squared rank tests with existing ties. *Technometrics*, **9**/2, 312–314.

See Also

[fligner.test](#) for a rank-based (nonparametric) k-sample test for homogeneity of variances; [ansari.test](#) for another rank-based two-sample test for a difference in scale parameters; [var.test](#) and [bartlett.test](#) for parametric tests for the homogeneity in variance.

Examples

```
## Same data as for the Ansari-Bradley test:
## Serum iron determination using Hyland control sera
ramsay <- c(111, 107, 100, 99, 102, 106, 109, 108, 104, 99,
            101, 96, 97, 102, 107, 113, 116, 113, 110, 98)
jung.parekh <- c(107, 108, 106, 98, 105, 103, 110, 105, 104,
                 100, 96, 108, 103, 104, 114, 114, 113, 108, 106, 99)
mood.test(ramsay, jung.parekh)
## Compare this to ansari.test(ramsay, jung.parekh)
```

Multinom

The Multinomial Distribution

Description

Generate multinomially distributed random number vectors and compute multinomial probabilities.

Usage

```
rmultinom(n, size, prob)
dmultinom(x, size = NULL, prob, log = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	vector of length K of integers in 0 :size.
n	number of random vectors to draw.
size	integer, say N , specifying the total number of objects that are put into K boxes in the typical multinomial experiment. For <code>dmultinom</code> , it defaults to <code>sum(x)</code> .
prob	numeric non-negative vector of length K , specifying the probability for the K classes; is internally normalized to sum 1. Infinite and missing values are not allowed.
log	logical; if TRUE, log probabilities are computed.

Details

If x is a K -component vector, `dmultinom(x, prob)` is the probability

$$P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_K = x_k) = C \times \prod_{j=1}^K \pi_j^{x_j}$$

where C is the ‘multinomial coefficient’ $C = N!/(x_1! \cdots x_K!)$ and $N = \sum_{j=1}^K x_j$.

By definition, each component X_j is binomially distributed as $\text{Bin}(\text{size}, \text{prob}[j])$ for $j = 1, \dots, K$.

The `rmultinom()` algorithm draws binomials X_j from $\text{Bin}(n_j, P_j)$ sequentially, where $n_1 = N$ ($N := \text{size}$), $P_1 = \pi_1$ (π is prob scaled to sum 1), and for $j \geq 2$, recursively, $n_j = N - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} X_k$ and $P_j = \pi_j / (1 - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \pi_k)$.

Value

For `rmultinom()`, an integer $K \times n$ matrix where each column is a random vector generated according to the desired multinomial law, and hence summing to `size`. Whereas the *transposed* result would seem more natural at first, the returned matrix is more efficient because of columnwise storage.

Note

`dmultinom` is currently *not vectorized* at all and has no C interface (API); this may be amended in the future.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for standard distributions, including [dbinom](#) which is a special case conceptually.

Examples

```
rmultinom(10, size = 12, prob = c(0.1,0.2,0.8))

pr <- c(1,3,6,10) # normalization not necessary for generation
rmultinom(10, 20, prob = pr)

## all possible outcomes of Multinom(N = 3, K = 3)
X <- t(as.matrix(expand.grid(0:3, 0:3))); X <- X[, colSums(X) <= 3]
X <- rbind(X, 3:3 - colSums(X)); dimnames(X) <- list(letters[1:3], NULL)
X
round(apply(X, 2, function(x) dmultinom(x, prob = c(1,2,5))), 3)
```

na.action	<i>NA Action</i>
-----------	------------------

Description

Extract information on the NA action used to create an object.

Usage

```
na.action(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	any object whose NA action is given.
...	further arguments special methods could require.

Details

na.action is a generic function, and na.action.default its default method. The latter extracts the "na.action" component of a list if present, otherwise the "na.action" attribute.

When `model.frame` is called, it records any information on NA handling in a "na.action" attribute. Most model-fitting functions return this as a component of their result.

Value

Information from the action which was applied to object if NAs were handled specially, or NULL.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`options("na.action")`, `na.omit`, `na.fail`, also for `na.exclude`, `na.pass`.

Examples

```
na.action(na.omit(c(1, NA)))
```

na.contiguous	<i>Find Longest Contiguous Stretch of non-NAs</i>
---------------	---

Description

Find the longest consecutive stretch of non-missing values in a time series object. (In the event of a tie, the first such stretch.)

Usage

```
na.contiguous(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	a univariate or multivariate time series.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

A time series without missing values. The class of object will be preserved.

See Also

[na.omit](#) and [na.omit.ts](#); [na.fail](#)

Examples

```
na.contiguous(presidents)
```

na.fail	<i>Handle Missing Values in Objects</i>
---------	---

Description

These generic functions are useful for dealing with [NAs](#) in e.g., data frames. [na.fail](#) returns the object if it does not contain any missing values, and signals an error otherwise. [na.omit](#) returns the object with incomplete cases removed. [na.pass](#) returns the object unchanged.

Usage

```
na.fail(object, ...)  
na.omit(object, ...)  
na.exclude(object, ...)  
na.pass(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object an R object, typically a data frame
 ... further arguments special methods could require.

Details

At present these will handle vectors, matrices and data frames comprising vectors and matrices (only).

If `na.omit` removes cases, the row numbers of the cases form the `"na.action"` attribute of the result, of class `"omit"`.

`na.exclude` differs from `na.omit` only in the class of the `"na.action"` attribute of the result, which is `"exclude"`. This gives different behaviour in functions making use of [naresid](#) and [napredict](#): when `na.exclude` is used the residuals and predictions are padded to the correct length by inserting NAs for cases omitted by `na.exclude`.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[na.action](#); [options](#) with argument `na.action` for setting NA actions; and [lm](#) and [glm](#) for functions using these. [na.contiguous](#) as alternative for time series.

Examples

```
DF <- data.frame(x = c(1, 2, 3), y = c(0, 10, NA))
na.omit(DF)
m <- as.matrix(DF)
na.omit(m)
stopifnot(all(na.omit(1:3) == 1:3)) # does not affect objects with no NA's
try(na.fail(DF)) #> Error: missing values in ...

options("na.action")
```

 naprint

Adjust for Missing Values

Description

Use missing value information to report the effects of an `na.action`.

Usage

```
naprint(x, ...)
```

Arguments

`x` An object produced by an `na.action` function.
`...` further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

This is a generic function, and the exact information differs by method. `naprint.omit` reports the number of rows omitted: `naprint.default` reports an empty string.

Value

A character string providing information on missing values, for example the number.

<code>naresid</code>	<i>Adjust for Missing Values</i>
----------------------	----------------------------------

Description

Use missing value information to adjust residuals and predictions.

Usage

```
naresid(omit, x, ...)
napredict(omit, x, ...)
```

Arguments

`omit` an object produced by an [na.action](#) function, typically the "na.action" attribute of the result of [na.omit](#) or [na.exclude](#).
`x` a vector, data frame, or matrix to be adjusted based upon the missing value information.
`...` further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

These are utility functions used to allow [predict](#), [fitted](#) and [residuals](#) methods for modelling functions to compensate for the removal of NAs in the fitting process. They are used by the default, "lm", "glm" and "nls" methods, and by further methods in packages **MASS**, **rpart** and **survival**. Also used for the scores returned by [factanal](#), [prcomp](#) and [princomp](#).

The default methods do nothing. The default method for the `na.exclude` action is to pad the object with NAs in the correct positions to have the same number of rows as the original data frame.

Currently `naresid` and `napredict` are identical, but future methods need not be. `naresid` is used for residuals, and `napredict` for fitted values, predictions and [weights](#).

Value

These return a similar object to `x`.

Note

In the early 2000s, packages **rpart** and **survival5** contained versions of these functions that had an `na.omit` action equivalent to that now used for `na.exclude`.

NegBinomial

*The Negative Binomial Distribution***Description**

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the negative binomial distribution with parameters `size` and `prob`.

Usage

```
dnbinom(x, size, prob, mu, log = FALSE)
pnbinom(q, size, prob, mu, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qnbinom(p, size, prob, mu, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rnbinom(n, size, prob, mu)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	vector of (non-negative integer) quantiles.
<code>q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>n</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(n) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>size</code>	target for number of successful trials, or dispersion parameter (the shape parameter of the gamma mixing distribution). Must be strictly positive, need not be integer.
<code>prob</code>	probability of success in each trial. $0 < \text{prob} \leq 1$.
<code>mu</code>	alternative parametrization via mean: see ‘Details’.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as <code>log(p)</code> .
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The negative binomial distribution with `size = n` and `prob = p` has density

$$p(x) = \frac{\Gamma(x+n)}{\Gamma(n)x!} p^n (1-p)^x$$

for $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n > 0$ and $0 < p \leq 1$.

This represents the number of failures which occur in a sequence of Bernoulli trials before a target number of successes is reached. The mean is $\mu = n(1-p)/p$ and variance $n(1-p)/p^2$.

A negative binomial distribution can also arise as a mixture of Poisson distributions with mean distributed as a gamma distribution (see [pgamma](#)) with scale parameter $(1 - \text{prob})/\text{prob}$ and shape parameter size . (This definition allows non-integer values of size .)

An alternative parametrization (often used in ecology) is by the *mean* μ (see above), and size , the *dispersion parameter*, where $\text{prob} = \text{size}/(\text{size} + \mu)$. The variance is $\mu + \mu^2/\text{size}$ in this parametrization.

If an element of x is not integer, the result of `dnbinom` is zero, with a warning.

The case $\text{size} == 0$ is the distribution concentrated at zero. This is the limiting distribution for size approaching zero, even if μ rather than prob is held constant. Notice though, that the mean of the limit distribution is 0, whatever the value of μ .

The quantile is defined as the smallest value x such that $F(x) \geq p$, where F is the distribution function.

Value

`dnbinom` gives the density, `pnbinom` gives the distribution function, `qnbinom` gives the quantile function, and `rnbinom` generates random deviates.

Invalid size or prob will result in return value `NaN`, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by n for `rnbinom`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Source

`dnbinom` computes via binomial probabilities, using code contributed by Catherine Loader (see [dbinom](#)).

`pnbinom` uses [pbeta](#).

`qnbinom` uses the Cornish–Fisher Expansion to include a skewness correction to a normal approximation, followed by a search.

`rnbinom` uses the derivation as a gamma mixture of Poissons, see

Devroye, L. (1986) *Non-Uniform Random Variate Generation*. Springer-Verlag, New York. Page 480.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for standard distributions, including [dbinom](#) for the binomial, [dpois](#) for the Poisson and [dgeom](#) for the geometric distribution, which is a special case of the negative binomial.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
x <- 0:11
dnbinom(x, size = 1, prob = 1/2) * 2^(1 + x) # == 1
126 / dnbinom(0:8, size = 2, prob = 1/2) #- theoretically integer
```

```
## Cumulative ('p') = Sum of discrete prob.s ('d'); Relative error :
summary(1 - cumsum(dnbinom(x, size = 2, prob = 1/2)) /
        pnbinom(x, size = 2, prob = 1/2))

x <- 0:15
size <- (1:20)/4
persp(x, size, dnb <- outer(x, size, function(x,s) dnbinom(x, s, prob = 0.4)),
      xlab = "x", ylab = "s", zlab = "density", theta = 150)
title(tit <- "negative binomial density(x,s, pr = 0.4) vs. x & s")

image (x, size, log10(dnb), main = paste("log [", tit, "]"))
contour(x, size, log10(dnb), add = TRUE)

## Alternative parametrization
x1 <- rnbinom(500, mu = 4, size = 1)
x2 <- rnbinom(500, mu = 4, size = 10)
x3 <- rnbinom(500, mu = 4, size = 100)
h1 <- hist(x1, breaks = 20, plot = FALSE)
h2 <- hist(x2, breaks = h1$breaks, plot = FALSE)
h3 <- hist(x3, breaks = h1$breaks, plot = FALSE)
barplot(rbind(h1$counts, h2$counts, h3$counts),
        beside = TRUE, col = c("red", "blue", "cyan"),
        names.arg = round(h1$breaks[-length(h1$breaks)]))
```

nextn

Highly Composite Numbers

Description

nextn returns the smallest integer, greater than or equal to n, which can be obtained as a product of powers of the values contained in factors. nextn is intended to be used to find a suitable length to zero-pad the argument of fft to so that the transform is computed quickly. The default value for factors ensures this.

Usage

```
nextn(n, factors = c(2,3,5))
```

Arguments

n	an integer.
factors	a vector of positive integer factors.

See Also

[convolve](#), [fft](#).

Examples

```
nextn(1001) # 1024
table(sapply(599:630, nextn))
```

nlm

*Non-Linear Minimization***Description**

This function carries out a minimization of the function `f` using a Newton-type algorithm. See the references for details.

Usage

```
nlm(f, p, ..., hessian = FALSE, typsize = rep(1, length(p)),
    fscale = 1, print.level = 0, ndigit = 12, gradtol = 1e-6,
    stepmax = max(1000 * sqrt(sum((p/typsize)^2)), 1000),
    steptol = 1e-6, iterlim = 100, check.analyticals = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	the function to be minimized, returning a single numeric value. This should be a function with first argument a vector of the length of <code>p</code> followed by any other arguments specified by the <code>...</code> argument. If the function value has an attribute called <code>gradient</code> or both <code>gradient</code> and <code>hessian</code> attributes, these will be used in the calculation of updated parameter values. Otherwise, numerical derivatives are used. deriv returns a function with suitable <code>gradient</code> attribute and optionally a <code>hessian</code> attribute.
<code>p</code>	starting parameter values for the minimization.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments to be passed to <code>f</code> .
<code>hessian</code>	if <code>TRUE</code> , the hessian of <code>f</code> at the minimum is returned.
<code>typsize</code>	an estimate of the size of each parameter at the minimum.
<code>fscale</code>	an estimate of the size of <code>f</code> at the minimum.
<code>print.level</code>	this argument determines the level of printing which is done during the minimization process. The default value of <code>0</code> means that no printing occurs, a value of <code>1</code> means that initial and final details are printed and a value of <code>2</code> means that full tracing information is printed.
<code>ndigit</code>	the number of significant digits in the function <code>f</code> .
<code>gradtol</code>	a positive scalar giving the tolerance at which the scaled gradient is considered close enough to zero to terminate the algorithm. The scaled gradient is a measure of the relative change in <code>f</code> in each direction <code>p[i]</code> divided by the relative change in <code>p[i]</code> .

<code>stepmax</code>	a positive scalar which gives the maximum allowable scaled step length. <code>stepmax</code> is used to prevent steps which would cause the optimization function to overflow, to prevent the algorithm from leaving the area of interest in parameter space, or to detect divergence in the algorithm. <code>stepmax</code> would be chosen small enough to prevent the first two of these occurrences, but should be larger than any anticipated reasonable step.
<code>steptol</code>	A positive scalar providing the minimum allowable relative step length.
<code>iterlim</code>	a positive integer specifying the maximum number of iterations to be performed before the program is terminated.
<code>check.analyticals</code>	a logical scalar specifying whether the analytic gradients and Hessians, if they are supplied, should be checked against numerical derivatives at the initial parameter values. This can help detect incorrectly formulated gradients or Hessians.

Details

Note that arguments after `...` must be matched exactly.

If a gradient or hessian is supplied but evaluates to the wrong mode or length, it will be ignored if `check.analyticals = TRUE` (the default) with a warning. The hessian is not even checked unless the gradient is present and passes the sanity checks.

From the three methods available in the original source, we always use method “1” which is line search.

The functions supplied should always return finite (including not NA and not NaN) values: for the function value itself non-finite values are replaced by the maximum positive value with a warning.

Value

A list containing the following components:

<code>minimum</code>	the value of the estimated minimum of f .
<code>estimate</code>	the point at which the minimum value of f is obtained.
<code>gradient</code>	the gradient at the estimated minimum of f .
<code>hessian</code>	the hessian at the estimated minimum of f (if requested).
<code>code</code>	an integer indicating why the optimization process terminated. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1: relative gradient is close to zero, current iterate is probably solution. 2: successive iterates within tolerance, current iterate is probably solution. 3: last global step failed to locate a point lower than estimate. Either estimate is an approximate local minimum of the function or <code>steptol</code> is too small. 4: iteration limit exceeded. 5: maximum step size <code>stepmax</code> exceeded five consecutive times. Either the function is unbounded below, becomes asymptotic to a finite value from above in some direction or <code>stepmax</code> is too small.
<code>iterations</code>	the number of iterations performed.

Source

The current code is by Saikat DebRoy and the R Core team, using a C translation of Fortran code by Richard H. Jones.

References

Dennis, J. E. and Schnabel, R. B. (1983) *Numerical Methods for Unconstrained Optimization and Nonlinear Equations*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Schnabel, R. B., Koontz, J. E. and Weiss, B. E. (1985) A modular system of algorithms for unconstrained minimization. *ACM Trans. Math. Software*, **11**, 419–440.

See Also

[optim](#) and [nlminb](#).

[constrOptim](#) for constrained optimization, [optimize](#) for one-dimensional minimization and [uniroot](#) for root finding. [deriv](#) to calculate analytical derivatives.

For nonlinear regression, [nls](#) may be better.

Examples

```
f <- function(x) sum((x-1:length(x))^2)
nlm(f, c(10,10))
nlm(f, c(10,10), print.level = 2)
utils::str(nlm(f, c(5), hessian = TRUE))

f <- function(x, a) sum((x-a)^2)
nlm(f, c(10,10), a = c(3,5))
f <- function(x, a)
{
  res <- sum((x-a)^2)
  attr(res, "gradient") <- 2*(x-a)
  res
}
nlm(f, c(10,10), a = c(3,5))

## more examples, including the use of derivatives.
## Not run: demo(nlm)
```

Description

Unconstrained and box-constrained optimization using PORT routines.

For historical compatibility.

Usage

```
nlminb(start, objective, gradient = NULL, hessian = NULL, ...,
       scale = 1, control = list(), lower = -Inf, upper = Inf)
```

Arguments

start	numeric vector, initial values for the parameters to be optimized.
objective	Function to be minimized. Must return a scalar value. The first argument to objective is the vector of parameters to be optimized, whose initial values are supplied through start. Further arguments (fixed during the course of the optimization) to objective may be specified as well (see ...).
gradient	Optional function that takes the same arguments as objective and evaluates the gradient of objective at its first argument. Must return a vector as long as start.
hessian	Optional function that takes the same arguments as objective and evaluates the hessian of objective at its first argument. Must return a square matrix of order length(start). Only the lower triangle is used.
...	Further arguments to be supplied to objective.
scale	See PORT documentation (or leave alone).
control	A list of control parameters. See below for details.
lower, upper	vectors of lower and upper bounds, replicated to be as long as start. If unspecified, all parameters are assumed to be unconstrained.

Details

Any names of start are passed on to objective and where applicable, gradient and hessian. The parameter vector will be coerced to double.

The PORT documentation is at <http://netlib.bell-labs.com/cm/cs/cstr/153.pdf>.

The parameter vector passed to objective, gradient and hessian had special semantics prior to R 3.1.0 and was shared between calls. The functions should not copy it.

If any of the functions returns NA or NaN the internal code could infinite-loop in R prior to 2.15.2: this is now an error for the gradient and Hessian, and such values for function evaluation are replaced by +Inf with a warning.

Value

A list with components:

par	The best set of parameters found.
objective	The value of objective corresponding to par.
convergence	An integer code. 0 indicates successful convergence.
message	A character string giving any additional information returned by the optimizer, or NULL. For details, see PORT documentation.
iterations	Number of iterations performed.
evaluations	Number of objective function and gradient function evaluations

Control parameters

Possible names in the `control` list and their default values are:

`eval.max` Maximum number of evaluations of the objective function allowed. Defaults to 200.

`iter.max` Maximum number of iterations allowed. Defaults to 150.

`trace` The value of the objective function and the parameters is printed every `trace`'th iteration. Defaults to 0 which indicates no trace information is to be printed.

`abs.tol` Absolute tolerance. Defaults to 0 so the absolute convergence test is not used. If the objective function is known to be non-negative, the previous default of $1e-20$ would be more appropriate.

`rel.tol` Relative tolerance. Defaults to $1e-10$.

`x.tol` X tolerance. Defaults to $1.5e-8$.

`xf.tol` false convergence tolerance. Defaults to $2.2e-14$.

`step.min`, `step.max` Minimum and maximum step size. Both default to 1..

sing.tol singular convergence tolerance; defaults to `rel.tol`.

scale.init ...

diff.g an estimated bound on the relative error in the objective function value.

Author(s)

R port: Douglas Bates and Deepayan Sarkar.

Underlying Fortran code by David M. Gay

Source

<http://netlib.bell-labs.com/netlib/port/>

See Also

`optim` (which is preferred) and `nlm`.

`optimize` for one-dimensional minimization and `constrOptim` for constrained optimization.

Examples

```
x <- rnbino(100, mu = 10, size = 10)
hdev <- function(par)
  -sum(dnbino(x, mu = par[1], size = par[2], log = TRUE))
nlminb(c(9, 12), hdev)
nlminb(c(20, 20), hdev, lower = 0, upper = Inf)
nlminb(c(20, 20), hdev, lower = 0.001, upper = Inf)

## slightly modified from the S-PLUS help page for nlminb
# this example minimizes a sum of squares with known solution y
sumsq <- function( x, y) {sum((x-y)^2)}
y <- rep(1,5)
```



```

x0 <- rnorm(length(y))
nlminb(start = x0, sumsq, y = y)
# now use bounds with a y that has some components outside the bounds
y <- c( 0, 2, 0, -2, 0)
nlminb(start = x0, sumsq, lower = -1, upper = 1, y = y)
# try using the gradient
sumsq.g <- function(x, y) 2*(x-y)
nlminb(start = x0, sumsq, sumsq.g,
        lower = -1, upper = 1, y = y)
# now use the hessian, too
sumsq.h <- function(x, y) diag(2, nrow = length(x))
nlminb(start = x0, sumsq, sumsq.g, sumsq.h,
        lower = -1, upper = 1, y = y)

## Rest lifted from optim help page

fr <- function(x) { ## Rosenbrock Banana function
  x1 <- x[1]
  x2 <- x[2]
  100 * (x2 - x1 * x1)^2 + (1 - x1)^2
}
grr <- function(x) { ## Gradient of 'fr'
  x1 <- x[1]
  x2 <- x[2]
  c(-400 * x1 * (x2 - x1 * x1) - 2 * (1 - x1),
    200 * (x2 - x1 * x1))
}
nlminb(c(-1.2,1), fr)
nlminb(c(-1.2,1), fr, grr)

flb <- function(x)
  { p <- length(x); sum(c(1, rep(4, p-1)) * (x - c(1, x[-p])^2)^2) }
## 25-dimensional box constrained
## par[24] is *not* at boundary
nlminb(rep(3, 25), flb, lower = rep(2, 25), upper = rep(4, 25))
## trying to use a too small tolerance:
r <- nlminb(rep(3, 25), flb, control = list(rel.tol = 1e-16))
stopifnot(grepl("rel.tol", r$message))

```

Description

Determine the nonlinear (weighted) least-squares estimates of the parameters of a nonlinear model.

Usage

```
nls(formula, data, start, control, algorithm,
```

```
trace, subset, weights, na.action, model,
lower, upper, ...)
```

Arguments

formula	a nonlinear model formula including variables and parameters. Will be coerced to a formula if necessary.
data	an optional data frame in which to evaluate the variables in formula and weights. Can also be a list or an environment, but not a matrix.
start	a named list or named numeric vector of starting estimates. When start is missing, a very cheap guess for start is tried (if <code>algorithm != "plinear"</code>).
control	an optional list of control settings. See nls.control for the names of the settable control values and their effect.
algorithm	character string specifying the algorithm to use. The default algorithm is a Gauss-Newton algorithm. Other possible values are "plinear" for the Golub-Pereyra algorithm for partially linear least-squares models and "port" for the 'nl2sol' algorithm from the Port library – see the references. Can be abbreviated.
trace	logical value indicating if a trace of the iteration progress should be printed. Default is FALSE. If TRUE the residual (weighted) sum-of-squares and the parameter values are printed at the conclusion of each iteration. When the "plinear" algorithm is used, the conditional estimates of the linear parameters are printed after the nonlinear parameters. When the "port" algorithm is used the objective function value printed is half the residual (weighted) sum-of-squares.
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used in the fitting process.
weights	an optional numeric vector of (fixed) weights. When present, the objective function is weighted least squares.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is set by the <code>na.action</code> setting of options , and is na.fail if that is unset. The 'factory-fresh' default is na.omit . Value na.exclude can be useful.
model	logical. If true, the model frame is returned as part of the object. Default is FALSE.
lower, upper	vectors of lower and upper bounds, replicated to be as long as start. If unspecified, all parameters are assumed to be unconstrained. Bounds can only be used with the "port" algorithm. They are ignored, with a warning, if given for other algorithms.
...	Additional optional arguments. None are used at present.

Details

An `nls` object is a type of fitted model object. It has methods for the generic functions [anova](#), [coef](#), [confint](#), [deviance](#), [df.residual](#), [fitted](#), [formula](#), [logLik](#), [predict](#), [print](#), [profile](#), [residuals](#), [summary](#), [vcov](#) and [weights](#).

Variables in formula (and weights if not missing) are looked for first in data, then the environment of formula and finally along the search path. Functions in formula are searched for first in the environment of formula and then along the search path.

Arguments `subset` and `na.action` are supported only when all the variables in the formula taken from data are of the same length: other cases give a warning.

Note that the `anova` method does not check that the models are nested: this cannot easily be done automatically, so use with care.

Value

A list of

<code>m</code>	an <code>nlsModel</code> object incorporating the model.
<code>data</code>	the expression that was passed to <code>nls</code> as the data argument. The actual data values are present in the environment of the <code>m</code> component.
<code>call</code>	the matched call with several components, notably <code>algorithm</code> .
<code>na.action</code>	the <code>"na.action"</code> attribute (if any) of the model frame.
<code>dataClasses</code>	the <code>"dataClasses"</code> attribute (if any) of the <code>"terms"</code> attribute of the model frame.
<code>model</code>	if <code>model = TRUE</code> , the model frame.
<code>weights</code>	if <code>weights</code> is supplied, the weights.
<code>convInfo</code>	a list with convergence information.
<code>control</code>	the control list used, see the control argument.
<code>convergence, message</code>	for an <code>algorithm = "port"</code> fit only, a convergence code (0 for convergence) and message. To use these is <i>deprecated</i> , as they are available from <code>convInfo</code> now.

Warning

Do not use nls on artificial "zero-residual" data.

The `nls` function uses a relative-offset convergence criterion that compares the numerical imprecision at the current parameter estimates to the residual sum-of-squares. This performs well on data of the form

$$y = f(x, \theta) + \epsilon$$

(with $\text{var}(\epsilon) > 0$). It fails to indicate convergence on data of the form

$$y = f(x, \theta)$$

because the criterion amounts to comparing two components of the round-off error. If you wish to test `nls` on artificial data please add a noise component, as shown in the example below.

The `algorithm = "port"` code appears unfinished, and does not even check that the starting value is within the bounds. Use with caution, especially where bounds are supplied.

Note

Setting `warnOnly = TRUE` in the control argument (see `nls.control`) returns a non-converged object (since R version 2.5.0) which might be useful for further convergence analysis, *but not for inference*.

Author(s)

Douglas M. Bates and Saikat DebRoy: David M. Gay for the Fortran code used by `algorithm = "port"`.

References

Bates, D. M. and Watts, D. G. (1988) *Nonlinear Regression Analysis and Its Applications*, Wiley

Bates, D. M. and Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Nonlinear models*. Chapter 10 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

<http://www.netlib.org/port/> for the Port library documentation.

See Also

[summary.nls](#), [predict.nls](#), [profile.nls](#).

Self starting models (with ‘automatic initial values’): [selfStart](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

DNase1 <- subset(DNase, Run == 1)

## using a selfStart model
fm1DNase1 <- nls(density ~ SSlogis(log(conc), Asym, xmid, scal), DNase1)
summary(fm1DNase1)
## the coefficients only:
coef(fm1DNase1)
## including their SE, etc:
coef(summary(fm1DNase1))

## using conditional linearity
fm2DNase1 <- nls(density ~ 1/(1 + exp((xmid - log(conc))/scal)),
               data = DNase1,
               start = list(xmid = 0, scal = 1),
               algorithm = "plinear")
summary(fm2DNase1)

## without conditional linearity
fm3DNase1 <- nls(density ~ Asym/(1 + exp((xmid - log(conc))/scal)),
               data = DNase1,
               start = list(Asym = 3, xmid = 0, scal = 1))
summary(fm3DNase1)

## using Port's nl2sol algorithm
fm4DNase1 <- nls(density ~ Asym/(1 + exp((xmid - log(conc))/scal)),
               data = DNase1,
               start = list(Asym = 3, xmid = 0, scal = 1),
               algorithm = "port")
summary(fm4DNase1)
```

```

## weighted nonlinear regression
Treated <- Puromycin[Puromycin$state == "treated", ]
weighted.MM <- function(resp, conc, Vm, K)
{
  ## Purpose: exactly as white book p. 451 -- RHS for nls()
  ## Weighted version of Michaelis-Menten model
  ## -----
  ## Arguments: 'y', 'x' and the two parameters (see book)
  ## -----
  ## Author: Martin Maechler, Date: 23 Mar 2001

  pred <- (Vm * conc)/(K + conc)
  (resp - pred) / sqrt(pred)
}

Pur.wt <- nls( ~ weighted.MM(rate, conc, Vm, K), data = Treated,
              start = list(Vm = 200, K = 0.1))
summary(Pur.wt)

## Passing arguments using a list that can not be coerced to a data.frame
lisTreat <- with(Treated,
                 list(conc1 = conc[1], conc.1 = conc[-1], rate = rate))

weighted.MM1 <- function(resp, conc1, conc.1, Vm, K)
{
  conc <- c(conc1, conc.1)
  pred <- (Vm * conc)/(K + conc)
  (resp - pred) / sqrt(pred)
}
Pur.wt1 <- nls( ~ weighted.MM1(rate, conc1, conc.1, Vm, K),
               data = lisTreat, start = list(Vm = 200, K = 0.1))
stopifnot(all.equal(coef(Pur.wt), coef(Pur.wt1)))

## Chambers and Hastie (1992) Statistical Models in S (p. 537):
## If the value of the right side [of formula] has an attribute called
## 'gradient' this should be a matrix with the number of rows equal
## to the length of the response and one column for each parameter.

weighted.MM.grad <- function(resp, conc1, conc.1, Vm, K)
{
  conc <- c(conc1, conc.1)

  K.conc <- K+conc
  dy.dV <- conc/K.conc
  dy.dK <- -Vm*dy.dV/K.conc
  pred <- Vm*dy.dV
  pred.5 <- sqrt(pred)
  dev <- (resp - pred) / pred.5
  Ddev <- -0.5*(resp+pred)/(pred.5*pred)
  attr(dev, "gradient") <- Ddev * cbind(Vm = dy.dV, K = dy.dK)
  dev
}

```

```

Pur.wt.grad <- nls( ~ weighted.MM.grad(rate, conc1, conc.1, Vm, K),
                    data = lisTreat, start = list(Vm = 200, K = 0.1))

rbind(coef(Pur.wt), coef(Pur.wt1), coef(Pur.wt.grad))

## In this example, there seems no advantage to providing the gradient.
## In other cases, there might be.

## The two examples below show that you can fit a model to
## artificial data with noise but not to artificial data
## without noise.
x <- 1:10
y <- 2*x + 3                                # perfect fit
yeps <- y + rnorm(length(y), sd = 0.01) # added noise
nls(yeps ~ a + b*x, start = list(a = 0.12345, b = 0.54321))
## terminates in an error, because convergence cannot be confirmed:
try(nls(y ~ a + b*x, start = list(a = 0.12345, b = 0.54321)))

## the nls() internal cheap guess for starting values can be sufficient:

x <- -(1:100)/10
y <- 100 + 10 * exp(x / 2) + rnorm(x)/10
nlmod <- nls(y ~ Const + A * exp(B * x))

plot(x,y, main = "nls(*), data, true function and fit, n=100")
curve(100 + 10 * exp(x / 2), col = 4, add = TRUE)
lines(x, predict(nlmod), col = 2)

## The muscle dataset in MASS is from an experiment on muscle
## contraction on 21 animals. The observed variables are Strip
## (identifier of muscle), Conc (Cacl concentration) and Length
## (resulting length of muscle section).
utils::data(muscle, package = "MASS")

## The non linear model considered is
##      Length = alpha + beta*exp(-Conc/theta) + error
## where theta is constant but alpha and beta may vary with Strip.

with(muscle, table(Strip)) # 2, 3 or 4 obs per strip

## We first use the plinear algorithm to fit an overall model,
## ignoring that alpha and beta might vary with Strip.

musc.1 <- nls(Length ~ cbind(1, exp(-Conc/th)), muscle,
              start = list(th = 1), algorithm = "plinear")
summary(musc.1)

## Then we use nls' indexing feature for parameters in non-linear
## models to use the conventional algorithm to fit a model in which

```

```
## alpha and beta vary with Strip. The starting values are provided
## by the previously fitted model.
## Note that with indexed parameters, the starting values must be
## given in a list (with names):
b <- coef(musc.1)
musc.2 <- nls(Length ~ a[Strip] + b[Strip]*exp(-Conc/th), muscle,
              start = list(a = rep(b[2], 21), b = rep(b[3], 21), th = b[1]))
summary(musc.2)
```

nls.control

Control the Iterations in nls

Description

Allow the user to set some characteristics of the nls nonlinear least squares algorithm.

Usage

```
nls.control(maxiter = 50, tol = 1e-05, minFactor = 1/1024,
            printEval = FALSE, warnOnly = FALSE)
```

Arguments

maxiter	A positive integer specifying the maximum number of iterations allowed.
tol	A positive numeric value specifying the tolerance level for the relative offset convergence criterion.
minFactor	A positive numeric value specifying the minimum step-size factor allowed on any step in the iteration. The increment is calculated with a Gauss-Newton algorithm and successively halved until the residual sum of squares has been decreased or until the step-size factor has been reduced below this limit.
printEval	a logical specifying whether the number of evaluations (steps in the gradient direction taken each iteration) is printed.
warnOnly	a logical specifying whether <code>nls()</code> should return instead of signalling an error in the case of termination before convergence. Termination before convergence happens upon completion of <code>maxiter</code> iterations, in the case of a singular gradient, and in the case that the step-size factor is reduced below <code>minFactor</code> .

Value

A list with exactly five components:

```
maxiter
tol
minFactor
printEval
warnOnly
```

with meanings as explained under ‘Arguments’.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates and Saikat DebRoy

References

Bates, D. M. and Watts, D. G. (1988), *Nonlinear Regression Analysis and Its Applications*, Wiley.

See Also

[nls](#)

Examples

```
nls.control(minFactor = 1/2048)
```

NLSstAsymptotic

Fit the Asymptotic Regression Model

Description

Fits the asymptotic regression model, in the form $b_0 + b_1(1 - \exp(-\exp(lrc) * x))$ to the `xy` data. This can be used as a building block in determining starting estimates for more complicated models.

Usage

```
NLSstAsymptotic(xy)
```

Arguments

`xy` a sorted `XyData` object

Value

A numeric value of length 3 with components labelled `b0`, `b1`, and `lrc`. `b0` is the estimated intercept on the y-axis, `b1` is the estimated difference between the asymptote and the y-intercept, and `lrc` is the estimated logarithm of the rate constant.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[SSasyp](#)

Examples

```
Lob.329 <- Loblolly[ Loblolly$Seed == "329", ]
print(NLSstAsymptotic(sortedXyData(expression(age),
                                     expression(height),
                                     Lob.329)), digits = 3)
```

NLSstClosestX	<i>Inverse Interpolation</i>
---------------	------------------------------

Description

Use inverse linear interpolation to approximate the x value at which the function represented by xy is equal to yval.

Usage

```
NLSstClosestX(xy, yval)
```

Arguments

- xy a sortedXyData object
- yval a numeric value on the y scale

Value

A single numeric value on the x scale.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[sortedXyData](#), [NLSstLfAsymptote](#), [NLSstRtAsymptote](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
DNase.2 <- DNase[ DNase$Run == "2", ]
DN.srt <- sortedXyData(expression(log(conc)), expression(density), DNase.2)
NLSstClosestX(DN.srt, 1.0)
```

NLSstLfAsymptote	<i>Horizontal Asymptote on the Left Side</i>
------------------	--

Description

Provide an initial guess at the horizontal asymptote on the left side (i.e., small values of x) of the graph of y versus x from the xy object. Primarily used within initial functions for self-starting nonlinear regression models.

Usage

```
NLSstLfAsymptote(xy)
```

Arguments

xy a sortedXyData object

Value

A single numeric value estimating the horizontal asymptote for small x.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[sortedXyData](#), [NLSstClosestX](#), [NLSstRtAsymptote](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
DNase.2 <- DNase[ DNase$Run == "2", ]
DN.srt <- sortedXyData( expression(log(conc)), expression(density), DNase.2 )
NLSstLfAsymptote( DN.srt )
```

NLSstRtAsymptote	<i>Horizontal Asymptote on the Right Side</i>
------------------	---

Description

Provide an initial guess at the horizontal asymptote on the right side (i.e., large values of x) of the graph of y versus x from the xy object. Primarily used within initial functions for self-starting nonlinear regression models.

Usage

```
NLSstRtAsymptote(xy)
```

Arguments

`xy` a sortedXyData object

Value

A single numeric value estimating the horizontal asymptote for large x .

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[sortedXyData](#), [NLSstClosestX](#), [NLSstRtAsymptote](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
DNase.2 <- DNase[ DNase$Run == "2", ]
DN.srt <- sortedXyData( expression(log(conc)), expression(density), DNase.2 )
NLSstRtAsymptote( DN.srt )
```

nobs

Extract the Number of Observations from a Fit.

Description

Extract the number of ‘observations’ from a model fit. This is principally intended to be used in computing BIC (see [AIC](#)).

Usage

```
nobs(object, ...)

## Default S3 method:
nobs(object, use.fallback = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

`object` A fitted model object.

`use.fallback` logical: should fallback methods be used to try to guess the value?

`...` Further arguments to be passed to methods.

Details

This is a generic function, with an S4 generic in package **stats4**. There are methods in this package for objects of classes "lm", "glm", "nls" and "logLik", as well as a default method (which throws an error, unless use.fallback = TRUE when it looks for weights and residuals components – use with care!).

The main usage is in determining the appropriate penalty for BIC, but nobs is also used by the stepwise fitting methods [step](#), [add1](#) and [drop1](#) as a quick check that different fits have been fitted to the same set of data (and not, say, that further rows have been dropped because of NAs in the new predictors).

For lm, glm and nls fits, observations with zero weight are not included.

Value

A single number, normally an integer. Could be NA.

See Also

[AIC](#).

Normal	<i>The Normal Distribution</i>
--------	--------------------------------

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the normal distribution with mean equal to mean and standard deviation equal to sd.

Usage

```
dnorm(x, mean = 0, sd = 1, log = FALSE)
pnorm(q, mean = 0, sd = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qnorm(p, mean = 0, sd = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rnorm(n, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

Arguments

x, q	vector of quantiles.
p	vector of probabilities.
n	number of observations. If length(n) > 1, the length is taken to be the number required.
mean	vector of means.
sd	vector of standard deviations.
log, log.p	logical; if TRUE, probabilities p are given as log(p).
lower.tail	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$ otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

If mean or sd are not specified they assume the default values of 0 and 1, respectively.

The normal distribution has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

where μ is the mean of the distribution and σ the standard deviation.

Value

dnorm gives the density, pnorm gives the distribution function, qnorm gives the quantile function, and rnorm generates random deviates.

The length of the result is determined by n for rnorm, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

For sd = 0 this gives the limit as sd decreases to 0, a point mass at mu. sd < 0 is an error and returns NaN.

Source

For pnorm, based on

Cody, W. D. (1993) Algorithm 715: SPECFUN – A portable FORTRAN package of special function routines and test drivers. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software* **19**, 22–32.

For qnorm, the code is a C translation of

Wichura, M. J. (1988) Algorithm AS 241: The percentage points of the normal distribution. *Applied Statistics*, **37**, 477–484.

which provides precise results up to about 16 digits.

For rnorm, see [RNG](#) for how to select the algorithm and for references to the supplied methods.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 1, chapter 13. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dlnorm](#) for the Lognormal distribution.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

dnorm(0) == 1/sqrt(2*pi)
dnorm(1) == exp(-1/2)/sqrt(2*pi)
dnorm(1) == 1/sqrt(2*pi*exp(1))

## Using "log = TRUE" for an extended range :
par(mfrow = c(2,1))
plot(function(x) dnorm(x, log = TRUE), -60, 50,
     main = "log { Normal density }")
curve(log(dnorm(x)), add = TRUE, col = "red", lwd = 2)
mtext("dnorm(x, log=TRUE)", adj = 0)
mtext("log(dnorm(x))", col = "red", adj = 1)

plot(function(x) pnorm(x, log.p = TRUE), -50, 10,
     main = "log { Normal Cumulative }")
curve(log(pnorm(x)), add = TRUE, col = "red", lwd = 2)
mtext("pnorm(x, log=TRUE)", adj = 0)
mtext("log(pnorm(x))", col = "red", adj = 1)

## if you want the so-called 'error function'
erf <- function(x) 2 * pnorm(x * sqrt(2)) - 1
## (see Abramowitz and Stegun 29.2.29)
## and the so-called 'complementary error function'
erfc <- function(x) 2 * pnorm(x * sqrt(2), lower = FALSE)
## and the inverses
erfinv <- function (x) qnorm((1 + x)/2)/sqrt(2)
erfcinv <- function (x) qnorm(x/2, lower = FALSE)/sqrt(2)
```

numericDeriv

Evaluate Derivatives Numerically

Description

numericDeriv numerically evaluates the gradient of an expression.

Usage

```
numericDeriv(expr, theta, rho = parent.frame(), dir = 1.0)
```

Arguments

expr	The expression to be differentiated. The value of this expression should be a numeric vector.
theta	A character vector of names of numeric variables used in expr.
rho	An environment containing all the variables needed to evaluate expr.
dir	A numeric vector of directions to use for the finite differences.

Details

This is a front end to the C function `numeric_deriv`, which is described in *Writing R Extensions*.

The numeric variables must be of type real and not integer.

Value

The value of `eval(expr, envir = rho)` plus a matrix attribute called `gradient`. The columns of this matrix are the derivatives of the value with respect to the variables listed in `theta`.

Author(s)

Saikat DebRoy <saikat@stat.wisc.edu>

Examples

```
myenv <- new.env()
assign("mean", 0., envir = myenv)
assign("sd", 1., envir = myenv)
assign("x", seq(-3., 3., len = 31), envir = myenv)
numericDeriv(quote(pnorm(x, mean, sd)), c("mean", "sd"), myenv)
```

offset

Include an Offset in a Model Formula

Description

An offset is a term to be added to a linear predictor, such as in a generalised linear model, with known coefficient 1 rather than an estimated coefficient.

Usage

```
offset(object)
```

Arguments

`object` An offset to be included in a model frame

Details

There can be more than one offset in a model formula, but `-` is not supported for offset terms (and is equivalent to `+`).

Value

The input value.

See Also

[model.offset](#), [model.frame](#).

For examples see [glm](#) and [Insurance](#) in package **MASS**.

oneway.test	<i>Test for Equal Means in a One-Way Layout</i>
-------------	---

Description

Test whether two or more samples from normal distributions have the same means. The variances are not necessarily assumed to be equal.

Usage

```
oneway.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, var.equal = FALSE)
```

Arguments

formula	a formula of the form <code>lhs ~ rhs</code> where <code>lhs</code> gives the sample values and <code>rhs</code> the corresponding groups.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula <code>formula</code> . By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
var.equal	a logical variable indicating whether to treat the variances in the samples as equal. If <code>TRUE</code> , then a simple F test for the equality of means in a one-way analysis of variance is performed. If <code>FALSE</code> , an approximate method of Welch (1951) is used, which generalizes the commonly known 2-sample Welch test to the case of arbitrarily many samples.

Details

If the right-hand side of the formula contains more than one term, their interaction is taken to form the grouping.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value of the test statistic.
parameter	the degrees of freedom of the exact or approximate F distribution of the test statistic.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
method	a character string indicating the test performed.
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

B. L. Welch (1951), On the comparison of several mean values: an alternative approach. *Biometrika*, **38**, 330–336.

See Also

The standard t test ([t.test](#)) as the special case for two samples; the Kruskal-Wallis test [kruskal.test](#) for a nonparametric test for equal location parameters in a one-way layout.

Examples

```
## Not assuming equal variances
oneway.test(extra ~ group, data = sleep)
## Assuming equal variances
oneway.test(extra ~ group, data = sleep, var.equal = TRUE)
## which gives the same result as
anova(lm(extra ~ group, data = sleep))
```

optim

General-purpose Optimization

Description

General-purpose optimization based on Nelder–Mead, quasi-Newton and conjugate-gradient algorithms. It includes an option for box-constrained optimization and simulated annealing.

Usage

```
optim(par, fn, gr = NULL, ...,
      method = c("Nelder-Mead", "BFGS", "CG", "L-BFGS-B", "SANN",
                  "Brent"),
      lower = -Inf, upper = Inf,
      control = list(), hessian = FALSE)

optimHess(par, fn, gr = NULL, ..., control = list())
```

Arguments

<code>par</code>	Initial values for the parameters to be optimized over.
<code>fn</code>	A function to be minimized (or maximized), with first argument the vector of parameters over which minimization is to take place. It should return a scalar result.
<code>gr</code>	A function to return the gradient for the "BFGS", "CG" and "L-BFGS-B" methods. If it is NULL, a finite-difference approximation will be used. For the "SANN" method it specifies a function to generate a new candidate point. If it is NULL a default Gaussian Markov kernel is used.

...	Further arguments to be passed to <code>fn</code> and <code>gr</code> .
<code>method</code>	The method to be used. See ‘Details’. Can be abbreviated.
<code>lower</code> , <code>upper</code>	Bounds on the variables for the “L-BFGS-B” method, or bounds in which to <i>search</i> for method “Brent”.
<code>control</code>	A list of control parameters. See ‘Details’.
<code>hessian</code>	Logical. Should a numerically differentiated Hessian matrix be returned?

Details

Note that arguments after ... must be matched exactly.

By default `optim` performs minimization, but it will maximize if `control$fnscale` is negative. `optimHess` is an auxiliary function to compute the Hessian at a later stage if `hessian = TRUE` was forgotten.

The default method is an implementation of that of Nelder and Mead (1965), that uses only function values and is robust but relatively slow. It will work reasonably well for non-differentiable functions.

Method “BFGS” is a quasi-Newton method (also known as a variable metric algorithm), specifically that published simultaneously in 1970 by Broyden, Fletcher, Goldfarb and Shanno. This uses function values and gradients to build up a picture of the surface to be optimized.

Method “CG” is a conjugate gradients method based on that by Fletcher and Reeves (1964) (but with the option of Polak–Ribiere or Beale–Sorenson updates). Conjugate gradient methods will generally be more fragile than the BFGS method, but as they do not store a matrix they may be successful in much larger optimization problems.

Method “L-BFGS-B” is that of Byrd *et. al.* (1995) which allows *box constraints*, that is each variable can be given a lower and/or upper bound. The initial value must satisfy the constraints. This uses a limited-memory modification of the BFGS quasi-Newton method. If non-trivial bounds are supplied, this method will be selected, with a warning.

Nocedal and Wright (1999) is a comprehensive reference for the previous three methods.

Method “SANN” is by default a variant of simulated annealing given in Belisle (1992). Simulated-annealing belongs to the class of stochastic global optimization methods. It uses only function values but is relatively slow. It will also work for non-differentiable functions. This implementation uses the Metropolis function for the acceptance probability. By default the next candidate point is generated from a Gaussian Markov kernel with scale proportional to the actual temperature. If a function to generate a new candidate point is given, method “SANN” can also be used to solve combinatorial optimization problems. Temperatures are decreased according to the logarithmic cooling schedule as given in Belisle (1992, p. 890); specifically, the temperature is set to $\text{temp} / \log(((t-1) \% \% \text{tmax}) * \text{tmax} + \exp(1)))$, where t is the current iteration step and `temp` and `tmax` are specifiable via `control`, see below. Note that the “SANN” method depends critically on the settings of the control parameters. It is not a general-purpose method but can be very useful in getting to a good value on a very rough surface.

Method “Brent” is for one-dimensional problems only, using `optimize()`. It can be useful in cases where `optim()` is used inside other functions where only `method` can be specified, such as in `mle` from package **stats4**.

Function `fn` can return NA or Inf if the function cannot be evaluated at the supplied value, but the initial value must have a computable finite value of `fn`. (Except for method "L-BFGS-B" where the values should always be finite.)

`optim` can be used recursively, and for a single parameter as well as many. It also accepts a zero-length `par`, and just evaluates the function with that argument.

The control argument is a list that can supply any of the following components:

`trace` Non-negative integer. If positive, tracing information on the progress of the optimization is produced. Higher values may produce more tracing information: for method "L-BFGS-B" there are six levels of tracing. (To understand exactly what these do see the source code: higher levels give more detail.)

`fnscale` An overall scaling to be applied to the value of `fn` and `gr` during optimization. If negative, turns the problem into a maximization problem. Optimization is performed on `fn(par)/fnscale`.

`parscale` A vector of scaling values for the parameters. Optimization is performed on `par/parscale` and these should be comparable in the sense that a unit change in any element produces about a unit change in the scaled value. Not used (nor needed) for `method = "Brent"`.

`ndeps` A vector of step sizes for the finite-difference approximation to the gradient, on `par/parscale` scale. Defaults to $1e-3$.

`maxit` The maximum number of iterations. Defaults to 100 for the derivative-based methods, and 500 for "Nelder-Mead".

For "SANN" `maxit` gives the total number of function evaluations: there is no other stopping criterion. Defaults to 10000.

`abstol` The absolute convergence tolerance. Only useful for non-negative functions, as a tolerance for reaching zero.

`reltol` Relative convergence tolerance. The algorithm stops if it is unable to reduce the value by a factor of `reltol * (abs(val) + reltol)` at a step. Defaults to `sqrt(.Machine$double.eps)`, typically about $1e-8$.

`alpha`, `beta`, `gamma` Scaling parameters for the "Nelder-Mead" method. `alpha` is the reflection factor (default 1.0), `beta` the contraction factor (0.5) and `gamma` the expansion factor (2.0).

`REPORT` The frequency of reports for the "BFGS", "L-BFGS-B" and "SANN" methods if `control$trace` is positive. Defaults to every 10 iterations for "BFGS" and "L-BFGS-B", or every 100 temperatures for "SANN".

`type` for the conjugate-gradients method. Takes value 1 for the Fletcher-Reeves update, 2 for Polak-Ribiere and 3 for Beale-Sorenson.

`lmm` is an integer giving the number of BFGS updates retained in the "L-BFGS-B" method, It defaults to 5.

`factr` controls the convergence of the "L-BFGS-B" method. Convergence occurs when the reduction in the objective is within this factor of the machine tolerance. Default is $1e7$, that is a tolerance of about $1e-8$.

`pgtol` helps control the convergence of the "L-BFGS-B" method. It is a tolerance on the projected gradient in the current search direction. This defaults to zero, when the check is suppressed.

`temp` controls the "SANN" method. It is the starting temperature for the cooling schedule. Defaults to 10.

`tmax` is the number of function evaluations at each temperature for the "SANN" method. Defaults to 10.

Any names given to `par` will be copied to the vectors passed to `fn` and `gr`. Note that no other attributes of `par` are copied over.

The parameter vector passed to `fn` has special semantics and may be shared between calls: the function should not change or copy it.

Value

For `optim`, a list with components:

<code>par</code>	The best set of parameters found.
<code>value</code>	The value of <code>fn</code> corresponding to <code>par</code> .
<code>counts</code>	A two-element integer vector giving the number of calls to <code>fn</code> and <code>gr</code> respectively. This excludes those calls needed to compute the Hessian, if requested, and any calls to <code>fn</code> to compute a finite-difference approximation to the gradient.
<code>convergence</code>	An integer code. 0 indicates successful completion (which is always the case for "SANN" and "Brent"). Possible error codes are <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 indicates that the iteration limit <code>maxit</code> had been reached. 10 indicates degeneracy of the Nelder–Mead simplex. 51 indicates a warning from the "L-BFGS-B" method; see component message for further details. 52 indicates an error from the "L-BFGS-B" method; see component message for further details.
<code>message</code>	A character string giving any additional information returned by the optimizer, or NULL.
<code>hessian</code>	Only if argument <code>hessian</code> is true. A symmetric matrix giving an estimate of the Hessian at the solution found. Note that this is the Hessian of the unconstrained problem even if the box constraints are active.

For `optimHess`, the description of the `hessian` component applies.

Note

`optim` will work with one-dimensional `pars`, but the default method does not work well (and will warn). Method "Brent" uses [optimize](#) and needs bounds to be available; "BFGS" often works well enough if not.

Source

The code for methods "Nelder–Mead", "BFGS" and "CG" was based originally on Pascal code in Nash (1990) that was translated by p2c and then hand-optimized. Dr Nash has agreed that the code can be made freely available.

The code for method "L-BFGS-B" is based on Fortran code by Zhu, Byrd, Lu-Chen and Nocedal obtained from Netlib (file 'opt/lbfgs_bcm.shar': another version is in 'toms/778').

The code for method "SANN" was contributed by A. Trapletti.

References

- Belisle, C. J. P. (1992) Convergence theorems for a class of simulated annealing algorithms on R^d . *J. Applied Probability*, **29**, 885–895.
- Byrd, R. H., Lu, P., Nocedal, J. and Zhu, C. (1995) A limited memory algorithm for bound constrained optimization. *SIAM J. Scientific Computing*, **16**, 1190–1208.
- Fletcher, R. and Reeves, C. M. (1964) Function minimization by conjugate gradients. *Computer Journal* **7**, 148–154.
- Nash, J. C. (1990) *Compact Numerical Methods for Computers. Linear Algebra and Function Minimisation*. Adam Hilger.
- Nelder, J. A. and Mead, R. (1965) A simplex algorithm for function minimization. *Computer Journal* **7**, 308–313.
- Nocedal, J. and Wright, S. J. (1999) *Numerical Optimization*. Springer.

See Also

[nlm](#), [nlminb](#).

[optimize](#) for one-dimensional minimization and [constrOptim](#) for constrained optimization.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

fr <- function(x) { ## Rosenbrock Banana function
  x1 <- x[1]
  x2 <- x[2]
  100 * (x2 - x1 * x1)^2 + (1 - x1)^2
}
grr <- function(x) { ## Gradient of 'fr'
  x1 <- x[1]
  x2 <- x[2]
  c(-400 * x1 * (x2 - x1 * x1) - 2 * (1 - x1),
    200 * (x2 - x1 * x1))
}
optim(c(-1.2,1), fr)
(res <- optim(c(-1.2,1), fr, grr, method = "BFGS"))
optimHess(res$par, fr, grr)
optim(c(-1.2,1), fr, NULL, method = "BFGS", hessian = TRUE)
## These do not converge in the default number of steps
optim(c(-1.2,1), fr, grr, method = "CG")
optim(c(-1.2,1), fr, grr, method = "CG", control = list(type = 2))
optim(c(-1.2,1), fr, grr, method = "L-BFGS-B")

flb <- function(x)
  { p <- length(x); sum(c(1, rep(4, p-1)) * (x - c(1, x[-p]))^2)^2 }
## 25-dimensional box constrained
optim(rep(3, 25), flb, NULL, method = "L-BFGS-B",
      lower = rep(2, 25), upper = rep(4, 25)) # par[24] is *not* at boundary
```

```

## "wild" function , global minimum at about -15.81515
fw <- function (x)
  10*sin(0.3*x)*sin(1.3*x^2) + 0.00001*x^4 + 0.2*x+80
plot(fw, -50, 50, n = 1000, main = "optim() minimising 'wild function'")

res <- optim(50, fw, method = "SANN",
  control = list(maxit = 20000, temp = 20, parscale = 20))
res
## Now improve locally {typically only by a small bit}:
(r2 <- optim(res$par, fw, method = "BFGS"))
points(r2$par, r2$value, pch = 8, col = "red", cex = 2)

## Combinatorial optimization: Traveling salesman problem
library(stats) # normally loaded

eurodistmat <- as.matrix(eurodist)

distance <- function(sq) { # Target function
  sq2 <- embed(sq, 2)
  sum(eurodistmat[cbind(sq2[,2], sq2[,1])])
}

genseq <- function(sq) { # Generate new candidate sequence
  idx <- seq(2, NROW(eurodistmat)-1)
  changepoints <- sample(idx, size = 2, replace = FALSE)
  tmp <- sq[changepoints[1]]
  sq[changepoints[1]] <- sq[changepoints[2]]
  sq[changepoints[2]] <- tmp
  sq
}

sq <- c(1:nrow(eurodistmat), 1) # Initial sequence: alphabetic
distance(sq)
# rotate for conventional orientation
loc <- -cmdscale(eurodist, add = TRUE)$points
x <- loc[,1]; y <- loc[,2]
s <- seq_len(nrow(eurodistmat))
tspinit <- loc[sq,]

plot(x, y, type = "n", asp = 1, xlab = "", ylab = "",
  main = "initial solution of traveling salesman problem", axes = FALSE)
arrows(tspinit[s,1], tspinit[s,2], tspinit[s+1,1], tspinit[s+1,2],
  angle = 10, col = "green")
text(x, y, labels(eurodist), cex = 0.8)

set.seed(123) # chosen to get a good soln relatively quickly
res <- optim(sq, distance, genseq, method = "SANN",
  control = list(maxit = 30000, temp = 2000, trace = TRUE,
    REPORT = 500))
res # Near optimum distance around 12842

tspres <- loc[res$par,]
plot(x, y, type = "n", asp = 1, xlab = "", ylab = "",

```

```

    main = "optim() 'solving' traveling salesman problem", axes = FALSE)
arrows(tspres[s,1], tspres[s,2], tspres[s+1,1], tspres[s+1,2],
      angle = 10, col = "red")
text(x, y, labels(eurodist), cex = 0.8)

```

optimize

*One Dimensional Optimization***Description**

The function `optimize` searches the interval from `lower` to `upper` for a minimum or maximum of the function `f` with respect to its first argument.

`optimise` is an alias for `optimize`.

Usage

```

optimize(f = , interval = , ..., lower = min(interval),
         upper = max(interval), maximum = FALSE,
         tol = .Machine$double.eps^0.25)
optimise(f = , interval = , ..., lower = min(interval),
        upper = max(interval), maximum = FALSE,
        tol = .Machine$double.eps^0.25)

```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	the function to be optimized. The function is either minimized or maximized over its first argument depending on the value of <code>maximum</code> .
<code>interval</code>	a vector containing the end-points of the interval to be searched for the minimum.
<code>...</code>	additional named or unnamed arguments to be passed to <code>f</code> .
<code>lower</code>	the lower end point of the interval to be searched.
<code>upper</code>	the upper end point of the interval to be searched.
<code>maximum</code>	logical. Should we maximize or minimize (the default)?
<code>tol</code>	the desired accuracy.

Details

Note that arguments after `...` must be matched exactly.

The method used is a combination of golden section search and successive parabolic interpolation, and was designed for use with continuous functions. Convergence is never much slower than that for a Fibonacci search. If `f` has a continuous second derivative which is positive at the minimum (which is not at `lower` or `upper`), then convergence is superlinear, and usually of the order of about 1.324.

The function `f` is never evaluated at two points closer together than $\epsilon|x_0| + (tol/3)$, where ϵ is approximately `sqrt(.Machine$double.eps)` and x_0 is the final abscissa `optimize()`\$minimum.

If f is a unimodal function and the computed values of f are always unimodal when separated by at least $\epsilon |x| + (tol/3)$, then x_0 approximates the abscissa of the global minimum of f on the interval $lower, upper$ with an error less than $\epsilon |x_0| + tol$.

If f is not unimodal, then `optimize()` may approximate a local, but perhaps non-global, minimum to the same accuracy.

The first evaluation of f is always at $x_1 = a + (1 - \phi)(b - a)$ where $(a, b) = (lower, upper)$ and $\phi = (\sqrt{5} - 1)/2 = 0.61803..$ is the golden section ratio. Almost always, the second evaluation is at $x_2 = a + \phi(b - a)$. Note that a local minimum inside $[x_1, x_2]$ will be found as solution, even when f is constant in there, see the last example.

f will be called as $f(x, \dots)$ for a numeric value of x .

The argument passed to f has special semantics and used to be shared between calls. The function should not copy it.

Value

A list with components `minimum` (or `maximum`) and `objective` which give the location of the minimum (or maximum) and the value of the function at that point.

Source

A C translation of Fortran code <http://www.netlib.org/fmm/fmin.f> (author(s) unstated) based on the Algol 60 procedure `localmin` given in the reference.

References

Brent, R. (1973) *Algorithms for Minimization without Derivatives*. Englewood Cliffs N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

See Also

[nlm](#), [uniroot](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

f <- function(x, a) (x - a)^2
xmin <- optimize(f, c(0, 1), tol = 0.0001, a = 1/3)
xmin

## See where the function is evaluated:
optimize(function(x) x^2*(print(x)-1), lower = 0, upper = 10)

## "wrong" solution with unlucky interval and piecewise constant f():
f <- function(x) ifelse(x > -1, ifelse(x < 4, exp(-1/abs(x - 1)), 10), 10)
fp <- function(x) { print(x); f(x) }

plot(f, -2,5, ylim = 0:1, col = 2)
optimize(fp, c(-4, 20)) # doesn't see the minimum
optimize(fp, c(-7, 20)) # ok
```

`order.dendrogram`*Ordering or Labels of the Leaves in a Dendrogram*

Description

These functions return the order (index) or the "label" attribute for the leaves in a dendrogram. These indices can then be used to access the appropriate components of any additional data.

Usage

```
order.dendrogram(x)

## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
labels(object, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code> , <code>object</code>	a dendrogram (see as.dendrogram).
<code>...</code>	additional arguments

Details

The indices or labels for the leaves in left to right order are retrieved.

Value

A vector with length equal to the number of leaves in the dendrogram is returned. From `r <- order.dendrogram()`, each element is the index into the original data (from which the dendrogram was computed).

Author(s)

R. Gentleman (`order.dendrogram`) and Martin Maechler (`labels.dendrogram`).

See Also

[reorder](#), [dendrogram](#).

Examples

```
set.seed(123)
x <- rnorm(10)
hc <- hclust(dist(x))
hc$order
dd <- as.dendrogram(hc)
order.dendrogram(dd) ## the same :
stopifnot(hc$order == order.dendrogram(dd))
```

```
d2 <- as.dendrogram(hclust(dist(USArrests)))
labels(d2) ## in this case the same as
stopifnot(identical(labels(d2),
  rownames(USArrests)[order.dendrogram(d2)]))
```

p.adjust

*Adjust P-values for Multiple Comparisons***Description**

Given a set of p-values, returns p-values adjusted using one of several methods.

Usage

```
p.adjust(p, method = p.adjust.methods, n = length(p))

p.adjust.methods
# c("holm", "hochberg", "hommel", "bonferroni", "BH", "BY",
#   "fdr", "none")
```

Arguments

p	numeric vector of p-values (possibly with NAs). Any other R is coerced by as.numeric .
method	correction method. Can be abbreviated.
n	number of comparisons, must be at least <code>length(p)</code> ; only set this (to non-default) when you know what you are doing!

Details

The adjustment methods include the Bonferroni correction ("bonferroni") in which the p-values are multiplied by the number of comparisons. Less conservative corrections are also included by Holm (1979) ("holm"), Hochberg (1988) ("hochberg"), Hommel (1988) ("hommel"), Benjamini & Hochberg (1995) ("BH" or its alias "fdr"), and Benjamini & Yekutieli (2001) ("BY"), respectively. A pass-through option ("none") is also included. The set of methods are contained in the `p.adjust.methods` vector for the benefit of methods that need to have the method as an option and pass it on to `p.adjust`.

The first four methods are designed to give strong control of the family-wise error rate. There seems no reason to use the unmodified Bonferroni correction because it is dominated by Holm's method, which is also valid under arbitrary assumptions.

Hochberg's and Hommel's methods are valid when the hypothesis tests are independent or when they are non-negatively associated (Sarkar, 1998; Sarkar and Chang, 1997). Hommel's method is more powerful than Hochberg's, but the difference is usually small and the Hochberg p-values are faster to compute.

The "BH" (aka "fdr") and "BY" method of Benjamini, Hochberg, and Yekutieli control the false discovery rate, the expected proportion of false discoveries amongst the rejected hypotheses. The

false discovery rate is a less stringent condition than the family-wise error rate, so these methods are more powerful than the others.

Note that you can set `n` larger than `length(p)` which means the unobserved p-values are assumed to be greater than all the observed p for "bonferroni" and "holm" methods and equal to 1 for the other methods.

Value

A numeric vector of corrected p-values (of the same length as `p`, with names copied from `p`).

References

- Benjamini, Y., and Hochberg, Y. (1995). Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B* **57**, 289–300.
- Benjamini, Y., and Yekutieli, D. (2001). The control of the false discovery rate in multiple testing under dependency. *Annals of Statistics* **29**, 1165–1188.
- Holm, S. (1979). A simple sequentially rejective multiple test procedure. *Scandinavian Journal of Statistics* **6**, 65–70.
- Hommel, G. (1988). A stagewise rejective multiple test procedure based on a modified Bonferroni test. *Biometrika* **75**, 383–386.
- Hochberg, Y. (1988). A sharper Bonferroni procedure for multiple tests of significance. *Biometrika* **75**, 800–803.
- Shaffer, J. P. (1995). Multiple hypothesis testing. *Annual Review of Psychology* **46**, 561–576. (An excellent review of the area.)
- Sarkar, S. (1998). Some probability inequalities for ordered MTP2 random variables: a proof of Simes conjecture. *Annals of Statistics* **26**, 494–504.
- Sarkar, S., and Chang, C. K. (1997). Simes' method for multiple hypothesis testing with positively dependent test statistics. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* **92**, 1601–1608.
- Wright, S. P. (1992). Adjusted P-values for simultaneous inference. *Biometrics* **48**, 1005–1013. (Explains the adjusted P-value approach.)

See Also

`pairwise.*` functions such as [pairwise.t.test](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

set.seed(123)
x <- rnorm(50, mean = c(rep(0, 25), rep(3, 25)))
p <- 2*pnorm(sort(-abs(x)))

round(p, 3)
round(p.adjust(p), 3)
round(p.adjust(p, "BH"), 3)
```

```
## or all of them at once (dropping the "fdr" alias):
p.adjust.M <- p.adjust.methods[p.adjust.methods != "fdr"]
p.adj      <- sapply(p.adjust.M, function(meth) p.adjust(p, meth))
p.adj.60 <- sapply(p.adjust.M, function(meth) p.adjust(p, meth, n = 60))
stopifnot(identical(p.adj[, "none"], p), p.adj <= p.adj.60)
round(p.adj, 3)
## or a bit nicer:
noquote(apply(p.adj, 2, format.pval, digits = 3))

## and a graphic:
matplot(p, p.adj, ylab="p.adjust(p, meth)", type = "l", asp = 1, lty = 1:6,
        main = "P-value adjustments")
legend(0.7, 0.6, p.adjust.M, col = 1:6, lty = 1:6)

## Can work with NA's:
pN <- p; iN <- c(46, 47); pN[iN] <- NA
pN.a <- sapply(p.adjust.M, function(meth) p.adjust(pN, meth))
## The smallest 20 P-values all affected by the NA's :
round((pN.a / p.adj)[1:20, ], 4)
```

pairwise.prop.test	<i>Pairwise comparisons for proportions</i>
--------------------	---

Description

Calculate pairwise comparisons between pairs of proportions with correction for multiple testing

Usage

```
pairwise.prop.test(x, n, p.adjust.method = p.adjust.methods, ...)
```

Arguments

x	Vector of counts of successes or a matrix with 2 columns giving the counts of successes and failures, respectively.
n	Vector of counts of trials; ignored if x is a matrix.
p.adjust.method	Method for adjusting p values (see p.adjust). Can be abbreviated.
...	Additional arguments to pass to prop.test

Value

Object of class "pairwise.htest"

See Also

[prop.test](#), [p.adjust](#)

Examples

```
smokers <- c( 83, 90, 129, 70 )
patients <- c( 86, 93, 136, 82 )
pairwise.prop.test(smokers, patients)
```

<code>pairwise.t.test</code>	<i>Pairwise t tests</i>
------------------------------	-------------------------

Description

Calculate pairwise comparisons between group levels with corrections for multiple testing

Usage

```
pairwise.t.test(x, g, p.adjust.method = p.adjust.methods,
               pool.sd = !paired, paired = FALSE,
               alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
               ...)
```

Arguments

- `x` response vector.
- `g` grouping vector or factor.
- `p.adjust.method` Method for adjusting p values (see [p.adjust](#)).
- `pool.sd` switch to allow/disallow the use of a pooled SD
- `paired` a logical indicating whether you want paired t-tests.
- `alternative` a character string specifying the alternative hypothesis, must be one of "two.sided" (default), "greater" or "less". Can be abbreviated.
- `...` additional arguments to pass to `t.test`.

Details

The `pool.sd` switch calculates a common SD for all groups and uses that for all comparisons (this can be useful if some groups are small). This method does not actually call `t.test`, so extra arguments are ignored. Pooling does not generalize to paired tests so `pool.sd` and `paired` cannot both be `TRUE`.

Only the lower triangle of the matrix of possible comparisons is being calculated, so setting `alternative` to anything other than "two.sided" requires that the levels of `g` are ordered sensibly.

Value

Object of class "pairwise.htest"

See Also[t.test](#), [p.adjust](#)**Examples**

```
attach(airquality)
Month <- factor(Month, labels = month.abb[5:9])
pairwise.t.test(Ozone, Month)
pairwise.t.test(Ozone, Month, p.adj = "bonf")
pairwise.t.test(Ozone, Month, pool.sd = FALSE)
detach()
```

pairwise.table	<i>Tabulate p values for pairwise comparisons</i>
----------------	---

Description

Creates table of p values for pairwise comparisons with corrections for multiple testing.

Usage

```
pairwise.table(compare.levels, level.names, p.adjust.method)
```

Arguments

`compare.levels` Function to compute (raw) p value given indices i and j
`level.names` Names of the group levels
`p.adjust.method` Method for multiple testing adjustment. Can be abbreviated.

Details

Functions that do multiple group comparisons create separate `compare.levels` functions (assumed to be symmetrical in i and j) and passes them to this function.

Value

Table of p values in lower triangular form.

See Also[pairwise.t.test](#)

pairwise.wilcox.test *Pairwise Wilcoxon Rank Sum Tests*

Description

Calculate pairwise comparisons between group levels with corrections for multiple testing.

Usage

```
pairwise.wilcox.test(x, g, p.adjust.method = p.adjust.methods,  
                    paired = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

x	response vector.
g	grouping vector or factor.
p.adjust.method	method for adjusting p values (see p.adjust). Can be abbreviated.
paired	a logical indicating whether you want a paired test.
...	additional arguments to pass to wilcox.test .

Details

Extra arguments that are passed on to `wilcox.test` may or may not be sensible in this context. In particular, only the lower triangle of the matrix of possible comparisons is being calculated, so setting alternative to anything other than "two.sided" requires that the levels of `g` are ordered sensibly.

Value

Object of class "pairwise.htest"

See Also

[wilcox.test](#), [p.adjust](#)

Examples

```
attach(airquality)  
Month <- factor(Month, labels = month.abb[5:9])  
## These give warnings because of ties :  
pairwise.wilcox.test(Ozone, Month)  
pairwise.wilcox.test(Ozone, Month, p.adj = "bonf")  
detach()
```

Description

Plot method for objects of class "acf".

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'acf'
plot(x, ci = 0.95, type = "h", xlab = "Lag", ylab = NULL,
     ylim = NULL, main = NULL,
     ci.col = "blue", ci.type = c("white", "ma"),
     max.mfrow = 6, ask = Npgs > 1 && dev.interactive(),
     mar = if(nser > 2) c(3,2,2,0.8) else par("mar"),
     oma = if(nser > 2) c(1,1.2,1,1) else par("oma"),
     mgp = if(nser > 2) c(1.5,0.6,0) else par("mgp"),
     xpd = par("xpd"),
     cex.main = if(nser > 2) 1 else par("cex.main"),
     verbose = getOption("verbose"),
     ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object of class "acf".
<code>ci</code>	coverage probability for confidence interval. Plotting of the confidence interval is suppressed if <code>ci</code> is zero or negative.
<code>type</code>	the type of plot to be drawn, default to histogram like vertical lines.
<code>xlab</code>	the x label of the plot.
<code>ylab</code>	the y label of the plot.
<code>ylim</code>	numeric of length 2 giving the y limits for the plot.
<code>main</code>	overall title for the plot.
<code>ci.col</code>	colour to plot the confidence interval lines.
<code>ci.type</code>	should the confidence limits assume a white noise input or for lag k an $MA(k-1)$ input? Can be abbreviated.
<code>max.mfrow</code>	positive integer; for multivariate <code>x</code> indicating how many rows and columns of plots should be put on one page, using <code>par(mfrow = c(m,m))</code> .
<code>ask</code>	logical; if TRUE, the user is asked before a new page is started.
<code>mar, oma, mgp, xpd, cex.main</code>	graphics parameters as in <code>par(*)</code> , by default adjusted to use smaller than default margins for multivariate <code>x</code> only.
<code>verbose</code>	logical. Should R report extra information on progress?
<code>...</code>	graphics parameters to be passed to the plotting routines.

Note

The confidence interval plotted in `plot.acf` is based on an *uncorrelated* series and should be treated with appropriate caution. Using `ci.type = "ma"` may be less potentially misleading.

See Also

[acf](#) which calls `plot.acf` by default.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

z4 <- ts(matrix(rnorm(400), 100, 4), start = c(1961, 1), frequency = 12)
z7 <- ts(matrix(rnorm(700), 100, 7), start = c(1961, 1), frequency = 12)
acf(z4)
acf(z7, max.mfrow = 7) # squeeze onto 1 page
acf(z7) # multi-page
```

plot.density

Plot Method for Kernel Density Estimation

Description

The plot method for density objects.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'density'
plot(x, main = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = "Density", type = "l",
     zero.line = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

```
x          a "density" object.
main, xlab, ylab, type plotting parameters with useful defaults.
...        further plotting parameters.
zero.line   logical; if TRUE, add a base line at  $y = 0$ 
```

Value

None.

See Also

[density](#).

plot.HoltWinters	<i>Plot function for HoltWinters objects</i>
------------------	--

Description

Produces a chart of the original time series along with the fitted values. Optionally, predicted values (and their confidence bounds) can also be plotted.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'HoltWinters'
plot(x, predicted.values = NA, intervals = TRUE,
      separator = TRUE, col = 1, col.predicted = 2,
      col.intervals = 4, col.separator = 1, lty = 1,
      lty.predicted = 1, lty.intervals = 1, lty.separator = 3,
      ylab = "Observed / Fitted",
      main = "Holt-Winters filtering",
      ylim = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

x	Object of class "HoltWinters"
predicted.values	Predicted values as returned by predict.HoltWinters
intervals	If TRUE, the prediction intervals are plotted (default).
separator	If TRUE, a separating line between fitted and predicted values is plotted (default).
col, lty	Color/line type of original data (default: black solid).
col.predicted, lty.predicted	Color/line type of fitted and predicted values (default: red solid).
col.intervals, lty.intervals	Color/line type of prediction intervals (default: blue solid).
col.separator, lty.separator	Color/line type of observed/predicted values separator (default: black dashed).
ylab	Label of the y-axis.
main	Main title.
ylim	Limits of the y-axis. If NULL, the range is chosen such that the plot contains the original series, the fitted values, and the predicted values if any.
...	Other graphics parameters.

Author(s)

David Meyer <David.Meyer@wu.ac.at>

References

C. C. Holt (1957) Forecasting trends and seasonals by exponentially weighted moving averages, *ONR Research Memorandum, Carnegie Institute of Technology* **52**.

P. R. Winters (1960) Forecasting sales by exponentially weighted moving averages, *Management Science* **6**, 324–342.

See Also

[HoltWinters](#), [predict.HoltWinters](#)

plot.isoreg	<i>Plot Method for isoreg Objects</i>
-------------	---------------------------------------

Description

The [plot](#) and [lines](#) method for R objects of class [isoreg](#).

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'isoreg'
plot(x, plot.type = c("single", "row.wise", "col.wise"),
     main = paste("Isotonic regression", deparse(x$call)),
     main2 = "Cumulative Data and Convex Minorant",
     xlab = "x0", ylab = "x$y",
     par.fit = list(col = "red", cex = 1.5, pch = 13, lwd = 1.5),
     mar = if (both) 0.1 + c(3.5, 2.5, 1, 1) else par("mar"),
     mgp = if (both) c(1.6, 0.7, 0) else par("mgp"),
     grid = length(x$x) < 12, ...)

## S3 method for class 'isoreg'
lines(x, col = "red", lwd = 1.5,
     do.points = FALSE, cex = 1.5, pch = 13, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an isoreg object.
<code>plot.type</code>	character indicating which type of plot is desired. The first (default) only draws the data and the fit, where the others add a plot of the cumulative data and fit. Can be abbreviated.
<code>main</code>	main title of plot, see title .
<code>main2</code>	title for second (cumulative) plot.
<code>xlab, ylab</code>	x- and y- axis annotation.
<code>par.fit</code>	a list of arguments (for points and lines) for drawing the fit.
<code>mar, mgp</code>	graphical parameters, see par , mainly for the case of two plots.

grid	logical indicating if grid lines should be drawn. If true, <code>grid()</code> is used for the first plot, where as vertical lines are drawn at ‘touching’ points for the cumulative plot.
do.points	for <code>lines()</code> : logical indicating if the step points should be drawn as well (and as they are drawn in <code>plot()</code>).
col, lwd, cex, pch	graphical arguments for <code>lines()</code> , where cex and pch are only used when do.points is TRUE.
...	further arguments passed to and from methods.

See Also

[isoreg](#) for computation of isoreg objects.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

utils::example(isoreg) # for the examples there

plot(y3, main = "simple plot(.) + lines(<isoreg>")
lines(ir3)

## 'same' plot as above, "proving" that only ranks of 'x' are important
plot(isoreg(2^(1:9), c(1,0,4,3,3,5,4,2,0)), plot.type = "row", log = "x")

plot(ir3, plot.type = "row", ylab = "y3")
plot(isoreg(y3 - 4), plot.t="r", ylab = "y3 - 4")
plot(ir4, plot.type = "ro", ylab = "y4", xlab = "x = 1:n")

## experiment a bit with these (C-c C-j):
plot(isoreg(sample(9), y3), plot.type = "row")
plot(isoreg(sample(9), y3), plot.type = "col.wise")

plot(ir <- isoreg(sample(10), sample(10, replace = TRUE)),
      plot.type = "r")
```

Description

Six plots (selectable by which) are currently available: a plot of residuals against fitted values, a Scale-Location plot of $\sqrt{|residuals|}$ against fitted values, a Normal Q-Q plot, a plot of Cook’s distances versus row labels, a plot of residuals against leverages, and a plot of Cook’s distances against leverage/(1-leverage). By default, the first three and 5 are provided.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'lm'
plot(x, which = c(1:3, 5),
     caption = list("Residuals vs Fitted", "Normal Q-Q",
                    "Scale-Location", "Cook's distance",
                    "Residuals vs Leverage",
                    expression("Cook's dist vs Leverage " * h[ii] / (1 - h[ii]))),
     panel = if(add.smooth) panel.smooth else points,
     sub.caption = NULL, main = "",
     ask = prod(par("mfcol")) < length(which) && dev.interactive(),
     ...,
     id.n = 3, labels.id = names(residuals(x)), cex.id = 0.75,
     qqline = TRUE, cook.levels = c(0.5, 1.0),
     add.smooth = getOption("add.smooth"), label.pos = c(4,2),
     cex.caption = 1, cex.oma.main = 1.25)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	lm object, typically result of <code>lm</code> or <code>glm</code> .
<code>which</code>	if a subset of the plots is required, specify a subset of the numbers 1:6.
<code>caption</code>	captions to appear above the plots; character vector or list of valid graphics annotations, see as.graphicsAnnot , of length 6, the j-th entry corresponding to <code>which[j]</code> . Can be set to "" or NA to suppress all captions.
<code>panel</code>	panel function. The useful alternative to points , panel.smooth can be chosen by <code>add.smooth = TRUE</code> .
<code>sub.caption</code>	common title—above the figures if there are more than one; used as <code>sub</code> (s.title) otherwise. If NULL, as by default, a possible abbreviated version of <code>deparse(x\$call)</code> is used.
<code>main</code>	title to each plot—in addition to caption.
<code>ask</code>	logical; if TRUE, the user is <i>asked</i> before each plot, see par (<code>ask=.</code>).
<code>...</code>	other parameters to be passed through to plotting functions.
<code>id.n</code>	number of points to be labelled in each plot, starting with the most extreme.
<code>labels.id</code>	vector of labels, from which the labels for extreme points will be chosen. NULL uses observation numbers.
<code>cex.id</code>	magnification of point labels.
<code>qqline</code>	logical indicating if a qqline () should be added to the normal Q-Q plot.
<code>cook.levels</code>	levels of Cook's distance at which to draw contours.
<code>add.smooth</code>	logical indicating if a smoother should be added to most plots; see also <code>panel</code> above.
<code>label.pos</code>	positioning of labels, for the left half and right half of the graph respectively, for plots 1-3.
<code>cex.caption</code>	controls the size of caption.
<code>cex.oma.main</code>	controls the size of the <code>sub.caption</code> only if that is <i>above</i> the figures when there is more than one.

Details

`sub.caption`—by default the function call—is shown as a subtitle (under the x-axis title) on each plot when plots are on separate pages, or as a subtitle in the outer margin (if any) when there are multiple plots per page.

The ‘Scale-Location’ plot, also called ‘Spread-Location’ or ‘S-L’ plot, takes the square root of the absolute residuals in order to diminish skewness ($\sqrt{|E|}$) is much less skewed than $|E|$ for Gaussian zero-mean E).

The ‘S-L’, the Q-Q, and the Residual-Leverage plot, use *standardized* residuals which have identical variance (under the hypothesis). They are given as $R_i / (s \times \sqrt{1 - h_{ii}})$ where h_{ii} are the diagonal entries of the hat matrix, `influence()$hat` (see also `hat`), and where the Residual-Leverage plot uses standardized Pearson residuals (`residuals.glm(type = "pearson")`) for $R[i]$.

The Residual-Leverage plot shows contours of equal Cook’s distance, for values of `cook.levels` (by default 0.5 and 1) and omits cases with leverage one with a warning. If the leverages are constant (as is typically the case in a balanced `avov` situation) the plot uses factor level combinations instead of the leverages for the x-axis. (The factor levels are ordered by mean fitted value.)

In the Cook’s distance vs leverage/(1-leverage) plot, contours of standardized residuals that are equal in magnitude are lines through the origin. The contour lines are labelled with the magnitudes.

Author(s)

John Maindonald and Martin Maechler.

References

- Belsley, D. A., Kuh, E. and Welsch, R. E. (1980) *Regression Diagnostics*. New York: Wiley.
- Cook, R. D. and Weisberg, S. (1982) *Residuals and Influence in Regression*. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Firth, D. (1991) Generalized Linear Models. In Hinkley, D. V. and Reid, N. and Snell, E. J., eds: Pp. 55-82 in *Statistical Theory and Modelling*. In Honour of Sir David Cox, FRS. London: Chapman and Hall.
- Hinkley, D. V. (1975) On power transformations to symmetry. *Biometrika* **62**, 101–111.
- McCullagh, P. and Nelder, J. A. (1989) *Generalized Linear Models*. London: Chapman and Hall.

See Also

`termplot`, `lm.influence`, `cooks.distance`, `hatvalues`.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Analysis of the life-cycle savings data
## given in Belsley, Kuh and Welsch.
lm.SR <- lm(sr ~ pop15 + pop75 + dpi + ddpi, data = LifeCycleSavings)
plot(lm.SR)

## 4 plots on 1 page;
```

```
## allow room for printing model formula in outer margin:
par(mfrow = c(2, 2), oma = c(0, 0, 2, 0))
plot(lm.SR)
plot(lm.SR, id.n = NULL)          # no id's
plot(lm.SR, id.n = 5, labels.id = NULL) # 5 id numbers

## Was default in R <= 2.1.x:
## Cook's distances instead of Residual-Leverage plot
plot(lm.SR, which = 1:4)

## Fit a smooth curve, where applicable:
plot(lm.SR, panel = panel.smooth)
## Gives a smoother curve
plot(lm.SR, panel = function(x, y) panel.smooth(x, y, span = 1))

par(mfrow = c(2,1)) # same oma as above
plot(lm.SR, which = 1:2, sub.caption = "Saving Rates, n=50, p=5")
```

plot.ppr

Plot Ridge Functions for Projection Pursuit Regression Fit

Description

Plot ridge functions for projection pursuit regression fit.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'ppr'
plot(x, ask, type = "o", ...)
```

Arguments

x	A fit of class "ppr" as produced by a call to ppr.
ask	the graphics parameter ask: see par for details. If set to TRUE will ask between the plot of each cross-section.
type	the type of line to draw
...	further graphical parameters

Value

None

Side Effects

A series of plots are drawn on the current graphical device, one for each term in the fit.

See Also[ppr](#), [par](#)**Examples**

```
require(graphics)

with(rock, {
  area1 <- area/10000; peri1 <- peri/10000
  par(mfrow = c(3,2)) # maybe: , pty = "s")
  rock.ppr <- ppr(log(perm) ~ area1 + peri1 + shape,
    data = rock, nterms = 2, max.terms = 5)
  plot(rock.ppr, main = "ppr(log(perm)~ ., nterms=2, max.terms=5)")
  plot(update(rock.ppr, bass = 5), main = "update(..., bass = 5)")
  plot(update(rock.ppr, sm.method = "gcv", gcvpen = 2),
    main = "update(..., sm.method=\"gcv\", gcvpen=2)")
})
```

plot.profile.nls

*Plot a profile.nls Object***Description**

Displays a series of plots of the profile t function and interpolated confidence intervals for the parameters in a nonlinear regression model that has been fit with `nls` and profiled with `profile.nls`.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'profile.nls'
plot(x, levels, conf = c(99, 95, 90, 80, 50)/100,
     absVal = TRUE, ylab = NULL, lty = 2, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object of class "profile.nls"
<code>levels</code>	levels, on the scale of the absolute value of a t statistic, at which to interpolate intervals. Usually <code>conf</code> is used instead of giving levels explicitly.
<code>conf</code>	a numeric vector of confidence levels for profile-based confidence intervals on the parameters. Defaults to <code>c(0.99, 0.95, 0.90, 0.80, 0.50)</code> .
<code>absVal</code>	a logical value indicating whether or not the plots should be on the scale of the absolute value of the profile t. Defaults to <code>TRUE</code> .
<code>lty</code>	the line type to be used for axis and dropped lines.
<code>ylab, ...</code>	other arguments to the plot.default function can be passed here (but not <code>xlab</code> , <code>xlim</code> , <code>ylim</code> nor type).

Details

The plots are produced in a set of hard-coded colours, but as these are coded by number their effect can be changed by setting the [palette](#). Colour 1 is used for the axes and 4 for the profile itself. Colours 3 and 6 are used for the axis line at zero and the horizontal/vertical lines dropping to the axes.

Author(s)

Douglas M. Bates and Saikat DebRoy

References

Bates, D.M. and Watts, D.G. (1988), *Nonlinear Regression Analysis and Its Applications*, Wiley (chapter 6)

See Also

[nls](#), [profile](#), [profile.nls](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

# obtain the fitted object
fm1 <- nls(demand ~ SSasymptOrig(Time, A, lrc), data = BOD)
# get the profile for the fitted model
pr1 <- profile(fm1, alpha = 0.05)
opar <- par(mfrow = c(2,2), oma = c(1.1, 0, 1.1, 0), las = 1)
plot(pr1, conf = c(95, 90, 80, 50)/100)
plot(pr1, conf = c(95, 90, 80, 50)/100, absVal = FALSE)
mtext("Confidence intervals based on the profile sum of squares",
      side = 3, outer = TRUE)
mtext("BOD data - confidence levels of 50%, 80%, 90% and 95%",
      side = 1, outer = TRUE)
par(opar)
```

Description

Plotting method for objects of class "spec". For multivariate time series it plots the marginal spectra of the series or pairs plots of the coherency and phase of the cross-spectra.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'spec'
plot(x, add = FALSE, ci = 0.95, log = c("yes", "dB", "no"),
     xlab = "frequency", ylab = NULL, type = "l",
     ci.col = "blue", ci.lty = 3,
     main = NULL, sub = NULL,
     plot.type = c("marginal", "coherency", "phase"),
     ...)

plot.spec.phase(x, ci = 0.95,
               xlab = "frequency", ylab = "phase",
               ylim = c(-pi, pi), type = "l",
               main = NULL, ci.col = "blue", ci.lty = 3, ...)

plot.spec.coherency(x, ci = 0.95,
                   xlab = "frequency",
                   ylab = "squared coherency",
                   ylim = c(0, 1), type = "l",
                   main = NULL, ci.col = "blue", ci.lty = 3, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object of class "spec".
<code>add</code>	logical. If TRUE, add to already existing plot. Only valid for <code>plot.type = "marginal"</code> .
<code>ci</code>	coverage probability for confidence interval. Plotting of the confidence bar/limits is omitted unless <code>ci</code> is strictly positive.
<code>log</code>	If "dB", plot on log10 (decibel) scale (as S-PLUS), otherwise use conventional log scale or linear scale. Logical values are also accepted. The default is "yes" unless <code>options(ts.S.compat = TRUE)</code> has been set, when it is "dB". Only valid for <code>plot.type = "marginal"</code> .
<code>xlab</code>	the x label of the plot.
<code>ylab</code>	the y label of the plot. If missing a suitable label will be constructed.
<code>type</code>	the type of plot to be drawn, defaults to lines.
<code>ci.col</code>	colour for plotting confidence bar or confidence intervals for coherency and phase.
<code>ci.lty</code>	line type for confidence intervals for coherency and phase.
<code>main</code>	overall title for the plot. If missing, a suitable title is constructed.
<code>sub</code>	a sub title for the plot. Only used for <code>plot.type = "marginal"</code> . If missing, a description of the smoothing is used.
<code>plot.type</code>	For multivariate time series, the type of plot required. Only the first character is needed.
<code>ylim, ...</code>	Graphical parameters.

See Also[spectrum](#)

plot.stepfun

*Plot Step Functions***Description**

Method of the generic [plot](#) for [stepfun](#) objects and utility for plotting piecewise constant functions.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'stepfun'
plot(x, xval, xlim, ylim = range(c(y, Fn.kn)),
      xlab = "x", ylab = "f(x)", main = NULL,
      add = FALSE, verticals = TRUE, do.points = (n < 1000),
      pch = par("pch"), col = par("col"),
      col.points = col, cex.points = par("cex"),
      col.hor = col, col.vert = col,
      lty = par("lty"), lwd = par("lwd"), ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'stepfun'
lines(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an R object inheriting from "stepfun".
<code>xval</code>	numeric vector of abscissa values at which to evaluate x. Defaults to knots (x) restricted to xlim.
<code>xlim, ylim</code>	limits for the plot region: see plot.window . Both have sensible defaults if omitted.
<code>xlab, ylab</code>	labels for x and y axis.
<code>main</code>	main title.
<code>add</code>	logical; if TRUE only <i>add</i> to an existing plot.
<code>verticals</code>	logical; if TRUE, draw vertical lines at steps.
<code>do.points</code>	logical; if TRUE, also draw points at the (xlim restricted) knot locations. Default is true, for sample size < 1000.
<code>pch</code>	character; point character if do.points.
<code>col</code>	default color of all points and lines.
<code>col.points</code>	character or integer code; color of points if do.points.
<code>cex.points</code>	numeric; character expansion factor if do.points.
<code>col.hor</code>	color of horizontal lines.

col.vert	color of vertical lines.
lty, lwd	line type and thickness for all lines.
...	further arguments of <code>plot(.)</code> , or if(add) <code>segments(.)</code> .

Value

A list with two components

t	abscissa (x) values, including the two outermost ones.
y	y values 'in between' the t[.].

Author(s)

Martin Maechler <maechler@stat.math.ethz.ch>, 1990, 1993; ported to R, 1997.

See Also

[ecdf](#) for empirical distribution functions as special step functions, [approxfun](#) and [splinefun](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

y0 <- c(1,2,4,3)
sfun0 <- stepfun(1:3, y0, f = 0)
sfun.2 <- stepfun(1:3, y0, f = .2)
sfun1 <- stepfun(1:3, y0, right = TRUE)

tt <- seq(0, 3, by = 0.1)
op <- par(mfrow = c(2,2))
plot(sfun0); plot(sfun0, xval = tt, add = TRUE, col.hor = "bisque")
plot(sfun.2); plot(sfun.2, xval = tt, add = TRUE, col = "orange") # all colors
plot(sfun1); lines(sfun1, xval = tt, col.hor = "coral")
##-- This is revealing :
plot(sfun0, verticals = FALSE,
     main = "stepfun(x, y0, f=f) for f = 0, .2, 1")
for(i in 1:3)
  lines(list(sfun0, sfun.2, stepfun(1:3, y0, f = 1))[[i]], col = i)
legend(2.5, 1.9, paste("f =", c(0, 0.2, 1)), col = 1:3, lty = 1, y.intersp = 1)
par(op)

# Extend and/or restrict 'viewport':
plot(sfun0, xlim = c(0,5), ylim = c(0, 3.5),
     main = "plot(stepfun(*), xlim= . , ylim = .)")

##-- this works too (automatic call to ecdf(.)):
plot.stepfun(rt(50, df = 3), col.vert = "gray20")
```

Description

Plotting method for objects inheriting from class "ts".

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'ts'
plot(x, y = NULL, plot.type = c("multiple", "single"),
      xy.labels, xy.lines, panel = lines, nc, yax.flip = FALSE,
      mar.multi = c(0, 5.1, 0, if(yax.flip) 5.1 else 2.1),
      oma.multi = c(6, 0, 5, 0), axes = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'ts'
lines(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x, y	time series objects, usually inheriting from class "ts".
plot.type	for multivariate time series, should the series be plotted separately (with a common time axis) or on a single plot? Can be abbreviated.
xy.labels	logical, indicating if <code>text()</code> labels should be used for an x-y plot, <i>or</i> character, supplying a vector of labels to be used. The default is to label for up to 150 points, and not for more.
xy.lines	logical, indicating if <code>lines</code> should be drawn for an x-y plot. Defaults to the value of <code>xy.labels</code> if that is logical, otherwise to TRUE.
panel	a function(x, col, bg, pch, type, ...) which gives the action to be carried out in each panel of the display for <code>plot.type = "multiple"</code> . The default is <code>lines</code> .
nc	the number of columns to use when <code>type = "multiple"</code> . Defaults to 1 for up to 4 series, otherwise to 2.
yax.flip	logical indicating if the y-axis (ticks and numbering) should flip from side 2 (left) to 4 (right) from series to series when <code>type = "multiple"</code> .
mar.multi, oma.multi	the (default) <code>par</code> settings for <code>plot.type = "multiple"</code> . Modify with care!
axes	logical indicating if x- and y- axes should be drawn.
...	additional graphical arguments, see <code>plot</code> , <code>plot.default</code> and <code>par</code> .

Details

If y is missing, this function creates a time series plot, for multivariate series of one of two kinds depending on `plot.type`.

If y is present, both x and y must be univariate, and a scatter plot $y \sim x$ will be drawn, enhanced by using `text` if `xy.labels` is TRUE or character, and `lines` if `xy.lines` is TRUE.

See Also

[ts](#) for basic time series construction and access functionality.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Multivariate
z <- ts(matrix(rt(200 * 8, df = 3), 200, 8),
        start = c(1961, 1), frequency = 12)
plot(z, yax.flip = TRUE)
plot(z, axes = FALSE, ann = FALSE, frame.plot = TRUE,
     mar.multi = c(0,0,0,0), oma.multi = c(1,1,5,1))
title("plot(ts(..), axes=FALSE, ann=FALSE, frame.plot=TRUE, mar..., oma...)")

z <- window(z[,1:3], end = c(1969,12))
plot(z, type = "b")      # multiple
plot(z, plot.type = "single", lty = 1:3, col = 4:2)

## A phase plot:
plot(nhtemp, lag(nhtemp, 1), cex = .8, col = "blue",
     main = "Lag plot of New Haven temperatures")

## xy.lines and xy.labels are FALSE for large series:
plot(lag(sunspots, 1), sunspots, pch = ".")

SMI <- EuStockMarkets[, "SMI"]
plot(lag(SMI, 1), SMI, pch = ".")
plot(lag(SMI, 20), SMI, pch = ".", log = "xy",
     main = "4 weeks lagged SMI stocks -- log scale", xy.lines = TRUE)
```

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the Poisson distribution with parameter `lambda`.

Usage

```
dpois(x, lambda, log = FALSE)
ppois(q, lambda, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qpois(p, lambda, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rpois(n, lambda)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	vector of (non-negative integer) quantiles.
<code>q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>n</code>	number of random values to return.
<code>lambda</code>	vector of (non-negative) means.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as $\log(p)$.
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The Poisson distribution has density

$$p(x) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$$

for $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. The mean and variance are $E(X) = Var(X) = \lambda$.

If an element of `x` is not integer, the result of `dpois` is zero, with a warning. $p(x)$ is computed using Loader's algorithm, see the reference in [dbinom](#).

The quantile is right continuous: `qpois(p, lambda)` is the smallest integer x such that $P(X \leq x) \geq p$.

Setting `lower.tail = FALSE` allows to get much more precise results when the default, `lower.tail = TRUE` would return 1, see the example below.

Value

`dpois` gives the (log) density, `ppois` gives the (log) distribution function, `qpois` gives the quantile function, and `rpois` generates random deviates.

Invalid `lambda` will result in return value `NaN`, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by `n` for `rpois`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `n` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Source

`dpois` uses C code contributed by Catherine Loader (see [dbinom](#)).

`ppois` uses `pgamma`.

`qpois` uses the Cornish–Fisher Expansion to include a skewness correction to a normal approximation, followed by a search.

`rpois` uses

Ahrens, J. H. and Dieter, U. (1982). Computer generation of Poisson deviates from modified normal distributions. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **8**, 163–179.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [dbinom](#) for the binomial and [dnbinom](#) for the negative binomial distribution.

[poisson.test](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

-log(dpois(0:7, lambda = 1) * gamma(1+ 0:7)) # == 1
Ni <- rpois(50, lambda = 4); table(factor(Ni, 0:max(Ni)))

1 - ppois(10*(15:25), lambda = 100) # becomes 0 (cancellation)
  ppois(10*(15:25), lambda = 100, lower.tail = FALSE) # no cancellation

par(mfrow = c(2, 1))
x <- seq(-0.01, 5, 0.01)
plot(x, ppois(x, 1), type = "s", ylab = "F(x)", main = "Poisson(1) CDF")
plot(x, pbinom(x, 100, 0.01), type = "s", ylab = "F(x)",
      main = "Binomial(100, 0.01) CDF")
```

poisson.test

Exact Poisson tests

Description

Performs an exact test of a simple null hypothesis about the rate parameter in Poisson distribution, or for the ratio between two rate parameters.

Usage

```
poisson.test(x, T = 1, r = 1,
             alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
             conf.level = 0.95)
```

Arguments

x	number of events. A vector of length one or two.
T	time base for event count. A vector of length one or two.
r	hypothesized rate or rate ratio
alternative	indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided", "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter.
conf.level	confidence level for the returned confidence interval.

Details

Confidence intervals are computed similarly to those of [binom.test](#) in the one-sample case, and using [binom.test](#) in the two sample case.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the number of events (in the first sample if there are two.)
parameter	the corresponding expected count
p.value	the p-value of the test.
conf.int	a confidence interval for the rate or rate ratio.
estimate	the estimated rate or rate ratio.
null.value	the rate or rate ratio under the null, r.
alternative	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.
method	the character string "Exact Poisson test" or "Comparison of Poisson rates" as appropriate.
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.

Note

The rate parameter in Poisson data is often given based on a “time on test” or similar quantity (person-years, population size, or expected number of cases from mortality tables). This is the role of the T argument.

The one-sample case is effectively the binomial test with a very large n. The two sample case is converted to a binomial test by conditioning on the total event count, and the rate ratio is directly related to the odds in that binomial distribution.

See Also

[binom.test](#)

Examples

```
### These are paraphrased from data sets in the ISwR package

## SMR, Welsh Nickel workers
poisson.test(137, 24.19893)

## eba1977, compare Fredericia to other three cities for ages 55-59
poisson.test(c(11, 6+8+7), c(800, 1083+1050+878))
```

poly	<i>Compute Orthogonal Polynomials</i>
------	---------------------------------------

Description

Returns or evaluates orthogonal polynomials of degree 1 to degree over the specified set of points x: these are all orthogonal to the constant polynomial of degree 0. Alternatively, evaluate raw polynomials.

Usage

```
poly(x, ..., degree = 1, coefs = NULL, raw = FALSE, simple = FALSE)
polym (..., degree = 1, coefs = NULL, raw = FALSE)

## S3 method for class 'poly'
predict(object, newdata, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code> , <code>newdata</code>	a numeric vector at which to evaluate the polynomial. <code>x</code> can also be a matrix. Missing values are not allowed in <code>x</code> .
<code>degree</code>	the degree of the polynomial. Must be less than the number of unique points if <code>raw = TRUE</code> .
<code>coefs</code>	for prediction, coefficients from a previous fit.
<code>raw</code>	if true, use raw and not orthogonal polynomials.
<code>simple</code>	logical indicating if a simple matrix (with no further <code>attributes</code> but <code>dimnames</code>) should be returned. For speedup only.
<code>object</code>	an object inheriting from class "poly", normally the result of a call to <code>poly</code> with a single vector argument.
<code>...</code>	<code>poly</code> , <code>polym</code> : further vectors. <code>predict.poly</code> : arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

Although formally `degree` should be named (as it follows `...`), an unnamed second argument of length 1 will be interpreted as the degree, such that `poly(x, 3)` can be used in formulas.

The orthogonal polynomial is summarized by the coefficients, which can be used to evaluate it via the three-term recursion given in Kennedy & Gentle (1980, pp. 343–4), and used in the `predict` part of the code.

`poly` using `...` is just a convenience wrapper for `polym`: `coef` is ignored. Conversely, if `polym` is called with a single argument in `...` it is a wrapper for `poly`.

Value

For `poly` and `polym()` (when `simple=FALSE` and `coefs=NULL` as per default):

A matrix with rows corresponding to points in `x` and columns corresponding to the degree, with attributes "degree" specifying the degrees of the columns and (unless `raw = TRUE`) "coefs" which contains the centering and normalization constants used in constructing the orthogonal polynomials and class `c("poly", "matrix")`.

For `poly(*, simple=TRUE)`, `polym(*, coefs=<non-NULL>)`, and `predict.poly()`: a matrix.

Note

This routine is intended for statistical purposes such as `contr.poly`: it does not attempt to orthogonalize to machine accuracy.

Author(s)

R Core Team. Keith Jewell (Camden BRI Group, UK) contributed improvements for correct prediction on subsets.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Kennedy, W. J. Jr and Gentle, J. E. (1980) *Statistical Computing* Marcel Dekker.

See Also

[contr.poly](#).

[cars](#) for an example of polynomial regression.

Examples

```
od <- options(digits = 3) # avoid too much visual clutter
(z <- poly(1:10, 3))
predict(z, seq(2, 4, 0.5))
zapsmall(poly(seq(4, 6, 0.5), 3, coefs = attr(z, "coefs")))

zm <- zapsmall(polym ( 1:4, c(1, 4:6), degree = 3)) # or just poly():
(z1 <- zapsmall(poly(cbind(1:4, c(1, 4:6)), degree = 3)))
## they are the same :
stopifnot(all.equal(zm, z1, tol = 1e-15))
options(od)
```

power

Create a Power Link Object

Description

Creates a link object based on the link function $\eta = \mu^\lambda$.

Usage

```
power(lambda = 1)
```

Arguments

lambda a real number.

Details

If lambda is non-positive, it is taken as zero, and the log link is obtained. The default lambda = 1 gives the identity link.

Value

A list with components `linkfun`, `linkinv`, `mu.eta`, and `valideta`. See [make.link](#) for information on their meaning.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[make.link](#), [family](#)

To raise a number to a power, see [Arithmetic](#).

To calculate the power of a test, see various functions in the **stats** package, e.g., [power.t.test](#).

Examples

```
power()
quasi(link = power(1/3))[c("linkfun", "linkinv")]
```

power.anova.test	<i>Power Calculations for Balanced One-Way Analysis of Variance Tests</i>
------------------	---

Description

Compute power of test or determine parameters to obtain target power.

Usage

```
power.anova.test(groups = NULL, n = NULL,
                 between.var = NULL, within.var = NULL,
                 sig.level = 0.05, power = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>groups</code>	Number of groups
<code>n</code>	Number of observations (per group)
<code>between.var</code>	Between group variance
<code>within.var</code>	Within group variance
<code>sig.level</code>	Significance level (Type I error probability)
<code>power</code>	Power of test (1 minus Type II error probability)

Details

Exactly one of the parameters `groups`, `n`, `between.var`, `power`, `within.var`, and `sig.level` must be passed as `NULL`, and that parameter is determined from the others. Notice that `sig.level` has non-`NULL` default so `NULL` must be explicitly passed if you want it computed.

Value

Object of class "power.htest", a list of the arguments (including the computed one) augmented with method and note elements.

Note

uniroot is used to solve power equation for unknowns, so you may see errors from it, notably about inability to bracket the root when invalid arguments are given.

Author(s)

Claus Ekstrøm

See Also

[anova](#), [lm](#), [uniroot](#)

Examples

```
power.anova.test(groups = 4, n = 5, between.var = 1, within.var = 3)
# Power = 0.3535594

power.anova.test(groups = 4, between.var = 1, within.var = 3,
                  power = .80)
# n = 11.92613

## Assume we have prior knowledge of the group means:
groupmeans <- c(120, 130, 140, 150)
power.anova.test(groups = length(groupmeans),
                  between.var = var(groupmeans),
                  within.var = 500, power = .90) # n = 15.18834
```

power.prop.test

Power Calculations for Two-Sample Test for Proportions

Description

Compute the power of the two-sample test for proportions, or determine parameters to obtain a target power.

Usage

```
power.prop.test(n = NULL, p1 = NULL, p2 = NULL, sig.level = 0.05,
                power = NULL,
                alternative = c("two.sided", "one.sided"),
                strict = FALSE, tol = .Machine$double.eps^0.25)
```

Arguments

n	number of observations (per group)
p1	probability in one group
p2	probability in other group
sig.level	significance level (Type I error probability)
power	power of test (1 minus Type II error probability)
alternative	one- or two-sided test. Can be abbreviated.
strict	use strict interpretation in two-sided case
tol	numerical tolerance used in root finding, the default providing (at least) four significant digits.

Details

Exactly one of the parameters `n`, `p1`, `p2`, `power`, and `sig.level` must be passed as `NULL`, and that parameter is determined from the others. Notice that `sig.level` has a non-`NULL` default so `NULL` must be explicitly passed if you want it computed.

If `strict = TRUE` is used, the power will include the probability of rejection in the opposite direction of the true effect, in the two-sided case. Without this the power will be half the significance level if the true difference is zero.

Value

Object of class "power.htest", a list of the arguments (including the computed one) augmented with method and note elements.

Note

uniroot is used to solve power equation for unknowns, so you may see errors from it, notably about inability to bracket the root when invalid arguments are given. If one of them is computed $p_1 < p_2$ will hold, although this is not enforced when both are specified.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard. Based on previous work by Claus Ekstrøm

See Also

```
prop.test, uniroot
```

Examples

```
power.prop.test(n = 50, p1 = .50, p2 = .75)      ## => power = 0.740
power.prop.test(p1 = .50, p2 = .75, power = .90) ## =>      n = 76.7
power.prop.test(n = 50, p1 = .5, power = .90)    ## =>      p2 = 0.8026
power.prop.test(n = 50, p1 = .5, p2 = 0.9, power = .90, sig.level=NULL) ## => sig.l = 0.00131
power.prop.test(p1 = .5, p2 = 0.501, sig.level=.001, power=0.90)
## => n = 10451937
```

power.t.test

*Power calculations for one and two sample t tests***Description**

Compute the power of the one- or two- sample t test, or determine parameters to obtain a target power.

Usage

```
power.t.test(n = NULL, delta = NULL, sd = 1, sig.level = 0.05,
             power = NULL,
             type = c("two.sample", "one.sample", "paired"),
             alternative = c("two.sided", "one.sided"),
             strict = FALSE, tol = .Machine$double.eps^0.25)
```

Arguments

n	number of observations (per group)
delta	true difference in means
sd	standard deviation
sig.level	significance level (Type I error probability)
power	power of test (1 minus Type II error probability)
type	string specifying the type of t test. Can be abbreviated.
alternative	one- or two-sided test. Can be abbreviated.
strict	use strict interpretation in two-sided case
tol	numerical tolerance used in root finding, the default providing (at least) four significant digits.

Details

Exactly one of the parameters n, delta, power, sd, and sig.level must be passed as NULL, and that parameter is determined from the others. Notice that the last two have non-NULL defaults, so NULL must be explicitly passed if you want to compute them.

If strict = TRUE is used, the power will include the probability of rejection in the opposite direction of the true effect, in the two-sided case. Without this the power will be half the significance level if the true difference is zero.

Value

Object of class "power.htest", a list of the arguments (including the computed one) augmented with method and note elements.

Note

uniroot is used to solve the power equation for unknowns, so you may see errors from it, notably about inability to bracket the root when invalid arguments are given.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard. Based on previous work by Claus Ekstrøm

See Also

[t.test](#), [uniroot](#)

Examples

```
power.t.test(n = 20, delta = 1)
power.t.test(power = .90, delta = 1)
power.t.test(power = .90, delta = 1, alternative = "one.sided")
```

PP.test

Phillips-Perron Test for Unit Roots

Description

Computes the Phillips-Perron test for the null hypothesis that x has a unit root against a stationary alternative.

Usage

```
PP.test(x, lshort = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector or univariate time series.
<code>lshort</code>	a logical indicating whether the short or long version of the truncation lag parameter is used.

Details

The general regression equation which incorporates a constant and a linear trend is used and the corrected t-statistic for a first order autoregressive coefficient equals one is computed. To estimate σ^2 the Newey-West estimator is used. If `lshort` is TRUE, then the truncation lag parameter is set to $\text{trunc}(4 \cdot (n/100)^{0.25})$, otherwise $\text{trunc}(12 \cdot (n/100)^{0.25})$ is used. The p-values are interpolated from Table 4.2, page 103 of Banerjee *et al* (1993).

Missing values are not handled.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value of the test statistic.
parameter	the truncation lag parameter.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
method	a character string indicating what type of test was performed.
data.name	a character string giving the name of the data.

Author(s)

A. Trapletti

References

A. Banerjee, J. J. Dolado, J. W. Galbraith, and D. F. Hendry (1993) *Cointegration, Error Correction, and the Econometric Analysis of Non-Stationary Data*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

P. Perron (1988) Trends and random walks in macroeconomic time series. *Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control* **12**, 297–332.

Examples

```
x <- rnorm(1000)
PP.test(x)
y <- cumsum(x) # has unit root
PP.test(y)
```

ppoints	<i>Ordinates for Probability Plotting</i>
---------	---

Description

Generates the sequence of probability points $(1:m - a)/(m + (1-a)-a)$ where m is either n , if $\text{length}(n) \neq 1$, or $\text{length}(n)$.

Usage

```
ppoints(n, a = ifelse(n <= 10, 3/8, 1/2))
```

Arguments

n	either the number of points generated or a vector of observations.
a	the offset fraction to be used; typically in (0, 1).

Details

If $0 < a < 1$, the resulting values are within $(0, 1)$ (excluding boundaries). In any case, the resulting sequence is symmetric in $[0, 1]$, i.e., $p + \text{rev}(p) == 1$.

`ppoints()` is used in `qqplot` and `qqnorm` to generate the set of probabilities at which to evaluate the inverse distribution.

The choice of `a` follows the documentation of the function of the same name in Becker *et al* (1988), and appears to have been motivated by results from Blom (1958) on approximations to expect normal order statistics (see also [quantile](#)).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Blom, G. (1958) *Statistical Estimates and Transformed Beta Variables*. Wiley

See Also

[qqplot](#), [qqnorm](#).

Examples

```
ppoints(4) # the same as ppoints(1:4)
ppoints(10)
ppoints(10, a = 1/2)
```

ppr

Projection Pursuit Regression

Description

Fit a projection pursuit regression model.

Usage

```
ppr(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
ppr(formula, data, weights, subset, na.action,
     contrasts = NULL, ..., model = FALSE)

## Default S3 method:
ppr(x, y, weights = rep(1, n),
     ww = rep(1, q), nterms, max.terms = nterms, optlevel = 2,
     sm.method = c("supsmu", "spline", "gcv spline"),
     bass = 0, span = 0, df = 5, gcvpen = 1, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>formula</code>	a formula specifying one or more numeric response variables and the explanatory variables.
<code>x</code>	numeric matrix of explanatory variables. Rows represent observations, and columns represent variables. Missing values are not accepted.
<code>y</code>	numeric matrix of response variables. Rows represent observations, and columns represent variables. Missing values are not accepted.
<code>nterms</code>	number of terms to include in the final model.
<code>data</code>	a data frame (or similar: see model.frame) from which variables specified in <code>formula</code> are preferentially to be taken.
<code>weights</code>	a vector of weights w_i for each <i>case</i> .
<code>ww</code>	a vector of weights for each <i>response</i> , so the fit criterion is the sum over case i and responses j of $w_i ww_j (y_{ij} - fit_{ij})^2$ divided by the sum of w_i .
<code>subset</code>	an index vector specifying the cases to be used in the training sample. (NOTE: If given, this argument must be named.)
<code>na.action</code>	a function to specify the action to be taken if NA s are found. The default action is given by <code>getOption("na.action")</code> . (NOTE: If given, this argument must be named.)
<code>contrasts</code>	the contrasts to be used when any factor explanatory variables are coded.
<code>max.terms</code>	maximum number of terms to choose from when building the model.
<code>optlevel</code>	integer from 0 to 3 which determines the thoroughness of an optimization routine in the SMART program. See the 'Details' section.
<code>sm.method</code>	the method used for smoothing the ridge functions. The default is to use Friedman's super smoother <code>supsmu</code> . The alternatives are to use the smoothing spline code underlying <code>smooth.spline</code> , either with a specified (equivalent) degrees of freedom for each ridge functions, or to allow the smoothness to be chosen by GCV. Can be abbreviated.
<code>bass</code>	super smoother bass tone control used with automatic span selection (see <code>supsmu</code>); the range of values is 0 to 10, with larger values resulting in increased smoothing.
<code>span</code>	super smoother span control (see <code>supsmu</code>). The default, 0, results in automatic span selection by local cross validation. <code>span</code> can also take a value in $(0, 1]$.
<code>df</code>	if <code>sm.method</code> is "spline" specifies the smoothness of each ridge term via the requested equivalent degrees of freedom.
<code>gcvpen</code>	if <code>sm.method</code> is "gcv spline" this is the penalty used in the GCV selection for each degree of freedom used.
<code>...</code>	arguments to be passed to or from other methods.
<code>model</code>	logical. If true, the model frame is returned.

Details

The basic method is given by Friedman (1984), and is essentially the same code used by S-PLUS's `ppreg`. This code is extremely sensitive to the compiler used.

The algorithm first adds up to `max.terms` ridge terms one at a time; it will use less if it is unable to find a term to add that makes sufficient difference. It then removes the least important term at each step until `nterms` terms are left.

The levels of optimization (argument `optlevel`) differ in how thoroughly the models are refitted during this process. At level 0 the existing ridge terms are not refitted. At level 1 the projection directions are not refitted, but the ridge functions and the regression coefficients are.

Levels 2 and 3 refit all the terms and are equivalent for one response; level 3 is more careful to re-balance the contributions from each regressor at each step and so is a little less likely to converge to a saddle point of the sum of squares criterion.

Value

A list with the following components, many of which are for use by the method functions.

<code>call</code>	the matched call
<code>p</code>	the number of explanatory variables (after any coding)
<code>q</code>	the number of response variables
<code>mu</code>	the argument <code>nterms</code>
<code>m1</code>	the argument <code>max.terms</code>
<code>gof</code>	the overall residual (weighted) sum of squares for the selected model
<code>gofn</code>	the overall residual (weighted) sum of squares against the number of terms, up to <code>max.terms</code> . Will be invalid (and zero) for less than <code>nterms</code> .
<code>df</code>	the argument <code>df</code>
<code>edf</code>	if <code>sm.method</code> is "spline" or "gcv spline" the equivalent number of degrees of freedom for each ridge term used.
<code>xnames</code>	the names of the explanatory variables
<code>yname</code> s	the names of the response variables
<code>alpha</code>	a matrix of the projection directions, with a column for each ridge term
<code>beta</code>	a matrix of the coefficients applied for each response to the ridge terms: the rows are the responses and the columns the ridge terms
<code>yb</code>	the weighted means of each response
<code>ys</code>	the overall scale factor used: internally the responses are divided by <code>ys</code> to have unit total weighted sum of squares.
<code>fitted.values</code>	the fitted values, as a matrix if <code>q > 1</code> .
<code>residuals</code>	the residuals, as a matrix if <code>q > 1</code> .
<code>smod</code>	internal work array, which includes the ridge functions evaluated at the training set points.
<code>model</code>	(only if <code>model = TRUE</code>) the model frame.

Source

Friedman (1984): converted to double precision and added interface to smoothing splines by B. D. Ripley, originally for the **MASS** package.

References

Friedman, J. H. and Stuetzle, W. (1981) Projection pursuit regression. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, **76**, 817–823.

Friedman, J. H. (1984) SMART User's Guide. Laboratory for Computational Statistics, Stanford University Technical Report No. 1.

Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. Springer.

See Also

[plot.ppr](#), [supsmu](#), [smooth.spline](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

# Note: your numerical values may differ
attach(rock)
area1 <- area/10000; peri1 <- peri/10000
rock.ppr <- ppr(log(perm) ~ area1 + peri1 + shape,
               data = rock, nterms = 2, max.terms = 5)

rock.ppr
# Call:
# ppr.formula(formula = log(perm) ~ area1 + peri1 + shape, data = rock,
#             nterms = 2, max.terms = 5)
#
# Goodness of fit:
# 2 terms 3 terms 4 terms 5 terms
# 8.737806 5.289517 4.745799 4.490378

summary(rock.ppr)
# ..... (same as above)
# .....
#
# Projection direction vectors:
#      term 1      term 2
# area1  0.34357179  0.37071027
# peri1 -0.93781471 -0.61923542
# shape  0.04961846  0.69218595
#
# Coefficients of ridge terms:
#      term 1      term 2
# 1.6079271  0.5460971

par(mfrow = c(3,2)) # maybe: , pty = "s")
plot(rock.ppr, main = "ppr(log(perm)~ ., nterms=2, max.terms=5)")
plot(update(rock.ppr, bass = 5), main = "update(..., bass = 5)")
```

```
plot(update(rock.ppr, sm.method = "gcv", gcvpen = 2),
     main = "update(..., sm.method='gcv', gcvpen=2)")
cbind(perm = rock$perm, prediction = round(exp(predict(rock.ppr)), 1))
detach()
```

prcomp

*Principal Components Analysis***Description**

Performs a principal components analysis on the given data matrix and returns the results as an object of class `prcomp`.

Usage

```
prcomp(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
prcomp(formula, data = NULL, subset, na.action, ...)

## Default S3 method:
prcomp(x, retx = TRUE, center = TRUE, scale. = FALSE,
       tol = NULL, ...)

## S3 method for class 'prcomp'
predict(object, newdata, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>formula</code>	a formula with no response variable, referring only to numeric variables.
<code>data</code>	an optional data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula <code>formula</code> . By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector used to select rows (observations) of the data matrix <code>x</code> .
<code>na.action</code>	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is set by the <code>na.action</code> setting of options , and is <code>na.fail</code> if that is unset. The ‘factory-fresh’ default is <code>na.omit</code> .
<code>...</code>	arguments passed to or from other methods. If <code>x</code> is a formula one might specify <code>scale.</code> or <code>tol</code> .
<code>x</code>	a numeric or complex matrix (or data frame) which provides the data for the principal components analysis.
<code>retx</code>	a logical value indicating whether the rotated variables should be returned.
<code>center</code>	a logical value indicating whether the variables should be shifted to be zero centered. Alternately, a vector of length equal the number of columns of <code>x</code> can be supplied. The value is passed to <code>scale</code> .

<code>scale.</code>	a logical value indicating whether the variables should be scaled to have unit variance before the analysis takes place. The default is FALSE for consistency with <code>S</code> , but in general scaling is advisable. Alternatively, a vector of length equal the number of columns of <code>x</code> can be supplied. The value is passed to <code>scale</code> .
<code>tol</code>	a value indicating the magnitude below which components should be omitted. (Components are omitted if their standard deviations are less than or equal to <code>tol</code> times the standard deviation of the first component.) With the default null setting, no components are omitted. Other settings for <code>tol</code> could be <code>tol = 0</code> or <code>tol = sqrt(.Machine\$double.eps)</code> , which would omit essentially constant components.
<code>object</code>	Object of class inheriting from "prcomp"
<code>newdata</code>	An optional data frame or matrix in which to look for variables with which to predict. If omitted, the scores are used. If the original fit used a formula or a data frame or a matrix with column names, <code>newdata</code> must contain columns with the same names. Otherwise it must contain the same number of columns, to be used in the same order.

Details

The calculation is done by a singular value decomposition of the (centered and possibly scaled) data matrix, not by using `eigen` on the covariance matrix. This is generally the preferred method for numerical accuracy. The `print` method for these objects prints the results in a nice format and the `plot` method produces a scree plot.

Unlike `princomp`, variances are computed with the usual divisor $N - 1$.

Note that `scale = TRUE` cannot be used if there are zero or constant (for `center = TRUE`) variables.

Value

`prcomp` returns a list with class "prcomp" containing the following components:

<code>sdev</code>	the standard deviations of the principal components (i.e., the square roots of the eigenvalues of the covariance/correlation matrix, though the calculation is actually done with the singular values of the data matrix).
<code>rotation</code>	the matrix of variable loadings (i.e., a matrix whose columns contain the eigenvectors). The function <code>princomp</code> returns this in the element <code>loadings</code> .
<code>x</code>	if <code>retx</code> is true the value of the rotated data (the centred (and scaled if requested) data multiplied by the rotation matrix) is returned. Hence, <code>cov(x)</code> is the diagonal matrix <code>diag(sdev^2)</code> . For the formula method, <code>napredict()</code> is applied to handle the treatment of values omitted by the <code>na.action</code> .
<code>center, scale</code>	the centering and scaling used, or FALSE.

Note

The signs of the columns of the rotation matrix are arbitrary, and so may differ between different programs for PCA, and even between different builds of R.

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Mardia, K. V., J. T. Kent, and J. M. Bibby (1979) *Multivariate Analysis*, London: Academic Press.
- Venables, W. N. and B. D. Ripley (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*, Springer-Verlag.

See Also

[biplot.prcomp](#), [screeplot](#), [princomp](#), [cor](#), [cov](#), [svd](#), [eigen](#).

Examples

```
## signs are random
require(graphics)

## the variances of the variables in the
## USArrests data vary by orders of magnitude, so scaling is appropriate
prcomp(USArrests) # inappropriate
prcomp(USArrests, scale = TRUE)
prcomp(~ Murder + Assault + Rape, data = USArrests, scale = TRUE)
plot(prcomp(USArrests))
summary(prcomp(USArrests, scale = TRUE))
biplot(prcomp(USArrests, scale = TRUE))
```

predict

Model Predictions

Description

`predict` is a generic function for predictions from the results of various model fitting functions. The function invokes particular *methods* which depend on the [class](#) of the first argument.

Usage

```
predict (object, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	a model object for which prediction is desired.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments affecting the predictions produced.

Details

Most prediction methods which are similar to those for linear models have an argument `newdata` specifying the first place to look for explanatory variables to be used for prediction. Some considerable attempts are made to match up the columns in `newdata` to those used for fitting, for example that they are of comparable types and that any factors have the same level set in the same order (or can be transformed to be so).

Time series prediction methods in package **stats** have an argument `n.ahead` specifying how many time steps ahead to predict.

Many methods have a logical argument `se.fit` saying if standard errors are to be returned.

Value

The form of the value returned by `predict` depends on the class of its argument. See the documentation of the particular methods for details of what is produced by that method.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[predict.glm](#), [predict.lm](#), [predict.loess](#), [predict.nls](#), [predict.poly](#), [predict.princomp](#), [predict.smooth.spline](#).

[SafePrediction](#) for prediction from (univariable) polynomial and spline fits.

For time-series prediction, [predict.ar](#), [predict.Arima](#), [predict.arima0](#), [predict.HoltWinters](#), [predict.StructTS](#).

Examples

```
require(utils)

## All the "predict" methods found
## NB most of the methods in the standard packages are hidden.
for(fn in methods("predict"))
  try({
    f <- eval(substitute(getAnywhere(fn)$objs[[1]]), list(fn = fn))
    cat(fn, ":\n\t", deparse(args(f)), "\n")
  }, silent = TRUE)
```

predict.Arima	<i>Forecast from ARIMA fits</i>
---------------	---------------------------------

Description

Forecast from models fitted by [arima](#).

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'Arima'
predict(object, n.ahead = 1, newxreg = NULL,
        se.fit = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

object	The result of an arima fit.
n.ahead	The number of steps ahead for which prediction is required.
newxreg	New values of xreg to be used for prediction. Must have at least n.ahead rows.
se.fit	Logical: should standard errors of prediction be returned?
...	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Finite-history prediction is used, via [KalmanForecast](#). This is only statistically efficient if the MA part of the fit is invertible, so `predict.Arima` will give a warning for non-invertible MA models.

The standard errors of prediction exclude the uncertainty in the estimation of the ARMA model and the regression coefficients. According to Harvey (1993, pp. 58–9) the effect is small.

Value

A time series of predictions, or if `se.fit = TRUE`, a list with components `pred`, the predictions, and `se`, the estimated standard errors. Both components are time series.

References

- Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Harvey, A. C. and McKenzie, C. R. (1982) Algorithm AS182. An algorithm for finite sample prediction from ARIMA processes. *Applied Statistics* **31**, 180–187.
- Harvey, A. C. (1993) *Time Series Models*, 2nd Edition, Harvester Wheatsheaf, sections 3.3 and 4.4.

See Also

[arima](#)

Examples

```
od <- options(digits = 5) # avoid too much spurious accuracy
predict(arima(lh, order = c(3,0,0)), n.ahead = 12)

(fit <- arima(USAccDeaths, order = c(0,1,1),
             seasonal = list(order = c(0,1,1))))
predict(fit, n.ahead = 6)
options(od)
```

predict.glm	<i>Predict Method for GLM Fits</i>
-------------	------------------------------------

Description

Obtains predictions and optionally estimates standard errors of those predictions from a fitted generalized linear model object.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'glm'
predict(object, newdata = NULL,
        type = c("link", "response", "terms"),
        se.fit = FALSE, dispersion = NULL, terms = NULL,
        na.action = na.pass, ...)
```

Arguments

object	a fitted object of class inheriting from "glm".
newdata	optionally, a data frame in which to look for variables with which to predict. If omitted, the fitted linear predictors are used.
type	the type of prediction required. The default is on the scale of the linear predictors; the alternative "response" is on the scale of the response variable. Thus for a default binomial model the default predictions are of log-odds (probabilities on logit scale) and type = "response" gives the predicted probabilities. The "terms" option returns a matrix giving the fitted values of each term in the model formula on the linear predictor scale. The value of this argument can be abbreviated.
se.fit	logical switch indicating if standard errors are required.
dispersion	the dispersion of the GLM fit to be assumed in computing the standard errors. If omitted, that returned by summary applied to the object is used.
terms	with type = "terms" by default all terms are returned. A character vector specifies which terms are to be returned
na.action	function determining what should be done with missing values in newdata. The default is to predict NA.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

If newdata is omitted the predictions are based on the data used for the fit. In that case how cases with missing values in the original fit is determined by the na.action argument of that fit. If na.action = na.omit omitted cases will not appear in the residuals, whereas if na.action = na.exclude they will appear (in predictions and standard errors), with residual value NA. See also [napredict](#).

Value

If se.fit = FALSE, a vector or matrix of predictions. For type = "terms" this is a matrix with a column per term, and may have an attribute "constant".

If se.fit = TRUE, a list with components

fit	Predictions, as for se.fit = FALSE.
se.fit	Estimated standard errors.
residual.scale	A scalar giving the square root of the dispersion used in computing the standard errors.

Note

Variables are first looked for in newdata and then searched for in the usual way (which will include the environment of the formula used in the fit). A warning will be given if the variables found are not of the same length as those in newdata if it was supplied.

See Also

[glm](#), [SafePrediction](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## example from Venables and Ripley (2002, pp. 190-2.)
ldose <- rep(0:5, 2)
numdead <- c(1, 4, 9, 13, 18, 20, 0, 2, 6, 10, 12, 16)
sex <- factor(rep(c("M", "F"), c(6, 6)))
SF <- cbind(numdead, numalive = 20-numdead)
budworm.lg <- glm(SF ~ sex*ldose, family = binomial)
summary(budworm.lg)

plot(c(1,32), c(0,1), type = "n", xlab = "dose",
      ylab = "prob", log = "x")
text(2^ldose, numdead/20, as.character(sex))
ld <- seq(0, 5, 0.1)
lines(2^ld, predict(budworm.lg, data.frame(ldose = ld,
      sex = factor(rep("M", length(ld)), levels = levels(sex))),
      type = "response"))
lines(2^ld, predict(budworm.lg, data.frame(ldose = ld,
      sex = factor(rep("F", length(ld)), levels = levels(sex))),
      type = "response"))
```

predict.HoltWinters *Prediction Function for Fitted Holt-Winters Models*

Description

Computes predictions and prediction intervals for models fitted by the Holt-Winters method.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'HoltWinters'
predict(object, n.ahead = 1, prediction.interval = FALSE,
        level = 0.95, ...)
```

Arguments

object	An object of class HoltWinters.
n.ahead	Number of future periods to predict.
prediction.interval	logical. If TRUE, the lower and upper bounds of the corresponding prediction intervals are computed.
level	Confidence level for the prediction interval.
...	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

A time series of the predicted values. If prediction intervals are requested, a multiple time series is returned with columns fit, lwr and upr for the predicted values and the lower and upper bounds respectively.

Author(s)

David Meyer <David.Meyer@wu.ac.at>

References

C. C. Holt (1957) Forecasting trends and seasonals by exponentially weighted moving averages, *ONR Research Memorandum, Carnegie Institute of Technology* **52**.

P. R. Winters (1960) Forecasting sales by exponentially weighted moving averages, *Management Science* **6**, 324–342.

See Also

[HoltWinters](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

m <- HoltWinters(co2)
p <- predict(m, 50, prediction.interval = TRUE)
plot(m, p)
```

predict.lm

*Predict method for Linear Model Fits***Description**

Predicted values based on linear model object.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'lm'
predict(object, newdata, se.fit = FALSE, scale = NULL, df = Inf,
        interval = c("none", "confidence", "prediction"),
        level = 0.95, type = c("response", "terms"),
        terms = NULL, na.action = na.pass,
        pred.var = res.var/weights, weights = 1, ...)
```

Arguments

object	Object of class inheriting from "lm"
newdata	An optional data frame in which to look for variables with which to predict. If omitted, the fitted values are used.
se.fit	A switch indicating if standard errors are required.
scale	Scale parameter for std.err. calculation.
df	Degrees of freedom for scale.
interval	Type of interval calculation. Can be abbreviated.
level	Tolerance/confidence level.
type	Type of prediction (response or model term). Can be abbreviated.
terms	If type = "terms", which terms (default is all terms), a character vector.
na.action	function determining what should be done with missing values in newdata. The default is to predict NA.
pred.var	the variance(s) for future observations to be assumed for prediction intervals. See 'Details'.
weights	variance weights for prediction. This can be a numeric vector or a one-sided model formula. In the latter case, it is interpreted as an expression evaluated in newdata.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

`predict.lm` produces predicted values, obtained by evaluating the regression function in the frame `newdata` (which defaults to `model.frame(object)`). If the logical `se.fit` is `TRUE`, standard errors of the predictions are calculated. If the numeric argument `scale` is set (with optional `df`), it is used as the residual standard deviation in the computation of the standard errors, otherwise this is extracted from the model fit. Setting `intervals` specifies computation of confidence or prediction (tolerance) intervals at the specified level, sometimes referred to as narrow vs. wide intervals.

If the fit is rank-deficient, some of the columns of the design matrix will have been dropped. Prediction from such a fit only makes sense if `newdata` is contained in the same subspace as the original data. That cannot be checked accurately, so a warning is issued.

If `newdata` is omitted the predictions are based on the data used for the fit. In that case how cases with missing values in the original fit are handled is determined by the `na.action` argument of that fit. If `na.action = na.omit` omitted cases will not appear in the predictions, whereas if `na.action = na.exclude` they will appear (in predictions, standard errors or interval limits), with value `NA`. See also [napredict](#).

The prediction intervals are for a single observation at each case in `newdata` (or by default, the data used for the fit) with error variance(s) `pred.var`. This can be a multiple of `res.var`, the estimated value of σ^2 : the default is to assume that future observations have the same error variance as those used for fitting. If `weights` is supplied, the inverse of this is used as a scale factor. For a weighted fit, if the prediction is for the original data frame, `weights` defaults to the weights used for the model fit, with a warning since it might not be the intended result. If the fit was weighted and `newdata` is given, the default is to assume constant prediction variance, with a warning.

Value

`predict.lm` produces a vector of predictions or a matrix of predictions and bounds with column names `fit`, `lwr`, and `upr` if `interval` is set. For `type = "terms"` this is a matrix with a column per term and may have an attribute `"constant"`.

If `se.fit` is `TRUE`, a list with the following components is returned:

<code>fit</code>	vector or matrix as above
<code>se.fit</code>	standard error of predicted means
<code>residual.scale</code>	residual standard deviations
<code>df</code>	degrees of freedom for residual

Note

Variables are first looked for in `newdata` and then searched for in the usual way (which will include the environment of the formula used in the fit). A warning will be given if the variables found are not of the same length as those in `newdata` if it was supplied.

Notice that prediction variances and prediction intervals always refer to *future* observations, possibly corresponding to the same predictors as used for the fit. The variance of the *residuals* will be smaller.

Strictly speaking, the formula used for prediction limits assumes that the degrees of freedom for the fit are the same as those for the residual variance. This may not be the case if `res.var` is not obtained from the fit.

See Also

The model fitting function [lm](#), [predict](#).

[SafePrediction](#) for prediction from (univariable) polynomial and spline fits.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Predictions
x <- rnorm(15)
y <- x + rnorm(15)
predict(lm(y ~ x))
new <- data.frame(x = seq(-3, 3, 0.5))
predict(lm(y ~ x), new, se.fit = TRUE)
pred.w.plim <- predict(lm(y ~ x), new, interval = "prediction")
pred.w.clim <- predict(lm(y ~ x), new, interval = "confidence")
matplot(new$x, cbind(pred.w.clim, pred.w.plim[, -1]),
        lty = c(1,2,2,3,3), type = "l", ylab = "predicted y")

## Prediction intervals, special cases
## The first three of these throw warnings
w <- 1 + x^2
fit <- lm(y ~ x)
wfit <- lm(y ~ x, weights = w)
predict(fit, interval = "prediction")
predict(wfit, interval = "prediction")
predict(wfit, new, interval = "prediction")
predict(wfit, new, interval = "prediction", weights = (new$x)^2)
predict(wfit, new, interval = "prediction", weights = ~x^2)

##-- From aov(.) example ---- predict(.. terms)
npk.aov <- aov(yield ~ block + N*P*K, npk)
(termL <- attr(terms(npk.aov), "term.labels"))
(pt <- predict(npk.aov, type = "terms"))
pt. <- predict(npk.aov, type = "terms", terms = termL[1:4])
stopifnot(all.equal(pt[,1:4], pt.,
                    tolerance = 1e-12, check.attributes = FALSE))
```

predict.loess

Predict Loess Curve or Surface

Description

Predictions from a loess fit, optionally with standard errors.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'loess'
predict(object, newdata = NULL, se = FALSE,
        na.action = na.pass, ...)
```


Arguments

<code>object</code>	an object fitted by <code>loess</code> .
<code>newdata</code>	an optional data frame in which to look for variables with which to predict, or a matrix or vector containing exactly the variables needed for prediction. If missing, the original data points are used.
<code>se</code>	should standard errors be computed?
<code>na.action</code>	function determining what should be done with missing values in data frame <code>newdata</code> . The default is to predict NA.
<code>...</code>	arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The standard errors calculation is slower than prediction.

When the fit was made using `surface = "interpolate"` (the default), `predict.loess` will not extrapolate – so points outside an axis-aligned hypercube enclosing the original data will have missing (NA) predictions and standard errors.

Value

If `se = FALSE`, a vector giving the prediction for each row of `newdata` (or the original data). If `se = TRUE`, a list containing components

<code>fit</code>	the predicted values.
<code>se</code>	an estimated standard error for each predicted value.
<code>residual.scale</code>	the estimated scale of the residuals used in computing the standard errors.
<code>df</code>	an estimate of the effective degrees of freedom used in estimating the residual scale, intended for use with t-based confidence intervals.

If `newdata` was the result of a call to [expand.grid](#), the predictions (and s.e.'s if requested) will be an array of the appropriate dimensions.

Predictions from infinite inputs will be NA since `loess` does not support extrapolation.

Note

Variables are first looked for in `newdata` and then searched for in the usual way (which will include the environment of the formula used in the fit). A warning will be given if the variables found are not of the same length as those in `newdata` if it was supplied.

Author(s)

B. D. Ripley, based on the `cloess` package of Cleveland, Grosse and Shyu.

See Also

[loess](#)

Examples

```
cars.lo <- loess(dist ~ speed, cars)
predict(cars.lo, data.frame(speed = seq(5, 30, 1)), se = TRUE)
# to get extrapolation
cars.lo2 <- loess(dist ~ speed, cars,
  control = loess.control(surface = "direct"))
predict(cars.lo2, data.frame(speed = seq(5, 30, 1)), se = TRUE)
```

predict.nls

*Predicting from Nonlinear Least Squares Fits***Description**

`predict.nls` produces predicted values, obtained by evaluating the regression function in the frame `newdata`. If the logical `se.fit` is `TRUE`, standard errors of the predictions are calculated. If the numeric argument `scale` is set (with optional `df`), it is used as the residual standard deviation in the computation of the standard errors, otherwise this is extracted from the model fit. Setting `interval` specifies computation of confidence or prediction (tolerance) intervals at the specified level.

At present `se.fit` and `interval` are ignored.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'nls'
predict(object, newdata, se.fit = FALSE, scale = NULL, df = Inf,
  interval = c("none", "confidence", "prediction"),
  level = 0.95, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	An object that inherits from class <code>nls</code> .
<code>newdata</code>	A named list or data frame in which to look for variables with which to predict. If <code>newdata</code> is missing the fitted values at the original data points are returned.
<code>se.fit</code>	A logical value indicating if the standard errors of the predictions should be calculated. Defaults to <code>FALSE</code> . At present this argument is ignored.
<code>scale</code>	A numeric scalar. If it is set (with optional <code>df</code>), it is used as the residual standard deviation in the computation of the standard errors, otherwise this information is extracted from the model fit. At present this argument is ignored.
<code>df</code>	A positive numeric scalar giving the number of degrees of freedom for the scale estimate. At present this argument is ignored.
<code>interval</code>	A character string indicating if prediction intervals or a confidence interval on the mean responses are to be calculated. At present this argument is ignored.
<code>level</code>	A numeric scalar between 0 and 1 giving the confidence level for the intervals (if any) to be calculated. At present this argument is ignored.
<code>...</code>	Additional optional arguments. At present no optional arguments are used.

Value

predict.nls produces a vector of predictions. When implemented, interval will produce a matrix of predictions and bounds with column names fit, lwr, and upr. When implemented, if se.fit is TRUE, a list with the following components will be returned:

fit	vector or matrix as above
se.fit	standard error of predictions
residual.scale	residual standard deviations
df	degrees of freedom for residual

Note

Variables are first looked for in newdata and then searched for in the usual way (which will include the environment of the formula used in the fit). A warning will be given if the variables found are not of the same length as those in newdata if it was supplied.

See Also

The model fitting function [nls](#), [predict](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

fm <- nls(demand ~ SSasymptOrig(Time, A, lrc), data = BOD)
predict(fm)           # fitted values at observed times
## Form data plot and smooth line for the predictions
opar <- par(las = 1)
plot(demand ~ Time, data = BOD, col = 4,
     main = "BOD data and fitted first-order curve",
     xlim = c(0,7), ylim = c(0, 20) )
tt <- seq(0, 8, length = 101)
lines(tt, predict(fm, list(Time = tt)))
par(opar)
```

predict.smooth.spline *Predict from Smoothing Spline Fit*

Description

Predict a smoothing spline fit at new points, return the derivative if desired. The predicted fit is linear beyond the original data.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'smooth.spline'
predict(object, x, deriv = 0, ...)
```

Arguments

object	a fit from smooth.spline.
x	the new values of x.
deriv	integer; the order of the derivative required.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

A list with components

x	The input x.
y	The fitted values or derivatives at x.

See Also

[smooth.spline](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

attach(cars)
cars.spl <- smooth.spline(speed, dist, df = 6.4)

## "Proof" that the derivatives are okay, by comparing with approximation
diff.quot <- function(x, y) {
  ## Difference quotient (central differences where available)
  n <- length(x); i1 <- 1:2; i2 <- (n-1):n
  c(diff(y[i1]) / diff(x[i1]), (y[-i1] - y[-i2]) / (x[-i1] - x[-i2]),
    diff(y[i2]) / diff(x[i2]))
}

xx <- unique(sort(c(seq(0, 30, by = .2), kn <- unique(speed))))
i.kn <- match(kn, xx) # indices of knots within xx
op <- par(mfrow = c(2,2))
plot(speed, dist, xlim = range(xx), main = "Smooth.spline & derivatives")
lines(pp <- predict(cars.spl, xx), col = "red")
points(kn, pp$y[i.kn], pch = 3, col = "dark red")
mtext("s(x)", col = "red")
for(d in 1:3){
  n <- length(pp$x)
  plot(pp$x, diff.quot(pp$x,pp$y), type = "l", xlab = "x", ylab = "",
    col = "blue", col.main = "red",
    main = paste0("s", paste(rep("", d), collapse = ""), "(x)"))
  mtext("Difference quotient approx.(last)", col = "blue")
  lines(pp <- predict(cars.spl, xx, deriv = d), col = "red")

  points(kn, pp$y[i.kn], pch = 3, col = "dark red")
  abline(h = 0, lty = 3, col = "gray")
}
```

```
}
detach(); par(op)
```

```
preplot
```

```
Pre-computations for a Plotting Object
```

Description

Compute an object to be used for plots relating to the given model object.

Usage

```
preplot(object, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	a fitted model object.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments for specific methods.

Details

Only the generic function is currently provided in base R, but some add-on packages have methods. Principally here for S compatibility.

Value

An object set up to make a plot that describes object.

```
princomp
```

```
Principal Components Analysis
```

Description

`princomp` performs a principal components analysis on the given numeric data matrix and returns the results as an object of class `princomp`.

Usage

```
princomp(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
princomp(formula, data = NULL, subset, na.action, ...)

## Default S3 method:
princomp(x, cor = FALSE, scores = TRUE, covmat = NULL,
         subset = rep_len(TRUE, nrow(as.matrix(x))), ...)

## S3 method for class 'princomp'
predict(object, newdata, ...)
```

Arguments

formula	a formula with no response variable, referring only to numeric variables.
data	an optional data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector used to select rows (observations) of the data matrix x.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. The default is set by the <code>na.action</code> setting of options , and is na.fail if that is unset. The ‘factory-fresh’ default is na.omit .
x	a numeric matrix or data frame which provides the data for the principal components analysis.
cor	a logical value indicating whether the calculation should use the correlation matrix or the covariance matrix. (The correlation matrix can only be used if there are no constant variables.)
scores	a logical value indicating whether the score on each principal component should be calculated.
covmat	a covariance matrix, or a covariance list as returned by cov.wt (and cov.mve or cov.mcd from package MASS). If supplied, this is used rather than the covariance matrix of x.
...	arguments passed to or from other methods. If x is a formula one might specify <code>cor</code> or <code>scores</code> .
object	Object of class inheriting from "princomp"
newdata	An optional data frame or matrix in which to look for variables with which to predict. If omitted, the scores are used. If the original fit used a formula or a data frame or a matrix with column names, newdata must contain columns with the same names. Otherwise it must contain the same number of columns, to be used in the same order.

Details

`princomp` is a generic function with "formula" and "default" methods.

The calculation is done using [eigen](#) on the correlation or covariance matrix, as determined by `cor`. This is done for compatibility with the S-PLUS result. A preferred method of calculation is to use [svd](#) on x, as is done in `prcomp`.

Note that the default calculation uses divisor N for the covariance matrix.

The [print](#) method for these objects prints the results in a nice format and the [plot](#) method produces a scree plot ([screeplot](#)). There is also a [biplot](#) method.

If x is a formula then the standard NA-handling is applied to the scores (if requested): see [napredict](#).

`princomp` only handles so-called R-mode PCA, that is feature extraction of variables. If a data matrix is supplied (possibly via a formula) it is required that there are at least as many units as variables. For Q-mode PCA use [prcomp](#).

Value

princomp returns a list with class "princomp" containing the following components:

sdev	the standard deviations of the principal components.
loadings	the matrix of variable loadings (i.e., a matrix whose columns contain the eigenvectors). This is of class "loadings": see loadings for its print method.
center	the means that were subtracted.
scale	the scalings applied to each variable.
n.obs	the number of observations.
scores	if scores = TRUE, the scores of the supplied data on the principal components. These are non-null only if x was supplied, and if covmat was also supplied if it was a covariance list. For the formula method, napredict() is applied to handle the treatment of values omitted by the na.action.
call	the matched call.
na.action	If relevant.

Note

The signs of the columns of the loadings and scores are arbitrary, and so may differ between different programs for PCA, and even between different builds of R.

References

Mardia, K. V., J. T. Kent and J. M. Bibby (1979). *Multivariate Analysis*, London: Academic Press.
 Venables, W. N. and B. D. Ripley (2002). *Modern Applied Statistics with S*, Springer-Verlag.

See Also

[summary.princomp](#), [screeplot](#), [biplot.princomp](#), [prcomp](#), [cor](#), [cov](#), [eigen](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## The variances of the variables in the
## USArrests data vary by orders of magnitude, so scaling is appropriate
(pc.cr <- princomp(USArrests)) # inappropriate
princomp(USArrests, cor = TRUE) # ^= prcomp(USArrests, scale=TRUE)
## Similar, but different:
## The standard deviations differ by a factor of sqrt(49/50)

summary(pc.cr <- princomp(USArrests, cor = TRUE))
loadings(pc.cr) # note that blank entries are small but not zero
## The signs of the columns are arbitrary
plot(pc.cr) # shows a screeplot.
biplot(pc.cr)

## Formula interface
```

```

princomp(~ ., data = USArrests, cor = TRUE)

## NA-handling
USArrests[1, 2] <- NA
pc.cr <- princomp(~ Murder + Assault + UrbanPop,
                  data = USArrests, na.action = na.exclude, cor = TRUE)
pc.cr$scores[1:5, ]

## (Simple) Robust PCA:
## Classical:
(pc.cl <- princomp(stackloss))
## Robust:
(pc.rob <- princomp(stackloss, covmat = MASS::cov.rob(stackloss)))

```

print.power.htest	<i>Print Methods for Hypothesis Tests and Power Calculation Objects</i>
-------------------	---

Description

Printing objects of class "htest" or "power.htest", respectively, by simple [print](#) methods.

Usage

```

## S3 method for class 'htest'
print(x, digits = getOption("digits"), prefix = "\t", ...)

## S3 method for class 'power.htest'
print(x, digits = getOption("digits"), ...)

```

Arguments

x	object of class "htest" or "power.htest".
digits	number of significant digits to be used.
prefix	string, passed to strwrap for displaying the method component of the htest object.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

Both [print](#) methods traditionally have not obeyed the digits argument properly. They now do, the htest method mostly in expressions like `max(1, digits - 2)`.

A power.htest object is just a named list of numbers and character strings, supplemented with method and note elements. The method is displayed as a title, the note as a footnote, and the remaining elements are given in an aligned 'name = value' format.

Value

the argument x, invisibly, as for all [print](#) methods.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard

See Also[power.t.test](#), [power.prop.test](#)**Examples**

```
(ptt <- power.t.test(n = 20, delta = 1))
print(ptt, digits = 4) # using less digits than default
print(ptt, digits = 12) # using more " " "
```

print.ts

*Printing and Formatting of Time-Series Objects***Description**

Notably for calendar related time series objects, [format](#) and [print](#) methods showing years, months and or quarters respectively.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'ts'
print(x, calendar, ...)


```

Arguments

x	a time series object.
calendar	enable/disable the display of information about month names, quarter names or year when printing. The default is TRUE for a frequency of 4 or 12, FALSE otherwise.
...	additional arguments to print (or format methods).

Details

The [print](#) method for "ts" objects prints a header (basically of [tsp\(x\)](#)), if calendar is false, and then prints the result of `preformat.ts(x, *)`, which is typically a [matrix](#) with [rownames](#) built from the calendar times where applicable.

See Also[print](#), [ts](#).

Examples

```
print(ts(1:10, frequency = 7, start = c(12, 2)), calendar = TRUE)

print(sunsp.1 <- window(sunspot.month, end=c(1756, 12)))
m <- .preformat.ts(sunsp.1) # a character matrix
```

printCoefmat

Print Coefficient Matrices

Description

Utility function to be used in higher-level [print](#) methods, such as those for [summary.lm](#), [summary.glm](#) and [anova](#). The goal is to provide a flexible interface with smart defaults such that often, only `x` needs to be specified.

Usage

```
printCoefmat(x, digits = max(3, getOption("digits") - 2),
             signif.stars = getOption("show.signif.stars"),
             signif.legend = signif.stars,
             dig.tst = max(1, min(5, digits - 1)),
             cs.ind = 1L:k, tst.ind = k + 1L,
             zap.ind = integer(), P.values = NULL,
             has.Pvalue = nc >= 4L &&
               substr(colnames(x)[nc], 1L, 3L) == "Pr(",
             eps.Pvalue = .Machine$double.eps,
             na.print = "NA", ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric matrix like object, to be printed.
<code>digits</code>	minimum number of significant digits to be used for most numbers.
<code>signif.stars</code>	logical; if TRUE, P-values are additionally encoded visually as ‘significance stars’ in order to help scanning of long coefficient tables. It defaults to the <code>show.signif.stars</code> slot of options .
<code>signif.legend</code>	logical; if TRUE, a legend for the ‘significance stars’ is printed provided <code>signif.stars = TRUE</code> .
<code>dig.tst</code>	minimum number of significant digits for the test statistics, see <code>tst.ind</code> .
<code>cs.ind</code>	indices (integer) of column numbers which are (like) coefficients and standard errors to be formatted together.
<code>tst.ind</code>	indices (integer) of column numbers for test statistics.
<code>zap.ind</code>	indices (integer) of column numbers which should be formatted by zapsmall , i.e., by ‘zapping’ values close to 0.

<code>P.values</code>	logical or NULL; if TRUE, the last column of <code>x</code> is formatted by <code>format.pval</code> as P values. If <code>P.values = NULL</code> , the default, it is set to TRUE only if <code>options("show.coef.Pvalue")</code> is TRUE <i>and</i> <code>x</code> has at least 4 columns <i>and</i> the last column name of <code>x</code> starts with "Pr(".
<code>has.Pvalue</code>	logical; if TRUE, the last column of <code>x</code> contains P values; in that case, it is printed if and only if <code>P.values</code> (above) is true.
<code>eps.Pvalue</code>	number, ..
<code>na.print</code>	a character string to code NA values in printed output.
<code>...</code>	further arguments for <code>print</code> .

Value

Invisibly returns its argument, `x`.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

`print.summary.lm`, `format.pval`, `format`.

Examples

```

cmat <- cbind(rnorm(3, 10), sqrt(rchisq(3, 12)))
cmat <- cbind(cmat, cmat[, 1]/cmat[, 2])
cmat <- cbind(cmat, 2*pnorm(-cmat[, 3]))
colnames(cmat) <- c("Estimate", "Std.Err", "Z value", "Pr(>z)")
printCoefmat(cmat[, 1:3])
printCoefmat(cmat)
op <- options(show.coef.Pvalues = FALSE)
printCoefmat(cmat, digits = 2)
printCoefmat(cmat, digits = 2, P.values = TRUE)
options(op) # restore

```

profile

Generic Function for Profiling Models

Description

Investigates behavior of objective function near the solution represented by `fitted`.

See documentation on method functions for further details.

Usage

```
profile(fitted, ...)
```

Arguments

`fitted` the original fitted model object.
`...` additional parameters. See documentation on individual methods.

Value

A list with an element for each parameter being profiled. See the individual methods for further details.

See Also

[profile.nls](#), [profile.glm](#) in package **MASS**, ...

For profiling R code, see [Rprof](#).

profile.nls	<i>Method for Profiling nls Objects</i>
-------------	---

Description

Investigates the profile log-likelihood function for a fitted model of class "nls".

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'nls'
profile(fitted, which = 1:npar, maxpts = 100, alphamax = 0.01,
        delta.t = cutoff/5, ...)
```

Arguments

`fitted` the original fitted model object.
`which` the original model parameters which should be profiled. This can be a numeric or character vector. By default, all non-linear parameters are profiled.
`maxpts` maximum number of points to be used for profiling each parameter.
`alphamax` highest significance level allowed for the profile t-statistics.
`delta.t` suggested change on the scale of the profile t-statistics. Default value chosen to allow profiling at about 10 parameter values.
`...` further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The profile t-statistics is defined as the square root of change in sum-of-squares divided by residual standard error with an appropriate sign.

Value

A list with an element for each parameter being profiled. The elements are data-frames with two variables

`par.vals` a matrix of parameter values for each fitted model.
`tau` the profile t-statistics.

Author(s)

Of the original version, Douglas M. Bates and Saikat DebRoy

References

Bates, D. M. and Watts, D. G. (1988), *Nonlinear Regression Analysis and Its Applications*, Wiley (chapter 6).

See Also

[nls](#), [profile](#), [plot.profile.nls](#)

Examples

```
# obtain the fitted object
fm1 <- nls(demand ~ SSasymptOrig(Time, A, lrc), data = BOD)
# get the profile for the fitted model: default level is too extreme
pr1 <- profile(fm1, alpha = 0.05)
# profiled values for the two parameters
pr1$A
pr1$lrc
# see also example(plot.profile.nls)
```

proj

Projections of Models

Description

`proj` returns a matrix or list of matrices giving the projections of the data onto the terms of a linear model. It is most frequently used for [aov](#) models.

Usage

```
proj(object, ...)
```

S3 method for class 'aov'

```
proj(object, onedf = FALSE, unweighted.scale = FALSE, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'aovlist'
proj(object, onedf = FALSE, unweighted.scale = FALSE, ...)

## Default S3 method:
proj(object, onedf = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
proj(object, onedf = FALSE, unweighted.scale = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	An object of class "lm" or a class inheriting from it, or an object with a similar structure including in particular components <code>qr</code> and <code>effects</code> .
<code>onedf</code>	A logical flag. If TRUE, a projection is returned for all the columns of the model matrix. If FALSE, the single-column projections are collapsed by terms of the model (as represented in the analysis of variance table).
<code>unweighted.scale</code>	If the fit producing object used weights, this determines if the projections correspond to weighted or unweighted observations.
<code>...</code>	Swallow and ignore any other arguments.

Details

A projection is given for each stratum of the object, so for aov models with an Error term the result is a list of projections.

Value

A projection matrix or (for multi-stratum objects) a list of projection matrices.

Each projection is a matrix with a row for each observations and either a column for each term (`onedf = FALSE`) or for each coefficient (`onedf = TRUE`). Projection matrices from the default method have orthogonal columns representing the projection of the response onto the column space of the Q matrix from the QR decomposition. The fitted values are the sum of the projections, and the sum of squares for each column is the reduction in sum of squares from fitting that column (after those to the left of it).

The methods for `lm` and aov models add a column to the projection matrix giving the residuals (the projection of the data onto the orthogonal complement of the model space).

Strictly, when `onedf = FALSE` the result is not a projection, but the columns represent sums of projections onto the columns of the model matrix corresponding to that term. In this case the matrix does not depend on the coding used.

Author(s)

The design was inspired by the S function of the same name described in Chambers *et al* (1992).

References

Chambers, J. M., Freeny, A and Heiberger, R. M. (1992) *Analysis of variance; designed experiments*. Chapter 5 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[aov](#), [lm](#), [model.tables](#)

Examples

```
N <- c(0,1,0,1,1,1,0,0,0,1,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0)
P <- c(1,1,0,0,0,1,0,1,1,1,0,0,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,1,0)
K <- c(1,0,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,0,1,1,1,0,1,0)
yield <- c(49.5,62.8,46.8,57.0,59.8,58.5,55.5,56.0,62.8,55.8,69.5,
55.0, 62.0,48.8,45.5,44.2,52.0,51.5,49.8,48.8,57.2,59.0,53.2,56.0)

npk <- data.frame(block = gl(6,4), N = factor(N), P = factor(P),
                  K = factor(K), yield = yield)
npk.aov <- aov(yield ~ block + N*P*K, npk)
proj(npk.aov)

## as a test, not particularly sensible
options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.treatment"))
npk.aovE <- aov(yield ~ N*P*K + Error(block), npk)
proj(npk.aovE)
```

prop.test	<i>Test of Equal or Given Proportions</i>
-----------	---

Description

prop.test can be used for testing the null that the proportions (probabilities of success) in several groups are the same, or that they equal certain given values.

Usage

```
prop.test(x, n, p = NULL,
          alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
          conf.level = 0.95, correct = TRUE)
```

Arguments

- x a vector of counts of successes, a one-dimensional table with two entries, or a two-dimensional table (or matrix) with 2 columns, giving the counts of successes and failures, respectively.
- n a vector of counts of trials; ignored if x is a matrix or a table.

<code>p</code>	a vector of probabilities of success. The length of <code>p</code> must be the same as the number of groups specified by <code>x</code> , and its elements must be greater than 0 and less than 1.
<code>alternative</code>	a character string specifying the alternative hypothesis, must be one of "two.sided" (default), "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter. Only used for testing the null that a single proportion equals a given value, or that two proportions are equal; ignored otherwise.
<code>conf.level</code>	confidence level of the returned confidence interval. Must be a single number between 0 and 1. Only used when testing the null that a single proportion equals a given value, or that two proportions are equal; ignored otherwise.
<code>correct</code>	a logical indicating whether Yates' continuity correction should be applied where possible.

Details

Only groups with finite numbers of successes and failures are used. Counts of successes and failures must be nonnegative and hence not greater than the corresponding numbers of trials which must be positive. All finite counts should be integers.

If `p` is `NULL` and there is more than one group, the null tested is that the proportions in each group are the same. If there are two groups, the alternatives are that the probability of success in the first group is less than, not equal to, or greater than the probability of success in the second group, as specified by `alternative`. A confidence interval for the difference of proportions with confidence level as specified by `conf.level` and clipped to $[-1, 1]$ is returned. Continuity correction is used only if it does not exceed the difference of the sample proportions in absolute value. Otherwise, if there are more than 2 groups, the alternative is always "two.sided", the returned confidence interval is `NULL`, and continuity correction is never used.

If there is only one group, then the null tested is that the underlying probability of success is `p`, or .5 if `p` is not given. The alternative is that the probability of success is less than, not equal to, or greater than `p` or 0.5, respectively, as specified by `alternative`. A confidence interval for the underlying proportion with confidence level as specified by `conf.level` and clipped to $[0, 1]$ is returned. Continuity correction is used only if it does not exceed the difference between sample and null proportions in absolute value. The confidence interval is computed by inverting the score test.

Finally, if `p` is given and there are more than 2 groups, the null tested is that the underlying probabilities of success are those given by `p`. The alternative is always "two.sided", the returned confidence interval is `NULL`, and continuity correction is never used.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

<code>statistic</code>	the value of Pearson's chi-squared test statistic.
<code>parameter</code>	the degrees of freedom of the approximate chi-squared distribution of the test statistic.
<code>p.value</code>	the p-value of the test.
<code>estimate</code>	a vector with the sample proportions x/n .

conf.int	a confidence interval for the true proportion if there is one group, or for the difference in proportions if there are 2 groups and p is not given, or NULL otherwise. In the cases where it is not NULL, the returned confidence interval has an asymptotic confidence level as specified by conf.level, and is appropriate to the specified alternative hypothesis.
null.value	the value of p if specified by the null, or NULL otherwise.
alternative	a character string describing the alternative.
method	a character string indicating the method used, and whether Yates' continuity correction was applied.
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

- Wilson, E.B. (1927) Probable inference, the law of succession, and statistical inference. *J. Am. Stat. Assoc.*, **22**, 209–212.
- Newcombe R.G. (1998) Two-Sided Confidence Intervals for the Single Proportion: Comparison of Seven Methods. *Statistics in Medicine* **17**, 857–872.
- Newcombe R.G. (1998) Interval Estimation for the Difference Between Independent Proportions: Comparison of Eleven Methods. *Statistics in Medicine* **17**, 873–890.

See Also

[binom.test](#) for an *exact* test of a binomial hypothesis.

Examples

```
heads <- rbinom(1, size = 100, prob = .5)
prop.test(heads, 100)          # continuity correction TRUE by default
prop.test(heads, 100, correct = FALSE)

## Data from Fleiss (1981), p. 139.
## H0: The null hypothesis is that the four populations from which
##     the patients were drawn have the same true proportion of smokers.
## A:  The alternative is that this proportion is different in at
##     least one of the populations.

smokers <- c( 83, 90, 129, 70 )
patients <- c( 86, 93, 136, 82 )
prop.test(smokers, patients)
```

prop.trend.test	<i>Test for trend in proportions</i>
-----------------	--------------------------------------

Description

Performs chi-squared test for trend in proportions, i.e., a test asymptotically optimal for local alternatives where the log odds vary in proportion with score. By default, score is chosen as the group numbers.

Usage

```
prop.trend.test(x, n, score = seq_along(x))
```

Arguments

x	Number of events
n	Number of trials
score	Group score

Value

An object of class "htest" with title, test statistic, p-value, etc.

Note

This really should get integrated with `prop.test`

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard

See Also

[prop.test](#)

Examples

```
smokers <- c( 83, 90, 129, 70 )
patients <- c( 86, 93, 136, 82 )
prop.test(smokers, patients)
prop.trend.test(smokers, patients)
prop.trend.test(smokers, patients, c(0,0,0,1))
```

qqnorm

Quantile-Quantile Plots

Description

qqnorm is a generic function the default method of which produces a normal QQ plot of the values in y. qqline adds a line to a “theoretical”, by default normal, quantile-quantile plot which passes through the probs quantiles, by default the first and third quartiles.

qqplot produces a QQ plot of two datasets.

Graphical parameters may be given as arguments to qqnorm, qqplot and qqline.

Usage

```
qqnorm(y, ...)
## Default S3 method:
qqnorm(y, ylim, main = "Normal Q-Q Plot",
       xlab = "Theoretical Quantiles", ylab = "Sample Quantiles",
       plot.it = TRUE, datax = FALSE, ...)

qqline(y, datax = FALSE, distribution = qnorm,
       probs = c(0.25, 0.75), qtype = 7, ...)

qqplot(x, y, plot.it = TRUE, xlab = deparse(substitute(x)),
       ylab = deparse(substitute(y)), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	The first sample for qqplot.
<code>y</code>	The second or only data sample.
<code>xlab, ylab, main</code>	plot labels. The <code>xlab</code> and <code>ylab</code> refer to the y and x axes respectively if <code>datax = TRUE</code> .
<code>plot.it</code>	logical. Should the result be plotted?
<code>datax</code>	logical. Should data values be on the x-axis?
<code>distribution</code>	quantile function for reference theoretical distribution.
<code>probs</code>	numeric vector of length two, representing probabilities. Corresponding quantile pairs define the line drawn.
<code>qtype</code>	the type of quantile computation used in quantile .
<code>ylim, ...</code>	graphical parameters.

Value

For qqnorm and qqplot, a list with components

<code>x</code>	The x coordinates of the points that were/would be plotted
<code>y</code>	The original y vector, i.e., the corresponding y coordinates <i>including</i> NAs .

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[ppoints](#), used by qqnorm to generate approximations to expected order statistics for a normal distribution.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

y <- rt(200, df = 5)
qqnorm(y); qqline(y, col = 2)
qqplot(y, rt(300, df = 5))

qqnorm(precip, ylab = "Precipitation [in/yr] for 70 US cities")

## "QQ-Chisquare" : -----
y <- rchisq(500, df = 3)
## Q-Q plot for Chi^2 data against true theoretical distribution:
qqplot(qchisq(ppoints(500), df = 3), y,
       main = expression("Q-Q plot for" ~~ {chi^2}[nu == 3]))
qqline(y, distribution = function(p) qchisq(p, df = 3),
       prob = c(0.1, 0.6), col = 2)
mtext("qqline(*, dist = qchisq(., df=3), prob = c(0.1, 0.6))")
```

quade.test	<i>Quade Test</i>
------------	-------------------

Description

Performs a Quade test with unreplicated blocked data.

Usage

```
quade.test(y, ...)

## Default S3 method:
quade.test(y, groups, blocks, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
quade.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

y	either a numeric vector of data values, or a data matrix.
groups	a vector giving the group for the corresponding elements of y if this is a vector; ignored if y is a matrix. If not a factor object, it is coerced to one.
blocks	a vector giving the block for the corresponding elements of y if this is a vector; ignored if y is a matrix. If not a factor object, it is coerced to one.
formula	a formula of the form $a \sim b \mid c$, where a, b and c give the data values and corresponding groups and blocks, respectively.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from environment(formula).

subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

`quade.test` can be used for analyzing unreplicated complete block designs (i.e., there is exactly one observation in `y` for each combination of levels of groups and blocks) where the normality assumption may be violated.

The null hypothesis is that apart from an effect of blocks, the location parameter of `y` is the same in each of the groups.

If `y` is a matrix, groups and blocks are obtained from the column and row indices, respectively. NA's are not allowed in groups or blocks; if `y` contains NA's, corresponding blocks are removed.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value of Quade's F statistic.
parameter	a vector with the numerator and denominator degrees of freedom of the approximate F distribution of the test statistic.
p.value	the p-value of the test.
method	the character string "Quade test".
data.name	a character string giving the names of the data.

References

D. Quade (1979), Using weighted rankings in the analysis of complete blocks with additive block effects. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* **74**, 680–683.

William J. Conover (1999), *Practical nonparametric statistics*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 373–380.

See Also

[friedman.test](#).

Examples

```
## Conover (1999, p. 375f):
## Numbers of five brands of a new hand lotion sold in seven stores
## during one week.
y <- matrix(c( 5,  4,  7, 10, 12,
              1,  3,  1,  0,  2,
              16, 12, 22, 22, 35,
              5,  4,  3,  5,  4,
              10,  9,  7, 13, 10,
              19, 18, 28, 37, 58,
```

```

      10, 7, 6, 8, 7),
nrow = 7, byrow = TRUE,
dimnames =
list(Store = as.character(1:7),
      Brand = LETTERS[1:5]))
y
quade.test(y)

```

quantile

*Sample Quantiles***Description**

The generic function `quantile` produces sample quantiles corresponding to the given probabilities. The smallest observation corresponds to a probability of 0 and the largest to a probability of 1.

Usage

```

quantile(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
quantile(x, probs = seq(0, 1, 0.25), na.rm = FALSE,
         names = TRUE, type = 7, ...)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	numeric vector whose sample quantiles are wanted, or an object of a class for which a method has been defined (see also ‘details’). <code>NA</code> and <code>NaN</code> values are not allowed in numeric vectors unless <code>na.rm</code> is <code>TRUE</code> .
<code>probs</code>	numeric vector of probabilities with values in $[0, 1]$. (Values up to ‘2e-14’ outside that range are accepted and moved to the nearby endpoint.)
<code>na.rm</code>	logical; if true, any <code>NA</code> and <code>NaN</code> ’s are removed from <code>x</code> before the quantiles are computed.
<code>names</code>	logical; if true, the result has a <code>names</code> attribute. Set to <code>FALSE</code> for speedup with many <code>probs</code> .
<code>type</code>	an integer between 1 and 9 selecting one of the nine quantile algorithms detailed below to be used.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

A vector of length `length(probs)` is returned; if `names = TRUE`, it has a `names` attribute.

`NA` and `NaN` values in `probs` are propagated to the result.

The default method works with classed objects sufficiently like numeric vectors that `sort` and (not needed by types 1 and 3) addition of elements and multiplication by a number work correctly. Note that as this is in a namespace, the copy of `sort` in **base** will be used, not some S4 generic of that

name. Also note that that is no check on the ‘correctly’, and so e.g. quantile can be applied to complex vectors which (apart from ties) will be ordered on their real parts.

There is a method for the date-time classes (see "[POSIXt](#)"). Types 1 and 3 can be used for class "[Date](#)" and for ordered factors.

Types

quantile returns estimates of underlying distribution quantiles based on one or two order statistics from the supplied elements in x at probabilities in probs. One of the nine quantile algorithms discussed in Hyndman and Fan (1996), selected by type, is employed.

All sample quantiles are defined as weighted averages of consecutive order statistics. Sample quantiles of type i are defined by:

$$Q_i(p) = (1 - \gamma)x_j + \gamma x_{j+1}$$

where $1 \leq i \leq 9$, $\frac{j-m}{n} \leq p < \frac{j-m+1}{n}$, x_j is the j th order statistic, n is the sample size, the value of γ is a function of $j = \lfloor np + m \rfloor$ and $g = np + m - j$, and m is a constant determined by the sample quantile type.

Discontinuous sample quantile types 1, 2, and 3

For types 1, 2 and 3, $Q_i(p)$ is a discontinuous function of p , with $m = 0$ when $i = 1$ and $i = 2$, and $m = -1/2$ when $i = 3$.

Type 1 Inverse of empirical distribution function. $\gamma = 0$ if $g = 0$, and 1 otherwise.

Type 2 Similar to type 1 but with averaging at discontinuities. $\gamma = 0.5$ if $g = 0$, and 1 otherwise.

Type 3 SAS definition: nearest even order statistic. $\gamma = 0$ if $g = 0$ and j is even, and 1 otherwise.

Continuous sample quantile types 4 through 9

For types 4 through 9, $Q_i(p)$ is a continuous function of p , with $\gamma = g$ and m given below. The sample quantiles can be obtained equivalently by linear interpolation between the points (p_k, x_k) where x_k is the k th order statistic. Specific expressions for p_k are given below.

Type 4 $m = 0$. $p_k = \frac{k}{n}$. That is, linear interpolation of the empirical cdf.

Type 5 $m = 1/2$. $p_k = \frac{k-0.5}{n}$. That is a piecewise linear function where the knots are the values midway through the steps of the empirical cdf. This is popular amongst hydrologists.

Type 6 $m = p$. $p_k = \frac{k}{n+1}$. Thus $p_k = E[F(x_k)]$. This is used by Minitab and by SPSS.

Type 7 $m = 1 - p$. $p_k = \frac{k-1}{n-1}$. In this case, $p_k = \text{mode}[F(x_k)]$. This is used by S.

Type 8 $m = (p + 1)/3$. $p_k = \frac{k-1/3}{n+1/3}$. Then $p_k \approx \text{median}[F(x_k)]$. The resulting quantile estimates are approximately median-unbiased regardless of the distribution of x .

Type 9 $m = p/4 + 3/8$. $p_k = \frac{k-3/8}{n+1/4}$. The resulting quantile estimates are approximately unbiased for the expected order statistics if x is normally distributed.

Further details are provided in Hyndman and Fan (1996) who recommended type 8. The default method is type 7, as used by S and by R < 2.0.0.

Author(s)

of the version used in R >= 2.0.0, Ivan Frohne and Rob J Hyndman.

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Hyndman, R. J. and Fan, Y. (1996) Sample quantiles in statistical packages, *American Statistician* **50**, 361–365.

See Also

[ecdf](#) for empirical distributions of which quantile is an inverse; [boxplot.stats](#) and [fivenum](#) for computing other versions of quartiles, etc.

Examples

```
quantile(x <- rnorm(1001)) # Extremes & Quartiles by default
quantile(x, probs = c(0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10, 50, NA)/100)

### Compare different types
p <- c(0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10, 50)/100
res <- matrix(as.numeric(NA), 9, 7)
for(type in 1:9) res[type, ] <- y <- quantile(x, p, type = type)
dimnames(res) <- list(1:9, names(y))
round(res, 3)
```

r2dtable

Random 2-way Tables with Given Marginals

Description

Generate random 2-way tables with given marginals using Patefield's algorithm.

Usage

```
r2dtable(n, r, c)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|---|--|
| n | a non-negative numeric giving the number of tables to be drawn. |
| r | a non-negative vector of length at least 2 giving the row totals, to be coerced to integer. Must sum to the same as c. |
| c | a non-negative vector of length at least 2 giving the column totals, to be coerced to integer. |

Value

A list of length n containing the generated tables as its components.

References

Patefield, W. M. (1981) Algorithm AS159. An efficient method of generating $r \times c$ tables with given row and column totals. *Applied Statistics* **30**, 91–97.

Examples

```
## Fisher's Tea Drinker data.
TeaTasting <-
matrix(c(3, 1, 1, 3),
       nrow = 2,
       dimnames = list(Guess = c("Milk", "Tea"),
                        Truth = c("Milk", "Tea")))
## Simulate permutation test for independence based on the maximum
## Pearson residuals (rather than their sum).
rowTotals <- rowSums(TeaTasting)
colTotals <- colSums(TeaTasting)
nOfCases <- sum(rowTotals)
expected <- outer(rowTotals, colTotals, "*") / nOfCases
maxSqResid <- function(x) max((x - expected) ^ 2 / expected)
simMaxSqResid <-
  sapply(r2dtable(1000, rowTotals, colTotals), maxSqResid)
sum(simMaxSqResid >= maxSqResid(TeaTasting)) / 1000
## Fisher's exact test gives p = 0.4857 ...
```

read.ftable

Manipulate Flat Contingency Tables

Description

Read, write and coerce ‘flat’ contingency tables.

Usage

```
read.ftable(file, sep = "", quote = "\"",
            row.var.names, col.vars, skip = 0)

write.ftable(x, file = "", quote = TRUE, append = FALSE,
            digits = getOption("digits"), ...)

## S3 method for class 'ftable'
format(x, quote = TRUE, digits = getOption("digits"),
       method = c("non.compact", "row.compact",
                  "col.compact", "compact"),
       lsep = " | ", ...)

## S3 method for class 'ftable'
print(x, digits = getOption("digits"), ...)
```

Arguments

file	either a character string naming a file or a connection which the data are to be read from or written to. "" indicates input from the console for reading and output to the console for writing.
sep	the field separator string. Values on each line of the file are separated by this string.
quote	a character string giving the set of quoting characters for read.ftable; to disable quoting altogether, use quote="". For write.table, a logical indicating whether strings in the data will be surrounded by double quotes.
row.var.names	a character vector with the names of the row variables, in case these cannot be determined automatically.
col.vars	a list giving the names and levels of the column variables, in case these cannot be determined automatically.
skip	the number of lines of the data file to skip before beginning to read data.
x	an object of class "ftable".
append	logical. If TRUE and file is the name of a file (and not a connection or " cmd"), the output from write.ftable is appended to the file. If FALSE, the contents of file will be overwritten.
digits	an integer giving the number of significant digits to use for (the cell entries of) x.
method	string specifying how the "ftable" object is formatted (and printed if used as in write.ftable() or the print method). Can be abbreviated. Available methods are (see the examples): "non.compact" the default representation of an "ftable" object. "row.compact" a row-compact version without empty cells below the column labels. "col.compact" a column-compact version without empty cells to the right of the row labels. "compact" a row- and column-compact version. This may imply a row and a column label sharing the same cell. They are then separated by the string lsep.
lsep	only for method = "compact", the separation string for row and column labels.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods; for write() and print(), notably arguments such as method, passed to format().

Details

read.ftable reads in a flat-like contingency table from a file. If the file contains the written representation of a flat table (more precisely, a header with all information on names and levels of column variables, followed by a line with the names of the row variables), no further arguments are needed. Similarly, flat tables with only one column variable the name of which is the only entry in the first line are handled automatically. Other variants can be dealt with by skipping all header information using skip, and providing the names of the row variables and the names and levels of the column variable using row.var.names and col.vars, respectively. See the examples below.

Note that flat tables are characterized by their ‘ragged’ display of row (and maybe also column) labels. If the full grid of levels of the row variables is given, one should instead use `read.table` to read in the data, and create the contingency table from this using `xtabs`.

`write.ftable` writes a flat table to a file, which is useful for generating ‘pretty’ ASCII representations of contingency tables. Different versions are available via the `method` argument, which may be useful, for example, for constructing LaTeX tables.

References

Agresti, A. (1990) *Categorical data analysis*. New York: Wiley.

See Also

`ftable` for more information on flat contingency tables.

Examples

```
## Agresti (1990), page 157, Table 5.8.
## Not in ftable standard format, but o.k.
file <- tempfile()
cat("          Intercourse\n",
    "Race Gender   Yes No\n",
    "White Male     43 134\n",
    "      Female    26 149\n",
    "Black Male      29  23\n",
    "      Female     22  36\n",
    file = file)
file.show(file)
ft1 <- read.ftable(file)
ft1
unlink(file)

## Agresti (1990), page 297, Table 8.16.
## Almost o.k., but misses the name of the row variable.
file <- tempfile()
cat("          \"Tonsil Size\"\n",
    "          \"Not Enl.\" \"Enl.\" \"Greatly Enl.\"\n",
    "Noncarriers  497    560    269\n",
    "Carriers     19     29     24\n",
    file = file)
file.show(file)
ft <- read.ftable(file, skip = 2,
                  row.var.names = "Status",
                  col.vars = list("Tonsil Size" =
                                c("Not Enl.", "Enl.", "Greatly Enl.")))
ft
unlink(file)

ft22 <- ftable(Titanic, row.vars = 2:1, col.vars = 4:3)
write.ftable(ft22, quote = FALSE)
write.ftable(ft22, quote = FALSE, method="row.compact")
write.ftable(ft22, quote = FALSE, method="col.compact")
```

```
write.ftable(ft22, quote = FALSE, method="compact")
```

rect.hclust

*Draw Rectangles Around Hierarchical Clusters***Description**

Draws rectangles around the branches of a dendrogram highlighting the corresponding clusters. First the dendrogram is cut at a certain level, then a rectangle is drawn around selected branches.

Usage

```
rect.hclust(tree, k = NULL, which = NULL, x = NULL, h = NULL,
            border = 2, cluster = NULL)
```

Arguments

tree	an object of the type produced by hclust.
k, h	Scalar. Cut the dendrogram such that either exactly k clusters are produced or by cutting at height h.
which, x	A vector selecting the clusters around which a rectangle should be drawn. which selects clusters by number (from left to right in the tree), x selects clusters containing the respective horizontal coordinates. Default is which = 1:k.
border	Vector with border colors for the rectangles.
cluster	Optional vector with cluster memberships as returned by cutree(hclust.obj, k = k), can be specified for efficiency if already computed.

Value

(Invisibly) returns a list where each element contains a vector of data points contained in the respective cluster.

See Also

[hclust](#), [identify.hclust](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

hca <- hclust(dist(USArrests))
plot(hca)
rect.hclust(hca, k = 3, border = "red")
x <- rect.hclust(hca, h = 50, which = c(2,7), border = 3:4)
x
```

relevel	<i>Reorder Levels of Factor</i>
---------	---------------------------------

Description

The levels of a factor are re-ordered so that the level specified by `ref` is first and the others are moved down. This is useful for `contr.treatment` contrasts which take the first level as the reference.

Usage

```
relevel(x, ref, ...)
```

Arguments

- `x` An unordered factor.
- `ref` The reference level.
- `...` Additional arguments for future methods.

Value

A factor of the same length as `x`.

See Also

[factor](#), [contr.treatment](#), [levels](#), [reorder](#).

Examples

```
warpbreaks$tension <- relevel(warpbreaks$tension, ref = "M")
summary(lm(breaks ~ wool + tension, data = warpbreaks))
```

reorder.default	<i>Reorder Levels of a Factor</i>
-----------------	-----------------------------------

Description

`reorder` is a generic function. The "default" method treats its first argument as a categorical variable, and reorders its levels based on the values of a second variable, usually numeric.

Usage

```
reorder(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
reorder(x, X, FUN = mean, ...,
        order = is.ordered(x))
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	An atomic vector, usually a factor (possibly ordered). The vector is treated as a categorical variable whose levels will be reordered. If <code>x</code> is not a factor, its unique values will be used as the implicit levels.
<code>X</code>	a vector of the same length as <code>x</code> , whose subset of values for each unique level of <code>x</code> determines the eventual order of that level.
<code>FUN</code>	a function whose first argument is a vector and returns a scalar, to be applied to each subset of <code>X</code> determined by the levels of <code>x</code> .
<code>...</code>	optional: extra arguments supplied to <code>FUN</code>
<code>order</code>	logical, whether return value will be an ordered factor rather than a factor.

Value

A factor or an ordered factor (depending on the value of `order`), with the order of the levels determined by `FUN` applied to `X` grouped by `x`. The levels are ordered such that the values returned by `FUN` are in increasing order. Empty levels will be dropped.

Additionally, the values of `FUN` applied to the subsets of `X` (in the original order of the levels of `x`) is returned as the "scores" attribute.

Author(s)

Deepayan Sarkar <deepayan.sarkar@r-project.org>

See Also

[reorder.dendrogram](#), [levels](#), [relevel](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

bymedian <- with(InsectSprays, reorder(spray, count, median))
boxplot(count ~ bymedian, data = InsectSprays,
        xlab = "Type of spray", ylab = "Insect count",
        main = "InsectSprays data", varwidth = TRUE,
        col = "lightgray")
```

`reorder.dendrogram` *Reorder a Dendrogram*

Description

A method for the generic function [reorder](#).

There are many different orderings of a dendrogram that are consistent with the structure imposed. This function takes a dendrogram and a vector of values and reorders the dendrogram in the order of the supplied vector, maintaining the constraints on the dendrogram.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'dendrogram'
reorder(x, wts, agglo.FUN = sum, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	the (dendrogram) object to be reordered
<code>wts</code>	numeric weights (arbitrary values) for reordering.
<code>agglo.FUN</code>	a function for weights agglomeration, see below.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments

Details

Using the weights `wts`, the leaves of the dendrogram are reordered so as to be in an order as consistent as possible with the weights. At each node, the branches are ordered in increasing weights where the weight of a branch is defined as $f(w_j)$ where f is `agglo.FUN` and w_j is the weight of the j -th sub branch).

Value

A dendrogram where each node has a further attribute value with its corresponding weight.

Author(s)

R. Gentleman and M. Maechler

See Also

[reorder.](#)

[rev.dendrogram](#) which simply reverses the nodes' order; [heatmap](#), [cophenetic](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

set.seed(123)
x <- rnorm(10)
hc <- hclust(dist(x))
dd <- as.dendrogram(hc)
dd.reorder <- reorder(dd, 10:1)
plot(dd, main = "random dendrogram 'dd'")

op <- par(mfcol = 1:2)
plot(dd.reorder, main = "reorder(dd, 10:1)")
plot(reorder(dd, 10:1, agglo.FUN = mean), main = "reorder(dd, 10:1, mean)")
par(op)
```

replications	<i>Number of Replications of Terms</i>
--------------	--

Description

Returns a vector or a list of the number of replicates for each term in the formula.

Usage

```
replications(formula, data = NULL, na.action)
```

Arguments

formula	a formula or a terms object or a data frame.
data	a data frame used to find the objects in formula.
na.action	function for handling missing values. Defaults to a <code>na.action</code> attribute of data, then a setting of the option <code>na.action</code> , or <code>na.fail</code> if that is not set.

Details

If formula is a data frame and data is missing, formula is used for data with the formula `~ ..`

Any character vectors in the formula are coerced to factors.

Value

A vector or list with one entry for each term in the formula giving the number(s) of replications for each level. If all levels are balanced (have the same number of replications) the result is a vector, otherwise it is a list with a component for each terms, as a vector, matrix or array as required.

A test for balance is `!is.list(replications(formula,data))`.

Author(s)

The design was inspired by the S function of the same name described in Chambers *et al* (1992).

References

Chambers, J. M., Freeny, A and Heiberger, R. M. (1992) *Analysis of variance; designed experiments*. Chapter 5 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[model.tables](#)

Examples

```
## From Venables and Ripley (2002) p.165.
N <- c(0,1,0,1,1,1,0,0,0,1,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,1,0,0)
P <- c(1,1,0,0,0,1,0,1,1,1,0,0,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,0)
K <- c(1,0,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,0,1,1,1,0,1,0)
yield <- c(49.5,62.8,46.8,57.0,59.8,58.5,55.5,56.0,62.8,55.8,69.5,
55.0, 62.0,48.8,45.5,44.2,52.0,51.5,49.8,48.8,57.2,59.0,53.2,56.0)

npk <- data.frame(block = gl(6,4), N = factor(N), P = factor(P),
                  K = factor(K), yield = yield)
replications(~ . - yield, npk)
```

reshape	<i>Reshape Grouped Data</i>
---------	-----------------------------

Description

This function reshapes a data frame between ‘wide’ format with repeated measurements in separate columns of the same record and ‘long’ format with the repeated measurements in separate records.

Usage

```
reshape(data, varying = NULL, v.names = NULL, timevar = "time",
        idvar = "id", ids = 1:NROW(data),
        times = seq_along(varying[[1]]),
        drop = NULL, direction, new.row.names = NULL,
        sep = ".",
        split = if (sep == "") {
          list(regexp = "[A-Za-z][0-9]", include = TRUE)
        } else {
          list(regexp = sep, include = FALSE, fixed = TRUE)}
)
```

Arguments

data	a data frame
varying	names of sets of variables in the wide format that correspond to single variables in long format (‘time-varying’). This is canonically a list of vectors of variable names, but it can optionally be a matrix of names, or a single vector of names. In each case, the names can be replaced by indices which are interpreted as referring to names(data). See ‘Details’ for more details and options.
v.names	names of variables in the long format that correspond to multiple variables in the wide format. See ‘Details’.
timevar	the variable in long format that differentiates multiple records from the same group or individual. If more than one record matches, the first will be taken (with a warning).

<code>idvar</code>	Names of one or more variables in long format that identify multiple records from the same group/individual. These variables may also be present in wide format.
<code>ids</code>	the values to use for a newly created <code>idvar</code> variable in long format.
<code>times</code>	the values to use for a newly created <code>timevar</code> variable in long format. See ‘Details’.
<code>drop</code>	a vector of names of variables to drop before reshaping.
<code>direction</code>	character string, partially matched to either "wide" to reshape to wide format, or "long" to reshape to long format.
<code>new.row.names</code>	character or NULL: a non-null value will be used for the row names of the result.
<code>sep</code>	A character vector of length 1, indicating a separating character in the variable names in the wide format. This is used for guessing <code>v.names</code> and <code>times</code> arguments based on the names in <code>varying</code> . If <code>sep == ""</code> , the split is just before the first numeral that follows an alphabetic character. This is also used to create variable names when reshaping to wide format.
<code>split</code>	A list with three components, <code>regexp</code> , <code>include</code> , and (optionally) <code>fixed</code> . This allows an extended interface to variable name splitting. See ‘Details’.

Details

The arguments to this function are described in terms of longitudinal data, as that is the application motivating the functions. A ‘wide’ longitudinal dataset will have one record for each individual with some time-constant variables that occupy single columns and some time-varying variables that occupy a column for each time point. In ‘long’ format there will be multiple records for each individual, with some variables being constant across these records and others varying across the records. A ‘long’ format dataset also needs a ‘time’ variable identifying which time point each record comes from and an ‘id’ variable showing which records refer to the same person.

If the data frame resulted from a previous reshape then the operation can be reversed simply by `reshape(a)`. The `direction` argument is optional and the other arguments are stored as attributes on the data frame.

If `direction = "wide"` and no `varying` or `v.names` arguments are supplied it is assumed that all variables except `idvar` and `timevar` are time-varying. They are all expanded into multiple variables in wide format.

If `direction = "long"` the `varying` argument can be a vector of column names (or a corresponding index). The function will attempt to guess the `v.names` and `times` from these names. The default is variable names like `x.1`, `x.2`, where `sep = "."` specifies to split at the dot and drop it from the name. To have alphabetic followed by numeric times use `sep = ""`.

Variable name splitting as described above is only attempted in the case where `varying` is an atomic vector, if it is a list or a matrix, `v.names` and `times` will generally need to be specified, although they will default to, respectively, the first variable name in each set, and sequential times.

Also, guessing is not attempted if `v.names` is given explicitly. Notice that the order of variables in `varying` is like `x.1,y.1,x.2,y.2`.

The `split` argument should not usually be necessary. The `split$regexp` component is passed to either `strsplit` or `regexpr`, where the latter is used if `split$include` is `TRUE`, in which case the splitting occurs after the first character of the matched string. In the `strsplit` case, the separator is not included in the result, and it is possible to specify fixed-string matching using `split$fixed`.

Value

The reshaped data frame with added attributes to simplify reshaping back to the original form.

See Also

[stack](#), [aperm](#); [relist](#) for reshaping the result of [unlist](#).

Examples

```
summary(Indometh)
wide <- reshape(Indometh, v.names = "conc", idvar = "Subject",
                timevar = "time", direction = "wide")
wide

reshape(wide, direction = "long")
reshape(wide, idvar = "Subject", varying = list(2:12),
        v.names = "conc", direction = "long")

## times need not be numeric
df <- data.frame(id = rep(1:4, rep(2,4)),
                 visit = I(rep(c("Before","After"), 4)),
                 x = rnorm(4), y = runif(4))
df
reshape(df, timevar = "visit", idvar = "id", direction = "wide")
## warns that y is really varying
reshape(df, timevar = "visit", idvar = "id", direction = "wide", v.names = "x")

## unbalanced 'long' data leads to NA fill in 'wide' form
df2 <- df[1:7, ]
df2
reshape(df2, timevar = "visit", idvar = "id", direction = "wide")

## Alternative regular expressions for guessing names
df3 <- data.frame(id = 1:4, age = c(40,50,60,50), dose1 = c(1,2,1,2),
                 dose2 = c(2,1,2,1), dose4 = c(3,3,3,3))
reshape(df3, direction = "long", varying = 3:5, sep = "")

## an example that isn't longitudinal data
state.x77 <- as.data.frame(state.x77)
long <- reshape(state.x77, idvar = "state", ids = row.names(state.x77),
               times = names(state.x77), timevar = "Characteristic",
               varying = list(names(state.x77)), direction = "long")

reshape(long, direction = "wide")

reshape(long, direction = "wide", new.row.names = unique(long$state))

## multiple id variables
df3 <- data.frame(school = rep(1:3, each = 4), class = rep(9:10, 6),
                 time = rep(c(1,1,2,2), 3), score = rnorm(12))
```

```
wide <- reshape(df3, idvar = c("school","class"), direction = "wide")
wide
## transform back
reshape(wide)
```

residuals

Extract Model Residuals

Description

`residuals` is a generic function which extracts model residuals from objects returned by modeling functions.

The abbreviated form `resid` is an alias for `residuals`. It is intended to encourage users to access object components through an accessor function rather than by directly referencing an object slot.

All object classes which are returned by model fitting functions should provide a `residuals` method. (Note that the method is for ‘`residuals`’ and not ‘`resid`’.)

Methods can make use of [naresid](#) methods to compensate for the omission of missing values. The default, [nls](#) and [smooth.spline](#) methods do.

Usage

```
residuals(object, ...)
resid(object, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	an object for which the extraction of model residuals is meaningful.
<code>...</code>	other arguments.

Value

Residuals extracted from the object `object`.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[coefficients](#), [fitted.values](#), [glm](#), [lm](#).

[influence.measures](#) for standardized ([rstandard](#)) and studentized ([rstudent](#)) residuals.

runmed

*Running Medians – Robust Scatter Plot Smoothing***Description**

Compute running medians of odd span. This is the ‘most robust’ scatter plot smoothing possible. For efficiency (and historical reason), you can use one of two different algorithms giving identical results.

Usage

```
runmed(x, k, endrule = c("median", "keep", "constant"),
       algorithm = NULL, print.level = 0)
```

Arguments

x	numeric vector, the ‘dependent’ variable to be smoothed.
k	integer width of median window; must be odd. Turlach had a default of $k \leftarrow 1 + 2 * \min((n-1) \% 2, \text{ceiling}(0.1*n))$. Use $k = 3$ for ‘minimal’ robust smoothing eliminating isolated outliers.
endrule	character string indicating how the values at the beginning and the end (of the data) should be treated. Can be abbreviated. Possible values are: "keep" keeps the first and last k_2 values at both ends, where k_2 is the half-bandwidth $k_2 = k \% 2$, i.e., $y[j] = x[j]$ for $j \in \{1, \dots, k_2; n - k_2 + 1, \dots, n\}$; "constant" copies $\text{median}(y[1:k_2])$ to the first values and analogously for the last ones making the smoothed ends <i>constant</i> ; "median" the default, smooths the ends by using symmetrical medians of subsequently smaller bandwidth, but for the very first and last value where Tukey’s robust end-point rule is applied, see smoothEnds .
algorithm	character string (partially matching "Turlach" or "Stuetzle") or the default NULL, specifying which algorithm should be applied. The default choice depends on $n = \text{length}(x)$ and k where "Turlach" will be used for larger problems.
print.level	integer, indicating verbosity of algorithm; should rarely be changed by average users.

Details

Apart from the end values, the result $y = \text{runmed}(x, k)$ simply has $y[j] = \text{median}(x[(j-k_2):(j+k_2)])$ ($k = 2*k_2+1$), computed very efficiently.

The two algorithms are internally entirely different:

"Turlach" is the Härdle–Steiger algorithm (see Ref.) as implemented by Berwin Turlach. A tree algorithm is used, ensuring performance $O(n \log k)$ where $n = \text{length}(x)$ which is asymptotically optimal.

"Stuetzle" is the (older) Stuetzle–Friedman implementation which makes use of median *updating* when one observation enters and one leaves the smoothing window. While this performs as $O(n \times k)$ which is slower asymptotically, it is considerably faster for small k or n .

Currently long vectors are only supported for `algorithm = "Stuetzle"`.

Value

vector of smoothed values of the same length as `x` with an `attribute` `k` containing (the 'oddified') `k`.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler <maechler@stat.math.ethz.ch>, based on Fortran code from Werner Stuetzle and S-PLUS and C code from Berwin Turlach.

References

Härdle, W. and Steiger, W. (1995) [Algorithm AS 296] Optimal median smoothing, *Applied Statistics* **44**, 258–264.

Jerome H. Friedman and Werner Stuetzle (1982) *Smoothing of Scatterplots*; Report, Dep. Statistics, Stanford U., Project Orion 003.

Martin Maechler (2003) Fast Running Medians: Finite Sample and Asymptotic Optimality; working paper available from the author.

See Also

`smoothEnds` which implements Tukey's end point rule and is called by default from `runmed(*, endrule = "median")`. `smooth` uses running medians of 3 for its compound smoothers.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

utils::example(nhtemp)
myNHT <- as.vector(nhtemp)
myNHT[20] <- 2 * nhtemp[20]
plot(myNHT, type = "b", ylim = c(48, 60), main = "Running Medians Example")
lines(runmed(myNHT, 7), col = "red")

## special: multiple y values for one x
plot(cars, main = "'cars' data and runmed(dist, 3)")
lines(cars, col = "light gray", type = "c")
with(cars, lines(speed, runmed(dist, k = 3), col = 2))

## nice quadratic with a few outliers
y <- ys <- (-20:20)^2
y[c(1,10,21,41)] <- c(150, 30, 400, 450)
all(y == runmed(y, 1)) # 1-neighbourhood <==> interpolation
```

```

plot(y) ## lines(y, lwd = .1, col = "light gray")
lines(lowess(seq(y), y, f = 0.3), col = "brown")
lines(runmed(y, 7), lwd = 2, col = "blue")
lines(runmed(y, 11), lwd = 2, col = "red")

## Lowess is not robust
y <- ys ; y[21] <- 6666 ; x <- seq(y)
col <- c("black", "brown", "blue")
plot(y, col = col[1])
lines(lowess(x, y, f = 0.3), col = col[2])

lines(runmed(y, 7), lwd = 2, col = col[3])
legend(length(y), max(y), c("data", "lowess(y, f = 0.3)", "runmed(y, 7)"),
      xjust = 1, col = col, lty = c(0, 1, 1), pch = c(1, NA, NA))

```

rWishart

*Random Wishart Distributed Matrices***Description**

Generate n random matrices, distributed according to the Wishart distribution with parameters Sigma and df, $W_p(\Sigma, m)$, $m = \text{df}$, $\Sigma = \text{Sigma}$.

Usage

```
rWishart(n, df, Sigma)
```

Arguments

n	integer sample size.
df	numeric parameter, “degrees of freedom”.
Sigma	positive definite ($p \times p$) “scale” matrix, the matrix parameter of the distribution.

Details

If X_1, \dots, X_m , $X_i \in \mathbf{R}^p$ is a sample of m independent multivariate Gaussians with mean (vector) 0, and covariance matrix Σ , the distribution of $M = X'X$ is $W_p(\Sigma, m)$.

Consequently, the expectation of M is

$$E[M] = m \times \Sigma.$$

Further, if Sigma is scalar ($p = 1$), the Wishart distribution is a scaled chi-squared (χ^2) distribution with df degrees of freedom, $W_1(\sigma^2, m) = \sigma^2 \chi_m^2$.

The component wise variance is

$$\text{Var}(M_{ij}) = m(\Sigma_{ij}^2 + \Sigma_{ii}\Sigma_{jj}).$$

Value

a numeric [array](#), say R , of dimension $p \times p \times n$, where each $R[, , i]$ is a positive definite matrix, a realization of the Wishart distribution $W_p(\Sigma, m)$, $m = \text{df}$, $\Sigma = \text{Sigma}$.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates

References

Mardia, K. V., J. T. Kent, and J. M. Bibby (1979) *Multivariate Analysis*, London: Academic Press.

See Also

[cov](#), [rnorm](#), [rchisq](#).

Examples

```
## Artificial
S <- toeplitz((10:1)/10)
set.seed(11)
R <- rWishart(1000, 20, S)
dim(R) # 10 10 1000
mR <- apply(R, 1:2, mean) # ~= E[ Wish(S, 20) ] = 20 * S
stopifnot(all.equal(mR, 20*S, tolerance = .009))

## See Details, the variance is
Va <- 20*(S^2 + tcrossprod(diag(S)))
vR <- apply(R, 1:2, var)
stopifnot(all.equal(vR, Va, tolerance = 1/16))
```

scatter.smooth

Scatter Plot with Smooth Curve Fitted by Loess

Description

Plot and add a smooth curve computed by loess to a scatter plot.

Usage

```
scatter.smooth(x, y = NULL, span = 2/3, degree = 1,
  family = c("symmetric", "gaussian"),
  xlab = NULL, ylab = NULL,
  ylim = range(y, pred$y, na.rm = TRUE),
  evaluation = 50, ..., lpars = list())

loess.smooth(x, y, span = 2/3, degree = 1,
  family = c("symmetric", "gaussian"), evaluation = 50, ...)
```


Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	the <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> arguments provide the <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> coordinates for the plot. Any reasonable way of defining the coordinates is acceptable. See the function xy.coords for details.
<code>span</code>	smoothness parameter for loess.
<code>degree</code>	degree of local polynomial used.
<code>family</code>	if "gaussian" fitting is by least-squares, and if <code>family = "symmetric"</code> a re-descending M estimator is used. Can be abbreviated.
<code>xlab</code>	label for <code>x</code> axis.
<code>ylab</code>	label for <code>y</code> axis.
<code>ylim</code>	the <code>y</code> limits of the plot.
<code>evaluation</code>	number of points at which to evaluate the smooth curve.
<code>...</code>	For <code>scatter.smooth()</code> , graphical parameters, passed to <code>plot()</code> only. For <code>loess.smooth</code> , control parameters passed to loess.control .
<code>lpars</code>	a list of arguments to be passed to lines() .

Details

`loess.smooth` is an auxiliary function which evaluates the loess smooth at evaluation equally spaced points covering the range of `x`.

Value

For `scatter.smooth`, none.

For `loess.smooth`, a list with two components, `x` (the grid of evaluation points) and `y` (the smoothed values at the grid points).

See Also

[loess](#); [smoothScatter](#) for scatter plots with smoothed *density* color representation.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

with(cars, scatter.smooth(speed, dist))
## or with dotted thick smoothed line results :
with(cars, scatter.smooth(speed, dist, lpars =
  list(col = "red", lwd = 3, lty = 3)))
```

screeplot

Screeplots

Description

`screeplot.default` plots the variances against the number of the principal component. This is also the plot method for classes `"princomp"` and `"prcomp"`.

Usage

```
## Default S3 method:
screeplot(x, npcs = min(10, length(x$sdev)),
          type = c("barplot", "lines"),
          main = deparse(substitute(x)), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object containing a <code>sdev</code> component, such as that returned by <code>princomp()</code> and <code>prcomp()</code> .
<code>npcs</code>	the number of components to be plotted.
<code>type</code>	the type of plot. Can be abbreviated.
<code>main, ...</code>	graphics parameters.

References

Mardia, K. V., J. T. Kent and J. M. Bibby (1979). *Multivariate Analysis*, London: Academic Press.

Venables, W. N. and B. D. Ripley (2002). *Modern Applied Statistics with S*, Springer-Verlag.

See Also

`princomp` and `prcomp`.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## The variances of the variables in the
## USArrests data vary by orders of magnitude, so scaling is appropriate
(pc.cr <- princomp(USArrests, cor = TRUE)) # inappropriate
screeplot(pc.cr)

fit <- princomp(covmat = Harman74.cor)
screeplot(fit)
screeplot(fit, npcs = 24, type = "lines")
```

sd	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
----	---------------------------

Description

This function computes the standard deviation of the values in `x`. If `na.rm` is `TRUE` then missing values are removed before computation proceeds.

Usage

```
sd(x, na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a numeric vector or an R object which is coercible to one by <code>as.double(x)</code> .
<code>na.rm</code>	logical. Should missing values be removed?

Details

Like `var` this uses denominator $n - 1$.

The standard deviation of a zero-length vector (after removal of NAs if `na.rm = TRUE`) is not defined and gives an error. The standard deviation of a length-one vector is NA.

See Also

`var` for its square, and `mad`, the most robust alternative.

Examples

```
sd(1:2) ^ 2
```

se.contrast	<i>Standard Errors for Contrasts in Model Terms</i>
-------------	---

Description

Returns the standard errors for one or more contrasts in an aov object.

Usage

```
se.contrast(object, ...)
## S3 method for class 'aov'
se.contrast(object, contrast.obj,
             coef = contr.helmert(ncol(contrast))[, 1],
             data = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	A suitable fit, usually from <code>aov</code> .
<code>contrast.obj</code>	The contrasts for which standard errors are requested. This can be specified via a list or via a matrix. A single contrast can be specified by a list of logical vectors giving the cells to be contrasted. Multiple contrasts should be specified by a matrix, each column of which is a numerical contrast vector (summing to zero).
<code>coef</code>	used when <code>contrast.obj</code> is a list; it should be a vector of the same length as the list with zero sum. The default value is the first Helmert contrast, which contrasts the first and second cell means specified by the list.
<code>data</code>	The data frame used to evaluate <code>contrast.obj</code> .
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Contrasts are usually used to test if certain means are significantly different; it can be easier to use `se.contrast` than compute them directly from the coefficients.

In multistratum models, the contrasts can appear in more than one stratum, in which case the standard errors are computed in the lowest stratum and adjusted for efficiencies and comparisons between strata. (See the comments in the note in the help for [aov](#) about using orthogonal contrasts.) Such standard errors are often conservative.

Suitable matrices for use with `coef` can be found by calling [contrasts](#) and indexing the columns by a factor.

Value

A vector giving the standard errors for each contrast.

See Also

[contrasts](#), [model.tables](#)

Examples

```
## From Venables and Ripley (2002) p.165.
N <- c(0,1,0,1,1,1,0,0,0,1,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0)
P <- c(1,1,0,0,0,1,0,1,1,1,0,0,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,1,0)
K <- c(1,0,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,0,0,1,1,1,0,1,0)
yield <- c(49.5,62.8,46.8,57.0,59.8,58.5,55.5,56.0,62.8,55.8,69.5,
55.0, 62.0,48.8,45.5,44.2,52.0,51.5,49.8,48.8,57.2,59.0,53.2,56.0)

npk <- data.frame(block = gl(6,4), N = factor(N), P = factor(P),
                  K = factor(K), yield = yield)

## Set suitable contrasts.
options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.poly"))
npk.aov1 <- aov(yield ~ block + N + K, data = npk)
se.contrast(npk.aov1, list(N == "0", N == "1"), data = npk)
# or via a matrix
```

```

cont <- matrix(c(-1,1), 2, 1, dimnames = list(NULL, "N"))
se.contrast(npk.aov1, cont[N, , drop = FALSE]/12, data = npk)

## test a multi-stratum model
npk.aov2 <- aov(yield ~ N + K + Error(block/(N + K)), data = npk)
se.contrast(npk.aov2, list(N == "0", N == "1"))

## an example looking at an interaction contrast
## Dataset from R.E. Kirk (1995)
## 'Experimental Design: procedures for the behavioral sciences'
score <- c(12, 8,10, 6, 8, 4,10,12, 8, 6,10,14, 9, 7, 9, 5,11,12,
          7,13, 9, 9, 5,11, 8, 7, 3, 8,12,10,13,14,19, 9,16,14)
A <- gl(2, 18, labels = c("a1", "a2"))
B <- rep(gl(3, 6, labels = c("b1", "b2", "b3")), 2)
fit <- aov(score ~ A*B)
cont <- c(1, -1)[A] * c(1, -1, 0)[B]
sum(cont)          # 0
sum(cont*score)    # value of the contrast
se.contrast(fit, as.matrix(cont))
(t.stat <- sum(cont*score)/se.contrast(fit, as.matrix(cont)))
summary(fit, split = list(B = 1:2), expand.split = TRUE)
## t.stat^2 is the F value on the A:B: C1 line (with Helmert contrasts)
## Now look at all three interaction contrasts
cont <- c(1, -1)[A] * cbind(c(1, -1, 0), c(1, 0, -1), c(0, 1, -1))[B,]
se.contrast(fit, cont) # same, due to balance.
rm(A, B, score)

## multi-stratum example where efficiencies play a role
utils::example(eff.aovlist)
fit <- aov(Yield ~ A + B * C + Error(Block), data = aovdat)
cont1 <- c(-1, 1)[A]/32 # Helmert contrasts
cont2 <- c(-1, 1)[B] * c(-1, 1)[C]/32
cont <- cbind(A = cont1, BC = cont2)
colSums(cont*Yield) # values of the contrasts
se.contrast(fit, as.matrix(cont))
# comparison with lme
library(nlme)
fit2 <- lme(Yield ~ A + B*C, random = ~1 | Block, data = aovdat)
summary(fit2)$tTable # same estimates, similar (but smaller) se's.

```

Description

Construct self-starting nonlinear models.

Usage

```
selfStart(model, initial, parameters, template)
```

Arguments

<code>model</code>	a function object defining a nonlinear model or a nonlinear formula object of the form <code>~expression</code> .
<code>initial</code>	a function object, taking three arguments: <code>mCall</code> , <code>data</code> , and <code>LHS</code> , representing, respectively, a matched call to the function <code>model</code> , a data frame in which to interpret the variables in <code>mCall</code> , and the expression from the left-hand side of the model formula in the call to <code>nls</code> . This function should return initial values for the parameters in <code>model</code> .
<code>parameters</code>	a character vector specifying the terms on the right hand side of <code>model</code> for which initial estimates should be calculated. Passed as the <code>namevec</code> argument to the <code>deriv</code> function.
<code>template</code>	an optional prototype for the calling sequence of the returned object, passed as the <code>function.arg</code> argument to the <code>deriv</code> function. By default, a template is generated with the covariates in <code>model</code> coming first and the parameters in <code>model</code> coming last in the calling sequence.

Details

This function is generic; methods functions can be written to handle specific classes of objects.

Value

a function object of class "selfStart", for the formula method obtained by applying `deriv` to the right hand side of the model formula. An `initial` attribute (defined by the `initial` argument) is added to the function to calculate starting estimates for the parameters in the model automatically.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

`nls`, `getInitial`. Each of the following are "selfStart" models (with examples) [SSasympt](#), [SSasymptOff](#), [SSasymptOrig](#), [SSbiexp](#), [SSfol](#), [SSfpl](#), [SSgompertz](#), [SSlogis](#), [SSmicmen](#), [SSweibull](#)

Examples

```
## self-starting logistic model

SSlogis <- selfStart(~ Asym/(1 + exp((xmid - x)/scal)),
  function(mCall, data, LHS)
  {
    xy <- sortedXyData(mCall[["x"]], LHS, data)
    if(nrow(xy) < 4) {
```

```

    stop("Too few distinct x values to fit a logistic")
  }
  z <- xy[["y"]]
  if (min(z) <= 0) { z <- z + 0.05 * max(z) } # avoid zeroes
  z <- z/(1.05 * max(z)) # scale to within unit height
  xy[["z"]] <- log(z/(1 - z)) # logit transformation
  aux <- coef(lm(x ~ z, xy))
  parameters(xy) <- list(xmid = aux[1], scal = aux[2])
  pars <- as.vector(coef(nls(y ~ 1/(1 + exp((xmid - x)/scal)),
    data = xy, algorithm = "plinear")))
  setNames(c(pars[3], pars[1], pars[2]),
    mCall[c("Asym", "xmid", "scal")])
}, c("Asym", "xmid", "scal"))

# 'first.order.log.model' is a function object defining a first order
# compartment model
# 'first.order.log.initial' is a function object which calculates initial
# values for the parameters in 'first.order.log.model'

# self-starting first order compartment model
## Not run:
SSfol <- selfStart(first.order.log.model, first.order.log.initial)

## End(Not run)

## Explore the self-starting models already available in R's "stats":
pos.st <- which("package:stats" == search())
mSS <- apropos("^SS..", where = TRUE, ignore.case = FALSE)
(mSS <- unname(mSS[names(mSS) == pos.st]))
fSS <- sapply(mSS, get, pos = pos.st, mode = "function")
all(sapply(fSS, inherits, "selfStart")) # -> TRUE

## Show the argument list of each self-starting function:
str(fSS, give.attr = FALSE)

```

setNames

Set the Names in an Object

Description

This is a convenience function that sets the names on an object and returns the object. It is most useful at the end of a function definition where one is creating the object to be returned and would prefer not to store it under a name just so the names can be assigned.

Usage

```
setNames(object = nm, nm)
```

Arguments

object	an object for which a names attribute will be meaningful
nm	a character vector of names to assign to the object

Value

An object of the same sort as object with the new names assigned.

Author(s)

Douglas M. Bates and Saikat DebRoy

See Also

[unname](#) for removing names.

Examples

```
setNames( 1:3, c("foo", "bar", "baz") )
# this is just a short form of
tmp <- 1:3
names(tmp) <- c("foo", "bar", "baz")
tmp

## special case of character vector, using default
setNames(nm = c("First", "2nd"))
```

shapiro.test

Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test

Description

Performs the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality.

Usage

```
shapiro.test(x)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector of data values. Missing values are allowed, but the number of non-missing values must be between 3 and 5000.
---	---

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

statistic	the value of the Shapiro-Wilk statistic.
p.value	an approximate p-value for the test. This is said in Royston (1995) to be adequate for $p.value < 0.1$.
method	the character string "Shapiro-Wilk normality test".
data.name	a character string giving the name(s) of the data.

Source

The algorithm used is a C translation of the Fortran code described in Royston (1995) and found at <http://lib.stat.cmu.edu/apstat/R94>. The calculation of the p value is exact for $n = 3$, otherwise approximations are used, separately for $4 \leq n \leq 11$ and $n \geq 12$.

References

- Patrick Royston (1982) An extension of Shapiro and Wilk's W test for normality to large samples. *Applied Statistics*, **31**, 115–124.
- Patrick Royston (1982) Algorithm AS 181: The W test for Normality. *Applied Statistics*, **31**, 176–180.
- Patrick Royston (1995) Remark AS R94: A remark on Algorithm AS 181: The W test for normality. *Applied Statistics*, **44**, 547–551.

See Also

[qqnorm](#) for producing a normal quantile-quantile plot.

Examples

```
shapiro.test(rnorm(100, mean = 5, sd = 3))
shapiro.test(runif(100, min = 2, max = 4))
```

SignRank

Distribution of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Statistic

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the distribution of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank statistic obtained from a sample with size n .

Usage

```
dsignrank(x, n, log = FALSE)
psignrank(q, n, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qsignrank(p, n, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rsignrank(nn, n)
```

Arguments

<code>x, q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>nn</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(nn) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>n</code>	number(s) of observations in the sample(s). A positive integer, or a vector of such integers.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as <code>log(p)</code> .
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

This distribution is obtained as follows. Let x be a sample of size n from a continuous distribution symmetric about the origin. Then the Wilcoxon signed rank statistic is the sum of the ranks of the absolute values $x[i]$ for which $x[i]$ is positive. This statistic takes values between 0 and $n(n+1)/2$, and its mean and variance are $n(n+1)/4$ and $n(n+1)(2n+1)/24$, respectively.

If either of the first two arguments is a vector, the recycling rule is used to do the calculations for all combinations of the two up to the length of the longer vector.

Value

`dsignrank` gives the density, `psignrank` gives the distribution function, `qsignrank` gives the quantile function, and `rsignrank` generates random deviates.

The length of the result is determined by `nn` for `rsignrank`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `nn` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Author(s)

Kurt Hornik; efficiency improvement by Ivo Ugrina.

See Also

[wilcox.test](#) to calculate the statistic from data, find p values and so on.

[Distributions](#) for standard distributions, including [dwilcox](#) for the distribution of *two-sample* Wilcoxon rank sum statistic.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

par(mfrow = c(2,2))
for(n in c(4:5,10,40)) {
  x <- seq(0, n*(n+1)/2, length = 501)
  plot(x, dsignrank(x, n = n), type = "l",
       main = paste0("dsignrank(x, n = ", n, ")"))
}
```

}

simulate	<i>Simulate Responses</i>
----------	---------------------------

Description

Simulate one or more responses from the distribution corresponding to a fitted model object.

Usage

```
simulate(object, nsim = 1, seed = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

object	an object representing a fitted model.
nsim	number of response vectors to simulate. Defaults to 1.
seed	an object specifying if and how the random number generator should be initialized ('seeded'). For the "lm" method, either NULL or an integer that will be used in a call to <code>set.seed</code> before simulating the response vectors. If set, the value is saved as the "seed" attribute of the returned value. The default, NULL will not change the random generator state, and return <code>.Random.seed</code> as the "seed" attribute, see 'Value'.
...	additional optional arguments.

Details

This is a generic function. Consult the individual modeling functions for details on how to use this function.

Package **stats** has a method for "lm" objects which is used for **lm** and **glm** fits. There is a method for fits from `glm.nb` in package **MASS**, and hence the case of negative binomial families is not covered by the "lm" method.

The methods for linear models fitted by `lm` or `glm(family = "gaussian")` assume that any weights which have been supplied are inversely proportional to the error variance. For other GLMs the (optional) `simulate` component of the **family** object is used—there is no appropriate simulation method for 'quasi' models as they are specified only up to two moments.

For binomial and Poisson GLMs the dispersion is fixed at one. Integer prior weights w_i can be interpreted as meaning that observation i is an average of w_i observations, which is natural for binomials specified as proportions but less so for a Poisson, for which prior weights are ignored with a warning.

For a gamma GLM the shape parameter is estimated by maximum likelihood (using function `gamma.shape` in package **MASS**). The interpretation of weights is as multipliers to a basic shape parameter, since dispersion is inversely proportional to shape.

For an inverse gaussian GLM the model assumed is $IG(\mu_i, \lambda w_i)$ (see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Inverse_Gaussian_distribution) where λ is estimated by the inverse of the dispersion estimate for the fit. The variance is $\mu_i^3/(\lambda w_i)$ and hence inversely proportional to the prior weights. The simulation is done by function `rinvGauss` from the **SuppDists** package, which must be installed.

Value

Typically, a list of length `nsim` of simulated responses. Where appropriate the result can be a data frame (which is a special type of list).

For the "lm" method, the result is a data frame with an attribute "seed". If argument `seed` is `NULL`, the attribute is the value of `.Random.seed` before the simulation was started; otherwise it is the value of the argument with a "kind" attribute with value `as.list(RNGkind())`.

See Also

`RNG` about random number generation in R, `fitted.values` and `residuals` for related methods; `glm`, `lm` for model fitting.

There are further examples in the 'simulate.R' tests file in the sources for package **stats**.

Examples

```
x <- 1:5
mod1 <- lm(c(1:3, 7, 6) ~ x)
S1 <- simulate(mod1, nsim = 4)
## repeat the simulation:
.Random.seed <- attr(S1, "seed")
identical(S1, simulate(mod1, nsim = 4))

S2 <- simulate(mod1, nsim = 200, seed = 101)
rowMeans(S2) # should be about the same as
fitted(mod1)

## repeat identically:
(sseed <- attr(S2, "seed")) # seed; RNGkind as attribute
stopifnot(identical(S2, simulate(mod1, nsim = 200, seed = sseed)))

## To be sure about the proper RNGkind, e.g., after
RNGversion("2.7.0")
## first set the RNG kind, then simulate
do.call(RNGkind, attr(sseed, "kind"))
identical(S2, simulate(mod1, nsim = 200, seed = sseed))

## Binomial GLM examples
yb1 <- matrix(c(4, 4, 5, 7, 8, 6, 6, 5, 3, 2), ncol = 2)
modb1 <- glm(yb1 ~ x, family = binomial)
S3 <- simulate(modb1, nsim = 4)
# each column of S3 is a two-column matrix.

x2 <- sort(runif(100))
yb2 <- rbinom(100, prob = plogis(2*(x2-1)), size = 1)
```

```
yb2 <- factor(1 + yb2, labels = c("failure", "success"))
modb2 <- glm(yb2 ~ x2, family = binomial)
S4 <- simulate(modb2, nsim = 4)
# each column of S4 is a factor
```

smooth	<i>Tukey's (Running Median) Smoothing</i>
--------	---

Description

Tukey's smoothers, *3RS3R*, *3RSS*, *3R*, etc.

Usage

```
smooth(x, kind = c("3RS3R", "3RSS", "3RSR", "3R", "3", "S"),
       twiceit = FALSE, endrule = c("Tukey", "copy"), do.ends = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	a vector or time series
kind	a character string indicating the kind of smoother required; defaults to "3RS3R".
twiceit	logical, indicating if the result should be 'twiced'. Twicing a smoother $S(y)$ means $S(y) + S(y - S(y))$, i.e., adding smoothed residuals to the smoothed values. This decreases bias (increasing variance).
endrule	a character string indicating the rule for smoothing at the boundary. Either "Tukey" (default) or "copy".
do.ends	logical, indicating if the 3-splitting of ties should also happen at the boundaries (ends). This is only used for kind = "S".

Details

3 is Tukey's short notation for running [medians](#) of length 3,
3R stands for **R**epeated 3 until convergence, and
S for **S**plitting of horizontal stretches of length 2 or 3.
Hence, 3RS3R is a concatenation of 3R, S and 3R, 3RSS similarly, whereas 3RSR means first 3R and then (S and 3) **R**epeated until convergence – which can be bad.

Value

An object of class "tukeysmooth" (which has print and summary methods) and is a vector or time series containing the smoothed values with additional attributes.

Note

S and S-PLUS use a different (somewhat better) Tukey smoother in `smooth(*)`. Note that there are other smoothing methods which provide rather better results. These were designed for hand calculations and may be used mainly for didactical purposes.

Since R version 1.2, *smooth* *does* really implement Tukey's end-point rule correctly (see argument `endrule`).

`kind = "3RSR"` has been the default till R-1.1, but it can have very bad properties, see the examples.

Note that repeated application of `smooth(*)` *does* smooth more, for the "3RS*" kinds.

References

Tukey, J. W. (1977). *Exploratory Data Analysis*, Reading Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

See Also

[runmed](#) for running medians; [lowess](#) and [loess](#); [supsmu](#) and [smooth.spline](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## see also    demo(smooth) !

x1 <- c(4, 1, 3, 6, 6, 4, 1, 6, 2, 4, 2) # very artificial
(x3R <- smooth(x1, "3R")) # 2 iterations of "3"
smooth(x3R, kind = "S")

sm.3RS <- function(x, ...)
  smooth(smooth(x, "3R", ...), "S", ...)

y <- c(1, 1, 19:1)
plot(y, main = "misbehaviour of \"3RSR\"", col.main = 3)
lines(sm.3RS(y))
lines(smooth(y))
lines(smooth(y, "3RSR"), col = 3, lwd = 2) # the horror

x <- c(8:10, 10, 0, 0, 9, 9)
plot(x, main = "breakdown of 3R and S and hence 3RSS")
matlines(cbind(smooth(x, "3R"), smooth(x, "S"), smooth(x, "3RSS"), smooth(x)))

presidents[is.na(presidents)] <- 0 # silly
summary(sm3 <- smooth(presidents, "3R"))
summary(sm2 <- smooth(presidents, "3RSS"))
summary(sm <- smooth(presidents))

all.equal(c(sm2), c(smooth(smooth(sm3, "S"), "S"))) # 3RSS === 3R S S
all.equal(c(sm), c(smooth(smooth(sm3, "S"), "3R"))) # 3RS3R === 3R S 3R

plot(presidents, main = "smooth(presidents, *) : 3R and default 3RS3R")
lines(sm3, col = 3, lwd = 1.5)
```

```
lines(sm, col = 2, lwd = 1.25)
```

smooth.spline

Fit a Smoothing Spline

Description

Fits a cubic smoothing spline to the supplied data.

Usage

```
smooth.spline(x, y = NULL, w = NULL, df, spar = NULL, cv = FALSE,
              all.knots = FALSE, nknots = .nknots.smspl,
              keep.data = TRUE, df.offset = 0, penalty = 1,
              control.spar = list(), tol = 1e-6 * IQR(x))
```

Arguments

x	a vector giving the values of the predictor variable, or a list or a two-column matrix specifying x and y.
y	responses. If y is missing or NULL, the responses are assumed to be specified by x, with x the index vector.
w	optional vector of weights of the same length as x; defaults to all 1.
df	the desired equivalent number of degrees of freedom (trace of the smoother matrix).
spar	smoothing parameter, typically (but not necessarily) in (0, 1]. The coefficient λ of the integral of the squared second derivative in the fit (penalized log likelihood) criterion is a monotone function of spar, see the details below.
cv	ordinary (TRUE) or ‘generalized’ cross-validation (GCV) when FALSE; setting it to NA skips the evaluation of leverages and any score.
all.knots	if TRUE, all distinct points in x are used as knots. If FALSE (default), a subset of x[] is used, specifically x[j] where the nknots indices are evenly spaced in 1:n, see also the next argument nknots.
nknots	integer or function giving the number of knots to use when all.knots = FALSE. If a function (as by default), the number of knots is nknots(nx). By default for $n_x > 49$ this is less than n_x , the number of unique x values, see the Note.
keep.data	logical specifying if the input data should be kept in the result. If TRUE (as per default), fitted values and residuals are available from the result.
df.offset	allows the degrees of freedom to be increased by df.offset in the GCV criterion.
penalty	the coefficient of the penalty for degrees of freedom in the GCV criterion.

- `control.spar` optional list with named components controlling the root finding when the smoothing parameter `spar` is computed, i.e., missing or NULL, see below.
- Note** that this is partly *experimental* and may change with general `spar` computation improvements!
- low:** lower bound for `spar`; defaults to -1.5 (used to implicitly default to 0 in R versions earlier than 1.4).
- high:** upper bound for `spar`; defaults to +1.5.
- tol:** the absolute precision (**tolerance**) used; defaults to 1e-4 (formerly 1e-3).
- eps:** the relative precision used; defaults to 2e-8 (formerly 0.00244).
- trace:** logical indicating if iterations should be traced.
- maxit:** integer giving the maximal number of iterations; defaults to 500.
- Note that `spar` is only searched for in the interval $[low, high]$.
- `tol` a tolerance for same-ness or uniqueness of the `x` values. The values are binned into bins of size `tol` and values which fall into the same bin are regarded as the same. Must be strictly positive (and finite).

Details

Neither `x` nor `y` are allowed to containing missing or infinite values.

The `x` vector should contain at least four distinct values. ‘Distinct’ here is controlled by `tol`: values which are regarded as the same are replaced by the first of their values and the corresponding `y` and `w` are pooled accordingly.

The computational λ used (as a function of $s = spar$) is $\lambda = r * 256^{3s-1}$ where $r = tr(X'WX)/tr(\Sigma)$, Σ is the matrix given by $\Sigma_{ij} = \int B_i''(t)B_j''(t)dt$, X is given by $X_{ij} = B_j(x_i)$, W is the diagonal matrix of weights (scaled such that its trace is n , the original number of observations) and $B_k(\cdot)$ is the k -th B-spline.

Note that with these definitions, $f_i = f(x_i)$, and the B-spline basis representation $f = Xc$ (i.e., c is the vector of spline coefficients), the penalized log likelihood is $L = (y - f)'W(y - f) + \lambda c'\Sigma c$, and hence c is the solution of the (ridge regression) $(X'WX + \lambda\Sigma)c = X'Wy$.

If `spar` is missing or NULL, the value of `df` is used to determine the degree of smoothing. If both are missing, leave-one-out cross-validation (ordinary or ‘generalized’ as determined by `cv`) is used to determine λ . Note that from the above relation,

`spar` is $s = s_0 + 0.0601 * \log \lambda$, which is intentionally *different* from the S-PLUS implementation of `smooth.spline` (where `spar` is proportional to λ). In R’s ($\log \lambda$) scale, it makes more sense to vary `spar` linearly.

Note however that currently the results may become very unreliable for `spar` values smaller than about -1 or -2. The same may happen for values larger than 2 or so. Don’t think of setting `spar` or the controls `low` and `high` outside such a safe range, unless you know what you are doing!

The ‘generalized’ cross-validation method will work correctly when there are duplicated points in `x`. However, it is ambiguous what leave-one-out cross-validation means with duplicated points, and the internal code uses an approximation that involves leaving out groups of duplicated points. `cv = TRUE` is best avoided in that case.

Value

An object of class "smooth.spline" with components

x	the <i>distinct</i> x values in increasing order, see the ‘Details’ above.
y	the fitted values corresponding to x.
w	the weights used at the unique values of x.
yin	the y values used at the unique y values.
data	only if keep.data = TRUE: itself a list with components x, y and w of the same length. These are the original $(x_i, y_i, w_i), i = 1, \dots, n$, values where data\$x may have repeated values and hence be longer than the above x component; see details.
lev	(when cv was not NA) leverages, the diagonal values of the smoother matrix.
cv.crit	cross-validation score, ‘generalized’ or true, depending on cv.
pen.crit	penalized criterion
crit	the criterion value minimized in the underlying .Fortran routine ‘sslvrq’.
df	equivalent degrees of freedom used. Note that (currently) this value may become quite imprecise when the true df is between and 1 and 2.
spar	the value of spar computed or given.
lambda	the value of λ corresponding to spar, see the details above.
iparms	named integer(3) vector where ..\$ipars["iter"] gives number of spar computing iterations used.
fit	list for use by predict.smooth.spline , with components knot: the knot sequence (including the repeated boundary knots). nk: number of coefficients or number of ‘proper’ knots plus 2. coef: coefficients for the spline basis used. min, range: numbers giving the corresponding quantities of x.
call	the matched call.

Note

The number of unique x values, $n_x = n_x$, are determined by the tol argument, equivalently to

```
nx <- length(x) - sum(duplicated( round((x - mean(x)) / tol) ))
```

The default all.knots = FALSE and nknots = .nknots.smspl, entails using only $O(n_x^{0.2})$ knots instead of n_x for $n_x > 49$. This cuts speed and memory requirements, but not drastically anymore since R version 1.5.1 where it is only $O(n_k) + O(n)$ where n_k is the number of knots.

In this case where not all unique x values are used as knots, the result is not a smoothing spline in the strict sense, but very close unless a small smoothing parameter (or large df) is used.

Author(s)

R implementation by B. D. Ripley and Martin Maechler (spar/lambda, etc).

Source

This function is based on code in the GAMFIT Fortran program by T. Hastie and R. Tibshirani (<http://lib.stat.cmu.edu/general/>), which makes use of spline code by Finbarr O'Sullivan. Its design parallels the smooth.spline function of Chambers & Hastie (1992).

References

- Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Green, P. J. and Silverman, B. W. (1994) *Nonparametric Regression and Generalized Linear Models: A Roughness Penalty Approach*. Chapman and Hall.
- Hastie, T. J. and Tibshirani, R. J. (1990) *Generalized Additive Models*. Chapman and Hall.

See Also

[predict.smooth.spline](#) for evaluating the spline and its derivatives.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

attach(cars)
plot(speed, dist, main = "data(cars) & smoothing splines")
cars.spl <- smooth.spline(speed, dist)
(cars.spl)
## This example has duplicate points, so avoid cv = TRUE

lines(cars.spl, col = "blue")
lines(smooth.spline(speed, dist, df = 10), lty = 2, col = "red")
legend(5,120,c(paste("default [C.V.] => df =",round(cars.spl$df,1)),
               "s( * , df = 10)"), col = c("blue","red"), lty = 1:2,
      bg = 'bisque')
detach()

## Residual (Tukey Anscombe) plot:
plot(residuals(cars.spl) ~ fitted(cars.spl))
abline(h = 0, col = "gray")

## consistency check:
stopifnot(all.equal(cars$dist,
                    fitted(cars.spl) + residuals(cars.spl)))

## Visualize the behavior of .nknots.smspl()
nknots <- Vectorize(.nknots.smspl) ; c.. <- adjustcolor("gray20",.5)
curve(nknots, 1, 250, n=250)
abline(0,1, lty=2, col=c..); text(90,90,"y = x", col=c.., adj=-.25)
abline(h=100,lty=2); abline(v=200, lty=2)

n <- c(1:799, seq(800, 3490, by=10), seq(3500, 10000, by = 50))
plot(n, nknots(n), type="l", main = "Vectorize(.nknots.smspl) (n)")
abline(0,1, lty=2, col=c..); text(180,180,"y = x", col=c..)
```

```

n0 <- c(50, 200, 800, 3200); c0 <- adjustcolor("blue3", .5)
lines(n0, nKnots(n0), type="h", col=c0)
axis(1, at=n0, line=-2, col.ticks=c0, col=NA, col.axis=c0)
axis(4, at=.nknots.smspl(10000), line=-.5, col=c.,col.axis=c., las=1)

##-- artificial example
y18 <- c(1:3, 5, 4, 7:3, 2*(2:5), rep(10, 4))
xx <- seq(1, length(y18), len = 201)
(s2 <- smooth.spline(y18)) # GCV
(s02 <- smooth.spline(y18, spar = 0.2))
(s02. <- smooth.spline(y18, spar = 0.2, cv = NA))
plot(y18, main = deparse(s2$call), col.main = 2)
lines(s2, col = "gray"); lines(predict(s2, xx), col = 2)
lines(predict(s02, xx), col = 3); mtext(deparse(s02$call), col = 3)

## The following shows the problematic behavior of 'spar' searching:
(s2 <- smooth.spline(y18, control =
  list(trace = TRUE, tol = 1e-6, low = -1.5)))
(s2m <- smooth.spline(y18, cv = TRUE, control =
  list(trace = TRUE, tol = 1e-6, low = -1.5)))
## both above do quite similarly (Df = 8.5 +- 0.2)

```

smoothEnds

*End Points Smoothing (for Running Medians)***Description**

Smooth end points of a vector *y* using subsequently smaller medians and Tukey's end point rule at the very end. (of odd span),

Usage

```
smoothEnds(y, k = 3)
```

Arguments

y dependent variable to be smoothed (vector).
k width of largest median window; must be odd.

Details

`smoothEnds` is used to only do the 'end point smoothing', i.e., change at most the observations closer to the beginning/end than half the window *k*. The first and last value are computed using *Tukey's end point rule*, i.e., $sm[1] = \text{median}(y[1], sm[2], 3*sm[2] - 2*sm[3])$.

Value

vector of smoothed values, the same length as *y*.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

References

John W. Tukey (1977) *Exploratory Data Analysis*, Addison.

Velleman, P.F., and Hoaglin, D.C. (1981) *ABC of EDA (Applications, Basics, and Computing of Exploratory Data Analysis)*; Duxbury.

See Also

`runmed`(*, endrule = "median") which calls `smoothEnds`().

Examples

```
require(graphics)

y <- ys <- (-20:20)^2
y [c(1,10,21,41)] <- c(100, 30, 400, 470)
s7k <- runmed(y, 7, endrule = "keep")
s7. <- runmed(y, 7, endrule = "const")
s7m <- runmed(y, 7)
col3 <- c("midnightblue", "blue", "steelblue")
plot(y, main = "Running Medians -- runmed(*, k=7, end.rule = X)")
lines(ys, col = "light gray")
matlines(cbind(s7k, s7., s7m), lwd = 1.5, lty = 1, col = col3)
legend(1, 470, paste("endrule", c("keep", "constant", "median"), sep = " = "),
      col = col3, lwd = 1.5, lty = 1)

stopifnot(identical(s7m, smoothEnds(s7k, 7)))
```

sortedXyData

Create a sortedXyData Object

Description

This is a constructor function for the class of sortedXyData objects. These objects are mostly used in the initial function for a self-starting nonlinear regression model, which will be of the selfStart class.

Usage

```
sortedXyData(x, y, data)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector or an expression that will evaluate in data to a numeric vector
y	a numeric vector or an expression that will evaluate in data to a numeric vector
data	an optional data frame in which to evaluate expressions for x and y, if they are given as expressions

Value

A sortedXyData object. This is a data frame with exactly two numeric columns, named x and y. The rows are sorted so the x column is in increasing order. Duplicate x values are eliminated by averaging the corresponding y values.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[selfStart](#), [NLSstClosestX](#), [NLSstLfAsymptote](#), [NLSstRtAsymptote](#)

Examples

```
DNase.2 <- DNase[ DNase$Run == "2", ]
sortedXyData( expression(log(conc)), expression(density), DNase.2 )
```

spec.ar

Estimate Spectral Density of a Time Series from AR Fit

Description

Fits an AR model to x (or uses the existing fit) and computes (and by default plots) the spectral density of the fitted model.

Usage

```
spec.ar(x, n.freq, order = NULL, plot = TRUE, na.action = na.fail,
        method = "yule-walker", ...)
```

Arguments

x	A univariate (not yet:or multivariate) time series or the result of a fit by ar .
n.freq	The number of points at which to plot.
order	The order of the AR model to be fitted. If omitted, the order is chosen by AIC.
plot	Plot the periodogram?
na.action	NA action function.
method	method for ar fit.
...	Graphical arguments passed to plot.spec .

Value

An object of class "spec". The result is returned invisibly if plot is true.

Warning

Some authors, for example Thomson (1990), warn strongly that AR spectra can be misleading.

Note

The multivariate case is not yet implemented.

References

Thompson, D.J. (1990) Time series analysis of Holocene climate data. *Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. A* **330**, 601–616.

Venables, W.N. and Ripley, B.D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. Fourth edition. Springer. (Especially page 402.)

See Also

[ar](#), [spectrum](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

spec.ar(1h)

spec.ar(1deaths)
spec.ar(1deaths, method = "burg")

spec.ar(log(lynx))
spec.ar(log(lynx), method = "burg", add = TRUE, col = "purple")
spec.ar(log(lynx), method = "mle", add = TRUE, col = "forest green")
spec.ar(log(lynx), method = "ols", add = TRUE, col = "blue")
```

spec.pgram

Estimate Spectral Density of a Time Series by a Smoothed Periodogram

Description

spec.pgram calculates the periodogram using a fast Fourier transform, and optionally smooths the result with a series of modified Daniell smoothers (moving averages giving half weight to the end values).

Usage

```
spec.pgram(x, spans = NULL, kernel, taper = 0.1,
           pad = 0, fast = TRUE, demean = FALSE, detrend = TRUE,
           plot = TRUE, na.action = na.fail, ...)
```

Arguments

x	univariate or multivariate time series.
spans	vector of odd integers giving the widths of modified Daniell smoothers to be used to smooth the periodogram.
kernel	alternatively, a kernel smoother of class "tskernel".
taper	specifies the proportion of data to taper. A split cosine bell taper is applied to this proportion of the data at the beginning and end of the series.
pad	proportion of data to pad. Zeros are added to the end of the series to increase its length by the proportion pad.
fast	logical; if TRUE, pad the series to a highly composite length.
demean	logical. If TRUE, subtract the mean of the series.
detrend	logical. If TRUE, remove a linear trend from the series. This will also remove the mean.
plot	plot the periodogram?
na.action	NA action function.
...	graphical arguments passed to plot.spec.

Details

The raw periodogram is not a consistent estimator of the spectral density, but adjacent values are asymptotically independent. Hence a consistent estimator can be derived by smoothing the raw periodogram, assuming that the spectral density is smooth.

The series will be automatically padded with zeros until the series length is a highly composite number in order to help the Fast Fourier Transform. This is controlled by the `fast` and not the `pad` argument.

The periodogram at zero is in theory zero as the mean of the series is removed (but this may be affected by tapering): it is replaced by an interpolation of adjacent values during smoothing, and no value is returned for that frequency.

Value

A list object of class "spec" (see [spectrum](#)) with the following additional components:

kernel	The kernel argument, or the kernel constructed from spans.
df	The distribution of the spectral density estimate can be approximated by a (scaled) chi square distribution with df degrees of freedom.
bandwidth	The equivalent bandwidth of the kernel smoother as defined by Bloomfield (1976, page 201).

taper	The value of the taper argument.
pad	The value of the pad argument.
detrend	The value of the detrend argument.
demean	The value of the demean argument.

The result is returned invisibly if plot is true.

Author(s)

Originally Martyn Plummer; kernel smoothing by Adrian Trapletti, synthesis by B.D. Ripley

References

Bloomfield, P. (1976) *Fourier Analysis of Time Series: An Introduction*. Wiley.
 Brockwell, P.J. and Davis, R.A. (1991) *Time Series: Theory and Methods*. Second edition. Springer.
 Venables, W.N. and Ripley, B.D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. Fourth edition. Springer.
 (Especially pp. 392–7.)

See Also

[spectrum](#), [spec.taper](#), [plot.spec](#), [fft](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Examples from Venables & Ripley
spectrum(ldeaths)
spectrum(ldeaths, spans = c(3,5))
spectrum(ldeaths, spans = c(5,7))
spectrum(mdeaths, spans = c(3,3))
spectrum(fdeaths, spans = c(3,3))

## bivariate example
mfdeaths.spc <- spec.pgram(ts.union(mdeaths, fdeaths), spans = c(3,3))
# plots marginal spectra: now plot coherency and phase
plot(mfdeaths.spc, plot.type = "coherency")
plot(mfdeaths.spc, plot.type = "phase")

## now impose a lack of alignment
mfdeaths.spc <- spec.pgram(ts.intersect(mdeaths, lag(fdeaths, 4)),
  spans = c(3,3), plot = FALSE)
plot(mfdeaths.spc, plot.type = "coherency")
plot(mfdeaths.spc, plot.type = "phase")

stocks.spc <- spectrum(EuStockMarkets, kernel("daniell", c(30,50)),
  plot = FALSE)
plot(stocks.spc, plot.type = "marginal") # the default type
plot(stocks.spc, plot.type = "coherency")
plot(stocks.spc, plot.type = "phase")
```



```
sales.spc <- spectrum(ts.union(BJsales, BJsales.lead),
                      kernel("modified.daniell", c(5,7)))
plot(sales.spc, plot.type = "coherency")
plot(sales.spc, plot.type = "phase")
```

spec.taper

Taper a Time Series by a Cosine Bell

Description

Apply a cosine-bell taper to a time series.

Usage

```
spec.taper(x, p = 0.1)
```

Arguments

x	A univariate or multivariate time series
p	The proportion to be tapered at each end of the series, either a scalar (giving the proportion for all series) or a vector of the length of the number of series (giving the proportion for each series..

Details

The cosine-bell taper is applied to the first and last $p[i]$ observations of time series $x[, i]$.

Value

A new time series object.

See Also

[spec.pgram](#), [cpgram](#)

spectrum	<i>Spectral Density Estimation</i>
----------	------------------------------------

Description

The spectrum function estimates the spectral density of a time series.

Usage

```
spectrum(x, ..., method = c("pgram", "ar"))
```

Arguments

x	A univariate or multivariate time series.
method	String specifying the method used to estimate the spectral density. Allowed methods are "pgram" (the default) and "ar". Can be abbreviated.
...	Further arguments to specific spec methods or plot.spec.

Details

spectrum is a wrapper function which calls the methods `spec.pgram` and `spec.ar`.

The spectrum here is defined with scaling $1/\text{frequency}(x)$, following S-PLUS. This makes the spectral density a density over the range $(-\text{frequency}(x)/2, +\text{frequency}(x)/2]$, whereas a more common scaling is 2π and range $(-0.5, 0.5]$ (e.g., Bloomfield) or 1 and range $(-\pi, \pi]$.

If available, a confidence interval will be plotted by `plot.spec`: this is asymmetric, and the width of the centre mark indicates the equivalent bandwidth.

Value

An object of class "spec", which is a list containing at least the following components:

freq	vector of frequencies at which the spectral density is estimated. (Possibly approximate Fourier frequencies.) The units are the reciprocal of cycles per unit time (and not per observation spacing): see 'Details' below.
spec	Vector (for univariate series) or matrix (for multivariate series) of estimates of the spectral density at frequencies corresponding to freq.
coh	NULL for univariate series. For multivariate time series, a matrix containing the <i>squared</i> coherency between different series. Column $i + (j - 1) * (j - 2) / 2$ of coh contains the squared coherency between columns i and j of x, where $i < j$.
phase	NULL for univariate series. For multivariate time series a matrix containing the cross-spectrum phase between different series. The format is the same as coh.
series	The name of the time series.
snames	For multivariate input, the names of the component series.
method	The method used to calculate the spectrum.

The result is returned invisibly if plot is true.

Note

The default plot for objects of class "spec" is quite complex, including an error bar and default title, subtitle and axis labels. The defaults can all be overridden by supplying the appropriate graphical parameters.

Author(s)

Martyn Plummer, B.D. Ripley

References

- Bloomfield, P. (1976) *Fourier Analysis of Time Series: An Introduction*. Wiley.
- Brockwell, P. J. and Davis, R. A. (1991) *Time Series: Theory and Methods*. Second edition. Springer.
- Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S-PLUS*. Fourth edition. Springer. (Especially pages 392–7.)

See Also

[spec.ar](#), [spec.pgram](#); [plot.spec](#).

Examples

```
require(graphics)

## Examples from Venables & Ripley
## spec.pgram
par(mfrow = c(2,2))
spectrum(lh)
spectrum(lh, spans = 3)
spectrum(lh, spans = c(3,3))
spectrum(lh, spans = c(3,5))

spectrum(ldeaths)
spectrum(ldeaths, spans = c(3,3))
spectrum(ldeaths, spans = c(3,5))
spectrum(ldeaths, spans = c(5,7))
spectrum(ldeaths, spans = c(5,7), log = "dB", ci = 0.8)

# for multivariate examples see the help for spec.pgram

## spec.ar
spectrum(lh, method = "ar")
spectrum(ldeaths, method = "ar")
```

splinefun

*Interpolating Splines***Description**

Perform cubic (or Hermite) spline interpolation of given data points, returning either a list of points obtained by the interpolation or a *function* performing the interpolation.

Usage

```
splinefun(x, y = NULL,
          method = c("fmm", "periodic", "natural", "monoH.FC", "hyman"),
          ties = mean)
```

```
spline(x, y = NULL, n = 3*length(x), method = "fmm",
       xmin = min(x), xmax = max(x), xout, ties = mean)
```

```
splinefunH(x, y, m)
```

Arguments

<code>x, y</code>	vectors giving the coordinates of the points to be interpolated. Alternatively a single plotting structure can be specified: see xy.coords . y must be increasing or decreasing for method = "hyman".
<code>m</code>	(for splinefunH()): vector of <i>slopes</i> m_i at the points (x_i, y_i) ; these together determine the H ermite “spline” which is piecewise cubic, (only) <i>once</i> differentiable continuously.
<code>method</code>	specifies the type of spline to be used. Possible values are "fmm", "natural", "periodic", "monoH.FC" and "hyman". Can be abbreviated.
<code>n</code>	if xout is left unspecified, interpolation takes place at n equally spaced points spanning the interval [xmin, xmax].
<code>xmin, xmax</code>	left-hand and right-hand endpoint of the interpolation interval (when xout is unspecified).
<code>xout</code>	an optional set of values specifying where interpolation is to take place.
<code>ties</code>	Handling of tied x values. Either a function with a single vector argument returning a single number result or the string "ordered".

Details

The inputs can contain missing values which are deleted, so at least one complete (x, y) pair is required. If method = "fmm", the spline used is that of Forsythe, Malcolm and Moler (an exact cubic is fitted through the four points at each end of the data, and this is used to determine the end conditions). Natural splines are used when method = "natural", and periodic splines when method = "periodic".

The method "monoH.FC" computes a *monotone* Hermite spline according to the method of Fritsch and Carlson. It does so by determining slopes such that the Hermite spline, determined by (x_i, y_i, m_i) , is monotone (increasing or decreasing) **iff** the data are.

Method "hyman" computes a *monotone* cubic spline using Hyman filtering of an method = "fmm" fit for strictly monotonic inputs. (Added in R 2.15.2.)

These interpolation splines can also be used for extrapolation, that is prediction at points outside the range of x . Extrapolation makes little sense for method = "fmm"; for natural splines it is linear using the slope of the interpolating curve at the nearest data point.

Value

spline returns a list containing components x and y which give the ordinates where interpolation took place and the interpolated values.

splinefun returns a function with formal arguments x and $deriv$, the latter defaulting to zero. This function can be used to evaluate the interpolating cubic spline ($deriv = 0$), or its derivatives ($deriv = 1, 2, 3$) at the points x , where the spline function interpolates the data points originally specified. It uses data stored in its environment when it was created, the details of which are subject to change.

Warning

The value returned by splinefun contains references to the code in the current version of R: it is not intended to be saved and loaded into a different R session. This is safer in R $\geq 3.0.0$.

Author(s)

R Core Team.

Simon Wood for the original code for Hyman filtering.

References

- Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.
- Dougherty, R. L., Edelman, A. and Hyman, J. M. (1989) Positivity-, monotonicity-, or convexity-preserving cubic and quintic Hermite interpolation. *Mathematics of Computation* **52**, 471–494.
- Forsythe, G. E., Malcolm, M. A. and Moler, C. B. (1977) *Computer Methods for Mathematical Computations*. Wiley.
- Fritsch, F. N. and Carlson, R. E. (1980) Monotone piecewise cubic interpolation, *SIAM Journal on Numerical Analysis* **17**, 238–246.
- Hyman, J. M. (1983) Accurate monotonicity preserving cubic interpolation. *SIAM J. Sci. Stat. Comput.* **4**, 645–654.

See Also

[approx](#) and [approxfun](#) for constant and linear interpolation.

Package [splines](#), especially [interpSpline](#) and [periodicSpline](#) for interpolation splines. That package also generates spline bases that can be used for regression splines.

[smooth.spline](#) for smoothing splines.

Examples

```

require(graphics)

op <- par(mfrow = c(2,1), mgp = c(2,.8,0), mar = 0.1+c(3,3,3,1))
n <- 9
x <- 1:n
y <- rnorm(n)
plot(x, y, main = paste("spline[fun](.) through", n, "points"))
lines(spline(x, y))
lines(spline(x, y, n = 201), col = 2)

y <- (x-6)^2
plot(x, y, main = "spline(.) -- 3 methods")
lines(spline(x, y, n = 201), col = 2)
lines(spline(x, y, n = 201, method = "natural"), col = 3)
lines(spline(x, y, n = 201, method = "periodic"), col = 4)
legend(6, 25, c("fmm", "natural", "periodic"), col = 2:4, lty = 1)

y <- sin((x-0.5)*pi)
f <- splinefun(x, y)
ls(envir = environment(f))
splinecoef <- get("z", envir = environment(f))
curve(f(x), 1, 10, col = "green", lwd = 1.5)
points(splinecoef, col = "purple", cex = 2)
curve(f(x, deriv = 1), 1, 10, col = 2, lwd = 1.5)
curve(f(x, deriv = 2), 1, 10, col = 2, lwd = 1.5, n = 401)
curve(f(x, deriv = 3), 1, 10, col = 2, lwd = 1.5, n = 401)
par(op)

## Manual spline evaluation --- demo the coefficients :
.x <- splinecoef$x
u <- seq(3, 6, by = 0.25)
(ii <- findInterval(u, .x))
dx <- u - .x[ii]
f.u <- with(splinecoef,
            y[ii] + dx*(b[ii] + dx*(c[ii] + dx*d[ii])))
stopifnot(all.equal(f(u), f.u))

## An example with ties (non-unique x values):
set.seed(1); x <- round(rnorm(30), 1); y <- sin(pi * x) + rnorm(30)/10
plot(x, y, main = "spline(x,y) when x has ties")
lines(spline(x, y, n = 201), col = 2)
## visualizes the non-unique ones:
tx <- table(x); mx <- as.numeric(names(tx[tx > 1]))
ry <- matrix(unlist(tapply(y, match(x, mx), range, simplify = FALSE)),
            ncol = 2, byrow = TRUE)
segments(mx, ry[, 1], mx, ry[, 2], col = "blue", lwd = 2)

## An example of monotone interpolation
n <- 20
set.seed(11)
x. <- sort(runif(n)) ; y. <- cumsum(abs(rnorm(n)))

```

```

plot(x., y.)
curve(splinefun(x., y.)(x), add = TRUE, col = 2, n = 1001)
curve(splinefun(x., y., method = "monoH.FC")(x), add = TRUE, col = 3, n = 1001)
curve(splinefun(x., y., method = "hyman")(x), add = TRUE, col = 4, n = 1001)
legend("topleft",
      paste0("splinefun( \"", c("fmm", "monoH.FC", "hyman"), "\" )"),
      col = 2:4, lty = 1, bty = "n")

## and one from Fritsch and Carlson (1980), Dougherty et al (1989)
x. <- c(7.09, 8.09, 8.19, 8.7, 9.2, 10, 12, 15, 20)
f <- c(0, 2.76429e-5, 4.37498e-2, 0.169183, 0.469428, 0.943740,
      0.998636, 0.999919, 0.999994)
s0 <- splinefun(x., f)
s1 <- splinefun(x., f, method = "monoH.FC")
s2 <- splinefun(x., f, method = "hyman")
plot(x., f, ylim = c(-0.2, 1.2))
curve(s0(x), add = TRUE, col = 2, n = 1001) -> m0
curve(s1(x), add = TRUE, col = 3, n = 1001)
curve(s2(x), add = TRUE, col = 4, n = 1001)
legend("right",
      paste0("splinefun( \"", c("fmm", "monoH.FC", "hyman"), "\" )"),
      col = 2:4, lty = 1, bty = "n")

## they seem identical, but are not quite:
xx <- m0$x
plot(xx, s1(xx) - s2(xx), type = "l", col = 2, lwd = 2,
      main = "Difference monoH.FC - hyman"); abline(h = 0, lty = 3)

x <- xx[xx < 10.2] ## full range: x <- xx .. does not show enough
ccol <- adjustcolor(2:4, 0.8)
matplot(x, cbind(s0(x, deriv = 2), s1(x, deriv = 2), s2(x, deriv = 2))^2,
        lwd = 2, col = ccol, type = "l", ylab = quote({{f*second}(x)}^2),
        main = expression({{f*second}(x)}^2 ~" for the three 'splines'"))
legend("topright",
      paste0("splinefun( \"", c("fmm", "monoH.FC", "hyman"), "\" )"),
      lwd = 2, col = ccol, lty = 1:3, bty = "n")
## --> "hyman" has slightly smaller Integral f''(x)^2 dx than "FC",
## here, and both are 'much worse' than the regular fmm spline.

```

SSasymp

Self-Starting Nls Asymptotic Regression Model

Description

This selfStart model evaluates the asymptotic regression function and its gradient. It has an initial attribute that will evaluate initial estimates of the parameters Asym, R0, and lrc for a given set of data.

Usage

```
SSasymp(input, Asym, R0, lrc)
```

Arguments

input	a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model.
Asym	a numeric parameter representing the horizontal asymptote on the right side (very large values of input).
R0	a numeric parameter representing the response when input is zero.
lrc	a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the rate constant.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as input. It is the value of the expression $Asym + (R0 - Asym) * \exp(-\exp(lrc) * input)$. If all of the arguments Asym, R0, and lrc are names of objects, the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named gradient.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
Lob.329 <- Loblolly[ Loblolly$Seed == "329", ]
SSasympt( Lob.329$age, 100, -8.5, -3.2 ) # response only
Asym <- 100
resp0 <- -8.5
lrc <- -3.2
SSasympt( Lob.329$age, Asym, resp0, lrc ) # response and gradient
getInitial(height ~ SSasympt( age, Asym, resp0, lrc), data = Lob.329)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(height ~ SSasympt( age, Asym, resp0, lrc), data = Lob.329)
summary(fm1)
```

SSasymptOff	<i>Self-Starting Nls Asymptotic Regression Model with an Offset</i>
-------------	---

Description

This selfStart model evaluates an alternative parametrization of the asymptotic regression function and the gradient with respect to those parameters. It has an initial attribute that creates initial estimates of the parameters Asym, lrc, and c0.

Usage

```
SSasymptOff(input, Asym, lrc, c0)
```


Arguments

<code>input</code>	a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model.
<code>Asym</code>	a numeric parameter representing the horizontal asymptote on the right side (very large values of input).
<code>lrc</code>	a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the rate constant.
<code>c0</code>	a numeric parameter representing the input for which the response is zero.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as `input`. It is the value of the expression `Asym*(1 - exp(-exp(lrc)*(input - c0)))`. If all of the arguments `Asym`, `lrc`, and `c0` are names of objects, the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named `gradient`.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

`nls`, `selfStart`; `example(SSasymptOff)` gives graph showing the `SSasymptOff` parametrization, where ϕ_1 is `Asym`, ϕ_3 is `c0`.

Examples

```
C02.Qn1 <- C02[C02$Plant == "Qn1", ]
SSasymptOff(C02.Qn1$conc, 32, -4, 43) # response only
Asym <- 32; lrc <- -4; c0 <- 43
SSasymptOff(C02.Qn1$conc, Asym, lrc, c0) # response and gradient
getInitial(uptake ~ SSasymptOff(conc, Asym, lrc, c0), data = C02.Qn1)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(uptake ~ SSasymptOff(conc, Asym, lrc, c0), data = C02.Qn1)
summary(fm1)
```

SSasymptOrig

Self-Starting Nls Asymptotic Regression Model through the Origin

Description

This `selfStart` model evaluates the asymptotic regression function through the origin and its gradient. It has an `initial` attribute that will evaluate initial estimates of the parameters `Asym` and `lrc` for a given set of data.

Usage

```
SSasymptOrig(input, Asym, lrc)
```

Arguments

input	a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model.
Asym	a numeric parameter representing the horizontal asymptote.
lrc	a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the rate constant.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as input. It is the value of the expression $\text{Asym} * (1 - \exp(-\exp(\text{lrc}) * \text{input}))$. If all of the arguments Asym and lrc are names of objects, the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named gradient.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
Lob.329 <- Loblolly[ Loblolly$Seed == "329", ]
SSasymOrig(Lob.329$age, 100, -3.2) # response only
Asym <- 100; lrc <- -3.2
SSasymOrig(Lob.329$age, Asym, lrc) # response and gradient
getInitial(height ~ SSasymOrig(age, Asym, lrc), data = Lob.329)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(height ~ SSasymOrig(age, Asym, lrc), data = Lob.329)
summary(fm1)
```

SSbiexp

Self-Starting Nls Biexponential model

Description

This selfStart model evaluates the biexponential model function and its gradient. It has an initial attribute that creates initial estimates of the parameters A1, lrc1, A2, and lrc2.

Usage

```
SSbiexp(input, A1, lrc1, A2, lrc2)
```

Arguments

<code>input</code>	a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model.
<code>A1</code>	a numeric parameter representing the multiplier of the first exponential.
<code>lrc1</code>	a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the rate constant of the first exponential.
<code>A2</code>	a numeric parameter representing the multiplier of the second exponential.
<code>lrc2</code>	a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the rate constant of the second exponential.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as `input`. It is the value of the expression $A1 \cdot \exp(-\exp(lrc1) \cdot \text{input}) + A2 \cdot \exp(-\exp(lrc2) \cdot \text{input})$. If all of the arguments `A1`, `lrc1`, `A2`, and `lrc2` are names of objects, the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named `gradient`.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
Indo.1 <- Indometh[Indometh$Subject == 1, ]
SSbiexp( Indo.1$time, 3, 1, 0.6, -1.3 ) # response only
A1 <- 3; lrc1 <- 1; A2 <- 0.6; lrc2 <- -1.3
SSbiexp( Indo.1$time, A1, lrc1, A2, lrc2 ) # response and gradient
print(getInitial(conc ~ SSbiexp(time, A1, lrc1, A2, lrc2), data = Indo.1),
      digits = 5)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(conc ~ SSbiexp(time, A1, lrc1, A2, lrc2), data = Indo.1)
summary(fm1)

## Show the model components visually
require(graphics)

xx <- seq(0, 5, len = 101)
y1 <- 3.5 * exp(-4*xx)
y2 <- 1.5 * exp(-xx)
plot(xx, y1 + y2, type = "l", lwd=2, ylim = c(-0.2,6), xlim = c(0, 5),
     main = "Components of the SSbiexp model")
lines(xx, y1, lty = 2, col="tomato"); abline(v=0, h=0, col="gray40")
lines(xx, y2, lty = 3, col="blue2" )
legend("topright", c("y1+y2", "y1 = 3.5 * exp(-4*x)", "y2 = 1.5 * exp(-x)"),
      lty=1:3, col=c("black","tomato","blue2"), bty="n")
axis(2, pos=0, at = c(3.5, 1.5), labels = c("A1","A2"), las=2)
```

```
## and how you could have got their sum via SSbiexp():
ySS <- SSbiexp(xx, 3.5, log(4), 1.5, log(1))
##          ---          ---
stopifnot(all.equal(y1+y2, ySS, tolerance = 1e-15))
```

SSD	<i>SSD Matrix and Estimated Variance Matrix in Multivariate Models</i>
-----	--

Description

Functions to compute matrix of residual sums of squares and products, or the estimated variance matrix for multivariate linear models.

Usage

```
# S3 method for class 'mlm'
SSD(object, ...)

# S3 methods for class 'SSD' and 'mlm'
estVar(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	object of class "mlm", or "SSD" in the case of estVar.
...	Unused

Value

SSD() returns a list of class "SSD" containing the following components

SSD	The residual sums of squares and products matrix
df	Degrees of freedom
call	Copied from object

estVar returns a matrix with the estimated variances and covariances.

See Also

[mauchly.test](#), [anova.mlm](#)

Examples

```
# Lifted from Baron+Li:
# "Notes on the use of R for psychology experiments and questionnaires"
# Maxwell and Delaney, p. 497
reacttime <- matrix(c(
  420, 420, 480, 480, 600, 780,
  420, 480, 480, 360, 480, 600,
  480, 480, 540, 660, 780, 780,
  420, 540, 540, 480, 780, 900,
  540, 660, 540, 480, 660, 720,
  360, 420, 360, 360, 480, 540,
  480, 480, 600, 540, 720, 840,
  480, 600, 660, 540, 720, 900,
  540, 600, 540, 480, 720, 780,
  480, 420, 540, 540, 660, 780),
  ncol = 6, byrow = TRUE,
  dimnames = list(subj = 1:10,
    cond = c("deg0NA", "deg4NA", "deg8NA",
      "deg0NP", "deg4NP", "deg8NP"))))

mlmfit <- lm(reacttime ~ 1)
SSD(mlmfit)
estVar(mlmfit)
```

SSfol	<i>Self-Starting Nls First-order Compartment Model</i>
-------	--

Description

This selfStart model evaluates the first-order compartment function and its gradient. It has an initial attribute that creates initial estimates of the parameters lKe, lKa, and lCl.

Usage

```
SSfol(Dose, input, lKe, lKa, lCl)
```

Arguments

Dose	a numeric value representing the initial dose.
input	a numeric vector at which to evaluate the model.
lKe	a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the elimination rate constant.
lKa	a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the absorption rate constant.
lCl	a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the clearance.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as input, which is the value of the expression

$$\frac{\text{Dose} * \exp(\text{lKe} + \text{lKa} - \text{lCl}) * (\exp(-\exp(\text{lKe}) * \text{input}) - \exp(-\exp(\text{lKa}) * \text{input}))}{(\exp(\text{lKa}) - \exp(\text{lKe}))}$$

If all of the arguments lKe, lKa, and lCl are names of objects, the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named gradient.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
Theoph.1 <- Theoph[ Theoph$Subject == 1, ]
SSfol(Theoph.1$Dose, Theoph.1$Time, -2.5, 0.5, -3) # response only
lKe <- -2.5; lKa <- 0.5; lCl <- -3
SSfol(Theoph.1$Dose, Theoph.1$Time, lKe, lKa, lCl) # response and gradient
getInitial(conc ~ SSfol(Dose, Time, lKe, lKa, lCl), data = Theoph.1)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(conc ~ SSfol(Dose, Time, lKe, lKa, lCl), data = Theoph.1)
summary(fm1)
```

SSfp1	<i>Self-Starting Nls Four-Parameter Logistic Model</i>
-------	--

Description

This selfStart model evaluates the four-parameter logistic function and its gradient. It has an initial attribute that will evaluate initial estimates of the parameters A, B, xmid, and scal for a given set of data.

Usage

```
SSfp1(input, A, B, xmid, scal)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|-------|---|
| input | a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model. |
| A | a numeric parameter representing the horizontal asymptote on the left side (very small values of input). |
| B | a numeric parameter representing the horizontal asymptote on the right side (very large values of input). |

xmid	a numeric parameter representing the input value at the inflection point of the curve. The value of SSfpl will be midway between A and B at xmid.
scal	a numeric scale parameter on the input axis.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as input. It is the value of the expression $A + (B - A) / (1 + \exp((xmid - input) / scal))$. If all of the arguments A, B, xmid, and scal are names of objects, the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named gradient.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
Chick.1 <- ChickWeight[ChickWeight$Chick == 1, ]
SSfpl(Chick.1$Time, 13, 368, 14, 6) # response only
A <- 13; B <- 368; xmid <- 14; scal <- 6
SSfpl(Chick.1$Time, A, B, xmid, scal) # response and gradient
print(getInitial(weight ~ SSfpl(Time, A, B, xmid, scal), data = Chick.1),
      digits = 5)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(weight ~ SSfpl(Time, A, B, xmid, scal), data = Chick.1)
summary(fm1)
```

SSgompertz	<i>Self-Starting Nls Gompertz Growth Model</i>
------------	--

Description

This selfStart model evaluates the Gompertz growth model and its gradient. It has an initial attribute that creates initial estimates of the parameters Asym, b2, and b3.

Usage

```
SSgompertz(x, Asym, b2, b3)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model.
Asym	a numeric parameter representing the asymptote.
b2	a numeric parameter related to the value of the function at $x = 0$
b3	a numeric parameter related to the scale the x axis.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as input. It is the value of the expression $\text{Asym} \times \exp(-b2 \times b3^x)$. If all of the arguments Asym, b2, and b3 are names of objects the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named gradient.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
DNase.1 <- subset(DNase, Run == 1)
SSgompertz(log(DNase.1$conc), 4.5, 2.3, 0.7) # response only
Asym <- 4.5; b2 <- 2.3; b3 <- 0.7
SSgompertz(log(DNase.1$conc), Asym, b2, b3) # response and gradient
print(getInitial(density ~ SSgompertz(log(conc), Asym, b2, b3),
                 data = DNase.1), digits = 5)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(density ~ SSgompertz(log(conc), Asym, b2, b3),
           data = DNase.1)
summary(fm1)
```

SSlogis

Self-Starting Nls Logistic Model

Description

This selfStart model evaluates the logistic function and its gradient. It has an initial attribute that creates initial estimates of the parameters Asym, xmid, and scal.

Usage

```
SSlogis(input, Asym, xmid, scal)
```

Arguments

input	a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model.
Asym	a numeric parameter representing the asymptote.
xmid	a numeric parameter representing the x value at the inflection point of the curve. The value of SSlogis will be Asym/2 at xmid.
scal	a numeric scale parameter on the input axis.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as input. It is the value of the expression $\text{Asym}/(1+\exp((\text{xmid}-\text{input})/\text{scal}))$. If all of the arguments Asym, xmid, and scal are names of objects the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named gradient.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
Chick.1 <- ChickWeight[ChickWeight$Chick == 1, ]
SSlogis(Chick.1$Time, 368, 14, 6) # response only
Asym <- 368; xmid <- 14; scal <- 6
SSlogis(Chick.1$Time, Asym, xmid, scal) # response and gradient
getInitial(weight ~ SSlogis(Time, Asym, xmid, scal), data = Chick.1)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(weight ~ SSlogis(Time, Asym, xmid, scal), data = Chick.1)
summary(fm1)
```

SSmicmen

Self-Starting Nls Michaelis-Menten Model

Description

This selfStart model evaluates the Michaelis-Menten model and its gradient. It has an initial attribute that will evaluate initial estimates of the parameters Vm and K

Usage

```
SSmicmen(input, Vm, K)
```

Arguments

input	a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model.
Vm	a numeric parameter representing the maximum value of the response.
K	a numeric parameter representing the input value at which half the maximum response is attained. In the field of enzyme kinetics this is called the Michaelis parameter.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as input. It is the value of the expression $Vm \cdot input / (K + input)$. If both the arguments Vm and K are names of objects, the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named gradient.

Author(s)

José Pinheiro and Douglas Bates

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#)

Examples

```
PurTrt <- Puromycin[ Puromycin$state == "treated", ]
SSmicmen(PurTrt$conc, 200, 0.05) # response only
Vm <- 200; K <- 0.05
SSmicmen(PurTrt$conc, Vm, K)      # response and gradient
print(getInitial(rate ~ SSmicmen(conc, Vm, K), data = PurTrt), digits = 3)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(rate ~ SSmicmen(conc, Vm, K), data = PurTrt)
summary(fm1)
## Alternative call using the subset argument
fm2 <- nls(rate ~ SSmicmen(conc, Vm, K), data = Puromycin,
             subset = state == "treated")
summary(fm2)
```

SSweibull	<i>Self-Starting Nls Weibull Growth Curve Model</i>
-----------	---

Description

This selfStart model evaluates the Weibull model for growth curve data and its gradient. It has an initial attribute that will evaluate initial estimates of the parameters Asym, Drop, lrc, and pwr for a given set of data.

Usage

```
SSweibull(x, Asym, Drop, lrc, pwr)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|------|---|
| x | a numeric vector of values at which to evaluate the model. |
| Asym | a numeric parameter representing the horizontal asymptote on the right side (very small values of x). |
| Drop | a numeric parameter representing the change from Asym to the y intercept. |

`lrc` a numeric parameter representing the natural logarithm of the rate constant.
`pwr` a numeric parameter representing the power to which `x` is raised.

Details

This model is a generalization of the [SSasympt](#) model in that it reduces to [SSasympt](#) when `pwr` is unity.

Value

a numeric vector of the same length as `x`. It is the value of the expression `Asym-Drop*exp(-exp(lrc)*x^pwr)`. If all of the arguments `Asym`, `Drop`, `lrc`, and `pwr` are names of objects, the gradient matrix with respect to these names is attached as an attribute named `gradient`.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates

References

Ratkowsky, David A. (1983), *Nonlinear Regression Modeling*, Dekker. (section 4.4.5)

See Also

[nls](#), [selfStart](#), [SSasympt](#)

Examples

```
Chick.6 <- subset(ChickWeight, (Chick == 6) & (Time > 0))
SSweibull(Chick.6$Time, 160, 115, -5.5, 2.5) # response only
Asym <- 160; Drop <- 115; lrc <- -5.5; pwr <- 2.5
SSweibull(Chick.6$Time, Asym, Drop, lrc, pwr) # response and gradient
getInitial(weight ~ SSweibull(Time, Asym, Drop, lrc, pwr), data = Chick.6)
## Initial values are in fact the converged values
fm1 <- nls(weight ~ SSweibull(Time, Asym, Drop, lrc, pwr), data = Chick.6)
summary(fm1)
```

start

Encode the Terminal Times of Time Series

Description

Extract and encode the times the first and last observations were taken. Provided only for compatibility with S version 2.

Usage

```
start(x, ...)
end(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x a univariate or multivariate time-series, or a vector or matrix.
... extra arguments for future methods.

Details

These are generic functions, which will use the [tsp](#) attribute of x if it exists. Their default methods decode the start time from the original time units, so that for a monthly series 1995.5 is represented as c(1995, 7). For a series of frequency f, time n+i/f is presented as c(n, i+1) (even for i = 0 and f = 1).

Warning

The representation used by start and end has no meaning unless the frequency is supplied.

See Also

[ts](#), [time](#), [tsp](#).

stat.anova	<i>GLM Anova Statistics</i>
------------	-----------------------------

Description

This is a utility function, used in lm and glm methods for [anova\(..., test != NULL\)](#) and should not be used by the average user.

Usage

```
stat.anova(table, test = c("Rao","LRT", "Chisq", "F", "Cp"),
            scale, df.scale, n)
```

Arguments

table numeric matrix as results from [anova.glm\(..., test = NULL\)](#).
test a character string, partially matching one of "Rao", "LRT", "Chisq", "F" or "Cp".
scale a residual mean square or other scale estimate to be used as the denominator in an F test.
df.scale degrees of freedom corresponding to scale.
n number of observations.

Value

A matrix which is the original table, augmented by a column of test statistics, depending on the test argument.

References

Hastie, T. J. and Pregibon, D. (1992) *Generalized linear models*. Chapter 6 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[anova.lm](#), [anova.glm](#).

Examples

```
##-- Continued from '?glm':

print(ag <- anova(glm.D93))
stat.anova(ag$table, test = "Cp",
           scale = sum(resid(glm.D93, "pearson")^2)/4,
           df.scale = 4, n = 9)
```

stats-deprecated

Deprecated Functions in Package stats

Description

These functions are provided for compatibility with older versions of R only, and may be defunct as soon as the next release.

Usage

```
plclust(tree, hang = 0.1, unit = FALSE, level = FALSE, hmin = 0,
        square = TRUE, labels = NULL, plot. = TRUE,
        axes = TRUE, frame.plot = FALSE, ann = TRUE,
        main = "", sub = NULL, xlab = NULL, ylab = "Height")
```

Arguments

tree	an object of the type produced by hclust .
hang	The fraction of the plot height by which labels should hang below the rest of the plot. A negative value will cause the labels to hang down from 0.
unit	logical. If true, the splits are plotted at equally-spaced heights rather than at the height in the object.
labels	A character vector of labels for the leaves of the tree. By default the row names or row numbers of the original data are used. If <code>labels = FALSE</code> no labels at all are plotted.

axes, frame.plot, ann
logical flags as in [plot.default](#).
main, sub, xlab, ylab
character strings for [title](#). sub and xlab have a non-NULL default when there's a tree\$call.
...
Further graphical arguments. E.g., cex controls the size of the labels (if plotted) in the same way as [text](#).
hmin
numeric. All heights less than hmin are regarded as being hmin: this can be used to suppress detail at the bottom of the tree.
level, square, plot.
unimplemented arguments for S-PLUS compatibility.

Details

plcust is a deprecated wrapper for the plot method for [hclust](#), provided long ago for S-PLUS compatibility.

See Also

[Deprecated](#)

step	<i>Choose a model by AIC in a Stepwise Algorithm</i>
------	--

Description

Select a formula-based model by AIC.

Usage

```
step(object, scope, scale = 0,  
      direction = c("both", "backward", "forward"),  
      trace = 1, keep = NULL, steps = 1000, k = 2, ...)
```

Arguments

object	an object representing a model of an appropriate class (mainly "lm" and "glm"). This is used as the initial model in the stepwise search.
scope	defines the range of models examined in the stepwise search. This should be either a single formula, or a list containing components upper and lower, both formulae. See the details for how to specify the formulae and how they are used.
scale	used in the definition of the AIC statistic for selecting the models, currently only for lm , aov and glm models. The default value, 0, indicates the scale should be estimated: see extractAIC .

direction	the mode of stepwise search, can be one of "both", "backward", or "forward", with a default of "both". If the scope argument is missing the default for direction is "backward". Values can be abbreviated.
trace	if positive, information is printed during the running of step. Larger values may give more detailed information.
keep	a filter function whose input is a fitted model object and the associated AIC statistic, and whose output is arbitrary. Typically keep will select a subset of the components of the object and return them. The default is not to keep anything.
steps	the maximum number of steps to be considered. The default is 1000 (essentially as many as required). It is typically used to stop the process early.
k	the multiple of the number of degrees of freedom used for the penalty. Only $k = 2$ gives the genuine AIC: $k = \log(n)$ is sometimes referred to as BIC or SBC.
...	any additional arguments to <code>extractAIC</code> .

Details

step uses `add1` and `drop1` repeatedly; it will work for any method for which they work, and that is determined by having a valid method for `extractAIC`. When the additive constant can be chosen so that AIC is equal to Mallows' C_p , this is done and the tables are labelled appropriately.

The set of models searched is determined by the scope argument. The right-hand-side of its lower component is always included in the model, and right-hand-side of the model is included in the upper component. If scope is a single formula, it specifies the upper component, and the lower model is empty. If scope is missing, the initial model is used as the upper model.

Models specified by scope can be templates to update object as used by `update.formula`. So using `.` in a scope formula means 'what is already there', with `.^2` indicating all interactions of existing terms.

There is a potential problem in using `glm` fits with a variable scale, as in that case the deviance is not simply related to the maximized log-likelihood. The "glm" method for function `extractAIC` makes the appropriate adjustment for a gaussian family, but may need to be amended for other cases. (The binomial and poisson families have fixed scale by default and do not correspond to a particular maximum-likelihood problem for variable scale.)

Value

the stepwise-selected model is returned, with up to two additional components. There is an "anova" component corresponding to the steps taken in the search, as well as a "keep" component if the `keep=` argument was supplied in the call. The "Resid. Dev" column of the analysis of deviance table refers to a constant minus twice the maximized log likelihood: it will be a deviance only in cases where a saturated model is well-defined (thus excluding `lm`, `aov` and `survreg` fits, for example).

Warning

The model fitting must apply the models to the same dataset. This may be a problem if there are missing values and R's default of `na.action = na.omit` is used. We suggest you remove the missing values first.

Calls to the function `nobs` are used to check that the number of observations involved in the fitting process remains unchanged.

Note

This function differs considerably from the function in S, which uses a number of approximations and does not in general compute the correct AIC.

This is a minimal implementation. Use `stepAIC` in package **MASS** for a wider range of object classes.

Author(s)

B. D. Ripley: `step` is a slightly simplified version of `stepAIC` in package **MASS** (Venables & Ripley, 2002 and earlier editions).

The idea of a step function follows that described in Hastie & Pregibon (1992); but the implementation in R is more general.

References

Hastie, T. J. and Pregibon, D. (1992) *Generalized linear models*. Chapter 6 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

Venables, W. N. and Ripley, B. D. (2002) *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. New York: Springer (4th ed).

See Also

`stepAIC` in **MASS**, `add1`, `drop1`

Examples

```
## following on from example(lm)

step(lm.D9)

summary(lm1 <- lm(Fertility ~ ., data = swiss))
slm1 <- step(lm1)
summary(slm1)
slm1$anova
```


Description

Given the vectors (x_1, \dots, x_n) and (y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n) (one value more!), `stepfun(x, y, ...)` returns an interpolating ‘step’ function, say `fn`. I.e., $fn(t) = c_i$ (constant) for $t \in (x_i, x_{i+1})$ and at the abscissa values, if (by default) `right = FALSE`, $fn(x_i) = y_i$ and for `right = TRUE`, $fn(x_i) = y_{i-1}$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

The value of the constant c_i above depends on the ‘continuity’ parameter `f`. For the default, `right = FALSE`, `f = 0`, `fn` is a *cadlag* function, i.e., continuous from the right, limits from the left, so that the function is piecewise constant on intervals that include their *left* endpoint. In general, c_i is interpolated in between the neighbouring y values, $c_i = (1-f)y_i + f \cdot y_{i+1}$. Therefore, for non-0 values of `f`, `fn` may no longer be a proper step function, since it can be discontinuous from both sides, unless `right = TRUE`, `f = 1` which is left-continuous (i.e., constant pieces contain their right endpoint).

Usage

```
stepfun(x, y, f = as.numeric(right), ties = "ordered",
        right = FALSE)
```

```
is.stepfun(x)
knots(Fn, ...)
as.stepfun(x, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'stepfun'
print(x, digits = getOption("digits") - 2, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'stepfun'
summary(object, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	numeric vector giving the knots or jump locations of the step function for <code>stepfun()</code> . For the other functions, <code>x</code> is as object below.
<code>y</code>	numeric vector one longer than <code>x</code> , giving the heights of the function values <i>between</i> the <code>x</code> values.
<code>f</code>	a number between 0 and 1, indicating how interpolation outside the given <code>x</code> values should happen. See approxfun .
<code>ties</code>	Handling of tied <code>x</code> values. Either a function or the string "ordered". See approxfun .
<code>right</code>	logical, indicating if the intervals should be closed on the right (and open on the left) or vice versa.
<code>Fn, object</code>	an R object inheriting from "stepfun".
<code>digits</code>	number of significant digits to use, see print .
<code>...</code>	potentially further arguments (required by the generic).

Value

A function of class "stepfun", say `fn`.

There are methods available for summarizing ("`summary(.)`"), representing ("`print(.)`") and plotting ("`plot(.)`", see [plot.stepfun](#)) "stepfun" objects.

The [environment](#) of `fn` contains all the information needed;

"x", "y"	the original arguments
"n"	number of knots (x values)
"f"	continuity parameter
"yleft", "yright"	the function values <i>outside</i> the knots
"method"	(always == "constant", from approxfun(.)).

The knots are also available via [knots](#)(`fn`).

Note

The objects of class "stepfun" are not intended to be used for permanent storage and may change structure between versions of R (and did at R 3.0.0). They can usually be re-created by

```
eval(attr(old_obj, "call"), environment(old_obj))
```

since the data used is stored as part of the object's environment.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler, <maechler@stat.math.ethz.ch> with some basic code from Thomas Lumley.

See Also

[ecdf](#) for empirical distribution functions as special step functions and [plot.stepfun](#) for *plotting* step functions.

[approxfun](#) and [splinefun](#).

Examples

```
y0 <- c(1., 2., 4., 3.)
sfun0 <- stepfun(1:3, y0, f = 0)
sfun.2 <- stepfun(1:3, y0, f = 0.2)
sfun1 <- stepfun(1:3, y0, f = 1)
sfun1c <- stepfun(1:3, y0, right = TRUE) # hence f=1
sfun0
summary(sfun0)
summary(sfun.2)

## look at the internal structure:
unclass(sfun0)
ls(envir = environment(sfun0))
```

```

x0 <- seq(0.5, 3.5, by = 0.25)
rbind(x = x0, f.f0 = sfun0(x0), f.f02 = sfun.2(x0),
      f.f1 = sfun1(x0), f.f1c = sfun1c(x0))
## Identities :
stopifnot(identical(y0[-1], sfun0(1:3)), # right = FALSE
          identical(y0[-4], sfun1c(1:3))) # right = TRUE

```

stl

Seasonal Decomposition of Time Series by Loess

Description

Decompose a time series into seasonal, trend and irregular components using loess, acronym STL.

Usage

```

stl(x, s.window, s.degree = 0,
    t.window = NULL, t.degree = 1,
    l.window = nextodd(period), l.degree = t.degree,
    s.jump = ceiling(s.window/10),
    t.jump = ceiling(t.window/10),
    l.jump = ceiling(l.window/10),
    robust = FALSE,
    inner = if(robust) 1 else 2,
    outer = if(robust) 15 else 0,
    na.action = na.fail)

```

Arguments

x	univariate time series to be decomposed. This should be an object of class "ts" with a frequency greater than one.
s.window	either the character string "periodic" or the span (in lags) of the loess window for seasonal extraction, which should be odd and at least 7, according to Cleveland et al. This has no default.
s.degree	degree of locally-fitted polynomial in seasonal extraction. Should be zero or one.
t.window	the span (in lags) of the loess window for trend extraction, which should be odd. If NULL, the default, <code>nextodd(ceiling((1.5*period) / (1-(1.5/s.window))))</code> , is taken.
t.degree	degree of locally-fitted polynomial in trend extraction. Should be zero or one.
l.window	the span (in lags) of the loess window of the low-pass filter used for each subseries. Defaults to the smallest odd integer greater than or equal to <code>frequency(x)</code> which is recommended since it prevents competition between the trend and seasonal components. If not an odd integer its given value is increased to the next odd one.

l.degree	degree of locally-fitted polynomial for the subseries low-pass filter. Must be 0 or 1.
s.jump, t.jump, l.jump	integers at least one to increase speed of the respective smoother. Linear interpolation happens between every *.jumpth value.
robust	logical indicating if robust fitting be used in the loess procedure.
inner	integer; the number of 'inner' (backfitting) iterations; usually very few (2) iterations suffice.
outer	integer; the number of 'outer' robustness iterations.
na.action	action on missing values.

Details

The seasonal component is found by *loess* smoothing the seasonal sub-series (the series of all January values, ...); if `s.window = "periodic"` smoothing is effectively replaced by taking the mean. The seasonal values are removed, and the remainder smoothed to find the trend. The overall level is removed from the seasonal component and added to the trend component. This process is iterated a few times. The remainder component is the residuals from the seasonal plus trend fit.

Several methods for the resulting class "stl" objects, see, [plot.stl](#).

Value

stl returns an object of class "stl" with components

time.series	a multiple time series with columns seasonal, trend and remainder.
weights	the final robust weights (all one if fitting is not done robustly).
call	the matched call.
win	integer (length 3 vector) with the spans used for the "s", "t", and "l" smoothers.
deg	integer (length 3) vector with the polynomial degrees for these smoothers.
jump	integer (length 3) vector with the 'jumps' (skips) used for these smoothers.
ni	number of inner iterations
no	number of outer robustness iterations

Note

This is similar to but not identical to the `stl` function in S-PLUS. The remainder component given by S-PLUS is the sum of the trend and remainder series from this function.

Author(s)

B.D. Ripley; Fortran code by Cleveland *et al* (1990) from 'netlib'.

References

R. B. Cleveland, W. S. Cleveland, J.E. McRae, and I. Terpenning (1990) STL: A Seasonal-Trend Decomposition Procedure Based on Loess. *Journal of Official Statistics*, **6**, 3–73.

See Also

[plot.stl](#) for stl methods; [loess](#) in package **stats** (which is not actually used in stl).
[StructTS](#) for different kind of decomposition.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

plot(stl(nottem, "per"))
plot(stl(nottem, s.window = 7, t.window = 50, t.jump = 1))

plot(stllc <- stl(log(co2), s.window = 21))
summary(stllc)
## linear trend, strict period.
plot(stl(log(co2), s.window = "per", t.window = 1000))

## Two STL plotted side by side :
      stmd <- stl(mdeaths, s.window = "per") # non-robust
summary(stmR <- stl(mdeaths, s.window = "per", robust = TRUE))
op <- par(mar = c(0, 4, 0, 3), oma = c(5, 0, 4, 0), mfcol = c(4, 2))
plot(stmd, set.pars = NULL, labels = NULL,
      main = "stl(mdeaths, s.w = \"per\", robust = FALSE / TRUE )")
plot(stmR, set.pars = NULL)
# mark the 'outliers' :
(i0 <- which(stmR $ weights < 1e-8)) # 10 were considered outliers
sts <- stmR$time.series
points(time(sts)[i0], 0.8* sts[,"remainder"][i0], pch = 4, col = "red")
par(op) # reset
```

stlmethods

*Methods for STL Objects***Description**

Methods for objects of class `stl`, typically the result of [stl](#). The plot method does a multiple figure plot with some flexibility.

There are also (non-visible) print and summary methods.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'stl'
plot(x, labels = colnames(X),
      set.pars = list(mar = c(0, 6, 0, 6), oma = c(6, 0, 4, 0),
                      tck = -0.01, mfrow = c(nplot, 1)),
      main = NULL, range.bars = TRUE, ...,
      col.range = "light gray")
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	<code>stl</code> object.
<code>labels</code>	character of length 4 giving the names of the component time-series.
<code>set.pars</code>	settings for <code>par(.)</code> when setting up the plot.
<code>main</code>	plot main title.
<code>range.bars</code>	logical indicating if each plot should have a bar at its right side which are of equal heights in user coordinates.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.
<code>col.range</code>	colour to be used for the range bars, if plotted. Note this appears after <code>...</code> and so cannot be abbreviated.

See Also

`plot.ts` and `stl`, particularly for examples.

StructTS

Fit Structural Time Series

Description

Fit a structural model for a time series by maximum likelihood.

Usage

```
StructTS(x, type = c("level", "trend", "BSM"), init = NULL,
         fixed = NULL, optim.control = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a univariate numeric time series. Missing values are allowed.
<code>type</code>	the class of structural model. If omitted, a BSM is used for a time series with $\text{frequency}(x) > 1$, and a local trend model otherwise. Can be abbreviated.
<code>init</code>	initial values of the variance parameters.
<code>fixed</code>	optional numeric vector of the same length as the total number of parameters. If supplied, only NA entries in <code>fixed</code> will be varied. Probably most useful for setting variances to zero.
<code>optim.control</code>	List of control parameters for <code>optim</code> . Method "L-BFGS-B" is used.

Details

Structural time series models are (linear Gaussian) state-space models for (univariate) time series based on a decomposition of the series into a number of components. They are specified by a set of error variances, some of which may be zero.

The simplest model is the *local level* model specified by `type = "level"`. This has an underlying level μ_t which evolves by

$$\mu_{t+1} = \mu_t + \xi_t, \quad \xi_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\xi^2)$$

The observations are

$$x_t = \mu_t + \epsilon_t, \quad \epsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$$

There are two parameters, σ_ξ^2 and σ_ϵ^2 . It is an ARIMA(0,1,1) model, but with restrictions on the parameter set.

The *local linear trend model*, `type = "trend"`, has the same measurement equation, but with a time-varying slope in the dynamics for μ_t , given by

$$\mu_{t+1} = \mu_t + \nu_t + \xi_t, \quad \xi_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\xi^2)$$

$$\nu_{t+1} = \nu_t + \zeta_t, \quad \zeta_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\zeta^2)$$

with three variance parameters. It is not uncommon to find $\sigma_\zeta^2 = 0$ (which reduces to the local level model) or $\sigma_\xi^2 = 0$, which ensures a smooth trend. This is a restricted ARIMA(0,2,2) model.

The *basic structural model*, `type = "BSM"`, is a local trend model with an additional seasonal component. Thus the measurement equation is

$$x_t = \mu_t + \gamma_t + \epsilon_t, \quad \epsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$$

where γ_t is a seasonal component with dynamics

$$\gamma_{t+1} = -\gamma_t + \dots + \gamma_{t-s+2} + \omega_t, \quad \omega_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\omega^2)$$

The boundary case $\sigma_\omega^2 = 0$ corresponds to a deterministic (but arbitrary) seasonal pattern. (This is sometimes known as the ‘dummy variable’ version of the BSM.)

Value

A list of class "StructTS" with components:

<code>coef</code>	the estimated variances of the components.
<code>loglik</code>	the maximized log-likelihood. Note that as all these models are non-stationary this includes a diffuse prior for some observations and hence is not comparable to arima nor different types of structural models.
<code>loglik0</code>	the maximized log-likelihood with the constant used prior to R 3.0.0, for backwards compatibility.
<code>data</code>	the time series <code>x</code> .
<code>residuals</code>	the standardized residuals.
<code>fitted</code>	a multiple time series with one component for the level, slope and seasonal components, estimated contemporaneously (that is at time t and not at the end of the series).

call	the matched call.
series	the name of the series x.
code	the convergence code returned by optim .
model, model0	Lists representing the Kalman Filter used in the fitting. See KalmanLike . model0 is the initial state of the filter, model its final state.
xtsp	the tsp attributes of x.

Note

Optimization of structural models is a lot harder than many of the references admit. For example, the [AirPassengers](#) data are considered in Brockwell & Davis (1996): their solution appears to be a local maximum, but nowhere near as good a fit as that produced by StructTS. It is quite common to find fits with one or more variances zero, and this can include σ_ϵ^2 .

References

- Brockwell, P. J. & Davis, R. A. (1996). *Introduction to Time Series and Forecasting*. Springer, New York. Sections 8.2 and 8.5.
- Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Harvey, A. C. (1989) *Forecasting, Structural Time Series Models and the Kalman Filter*. Cambridge University Press.
- Harvey, A. C. (1993) *Time Series Models*. 2nd Edition, Harvester Wheatsheaf.

See Also

[KalmanLike](#), [tsSmooth](#); [stl](#) for different kind of (seasonal) decomposition.

Examples

```
## see also JohnsonJohnson, Nile and AirPassengers
require(graphics)

trees <- window(treering, start = 0)
(fit <- StructTS(trees, type = "level"))
plot(trees)
lines(fitted(fit), col = "green")
tsdiag(fit)

(fit <- StructTS(log10(UKgas), type = "BSM"))
par(mfrow = c(4, 1)) # to give appropriate aspect ratio for next plot.
plot(log10(UKgas))
plot(cbind(fitted(fit), resid=resid(fit)), main = "UK gas consumption")

## keep some parameters fixed; trace optimizer:
StructTS(log10(UKgas), type = "BSM", fixed = c(0.1,0.001,NA,NA),
         optim.control = list(trace = TRUE))
```

summary.aov	<i>Summarize an Analysis of Variance Model</i>
-------------	--

Description

Summarize an analysis of variance model.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'aov'
summary(object, intercept = FALSE, split,
        expand.split = TRUE, keep.zero.df = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'aovlist'
summary(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	An object of class "aov" or "aovlist".
intercept	logical: should intercept terms be included?
split	an optional named list, with names corresponding to terms in the model. Each component is itself a list with integer components giving contrasts whose contributions are to be summed.
expand.split	logical: should the split apply also to interactions involving the factor?
keep.zero.df	logical: should terms with no degrees of freedom be included?
...	Arguments to be passed to or from other methods, for summary.aovlist including those for summary.aov.

Value

An object of class c("summary.aov", "listof") or "summary.aovlist" respectively.

For fits with a single stratum the result will be a list of ANOVA tables, one for each response (even if there is only one response): the tables are of class "anova" inheriting from class "data.frame". They have columns "Df", "Sum Sq", "Mean Sq", as well as "F value" and "Pr(>F)" if there are non-zero residual degrees of freedom. There is a row for each term in the model, plus one for "Residuals" if there are any.

For multistratum fits the return value is a list of such summaries, one for each stratum.

Note

The use of expand.split = TRUE is little tested: it is always possible to set it to FALSE and specify exactly all the splits required.

See Also

[aov](#), [summary](#), [model.tables](#), [TukeyHSD](#)

Examples

```
## For a simple example see example(aov)

# Cochran and Cox (1957, p.164)
# 3x3 factorial with ordered factors, each is average of 12.
CC <- data.frame(
  y = c(449, 413, 326, 409, 358, 291, 341, 278, 312)/12,
  P = ordered(gl(3, 3)), N = ordered(gl(3, 1, 9))
)
CC.aov <- aov(y ~ N * P, data = CC, weights = rep(12, 9))
summary(CC.aov)

# Split both main effects into linear and quadratic parts.
summary(CC.aov, split = list(N = list(L = 1, Q = 2),
                              P = list(L = 1, Q = 2)))

# Split only the interaction
summary(CC.aov, split = list("N:P" = list(L.L = 1, Q = 2:4)))

# split on just one var
summary(CC.aov, split = list(P = list(lin = 1, quad = 2)))
summary(CC.aov, split = list(P = list(lin = 1, quad = 2)),
        expand.split = FALSE)
```

summary.glm

Summarizing Generalized Linear Model Fits

Description

These functions are all [methods](#) for class `glm` or `summary.glm` objects.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'glm'
summary(object, dispersion = NULL, correlation = FALSE,
        symbolic.cor = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'summary.glm'
print(x, digits = max(3, getOption("digits") - 3),
      symbolic.cor = x$symbolic.cor,
      signif.stars = getOption("show.signif.stars"), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	an object of class <code>"glm"</code> , usually, a result of a call to glm .
<code>x</code>	an object of class <code>"summary.glm"</code> , usually, a result of a call to <code>summary.glm</code> .
<code>dispersion</code>	the dispersion parameter for the family used. Either a single numerical value or <code>NULL</code> (the default), when it is inferred from <code>object</code> (see ‘Details’).

correlation	logical; if TRUE, the correlation matrix of the estimated parameters is returned and printed.
digits	the number of significant digits to use when printing.
symbolic.cor	logical. If TRUE, print the correlations in a symbolic form (see symnum) rather than as numbers.
signif.stars	logical. If TRUE, 'significance stars' are printed for each coefficient.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

`print.summary.glm` tries to be smart about formatting the coefficients, standard errors, etc. and additionally gives 'significance stars' if `signif.stars` is TRUE. The coefficients component of the result gives the estimated coefficients and their estimated standard errors, together with their ratio. This third column is labelled `t ratio` if the dispersion is estimated, and `z ratio` if the dispersion is known (or fixed by the family). A fourth column gives the two-tailed p-value corresponding to the t or z ratio based on a Student t or Normal reference distribution. (It is possible that the dispersion is not known and there are no residual degrees of freedom from which to estimate it. In that case the estimate is NaN.)

Aliased coefficients are omitted in the returned object but restored by the `print` method.

Correlations are printed to two decimal places (or symbolically): to see the actual correlations `print(summary(object)$correlation)` directly.

The dispersion of a GLM is not used in the fitting process, but it is needed to find standard errors. If dispersion is not supplied or NULL, the dispersion is taken as 1 for the binomial and Poisson families, and otherwise estimated by the residual Chisquared statistic (calculated from cases with non-zero weights) divided by the residual degrees of freedom.

`summary` can be used with Gaussian `glm` fits to handle the case of a linear regression with known error variance, something not handled by [summary.lm](#).

Value

`summary.glm` returns an object of class `"summary.glm"`, a list with components

<code>call</code>	the component from <code>object</code> .
<code>family</code>	the component from <code>object</code> .
<code>deviance</code>	the component from <code>object</code> .
<code>contrasts</code>	the component from <code>object</code> .
<code>df.residual</code>	the component from <code>object</code> .
<code>null.deviance</code>	the component from <code>object</code> .
<code>df.null</code>	the component from <code>object</code> .
<code>deviance.resid</code>	the deviance residuals: see residuals.glm .
<code>coefficients</code>	the matrix of coefficients, standard errors, z-values and p-values. Aliased coefficients are omitted.
<code>aliased</code>	named logical vector showing if the original coefficients are aliased.

dispersion	either the supplied argument or the inferred/estimated dispersion if the latter is NULL.
df	a 3-vector of the rank of the model and the number of residual degrees of freedom, plus number of coefficients (including aliased ones).
cov.unscaled	the unscaled (dispersion = 1) estimated covariance matrix of the estimated coefficients.
cov.scaled	ditto, scaled by dispersion.
correlation	(only if correlation is true.) The estimated correlations of the estimated coefficients.
symbolic.cor	(only if correlation is true.) The value of the argument symbolic.cor.

See Also

[glm](#), [summary](#).

Examples

```
## For examples see example(glm)
```

summary.lm

Summarizing Linear Model Fits

Description

summary method for class "lm".

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'lm'
summary(object, correlation = FALSE, symbolic.cor = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'summary.lm'
print(x, digits = max(3, getOption("digits") - 3),
      symbolic.cor = x$symbolic.cor,
      signif.stars = getOption("show.signif.stars"), ...)
```

Arguments

object	an object of class "lm", usually, a result of a call to lm .
x	an object of class "summary.lm", usually, a result of a call to summary.lm.
correlation	logical; if TRUE, the correlation matrix of the estimated parameters is returned and printed.
digits	the number of significant digits to use when printing.
symbolic.cor	logical. If TRUE, print the correlations in a symbolic form (see symnum) rather than as numbers.
signif.stars	logical. If TRUE, 'significance stars' are printed for each coefficient.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

`print.summary.lm` tries to be smart about formatting the coefficients, standard errors, etc. and additionally gives ‘significance stars’ if `signif.stars` is `TRUE`.

Aliased coefficients are omitted in the returned object but restored by the `print` method.

Correlations are printed to two decimal places (or symbolically): to see the actual correlations print `summary(object)$correlation` directly.

Value

The function `summary.lm` computes and returns a list of summary statistics of the fitted linear model given in `object`, using the components (list elements) `"call"` and `"terms"` from its argument, plus

<code>residuals</code>	the <i>weighted</i> residuals, the usual residuals rescaled by the square root of the weights specified in the call to <code>lm</code> .
<code>coefficients</code>	a $p \times 4$ matrix with columns for the estimated coefficient, its standard error, t-statistic and corresponding (two-sided) p-value. Aliased coefficients are omitted.
<code>aliased</code>	named logical vector showing if the original coefficients are aliased.
<code>sigma</code>	the square root of the estimated variance of the random error

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n-p} \sum_i w_i R_i^2,$$

where R_i is the i -th residual, `residuals[i]`.

<code>df</code>	degrees of freedom, a 3-vector $(p, n-p, p^*)$, the first being the number of non-aliased coefficients, the last being the total number of coefficients.
<code>fstatistic</code>	(for models including non-intercept terms) a 3-vector with the value of the F-statistic with its numerator and denominator degrees of freedom.
<code>r.squared</code>	R^2 , the ‘fraction of variance explained by the model’,

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_i R_i^2}{\sum_i (y_i - y^*)^2},$$

where y^* is the mean of y_i if there is an intercept and zero otherwise.

<code>adj.r.squared</code>	the above R^2 statistic ‘ <i>adjusted</i> ’, penalizing for higher p .
<code>cov.unscaled</code>	a $p \times p$ matrix of (unscaled) covariances of the $\hat{\beta}_j$, $j = 1, \dots, p$.
<code>correlation</code>	the correlation matrix corresponding to the above <code>cov.unscaled</code> , if <code>correlation = TRUE</code> is specified.
<code>symbolic.cor</code>	(only if <code>correlation</code> is true.) The value of the argument <code>symbolic.cor</code> .
<code>na.action</code>	from <code>object</code> , if present there.

See Also

The model fitting function [lm](#), [summary](#).

Function [coef](#) will extract the matrix of coefficients with standard errors, t-statistics and p-values.

Examples

```
##-- Continuing the lm(.) example:
coef(lm.D90) # the bare coefficients
sld90 <- summary(lm.D90 <- lm(weight ~ group -1)) # omitting intercept
sld90
coef(sld90) # much more

## model with *aliased* coefficient:
lm.D9. <- lm(weight ~ group + I(group != "Ctl"))
Sm.D9. <- summary(lm.D9.)
Sm.D9. # shows the NA NA NA NA line
stopifnot(length(cc <- coef(lm.D9.)) == 3, is.na(cc[3]),
           dim(coef(Sm.D9.)) == c(2,4), Sm.D9.$df == c(2, 18, 3))
```

summary.manova	<i>Summary Method for Multivariate Analysis of Variance</i>
----------------	---

Description

A summary method for class "manova".

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'manova'
summary(object,
        test = c("Pillai", "Wilks", "Hotelling-Lawley", "Roy"),
        intercept = FALSE, tol = 1e-7, ...)
```

Arguments

- object An object of class "manova" or an aov object with multiple responses.
- test The name of the test statistic to be used. Partial matching is used so the name can be abbreviated.
- intercept logical. If TRUE, the intercept term is included in the table.
- tol tolerance to be used in deciding if the residuals are rank-deficient: see [qr](#).
- ... further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The summary.manova method uses a multivariate test statistic for the summary table. Wilks' statistic is most popular in the literature, but the default Pillai–Bartlett statistic is recommended by Hand and Taylor (1987).

The table gives a transformation of the test statistic which has approximately an F distribution. The approximations used follow S-PLUS and SAS (the latter apart from some cases of the Hotelling–Lawley statistic), but many other distributional approximations exist: see Anderson (1984) and

Krzanowski and Marriott (1994) for further references. All four approximate F statistics are the same when the term being tested has one degree of freedom, but in other cases that for the Roy statistic is an upper bound.

The tolerance tol is applied to the QR decomposition of the residual correlation matrix (unless some response has essentially zero residuals, when it is unscaled). Thus the default value guards against very highly correlated responses: it can be reduced but doing so will allow rather inaccurate results and it will normally be better to transform the responses to remove the high correlation.

Value

An object of class "summary.manova". If there is a positive residual degrees of freedom, this is a list with components

row.names	The names of the terms, the row names of the stats table if present.
SS	A named list of sums of squares and product matrices.
Eigenvalues	A matrix of eigenvalues.
stats	A matrix of the statistics, approximate F value, degrees of freedom and P value.

otherwise components row.names, SS and Df (degrees of freedom) for the terms (and not the residuals).

References

- Anderson, T. W. (1994) *An Introduction to Multivariate Statistical Analysis*. Wiley.
- Hand, D. J. and Taylor, C. C. (1987) *Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Repeated Measures*. Chapman and Hall.
- Krzanowski, W. J. (1988) *Principles of Multivariate Analysis. A User's Perspective*. Oxford.
- Krzanowski, W. J. and Marriott, F. H. C. (1994) *Multivariate Analysis. Part I: Distributions, Ordination and Inference*. Edward Arnold.

See Also

[manova](#), [aov](#)

Examples

```
## Example on producing plastic film from Krzanowski (1998, p. 381)
tear <- c(6.5, 6.2, 5.8, 6.5, 6.5, 6.9, 7.2, 6.9, 6.1, 6.3,
          6.7, 6.6, 7.2, 7.1, 6.8, 7.1, 7.0, 7.2, 7.5, 7.6)
gloss <- c(9.5, 9.9, 9.6, 9.6, 9.2, 9.1, 10.0, 9.9, 9.5, 9.4,
           9.1, 9.3, 8.3, 8.4, 8.5, 9.2, 8.8, 9.7, 10.1, 9.2)
opacity <- c(4.4, 6.4, 3.0, 4.1, 0.8, 5.7, 2.0, 3.9, 1.9, 5.7,
             2.8, 4.1, 3.8, 1.6, 3.4, 8.4, 5.2, 6.9, 2.7, 1.9)
Y <- cbind(tear, gloss, opacity)
rate <- factor(gl(2,10), labels = c("Low", "High"))
additive <- factor(gl(2, 5, length = 20), labels = c("Low", "High"))

fit <- manova(Y ~ rate * additive)
```

```
summary.aov(fit)           # univariate ANOVA tables
summary(fit, test = "Wilks") # ANOVA table of Wilks' lambda
summary(fit)               # same F statistics as single-df terms
```

summary.nls

Summarizing Non-Linear Least-Squares Model Fits

Description

summary method for class "nls".

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'nls'
summary(object, correlation = FALSE, symbolic.cor = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'summary.nls'
print(x, digits = max(3, getOption("digits") - 3),
      symbolic.cor = x$symbolic.cor,
      signif.stars = getOption("show.signif.stars"), ...)
```

Arguments

object	an object of class "nls".
x	an object of class "summary.nls", usually the result of a call to summary.nls.
correlation	logical; if TRUE, the correlation matrix of the estimated parameters is returned and printed.
digits	the number of significant digits to use when printing.
symbolic.cor	logical. If TRUE, print the correlations in a symbolic form (see symnum) rather than as numbers.
signif.stars	logical. If TRUE, 'significance stars' are printed for each coefficient.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The distribution theory used to find the distribution of the standard errors and of the residual standard error (for t ratios) is based on linearization and is approximate, maybe very approximate.

print.summary.nls tries to be smart about formatting the coefficients, standard errors, etc. and additionally gives 'significance stars' if signif.stars is TRUE.

Correlations are printed to two decimal places (or symbolically): to see the actual correlations print summary(object)\$correlation directly.

Value

The function `summary.nls` computes and returns a list of summary statistics of the fitted model given in `object`, using the component "formula" from its argument, plus

- `residuals` the *weighted* residuals, the usual residuals rescaled by the square root of the weights specified in the call to `nls`.
- `coefficients` a $p \times 4$ matrix with columns for the estimated coefficient, its standard error, t-statistic and corresponding (two-sided) p-value.
- `sigma` the square root of the estimated variance of the random error

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n - p} \sum_i R_i^2,$$

where R_i is the i -th weighted residual.

- `df` degrees of freedom, a 2-vector $(p, n - p)$. (Here and elsewhere n omits observations with zero weights.)
- `cov.unscaled` a $p \times p$ matrix of (unscaled) covariances of the parameter estimates.
- `correlation` the correlation matrix corresponding to the above `cov.unscaled`, if `correlation = TRUE` is specified and there are a non-zero number of residual degrees of freedom.
- `symbolic.cor` (only if `correlation` is true.) The value of the argument `symbolic.cor`.

See Also

The model fitting function [nls](#), [summary](#).
Function [coef](#) will extract the matrix of coefficients with standard errors, t-statistics and p-values.

<code>summary.princomp</code>	<i>Summary method for Principal Components Analysis</i>
-------------------------------	---

Description

The [summary](#) method for class "princomp".

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'princomp'
summary(object, loadings = FALSE, cutoff = 0.1, ...)

## S3 method for class 'summary.princomp'
print(x, digits = 3, loadings = x$print.loadings,
      cutoff = x$cutoff, ...)
```

Arguments

object	an object of class "princomp", as from princomp().
loadings	logical. Should loadings be included?
cutoff	numeric. Loadings below this cutoff in absolute value are shown as blank in the output.
x	an object of class "summary.princomp".
digits	the number of significant digits to be used in listing loadings.
...	arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Value

object with additional components cutoff and print.loadings.

See Also

[princomp](#)

Examples

```
summary(pc.cr <- princomp(USArrests, cor = TRUE))
## The signs of the loading columns are arbitrary
print(summary(princomp(USArrests, cor = TRUE),
               loadings = TRUE, cutoff = 0.2), digits = 2)
```

supsmu	<i>Friedman's SuperSmoother</i>
--------	---------------------------------

Description

Smooth the (x, y) values by Friedman's 'super smoother'.

Usage

```
supsmu(x, y, wt, span = "cv", periodic = FALSE, bass = 0)
```

Arguments

x	x values for smoothing
y	y values for smoothing
wt	case weights, by default all equal
span	the fraction of the observations in the span of the running lines smoother, or "cv" to choose this by leave-one-out cross-validation.
periodic	if TRUE, the x values are assumed to be in [0, 1] and of period 1.
bass	controls the smoothness of the fitted curve. Values of up to 10 indicate increasing smoothness.

Details

supsmu is a running lines smoother which chooses between three spans for the lines. The running lines smoothers are symmetric, with $k/2$ data points each side of the predicted point, and values of k as $0.5 * n$, $0.2 * n$ and $0.05 * n$, where n is the number of data points. If span is specified, a single smoother with span $span * n$ is used.

The best of the three smoothers is chosen by cross-validation for each prediction. The best spans are then smoothed by a running lines smoother and the final prediction chosen by linear interpolation.

The FORTRAN code says: “For small samples ($n < 40$) or if there are substantial serial correlations between observations close in x-value, then a pre-specified fixed span smoother ($span > 0$) should be used. Reasonable span values are 0.2 to 0.4.”

Cases with non-finite values of x , y or wt are dropped, with a warning.

Value

A list with components

x	the input values in increasing order with duplicates removed.
y	the corresponding y values on the fitted curve.

References

Friedman, J. H. (1984) SMART User’s Guide. Laboratory for Computational Statistics, Stanford University Technical Report No. 1.

Friedman, J. H. (1984) A variable span scatterplot smoother. Laboratory for Computational Statistics, Stanford University Technical Report No. 5.

See Also

[ppr](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

with(cars, {
  plot(speed, dist)
  lines(supsmu(speed, dist))
  lines(supsmu(speed, dist, bass = 7), lty = 2)
})
```

Description

Symbolically encode a given numeric or logical vector or array. Particularly useful for visualization of structured matrices, e.g., correlation, sparse, or logical ones.

Usage

```
symnum(x, cutpoints = c(0.3, 0.6, 0.8, 0.9, 0.95),
       symbols = if(numeric.x) c(" ", ".", ",", "+", "*", "B")
               else c(".", "|"),
       legend = length(symbols) >= 3,
       na = "?", eps = 1e-5, numeric.x = is.numeric(x),
       corr = missing(cutpoints) && numeric.x,
       show.max = if(corr) "1", show.min = NULL,
       abbr.colnames = has.colnames,
       lower.triangular = corr && is.numeric(x) && is.matrix(x),
       diag.lower.tri = corr && !is.null(show.max))
```

Arguments

x	numeric or logical vector or array.
cutpoints	numeric vector whose values $\text{cutpoints}[j] = c_j$ (<i>after</i> augmentation, see <code>corr</code> below) are used for intervals.
symbols	character vector, one shorter than (the <i>augmented</i> , see <code>corr</code> below) <code>cutpoints</code> . $\text{symbols}[j] = s_j$ are used as ‘code’ for the (half open) interval $(c_j, c_{j+1}]$. When <code>numeric.x</code> is FALSE, i.e., by default when argument <code>x</code> is logical, the default is <code>c(".", " ")</code> (graphical 0 / 1 s).
legend	logical indicating if a “legend” attribute is desired.
na	character or logical. How NAs are coded. If <code>na == FALSE</code> , NAs are coded invisibly, <i>including</i> the “legend” attribute below, which otherwise mentions NA coding.
eps	absolute precision to be used at left and right boundary.
numeric.x	logical indicating if <code>x</code> should be treated as numbers, otherwise as logical.
corr	logical. If TRUE, <code>x</code> contains correlations. The cutpoints are augmented by 0 and 1 and <code>abs(x)</code> is coded.
show.max	if TRUE, or of mode character, the maximal cutpoint is coded especially.
show.min	if TRUE, or of mode character, the minimal cutpoint is coded especially.
abbr.colnames	logical, integer or NULL indicating how column names should be abbreviated (if they are); if NULL (or FALSE and <code>x</code> has no column names), the column names will all be empty, i.e., “”; otherwise if <code>abbr.colnames</code> is false, they are left unchanged. If TRUE or integer, existing column names will be abbreviated to <code>abbreviate(*, minlength = abbr.colnames)</code> .

`lower.triangular` logical. If TRUE and `x` is a matrix, only the *lower triangular* part of the matrix is coded as non-blank.

`diag.lower.tri` logical. If `lower.triangular` *and* this are TRUE, the *diagonal* part of the matrix is shown.

Value

An atomic character object of class `noquote` and the same dimensions as `x`.

If `legend` is TRUE (as by default when there are more than two classes), the result has an attribute "legend" containing a legend of the returned character codes, in the form

$$c_1 s_1 c_2 s_2 \dots s_n c_{n+1}$$

where c_j = `cutpoints[j]` and s_j = `symbols[j]`.

Note

The optional (mostly logical) arguments all try to use smart defaults. Specifying them explicitly may lead to considerably improved output in many cases.

Author(s)

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See Also

[as.character](#); [image](#)

Examples

```
ii <- setNames(0:8, 0:8)
symnum(ii, cut = 2*(0:4), sym = c(".", "-", "+", "$"))
symnum(ii, cut = 2*(0:4), sym = c(".", "-", "+", "$"), show.max = TRUE)

symnum(1:12 %% 3 == 0) # --> "|" = TRUE, "." = FALSE for logical

## Pascal's Triangle modulo 2 -- odd and even numbers:
N <- 38
pascal <- t(sapply(0:N, function(n) round(choose(n, 0:N - (N-n)%/2))))
rownames(pascal) <- rep("", 1+N) # <-- to improve "graphic"
symnum(pascal %% 2, symbols = c(" ", "A"), numeric = FALSE)

##-- Symbolic correlation matrices:
symnum(cor(attitude), diag = FALSE)
symnum(cor(attitude), abbr. = NULL)
symnum(cor(attitude), abbr. = FALSE)
symnum(cor(attitude), abbr. = 2)

symnum(cor(rbind(1, rnorm(25), rnorm(25)^2)))
symnum(cor(matrix(rexp(30, 1), 5, 18))) # <-- PATTERN ! --
```

```

symnum(cm1 <- cor(matrix(rnorm(90) , 5, 18))) # < White Noise SMALL n
symnum(cm1, diag = FALSE)
symnum(cm2 <- cor(matrix(rnorm(900), 50, 18))) # < White Noise "BIG" n
symnum(cm2, lower = FALSE)

## NA's:
Cm <- cor(matrix(rnorm(60), 10, 6)); Cm[c(3,6), 2] <- NA
symnum(Cm, show.max = NULL)

## Graphical P-values (aka "significance stars"):
pval <- rev(sort(c(outer(1:6, 10^(1:3))))))
symp <- symnum(pval, corr = FALSE,
               cutpoints = c(0, .001,.01,.05, .1, 1),
               symbols = c("***", "**", "*", ".", " "))
noquote(cbind(P.val = format(pval), Signif = symp))

```

t.test

Student's t-Test

Description

Performs one and two sample t-tests on vectors of data.

Usage

```

t.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
t.test(x, y = NULL,
       alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
       mu = 0, paired = FALSE, var.equal = FALSE,
       conf.level = 0.95, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
t.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)

```

Arguments

x	a (non-empty) numeric vector of data values.
y	an optional (non-empty) numeric vector of data values.
alternative	a character string specifying the alternative hypothesis, must be one of "two.sided" (default), "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter.
mu	a number indicating the true value of the mean (or difference in means if you are performing a two sample test).
paired	a logical indicating whether you want a paired t-test.

<code>var.equal</code>	a logical variable indicating whether to treat the two variances as being equal. If TRUE then the pooled variance is used to estimate the variance otherwise the Welch (or Satterthwaite) approximation to the degrees of freedom is used.
<code>conf.level</code>	confidence level of the interval.
<code>formula</code>	a formula of the form <code>lhs ~ rhs</code> where <code>lhs</code> is a numeric variable giving the data values and <code>rhs</code> a factor with two levels giving the corresponding groups.
<code>data</code>	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula <code>formula</code> . By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
<code>subset</code>	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
<code>na.action</code>	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to <code>getOption("na.action")</code> .
<code>...</code>	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

The formula interface is only applicable for the 2-sample tests.

`alternative = "greater"` is the alternative that `x` has a larger mean than `y`.

If `paired` is TRUE then both `x` and `y` must be specified and they must be the same length. Missing values are silently removed (in pairs if `paired` is TRUE). If `var.equal` is TRUE then the pooled estimate of the variance is used. By default, if `var.equal` is FALSE then the variance is estimated separately for both groups and the Welch modification to the degrees of freedom is used.

If the input data are effectively constant (compared to the larger of the two means) an error is generated.

Value

A list with class `"htest"` containing the following components:

<code>statistic</code>	the value of the t-statistic.
<code>parameter</code>	the degrees of freedom for the t-statistic.
<code>p.value</code>	the p-value for the test.
<code>conf.int</code>	a confidence interval for the mean appropriate to the specified alternative hypothesis.
<code>estimate</code>	the estimated mean or difference in means depending on whether it was a one-sample test or a two-sample test.
<code>null.value</code>	the specified hypothesized value of the mean or mean difference depending on whether it was a one-sample test or a two-sample test.
<code>alternative</code>	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.
<code>method</code>	a character string indicating what type of t-test was performed.
<code>data.name</code>	a character string giving the name(s) of the data.

See Also

[prop.test](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

t.test(1:10, y = c(7:20))      # P = .00001855
t.test(1:10, y = c(7:20, 200)) # P = .1245    -- NOT significant anymore

## Classical example: Student's sleep data
plot(extra ~ group, data = sleep)
## Traditional interface
with(sleep, t.test(extra[group == 1], extra[group == 2]))
## Formula interface
t.test(extra ~ group, data = sleep)
```

TDist

*The Student t Distribution***Description**

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the t distribution with df degrees of freedom (and optional non-centrality parameter ncp).

Usage

```
dt(x, df, ncp, log = FALSE)
pt(q, df, ncp, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qt(p, df, ncp, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rt(n, df, ncp)
```

Arguments

x, q	vector of quantiles.
p	vector of probabilities.
n	number of observations. If length(n) > 1, the length is taken to be the number required.
df	degrees of freedom (> 0, maybe non-integer). df = Inf is allowed.
ncp	non-centrality parameter δ ; currently except for rt(), only for abs(ncp) <= 37.62. If omitted, use the central t distribution.
log, log.p	logical; if TRUE, probabilities p are given as log(p).
lower.tail	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The t distribution with $df = \nu$ degrees of freedom has density

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma((\nu + 1)/2)}{\sqrt{\pi\nu}\Gamma(\nu/2)} (1 + x^2/\nu)^{-(\nu+1)/2}$$

for all real x . It has mean 0 (for $\nu > 1$) and variance $\frac{\nu}{\nu-2}$ (for $\nu > 2$).

The general *non-central t* with parameters $(\nu, \delta) = (\text{df}, \text{ncp})$ is defined as the distribution of $T_\nu(\delta) := (U + \delta)/\sqrt{V/\nu}$ where U and V are independent random variables, $U \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and $V \sim \chi_\nu^2$ (see [Chisquare](#)).

The most used applications are power calculations for t -tests:

Let $T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{S/\sqrt{n}}$ where \bar{X} is the [mean](#) and S the sample standard deviation ([sd](#)) of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n which are i.i.d. $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then T is distributed as non-central t with $\text{df} = n - 1$ degrees of freedom and non-centrality parameter $\text{ncp} = (\mu - \mu_0)\sqrt{n}/\sigma$.

Value

`dt` gives the density, `pt` gives the distribution function, `qt` gives the quantile function, and `rt` generates random deviates.

Invalid arguments will result in return value NaN, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by `n` for `rt`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `n` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

Supplying `ncp = 0` uses the algorithm for the non-central distribution, which is not the same algorithm used if `ncp` is omitted. This is to give consistent behaviour in extreme cases with values of `ncp` very near zero.

The code for non-zero `ncp` is principally intended to be used for moderate values of `ncp`: it will not be highly accurate, especially in the tails, for large values.

Source

The central `dt` is computed via an accurate formula provided by Catherine Loader (see the reference in [dbinom](#)).

For the non-central case of `dt`, C code contributed by Claus Ekstrøm based on the relationship (for $x \neq 0$) to the cumulative distribution.

For the central case of `pt`, a normal approximation in the tails, otherwise via [pbeta](#).

For the non-central case of `pt` based on a C translation of

Lenth, R. V. (1989). *Algorithm AS 243* — Cumulative distribution function of the non-central t distribution, *Applied Statistics* **38**, 185–189.

This computes the lower tail only, so the upper tail suffers from cancellation and a warning will be given when this is likely to be significant.

For central `qt`, a C translation of

Hill, G. W. (1970) Algorithm 396: Student's t -quantiles. *Communications of the ACM*, **13**(10), 619–620.

altered to take account of

Hill, G. W. (1981) Remark on Algorithm 396, *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, **7**, 250–1.

The non-central case is done by inversion.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole. (Except non-central versions.)

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 2, chapters 28 and 31. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including [df](#) for the F distribution.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

1 - pt(1:5, df = 1)
qt(.975, df = c(1:10,20,50,100,1000))

tt <- seq(0, 10, len = 21)
ncp <- seq(0, 6, len = 31)
ptn <- outer(tt, ncp, function(t, d) pt(t, df = 3, ncp = d))
t.tit <- "Non-central t - Probabilities"
image(tt, ncp, ptn, zlim = c(0,1), main = t.tit)
persp(tt, ncp, ptn, zlim = 0:1, r = 2, phi = 20, theta = 200, main = t.tit,
       xlab = "t", ylab = "non-centrality parameter",
       zlab = "Pr(T <= t)")

plot(function(x) dt(x, df = 3, ncp = 2), -3, 11, ylim = c(0, 0.32),
     main = "Non-central t - Density", yaxs = "i")
```

termplot

Plot Regression Terms

Description

Plots regression terms against their predictors, optionally with standard errors and partial residuals added.

Usage

```
termplot(model, data = NULL, envir = environment(formula(model)),
         partial.resid = FALSE, rug = FALSE,
         terms = NULL, se = FALSE,
         xlabs = NULL, ylabs = NULL, main = NULL,
```

```
col.term = 2, lwd.term = 1.5,
col.se = "orange", lty.se = 2, lwd.se = 1,
col.res = "gray", cex = 1, pch = par("pch"),
col.smth = "darkred", lty.smth = 2, span.smth = 2/3,
ask = dev.interactive() && nb.fig < n.tms,
use.factor.levels = TRUE, smooth = NULL, ylim = "common",
plot = TRUE, transform.x = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

model	fitted model object
data	data frame in which variables in model can be found
envir	environment in which variables in model can be found
partial.resid	logical; should partial residuals be plotted?
rug	add rugplots (jittered 1-d histograms) to the axes?
terms	which terms to plot (default NULL means all terms); a vector passed to predict (., type = "terms", terms = *).
se	plot pointwise standard errors?
xlabs	vector of labels for the x axes
ylabs	vector of labels for the y axes
main	logical, or vector of main titles; if TRUE, the model's call is taken as main title, NULL or FALSE mean no titles.
col.term, lwd.term	color and line width for the 'term curve', see lines .
col.se, lty.se, lwd.se	color, line type and line width for the 'twice-standard-error curve' when se = TRUE.
col.res, cex, pch	color, plotting character expansion and type for partial residuals, when partial.resid = TRUE, see points .
ask	logical; if TRUE, the user is <i>asked</i> before each plot, see par (ask=.).
use.factor.levels	Should x-axis ticks use factor levels or numbers for factor terms?
smooth	NULL or a function with the same arguments as panel.smooth to draw a smooth through the partial residuals for non-factor terms
lty.smth, col.smth, span.smth	Passed to smooth
ylim	an optional range for the y axis, or "common" when a range sufficient for all the plot will be computed, or "free" when limits are computed for each plot.
plot	if set to FALSE plots are not produced: instead a list is returned containing the data that would have been plotted.
transform.x	logical vector; if an element (recycled as necessary) is TRUE, partial residuals for the corresponding term are plotted against transformed values. The model response is then a straight line, allowing a ready comparison against the data or against the curve obtained from smooth-panel.smooth .
...	other graphical parameters.

Details

The model object must have a predict method that accepts `type = "terms"`, e.g., `glm` in the **stats** package, `coxph` and `survreg` in the **survival** package.

For the `partial.resid = TRUE` option model must have a `residuals` method that accepts `type = "partial"`, which `lm` and `glm` do.

The `data` argument should rarely be needed, but in some cases `termplot` may be unable to reconstruct the original data frame. Using `na.action=na.exclude` makes these problems less likely.

Nothing sensible happens for interaction terms, and they may cause errors.

The `plot = FALSE` option is useful when some special action is needed, e.g. to overlay the results of two different models or to plot confidence bands.

Value

For `plot = FALSE`, a list with one element for each plot which would have been produced. Each element of the list is a data frame with variables `x`, `y`, and optionally the pointwise standard errors `se`. For continuous predictors `x` will contain the ordered unique values and for a factor it will be a factor containing one instance of each level. The list has attribute `"constant"` copied from the predicted terms object.

Otherwise, the number of terms, invisibly.

See Also

For (generalized) linear models, `plot.lm` and `predict.glm`.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

had.splines <- "package:splines" %in% search()
if(!had.splines) rs <- require(splines)
x <- 1:100
z <- factor(rep(LETTERS[1:4], 25))
y <- rnorm(100, sin(x/10)+as.numeric(z))
model <- glm(y ~ ns(x, 6) + z)

par(mfrow = c(2,2)) ## 2 x 2 plots for same model :
termplot(model, main = paste("termplot( ", deparse(model$call)," ...)")
termplot(model, rug = TRUE)
termplot(model, partial.resid = TRUE, se = TRUE, main = TRUE)
termplot(model, partial.resid = TRUE, smooth = panel.smooth, span.smth = 1/4)
if(!had.splines && rs) detach("package:splines")

## requires recommended package MASS
hills.lm <- lm(log(time) ~ log(climb)+log(dist), data = MASS::hills)
termplot(hills.lm, partial.resid = TRUE, smooth = panel.smooth,
         terms = "log(dist)", main = "Original")
termplot(hills.lm, transform.x = TRUE,
         partial.resid = TRUE, smooth = panel.smooth,
         terms = "log(dist)", main = "Transformed")
```

terms	<i>Model Terms</i>
-------	--------------------

Description

The function `terms` is a generic function which can be used to extract *terms* objects from various kinds of R data objects.

Usage

```
terms(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	object used to select a method to dispatch.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

There are methods for classes `"aovlist"`, and `"terms"` `"formula"` (see [terms.formula](#)): the default method just extracts the `terms` component of the object, or failing that a `"terms"` attribute (as used by [model.frame](#)).

There are [print](#) and [labels](#) methods for class `"terms"`: the latter prints the term labels (see [terms.object](#)).

Value

An object of class `c("terms", "formula")` which contains the *terms* representation of a symbolic model. See [terms.object](#) for its structure.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical models*. Chapter 2 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[terms.object](#), [terms.formula](#), [lm](#), [glm](#), [formula](#).

terms.formula	<i>Construct a terms Object from a Formula</i>
---------------	--

Description

This function takes a formula and some optional arguments and constructs a terms object. The terms object can then be used to construct a `model.matrix`.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'formula'
terms(x, specials = NULL, abb = NULL, data = NULL, neg.out = TRUE,
      keep.order = FALSE, simplify = FALSE, ...,
      allowDotAsName = FALSE)
```

Arguments

x	a formula.
specials	which functions in the formula should be marked as special in the terms object? A character vector or NULL.
abb	Not implemented in R.
data	a data frame from which the meaning of the special symbol . can be inferred. It is unused if there is no . in the formula.
neg.out	Not implemented in R.
keep.order	a logical value indicating whether the terms should keep their positions. If FALSE the terms are reordered so that main effects come first, followed by the interactions, all second-order, all third-order and so on. Effects of a given order are kept in the order specified.
simplify	should the formula be expanded and simplified, the pre-1.7.0 behaviour?
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.
allowDotAsName	normally . in a formula refers to the remaining variables contained in data. Exceptionally, . can be treated as a name for non-standard uses of formulae.

Details

Not all of the options work in the same way that they do in S and not all are implemented.

Value

A `terms.object` object is returned. The object itself is the re-ordered (unless `keep.order = TRUE`) formula. In all cases variables within an interaction term in the formula are re-ordered by the ordering of the "variables" attribute, which is the order in which the variables occur in the formula.

See Also

`terms`, `terms.object`

terms.object	<i>Description of Terms Objects</i>
--------------	-------------------------------------

Description

An object of class `terms` holds information about a model. Usually the model was specified in terms of a `formula` and that formula was used to determine the terms object.

Value

The object itself is simply the formula supplied to the call of `terms.formula`. The object has a number of attributes and they are used to construct the model frame:

factors	A matrix of variables by terms showing which variables appear in which terms. The entries are 0 if the variable does not occur in the term, 1 if it does occur and should be coded by contrasts, and 2 if it occurs and should be coded via dummy variables for all levels (as when a lower-order term is missing). Note that variables in main effects always receive 1, even if the intercept is missing (in which case the first one should be coded with dummy variables). If there are no terms other than an intercept and offsets, this is <code>numeric(0)</code> .
term.labels	A character vector containing the labels for each of the terms in the model, except for offsets. Note that these are after possible re-ordering of terms. Non-syntactic names will be quoted by backticks: this makes it easier to re-construct the formula from the term labels.
variables	A call to <code>list</code> of the variables in the model.
intercept	Either 0, indicating no intercept is to be fit, or 1 indicating that an intercept is to be fit.
order	A vector of the same length as <code>term.labels</code> indicating the order of interaction for each term.
response	The index of the variable (in <code>variables</code>) of the response (the left hand side of the formula). Zero, if there is no response.
offset	If the model contains <code>offset</code> terms there is an <code>offset</code> attribute indicating which variable(s) are offsets
specials	If a <code>specials</code> argument was given to <code>terms.formula</code> there is a <code>specials</code> attribute, a pairlist of vectors (one for each specified special function) giving numeric indices of the arguments of the list returned as the <code>variables</code> attribute which contain these special functions.
dataClasses	optional. A named character vector giving the classes (as given by <code>.MFclass</code>) of the variables used in a fit.
predvars	optional. An expression to help in computing predictions at new covariate values; see <code>makepredictcall</code> .

The object has class `c("terms", "formula")`.

Note

These objects are different from those found in S. In particular there is no formula attribute: instead the object is itself a formula. (Thus, the mode of a terms object is different.)

Examples of the specials argument can be seen in the [aov](#) and [coxph](#) functions, the latter from package [survival](#).

See Also

[terms](#), [formula](#).

Examples

```
## use of specials (as used for gam() in packages mgcv and gam)
(tf <- terms(y ~ x + x:z + s(x), specials = "s"))
## Note that the "factors" attribute has variables as row names
## and term labels as column names, both as character vectors.
attr(tf, "specials")    # index 's' variable(s)
rownames(attr(tf, "factors"))[attr(tf, "specials")$s]

## we can keep the order by
terms(y ~ x + x:z + s(x), specials = "s", keep.order = TRUE)
```

time

Sampling Times of Time Series

Description

time creates the vector of times at which a time series was sampled.

cycle gives the positions in the cycle of each observation.

frequency returns the number of samples per unit time and deltata the time interval between observations (see [ts](#)).

Usage

```
time(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
time(x, offset = 0, ...)

cycle(x, ...)
frequency(x, ...)
deltata(x, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a univariate or multivariate time-series, or a vector or matrix.
offset	can be used to indicate when sampling took place in the time unit. 0 (the default) indicates the start of the unit, 0.5 the middle and 1 the end of the interval.
...	extra arguments for future methods.

Details

These are all generic functions, which will use the `tsp` attribute of `x` if it exists. `time` and `cycle` have methods for class `ts` that coerce the result to that class.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`ts`, `start`, `tsp`, `window`.

`date` for clock time, `system.time` for CPU usage.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

cycle(presidents)
# a simple series plot
plot(as.vector(time(presidents)), as.vector(presidents), type = "l")
```

toeplitz

Form Symmetric Toeplitz Matrix

Description

Forms a symmetric Toeplitz matrix given its first row.

Usage

```
toeplitz(x, ...)
```

Arguments

`x` the first row to form the Toeplitz matrix.
`...` potential further arguments (for methods); none here.

Value

The Toeplitz matrix.

Author(s)

A. Trapletti

Examples

```
x <- 1:5
toeplitz(x)
```

ts

Time-Series Objects

Description

The function `ts` is used to create time-series objects.

`as.ts` and `is.ts` coerce an object to a time-series and test whether an object is a time series.

Usage

```
ts(data = NA, start = 1, end = numeric(), frequency = 1,
   deltat = 1, ts.eps = getOption("ts.eps"), class = , names = )
as.ts(x, ...)
is.ts(x)
```

Arguments

<code>data</code>	a vector or matrix of the observed time-series values. A data frame will be coerced to a numeric matrix via <code>data.matrix</code> . (See also ‘Details’.)
<code>start</code>	the time of the first observation. Either a single number or a vector of two integers, which specify a natural time unit and a (1-based) number of samples into the time unit. See the examples for the use of the second form.
<code>end</code>	the time of the last observation, specified in the same way as <code>start</code> .
<code>frequency</code>	the number of observations per unit of time.
<code>deltat</code>	the fraction of the sampling period between successive observations; e.g., 1/12 for monthly data. Only one of <code>frequency</code> or <code>deltat</code> should be provided.
<code>ts.eps</code>	time series comparison tolerance. Frequencies are considered equal if their absolute difference is less than <code>ts.eps</code> .
<code>class</code>	class to be given to the result, or none if NULL or "none". The default is "ts" for a single series, <code>c("mts", "ts", "matrix")</code> for multiple series.
<code>names</code>	a character vector of names for the series in a multiple series: defaults to the <code>colnames</code> of <code>data</code> , or <code>Series 1, Series 2, ...</code> .
<code>x</code>	an arbitrary R object.
<code>...</code>	arguments passed to methods (unused for the default method).

Details

The function `ts` is used to create time-series objects. These are vector or matrices with class of `"ts"` (and additional attributes) which represent data which has been sampled at equispaced points in time. In the matrix case, each column of the matrix data is assumed to contain a single (univariate) time series. Time series must have at least one observation, and although they need not be numeric there is very limited support for non-numeric series.

Class `"ts"` has a number of methods. In particular arithmetic will attempt to align time axes, and subsetting to extract subsets of series can be used (e.g., `EuStockMarkets[, "DAX"]`). However, subsetting the first (or only) dimension will return a matrix or vector, as will matrix subsetting. Subassignment can be used to replace values but not to extend a series (see [window](#)). There is a method for `t` that transposes the series as a matrix (a one-column matrix if a vector) and hence returns a result that does not inherit from class `"ts"`.

The value of argument `frequency` is used when the series is sampled an integral number of times in each unit time interval. For example, one could use a value of 7 for frequency when the data are sampled daily, and the natural time period is a week, or 12 when the data are sampled monthly and the natural time period is a year. Values of 4 and 12 are assumed in (e.g.) print methods to imply a quarterly and monthly series respectively.

`as.ts` is generic. Its default method will use the `tsp` attribute of the object if it has one to set the start and end times and frequency.

`is.ts` tests if an object is a time series. It is generic: you can write methods to handle specific classes of objects, see [InternalMethods](#).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[tsp](#), [frequency](#), [start](#), [end](#), [time](#), [window](#); [print.ts](#), the print method for time series objects; [plot.ts](#), the plot method for time series objects.

For other definitions of ‘time series’ (e.g., time-ordered observations) see the CRAN task view at <https://cran.r-project.org/web/views/TimeSeries.html>.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

ts(1:10, frequency = 4, start = c(1959, 2)) # 2nd Quarter of 1959
print( ts(1:10, frequency = 7, start = c(12, 2)), calendar = TRUE)
# print.ts(.)
## Using July 1954 as start date:
gnp <- ts(cumsum(1 + round(rnorm(100), 2)),
          start = c(1954, 7), frequency = 12)
plot(gnp) # using 'plot.ts' for time-series plot

## Multivariate
z <- ts(matrix(rnorm(300), 100, 3), start = c(1961, 1), frequency = 12)
```

```
class(z)
head(z) # as "matrix"
plot(z)
plot(z, plot.type = "single", lty = 1:3)

## A phase plot:
plot(nhtemp, lag(nhtemp, 1), cex = .8, col = "blue",
     main = "Lag plot of New Haven temperatures")
```

ts-methods*Methods for Time Series Objects*

Description

Methods for objects of class "ts", typically the result of [ts](#).

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'ts'
diff(x, lag = 1, differences = 1, ...)

## S3 method for class 'ts'
na.omit(object, ...)
```

Arguments

x	an object of class "ts" containing the values to be differenced.
lag	an integer indicating which lag to use.
differences	an integer indicating the order of the difference.
object	a univariate or multivariate time series.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

The `na.omit` method omits initial and final segments with missing values in one or more of the series. 'Internal' missing values will lead to failure.

Value

For the `na.omit` method, a time series without missing values. The class of object will be preserved.

See Also

[diff](#); [na.omit](#), [na.fail](#), [na.contiguous](#).

ts.plot	<i>Plot Multiple Time Series</i>
---------	----------------------------------

Description

Plot several time series on a common plot. Unlike [plot.ts](#) the series can have a different time bases, but they should have the same frequency.

Usage

```
ts.plot(..., gpars = list())
```

Arguments

...	one or more univariate or multivariate time series.
gpars	list of named graphics parameters to be passed to the plotting functions. Those commonly used can be supplied directly in ...

Value

None.

Note

Although this can be used for a single time series, `plot` is easier to use and is preferred.

See Also

[plot.ts](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

ts.plot(ldeaths, mdeaths, fdeaths,
        gpars=list(xlab="year", ylab="deaths", lty=c(1:3)))
```

ts.union	<i>Bind Two or More Time Series</i>
----------	-------------------------------------

Description

Bind time series which have a common frequency. `ts.union` pads with NAs to the total time coverage, `ts.intersect` restricts to the time covered by all the series.

Usage

```
ts.intersect(..., dframe = FALSE)
ts.union(..., dframe = FALSE)
```

Arguments

...	two or more univariate or multivariate time series, or objects which can coerced to time series.
dframe	logical; if TRUE return the result as a data frame.

Details

As a special case, ... can contain vectors or matrices of the same length as the combined time series of the time series present, as well as those of a single row.

Value

A time series object if `dframe` is FALSE, otherwise a data frame.

See Also

[cbind](#).

Examples

```
ts.union(mdeaths, fdeaths)
cbind(mdeaths, fdeaths) # same as the previous line
ts.intersect(window(mdeaths, 1976), window(fdeaths, 1974, 1978))

sales1 <- ts.union(BJsales, lead = BJsales.lead)
ts.intersect(sales1, lead3 = lag(BJsales.lead, -3))
```

tsdiag

Diagnostic Plots for Time-Series Fits

Description

A generic function to plot time-series diagnostics.

Usage

```
tsdiag(object, gof.lag, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	a fitted time-series model
<code>gof.lag</code>	the maximum number of lags for a Portmanteau goodness-of-fit test
<code>...</code>	further arguments to be passed to particular methods

Details

This is a generic function. It will generally plot the residuals, often standardized, the autocorrelation function of the residuals, and the p-values of a Portmanteau test for all lags up to `gof.lag`.

The methods for [arima](#) and [StructTS](#) objects plots residuals scaled by the estimate of their (individual) variance, and use the Ljung–Box version of the portmanteau test.

Value

None. Diagnostics are plotted.

See Also

[arima](#), [StructTS](#), [Box.test](#)

Examples

```
require(graphics)

fit <- arima(lh, c(1,0,0))
tsdiag(fit)

## see also examples(arima)

(fit <- StructTS(log10(JohnsonJohnson), type = "BSM"))
tsdiag(fit)
```

tsp*Tsp Attribute of Time-Series-like Objects*

Description

tsp returns the tsp attribute (or NULL). It is included for compatibility with S version 2. `tsp<-` sets the tsp attribute. `hasTsp` ensures x has a tsp attribute, by adding one if needed.

Usage

```
tsp(x)
tsp(x) <- value
hasTsp(x)
```

Arguments

x	a vector or matrix or univariate or multivariate time-series.
value	a numeric vector of length 3 or NULL.

Details

The tsp attribute gives the start time *in time units*, the end time and the frequency (the number of observations per unit of time, e.g. 12 for a monthly series).

Assignments are checked for consistency.

Assigning NULL which removes the tsp attribute *and* any "ts" (or "mts") class of x.

Value

An object which differs from x only in the tsp attribute (unless NULL is assigned).

`hasTsp` adds, if needed, an attribute with a start time and frequency of 1 and end time `NROW(x)`.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`ts`, `time`, `start`.

tsSmooth	<i>Use Fixed-Interval Smoothing on Time Series</i>
----------	--

Description

Performs fixed-interval smoothing on a univariate time series via a state-space model. Fixed-interval smoothing gives the best estimate of the state at each time point based on the whole observed series.

Usage

```
tsSmooth(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object	a time-series fit. Currently only class " StructTS " is supported
...	possible arguments for future methods.

Value

A time series, with as many dimensions as the state space and results at each time point of the original series. (For seasonal models, only the current seasonal component is returned.)

Author(s)

B. D. Ripley

References

Durbin, J. and Koopman, S. J. (2001) *Time Series Analysis by State Space Methods*. Oxford University Press.

See Also

[KalmanSmooth](#), [StructTS](#).

For examples consult [AirPassengers](#), [JohnsonJohnson](#) and [Nile](#).

Description

Functions of the distribution of the studentized range, R/s , where R is the range of a standard normal sample and $df \times s^2$ is independently distributed as chi-squared with df degrees of freedom, see [pchisq](#).

Usage

```
ptukey(q, nmeans, df, nranges = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qtukey(p, nmeans, df, nranges = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
```

Arguments

q	vector of quantiles.
p	vector of probabilities.
nmeans	sample size for range (same for each group).
df	degrees of freedom for s (see below).
nranges	number of <i>groups</i> whose maximum range is considered.
log.p	logical; if TRUE, probabilities p are given as $\log(p)$.
lower.tail	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

If $n_g = \text{nranges}$ is greater than one, R is the *maximum* of n_g groups of $n\text{means}$ observations each.

Value

`ptukey` gives the distribution function and `qtukey` its inverse, the quantile function.

The length of the result is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments. The other numerical arguments are recycled to that length. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

A Legendre 16-point formula is used for the integral of `ptukey`. The computations are relatively expensive, especially for `qtukey` which uses a simple secant method for finding the inverse of `ptukey`. `qtukey` will be accurate to the 4th decimal place.

Source

`qtukey` is in part adapted from Odeh and Evans (1974).

References

Copenhaver, Margaret Diponzio and Holland, Burt S. (1988) Multiple comparisons of simple effects in the two-way analysis of variance with fixed effects. *Journal of Statistical Computation and Simulation*, **30**, 1–15.

Odeh, R. E. and Evans, J. O. (1974) Algorithm AS 70: Percentage Points of the Normal Distribution. *Applied Statistics* **23**, 96–97.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for standard distributions, including [pnorm](#) and [qnorm](#) for the corresponding functions for the normal distribution.

Examples

```
if(interactive())
  curve(ptukey(x, nm = 6, df = 5), from = -1, to = 8, n = 101)
(ptt <- ptukey(0:10, 2, df = 5))
(qtt <- qtukey(.95, 2, df = 2:11))
## The precision may be not much more than about 8 digits:
summary(abs(.95 - ptukey(qtt, 2, df = 2:11)))
```

TukeyHSD	<i>Compute Tukey Honest Significant Differences</i>
----------	---

Description

Create a set of confidence intervals on the differences between the means of the levels of a factor with the specified family-wise probability of coverage. The intervals are based on the Studentized range statistic, Tukey’s ‘Honest Significant Difference’ method.

Usage

```
TukeyHSD(x, which, ordered = FALSE, conf.level = 0.95, ...)
```

Arguments

x	A fitted model object, usually an aov fit.
which	A character vector listing terms in the fitted model for which the intervals should be calculated. Defaults to all the terms.
ordered	A logical value indicating if the levels of the factor should be ordered according to increasing average in the sample before taking differences. If ordered is true then the calculated differences in the means will all be positive. The significant differences will be those for which the lwr end point is positive.
conf.level	A numeric value between zero and one giving the family-wise confidence level to use.
...	Optional additional arguments. None are used at present.

Details

This is a generic function: the description here applies to the method for fits of class "aov".

When comparing the means for the levels of a factor in an analysis of variance, a simple comparison using t-tests will inflate the probability of declaring a significant difference when it is not in fact present. This because the intervals are calculated with a given coverage probability for each interval but the interpretation of the coverage is usually with respect to the entire family of intervals.

John Tukey introduced intervals based on the range of the sample means rather than the individual differences. The intervals returned by this function are based on this Studentized range statistics.

The intervals constructed in this way would only apply exactly to balanced designs where there are the same number of observations made at each level of the factor. This function incorporates an adjustment for sample size that produces sensible intervals for mildly unbalanced designs.

If which specifies non-factor terms these will be dropped with a warning: if no terms are left this is an error.

Value

A list of class `c("multicomp", "TukeyHSD")`, with one component for each term requested in which. Each component is a matrix with columns `diff` giving the difference in the observed means, `lwr` giving the lower end point of the interval, `upr` giving the upper end point and `p.adj` giving the p-value after adjustment for the multiple comparisons.

There are print and plot methods for class "TukeyHSD". The plot method does not accept `xlab`, `ylab` or `main` arguments and creates its own values for each plot.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates

References

Miller, R. G. (1981) *Simultaneous Statistical Inference*. Springer.

Yandell, B. S. (1997) *Practical Data Analysis for Designed Experiments*. Chapman & Hall.

See Also

[aov](#), [qtukey](#), [model.tables](#), [glht](#) in package **multcomp**.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

summary(fm1 <- aov(breaks ~ wool + tension, data = warpbreaks))
TukeyHSD(fm1, "tension", ordered = TRUE)
plot(TukeyHSD(fm1, "tension"))
```

Uniform

*The Uniform Distribution***Description**

These functions provide information about the uniform distribution on the interval from min to max. dunif gives the density, punif gives the distribution function qunif gives the quantile function and runif generates random deviates.

Usage

```
dunif(x, min = 0, max = 1, log = FALSE)
punif(q, min = 0, max = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qunif(p, min = 0, max = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
runif(n, min = 0, max = 1)
```

Arguments

x, q	vector of quantiles.
p	vector of probabilities.
n	number of observations. If length(n) > 1, the length is taken to be the number required.
min, max	lower and upper limits of the distribution. Must be finite.
log, log.p	logical; if TRUE, probabilities p are given as log(p).
lower.tail	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

If min or max are not specified they assume the default values of 0 and 1 respectively.

The uniform distribution has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\max - \min}$$

for $\min \leq x \leq \max$.

For the case of $u := \min == \max$, the limit case of $X \equiv u$ is assumed, although there is no density in that case and dunif will return NaN (the error condition).

runif will not generate either of the extreme values unless $\max = \min$ or $\max - \min$ is small compared to min, and in particular not for the default arguments.

Value

dunif gives the density, punif gives the distribution function, qunif gives the quantile function, and runif generates random deviates.

The length of the result is determined by n for runif, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than n are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

The characteristics of output from pseudo-random number generators (such as precision and periodicity) vary widely. See [.Random.seed](#) for more information on R's random number generation algorithms.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[RNG](#) about random number generation in R.

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions.

Examples

```
u <- runif(20)

## The following relations always hold :
punif(u) == u
dunif(u) == 1

var(runif(10000)) #- ~ = 1/12 = .08333
```

uniroot

One Dimensional Root (Zero) Finding

Description

The function uniroot searches the interval from lower to upper for a root (i.e., zero) of the function f with respect to its first argument.

Setting extendInt to a non-"no" string, means searching for the correct interval = c(lower,upper) if sign(f(x)) does not satisfy the requirements at the interval end points; see the 'Details' section.

Usage

```
uniroot(f, interval, ...,
        lower = min(interval), upper = max(interval),
        f.lower = f(lower, ...), f.upper = f(upper, ...),
        extendInt = c("no", "yes", "downX", "upX"), check.conv = FALSE,
        tol = .Machine$double.eps^0.25, maxiter = 1000, trace = 0)
```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	the function for which the root is sought.
<code>interval</code>	a vector containing the end-points of the interval to be searched for the root.
<code>...</code>	additional named or unnamed arguments to be passed to <code>f</code>
<code>lower, upper</code>	the lower and upper end points of the interval to be searched.
<code>f.lower, f.upper</code>	the same as <code>f(upper)</code> and <code>f(lower)</code> , respectively. Passing these values from the caller where they are often known is more economical as soon as <code>f()</code> contains non-trivial computations.
<code>extendInt</code>	character string specifying if the interval <code>c(lower, upper)</code> should be extended or directly produce an error when <code>f()</code> does not have differing signs at the end-points. The default, "no", keeps the search interval and hence produces an error. Can be abbreviated.
<code>check.conv</code>	logical indicating whether a convergence warning of the underlying <code>uniroot</code> should be caught as an error and if non-convergence in <code>maxiter</code> iterations should be an error instead of a warning.
<code>tol</code>	the desired accuracy (convergence tolerance).
<code>maxiter</code>	the maximum number of iterations.
<code>trace</code>	integer number; if positive, tracing information is produced. Higher values giving more details.

Details

Note that arguments after `...` must be matched exactly.

Either `interval` or both `lower` and `upper` must be specified: the upper endpoint must be strictly larger than the lower endpoint. The function values at the endpoints must be of opposite signs (or zero), for `extendInt="no"`, the default. Otherwise, if `extendInt="yes"`, the interval is extended on both sides, in search of a sign change, i.e., until the search interval $[l, u]$ satisfies $f(l) \cdot f(u) \leq 0$.

If it is *known how* f changes sign at the root x_0 , that is, if the function is increasing or decreasing there, `extendInt` can (and typically should) be specified as "upX" (for "upward crossing") or "downX", respectively. Equivalently, define $S := \pm 1$, to require $S = \text{sign}(f(x_0 + \epsilon))$ at the solution. In that case, the search interval $[l, u]$ possibly is extended to be such that $S \cdot f(l) \leq 0$ and $S \cdot f(u) \geq 0$.

`uniroot()` uses Fortran subroutine "zeroin" (from Netlib) based on algorithms given in the reference below. They assume a continuous function (which then is known to have at least one root in the interval).

Convergence is declared either if $f(x) == 0$ or the change in x for one step of the algorithm is less than `tol` (plus an allowance for representation error in x).

If the algorithm does not converge in `maxiter` steps, a warning is printed and the current approximation is returned.

`f` will be called as `f(x, ...)` for a numeric value of x .

The argument passed to `f` has special semantics and used to be shared between calls. The function should not copy it.

Value

A list with at least four components: `root` and `f.root` give the location of the root and the value of the function evaluated at that point. `iter` and `estim.prec` give the number of iterations used and an approximate estimated precision for root. (If the root occurs at one of the endpoints, the estimated precision is NA.)

Further components may be added in future: component `init.it` was added in R 3.1.0.

Source

Based on 'zeroin.c' in <http://www.netlib.org/c/brent.shar>.

References

Brent, R. (1973) *Algorithms for Minimization without Derivatives*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

See Also

[polyroot](#) for all complex roots of a polynomial; [optimize](#), [nlm](#).

Examples

```
require(utils) # for str

## some platforms hit zero exactly on the first step:
## if so the estimated precision is 2/3.
f <- function(x, a) x - a
str(xmin <- uniroot(f, c(0, 1), tol = 0.0001, a = 1/3))

## handheld calculator example: fixed point of cos(.):
uniroot(function(x) cos(x) - x, lower = -pi, upper = pi, tol = 1e-9)$root

str(uniroot(function(x) x*(x^2-1) + .5, lower = -2, upper = 2,
               tol = 0.0001))
str(uniroot(function(x) x*(x^2-1) + .5, lower = -2, upper = 2,
               tol = 1e-10))

## Find the smallest value x for which exp(x) > 0 (numerically):
r <- uniroot(function(x) 1e80*exp(x) - 1e-300, c(-1000, 0), tol = 1e-15)
str(r, digits.d = 15) # around -745, depending on the platform.

exp(r$root)      # = 0, but not for r$root * 0.999...
minexp <- r$root * (1 - 10*.Machine$double.eps)
exp(minexp)      # typically denormalized

##--- uniroot() with new interval extension + checking features: -----
f1 <- function(x) (121 - x^2)/(x^2+1)
f2 <- function(x) exp(-x)*(x - 12)
```



```

try(uniroot(f1, c(0,10)))
try(uniroot(f2, c(0, 2)))
##--> error: f() .. end points not of opposite sign

## where as 'extendInt="yes"' simply first enlarges the search interval:
u1 <- uniroot(f1, c(0,10),extendInt="yes", trace=1)
u2 <- uniroot(f2, c(0,2), extendInt="yes", trace=2)
stopifnot(all.equal(u1$root, 11, tolerance = 1e-5),
          all.equal(u2$root, 12, tolerance = 6e-6))

## The *danger* of interval extension:
## No way to find a zero of a positive function, but
## numerically,  $f(-|M|)$  becomes zero :
u3 <- uniroot(exp, c(0,2), extendInt="yes", trace=TRUE)

## Nonsense example (must give an error):
tools::assertCondition( uniroot(function(x) 1, 0:1, extendInt="yes"),
                        "error", verbose=TRUE)

## Convergence checking :
sinc <- function(x) ifelse(x == 0, 1, sin(x)/x)
curve(sinc, -6,18); abline(h=0,v=0, lty=3, col=adjustcolor("gray", 0.8))

uniroot(sinc, c(0,5), extendInt="yes", maxiter=4) #-> "just" a warning

## now with check.conv=TRUE, must signal a convergence error :

uniroot(sinc, c(0,5), extendInt="yes", maxiter=4, check.conv=TRUE)

### Weibull cumulative hazard (example origin, Ravi Varadhan):
cumhaz <- function(t, a, b) b * (t/b)^a
froot <- function(x, u, a, b) cumhaz(x, a, b) - u

n <- 1000
u <- -log(runif(n))
a <- 1/2
b <- 1
## Find failure times
ru <- sapply(u, function(x)
  uniroot(froot, u=x, a=a, b=b, interval= c(1.e-14, 1e04),
    extendInt="yes")$root)
ru2 <- sapply(u, function(x)
  uniroot(froot, u=x, a=a, b=b, interval= c(0.01, 10),
    extendInt="yes")$root)
stopifnot(all.equal(ru, ru2, tolerance = 6e-6))

r1 <- uniroot(froot, u= 0.99, a=a, b=b, interval= c(0.01, 10),
  extendInt="up")
stopifnot(all.equal(0.99, cumhaz(r1$root, a=a, b=b)))

```

```
## An error if 'extendInt' assumes "wrong zero-crossing direction":
uniroot(froot, u= 0.99, a=a, b=b, interval= c(0.1, 10), extendInt="down")
```

update

Update and Re-fit a Model Call

Description

update will update and (by default) re-fit a model. It does this by extracting the call stored in the object, updating the call and (by default) evaluating that call. Sometimes it is useful to call update with only one argument, for example if the data frame has been corrected.

“Extracting the call” in update() and similar functions uses getCall() which itself is a (S3) generic function with a default method that simply gets x\$call.

Because of this, update() will often work (via its default method) on new model classes, either automatically, or by providing a simple getCall() method for that class.

Usage

```
update(object, ...)
## Default S3 method:
update(object, formula., ..., evaluate = TRUE)

getCall(x, ...)
```

Arguments

object, x	An existing fit from a model function such as lm, glm and many others.
formula.	Changes to the formula – see update.formula for details.
...	Additional arguments to the call, or arguments with changed values. Use name = NULL to remove the argument name.
evaluate	If true evaluate the new call else return the call.

Value

If evaluate = TRUE the fitted object, otherwise the updated call.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Linear models*. Chapter 4 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[update.formula](#)

Examples

```
oldcon <- options(contrasts = c("contr.treatment", "contr.poly"))
## Annette Dobson (1990) "An Introduction to Generalized Linear Models".
## Page 9: Plant Weight Data.
ctl <- c(4.17,5.58,5.18,6.11,4.50,4.61,5.17,4.53,5.33,5.14)
trt <- c(4.81,4.17,4.41,3.59,5.87,3.83,6.03,4.89,4.32,4.69)
group <- gl(2, 10, 20, labels = c("Ctl", "Trt"))
weight <- c(ctl, trt)
lm.D9 <- lm(weight ~ group)
lm.D9
summary(lm.D90 <- update(lm.D9, . ~ . - 1))
options(contrasts = c("contr.helmert", "contr.poly"))
update(lm.D9)
getCall(lm.D90) # "through the origin"

options(oldcon)
```

update.formula	<i>Model Updating</i>
----------------	-----------------------

Description

update.formula is used to update model formulae. This typically involves adding or dropping terms, but updates can be more general.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'formula'
update(old, new, ...)
```

Arguments

old	a model formula to be updated.
new	a formula giving a template which specifies how to update.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

Either or both of old and new can be objects such as length-one character vectors which can be coerced to a formula via [as.formula](#).

The function works by first identifying the *left-hand side* and *right-hand side* of the old formula. It then examines the new formula and substitutes the *lhs* of the old formula for any occurrence of ‘.’ on the left of new, and substitutes the *rhs* of the old formula for any occurrence of ‘.’ on the right of new. The result is then simplified via [terms.formula\(simplify = TRUE\)](#).

Value

The updated formula is returned. The environment of the result is that of old.

See Also

[terms, model.matrix.](#)

Examples

```
update(y ~ x,      ~ . + x2) #> y ~ x + x2
update(y ~ x, log(.) ~ . ) #> log(y) ~ x
update(. ~ u+v, res ~ . ) #> res ~ u + v
```

var.test

F Test to Compare Two Variances

Description

Performs an F test to compare the variances of two samples from normal populations.

Usage

```
var.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
var.test(x, y, ratio = 1,
         alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
         conf.level = 0.95, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
var.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

x, y	numeric vectors of data values, or fitted linear model objects (inheriting from class "lm").
ratio	the hypothesized ratio of the population variances of x and y.
alternative	a character string specifying the alternative hypothesis, must be one of "two.sided" (default), "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter.
conf.level	confidence level for the returned confidence interval.
formula	a formula of the form lhs ~ rhs where lhs is a numeric variable giving the data values and rhs a factor with two levels giving the corresponding groups.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from environment(formula).
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to getOption("na.action").
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

The null hypothesis is that the ratio of the variances of the populations from which x and y were drawn, or in the data to which the linear models x and y were fitted, is equal to `ratio`.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

<code>statistic</code>	the value of the F test statistic.
<code>parameter</code>	the degrees of the freedom of the F distribution of the test statistic.
<code>p.value</code>	the p-value of the test.
<code>conf.int</code>	a confidence interval for the ratio of the population variances.
<code>estimate</code>	the ratio of the sample variances of x and y .
<code>null.value</code>	the ratio of population variances under the null.
<code>alternative</code>	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.
<code>method</code>	the character string "F test to compare two variances".
<code>data.name</code>	a character string giving the names of the data.

See Also

[bartlett.test](#) for testing homogeneity of variances in more than two samples from normal distributions; [ansari.test](#) and [mood.test](#) for two rank based (nonparametric) two-sample tests for difference in scale.

Examples

```
x <- rnorm(50, mean = 0, sd = 2)
y <- rnorm(30, mean = 1, sd = 1)
var.test(x, y)           # Do x and y have the same variance?
var.test(lm(x ~ 1), lm(y ~ 1)) # The same.
```

varimax

Rotation Methods for Factor Analysis

Description

These functions 'rotate' loading matrices in factor analysis.

Usage

```
varimax(x, normalize = TRUE, eps = 1e-5)
promax(x, m = 4)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A loadings matrix, with p rows and $k < p$ columns
<code>m</code>	The power used the target for promax. Values of 2 to 4 are recommended.
<code>normalize</code>	logical. Should Kaiser normalization be performed? If so the rows of <code>x</code> are re-scaled to unit length before rotation, and scaled back afterwards.
<code>eps</code>	The tolerance for stopping: the relative change in the sum of singular values.

Details

These seek a ‘rotation’ of the factors `x %*% T` that aims to clarify the structure of the loadings matrix. The matrix `T` is a rotation (possibly with reflection) for `varimax`, but a general linear transformation for `promax`, with the variance of the factors being preserved.

Value

A list with components

<code>loadings</code>	The ‘rotated’ loadings matrix, <code>x %*% rotmat</code> , of class “loadings”.
<code>rotmat</code>	The ‘rotation’ matrix.

References

- Hendrickson, A. E. and White, P. O. (1964) Promax: a quick method for rotation to orthogonal oblique structure. *British Journal of Statistical Psychology*, **17**, 65–70.
- Horst, P. (1965) *Factor Analysis of Data Matrices*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston. Chapter 10.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1958) The varimax criterion for analytic rotation in factor analysis. *Psychometrika* **23**, 187–200.
- Lawley, D. N. and Maxwell, A. E. (1971) *Factor Analysis as a Statistical Method*. Second edition. Butterworths.

See Also

[factanal](#), [Harman74.cor](#).

Examples

```
## varimax with normalize = TRUE is the default
fa <- factanal( ~., 2, data = swiss)
varimax(loadings(fa), normalize = FALSE)
promax(loadings(fa))
```

vcov	<i>Calculate Variance-Covariance Matrix for a Fitted Model Object</i>
------	---

Description

Returns the variance-covariance matrix of the main parameters of a fitted model object.

Usage

```
vcov(object, ...)
```

Arguments

- object a fitted model object, typically. Sometimes also a [summary\(\)](#) object of such a fitted model.
- ... additional arguments for method functions. For the [glm](#) method this can be used to pass a dispersion parameter.

Details

This is a generic function. Functions with names beginning in `vcov.` will be methods for this function. Classes with methods for this function include: `lm`, `mlm`, `glm`, `nls`, `summary.lm`, `summary.glm`, `negbin`, `polr`, `r1m` (in package **MASS**), `multinom` (in package **nnet**) `gls`, `lme` (in package **nlme**), `coxph` and `survreg` (in package **survival**).

(`vcov()` methods for summary objects allow more efficient and still encapsulated access when both `summary(mod)` and `vcov(mod)` are needed.)

Value

A matrix of the estimated covariances between the parameter estimates in the linear or non-linear predictor of the model. This should have row and column names corresponding to the parameter names given by the [coef](#) method.

Weibull	<i>The Weibull Distribution</i>
---------	---------------------------------

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the Weibull distribution with parameters shape and scale.

Usage

```
dweibull(x, shape, scale = 1, log = FALSE)
pweibull(q, shape, scale = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qweibull(p, shape, scale = 1, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rweibull(n, shape, scale = 1)
```

Arguments

<code>x, q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>n</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(n) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>shape, scale</code>	shape and scale parameters, the latter defaulting to 1.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities <code>p</code> are given as <code>log(p)</code> .
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

The Weibull distribution with shape parameter a and scale parameter σ has density given by

$$f(x) = (a/\sigma)(x/\sigma)^{a-1} \exp(-(x/\sigma)^a)$$

for $x > 0$. The cumulative distribution function is $F(x) = 1 - \exp(-(x/\sigma)^a)$ on $x > 0$, the mean is $E(X) = \sigma\Gamma(1 + 1/a)$, and the $Var(X) = \sigma^2(\Gamma(1 + 2/a) - (\Gamma(1 + 1/a))^2)$.

Value

`dweibull` gives the density, `pweibull` gives the distribution function, `qweibull` gives the quantile function, and `rweibull` generates random deviates.

Invalid arguments will result in return value NaN, with a warning.

The length of the result is determined by `n` for `rweibull`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `n` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Note

The cumulative hazard $H(t) = -\log(1 - F(t))$ is

`-pweibull(t, a, b, lower = FALSE, log = TRUE)`

which is just $H(t) = (t/b)^a$.

Source

`[dpq]weibull` are calculated directly from the definitions. `rweibull` uses inversion.

References

Johnson, N. L., Kotz, S. and Balakrishnan, N. (1995) *Continuous Univariate Distributions*, volume 1, chapter 21. Wiley, New York.

See Also

[Distributions](#) for other standard distributions, including the [Exponential](#) which is a special case of the Weibull distribution.

Examples

```
x <- c(0, rlnorm(50))
all.equal(dweibull(x, shape = 1), dexp(x))
all.equal(pweibull(x, shape = 1, scale = pi), pexp(x, rate = 1/pi))
## Cumulative hazard H():
all.equal(pweibull(x, 2.5, pi, lower.tail = FALSE, log.p = TRUE),
          -(x/pi)^2.5, tolerance = 1e-15)
all.equal(qweibull(x/11, shape = 1, scale = pi), qexp(x/11, rate = 1/pi))
```

weighted.mean

*Weighted Arithmetic Mean***Description**

Compute a weighted mean.

Usage

```
weighted.mean(x, w, ...)

## Default S3 method:
weighted.mean(x, w, ..., na.rm = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object containing the values whose weighted mean is to be computed.
<code>w</code>	a numerical vector of weights the same length as <code>x</code> giving the weights to use for elements of <code>x</code> .
<code>...</code>	arguments to be passed to or from methods.
<code>na.rm</code>	a logical value indicating whether NA values in <code>x</code> should be stripped before the computation proceeds.

Details

This is a generic function and methods can be defined for the first argument `x`: apart from the default methods there are methods for the date-time classes "POSIXct", "POSIXlt", "difftime" and "Date". The default method will work for any numeric-like object for which `[]`, multiplication, division and [sum](#) have suitable methods, including complex vectors.

If `w` is missing then all elements of `x` are given the same weight, otherwise the weights coerced to numeric by [as.numeric](#) and normalized to sum to one (if possible: if their sum is zero or infinite the value is likely to be NaN).

Missing values in `w` are not handled specially and so give a missing value as the result. However, zero weights *are* handled specially and the corresponding `x` values are omitted from the sum.

Value

For the default method, a length-one numeric vector.

See Also[mean](#)**Examples**

```
## GPA from Siegel 1994
wt <- c(5, 5, 4, 1)/15
x <- c(3.7, 3.3, 3.5, 2.8)
xm <- weighted.mean(x, wt)
```

weighted.residuals	<i>Compute Weighted Residuals</i>
--------------------	-----------------------------------

Description

Computed weighted residuals from a linear model fit.

Usage

```
weighted.residuals(obj, drop0 = TRUE)
```

Arguments

obj	R object, typically of class lm or glm .
drop0	logical. If TRUE, drop all cases with weights == 0.

Details

Weighted residuals are based on the deviance residuals, which for a [lm](#) fit are the raw residuals R_i multiplied by $\sqrt{w_i}$, where w_i are the weights as specified in [lm](#)'s call.

Dropping cases with weights zero is compatible with [influence](#) and related functions.

Value

Numeric vector of length n' , where n' is the number of non-0 weights (`drop0 = TRUE`) or the number of observations, otherwise.

See Also

[residuals](#), [lm.influence](#), etc.

Examples

```
## following on from example(lm)

all.equal(weighted.residuals(lm.D9),
          residuals(lm.D9))
x <- 1:10
w <- 0:9
y <- rnorm(x)
weighted.residuals(lmxy <- lm(y ~ x, weights = w))
weighted.residuals(lmxy, drop0 = FALSE)
```

weights

*Extract Model Weights***Description**

weights is a generic function which extracts fitting weights from objects returned by modeling functions.

Methods can make use of [napredict](#) methods to compensate for the omission of missing values. The default methods does so.

Usage

```
weights(object, ...)
```

Arguments

object an object for which the extraction of model weights is meaningful.
 ... other arguments passed to methods.

Value

Weights extracted from the object object: the default method looks for component "weights" and if not NULL calls [napredict](#) on it.

References

Chambers, J. M. and Hastie, T. J. (1992) *Statistical Models in S*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[weights.glm](#)

wilcox.test	<i>Wilcoxon Rank Sum and Signed Rank Tests</i>
-------------	--

Description

Performs one- and two-sample Wilcoxon tests on vectors of data; the latter is also known as ‘Mann-Whitney’ test.

Usage

```
wilcox.test(x, ...)

## Default S3 method:
wilcox.test(x, y = NULL,
            alternative = c("two.sided", "less", "greater"),
            mu = 0, paired = FALSE, exact = NULL, correct = TRUE,
            conf.int = FALSE, conf.level = 0.95, ...)

## S3 method for class 'formula'
wilcox.test(formula, data, subset, na.action, ...)
```

Arguments

x	numeric vector of data values. Non-finite (e.g., infinite or missing) values will be omitted.
y	an optional numeric vector of data values: as with x non-finite values will be omitted.
alternative	a character string specifying the alternative hypothesis, must be one of "two.sided" (default), "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter.
mu	a number specifying an optional parameter used to form the null hypothesis. See ‘Details’.
paired	a logical indicating whether you want a paired test.
exact	a logical indicating whether an exact p-value should be computed.
correct	a logical indicating whether to apply continuity correction in the normal approximation for the p-value.
conf.int	a logical indicating whether a confidence interval should be computed.
conf.level	confidence level of the interval.
formula	a formula of the form lhs ~ rhs where lhs is a numeric variable giving the data values and rhs a factor with two levels giving the corresponding groups.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from environment(formula).
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.

`na.action` a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs. Defaults to `getOption("na.action")`.

`...` further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

The formula interface is only applicable for the 2-sample tests.

If only x is given, or if both x and y are given and `paired` is `TRUE`, a Wilcoxon signed rank test of the null that the distribution of x (in the one sample case) or of $x - y$ (in the paired two sample case) is symmetric about μ is performed.

Otherwise, if both x and y are given and `paired` is `FALSE`, a Wilcoxon rank sum test (equivalent to the Mann-Whitney test: see the Note) is carried out. In this case, the null hypothesis is that the distributions of x and y differ by a location shift of μ and the alternative is that they differ by some other location shift (and the one-sided alternative "greater" is that x is shifted to the right of y).

By default (if `exact` is not specified), an exact p-value is computed if the samples contain less than 50 finite values and there are no ties. Otherwise, a normal approximation is used.

Optionally (if argument `conf.int` is true), a nonparametric confidence interval and an estimator for the pseudomedian (one-sample case) or for the difference of the location parameters $x - y$ is computed. (The pseudomedian of a distribution F is the median of the distribution of $(u + v)/2$, where u and v are independent, each with distribution F . If F is symmetric, then the pseudomedian and median coincide. See Hollander & Wolfe (1973), page 34.) Note that in the two-sample case the estimator for the difference in location parameters does **not** estimate the difference in medians (a common misconception) but rather the median of the difference between a sample from x and a sample from y .

If exact p-values are available, an exact confidence interval is obtained by the algorithm described in Bauer (1972), and the Hodges-Lehmann estimator is employed. Otherwise, the returned confidence interval and point estimate are based on normal approximations. These are continuity-corrected for the interval but *not* the estimate (as the correction depends on the alternative).

With small samples it may not be possible to achieve very high confidence interval coverages. If this happens a warning will be given and an interval with lower coverage will be substituted.

Value

A list with class "htest" containing the following components:

<code>statistic</code>	the value of the test statistic with a name describing it.
<code>parameter</code>	the parameter(s) for the exact distribution of the test statistic.
<code>p.value</code>	the p-value for the test.
<code>null.value</code>	the location parameter μ .
<code>alternative</code>	a character string describing the alternative hypothesis.
<code>method</code>	the type of test applied.
<code>data.name</code>	a character string giving the names of the data.
<code>conf.int</code>	a confidence interval for the location parameter. (Only present if argument <code>conf.int</code> = <code>TRUE</code> .)
<code>estimate</code>	an estimate of the location parameter. (Only present if argument <code>conf.int</code> = <code>TRUE</code> .)

Warning

This function can use large amounts of memory and stack (and even crash R if the stack limit is exceeded) if `exact = TRUE` and one sample is large (several thousands or more).

Note

The literature is not unanimous about the definitions of the Wilcoxon rank sum and Mann-Whitney tests. The two most common definitions correspond to the sum of the ranks of the first sample with the minimum value subtracted or not: R subtracts and S-PLUS does not, giving a value which is larger by $m(m+1)/2$ for a first sample of size m . (It seems Wilcoxon's original paper used the unadjusted sum of the ranks but subsequent tables subtracted the minimum.)

R's value can also be computed as the number of all pairs $(x[i], y[j])$ for which $y[j]$ is not greater than $x[i]$, the most common definition of the Mann-Whitney test.

References

David F. Bauer (1972), Constructing confidence sets using rank statistics. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* **67**, 687–690.

Myles Hollander and Douglas A. Wolfe (1973), *Nonparametric Statistical Methods*. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Pages 27–33 (one-sample), 68–75 (two-sample).
Or second edition (1999).

See Also

[psignrank](#), [pwilcox](#).

[wilcox.test](#) in package [coin](#) for exact, asymptotic and Monte Carlo *conditional* p-values, including in the presence of ties.

[kruskal.test](#) for testing homogeneity in location parameters in the case of two or more samples;
[t.test](#) for an alternative under normality assumptions [or large samples]

Examples

```
require(graphics)
## One-sample test.
## Hollander & Wolfe (1973), 29f.
## Hamilton depression scale factor measurements in 9 patients with
## mixed anxiety and depression, taken at the first (x) and second
## (y) visit after initiation of a therapy (administration of a
## tranquilizer).
x <- c(1.83, 0.50, 1.62, 2.48, 1.68, 1.88, 1.55, 3.06, 1.30)
y <- c(0.878, 0.647, 0.598, 2.05, 1.06, 1.29, 1.06, 3.14, 1.29)
wilcox.test(x, y, paired = TRUE, alternative = "greater")
wilcox.test(y - x, alternative = "less") # The same.
wilcox.test(y - x, alternative = "less",
            exact = FALSE, correct = FALSE) # H&W large sample
                                           # approximation

## Two-sample test.
## Hollander & Wolfe (1973), 69f.
```

```
## Permeability constants of the human chorioamnion (a placental
## membrane) at term (x) and between 12 to 26 weeks gestational
## age (y). The alternative of interest is greater permeability
## of the human chorioamnion for the term pregnancy.
x <- c(0.80, 0.83, 1.89, 1.04, 1.45, 1.38, 1.91, 1.64, 0.73, 1.46)
y <- c(1.15, 0.88, 0.90, 0.74, 1.21)
wilcox.test(x, y, alternative = "g")          # greater
wilcox.test(x, y, alternative = "greater",
             exact = FALSE, correct = FALSE) # H&W large sample
                                             # approximation

wilcox.test(rnorm(10), rnorm(10, 2), conf.int = TRUE)

## Formula interface.
boxplot(Ozone ~ Month, data = airquality)
wilcox.test(Ozone ~ Month, data = airquality,
             subset = Month %in% c(5, 8))
```

Wilcoxon

Distribution of the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Statistic

Description

Density, distribution function, quantile function and random generation for the distribution of the Wilcoxon rank sum statistic obtained from samples with size m and n , respectively.

Usage

```
dwilcox(x, m, n, log = FALSE)
pwilcox(q, m, n, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
qwilcox(p, m, n, lower.tail = TRUE, log.p = FALSE)
rwilcox(nn, m, n)
```

Arguments

<code>x, q</code>	vector of quantiles.
<code>p</code>	vector of probabilities.
<code>nn</code>	number of observations. If <code>length(nn) > 1</code> , the length is taken to be the number required.
<code>m, n</code>	numbers of observations in the first and second sample, respectively. Can be vectors of positive integers.
<code>log, log.p</code>	logical; if TRUE, probabilities p are given as $\log(p)$.
<code>lower.tail</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), probabilities are $P[X \leq x]$, otherwise, $P[X > x]$.

Details

This distribution is obtained as follows. Let x and y be two random, independent samples of size m and n . Then the Wilcoxon rank sum statistic is the number of all pairs $(x[i], y[j])$ for which $y[j]$ is not greater than $x[i]$. This statistic takes values between 0 and $m * n$, and its mean and variance are $m * n / 2$ and $m * n * (m + n + 1) / 12$, respectively.

If any of the first three arguments are vectors, the recycling rule is used to do the calculations for all combinations of the three up to the length of the longest vector.

Value

`dwilcox` gives the density, `pwilcox` gives the distribution function, `qwilcox` gives the quantile function, and `rwilcox` generates random deviates.

The length of the result is determined by `nn` for `rwilcox`, and is the maximum of the lengths of the numerical arguments for the other functions.

The numerical arguments other than `nn` are recycled to the length of the result. Only the first elements of the logical arguments are used.

Warning

These functions can use large amounts of memory and stack (and even crash R if the stack limit is exceeded and stack-checking is not in place) if one sample is large (several thousands or more).

Note

S-PLUS uses a different (but equivalent) definition of the Wilcoxon statistic: see [wilcox.test](#) for details.

Author(s)

Kurt Hornik

Source

These are calculated via recursion, based on `cwilcox(k, m, n)`, the number of choices with statistic k from samples of size m and n , which is itself calculated recursively and the results cached. Then `dwilcox` and `pwilcox` sum appropriate values of `cwilcox`, and `qwilcox` is based on inversion.

`rwilcox` generates a random permutation of ranks and evaluates the statistic.

See Also

[wilcox.test](#) to calculate the statistic from data, find p values and so on.

[Distributions](#) for standard distributions, including [dsignrank](#) for the distribution of the *one-sample* Wilcoxon signed rank statistic.

Examples

```
require(graphics)

x <- -1:(4*6 + 1)
fx <- dwilcox(x, 4, 6)
Fx <- pwilcox(x, 4, 6)

layout(rbind(1,2), widths = 1, heights = c(3,2))
plot(x, fx, type = "h", col = "violet",
     main = "Probabilities (density) of Wilcoxon-Statist.(n=6, m=4)")
plot(x, Fx, type = "s", col = "blue",
     main = "Distribution of Wilcoxon-Statist.(n=6, m=4)")
abline(h = 0:1, col = "gray20", lty = 2)
layout(1) # set back

N <- 200
hist(U <- rwilcox(N, m = 4, n = 6), breaks = 0:25 - 1/2,
     border = "red", col = "pink", sub = paste("N =", N))
mtext("N * f(x), f() = true \"density\"", side = 3, col = "blue")
lines(x, N*fx, type = "h", col = "blue", lwd = 2)
points(x, N*fx, cex = 2)

## Better is a Quantile-Quantile Plot
qqplot(U, qw <- qwilcox((1:N - 1/2)/N, m = 4, n = 6),
       main = paste("Q-Q-Plot of empirical and theoretical quantiles",
                    "Wilcoxon Statistic, (m=4, n=6)", sep = "\n"))
n <- as.numeric(names(print(tU <- table(U))))
text(n+.2, n+.5, labels = tU, col = "red")
```

window

Time Windows

Description

window is a generic function which extracts the subset of the object x observed between the times start and end. If a frequency is specified, the series is then re-sampled at the new frequency.

Usage

```
window(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'ts'
window(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
window(x, start = NULL, end = NULL,
       frequency = NULL, deltat = NULL, extend = FALSE, ...)

window(x, ...) <- value
## S3 replacement method for class 'ts'
window(x, start, end, frequency, deltat, ...) <- value
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a time-series (or other object if not replacing values).
<code>start</code>	the start time of the period of interest.
<code>end</code>	the end time of the period of interest.
<code>frequency, deltat</code>	the new frequency can be specified by either (or both if they are consistent).
<code>extend</code>	logical. If true, the <code>start</code> and <code>end</code> values are allowed to extend the series. If false, attempts to extend the series give a warning and are ignored.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.
<code>value</code>	replacement values.

Details

The start and end times can be specified as for [ts](#). If there is no observation at the new `start` or `end`, the immediately following (`start`) or preceding (`end`) observation time is used.

The replacement function has a method for `ts` objects, and is allowed to extend the series (with a warning). There is no default method.

Value

The value depends on the method. `window.default` will return a vector or matrix with an appropriate [tsp](#) attribute.

`window.ts` differs from `window.default` only in ensuring the result is a `ts` object.

If `extend = TRUE` the series will be padded with NAs if needed.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[time](#), [ts](#).

Examples

```
window(presidents, 1960, c(1969,4)) # values in the 1960's
window(presidents, deltat = 1) # All Qtr1s
window(presidents, start = c(1945,3), deltat = 1) # All Qtr3s
window(presidents, 1944, c(1979,2), extend = TRUE)

pres <- window(presidents, 1945, c(1949,4)) # values in the 1940's
window(pres, 1945.25, 1945.50) <- c(60, 70)
window(pres, 1944, 1944.75) <- 0 # will generate a warning
window(pres, c(1945,4), c(1949,4), frequency = 1) <- 85:89
pres
```

xtabs

*Cross Tabulation***Description**

Create a contingency table (optionally a sparse matrix) from cross-classifying factors, usually contained in a data frame, using a formula interface.

Usage

```
xtabs(formula = ~., data = parent.frame(), subset, sparse = FALSE,
      na.action, exclude = c(NA, NaN), drop.unused.levels = FALSE)
```

Arguments

formula	a formula object with the cross-classifying variables (separated by +) on the right hand side (or an object which can be coerced to a formula). Interactions are not allowed. On the left hand side, one may optionally give a vector or a matrix of counts; in the latter case, the columns are interpreted as corresponding to the levels of a variable. This is useful if the data have already been tabulated, see the examples below.
data	an optional matrix or data frame (or similar: see model.frame) containing the variables in the formula formula. By default the variables are taken from <code>environment(formula)</code> .
subset	an optional vector specifying a subset of observations to be used.
sparse	logical specifying if the result should be a <i>sparse</i> matrix, i.e., inheriting from sparseMatrix Only works for two factors (since there are no higher-order sparse array classes yet).
na.action	a function which indicates what should happen when the data contain NAs.
exclude	a vector of values to be excluded when forming the set of levels of the classifying factors.
drop.unused.levels	a logical indicating whether to drop unused levels in the classifying factors. If this is FALSE and there are unused levels, the table will contain zero marginals, and a subsequent chi-squared test for independence of the factors will not work.

Details

There is a `summary` method for contingency table objects created by `table` or `xtabs(*, sparse = FALSE)`, which gives basic information and performs a chi-squared test for independence of factors (note that the function [chisq.test](#) currently only handles 2-d tables).

If a left hand side is given in `formula`, its entries are simply summed over the cells corresponding to the right hand side; this also works if the lhs does not give counts.

For variables in `formula` which are factors, `exclude` must be specified explicitly; the default exclusions will not be used.

Value

By default, when `sparse = FALSE`, a contingency table in array representation of S3 class `c("xtabs", "table")`, with a `"call"` attribute storing the matched call.

When `sparse = TRUE`, a sparse numeric matrix, specifically an object of S4 class `dgTMatrix` from package **Matrix**.

See Also

`table` for traditional cross-tabulation, and `as.data.frame.table` which is the inverse operation of `xtabs` (see the DF example below).

`sparseMatrix` on sparse matrices in package **Matrix**.

Examples

```
## 'esoph' has the frequencies of cases and controls for all levels of
## the variables 'agegp', 'alcgp', and 'tobgp'.
xtabs(cbind(ncases, ncontrols) ~ ., data = esoph)
## Output is not really helpful ... flat tables are better:
ftable(xtabs(cbind(ncases, ncontrols) ~ ., data = esoph))
## In particular if we have fewer factors ...
ftable(xtabs(cbind(ncases, ncontrols) ~ agegp, data = esoph))

## This is already a contingency table in array form.
DF <- as.data.frame(UCBAdmissions)
## Now 'DF' is a data frame with a grid of the factors and the counts
## in variable 'Freq'.
DF
## Nice for taking margins ...
xtabs(Freq ~ Gender + Admit, DF)
## And for testing independence ...
summary(xtabs(Freq ~ ., DF))

## Create a nice display for the warp break data.
warpbreaks$replicate <- rep(1:9, len = 54)
ftable(xtabs(breaks ~ wool + tension + replicate, data = warpbreaks))

### ---- Sparse Examples ----

if(require("Matrix")) {
  ## similar to "nlme"s 'ergoStool' :
  d.ergo <- data.frame(Type = paste0("T", rep(1:4, 9*4)),
                      Subj = gl(9, 4, 36*4))
  print(xtabs(~ Type + Subj, data = d.ergo)) # 4 replicates each
  set.seed(15) # a subset of cases:
  print(xtabs(~ Type + Subj, data = d.ergo[sample(36, 10), ], sparse = TRUE))

  ## Hypothetical two-level setup:
  inner <- factor(sample(letters[1:25], 100, replace = TRUE))
  inout <- factor(sample(LETTERS[1:5], 25, replace = TRUE))
  fr <- data.frame(inner = inner, outer = inout[as.integer(inner)])
  print(xtabs(~ inner + outer, fr, sparse = TRUE))
}
```

}

Chapter 11

The stats4 package

stats4-package

Statistical Functions using S4 Classes

Description

Statistical Functions using S4 classes.

Details

This package contains functions and classes for statistics using the [S version 4](#) class system.

The methods currently support maximum likelihood (function [mle\(\)](#) returning class "[mle](#)"), including methods for [logLik](#) for use with [AIC](#).

Author(s)

R Core Team and contributors worldwide

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

coef-methods

Methods for Function coef in Package stats4

Description

Extract the coefficient vector from "mle" objects.

Methods

signature(object = "ANY") Generic function: see [coef](#).

signature(object = "mle") Extract the full coefficient vector (including any fixed coefficients) from the fit.

signature(object = "summary.mle") Extract the coefficient vector and standard errors from the summary of the fit.

confint-methods	<i>Methods for Function confint in Package stats4</i>
-----------------	---

Description

Generate confidence intervals

Methods

signature(object = "ANY") Generic function: see [confint](#).
signature(object = "mle") First generate profile and then confidence intervals from the profile.
signature(object = "profile.mle") Generate confidence intervals based on likelihood profile.

logLik-methods	<i>Methods for Function logLik in Package stats4</i>
----------------	--

Description

Extract the maximized log-likelihood from "mle" objects.

Methods

signature(object = "ANY") Generic function: see [logLik](#).
signature(object = "mle") Extract log-likelihood from the fit.

Note

The mle method does not know about the number of observations unless nobis was specified on the call and so may not be suitable for use with [BIC](#).

mle	<i>Maximum Likelihood Estimation</i>
-----	--------------------------------------

Description

Estimate parameters by the method of maximum likelihood.

Usage

```
mle(minuslogl, start = formals(minuslogl), method = "BFGS",  
    fixed = list(), nobs, ...)
```

Arguments

minuslogl	Function to calculate negative log-likelihood.
start	Named list. Initial values for optimizer.
method	Optimization method to use. See optim .
fixed	Named list. Parameter values to keep fixed during optimization.
nobs	optional integer: the number of observations, to be used for e.g. computing BIC .
...	Further arguments to pass to optim .

Details

The [optim](#) optimizer is used to find the minimum of the negative log-likelihood. An approximate covariance matrix for the parameters is obtained by inverting the Hessian matrix at the optimum.

Value

An object of class [mle-class](#).

Note

Be careful to note that the argument is $-\log L$ (not $-2 \log L$). It is for the user to ensure that the likelihood is correct, and that asymptotic likelihood inference is valid.

See Also

[mle-class](#)

Examples

```
## Avoid printing to unwarranted accuracy  
od <- options(digits = 5)  
x <- 0:10  
y <- c(26, 17, 13, 12, 20, 5, 9, 8, 5, 4, 8)  
  
## Easy one-dimensional MLE:
```



```

nLL <- function(lambda) -sum(stats::dpois(y, lambda, log = TRUE))
fit0 <- mle(nLL, start = list(lambda = 5), nobs = NROW(y))
# For 1D, this is preferable:
fit1 <- mle(nLL, start = list(lambda = 5), nobs = NROW(y),
           method = "Brent", lower = 1, upper = 20)
stopifnot(nobs(fit0) == length(y))

## This needs a constrained parameter space: most methods will accept NA
ll <- function(ymax = 15, xhalf = 6) {
  if(ymax > 0 && xhalf > 0)
    -sum(stats::dpois(y, lambda = ymax/(1+x/xhalf), log = TRUE))
  else NA
}
(fit <- mle(ll, nobs = length(y)))
mle(ll, fixed = list(xhalf = 6))
## alternative using bounds on optimization
ll2 <- function(ymax = 15, xhalf = 6)
  -sum(stats::dpois(y, lambda = ymax/(1+x/xhalf), log = TRUE))
mle(ll2, method = "L-BFGS-B", lower = rep(0, 2))

AIC(fit)
BIC(fit)

summary(fit)
logLik(fit)
vcov(fit)
plot(profile(fit), absVal = FALSE)
confint(fit)

## Use bounded optimization
## The lower bounds are really > 0,
## but we use >=0 to stress-test profiling
(fit2 <- mle(ll, method = "L-BFGS-B", lower = c(0, 0)))
plot(profile(fit2), absVal = FALSE)

## a better parametrization:
ll3 <- function(lymax = log(15), lxhalf = log(6))
  -sum(stats::dpois(y, lambda = exp(lymax)/(1+x/exp(lxhalf)), log = TRUE))
(fit3 <- mle(ll3))
plot(profile(fit3), absVal = FALSE)
exp(confint(fit3))

options(od)

```

mle-class

Class "mle" for Results of Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Description

This class encapsulates results of a generic maximum likelihood procedure.

Objects from the Class

Objects can be created by calls of the form `new("mle", ...)`, but most often as the result of a call to `mle`.

Slots

call: Object of class "language". The call to `mle`.
coef: Object of class "numeric". Estimated parameters.
fullcoef: Object of class "numeric". Fixed and estimated parameters.
vcov: Object of class "matrix". Approximate variance-covariance matrix.
min: Object of class "numeric". Minimum value of objective function.
details: a "list", as returned from `optim`.
minuslogl: Object of class "function". The negative loglikelihood function.
nobs: "integer" of length one. The number of observations (often NA, when not set in call explicitly).
method: Object of class "character". The optimization method used.

Methods

confint signature(object = "mle"): Confidence intervals from likelihood profiles.
logLik signature(object = "mle"): Extract maximized log-likelihood.
profile signature(fitted = "mle"): Likelihood profile generation.
nobs signature(object = "mle"): Number of observations, here simply accessing the nobs slot mentioned above.
show signature(object = "mle"): Display object briefly.
summary signature(object = "mle"): Generate object summary.
update signature(object = "mle"): Update fit.
vcov signature(object = "mle"): Extract variance-covariance matrix.

plot-methods

Methods for Function plot in Package stats4

Description

Plot profile likelihoods for "mle" objects.

Usage

```
## S4 method for signature 'profile.mle,missing'
plot(x, levels, conf = c(99, 95, 90, 80, 50)/100, nseg = 50,
     absVal = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

x	an object of class "profile.mle"
levels	levels, on the scale of the absolute value of a t statistic, at which to interpolate intervals. Usually conf is used instead of giving levels explicitly.
conf	a numeric vector of confidence levels for profile-based confidence intervals on the parameters.
nseg	an integer value giving the number of segments to use in the spline interpolation of the profile t curves.
absVal	a logical value indicating whether or not the plots should be on the scale of the absolute value of the profile t. Defaults to TRUE.
...	other arguments to the plot function can be passed here.

Methods

signature(x = "ANY", y = "ANY")	Generic function: see plot .
signature(x = "profile.mle", y = "missing")	Plot likelihood profiles for x.

profile-methods	<i>Methods for Function profile in Package stats4</i>
-----------------	--

Description

Profile likelihood for "mle" objects.

Usage

```
## S4 method for signature 'mle'
profile(fitted, which = 1:p, maxsteps = 100, alpha = 0.01,
       zmax = sqrt(qchisq(1 - alpha, 1L)), del = zmax/5,
       trace = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

fitted	Object to be profiled
which	Optionally select subset of parameters to profile.
maxsteps	Maximum number of steps to bracket zmax.
alpha	Significance level corresponding to zmax, based on a Scheffe-style multiple testing interval. Ignored if zmax is specified.
zmax	Cutoff for the profiled value of the signed root-likelihood.
del	Initial stepsize on root-likelihood scale.
trace	Logical. Print intermediate results.
...	Currently unused.

Details

The profiling algorithm tries to find an approximately evenly spaced set of at least five parameter values (in each direction from the optimum) to cover the root-likelihood function. Some care is taken to try and get sensible results in cases of high parameter curvature. Notice that it may not always be possible to obtain the cutoff value, since the likelihood might level off.

Value

An object of class "profile.mle", see "profile.mle-class".

Methods

`signature(fitted = "ANY")` Generic function: see [profile](#).

`signature(fitted = "mle")` Profile the likelihood in the vicinity of the optimum of an "mle" object.

profile.mle-class	<i>Class "profile.mle"; Profiling information for "mle" object</i>
-------------------	--

Description

Likelihood profiles along each parameter of likelihood function

Objects from the Class

Objects can be created by calls of the form `new("profile.mle", ...)`, but most often by invoking `profile` on an "mle" object.

Slots

profile: Object of class "list". List of profiles, one for each requested parameter. Each profile is a data frame with the first column called `z` being the signed square root of the -2 log likelihood ratio, and the others being the parameters with names prefixed by `par.vals`.

summary: Object of class "summary.mle". Summary of object being profiled.

Methods

confint `signature(object = "profile.mle")`: Use profile to generate approximate confidence intervals for parameters.

plot `signature(x = "profile.mle", y = "missing")`: Plot profiles for each parameter.

See Also

[mle](#), [mle-class](#), [summary.mle-class](#)

show-methods	<i>Methods for Function</i> show in Package stats4
--------------	---

Description

Show objects of classes mle and summary.mle

Methods

signature(object = "mle") Print simple summary of mle object. Just the coefficients and the call.

signature(object = "summary.mle") Shows call, table of coefficients and standard errors, and $-2 \log L$.

summary-methods	<i>Methods for Function</i> summary in Package stats4
-----------------	--

Description

Summarize objects

Methods

signature(object = "ANY") Generic function

signature(object = "mle") Generate a summary as an object of class "summary.mle", containing estimates, asymptotic SE, and value of $-2 \log L$.

summary.mle-class	<i>Class "summary.mle", Summary of "mle" Objects</i>
-------------------	--

Description

Extract of "mle" object

Objects from the Class

Objects can be created by calls of the form new("summary.mle", ...), but most often by invoking summary on an "mle" object. They contain values meant for printing by show.

Slots

call: Object of class "language" The call that generated the "mle" object.

coef: Object of class "matrix". Estimated coefficients and standard errors

m2logL: Object of class "numeric". Minus twice the log likelihood.

Methods

show signature(object = "summary.mle"): Pretty-prints object

coef signature(object = "summary.mle"): Extracts the contents of the coef slot

See Also

[summary](#), [mle](#), [mle-class](#)

 update-methods

Methods for Function update in Package **stats4**

Description

Update "mle" objects.

Usage

```
## S4 method for signature 'mle'
update(object, ..., evaluate = TRUE)
```

Arguments

object	An existing fit.
...	Additional arguments to the call, or arguments with changed values. Use name = NULL to remove the argument name.
evaluate	If true evaluate the new call else return the call.

Methods

signature(object = "ANY") Generic function: see [update](#).

signature(object = "mle") Update a fit.

Examples

```
x <- 0:10
y <- c(26, 17, 13, 12, 20, 5, 9, 8, 5, 4, 8)
ll <- function(ymax = 15, xhalf = 6)
  -sum(stats::dpois(y, lambda = ymax/(1+x/xhalf), log = TRUE))
fit <- mle(ll)
## note the recorded call contains ..1, a problem with S4 dispatch
update(fit, fixed = list(xhalf = 3))
```

vcov-methods*Methods for Function vcov in Package stats4*

Description

Extract the approximate variance-covariance matrix from "mle" objects.

Methods

signature(object = "ANY") Generic function: see [vcov](#).

signature(object = "mle") Extract the estimated variance-covariance matrix for the estimated parameters (if any).

Chapter 12

The tcltk package

tcltk-package

Tcl/Tk Interface

Description

Interface and language bindings to Tcl/Tk GUI elements.

Details

This package provides access to the platform-independent Tcl scripting language and Tk GUI elements. See [TkWidgets](#) for a list of supported widgets, [TkWidgetcmds](#) for commands to work with them, and references in those files for more.

The Tcl/Tk documentation is in the system man pages.

For a complete list of functions, use `ls("package:tcltk")`.

Note that Tk will not be initialized if there is no `DISPLAY` variable set, but Tcl can still be used. This is most useful to allow the loading of a package which depends on **tcltk** in a session that does not actually use it (e.g., during installation).

Author(s)

R Core Team

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

TclInterface

*Low-level Tcl/Tk Interface***Description**

These functions and variables provide the basic glue between R and the Tcl interpreter and Tk GUI toolkit. Tk windows may be represented via R objects. Tcl variables can be accessed via objects of class `tclVar` and the C level interface to Tcl objects is accessed via objects of class `tclObj`.

Usage

```
.Tcl(...)
.Tcl.objv(objv)
.Tcl.args(...)
.Tcl.args.objv(...)
.Tcl.callback(...)
.Tk.ID(win)
.Tk.newwin(ID)
.Tk.subwin(parent)
.TkRoot

tkdestroy(win)
is.tkwin(x)

tclvalue(x)
tclvalue(x) <- value

tclVar(init = "")
## S3 method for class 'tclVar'
as.character(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'tclVar'
tclvalue(x)
## S3 replacement method for class 'tclVar'
tclvalue(x) <- value

tclArray()
## S3 method for class 'tclArray'
x[[...]]
## S3 replacement method for class 'tclArray'
x[[...]] <- value
## S3 method for class 'tclArray'
x$i
## S3 replacement method for class 'tclArray'
x$i <- value

## S3 method for class 'tclArray'
names(x)
```

```

## S3 method for class 'tclArray'
length(x)

tclObj(x)
tclObj(x) <- value
## S3 method for class 'tclVar'
tclObj(x)
## S3 replacement method for class 'tclVar'
tclObj(x) <- value

as.tclObj(x, drop = FALSE)
is.tclObj(x)

## S3 method for class 'tclObj'
as.character(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'tclObj'
as.integer(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'tclObj'
as.double(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'tclObj'
as.logical(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'tclObj'
as.raw(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'tclObj'
tclvalue(x)

## Default S3 method:
tclvalue(x)
## Default S3 replacement method:
tclvalue(x) <- value

addTclPath(path = ".")
tclRequire(package, warn = TRUE)
tclVersion()

```

Arguments

objv	a named vector of Tcl objects
win	a window structure
x	an object
i	character or (unquoted) name
drop	logical. Indicates whether a single-element vector should be made into a simple Tcl object or a list of length one
value	For tclvalue assignments, a character string. For tclObj assignments, an object of class tclObj
ID	a window ID

parent	a window which becomes the parent of the resulting window
path	path to a directory containing Tcl packages
package	a Tcl package name
warn	logical. Warn if not found?
...	Additional arguments. See below.
init	initialization value

Details

Many of these functions are not intended for general use but are used internally by the commands that create and manipulate Tk widgets and Tcl objects. At the lowest level `.Tcl` sends a command as a text string to the Tcl interpreter and returns the result as an object of class `tclObj` (see below). A newer variant `.Tcl.objv` accepts arguments in the form of a named list of `tclObj` objects.

`.Tcl.args` converts an R argument list of `tag = value` pairs to the Tcl `-option value` style, thus enabling a simple translation between the two languages. To send a value with no preceding option flag to Tcl, just use an untagged argument. In the rare case one needs an option with no subsequent value `tag = NULL` can be used. Most values are just converted to character mode and inserted in the command string, but window objects are passed using their ID string, and callbacks are passed via the result of `.Tcl.callback`. Tags are converted to option flags simply by prepending a `-`

`.Tcl.args.objv` serves a similar purpose as `.Tcl.args` but produces a list of `tclObj` objects suitable for passing to `.Tcl.objv`. The names of the list are converted to Tcl option style internally by `.Tcl.objv`.

Callbacks can be either *atomic callbacks* handled by `.Tcl.callback` or expressions. An expression is treated as a list of atomic callbacks, with the following exceptions: if an element is a name, it is first evaluated in the callers frame, and likewise if it is an explicit function definition; the break expression is translated directly to the Tcl counterpart. `.Tcl.callback` converts R functions and unevaluated calls to Tcl command strings. The argument must be either a function closure or an object of mode "call" followed by an environment. The return value in the first case is of the form `R_call 0x408b94d4` in which the hexadecimal number is the memory address of the function. In the second case it will be of the form `R_call_lang 0x8a95904 0x819bfd0`. For expressions, a sequence of similar items is generated, separated by semicolons. `.Tcl.args` takes special precautions to ensure that functions or calls will continue to exist at the specified address by assigning the callback into the relevant window environment (see below).

Tk windows are represented as objects of class `tkwin` which are lists containing a ID field and an `env` field which is an R environments, enclosed in the global environment. The value of the ID field is identical to the Tk window name. The `env` environment contains a `parent` variable and a `num.subwin` variable. If the window obtains sub-windows and callbacks, they are added as variables to the environment. `.TkRoot` is the top window with ID `"."`; this window is not displayed in order to avoid ill effects of closing it via window manager controls. The `parent` variable is undefined for `.TkRoot`.

`.Tk.ID` extracts the ID of a window, `.Tk.newwin` creates a new window environment with a given ID and `.Tk.subwin` creates a new window which is a sub-window of a given parent window.

`tkdestroy` destroys a window and also removes the reference to a window from its parent.

`is.tkwin` can be used to test whether a given object is a window environment.

`tclVar` creates a new Tcl variable and initializes it to `init`. An R object of class `tclVar` is created to represent it. Using `as.character` on the object returns the Tcl variable name. Accessing the Tcl variable from R is done using the `tclvalue` function, which can also occur on the left-hand side of assignments. If `tclvalue` is passed an argument which is not a `tclVar` object, then it will assume that it is a character string explicitly naming global Tcl variable. Tcl variables created by `tclVar` are uniquely named and automatically unset by the garbage collector when the representing object is no longer in use.

`tclArray` creates a new Tcl array and initializes it to the empty array. An R object of class `tclArray` and inheriting from class `tclVar` is created to represent it. You can access elements of the Tcl array using indexing with `[]` or `$`, which also allow replacement forms. Notice that Tcl arrays are associative by nature and hence unordered; indexing with a numeric index `i` refers to the element with the *name* `as.character(i)`. Multiple indices are pasted together separated by commas to form a single name. You can query the length and the set of names in an array using methods for `length` and `names`, respectively; these cannot meaningfully be set so assignment forms exist only to print an error message.

It is possible to access Tcl's 'dual-ported' objects directly, thus avoiding parsing and deparsing of their string representation. This works by using objects of class `tclObj`. The string representation of such objects can be extracted (but not set) using `tclvalue` and conversion to vectors of mode `"character"`, `"double"`, `"integer"`, `"logical"`, and `"raw"` is performed using the standard coercion functions `as.character`, etc. Conversely, such vectors can be converted using `as.tclObj`. There is an ambiguity as to what should happen for length one vectors, controlled by the `drop` argument; there are cases where the distinction matters to Tcl, although mostly it treats them equivalently. Notice that `tclvalue` and `as.character` differ on an object whose string representation has embedded spaces, the former is sometimes to be preferred, in particular when applied to the result of `tclread`, `tkgetOpenFile`, and similar functions. The `as.raw` method returns a raw vector or a list of raw vectors and can be used to return binary data from Tcl.

The object behind a `tclVar` object is extracted using `tclObj(x)` which also allows an assignment form, in which the right hand side of the assignment is automatically converted using `as.tclObj`. There is a print method for `tclObj` objects; it prints `<Tcl>` followed by the string representation of the object. Notice that `as.character` on a `tclVar` object is the *name* of the corresponding Tcl variable and not the value.

Tcl packages can be loaded with `tclRequire`; it may be necessary to add the directory where they are found to the Tcl search path with `addTclPath`. The return value is a class `"tclObj"` object if it succeeds, or `FALSE` if it fails (when a warning is issued). To see the current search path as an R character vector, use

```
strsplit(tclvalue('auto_path'), " ")[[1]]
```

.

The Tcl version (including `patchlevel`) is returned as a character string (such as `"8.6.3"`).

Note

Strings containing unbalanced braces are currently not handled well in many circumstances.

See Also

[TkWidgets](#), [TkCommands](#), [TkWidgetcmds](#).

`capabilities("tcltk")` to see if Tcl/Tk support was compiled into this build of R.

Examples

```
tclVersion()

## Not run:
## These cannot be run by example() but should be OK when pasted
## into an interactive R session with the tcltk package loaded
.Tcl("format \"%s\n\" \"Hello, World!\")
f <- function()cat("HI!\n")
.Tcl.callback(f)
.Tcl.args(text = "Push!", command = f) # NB: Different address

xyzy <- tclVar(7913)
tclvalue(xyzy)
tclvalue(xyzy) <- "foo"
as.character(xyzy)
tcl("set", as.character(xyzy))

top <- tktoplevel() # a Tk widget, see Tk-widgets
ls(envir = top$env, all = TRUE)
ls(envir = .TkRoot$env, all = TRUE) # .Tcl.args put a callback ref in here

## End(Not run)
```

tclServiceMode	<i>Allow Tcl events to be serviced or not</i>
----------------	---

Description

This function controls or reports on the Tcl service mode, i.e., whether Tcl will respond to events.

Usage

```
tclServiceMode(on = NULL)
```

Arguments

`on` (logical) Whether event servicing is turned on.

Details

If called with `on == NULL` (the default), no change is made.

Note that this blocks all Tcl/Tk activity, including for widgets from other packages. It may be better to manage mapping of windows individually.

Value

The value of the Tcl service mode before the call.

Examples

```
## see demo(tkcanvas) for an example
## Not run:
oldmode <- tclServiceMode(FALSE)
# Do some work to create a nice picture.
# Nothing will be displayed until...
tclServiceMode(oldmode)

## End(Not run)
## another idea is to use tkwm.withdraw() ... tkwm.deiconify()
```

TkCommands

Tk non-widget commands

Description

These functions interface to Tk non-widget commands, such as the window manager interface commands and the geometry managers.

Usage

```
tcl(...)
tktitle(x)

tktitle(x) <- value

tkbell(...)
tkbind(...)
tkbindtags(...)
tkfocus(...)
tklower(...)
tkraise(...)

tkclipboard.append(...)
tkclipboard.clear(...)

tkevent.add(...)
tkevent.delete(...)
tkevent.generate(...)
tkevent.info(...)

tkfont.actual(...)
tkfont.configure(...)
tkfont.create(...)
tkfont.delete(...)
tkfont.families(...)
tkfont.measure(...)
```

```
tkfont.metrics(...)
tkfont.names(...)

tkgrab(...)
tkgrab.current(...)
tkgrab.release(...)
tkgrab.set(...)
tkgrab.status(...)

tkimage.create(...)
tkimage.delete(...)
tkimage.height(...)
tkimage.inuse(...)
tkimage.names(...)
tkimage.type(...)
tkimage.types(...)
tkimage.width(...)

## NB: some widgets also have a selection.clear command,
## hence the "X".

tkXselection.clear(...)
tkXselection.get(...)
tkXselection.handle(...)
tkXselection.own(...)

tkwait.variable(...)
tkwait.visibility(...)
tkwait.window(...)

## winfo actually has a large number of subcommands,
## but it's rarely used,
## so use tkwininfo("atom", ...) etc. instead.

tkwininfo(...)

# Window manager interface

tkwm.aspect(...)
tkwm.client(...)
tkwm.colormapwindows(...)
tkwm.command(...)
tkwm.deiconify(...)
tkwm.focusmodel(...)
tkwm.frame(...)
tkwm.geometry(...)
tkwm.grid(...)
tkwm.group(...)
```

```
tkwm.iconbitmap(...)
tkwm.iconify(...)
tkwm.iconmask(...)
tkwm.iconname(...)
tkwm.iconposition(...)
tkwm.iconwindow(...)
tkwm.maxsize(...)
tkwm.minsize(...)
tkwm.overrideredirect(...)
tkwm.positionfrom(...)
tkwm.protocol(...)
tkwm.resizable(...)
tkwm.sizefrom(...)
tkwm.state(...)
tkwm.title(...)
tkwm.transient(...)
tkwm.withdraw(...)
```

Geometry managers

```
tkgrid(...)
tkgrid.bbox(...)
tkgrid.columnconfigure(...)
tkgrid.configure(...)
tkgrid.forget(...)
tkgrid.info(...)
tkgrid.location(...)
tkgrid.propagate(...)
tkgrid.rowconfigure(...)
tkgrid.remove(...)
tkgrid.size(...)
tkgrid.slaves(...)
```

```
tkpack(...)
tkpack.configure(...)
tkpack.forget(...)
tkpack.info(...)
tkpack.propagate(...)
tkpack.slaves(...)
```

```
tkplace(...)
tkplace.configure(...)
tkplace.forget(...)
tkplace.info(...)
tkplace.slaves(...)
```

Standard dialogs


```

tkgetOpenFile(...)
tkgetSaveFile(...)
tkchooseDirectory(...)
tkmessageBox(...)
tkdialog(...)
tkpopup(...)

## File handling functions
tclfile.tail(...)
tclfile.dir(...)
tclopen(...)
tclclose(...)
tclputs(...)
tclread(...)

```

Arguments

x	A window object
value	For tktitle assignments, a character string.
...	Handled via <code>.Tcl.args</code>

Details

tcl provides a generic interface to calling any Tk or Tcl command by simply running `.Tcl.args.objv` on the argument list and passing the result to `.Tcl.objv`. Most of the other commands simply call tcl with a particular first argument and sometimes also a second argument giving the subcommand.

tktitle and its assignment form provides an alternate interface to Tk's `wm title`

There are far too many of these commands to describe them and their arguments in full. Please refer to the Tcl/Tk documentation for details. With a few exceptions, the pattern is that Tk subcommands like `pack` `configure` are converted to function names like `tkpack.configure`, and Tcl subcommands are like `tclfile.dir`.

See Also

[TclInterface](#), [TkWidgets](#), [TkWidgetcmds](#)

Examples

```

## Not run:
## These cannot be run by examples() but should be OK when pasted
## into an interactive R session with the tcltk package loaded

tt <- tktoplevel()
tkpack(l1 <- tklabel(tt, text = "Heave"), l2<- tklabel(tt, text = "Ho"))
tkpack.configure(l1, side = "left")

## Try stretching the window and then

```

```
tkdestroy(tt)

## End(Not run)
```

tkpager

Page file using Tk text widget

Description

This plugs into `file.show`, showing files in separate windows.

Usage

```
tkpager(file, header, title, delete.file)
```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	character vector containing the names of the files to be displayed
<code>header</code>	headers to use for each file
<code>title</code>	common title to use for the window(s). Pasted together with the header to form actual window title.
<code>delete.file</code>	logical. Should file(s) be deleted after display?

Note

The "`\b_`" string used for underlining is currently quietly removed. The font and background colour are currently hardcoded to Courier and gray90.

See Also

[file.show](#)

tkProgressBar

Progress Bars via Tk

Description

Put up a Tk progress bar widget.

Usage

```
tkProgressBar(title = "R progress bar", label = "",
             min = 0, max = 1, initial = 0, width = 300)

getTkProgressBar(pb)
setTkProgressBar(pb, value, title = NULL, label = NULL)
## S3 method for class 'tkProgressBar'
close(con, ...)
```

Arguments

title, label	character strings, giving the window title and the label on the dialog box respectively.
min, max	(finite) numeric values for the extremes of the progress bar.
initial, value	initial or new value for the progress bar.
width	the width of the progress bar in pixels: the dialog box will be 40 pixels wider (plus frame).
pb, con	an object of class "tkProgressBar".
...	for consistency with the generic.

Details

tkProgressBar will display a widget containing a label and progress bar.

setTkProgressBar will update the value and for non-NULL values, the title and label (provided there was one when the widget was created). Missing (NA) and out-of-range values of value will be (silently) ignored.

The progress bar should be closed when finished with.

This will use the ttk::progressbar widget for Tk version 8.5 or later, otherwise R's copy of BWidget's progressbar.

Value

For tkProgressBar an object of class "tkProgressBar".

For getTkProgressBar and setTkProgressBar, a length-one numeric vector giving the previous value (invisibly for setTkProgressBar).

See Also

[txtProgressBar](#)

Examples

```
pb <- tkProgressBar("test progress bar", "Some information in %",
                  0, 100, 50)
Sys.sleep(0.5)
u <- c(0, sort(runif(20, 0, 100)), 100)
```

```
for(i in u) {  
  Sys.sleep(0.1)  
  info <- sprintf("%d%% done", round(i))  
  setTkProgressBar(pb, i, sprintf("test (%s)", info), info)  
}  
Sys.sleep(5)  
close(pb)
```

tkStartGUI

Tcl/Tk GUI startup

Description

Starts up the Tcl/Tk GUI

Usage

tkStartGUI()

Details

Starts a GUI console implemented via a Tk text widget. This should probably be called at most once per session. Also redefines the file pager (as used by `help()`) to be the Tk pager.

Note

tkStartGUI() saves its evaluation environment as `.GUIenv`. This means that the user interface elements can be accessed in order to extend the interface. The three main objects are named `Term`, `Menu`, and `Toolbar`, and the various submenus and callback functions can be seen with `ls(envir = .GUIenv)`.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard

TkWidgetcmds

Tk widget commands

Description

These functions interface to Tk widget commands.

Usage

```
tkactivate(widget, ...)
tkadd(widget, ...)
tkaddtag(widget, ...)
tkbbox(widget, ...)
tkcanvasx(widget, ...)
tkcanvasy(widget, ...)
tkcget(widget, ...)
tkcompare(widget, ...)
tkconfigure(widget, ...)
tkcoords(widget, ...)
tkcreate(widget, ...)
tkcurselection(widget, ...)
tkdchars(widget, ...)
tkdebug(widget, ...)
tkdelete(widget, ...)
tkdelta(widget, ...)
tkdeselect(widget, ...)
tkdlineinfo(widget, ...)
tkdtag(widget, ...)
tkdump(widget, ...)
tkentrycget(widget, ...)
tkentryconfigure(widget, ...)
tkfind(widget, ...)
tkflash(widget, ...)
tkfraction(widget, ...)
tkget(widget, ...)
tkgettags(widget, ...)
tkicursor(widget, ...)
tkidentify(widget, ...)
tkindex(widget, ...)
tkinsert(widget, ...)
tkinvoke(widget, ...)
tkitembind(widget, ...)
tkitemcget(widget, ...)
tkitemconfigure(widget, ...)
tkitemfocus(widget, ...)
tkitemlower(widget, ...)
tkitemraise(widget, ...)
tkitemscale(widget, ...)
tkmark.gravity(widget, ...)
tkmark.names(widget, ...)
tkmark.next(widget, ...)
tkmark.previous(widget, ...)
tkmark.set(widget, ...)
tkmark.unset(widget, ...)
tkmove(widget, ...)
tknearest(widget, ...)
```

```
tkpost(widget, ...)
tkpostcascade(widget, ...)
tkpostscript(widget, ...)
tkscan.mark(widget, ...)
tkscan.dragto(widget, ...)
tksearch(widget, ...)
tksee(widget, ...)
tkselect(widget, ...)
tkselection.adjust(widget, ...)
tkselection.anchor(widget, ...)
tkselection.clear(widget, ...)
tkselection.from(widget, ...)
tkselection.includes(widget, ...)
tkselection.present(widget, ...)
tkselection.range(widget, ...)
tkselection.set(widget, ...)
tkselection.to(widget, ...)
tkset(widget, ...)
tksize(widget, ...)
tktoggle(widget, ...)
tktag.add(widget, ...)
tktag.bind(widget, ...)
tktag.cget(widget, ...)
tktag.configure(widget, ...)
tktag.delete(widget, ...)
tktag.lower(widget, ...)
tktag.names(widget, ...)
tktag.nextrange(widget, ...)
tktag.prevrange(widget, ...)
tktag.raise(widget, ...)
tktag.ranges(widget, ...)
tktag.remove(widget, ...)
tktype(widget, ...)
tkunpost(widget, ...)
tkwindow.cget(widget, ...)
tkwindow.configure(widget, ...)
tkwindow.create(widget, ...)
tkwindow.names(widget, ...)
tkxview(widget, ...)
tkxview.moveto(widget, ...)
tkxview.scroll(widget, ...)
tkyposition(widget, ...)
tkyview(widget, ...)
tkyview.moveto(widget, ...)
tkyview.scroll(widget, ...)
```

Arguments

widget	The widget this applies to
--------	----------------------------

... Handled via `.Tcl.args`

Details

There are far too many of these commands to describe them and their arguments in full. Please refer to the Tcl/Tk documentation for details. Except for a few exceptions, the pattern is that Tcl widget commands possibly with subcommands like `.a.b selection clear` are converted to function names like `tkselection.clear` and the widget is given as the first argument.

See Also

[TclInterface](#), [TkWidgets](#), [TkCommands](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:
## These cannot be run by examples() but should be OK when pasted
## into an interactive R session with the tcltk package loaded

tt <- tktoplevel()
tkpack(txt.w <- tktext(tt))
tkinsert(txt.w, "0.0", "plot(1:10)")

# callback function
eval.txt <- function()
  eval(parse(text = tclvalue(tkget(txt.w, "0.0", "end"))))
tkpack(but.w <- tkbutton(tt, text = "Submit", command = eval.txt))

## Try pressing the button, edit the text and when finished:

tkdestroy(tt)

## End(Not run)
```

TkWidgets

Tk widgets

Description

Create Tk widgets and associated R objects.

Usage

```
tkwidget(parent, type, ...)

tkbutton(parent, ...)
tkcanvas(parent, ...)
tkcheckboxbutton(parent, ...)
```

```
tkentry(parent, ...)
ttkentry(parent, ...)
tkframe(parent, ...)
tklabel(parent, ...)
tklistbox(parent, ...)
tkmenu(parent, ...)
tkmenubutton(parent, ...)
tkmessage(parent, ...)
tkradiobutton(parent, ...)
tkscale(parent, ...)
tkscrollbar(parent, ...)
tktext(parent, ...)
tktoplevel(parent = .TkRoot, ...)
```

```
ttkbutton(parent, ...)
ttkcheckbutton(parent, ...)
ttkcombobox(parent, ...)
ttkframe(parent, ...)
ttklabel(parent, ...)
ttklabelframe(parent, ...)
ttkmenubutton(parent, ...)
ttknotebook(parent, ...)
ttkpanedwindow(parent, ...)
ttkprogressbar(parent, ...)
ttkradiobutton(parent, ...)
ttkscale(parent, ...)
ttkscrollbar(parent, ...)
ttkseparator(parent, ...)
ttksizegrip(parent, ...)
ttkspinbox(parent, ...)
ttktreeview(parent, ...)
```

Arguments

parent	Parent of widget window.
type	string describing the type of widget desired.
...	handled via .Tcl.args .

Details

These functions create Tk widgets. `tkwidget` creates a widget of a given type, the others simply call `tkwidget` with the respective type argument.

The functions starting `ttk` are for the themed widget set for Tk 8.5 or later. A tutorial can be found at <http://www.tkdocs.com>.

It is not possible to describe the widgets and their arguments in full. Please refer to the Tcl/Tk documentation.

See Also

[TclInterface](#), [TkCommands](#), [TkWidgetcmds](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:
## These cannot be run by examples() but should be OK when pasted
## into an interactive R session with the tcltk package loaded

tt <- tktoplevel()
label.widget <- tklabel(tt, text = "Hello, World!")
button.widget <- tkbutton(tt, text = "Push",
                          command = function()cat("OW!\n"))
tkpack(label.widget, button.widget) # geometry manager
                                   # see Tk-commands

## Push the button and then...

tkdestroy(tt)

## test for themed widgets
if(as.character(tcl("info", "tclversion")) >= "8.5") {
  # make use of themed widgets
  # list themes
  as.character(tcl("ttk::style", "theme", "names"))
  # select a theme -- here pre-XP windows
  tcl("ttk::style", "theme", "use", "winnative")
} else {
  # use Tk 8.0 widgets
}

## End(Not run)
```

tk_choose.dir

Choose a Folder Interactively

Description

Use a Tk widget to choose a directory interactively.

Usage

```
tk_choose.dir(default = "", caption = "Select directory")
```

Arguments

default	which directory to show initially.
caption	the caption on the selection dialog.

Value

A length-one character vector, character NA if ‘Cancel’ was selected.

See Also

[tk_choose.files](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:
tk_choose.dir(getwd(), "Choose a suitable folder")

## End(Not run)
```

tk_choose.files	<i>Choose a List of Files Interactively</i>
-----------------	---

Description

Use a Tk file dialog to choose a list of zero or more files interactively.

Usage

```
tk_choose.files(default = "", caption = "Select files",
                multi = TRUE, filters = NULL, index = 1)
```

Arguments

default	which filename to show initially.
caption	the caption on the file selection dialog.
multi	whether to allow multiple files to be selected.
filters	two-column character matrix of filename filters.
index	unused.

Details

Unlike [file.choose](#), tk_choose.files will always attempt to return a character vector giving a list of files. If the user cancels the dialog, then zero files are returned, whereas [file.choose](#) would signal an error.

The format of filters can be seen from the example. File patterns are specified via extensions, with "*" meaning any file, and "" any file without an extension (a filename not containing a period). (Other forms may work on specific platforms.) Note that the way to have multiple extensions for one file type is to have multiple rows with the same name in the first column, and that whether the extensions are named in file chooser widget is platform-specific. **The format may change before release.**

Value

A character vector giving zero or more file paths.

Note

A bug in Tk 8.5.0–8.5.4 prevented multiple selections being used.

See Also

[file.choose](#), [tk_choose.dir](#)

Examples

```
Filters <- matrix(c("R code", ".R", "R code", ".s",
                  "Text", ".txt", "All files", "*"),
                4, 2, byrow = TRUE)

Filters
if(interactive()) tk_choose.files(filter = Filters)
```

tk_messageBox	<i>Tk Message Box</i>
---------------	-----------------------

Description

An implementation of a generic message box using Tk

Usage

```
tk_messageBox(type = c("ok", "okcancel", "yesno", "yesnocancel",
                      "retrycancel", "aburtretrycancel"),
             message, caption = "", default = "", ...)
```

Arguments

- type character. The type of dialog box. It will have the buttons implied by its name. Can be abbreviated.
- message character. The information field of the dialog box.
- caption the caption on the widget displayed.
- default character. The name of the button to be used as the default.
- ... additional named arguments to be passed to the Tk function of this name. An example is icon = "warning".

Value

A character string giving the name of the button pressed.

See Also

[tkmessageBox](#) for a ‘raw’ interface.

tk_select.list	Select Items from a List
----------------	--------------------------

Description

Select item(s) from a character vector using a Tk listbox.

Usage

```
tk_select.list(choices, preselect = NULL, multiple = FALSE,  
              title = NULL)
```

Arguments

choices	a character vector of items.
preselect	a character vector, or NULL. If non-null and if the string(s) appear in the list, the item(s) are selected initially.
multiple	logical: can more than one item be selected?
title	optional character string for window title, or NULL for no title.

Details

This is a version of [select.list](#) implemented as a Tk list box plus OK and Cancel buttons. There will be a scrollbar if the list is too long to fit comfortably on the screen.

The dialog box is *modal*, so a selection must be made or cancelled before the R session can proceed. Double-clicking on an item is equivalent to selecting it and then clicking OK.

If Tk is version 8.5 or later, themed widgets will be used.

Value

A character vector of selected items. If `multiple` is false and no item was selected (or Cancel was used), "" is returned. If `multiple` is true and no item was selected (or Cancel was used) then a character vector of length 0 is returned.

See Also

[select.list](#) (a text version except on Windows and the OS X GUI), [menu](#) (whose `graphics = TRUE` mode uses this on most Unix-alikes).

Chapter 13

The tools package

tools-package	<i>Tools for Package Development</i>
---------------	--------------------------------------

Description

Tools for package development, administration and documentation.

Details

This package contains tools for manipulating R packages and their documentation.

For a complete list of functions, use `library(help = "tools")`.

Author(s)

Kurt Hornik and Friedrich Leisch

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

.print.via.format	<i>Printing Utilities</i>
-------------------	---------------------------

Description

`.print.via.format` is a “prototype” `print()` method, useful, at least as a start, by a simple

```
print.<myS3class> <- .print.via.format
```

Usage

```
.print.via.format(x, ...)
```

Arguments

`x` object to be printed.

`...` optional further arguments, passed to `format`.

Value

`x`, invisibly (by `invisible()`), as `print` methods should.

See Also

The `print` generic; its default method `print.default` (used for many basic implicit classes such as "numeric", "character" and `arrays` of them, `lists` etc).

Examples

```
## The function is simply defined as
function (x, ...) {
  writeLines(format(x, ...))
  invisible(x)
}

## is used for simple print methods in R, and as prototype for new methods.
```

add_datalist

Add a 'datalist' File to a Package

Description

The `data()` command with no arguments lists all the datasets available via data in attached packages, and to do so a per-package list is installed. Creating that list at install time can be slow for packages with huge datasets, and can be expedited by a supplying 'data/datalist' file.

Usage

```
add_datalist(pkgpath, force = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`pkgpath` The path to a (source) package.

`force` logical: can an existing 'data/datalist' file be over-written?

Details

R CMD build will call this function to add a data list to packages with 1MB or more of data.

It is also helpful to give a 'data/datalist' file in packages whose datasets have many dependencies, including loading the packages itself (and maybe others).

See Also

[data](#).

The ‘Writing R Extensions’ manual.

assertCondition	<i>Asserting Error Conditions</i>
-----------------	-----------------------------------

Description

When testing code, it is not sufficient to check that results are correct, but also that errors or warnings are signalled in appropriate situations. The functions described here provide a convenient facility for doing so. The three functions check that evaluating the supplied expression produces an error, a warning or one of a specified list of conditions, respectively. If the assertion fails, an error is signalled.

Usage

```
assertError(expr, verbose = FALSE)
assertWarning(expr, verbose = FALSE)
assertCondition(expr, ..., .exprString = , verbose = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>expr</code>	an unevaluated R expression which will be evaluated via tryCatch (<code>expr</code> , <code>...</code>).
<code>...</code>	character strings corresponding to the classes of the conditions that would satisfy the assertion; e.g., "error" or "warning". If none are specified, any condition will satisfy the assertion. See the details section.
<code>.exprString</code>	The string to be printed corresponding to <code>expr</code> . By default, the actual <code>expr</code> will be deparsed. Will be omitted if the function is supplied with the actual expression to be tested. If <code>assertCondition()</code> is called from another function, with the actual expression passed as an argument to that function, supply the deparsed version.
<code>verbose</code>	If TRUE, a message is printed when the condition is satisfied.

Details

`assertCondition()` uses the general condition mechanism to check all the conditions generated in evaluating `expr`. The occurrence of any of the supplied condition classes among these satisfies the assertion regardless of what other conditions may be signalled.

`assertError()` is a convenience function for asserting errors; it calls `assertCondition()`.

`assertWarning()` asserts that a warning will be signalled, but *not* an error, whereas `assertCondition(expr, "warning")` will be satisfied even if an error follows the warning. See the examples.

Value

If the assertion is satisfied, a list of all the condition objects signalled is returned, invisibly. See [conditionMessage](#) for the interpretation of these objects. Note that *all* conditions signalled during the evaluation are returned, whether or not they were among the requirements.

Author(s)

John Chambers and Martin Maechler

See Also

[stop](#), [warning](#); [signalCondition](#), [tryCatch](#).

Examples

```

assertError(sqrt("abc"))
assertWarning(matrix(1:8, 4,3))

assertCondition( ""-1 ) # ok, any condition would satisfy this

try( assertCondition(sqrt(2), "warning") )
## .. Failed to get warning in evaluating sqrt(2)
  assertCondition(sqrt("abc"), "error") # ok
try( assertCondition(sqrt("abc"), "warning") )# -> error: had no warning
  assertCondition(sqrt("abc"), "error")
## identical to assertError() call above

assertCondition(matrix(1:5, 2,3), "warning")
try( assertCondition(matrix(1:8, 4,3), "error") )
## .. Failed to get expected error ....

## either warning or worse:
assertCondition(matrix(1:8, 4,3), "error","warning") # OK
assertCondition(matrix(1:8, 4, 3), "warning") # OK

## when both are signalled:
ff <- function() { warning("my warning"); stop("my error") }
  assertCondition(ff(), "warning")
## but assertWarning does not allow an error to follow
try(assertWarning(ff()))
  assertCondition(ff(), "error") # ok
assertCondition(ff(), "error", "warning") # ok (quietly, catching warning)

## assert that assertC..() does not assert [and use *one* argument only]
assertCondition( assertCondition(sqrt( 2 ), "warning") )
assertCondition( assertCondition(sqrt("abc"), "warning"), "error")
assertCondition( assertCondition(matrix(1:8, 4,3), "error"),
  "error")

```

bibstyle	<i>Select or define a bibliography style.</i>
----------	---

Description

This function defines and registers styles for rendering **bibentry** objects into ‘Rd’ format, for later conversion to text, HTML, etc.

Usage

```
bibstyle(style, envir, ..., .init = FALSE, .default = TRUE)
getBibstyle(all = FALSE)
```

Arguments

style	A character string naming the style.
envir	(optional) An environment holding the functions to implement the style.
...	Named arguments to add to the environment.
.init	Whether to initialize the environment from the default style "JSS".
.default	Whether to set the specified style as the default style.
all	Whether to return the names of all registered styles.

Details

Rendering of **bibentry** objects may be done using routines modelled after those used by BibTeX. This function allows environments to be created and manipulated to contain those routines.

There are two ways to create a new style environment. The easiest is to set `.init = TRUE`, in which case the environment will be initialized with a copy of the default "JSS" environment. (This style is modelled after the ‘jss.bst’ style used by the *Journal of Statistical Software*.) Alternatively, the `envir` argument can be used to specify a completely new style environment.

To find the name of the default style, use `getBibstyle()`. To retrieve an existing style without setting it as the default, use `bibstyle(style, .default = FALSE)`. To modify an existing style, specify style and some named entries via `...` (Modifying the default "JSS" style is discouraged.) Setting style to NULL or leaving it missing will retrieve the default style, but modifications will not be allowed.

At a minimum, the environment should contain routines to render each of the 12 types of bibliographic entry supported by **bibentry** as well as several other routines described below. The former must be named `formatArticle`, `formatBook`, `formatInbook`, `formatIncollection`, `formatInproceedings`, `formatManual`, `formatMastersthesis`, `formatMisc`, `formatPhdthesis`, `formatProceedings`, `formatTechreport` and `formatUnpublished`. Each of these takes one argument, a single **unclass**’ed entry from the **bibentry** vector passed to the renderer, and should produce a single element character vector (possibly containing newlines).

The other routines are as follows. `sortKeys`, a function to produce a sort key to sort the entries, is passed the original **bibentry** vector and should produce a sortable vector of the same length to

define the sort order. Finally, the optional function `cite` should have the same argument list as `utils::cite`, and should produce a citation to be used in text.

The `format` method for "bibentry" objects adds a field named `".index"` to each entry after sorting and before formatting. This is a 1-based index within the complete object that can be used in styles that require numbering. Although the "JSS" style doesn't use numbers, it includes a `fmtPrefix()` stub function that may be used to display them. See the example below.

Value

`bibstyle` returns the environment which has been selected or created.

`getBibstyle` returns the name of the default style, or all style names.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

See Also

[bibentry](#)

Examples

```
refs <-
c(bibentry(bibtype = "manual",
  title = "R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing",
  author = person("R Core Team"),
  organization = "R Foundation for Statistical Computing",
  address = "Vienna, Austria",
  year = 2013,
  url = "https://www.R-project.org"),
  bibentry(bibtype = "article",
    author = c(person(c("George", "E.", "P."), "Box"),
      person(c("David", "R."), "Cox")),
    year = 1964,
    title = "An Analysis of Transformations",
    journal = "Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series B",
    volume = 26,
    pages = "211-252"))

bibstyle("unsorted", sortKeys = function(refs) seq_along(refs),
  fmtPrefix = function(paper) paste0("[", paper$.index, "]"),
  .init = TRUE)
print(refs, .bibstyle = "unsorted")
```

buildVignette	<i>Build one vignette</i>
---------------	---------------------------

Description

Run [Sweave](#) (or other custom weave function) [texi2dvi](#), and/or [Stangle](#) (or other custom tangle function) on one vignette.

This is the workhorse of R CMD Sweave.

Usage

```
buildVignette(file, dir = ".", weave = TRUE, latex = TRUE, tangle = TRUE,
              quiet = TRUE, clean = TRUE, keep = character(),
              engine = NULL, buildPkg = NULL, encoding, ...)
```

Arguments

file	character; the vignette source file
dir	character; the working directory in which the intermediate and output files will be produced
weave	logical; should weave be run?
latex	logical; texi2pdf be run if weaving produces a ‘.tex’ file?
tangle	logical; should tangle be run?
quiet	logical; run in quiet mode?
clean	logical; whether to remove some newly created, often intermediate, files. See details below.
keep	a list of file names to keep in any case when cleaning. Note that “target” files are kept anyway.
engine	NULL or character; name of vignette engine to use. Overrides any <code>\VignetteEngine{}</code> markup in the vignette.
buildPkg	NULL or character; an optional package in which to find the vignette engine.
encoding	the encoding to assume for the file. If not specified, it will be inferred from the file contents.
...	Additional arguments passed to weave and tangle.

Details

This function determines the vignette engine for the vignette (default `utils::Sweave`), then weaves and/or tangles the vignette using that engine. Finally, if `clean` is `TRUE`, newly created intermediate files (non “targets”, where these depend on the engine, etc, and not any in `keep`) will be deleted. If `clean` is `NA`, and `weave` is `true`, newly created intermediate output files (e.g., ‘.tex’) will not be deleted even if a ‘.pdf’ file has been produced from them.

If `buildPkg` is specified, it will be loaded before the vignette is processed, and will be used as the default package in the search for a vignette engine, but an explicitly specified package in the vignette source (e.g., using `\VignetteEngine{utils::Sweave}` to specify the Sweave engine in the **utils** package) will override it. In contrast, if the engine argument is given, it will override the vignette source.

Value

A character vector naming the files that have been produced.

Author(s)

Henrik Bengtsson and Duncan Murdoch

See Also

[buildVignettes](#) for building all vignettes in a package.

buildVignettes	<i>List and Build Package Vignettes</i>
----------------	---

Description

Run [Sweave](#) (or other custom weave function) and [texi2dvi](#) on all vignettes of a package.

Usage

```
buildVignettes(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL, quiet = TRUE,
               clean = TRUE, tangle = FALSE)
```

```
pkgVignettes(package, dir, subdirs = NULL, lib.loc = NULL,
              output = FALSE, source = FALSE, check = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>package</code>	a character string naming an installed package. If given, vignette source files are by default looked for in subdirectory ‘doc’.
<code>dir</code>	a character string specifying the path to a package’s root source directory. This subdirectory ‘vignettes’ (or if it does not exist ‘inst/doc’) is searched for vignette source files.
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. The specified library trees are used to search for package.
<code>quiet</code>	logical. Weave and run texi2pdf in quiet mode.
<code>clean</code>	Remove all files generated by the build, even if there were copies there before.
<code>tangle</code>	logical. Do tangling as well as weaving.

subdirs	a character vector of subdirectories of <code>dir</code> in which to look for vignettes. The first which exists is used. Defaults to "doc" if package is supplied, otherwise "vignettes".
output	logical indicating if the output filenames for each vignette should be returned (in component outputs).
source	logical indicating if the <i>tangled</i> output filenames for each vignette should be returned (in component sources).
check	logical. If TRUE, check whether all files that have vignette-like filenames have an identifiable vignette engine. This may be a false positive if a file is not a vignette but has a filename matching a pattern defined by one of the vignette engines.

Details

`buildVignettes` is used by `R CMD build` and `R CMD check` to (re-)build vignette PDFs from their sources.

Value

`buildVignettes` is called for its side effect of creating the PDF versions of all vignettes, and if `tangle = TRUE`, extracting the R code.

`pkgVignettes` returns an object of class "pkgVignettes" if a vignette directory is found, otherwise NULL.

Examples

```
gVigns <- pkgVignettes("grid")
str(gVigns)
```

charsets	<i>Conversion Tables between Character Sets</i>
----------	---

Description

`charset_to_Unicode` is a matrix of Unicode code points with columns for the common 8-bit encodings.

`Adobe_glyphs` is a data frame which gives Adobe glyph names for Unicode code points. It has two character columns, "adobe" and "unicode" (a 4-digit hex representation).

Usage

```
charset_to_Unicode

Adobe_glyphs
```

Details

charset_to_Unicode is an integer matrix of class `c("noquote", "hexmode")` so prints in hexadecimal. The mappings are those used by libiconv: there are differences in the way quotes and minus/hyphen are mapped between sources (and the postscript encoding files use a different mapping).

Adobe_glyphs includes all the Adobe glyph names which correspond to single Unicode characters. It is sorted by Unicode code point and within a point alphabetically on the glyph (there can be more than one name for a Unicode code point). The data are in the file '[R_HOME/share/encodings/Adobe_glyphlist](#)'.

Source

<https://partners.adobe.com/public/developer/en/opentype/glyphlist.txt>

Examples

```
## find Adobe names for ISOLatin2 chars.
latin2 <- charset_to_Unicode[, "ISOLatin2"]
aUnicode <- as.numeric(paste0("0x", Adobe_glyphs$unicode))
keep <- aUnicode %in% latin2
aUnicode <- aUnicode[keep]
aAdobe <- Adobe_glyphs[keep, 1]
## first match
aLatin2 <- aAdobe[match(latin2, aUnicode)]
## all matches
bLatin2 <- lapply(1:256, function(x) aAdobe[aUnicode == latin2[x]])
format(bLatin2, justify = "none")
```

checkFF

Check Foreign Function Calls

Description

Performs checks on calls to compiled code from R code. Currently only checks whether the interface functions such as `.C` and `.Fortran` are called with a "[NativeSymbolInfo](#)" first argument or with argument `PACKAGE` specified, which is highly recommended to avoid name clashes in foreign function calls.

Usage

```
checkFF(package, dir, file, lib.loc = NULL,
        registration = FALSE, check_DUP = FALSE,
        verbose = getOption("verbose"))
```

Arguments

package	a character string naming an installed package. If given, the installed R code of the package is checked.
dir	a character string specifying the path to a package's root source directory. This should contain the subdirectory 'R' (for R code). Only used if package is not given.
file	the name of a file containing R code to be checked. Used if neither package nor dir are given.
lib.loc	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. The specified library trees are used to search for package.
registration	a logical. If TRUE, checks the registration information on the call (if available).
check_DUP	a logical. If TRUE, .C and .Fortran calls with DUP = FALSE are reported.
verbose	a logical. If TRUE, additional diagnostics are printed (and the result is returned invisibly).

Details

Note that we can only check if the name argument is a symbol or a character string, not what class of object the symbol resolves to at run-time.

If the package has a namespace which contains a `useDynLib` directive, calls in top-level functions in the package are not reported as their symbols will be preferentially looked up in the DLL named in the first `useDynLib` directive.

This checks that calls with `PACKAGE` specified are to the same package, and reports separately those which are in base packages and those which are in other packages (and if those packages are specified in the 'DESCRIPTION' file).

Value

An object of class "checkFF".

There are `format` and `print` methods to display the information contained in such objects.

See Also

`.C`, `.Fortran`; `Foreign`.

Examples

```
# order is pretty much random
checkFF(package = "stats", verbose = TRUE)
```

`checkMD5sums`*Check and Create MD5 Checksum Files*

Description

`checkMD5sums` checks the files against a file ‘MD5’.

Usage

```
checkMD5sums(package, dir)
```

Arguments

<code>package</code>	the name of an installed package
<code>dir</code>	the path to the top-level directory of an installed package.

Details

The file ‘MD5’ which is created is in a format which can be checked by `md5sum -c MD5` if a suitable command-line version of `md5sum` is available. (For Windows, one is supplied in the bundle at <https://cran.r-project.org/bin/windows/Rtools>.)

If `dir` is missing, an installed package of name `package` is searched for.

The private function `tools:::installMD5sums` is used to create MD5 files in the Windows build.

Value

`checkMD5sums` returns a logical, NA if there is no ‘MD5’ file to be checked.

See Also

[md5sum](#)

`checkPoFiles`*Check translation files for inconsistent format strings.*

Description

These functions compare formats embedded in English messages with translated strings to check for consistency. `checkPoFile` checks one file, while `checkPoFiles` checks all files for a specified language.

Usage

```
checkPoFile(f, strictPlural = FALSE)
checkPoFiles(language, dir = ".")
```

Arguments

<code>f</code>	a character string giving a single filepath.
<code>strictPlural</code>	whether to compare formats of singular and plural forms in a strict way.
<code>language</code>	a character string giving a language code.
<code>dir</code>	a path to a directory in which to check files.

Details

Part of R's internationalization depends on translations of messages in '.po' files. In these files an 'English' message taken from the R sources is followed by a translation into another language. Many of these messages are format strings for C or R `sprintf` and related functions. In these cases, the translation must give a compatible format or an error will be generated when the message is displayed.

The rules for compatibility differ between C and R in several ways. C supports several conversions not supported by R, namely c, u, p, n. It is allowed in C's `sprintf()` function to have more arguments than are needed by the format string, but in R the counts must match exactly. R requires types of arguments to match, whereas C will do the display whether it makes sense or not.

These functions compromise on the testing as follows. The additional formats allowed in C are accepted, and all differences in argument type or count are reported. As a consequence some reported differences are not errors.

If the `strictPlural` argument is TRUE, then argument lists must agree exactly between singular and plural forms of messages; if FALSE, then translations only need to match one or the other of the two forms. When `checkPoFiles` calls `checkPoFile`, the `strictPlural` argument is set to TRUE for files with names starting 'R-', and to FALSE otherwise.

Items marked as 'fuzzy' in the '.po' file are not processed (as they are ignored by the message compiler).

If a difference is found, the translated string is checked for variant percent signs (e.g., the wide percent sign "\uFF05"). Such signs will not be recognized as format specifiers, and are likely to be errors.

Value

Both functions return an object of S3 class "check_po_files". A `print` method is defined for this class to display a report on the differences.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

References

See the GNU gettext manual for the '.po' file format:
<https://www.gnu.org/software/gettext/manual/gettext.html>.

See Also

`update_pkg_po()` which calls `checkPoFile()`; `xgettext`, `sprintf`.

Examples

```
## Not run:
checkPoFiles("de", "/path/to/R/src/directory")

## End(Not run)
```

checkRd

Check an Rd Object

Description

Check an help file or the output of the [parse_Rd](#) function.

Usage

```
checkRd(Rd, defines = .Platform$OS.type, stages = "render",
        unknownOK = TRUE, listOK = TRUE, ..., def_enc = FALSE)
```

Arguments

Rd	a filename or Rd object to use as input.
defines	string(s) to use in #ifdef tests.
stages	at which stage ("build", "install", or "render") should \Sexpr macros be executed? See the notes below.
unknownOK	unrecognized macros are treated as errors if FALSE, otherwise warnings.
listOK	unnecessary non-empty braces (e.g., around text, not as an argument) are treated as errors if FALSE, otherwise warnings.
...	additional parameters to pass to parse_Rd when Rd is a filename. One that is often useful is encoding.
def_enc	logical: has the package declared an encoding, so tests for non-ASCII text are suppressed?

Details

checkRd performs consistency checks on an Rd file, confirming that required sections are present, etc.

It accepts a filename for an Rd file, and will use [parse_Rd](#) to parse it before applying the checks. If so, warnings from parse_Rd are collected, together with those from the internal function prepare_Rd, which does the #ifdef and \Sexpr processing, drops sections that would not be rendered or are duplicated (and should not be) and removes empty sections.

An Rd object is passed through prepare_Rd, but it may already have been (and installed Rd objects have).

Warnings are given a 'level': those from prepare_Rd have level 0. These include

All text must be in a section

Only one *tag name* section is allowed: the first will be used
 Section *name* is unrecognized and will be dropped
 Dropping empty section *name*

checkRd itself can show

```

7 Tag tag name not recognized
7 \tabular format must be simple text
7 Unrecognized \tabular format: ...
7 Only n columns allowed in this table
7 Must have a tag name
7 Only one tag name is allowed
7 Tag tag name must not be empty
7 \docType must be plain text
5 Tag \method is only valid in \usage
5 Tag \dontrun is only valid in \examples
5 Tag tag name is invalid in a block name block
5 Title of \section must be non-empty plain text
5 \title content must be plain text
3 Empty section tag name
-1 Non-ASCII contents without declared encoding
-1 Non-ASCII contents in second part of \enc
-3 Tag ... is not valid in a code block
-3 Apparent non-ASCII contents without declared encoding
-3 Apparent non-ASCII contents in second part of \enc
-3 Unnecessary braces at ...
-3 \method not valid outside a code block
```

and variations with `\method` replaced by `\S3method` or `\S4method`.

Note that both `prepare_Rd` and `checkRd` have tests for an empty section: that in `checkRd` is stricter (essentially that nothing is output).

Value

This may fail through an R error, but otherwise warnings are collected as returned as an object of class "checkRd", a character vector of messages. This class has a `print` method which only prints unique messages, and has argument `minlevel` that can be used to select only more serious messages. (This is set to -1 in R CMD check.)

Possible fatal errors are those from running the parser (e.g., a non-existent file, unclosed quoted string, non-ASCII input without a specified encoding) or from `prepare_Rd` (multiple `\Rdversion` declarations, invalid `\encoding` or `\docType` or `\name` sections, and missing or duplicate `\name` or `\title` sections).

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch, Brian Ripley

See Also

[parse_Rd](#), [Rd2HTML](#).

checkRdaFiles	<i>Report on Details of Saved Images or Re-saves them</i>
---------------	---

Description

This reports for each of the files produced by `save` the size, if it was saved in ASCII or XDR binary format, and if it was compressed (and if so in what format).

Usually such files have extension `‘.rda’` or `‘.RData’`, hence the name of the function.

Usage

```
checkRdaFiles(paths)
resaveRdaFiles(paths, compress = c("auto", "gzip", "bzip2", "xz"),
               compression_level)
```

Arguments

<code>paths</code>	A character vector of paths to save files. If this specifies a single directory, it is taken to refer to all <code>‘.rda’</code> and <code>‘.RData’</code> files in that directory.
<code>compress</code> , <code>compression_level</code>	type and level of compression: see save . Values of <code>compress</code> can be abbreviated.

Details

`compress = "auto"` asks `R` to choose the compression and ignores `compression_level`. It will try `"gzip"`, `"bzip2"` and if the `"gzip"` compressed size is over 10Kb, `"xz"` and choose the smallest compressed file (but with a 10% bias towards `"gzip"`). This can be slow.

Value

For `checkRdaFiles`, a data frame with rows names `paths` and columns

<code>size</code>	numeric: file size in bytes, NA if the file does not exist.
<code>ASCII</code>	logical: true for <code>save(ASCII = TRUE)</code> , NA if the format is not that of an <code>R</code> save file.
<code>compress</code>	character: type of compression. One of <code>"gzip"</code> , <code>"bzip2"</code> , <code>"xz"</code> , <code>"none"</code> or <code>"unknown"</code> (which means that if this is an <code>R</code> save file it is from a later version of <code>R</code>).
<code>version</code>	integer: the version of the save – usually 2 but 1 for very old files, and NA for other files.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## from a package top-level source directory
paths <- sort(Sys.glob(c("data/*.rda", "data/*.RData")))
(res <- checkRdaFiles(paths))
## pick out some that may need attention
bad <- is.na(res$ASCII) | res$ASCII | (res$size > 1e4 & res$compress == "none")
res[bad, ]

## End(Not run)
```

checkTnF	<i>Check R Packages or Code for T/F</i>
----------	---

Description

Checks the specified R package or code file for occurrences of T or F, and gathers the expression containing these. This is useful as in R T and F are just variables which are set to the logicals TRUE and FALSE by default, but are not reserved words and hence can be overwritten by the user. Hence, one should always use TRUE and FALSE for the logicals.

Usage

```
checkTnF(package, dir, file, lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

package	a character string naming an installed package. If given, the installed R code and the examples in the documentation files of the package are checked. R code installed as an image file cannot be checked.
dir	a character string specifying the path to a package's root source directory. This must contain the subdirectory 'R' (for R code), and should also contain 'man' (for documentation). Only used if package is not given. If used, the R code files and the examples in the documentation files are checked.
file	the name of a file containing R code to be checked. Used if neither package nor dir are given.
lib.loc	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. The specified library trees are used to search for package.

Value

An object of class "checkTnF" which is a list containing, for each file where occurrences of T or F were found, a list with the expressions containing these occurrences. The names of the list are the corresponding file names.

There is a print method for nicely displaying the information contained in such objects.

checkVignettes	<i>Check Package Vignettes</i>
----------------	--------------------------------

Description

Check all [Sweave](#) files of a package by running [Sweave](#) and/or [Stangle](#) on them. All R source code files found after the tangling step are [sourced](#) to check whether all code can be executed without errors.

Usage

```
checkVignettes(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL,
               tangle = TRUE, weave = TRUE, latex = FALSE,
               workdir = c("tmp", "src", "cur"),
               keepfiles = FALSE)
```

Arguments

package	a character string naming an installed package. If given, Sweave files are searched in subdirectory 'doc'.
dir	a character string specifying the path to a package's root source directory. This subdirectory 'inst/doc' is searched for Sweave files.
lib.loc	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. The specified library trees are used to search for package.
tangle	Perform a tangle and source the extracted code?
weave	Perform a weave?
latex	logical: if weave and latex are TRUE and there is no 'Makefile' in the vignettes directory, run the weaved files through pdf _l atex.
workdir	Directory used as working directory while checking the vignettes. If "tmp" then a temporary directory is created, this is the default. If "src" then the directory containing the vignettes itself is used, if "cur" then the current working directory of R is used.
keepfiles	Delete files in the temporary directory? This option is ignored when workdir != "tmp".

Details

A 'vignette' is a file in the package's 'inst/doc' directory with extension '.Rnw' (preferred), '.Snw', '.Rtex' or '.Stex' (and lower-case versions are also accepted).

If tangle is true, this function runs [Stangle](#) to produce (one or more) R code files from each vignette, then sources each code file in turn.

If weave is true, the vignettes are run through [Sweave](#), which will produce a '.tex' file for each vignette. If latex is also true, [texi2pdf](#) is run on the '.tex' files from those vignettes which did not give errors in the previous steps.

Value

An object of class "checkVignettes", which is a list with the error messages found during the tangle, source, weave and latex steps. There is a print method for displaying the information contained in such objects.

check_packages_in_dir *Check Source Packages and Their Reverse Dependencies*

Description

Check source packages in a given directory, optionally with their reverse dependencies.

Usage

```
check_packages_in_dir(dir,
                      check_args = character(),
                      check_args_db = list(),
                      reverse = NULL,
                      check_env = character(),
                      xvfb = FALSE,
                      Ncpus = getOption("Ncpus", 1L),
                      clean = TRUE,
                      ...)

summarize_check_packages_in_dir_results(dir, all = TRUE,
                                       full = FALSE)
summarize_check_packages_in_dir_timings(dir, all = FALSE,
                                       full = FALSE)
summarize_check_packages_in_dir_depends(dir, all = FALSE,
                                       which = c("Depends",
                                                "Imports",
                                                "LinkingTo"))

check_packages_in_dir_changes(dir, old,
                             outputs = FALSE, sources = FALSE)
```

Arguments

dir	a character string giving the path to the directory with the source ‘.tar.gz’ files to be checked.
check_args	a character vector with arguments to be passed to R CMD check, or a list of length two of such character vectors to be used for checking packages and reverse dependencies, respectively.
check_args_db	a named list of character vectors with arguments to be passed to R CMD check, with names the respective package names.

reverse	a list with names partially matching "repos", "which", or "recursive", giving the repositories to use for locating reverse dependencies (default: <code>getOption("repos")</code>), the types of reverse dependencies (default: <code>c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo")</code> , with shorthands "most" and "all" as for package_dependencies), and indicating whether to also check reverse dependencies of reverse dependencies and so on (default: FALSE), or NULL (default), in which case no reverse dependencies are checked.
check_env	a character vector of name=value strings to set environment variables for checking, or a list of length two of such character vectors to be used for checking packages and reverse dependencies, respectively.
xvfb	a logical indicating whether to perform checking inside a virtual framebuffer X server (Unix only), or a character vector of Xvfb options for doing so.
Ncpus	the number of parallel processes to use for parallel installation and checking.
clean	a logical indicating whether to remove the downloaded reverse dependency sources.
...	currently not used.
all	a logical indicating whether to also summarize the reverse dependencies checked.
full	a logical indicating whether to also give details for checks with non-ok results, or summarize check example timings (if available).
which	see package_dependencies .
old	a character string giving the path to the directory of a previous <code>check_packages_in_dir</code> run.
outputs	a logical indicating whether to analyze changes in the outputs of the checks performed, or only (default) the status of the checks.
sources	a logical indicating whether to also investigate the changes in the source files checked (default: FALSE).

Details

`check_packages_in_dir` allows to conveniently check source package `‘.tar.gz’` files in the given directory `dir`, along with their reverse dependencies as controlled by `reverse`.

The "which" component of `reverse` can also be a list, in which case reverse dependencies are obtained for each element of the list and the corresponding element of the "recursive" component of `reverse` (which is recycled as needed).

If needed, the source `‘.tar.gz’` files of the reverse dependencies to be checked as well are downloaded into `dir` (and removed at the end if `clean` is true). Next, all packages (additionally) needed for checking are installed to the `‘Library’` subdirectory of `dir`. Then, all `‘.tar.gz’` files are checked using the given arguments and environment variables, with outputs and messages to files in the `‘Outputs’` subdirectory of `dir`. The `‘*.Rcheck’` directories with the check results of the reverse dependencies are renamed by prefixing their base names with `‘rdepends_’`.

Results and timings can conveniently be summarized using `summarize_check_packages_in_dir_results` and `summarize_check_packages_in_dir_timings`, respectively.

Installation and checking is performed in parallel if Ncpus is greater than one: this will use `mclapply` on Unix and `parLapply` on Windows.

`check_packages_in_dir` returns an object inheriting from class `"check_packages_in_dir"` which has `print` and `summary` methods.

`check_packages_in_dir_changes` allows to analyze the effect of changing (some of) the sources. With `dir` and `old` the paths to the directories with the new and old sources, respectively, and the corresponding check results, possible changes in the check results can conveniently be analyzed as controlled via options outputs and sources.

Note

This functionality is still experimental: interfaces may change in future versions.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Check packages in dir without reverse dependencies:
check_packages_in_dir(dir)
## Check packages in dir and their reverse dependencies using the
## defaults (all repositories in getOption("repos"), all "strong"
## reverse dependencies, no recursive reverse dependencies):
check_packages_in_dir(dir, reverse = list())
## Check packages in dir with their reverse dependencies from CRAN,
## using all strong reverse dependencies and reverse suggests:
check_packages_in_dir(dir,
                      reverse = list(repos = getOption("repos")["CRAN"],
                                     which = "most"))
## Check packages in dir with their reverse dependencies from CRAN,
## using '--as-cran' for the former but not the latter:
check_packages_in_dir(dir,
                      check_args = c("--as-cran", ""),
                      reverse = list(repos = getOption("repos")["CRAN"]))

## End(Not run)
```

Description

Find inconsistencies between actual and documented ‘structure’ of R objects in a package. `codoc` compares names and optionally also corresponding positions and default values of the arguments of functions. `codocClasses` and `codocData` compare slot names of S4 classes and variable names of data sets, respectively.

Usage

```
codoc(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL,
      use.values = NULL, verbose = getOption("verbose"))
codocClasses(package, lib.loc = NULL)
codocData(package, lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>package</code>	a character string naming an installed package.
<code>dir</code>	a character string specifying the path to a package's root source directory. This must contain the subdirectories 'man' with R documentation sources (in Rd format) and 'R' with R code. Only used if <code>package</code> is not given.
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. The specified library trees are used to search for package.
<code>use.values</code>	if FALSE, do not use function default values when comparing code and docs. Otherwise, compare <i>all</i> default values if TRUE, and only the ones documented in the usage otherwise (default).
<code>verbose</code>	a logical. If TRUE, additional diagnostics are printed.

Details

The purpose of `codoc` is to check whether the documented usage of function objects agrees with their formal arguments as defined in the R code. This is not always straightforward, in particular as the usage information for methods to generic functions often employs the name of the generic rather than the method.

The following algorithm is used. If an installed package is used, it is loaded (unless it is the **base** package), after possibly detaching an already loaded version of the package. Otherwise, if the sources are used, the R code files of the package are collected and sourced in a new environment. Then, the usage sections of the Rd files are extracted and parsed 'as much as possible' to give the formals documented. For interpreted functions in the code environment, the formals are compared between code and documentation according to the values of the argument `use.values`. Synopsis sections are used if present; their occurrence is reported if `verbose` is true.

If a package has a namespace both exported and unexported objects are checked, as well as registered S3 methods. (In the unlikely event of differences the order is exported objects in the package, registered S3 methods and finally objects in the namespace and only the first found is checked.)

Currently, the R documentation format has no high-level markup for the basic 'structure' of classes and data sets (similar to the usage sections for function synopses). Variable names for data frames in documentation objects obtained by suitably editing 'templates' created by `prompt` are recognized by `codocData` and used provided that the documentation object is for a single data frame (i.e., only has one alias). `codocClasses` analogously handles slot names for classes in documentation objects obtained by editing shells created by `promptClass`.

Help files named '*pkgname*-defunct.Rd' for the appropriate *pkgname* are checked more loosely, as they may have undocumented arguments.

Value

codoc returns an object of class "codoc". Currently, this is a list which, for each Rd object in the package where an inconsistency was found, contains an element with a list of the mismatches (which in turn are lists with elements code and docs, giving the corresponding arguments obtained from the function's code and documented usage).

codocClasses and codocData return objects of class "codocClasses" and "codocData", respectively, with a structure similar to class "codoc".

There are print methods for nicely displaying the information contained in such objects.

Note

The default for use.values has been changed from FALSE to NULL, for R versions 1.9.0 and later.

See Also

[undoc](#), [QC](#)

compactPDF

Compact PDF Files

Description

Re-save PDF files (especially vignettes) more compactly. Support function for R CMD build --compact-vignettes.

Usage

```
compactPDF(paths,
            qpdf = Sys.which(Sys.getenv("R_QPDF", "qpdf")),
            gs_cmd = Sys.getenv("R_GSCMD", ""),
            gs_quality = Sys.getenv("GS_QUALITY", "none"),
            gs_extras = character())
```

```
## S3 method for class 'compactPDF'
format(x, ratio = 0.9, diff = 1e4, ...)
```

Arguments

paths	A character vector of paths to PDF files, or a length-one character vector naming a directory, when all '.pdf' files in that directory will be used.
qpdf	Character string giving the path to the qpdf command. If empty, qpdf will not be used.
gs_cmd	Character string giving the path to the GhostScript executable, if that is to be used. On Windows this is the path to 'gswin32c.exe' or 'gswin64c.exe'. If "" (the default), the function will try to find a platform-specific path to GhostScript where required.

<code>gs_quality</code>	A character string indicating the quality required: the options are "none" (so GhostScript is not used), "printer" (300dpi), "ebook" (150dpi) and "screen" (72dpi). Can be abbreviated.
<code>gs_extras</code>	An optional character vector of further options to be passed to GhostScript.
<code>x</code>	An object of class "compactPDF".
<code>ratio, diff</code>	Limits for reporting: files are only reported whose sizes are reduced both by a factor of <code>ratio</code> and by <code>diff</code> bytes.
<code>...</code>	Further arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

This by default makes use of `qpdf`, available from <http://qpdf.sourceforge.net/> (including as a Windows binary) and included with the CRAN OS X distribution of R. If `gs_cmd` is non-empty and `gs_quality != "none"`, GhostScript will be used first, then `qpdf` if it is available. If `gs_quality != "none"` and `gs_cmd` is "", an attempt will be made to find a GhostScript executable.

`qpdf` and/or `gs_cmd` are run on all PDF files found, and those which are reduced in size by at least 10% and 10Kb are replaced.

The strategy of our use of `qpdf` is to (losslessly) compress both PDF streams and objects. GhostScript compresses streams and more (including downsampling and compressing embedded images) and consequently is much slower and may lose quality (but can also produce much smaller PDF files). However, quality "ebook" is perfectly adequate for screen viewing and printing on laser printers.

Where PDF files are changed they will become PDF version 1.5 files: these have been supported by Acrobat Reader since version 6 in 2003, so this is very unlikely to cause difficulties.

Stream compression is what most often has large gains. Most PDF documents are generated with object compression, but this does not seem to be the default for MiKTeX's `pdflatex`. For some PDF files (and especially package vignettes), using GhostScript can dramatically reduce the space taken by embedded images (often screenshots).

Where both GhostScript and `qpdf` are selected (when `gs_quality != "none"` and both executables are found), they are run in that order and the size reductions apply to the total compression achieved.

Value

An object of class `c("compactPDF", "data.frame")`. This has two columns, the old and new sizes in bytes for the files that were changed.

There are `format` and `print` methods: the latter passes `...` to the `format` method, so will accept `ratio` and `diff` arguments.

Note

The external tools used may change in future releases.

Versions of GhostScript 9.06 and later give several times better compression than 9.05 on some vignettes in CRAN packages.

See Also

[resaveRdaFiles](#).

Many other (and sometimes more effective) tools to compact PDF files are available, including Adobe Acrobat (not Reader). See the ‘Writing R Extensions’ manual.

delimMatch

Delimited Pattern Matching

Description

Match delimited substrings in a character vector, with proper nesting.

Usage

```
delimMatch(x, delim = c("{", "}"), syntax = "Rd")
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a character vector.
<code>delim</code>	a character vector of length 2 giving the start and end delimiters. Future versions might allow for arbitrary regular expressions.
<code>syntax</code>	currently, always the string "Rd" indicating Rd syntax (i.e., ‘%’ starts a comment extending till the end of the line, and ‘\’ escapes). Future versions might know about other syntax, perhaps via ‘syntax tables’ allowing to flexibly specify comment, escape, and quote characters.

Value

An integer vector of the same length as `x` giving the starting position (in characters) of the first match, or `-1` if there is none, with attribute `"match.length"` giving the length (in characters) of the matched text (or `-1` for no match).

See Also

[regexpr](#) for ‘simple’ pattern matching.

Examples

```
x <- c("\\value{foo}", "function(bar)")
delimMatch(x)
delimMatch(x, c("(", ")"))
```

dependsOnPkgs	<i>Find Reverse Dependencies</i>
---------------	----------------------------------

Description

Find ‘reverse’ dependencies of packages, that is those packages which depend on this one, and (optionally) so on recursively.

Usage

```
dependsOnPkgs(pkgs,  
              dependencies = c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo"),  
              recursive = TRUE, lib.loc = NULL,  
              installed =  
              utils::installed.packages(lib.loc, fields = "Enhances"))
```

Arguments

pkgs	a character vector of package names.
dependencies	a character vector listing the types of dependencies, a subset of <code>c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo", "Suggests", "Enhances")</code> . Character string "all" is shorthand for that vector.
recursive	logical: should reverse dependencies of reverse dependencies (and so on) be included?
lib.loc	a character vector of R library trees, or NULL for all known trees (see .libPaths).
installed	a result of calling installed.packages .

Value

A character vector of package names, which does not include any from pkgs.

Examples

```
## there are few dependencies in a vanilla R installation:  
## lattice may not be installed  
dependsOnPkgs("lattice")
```

encoded_text_to_latex *Translate non-ASCII Text to LaTeX Escapes*

Description

Translate non-ASCII characters in text to LaTeX escape sequences.

Usage

```
encoded_text_to_latex(x,
                      encoding = c("latin1", "latin2", "latin9",
                                   "UTF-8", "utf8"))
```

Arguments

x	a character vector.
encoding	the encoding to be assumed. "latin9" is officially ISO-8859-15 or Latin-9, but known as latin9 to LaTeX's inputenc package.

Details

Non-ASCII characters in x are replaced by an appropriate LaTeX escape sequence, or '?' if there is no appropriate sequence.

Even if there is an appropriate sequence, it may not be supported by the font in use. Hyphen is mapped to '\-'.

Value

A character vector of the same length as x.

See Also

[iconv](#)

Examples

```
x <- "fa\xE7ile"
encoded_text_to_latex(x, "latin1")
## Not run:
## create a tex file to show the upper half of 8-bit charsets
x <- rawToChar(as.raw(160:255), multiple = TRUE)
(x <- matrix(x, ncol = 16, byrow = TRUE))
xx <- x
xx[] <- encoded_text_to_latex(x, "latin1") # or latin2 or latin9
xx <- apply(xx, 1, paste, collapse = "&")
con <- file("test-encoding.tex", "w")
header <- c(
  "\\documentclass{article}",
```



```

"\usepackage[T1]{fontenc}",
"\usepackage{Rd}",
"\begin{document}",
"\HeaderA{test}{}{test}",
"\begin{Details}\relax",
"\Tabular{cccccccccccccc}{"}
trailer <- c("", "\end{Details}", "\end{document}")
writeLines(header, con)
writeLines(paste0(xx, "\\"), con)
writeLines(trailer, con)
close(con)
## and some UTF_8 chars
x <- intToUtf8(as.integer(
  c(160:383, 0x0192, 0x02C6, 0x02C7, 0x02CA, 0x02D8,
    0x02D9, 0x02DD, 0x200C, 0x2018, 0x2019, 0x201C,
    0x201D, 0x2020, 0x2022, 0x2026, 0x20AC)),
  multiple = TRUE)
x <- matrix(x, ncol = 16, byrow = TRUE)
xx <- x
xx[] <- encoded_text_to_latex(x, "UTF-8")
xx <- apply(xx, 1, paste, collapse = "&")
con <- file("test-utf8.tex", "w")
writeLines(header, con)
writeLines(paste(xx, "\\ ", sep = " "), con)
writeLines(trailer, con)
close(con)

## End(Not run)

```

fileutils

File Utilities

Description

Utilities for listing files, and manipulating file paths.

Usage

```

file_ext(x)
file_path_as_absolute(x)
file_path_sans_ext(x, compression = FALSE)

list_files_with_exts(dir, exts, all.files = FALSE,
  full.names = TRUE)
list_files_with_type(dir, type, all.files = FALSE,
  full.names = TRUE, OS_subdirs = .OSType())

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	character vector giving file paths.
<code>compression</code>	logical: should compression extension <code>‘.gz’</code> , <code>‘.bz2’</code> or <code>‘.xz’</code> be removed first?
<code>dir</code>	a character string with the path name to a directory.
<code>exts</code>	a character vector of possible file extensions (excluding the leading dot).
<code>all.files</code>	a logical. If FALSE (default), only visible files are considered; if TRUE, all files are used.
<code>full.names</code>	a logical indicating whether the full paths of the files found are returned (default), or just the file names.
<code>type</code>	a character string giving the ‘type’ of the files to be listed, as characterized by their extensions. Currently, possible values are <code>"code"</code> (R code), <code>"data"</code> (data sets), <code>"demo"</code> (demos), <code>"docs"</code> (R documentation), and <code>"vignette"</code> (vignettes).
<code>OS_subdirs</code>	a character vector with the names of OS-specific subdirectories to possibly include in the listing of R code and documentation files. By default, the value of the environment variable <code>R_OSTYPE</code> , or if this is empty, the value of <code>.Platform\$OS.type</code> , is used.

Details

`file_ext` returns the file (name) extensions (excluding the leading dot). (Only purely alphanumeric extensions are recognized.)

`file_path_as_absolute` turns a possibly relative file path absolute, performing tilde expansion if necessary. This is a wrapper for `normalizePath`. Currently, `x` must be a single existing path.

`file_path_sans_ext` returns the file paths without extensions (and the leading dot). (Only purely alphanumeric extensions are recognized.)

`list_files_with_exts` returns the paths or names of the files in directory `dir` with extension matching one of the elements of `exts`. Note that by default, full paths are returned, and that only visible files are used.

`list_files_with_type` returns the paths of the files in `dir` of the given ‘type’, as determined by the extensions recognized by R. When listing R code and documentation files, files in OS-specific subdirectories are included if present according to the value of `OS_subdirs`. Note that by default, full paths are returned, and that only visible files are used.

See Also

[file.path](#), [file.info](#), [list.files](#)

Examples

```
dir <- file.path(R.home(), "library", "stats")
list_files_with_exts(file.path(dir, "demo"), "R")
list_files_with_type(file.path(dir, "demo"), "demo") # the same
file_path_sans_ext(list.files(file.path(R.home("modules"))))
```

`find_gs_cmd`*Find a GhostScript Executable*

Description

Find a GhostScript executable in a cross-platform way.

Usage

```
find_gs_cmd(gs_cmd = "")
```

Arguments

`gs_cmd` The name, full or partial path of a GhostScript executable.

Details

The details differ by platform.

On a Unix-alike, the GhostScript executable is usually called `gs`. The name (and possibly path) of the command is taken first from argument `gs_cmd` then from the environment variable `R_GSCMD` and default `gs`. This is then looked for on the system path and the value returned if a match is found.

On Windows, the name of the command is taken from argument `gs_cmd` then from the environment variables `R_GSCMD` and `GSC`. If neither of those produces a suitable command name, `gswin64c` and `gswin32c` are tried in turn. In all cases the command is looked for on the system `PATH`.

Note that on Windows (and some other OSes) there are separate GhostScript executables to display Postscript/PDF files and to manipulate them: this function looks for the latter.

Value

A character string giving the full path to a GhostScript executable if one was found, otherwise an empty string.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Suppose a Solaris system has GhostScript 9.00 on the path and
## 9.07 in /opt/csw/bin. Then one might set
Sys.setenv(R_GSCMD = "/opt/csw/bin/gs")

## End(Not run)
```

Description

Given a dependency matrix, will create a `DependsList` object for that package which will include the dependencies for that matrix, which ones are installed, which unresolved dependencies were found online, which unresolved dependencies were not found online, and any R dependencies.

Usage

```
getDepList(depMtrx, instPkgs, recursive = TRUE, local = TRUE,  
           reduce = TRUE, lib.loc = NULL)
```

```
pkgDepends(pkg, recursive = TRUE, local = TRUE, reduce = TRUE,  
           lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>depMtrx</code>	A dependency matrix as from <code>package.dependencies</code>
<code>pkg</code>	The name of the package
<code>instPkgs</code>	A matrix specifying all packages installed on the local system, as from <code>installed.packages</code>
<code>recursive</code>	Whether or not to include indirect dependencies
<code>local</code>	Whether or not to search only locally
<code>reduce</code>	Whether or not to collapse all sets of dependencies to a minimal value
<code>lib.loc</code>	What libraries to use when looking for installed packages. <code>NULL</code> indicates all library directories in the user's <code>.libPaths()</code> .

Details

The function `pkgDepends` is a convenience function which wraps `getDepList` and takes as input a package name. It will then query [installed.packages](#) and also generate a dependency matrix, calling `getDepList` with this information and returning the result.

These functions will retrieve information about the dependencies of the matrix, resulting in a `DependsList` object. This is a list with four elements:

Depends A vector of the dependencies for this package.

Installed A vector of the dependencies which have been satisfied by the currently installed packages.

Found A list representing the dependencies which are not in `Installed` but were found online. This list has element names which are the URLs for the repositories in which packages were found and the elements themselves are vectors of package names which were found in the respective repositories. If `local = TRUE`, the `Found` element will always be empty.

R Any R version dependencies.

If recursive is TRUE, any package that is specified as a dependency will in turn have its dependencies included (and so on), these are known as indirect dependencies. If recursive is FALSE, only the dependencies directly stated by the package will be used.

If local is TRUE, the system will only look at the user's local install and not online to find unresolved dependencies.

If reduce is TRUE, the system will collapse the fields in the DependsList object such that a minimal set of dependencies are specified (for instance if there was 'foo, foo (>= 1.0.0), foo (>= 1.3.0)', it would only return 'foo (>= 1.3.0)').

Value

An object of class "DependsList".

Author(s)

Jeff Gentry

See Also

[installFoundDepends](#)

Examples

```
pkgDepends("tools", local = FALSE)
```

getVignetteInfo

Get information on installed vignettes.

Description

This function gets information on installed vignettes.

Usage

```
getVignetteInfo(package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL, all = TRUE)
```

Arguments

package	Which package to look in, or NULL for all packages.
lib.loc	Which library to look in.
all	Whether to search all installed packages, or just attached packages.

Value

A matrix with columns

Package	the name of the package
Dir	the directory where the package is installed
Topic	the name of the vignette
File	the base filename of the source of the vignette
Title	the title of the vignette
R	the tangled R source from the vignette
PDF	the PDF or HTML file for display

Note

The last column of the result is named PDF for historical reasons, but it may contain a filename of a PDF or HTML document.

See Also

[pkgVignettes](#) is a similar function that can work on an uninstalled package.

Examples

```
getVignetteInfo("grid")
```

HTMLheader

Generate a standard HTML header for R help

Description

This function generates the standard HTML header used on R help pages.

Usage

```
HTMLheader(title = "R", logo = TRUE, up = NULL,  
            top = file.path(Rhome, "doc/html/index.html"),  
            Rhome = "",  
            css = file.path(Rhome, "doc/html/R.css"),  
            headerTitle = paste("R:", title),  
            outputEncoding = "UTF-8")
```

Arguments

title	The title to display and use in the HTML headers. Should have had any HTML escaping already done.
logo	Whether to display the R logo after the title.
up	Which page (if any) to link to on the “up” button.
top	Which page (if any) to link to on the “top” button.
Rhome	A relative path to the R home directory. See the ‘Details’.
css	The relative URL for the Cascading Style Sheet.
headerTitle	The title used in the headers.
outputEncoding	The declared encoding for the whole page.

Details

The up and top links should be relative to the current page. The Rhome path default works with dynamic help; for static help, a relative path (e.g., ‘. / . .’) to it should be used.

Value

A character vector containing the lines of an HTML header which can be used to start a page in the R help system.

Examples

```
cat(HTMLheader("This is a sample header"), sep="\n")
```

HTMLlinks	<i>Collect HTML Links from Package Documentation</i>
-----------	--

Description

Compute relative file paths for URLs to other package’s installed HTML documentation.

Usage

```
findHTMLlinks(pkgDir = "", lib.loc = NULL, level = 0:2)
```

Arguments

pkgDir	the top-level directory of an installed package. The default indicates no package.
lib.loc	character vector describing the location of R library trees to scan: the default indicates .libPaths() .
level	Which level(s) to include.

Details

findHTMLlinks tries to resolve links from one help page to another. It uses in decreasing priority

- The package in pkgDir: this is used when converting HTML help for that package (level 0).
- The base and recommended packages (level 1).
- Other packages found in the library trees specified by lib.loc in the order of the trees and alphabetically within a library tree (level 2).

Value

A named character vector of file paths, relative to the 'html' directory of an installed package. So these are of the form `"../..../somepkg/html/sometopic.html"`.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch, Brian Ripley

installFoundDepends	<i>A function to install unresolved dependencies</i>
---------------------	--

Description

This function will take the Found element of a pkgDependsList object and attempt to install all of the listed packages from the specified repositories.

Usage

```
installFoundDepends(depPkgList, ...)
```

Arguments

depPkgList	A Found element from a pkgDependsList object
...	Arguments to pass on to install.packages

Details

This function takes as input the Found list from a pkgDependsList object. This list will have element names being URLs corresponding to repositories and the elements will be vectors of package names. For each element, [install.packages](#) is called for that URL to install all packages listed in the vector.

Author(s)

Jeff Gentry

See Also

[pkgDepends](#), [install.packages](#)

Examples

```
## Set up a temporary directory to install packages to
tmp <- tempfile()
dir.create(tmp)

pDL <- pkgDepends("tools", local = FALSE)
installFoundDepends(pDL$Found, destdir = tmp)
```

loadRdMacros

Load user-defined Rd help system macros.

Description

Loads macros from an ‘.Rd’ file, or from several ‘.Rd’ files contained in a package.

Usage

```
loadRdMacros(file, macros = TRUE)
loadPkgRdMacros(pkgdir, macros)
```

Arguments

file	A file in Rd format containing macro definitions.
macros	TRUE or a previous set of macro definitions, in the format expected by the parse_Rd macros argument.
pkgdir	The base directory of a source package or an installed package.

Details

The files parsed by this function should contain only macro definitions; a warning will be issued if anything else other than comments or white space is found.

The macros argument may be a filename of a base set of macros, or the result of a previous call to `loadRdMacros` or `loadPkgRdMacros` in the same session. These results should be assumed to be valid only within the current session.

The `loadPkgMacros` function first looks for an “RdMacros” entry in the package ‘DESCRIPTION’ file. If present, it should contain a comma-separated list of other package names; their macros will be loaded before those of the current package. It will then look in the current package for ‘.Rd’ files in the ‘man/macros’ or ‘help/macros’ subdirectories, and load those.

Value

These functions each return an environment containing objects with the names of the newly defined macros from the last file processed. The parent environment will be macros from the previous file, and so on. The first file processed will have `emptyenv()` as its parent.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

References

See the ‘Writing R Extensions’ manual for the syntax of Rd files, or <https://developer.r-project.org/parseRd.pdf> for a technical discussion.

See Also

[parse_Rd](#)

Examples

```
f <- tempfile()
writeLines(paste0("\\newcommand{\\logo}{\\if{html}{\\figure{logo.jpg}},
                  \"\\if{latex}{\\figure{logo.jpg}{options: width=0.5in}}}\"),
          f)
m <- loadRdMacros(f)
ls(m)
ls(parent.env(m))
ls(parent.env(parent.env(m)))
```

make_translations_pkg *Package the Current Translations in the R sources*

Description

A utility for R Core members to prepare a package of updated translations.

Usage

```
make_translations_pkg(srcdir, outDir = ".", append = "-1")
```

Arguments

srcdir	The R source directory.
outDir	The directory into which to place the prepared package.
append	The suffix for the package version number, e.g. 3.0.0-1 will be the default in R 3.0.0.

Details

This extracts the translations in a current R source distribution and packages them as a source package called **translations** which can be distributed on CRAN and installed by [update.packages](#). This allows e.g. the translations shipped in R 3.x.y to be updated to those currently in ‘R-patched’, even by a user without administrative privileges.

The package has a ‘Depends’ field which restricts it to versions 3.x.* for a single x.

md5sum

*Compute MD5 Checksums***Description**

Compute the 32-byte MD5 hashes of one or more files.

Usage

```
md5sum(files)
```

Arguments

`files` character. The paths of file(s) whose contents are to be hashed.

Details

A MD5 ‘hash’ or ‘checksum’ or ‘message digest’ is a 128-bit summary of the file contents represented by 32 hexadecimal digits. Files with different MD5 sums are different: only very exceptionally (and usually with the intent to deceive) are those with the same sums different.

On Windows all files are read in binary mode (as the md5sum utilities there do): on other OSes the files are read in the default mode (almost always text mode where there is more than one).

MD5 sums are used as a check that R packages have been unpacked correctly and not subsequently modified.

Value

A character vector of the same length as `files`, with names equal to `files`. The elements will be NA for non-existent or unreadable files, otherwise a 32-character string of hexadecimal digits.

Source

The underlying C code was written by Ulrich Drepper and extracted from a 2001 release of glibc.

See Also

[checkMD5sums](#)

Examples

```
as.vector(md5sum(dir(R.home(), pattern = "^COPY", full.names = TRUE)))
```

package.dependencies *Check Package Dependencies*

Description

Parses and checks the dependencies of a package against the currently installed version of R (and other packages).

Usage

```
package.dependencies(x, check = FALSE,
                    depLevel =
                      c("Depends", "Imports", "Suggests"))
```

Arguments

x	A matrix of package descriptions as returned by available.packages .
check	If TRUE, return logical vector of check results. If FALSE, return parsed list of dependencies.
depLevel	Whether to look for Depends or Suggests level dependencies. Can be abbreviated.

Details

Currently we only check if the package conforms with the currently running version of R. In the future we might add checks for inter-package dependencies.

See Also

[update.packages](#)

package_dependencies *Computations on the Dependency Hierarchy of Packages*

Description

Find (recursively) dependencies or reverse dependencies of packages.

Usage

```
package_dependencies(packages = NULL, db,
                    which = c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo"),
                    recursive = FALSE, reverse = FALSE, verbose = getOption("verbose"))
```

Arguments

packages	a character vector of package names.
db	character matrix as from available.packages() , or data frame variants thereof. Alternatively, a package database like the one available from https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/packages.rds .
which	a character vector listing the types of dependencies, a subset of <code>c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo", "Suggests", "Enhances")</code> . Character string "all" is shorthand for that vector, character string "most" for the same vector without "Enhances".
recursive	logical: should (reverse) dependencies of (reverse) dependencies (and so on) be included?
reverse	logical: if FALSE (default), regular dependencies are calculated, otherwise reverse dependencies.
verbose	logical indicating if output should monitor the package search cycles.

Value

Named list with one element for each package in argument `packages`, each consists of a character vector naming the (recursive) (reverse) dependencies of that package.

For given packages which are not found in the db, NULL entries are returned, as opposed to `character(0)` entries which indicate no dependencies.

See Also

[dependsOnPkgs](#), and [package.dependencies](#) for checking dependencies.

Examples

```
## Not run:
pdb <- available.packages()
deps <- package_dependencies(packages = "MASS", pdb,
                             which = c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo", "Suggests"),
                             recursive = TRUE, reverse = TRUE)

length(deps$MASS)

## End(Not run)
```

parseLatex

These experimental functions work with a subset of LaTeX code.

Description

The `parseLatex` function parses LaTeX source, producing a structured object; `deparseLatex` reverses the process. The `latexToUtf8` function takes a LaTeX object, and processes a number of different macros to convert them into the corresponding UTF-8 characters.

Usage

```

parseLatex(text, filename = deparse(substitute(text)),
           verbose = FALSE,
           verbatim = c("verbatim", "verbatim*",
                        "Sinput", "Soutput"))
deparseLatex(x, dropBraces = FALSE)
latexToUtf8(x)

```

Arguments

<code>text</code>	A character vector containing LaTeX source code.
<code>filename</code>	A filename to use in syntax error messages.
<code>verbose</code>	If TRUE, print debug error messages.
<code>verbatim</code>	A character vector containing the names of LaTeX environments holding verbatim text.
<code>x</code>	A "LaTeX" object.
<code>dropBraces</code>	Drop unnecessary braces when displaying a "LaTeX" object.

Details

The parser does not recognize all legal LaTeX code, only relatively simple examples. It does not associate arguments with macros, that needs to be done after parsing, with knowledge of the definitions of each macro. The main intention for this function is to process simple LaTeX code used in bibliographic references, not fully general LaTeX documents.

Verbose text is allowed in two forms: the `\verb` macro (with single character delimiters), and environments whose names are listed in the `verbatim` argument.

Value

The `parseLatex()` function returns a recursive object of class "LaTeX". Each of the entries in this object will have a `"latex_tag"` attribute identifying its syntactic role.

The `deparseLatex()` function returns a single element character vector, possibly containing embedded newlines.

The `latexToUtf8()` function returns a modified version of the "LaTeX" object that was passed to it.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

Examples

```

latex <- parseLatex("fa\\c{c}ile")
deparseLatex(latexToUtf8(latex))

```

 parse_Rd

Parse an Rd file

Description

This function reads an R documentation (Rd) file and parses it, for processing by other functions.

Usage

```
parse_Rd(file, srcfile = NULL, encoding = "unknown",
         verbose = FALSE, fragment = FALSE, warningCalls = TRUE,
         macros = file.path(R.home("share"), "Rd", "macros", "system.Rd"),
         permissive = FALSE)
## S3 method for class 'Rd'
print(x, deparse = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'Rd'
as.character(x, deparse = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

file	A filename or text-mode connection. At present filenames work best.
srcfile	NULL, or a "srcfile" object. See the 'Details' section.
encoding	Encoding to be assumed for input strings.
verbose	Logical indicating whether detailed parsing information should be printed.
fragment	Logical indicating whether file represents a complete Rd file, or a fragment.
warningCalls	Logical: should parser warnings include the call?
macros	Filename or environment from which to load additional macros, or a logical value. See the Details below.
permissive	Logical indicating that unrecognized macros should be treated as text with no warning.
x	An object of class Rd.
deparse	If TRUE, attempt to reinstate the escape characters so that the resulting characters will parse to the same object.
...	Further arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

This function parses 'Rd' files according to the specification given in <https://developer.r-project.org/parseRd.pdf>.

It generates a warning for each parse error and attempts to continue parsing. In order to continue, it is generally necessary to drop some parts of the file, so such warnings should not be ignored.

Files without a marked encoding are by default assumed to be in the native encoding. An alternate default can be set using the encoding argument. All text in files is translated to the UTF-8 encoding in the parsed object.

As from R version 3.2.0, User-defined macros may be given in a separate file using ‘\newcommand’ or ‘\renewcommand’. An environment may also be given: it would be produced by `loadRdMacros`, `loadPkgRdMacros`, or by a previous call to `parse_Rd`. If a logical value is given, only the default built-in macros will be used; FALSE indicates that no “macros” attribute will be returned with the result.

The permissive argument allows text to be parsed that is not completely in Rd format. Typically it would be LaTeX code, used in an Rd fragment, e.g. in a `bibentry`. With `permissive = TRUE`, this will be passed through as plain text. Since `parse_Rd` doesn’t know how many arguments belong in LaTeX macros, it will guess based on the presence of braces after the macro; this is not infallible.

Value

`parse_Rd` returns an object of class “Rd”. The internal format of this object is subject to change. The `as.character()` and `print()` methods defined for the class return character vectors and print them, respectively.

Unless `macros = FALSE`, the object will have an attribute named “macros”, which is an environment containing the macros defined in file, in a format that can be used for further `parse_Rd` calls in the same session. It is not guaranteed to work if saved to a file and reloaded in a different session.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

References

<https://developer.r-project.org/parseRd.pdf>

See Also

`Rd2HTML` for the converters that use the output of `parse_Rd()`.

pskill

Kill a Process

Description

`pskill` sends a signal to a process, usually to terminate it.

Usage

```
pskill(pid, signal = SIGTERM)
```

```
SIGHUP
SIGINT
SIGQUIT
SIGKILL
SIGTERM
```


SIGSTOP
SIGTSTP
SIGCHLD
SIGUSR1
SIGUSR2

Arguments

pid	positive integers: one or more process IDs as returned by Sys.getpid .
signal	integer, most often one of the symbolic constants.

Details

Signals are a C99 concept, but only a small number are required to be supported (of those listed, only SIGINT and SIGTERM). They are much more widely used on POSIX operating systems (which should define all of those listed here), which also support a `kill` system call to send a signal to a process, most often to terminate it. Function `pskill` provides a wrapper: it silently ignores invalid values of its arguments, including zero or negative pids.

In normal use on a Unix-alike, `Ctrl-C` sends SIGINT, `Ctrl-\` sends SIGQUIT and `Ctrl-Z` sends SIGTSTP: that and SIGSTOP suspend a process which can be resumed by SIGCONT.

The signals are small integers, but the actual numeric values are not standardized (and most do differ between OSes). The `SIG*` objects contain the appropriate integer values for the current platform (or `NA_INTEGER_` if the signal is not defined).

Only SIGINT and SIGKILL will be defined on Windows, and `pskill` will always use the Windows system call `TerminateProcess`.

Value

A logical vector of the same length as `pid`, `TRUE` (for success) or `FALSE`, invisibly.

See Also

Package **parallel** has several means to launch child processes which record the process IDs.

[psnice](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:  
pskill(c(237, 245), SIGKILL)  
  
## End(Not run)
```

psnice*Get or Set the Priority (Niceness) of a Process*

Description

Get or set the ‘niceness’ of the current process, or one or more other processes.

Usage

```
psnice(pid = Sys.getpid(), value = NA_integer_)
```

Arguments

pid	positive integers: the process IDs of one or more processes: defaults to the R session process.
value	The niceness to be set, or NA for an enquiry.

Details

POSIX operating systems have a concept of process priorities, usually from 0 to 39 (or 40) with 20 being a normal priority and (somewhat confusingly) larger numeric values denoting lower priority. To add to the confusion, there is a ‘niceness’ value, the amount by which the priority numerically exceeds 20 (which can be negative). Processes with high niceness will receive less CPU time than those with normal priority. On some OSes, processes with niceness +19 are only run when the system would otherwise be idle.

On many OSes utilities such as `top` report the priority and not the niceness. Niceness is used by the utility ‘/usr/bin/renice’: ‘/usr/bin/nice’ (and `/usr/bin/renice -n`) specifies an *increment* in niceness.

Only privileged users (usually super-users) can lower the niceness.

Windows has a slightly different concept of ‘priority classes’. We have mapped the idle priority to niceness 19, ‘below normal’ to 15, normal to 0, ‘above normal’ to -5 and ‘realtime’ to -10. Unlike Unix-alikes, a non-privileged user can increase the priority class on Windows (but using ‘realtime’ is inadvisable).

Value

An integer vector of *previous* niceness values, NA if unknown for any reason.

See Also

Various functions in package **parallel** create child processes whose priority may need to be changed. [pskill](#).

Description

Functions for performing various quality checks.

Usage

```
checkDocFiles(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL)
checkDocStyle(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL)
checkReplaceFuns(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL)
checkS3methods(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>package</code>	a character string naming an installed package.
<code>dir</code>	a character string specifying the path to a package's root source directory. This should contain the subdirectories 'R' (for R code) and 'man' with R documentation sources (in Rd format). Only used if <code>package</code> is not given.
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. The specified library trees are used to search for package.

Details

`checkDocFiles` checks, for all Rd files in a package, whether all arguments shown in the usage sections of the Rd file are documented in its arguments section. It also reports duplicated entries in the arguments section, and 'over-documented' arguments which are given in the arguments section but not in the usage. Note that the match is for the usage section and not a possibly existing synopsis section, as the usage is what gets displayed.

`checkDocStyle` investigates how (S3) methods are shown in the usages of the Rd files in a package. It reports the methods shown by their full name rather than using the Rd `\method` markup for indicating S3 methods. Earlier versions of R also reported about methods shown along with their generic, which typically caused problems for the documentation of the primary argument in the generic and its methods. With `\method` now being expanded in a way that class information is preserved, joint documentation is no longer necessarily a problem. (The corresponding information is still contained in the object returned by `checkDocStyle`.)

`checkReplaceFuns` checks whether replacement functions or S3/S4 replacement methods in the package R code have their final argument named `value`.

`checkS3methods` checks whether all S3 methods defined in the package R code have all arguments of the corresponding generic, with positional arguments of the generics in the same positions for the method. As an exception, the first argument of a formula method *may* be called `formula` even if this is not the name used by the generic. The rules when `...` is involved are subtle: see the source code. Functions recognized as S3 generics are those with a call to `UseMethod` in their body, internal S3 generics (see [InternalMethods](#)), and S3 group generics (see [Math](#)). Possible

dispatch under a different name is not taken into account. The generics are sought first in the given package, then in the **base** package and (currently) the packages **graphics**, **stats**, and **utils** added in R 1.9.0 by splitting the former **base**, and, if an installed package is tested, also in the loaded namespaces/packages listed in the package's 'DESCRIPTION' Depends field.

If using an installed package, the checks needing access to all R objects of the package will load the package (unless it is the **base** package), after possibly detaching an already loaded version of the package.

Value

The functions return objects of class the same as the respective function names containing the information about problems detected. There are print methods for nicely displaying the information contained in such objects.

Rd2HTML

Rd Converters

Description

These functions take the output of the [parse_Rd](#) function and produce a help page from it. As they are mainly intended for internal use, their interfaces are subject to change.

Usage

```
Rd2HTML(Rd, out = "", package = "", defines = .Platform$OS.type,
        Links = NULL, Links2 = NULL,
        stages = "render", outputEncoding = "UTF-8",
        dynamic = FALSE, no_links = FALSE, fragment = FALSE,
        stylesheet = "R.css", ...)
```

```
Rd2txt(Rd, out = "", package = "", defines = .Platform$OS.type,
        stages = "render", outputEncoding = "",
        fragment = FALSE, options, ...)
```

```
Rd2latex(Rd, out = "", defines = .Platform$OS.type,
        stages = "render", outputEncoding = "ASCII",
        fragment = FALSE, ..., writeEncoding = TRUE)
```

```
Rd2ex(Rd, out = "", defines = .Platform$OS.type,
        stages = "render", outputEncoding = "UTF-8",
        commentDontrun = TRUE, commentDonttest = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>Rd</code>	a filename or Rd object to use as input.
<code>out</code>	a filename or connection object to which to write the output.
<code>package</code>	the package to list in the output.

<code>defines</code>	string(s) to use in <code>#ifdef</code> tests.
<code>stages</code>	at which stage ("build", "install", or "render") should <code>\Sexpr</code> macros be executed? See the notes below.
<code>outputEncoding</code>	see the 'Encodings' section below.
<code>dynamic</code>	logical: set links for render-time resolution by dynamic help system.
<code>no_links</code>	logical: suppress hyperlinks to other help topics. Used by R CMD <code>Rdconv</code> .
<code>fragment</code>	logical: should fragments of Rd files be accepted? See the notes below.
<code>stylesheet</code>	character: a URL for a stylesheet to be used in the header of the HTML output page.
<code>Links, Links2</code>	NULL or a named (by topics) character vector of links, as returned by <code>findHTMLlinks</code> .
<code>options</code>	An optional named list of options to pass to <code>Rd2txt_options</code> .
<code>...</code>	additional parameters to pass to <code>parse_Rd</code> when Rd is a filename.
<code>writeEncoding</code>	should <code>\inputencoding</code> lines be written in the file for non-ASCII encodings?
<code>commentDontrun</code>	should <code>\dontrun</code> sections be commented out?
<code>commentDonttest</code>	should <code>\donttest</code> sections be commented out?

Details

These functions convert help documents: `Rd2HTML` produces HTML, `Rd2txt` produces plain text, `Rd2latex` produces LaTeX. `Rd2ex` extracts the examples in the format used by `example` and `R` utilities.

Each of the functions accepts a filename for an Rd file, and will use `parse_Rd` to parse it before applying the conversions or checks.

The difference between arguments `Link` and `Link2` is that links are looked in them in turn, so lazy-evaluation can be used to only do a second-level search for links if required.

Note that the default for `Rd2latex` is to output ASCII, including using the second option of `\enc` markup. This was chosen because use of UTF-8 in LaTeX requires version '2005/12/01' or later, and even with that version the coverage of UTF-8 glyphs is not extensive (and not even as complete as Latin-1).

`Rd2txt` will format text paragraphs to a width determined by width, with appropriate margins. The default is to be close to the rendering in versions of `R` < 2.10.0.

`Rd2txt` will use directional quotes (see `sQuote`) if option "useFancyQuotes" is true (the default) and the current encoding is UTF-8.

Various aspects of formatting by `Rd2txt` are controlled by the `options` argument, documented with the `Rd2txt_options` function. Changes made using options are temporary, those made with `Rd2txt_options` are persistent.

When `fragment = TRUE`, the Rd file will be rendered with no processing of `\Sexpr` elements or conditional defines using `#ifdef` or `#ifndef`. Normally a fragment represents text within a section, but if the first element of the fragment is a section macro, the whole fragment will be rendered as a series of sections, without the usual sorting.

Value

These functions are executed mainly for the side effect of writing the converted help page. Their value is the name of the output file (invisibly). For `Rd2latex`, the output name is given an attribute `"latexEncoding"` giving the encoding of the file in a form suitable for use with the LaTeX `'inputenc'` package.

Encodings

Rd files are normally intended to be rendered on a wide variety of systems, so care must be taken in the encoding of non-ASCII characters. In general, any such encoding should be declared using the `'encoding'` section for there to be any hope of correct rendering.

For output, the `outputEncoding` argument will be used: `outputEncoding = ""` will choose the native encoding for the current system.

If the text cannot be converted to the `outputEncoding`, byte substitution will be used (see [iconv](#)): `Rd2latex` and `Rd2ex` give a warning.

Note

The `\Sexpr` macro is a new addition to Rd files. It includes R code that will be executed at one of three times: *build* time (when a package's source code is built into a tarball), *install* time (when the package is installed or built into a binary package), and *render* time (when the man page is converted to a readable format).

For example, this man page was:

1. built on 2016-03-10 at 12:23:13,
2. installed on 2016-03-10 at 12:23:13, and
3. rendered on 2016-03-10 at 12:24:01.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch, Brian Ripley

References

<https://developer.r-project.org/parseRd.pdf>

See Also

[parse_Rd](#), [checkRd](#), [findHTMLlinks](#), [Rd2txt_options](#).

Examples

```
## Not run:  
## Simulate install and rendering of this page in HTML and text format:  
  
Rd <- file.path("src/library/tools/man/Rd2HTML.Rd")
```

```

outfile <- tempfile(fileext = ".html")
browseURL(Rd2HTML(Rd, outfile, package = "tools",
  stages = c("install", "render")))

outfile <- tempfile(fileext = ".txt")
file.show(Rd2txt(Rd, outfile, package = "tools",
  stages = c("install", "render")))

checkRd(Rd) # A stricter test than Rd2HTML uses

## End(Not run)

```

Rd2txt_options

Set formatting options for text help

Description

This function sets various options for displaying text help.

Usage

```
Rd2txt_options(...)
```

Arguments

... A list containing named options, or options passed as individual named arguments. See below for currently defined ones.

Details

This function persistently sets various formatting options for the `Rd2txt` function which is used in displaying text format help. Currently defined options are:

width (default 80): The width of the output page.

minIndent (default 10): The minimum indent to use in a list.

extraIndent (default 4): The extra indent to use in each level of nested lists.

sectionIndent (default 5): The indent level for a section.

sectionExtra (default 2): The extra indentation for each nested section level.

itemBullet (default "`*`", with the asterisk replaced by a Unicode bullet in UTF-8 and most Windows locales): The symbol to use as a bullet in itemized lists.

enumFormat : A function to format item numbers in enumerated lists.

showURLs (default FALSE): Whether to show URLs when expanding `\href` tags.

code_quote (default TRUE): Whether to render `\code` and similar with single quotes.

underline_titles (default TRUE): Whether to render section titles with underlines (via backspacing).

Value

If called with no arguments, returns all option settings in a list. Otherwise, it changes the named settings and invisibly returns their previous values.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

See Also

[Rd2txt](#)

Examples

```
# The itemBullet is locale-specific
saveOpts <- Rd2txt_options()
saveOpts
Rd2txt_options(minIndent = 4)
Rd2txt_options()
Rd2txt_options(saveOpts)
Rd2txt_options()
```

Rdiff	<i>Difference R Output Files</i>
-------	----------------------------------

Description

Given two R output files, compute differences ignoring headers, footers and some other differences.

Usage

```
Rdiff(from, to, useDiff = FALSE, forEx = FALSE,
      nullPointers = TRUE, Log = FALSE)
```

Arguments

from, to	filepaths to be compared
useDiff	should diff always be used to compare results?
forEx	logical: extra pruning for ‘-Ex.Rout’ files to exclude the header.
nullPointers	logical: should the displayed addresses of pointers be set to 0x00000000 before comparison?
Log	logical: should the returned value include a log of differences found?

Details

The R startup banner and any timing information from R CMD BATCH are removed from both files, together with lines about loading packages. UTF-8 fancy quotes (see [sQuote](#)) and on Windows, Windows' so-called 'smart quotes', are mapped to a simple quote. Addresses of environments, compiled bytecode and other exotic types expressed as hex addresses (e.g., <environment: 0x12345678>) are mapped to 0x00000000. The files are then compared line-by-line. If there are the same number of lines and useDiff is false, a simple diff -b -like display of differences is printed (which ignores trailing spaces and differences in numbers of consecutive spaces), otherwise diff -bw is called on the edited files. (This tries to ignore all differences in whitespace: note that flag '-w' is not required by POSIX but is supported by GNU, Solaris and FreeBSD versions.)

This can compare uncompressed PDF files, ignoring differences in creation and modification dates.

Value

If Log is true, a list with components status (see below) and out, a character vector of descriptions of differences, possibly of zero length.

Otherwise, a status indicator, 0L if and only if no differences were found.

See Also

The shell script run as R CMD Rdiff.

Rdindex

Generate Index from Rd Files

Description

Print a 2-column index table with names and titles from given R documentation files to a given output file or connection. The titles are nicely formatted between two column positions (typically 25 and 72, respectively).

Usage

```
Rdindex(RdFiles, outFile = "", type = NULL,
        width = 0.9 * getOption("width"), indent = NULL)
```

Arguments

RdFiles	a character vector specifying the Rd files to be used for creating the index, either by giving the paths to the files, or the path to a single directory with the sources of a package.
outFile	a connection, or a character string naming the output file to print to. "" (the default) indicates output to the console.
type	a character string giving the documentation type of the Rd files to be included in the index, or NULL (the default). The type of an Rd file is typically specified via the \docType tag; if type is "data", Rd files whose <i>only</i> keyword is datasets are included as well.

width	a positive integer giving the target column for wrapping lines in the output.
indent	a positive integer specifying the indentation of the second column. Must not be greater than width/2, and defaults to width/3.

Details

If a name is not a valid alias, the first alias (or the empty string if there is none) is used instead.

RdTextFilter	<i>Select text in an Rd file.</i>
--------------	-----------------------------------

Description

This function blanks out all non-text in an Rd file, for spell checking or other uses.

Usage

```
RdTextFilter(ifile, encoding = "unknown", keepSpacing = TRUE,
             drop = character(), keep = character(),
             macros = file.path(R.home("share"), "Rd", "macros", "system.Rd"))
```

Arguments

ifile	An input file specified as a filename or connection, or an "Rd" object from parse_Rd .
encoding	An encoding name to pass to parse_Rd .
keepSpacing	Whether to try to leave the text in the same lines and columns as in the original file.
drop	Additional sections of the Rd to drop.
keep	Sections of the Rd file to keep.
macros	Macro definitions to assume when parsing. See parse_Rd .

Details

This function parses the Rd file, then walks through it, element by element. Items with tag "TEXT" are kept in the same position as they appeared in the original file, while other parts of the file are replaced with blanks, so a spell checker such as [aspell](#) can check only the text and report the position in the original file. (If keepSpacing is FALSE, blank filling will not occur, and text will not be output in its original location.)

By default, the tags \S3method, \S4method, \command, \docType, \email, \encoding, \file, \keyword, \link, \linkS4class, \method, \pkg, and \var are skipped. Additional tags can be skipped by listing them in the drop argument; listing tags in the keep argument will stop them from being skipped. It is also possible to keep any of the c("RCODE", "COMMENT", "VERB") tags, which correspond to R-like code, comments, and verbatim text respectively, or to drop "TEXT".

Value

A character vector which if written to a file, one element per line, would duplicate the text elements of the original Rd file.

Note

The filter attempts to merge text elements into single words when markup in the Rd file is used to highlight just the start of a word.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

See Also

[aspell](#), for which this is an acceptable filter.

Rdutils

Rd Utilities

Description

Utilities for computing on the information in Rd objects.

Usage

```
Rd_db(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>package</code>	a character string naming an installed package.
<code>dir</code>	a character string specifying the path to a package's root source directory. This should contain the subdirectory 'man' with R documentation sources (in Rd format). Only used if <code>package</code> is not given.
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. The specified library trees are used to search for package.

Details

`Rd_db` builds a simple database of all Rd objects in a package, as a list of the results of running [parse_Rd](#) on the Rd source files in the package and processing platform conditionals.

See Also

[parse_Rd](#)

Examples

```
## Build the Rd db for the (installed) base package.
db <- Rd_db("base")

## Keyword metadata per Rd object.
keywords <- lapply(db, tools:::Rd_get_metadata, "keyword")
## Tabulate the keyword entries.
kw_table <- sort(table(unlist(keywords)))
## The 5 most frequent ones:
rev(kw_table)[1 : 5]
## The "most informative" ones:
kw_table[kw_table == 1]
```

```
## Concept metadata per Rd file.
concepts <- lapply(db, tools:::Rd_get_metadata, "concept")
## How many files already have \concept metadata?
sum(sapply(concepts, length) > 0)
## How many concept entries altogether?
length(unlist(concepts))
```

read.00Index

Read 00Index-style Files

Description

Read item/description information from ‘00Index’-like files. Such files are description lists rendered in tabular form, and currently used for the ‘INDEX’ and ‘demo/00Index’ files of add-on packages.

Usage

```
read.00Index(file)
```

Arguments

file	the name of a file to read data values from. If the specified file is "", then input is taken from the keyboard (in this case input can be terminated by a blank line). Alternatively, file can be a connection , which will be opened if necessary, and if so closed at the end of the function call.
------	--

Value

A character matrix with 2 columns named "Item" and "Description" which hold the items and descriptions.

See Also

[formatDL](#) for the inverse operation of creating a 00Index-style file from items and their descriptions.

showNonASCII

Pick Out Non-ASCII Characters

Description

This function prints elements of a character vector which contain non-ASCII bytes, printing such bytes as a escape like '<fc>'.

Usage

```
showNonASCII(x)
```

```
showNonASCIIfile(file)
```

Arguments

x	a character vector.
file	path to a file.

Details

This was originally written to help detect non-portable text in files in packages.

It prints all element of x which contain non-ASCII characters, preceded by the element number and with non-ASCII bytes highlighted via `iconv(sub = "byte")`.

Value

The elements of x containing non-ASCII characters will be returned invisibly.

Examples

```
out <- c(
  "fa\xe7ile test of showNonASCII():",
  "\\details{",
  "  This is a good line",
  "  This has an \xfcmlaut in it.",
  "  OK again.",
  "}")
f <- tempfile()
cat(out, file = f, sep = "\n")

showNonASCIIfile(f)
unlink(f)
```

startDynamicHelp	<i>Start the Dynamic HTML Help System</i>
------------------	---

Description

This function starts the internal help server, so that HTML help pages are rendered when requested.

Usage

```
startDynamicHelp(start = TRUE)
```

Arguments

start	logical: whether to start or shut down the dynamic help system. If NA, the server is started if not already running.
-------	--

Details

This function starts the internal HTTP server, which runs on the loopback interface (127.0.0.1). If `options("help.ports")` is set to a vector of integer values, `startDynamicHelp` will try those ports in order; otherwise, it tries up to 10 random ports to find one not in use. It can be disabled by setting the environment variable `R_DISABLE_HTTPD` to a non-empty value.

`startDynamicHelp` is called by functions that need to use the server, so would rarely be called directly by a user.

Note that `options(help_type = "html")` must be set to actually make use of HTML help, although it might be the default for an R installation.

If the server cannot be started or is disabled, [help.start](#) will be unavailable and requests for HTML help will give text help (with a warning).

The browser in use does need to be able to connect to the loopback interface: occasionally it is set to use a proxy for HTTP on all interfaces, which will not work – the solution is to add an exception for 127.0.0.1.

Value

The chosen port number is returned invisibly (which will be 0 if the server has been stopped).

See Also

[help.start](#) and `help(help_type = "html")` will attempt to start the HTTP server if required
[Rd2HTML](#) is used to render the package help pages.

SweaveTeXFilter	<i>Strip R code out of Sweave file</i>
-----------------	--

Description

This function blanks out code chunks and Noweb markup in an Sweave input file, for spell checking or other uses.

Usage

```
SweaveTeXFilter(ifile, encoding = "unknown")
```

Arguments

<code>ifile</code>	Input file or connection.
<code>encoding</code>	Text encoding to pass to readLines .

Details

This function blanks out all Noweb markup and code chunks from an Sweave input file, leaving behind the LaTeX source, so that a LaTeX-aware spelling checker can check it and report errors in their original locations.

Value

A character vector which if written to a file, one element per line, would duplicate the text elements of the original Sweave input file.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

See Also

[aspell](#), for which this is used with `filter = "Sweave"`.

testInstalledPackage *Test Installed Packages*

Description

These functions allow an installed package to be tested, or all base and recommended packages.

Usage

```
testInstalledPackage(pkg, lib.loc = NULL, outDir = ".",
  types = c("examples", "tests", "vignettes"),
  srcdir = NULL, Ropts = "", ...)

testInstalledPackages(outDir = ".", errorsAreFatal = TRUE,
  scope = c("both", "base", "recommended"),
  types = c("examples", "tests", "vignettes"),
  srcdir = NULL, Ropts = "", ...)

testInstalledBasic(scope = c("basic", "devel", "both", "internet"))
```

Arguments

pkg	name of an installed package.
lib.loc	library path(s) in which to look for the package. See library .
outDir	the directory into which to write the output files: this should already exist.
types	type(s) of tests to be done.
errorsAreFatal	logical: should testing terminate at the first error?
srcdir	Optional directory to look for .save files.
Ropts	Additional options such as ‘-d valgrind’ to be passed to R CMD BATCH when running examples or tests.
...	additional arguments use when preparing the files to be run, e.g. commentDontrun and commentDonttest.
scope	Which set(s) should be tested? Can be abbreviated.

Details

These tests depend on having the package example files installed (which is the default). If package-specific tests are found in a ‘tests’ directory they can be tested: these are not installed by default, but will be if R CMD INSTALL --install-tests was used. Finally, the R code in any vignettes can be extracted and tested.

Package tests are run in a ‘pkg-tests’ subdirectory of ‘outDir’, and leave their output there.

testInstalledBasic runs the basic tests, if installed. This should be run with LC_COLLATE=C set: the function tries to set this by it may not work on all OSes. For non-English locales it may be

desirable to set environment variables LANGUAGE to ‘en’ and LC_TIME to ‘C’ to reduce the number of differences from reference results.

Except on Windows, if the environment variable TEST_MC_CORES is set to an integer greater than one, testInstalledPackages will run the package tests in parallel using its value as the maximum number of parallel processes.

The package-specific tests for the base and recommended packages are not normally installed, but make install-tests is provided to do so (as well as the basic tests).

Value

Invisibly 0L for success, 1L for failure.

texi2dvi

Compile LaTeX Files

Description

Run latex/pdflatex, makeindex and bibtex until all cross-references are resolved to create a dvi or a PDF file.

Usage

```
texi2dvi(file, pdf = FALSE, clean = FALSE, quiet = TRUE,
         texi2dvi = getOption("texi2dvi"),
         texinputs = NULL, index = TRUE)
```

```
texi2pdf(file, clean = FALSE, quiet = TRUE,
         texi2dvi = getOption("texi2dvi"),
         texinputs = NULL, index = TRUE)
```

Arguments

file	character string. Name of the LaTeX source file.
pdf	logical. If TRUE, a PDF file is produced instead of the default dvi file (texi2dvi command line option ‘--pdf’).
clean	logical. If TRUE, all auxiliary files created during the conversion are removed.
quiet	logical. No output unless an error occurs.
texi2dvi	character string (or NULL). Script or program used to compile a TeX file to dvi or PDF. The default (selected by "" or "texi2dvi" or NULL) is to look for a program or script named ‘texi2dvi’ on the path and otherwise emulate the script with system2 calls (which can be selected by the value "emulation"). See also ‘Details’.
texinputs	NULL or a character vector of paths to add to the LaTeX and bibtex input search paths.
index	logical: should indices be prepared?

Details

texi2pdf is a wrapper for the common case of `texi2dvi(pdf = TRUE)`.

Despite the name, this is used in **R** to compile LaTeX files, specifically those generated from vignettes and by the [Rd2pdf](#) script (used for package reference manuals). It ensures that the '`R_HOME/share/texmf`' directory is in the TEXINPUTS path, so **R** style files such as 'Sweave' and 'Rd' will be found. The TeX search path used is first the existing TEXINPUTS setting (or the current directory if unset), then elements of argument `texinputs`, then '`R_HOME/share/texmf`' and finally the default path. Analogous changes are made to BIBINPUTS and BSTINPUTS settings.

The default option for `texi2dvi` is set from environment variable `R_TEXI2DVICMD`, and the default for that is set from environment variable `TEXI2DVI` or if that is unset, from a value chosen when **R** is configured.

A shell script `texi2dvi` is part of GNU's **texinfo**. Several issues have been seen with released versions, so if yours does not work correctly try `R_TEXI2DVICMD=emulation`.

Occasionally indices contain special characters which cause indexing to fail (particularly when using the 'hyperref' LaTeX package) even on valid input. The argument `index = FALSE` is provided to allow package manuals to be made when this happens: it uses emulation.

Value

Invisible NULL. Used for the side effect of creating a dvi or PDF file in the current working directory (and maybe other files, especially if `clean = FALSE`).

Note

There are various versions of the `texi2dvi` script on Unix-alikes and quite a number of bugs have been seen, some of which this **R** wrapper works around.

One that was present with `texi2dvi` version 4.8 (as supplied by OS X) is that it will not work correctly for paths which contain spaces, nor if the absolute path to a file would contain spaces.

The three possible approaches all have their quirks. For example the Unix-alike `texi2dvi` script removes ancillary files that already exist but the other two approaches do not (and may get confused by such files).

Where supported (`texi2dvi` 5.0 and later; `texify.exe` from MiKTeX), option '`--max-iterations=20`' is used to avoid infinite retries.

The emulation mode supports `quiet = TRUE` from **R** 3.2.3 only. Currently `clean = TRUE` only cleans up in this mode if the conversion was successful—this gives users a chance to examine log files in the event of error.

All the approaches should respect the values of environment variables `LATEX`, `PDFLATEX`, `MAKEINDEX` and `BIBTEX` for the full paths to the corresponding commands.

Author(s)

Originally Achim Zeileis but largely rewritten by R-core.

toHTML	<i>Display an object in HTML.</i>
--------	-----------------------------------

Description

This generic function generates a complete HTML page from an object.

Usage

```
toHTML(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'packageIQR'
toHTML(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'news_db'
toHTML(x, ...)
```

Arguments

- x An object to display.
- ... Optional parameters for methods; the "packageIQR" and "news_db" methods pass these to [HTMLheader](#).

Value

A character vector to display the object x. The "packageIQR" method is designed to display lists in the R help system.

See Also

[HTMLheader](#)

Examples

```
cat(toHTML(demo(package = "base")), sep = "\n")
```

tools-deprecated	<i>Deprecated Objects in Package tools</i>
------------------	---

Description

The functions or variables listed here are provided for compatibility with older versions of R only, and may be defunct as soon as of the next release.

See Also

[Deprecated](#), [Defunct](#)

toRd	<i>Generic function to convert object to a fragment of Rd code.</i>
------	---

Description

Methods for this function render their associated classes as a fragment of Rd code, which can then be rendered into text, HTML, or LaTeX.

Usage

```
toRd(obj, ...)
## S3 method for class 'bibentry'
toRd(obj, style = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

obj	The object to be rendered.
style	The style to be used in converting a bibentry object.
...	Additional arguments used by methods.

Details

See [bibstyle](#) for a discussion of styles. The default style = NULL value gives the default style.

Value

Returns a character vector containing a fragment of Rd code that could be parsed and rendered. The default method converts obj to mode character, then escapes any Rd markup within it. The bibentry method converts an object of that class to markup appropriate for use in a bibliography.

toTitleCase	<i>Convert Titles to Title Case</i>
-------------	-------------------------------------

Description

Convert a character vector to title case, especially package titles.

Usage

```
toTitleCase(text)
```

Arguments

text	a character vector.
------	---------------------

Details

This is intended for English text only.

No definition of ‘title case’ is universally accepted: all agree that ‘principal’ words are capitalized and common words like ‘for’ are not, but not which words fall into each category.

Generally words in all capitals are left alone: this implementation knows about conventional mixed-case words such as ‘LaTeX’ and ‘OpenBUGS’ and a few technical terms which are not usually capitalized such as ‘jar’ and ‘xls’. However, unknown technical terms will be capitalized unless they are single words enclosed in single quotes: names of packages and libraries should be quoted in titles.

Value

A character vector of the same length as `text`, without names.

undoc

Find Undocumented Objects

Description

Finds the objects in a package which are undocumented, in the sense that they are visible to the user (or data objects or S4 classes provided by the package), but no documentation entry exists.

Usage

```
undoc(package, dir, lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>package</code>	a character string naming an installed package.
<code>dir</code>	a character string specifying the path to a package’s root source directory. This must contain the subdirectory ‘man’ with R documentation sources (in Rd format), and at least one of the ‘R’ or ‘data’ subdirectories with R code or data objects, respectively.
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. The specified library trees are used to search for package.

Details

This function is useful for package maintainers mostly. In principle, *all* user-level R objects should be documented.

The **base** package is special as it contains the primitives and these do not have definitions available at code level. We provide equivalent closures in environments `.ArgsEnv` and `.GenericArgsEnv` in the **base** package that are used for various purposes: `undoc("base")` checks that all the primitives that are not language constructs are prototyped in those environments and no others are.

Value

An object of class "undoc" which is a list of character vectors containing the names of the undocumented objects split according to documentation type.

There is a `print` method for nicely displaying the information contained in such objects.

See Also

[codoc](#), [QC](#)

Examples

```
undoc("tools")           # Undocumented objects in 'tools'
```

update_pkg_po

Prepare Translations for a Package

Description

Prepare the 'po' directory of a package and compile and install the translations.

Usage

```
update_pkg_po(pkgdir, pkg = NULL, version = NULL, copyright, bugs)
```

Arguments

<code>pkgdir</code>	The path to the package directory.
<code>pkg</code>	The package name: if <code>NULL</code> it is read from the package's 'DESCRIPTION' file.
<code>version</code>	The package version: if <code>NULL</code> it is read from the package's 'DESCRIPTION' file.
<code>copyright, bugs</code>	optional character strings for the 'Copyright' and 'Report-Msgid-Bugs-To' details in the template files.

Details

This performs a series of steps to prepare or update messages in the package.

- If the package sources do not already have a 'po' directory, one is created.
- [xgettext2pot](#) is called to create/update a file 'po/R-*pkgname*.pot' containing the translatable messages in the package.
- All existing files in directory po with names 'R-*lang*.po' are updated from 'R-*pkgname*.pot', [checkPoFile](#) is called on the updated file, and if there are no problems the file is compiled and installed under 'inst/po'.
- In a UTF-8 locale, a 'translation' 'R-en@quot.po' is created with UTF-8 directional quotes, compiled and installed under 'inst/po'.

- The remaining steps are done only if file `'po/pkgname.pot'` already exists. The `'src/*.{c,cc,cpp,m,mm}'` files in the package are examined to create a file `'po/pkgname.pot'` containing the translatable messages in the C/C++ files. If there is a `src/windows` directory, files within it are also examined.
- All existing files in directory `po` with names `'lang.po'` are updated from `'pkgname.pot'`, [checkPoFile](#) is called on the updated file, and if there are no problems the file is compiled and installed under `'inst/po'`.
- In a UTF-8 locale, a 'translation' `'en@quot.po'` is created with UTF-8 directional quotes, compiled and installed under `'inst/po'`.

Note that C/C++ messages are not automatically prepared for translation as they need to be explicitly marked for translation in the source files. Once that has been done, create an empty file `'po/pkgname.pot'` in the package sources and run this function again.

`pkg = "base"` is special (and for use by R developers only): the C files are not in the package directory but in the main sources.

System requirements

This function requires the following tools from the GNU `gettext-tools`: `xgettext`, `msgmerge`, `msgfmt`, `msginit` and `msgconv`. These are part of most Linux distributions and easily compiled from the sources on Unix-alikes (including OS X). Pre-compiled versions for Windows are available in <https://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/pub/Rtools/goodies/gettext-tools.zip>.

It will probably not work correctly for `en@quot` translations except in a UTF-8 locale, so these are skipped elsewhere.

See Also

[xgettext2pot](#).

vignetteDepends

Retrieve Dependency Information for a Vignette

Description

Given a vignette name, will create a `DependsList` object that reports information about the packages the vignette depends on.

Usage

```
vignetteDepends(vignette, recursive = TRUE, reduce = TRUE,
                 local = TRUE, lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

vignette	The path to the vignette source
recursive	Whether or not to include indirect dependencies
reduce	Whether or not to collapse all sets of dependencies to a minimal value
local	Whether or not to search only locally
lib.loc	What libraries to search in locally

Details

If recursive is TRUE, any package that is specified as a dependency will in turn have its dependencies included (and so on), these are known as indirect dependencies. If recursive is FALSE, only the dependencies directly named by the vignette will be used.

If local is TRUE, the system will only look at the user's local machine and not online to find dependencies.

If reduce is TRUE, the system will collapse the fields in the DependsList object such that a minimal set of dependencies are specified (for instance if there was 'foo, foo (>= 1.0.0), foo (>= 1.3.0)', it would only return 'foo (>= 1.3.0)').

Value

An object of class "DependsList".

Author(s)

Jeff Gentry

See Also

[pkgDepends](#)

Examples

```
## This may not be installed, as it requires lattice
gridEx <- system.file("doc", "grid.Rnw", package = "grid")
vignetteDepends(gridEx)
```

vignetteEngine

Set or Get a Vignette Processing Engine

Description

Vignettes are normally processed by [Sweave](#), but package writers may choose to use a different engine (e.g., one provided by the [knitr](#), [noweb](#) or [R.rsp](#) packages). This function is used by those packages to register their engines, and internally by R to retrieve them.

Usage

```
vignetteEngine(name, weave, tangle, pattern = NULL,
               package = NULL, aspell = list())
```

Arguments

name	the name of the engine.
weave	a function to convert vignette source files to LaTeX output.
tangle	a function to convert vignette source files to R code.
pattern	a regular expression pattern for the filenames handled by this engine, or NULL for the default pattern.
package	the package registering the engine. By default, this is the package calling vignetteEngine.
aspell	a list with element names filter and/or control giving the respective arguments to be used when spell checking the text in the vignette source file with aspell .

Details

If weave is missing, vignetteEngine will return the currently registered engine matching name and package.

If weave is NULL, the specified engine will be deleted.

Other settings define a new engine. The weave and tangle functions must be defined with argument lists compatible with function(file, ...). Currently the ... arguments may include logical argument quiet and character argument encoding; others may be added in future. These are described in the documentation for [Sweave](#) and [Stangle](#).

The weave and tangle functions should return the filename of the output file that has been produced. Currently the weave function, when operating on a file named '<name> <pattern>' must produce a file named '<name>[.](tex|pdf|html)'. The '.tex' files will be processed by pdf_latex to produce '.pdf' output for display to the user; the others will be displayed as produced. The tangle function must produce a file named '<name>[.][rRsS]' containing the executable R code from the vignette. The tangle function may support a split = TRUE argument, and then it should produce files named '<name>.*[.][rRsS]'.

The pattern argument gives a regular expression to match the extensions of files which are to be processed as vignette input files. If set to NULL, the default pattern "[.][RrSs](nw|tex)\$" is used.

Value

If the engine is being deleted, NULL. Otherwise a list containing components

name	The name of the engine
package	The name of its package
pattern	The pattern for vignette input files
weave	The weave function
tangle	The tangle function

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch and Henrik Bengtsson.

See Also

[Sweave](#) and the ‘Writing R Extensions’ manual.

Examples

```
str(vignetteEngine("Sweave"))
```

write_PACKAGES	<i>Generate PACKAGES files</i>
----------------	--------------------------------

Description

Generate ‘PACKAGES’ and ‘PACKAGES.gz’ files for a repository of source or Mac/Windows binary packages.

Usage

```
write_PACKAGES(dir = ".", fields = NULL,
               type = c("source", "mac.binary", "win.binary"),
               verbose = FALSE, unpacked = FALSE, subdirs = FALSE,
               latestOnly = TRUE, addFiles = FALSE)
```

Arguments

dir	Character vector describing the location of the repository (directory including source or binary packages) to generate the ‘PACKAGES’ and ‘PACKAGES.gz’ files from and write them to.
fields	a character vector giving the fields to be used in the ‘PACKAGES’ and ‘PACKAGES.gz’ files in addition to the default ones, or NULL (default). The default corresponds to the fields needed by available.packages : "Package", "Version", "Priority", "Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo", "Suggests", "Enhances", "OS_type", "License" and "Archs", and those fields will always be included, plus the file name in field "File" if addFile = TRUE and the path to the subdirectory in field "Path" if subdirectories are used.
type	Type of packages: currently source ‘.tar.{gz,bz2,xz}’ archives, and OS X or Windows binary (‘.tgz’ or ‘.zip’, respectively) packages are supported. Defaults to "win.binary" on Windows and to "source" otherwise.
verbose	logical. Should packages be listed as they are processed?
unpacked	a logical indicating whether the package contents are available in unpacked form or not (default).
subdirs	either logical (to indicate if subdirectories should be included, recursively) or a character vector of name of subdirectories to include.

latestOnly	logical: if multiple versions of a package are available should only the latest version be included?
addFiles	logical: should the filenames be included as field 'File' in the 'PACKAGES' file.

Details

write_PACKAGES scans the named directory for R packages, extracts information from each package's 'DESCRIPTION' file, and writes this information into the 'PACKAGES' and 'PACKAGES.gz' files.

Including non-latest versions of packages is only useful if they have less constraining version requirements, so for example latestOnly = FALSE could be used for a source repository when 'foo_1.0' depends on 'R >= 2.15.0' but 'foo_0.9' is available which depends on 'R >= 2.11.0'.

Support for repositories with subdirectories and hence for subdirs != FALSE depends on recording a "Path" field in the 'PACKAGES' file.

Support for more general file names (e.g., other types of compression) *via* a "File" field in the 'PACKAGES' file can be used by [download.packages](#). If the file names are not of the standard form, use addFiles = TRUE.

type = "win.binary" uses [unz](#) connections to read all 'DESCRIPTION' files contained in the (zipped) binary packages for Windows in the given directory dir, and builds files 'PACKAGES' and 'PACKAGES.gz' files from this information.

Value

Invisibly returns the number of packages described in the resulting 'PACKAGES' and 'PACKAGES.gz' files. If 0, no packages were found and no files were written.

Note

Processing '.tar.gz' archives to extract the 'DESCRIPTION' files is quite slow.

This function can be useful on other OSes to prepare a repository to be accessed by Windows machines, so type = "win.binary" should work on all OSes.

Author(s)

Uwe Ligges and R-core.

See Also

See [read.dcf](#) and [write.dcf](#) for reading 'DESCRIPTION' files and writing the 'PACKAGES' and 'PACKAGES.gz' files.

Examples

```
## Not run:
write_PACKAGES("c:/myFolder/myRepository") # on Windows
write_PACKAGES("/pub/RWin/bin/windows/contrib/2.9",
               type = "win.binary") # on Linux

## End(Not run)
```

xgettext

Extract Translatable Messages from R Files in a Package

Description

For each file in the ‘R’ directory (including system-specific subdirectories) of a package, extract the unique arguments passed to [stop](#), [warning](#), [message](#), [gettext](#) and [gettextf](#), or to [ngettext](#).

Usage

```
xgettext(dir, verbose = FALSE, asCall = TRUE)
```

```
xngettext(dir, verbose = FALSE)
```

```
xgettext2pot(dir, potFile, name = "R", version, bugs)
```

Arguments

dir	the directory of a source package.
verbose	logical: should each file be listed as it is processed?
asCall	logical: if TRUE each argument is returned whole, otherwise the strings within each argument are extracted.
potFile	name of po template file to be produced. Defaults to ‘R- <i>pkgname</i> .pot’ where <i>pkgname</i> is the basename of ‘dir’.
name, version, bugs	as recorded in the template file: version defaults the version number of the currently running R, and bugs to “bugs.r-project.org”.

Details

Leading and trailing white space (space, tab and linefeed) is removed for calls to `gettext`, `gettextf`, `stop`, `warning`, and `message`, as it is by the internal code that passes strings for translation.

We look to see if these functions were called with `domain = NA` and if so omit the call if `asCall = TRUE`: note that the call might contain a call to `gettext` which would be visible if `asCall = FALSE`.

`xgettext2pot` calls `xgettext` and then `xngettext`, and writes a PO template file for use with the **GNU Gettext** tools. This ensures that the strings for simple translation are unique in the file (as **GNU Gettext** requires), but does not do so for `ngettext` calls (and the rules are not stated in the Gettext manual, but `msgfmt` complains if there is duplication between the sets.).

If applied to the **base** package, this also looks in the ‘.R’ files in ‘[R_HOME](#)/share/R’.

Value

For `xgettext`, a list of objects of class `"xgettext"` (which has a `print` method), one per source file that potentially contains translatable strings.

For `xngettext`, a list of objects of class `"xngettext"`, which are themselves lists of length-2 character strings.

See Also

[update_pkg_po\(\)](#) which calls `xgettext2pot()`.

Examples

```
## Not run: ## in a source-directory build of R:  
xgettext(file.path(R.home(), "src", "library", "splines"))  
  
## End(Not run)
```

Chapter 14

The utils package

utils-package

The R Utils Package

Description

R utility functions

Details

This package contains a collection of utility functions.

For a complete list, use `library(help = "utils")`.

Author(s)

R Core Team and contributors worldwide

Maintainer: R Core Team <R-core@r-project.org>

adist

Approximate String Distances

Description

Compute the approximate string distance between character vectors. The distance is a generalized Levenshtein (edit) distance, giving the minimal possibly weighted number of insertions, deletions and substitutions needed to transform one string into another.

Usage

```
adist(x, y = NULL, costs = NULL, counts = FALSE, fixed = TRUE,  
      partial = !fixed, ignore.case = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a character vector. Long vectors are not supported.
<code>y</code>	a character vector, or NULL (default) indicating taking <code>x</code> as <code>y</code> .
<code>costs</code>	a numeric vector or list with names partially matching ‘insertions’, ‘deletions’ and ‘substitutions’ giving the respective costs for computing the Levenshtein distance, or NULL (default) indicating using unit cost for all three possible transformations.
<code>counts</code>	a logical indicating whether to optionally return the transformation counts (numbers of insertions, deletions and substitutions) as the “counts” attribute of the return value.
<code>fixed</code>	a logical. If TRUE (default), the <code>x</code> elements are used as string literals. Otherwise, they are taken as regular expressions and <code>partial = TRUE</code> is implied (corresponding to the approximate string distance used by agrep with <code>fixed = FALSE</code>).
<code>partial</code>	a logical indicating whether the transformed <code>x</code> elements must exactly match the complete <code>y</code> elements, or only substrings of these. The latter corresponds to the approximate string distance used by agrep (by default).
<code>ignore.case</code>	a logical. If TRUE, case is ignored for computing the distances.
<code>useBytes</code>	a logical. If TRUE distance computations are done byte-by-byte rather than character-by-character.

Details

The (generalized) Levenshtein (or edit) distance between two strings s and t is the minimal possibly weighted number of insertions, deletions and substitutions needed to transform s into t (so that the transformation exactly matches t). This distance is computed for `partial = FALSE`, currently using a dynamic programming algorithm (see, e.g., https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Levenshtein_distance) with space and time complexity $O(mn)$, where m and n are the lengths of s and t , respectively. Additionally computing the transformation sequence and counts is $O(\max(m, n))$.

The generalized Levenshtein distance can also be used for approximate (fuzzy) string matching, in which case one finds the substring of t with minimal distance to the pattern s (which could be taken as a regular expression, in which case the principle of using the leftmost and longest match applies), see, e.g., https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Approximate_string_matching. This distance is computed for `partial = TRUE` using ‘tre’ by Ville Laurikari (<http://laurikari.net/tre/>) and corresponds to the distance used by [agrep](#). In this case, the given cost values are coerced to integer.

Note that the costs for insertions and deletions can be different, in which case the distance between s and t can be different from the distance between t and s .

Value

A matrix with the approximate string distances of the elements of `x` and `y`, with rows and columns corresponding to `x` and `y`, respectively.

If `counts` is TRUE, the transformation counts are returned as the “counts” attribute of this matrix, as a 3-dimensional array with dimensions corresponding to the elements of `x`, the elements of `y`, and the type of transformation (insertions, deletions and substitutions), respectively. Additionally, if `partial = FALSE`, the transformation sequences are returned as the “trafos” attribute of the

return value, as character strings with elements 'M', 'I', 'D' and 'S' indicating a match, insertion, deletion and substitution, respectively. If `partial = TRUE`, the offsets (positions of the first and last element) of the matched substrings are returned as the "offsets" attribute of the return value (with both offsets `-1` in case of no match).

See Also

[agrep](#) for approximate string matching (fuzzy matching) using the generalized Levenshtein distance.

Examples

```
## Cf. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Levenshtein_distance
adist("kitten", "sitting")
## To see the transformation counts for the Levenshtein distance:
drop(attr(adist("kitten", "sitting", counts = TRUE), "counts"))
## To see the transformation sequences:
attr(adist(c("kitten", "sitting"), counts = TRUE), "trafos")

## Cf. the examples for agrep:
adist("lasy", "1 lazy 2")
## For a "partial approximate match" (as used for agrep):
adist("lasy", "1 lazy 2", partial = TRUE)
```

alarm

Alert the User

Description

Gives an audible or visual signal to the user.

Usage

```
alarm()
```

Details

`alarm()` works by sending a `"\a"` character to the console. On most platforms this will ring a bell, beep, or give some other signal to the user (unless standard output has been redirected).

It attempts to flush the console (see [flush.console](#)).

Value

No useful value is returned.

Examples

```
alarm()
```

apropos

Find Objects by (Partial) Name

Description

`apropos()` returns a character vector giving the names of all objects in the search list matching `what`.

`find()` is a different user interface to the same task.

Usage

```
apropos(what, where = FALSE, ignore.case = TRUE, mode = "any")
```

```
find(what, mode = "any", numeric = FALSE, simple.words = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>what</code>	character string with name of an object, or more generally a regular expression to match against.
<code>where, numeric</code>	a logical indicating whether positions in the search list should also be returned
<code>ignore.case</code>	logical indicating if the search should be case-insensitive, TRUE by default. Note that in R versions prior to 2.5.0, the default was implicitly <code>ignore.case = FALSE</code> .
<code>mode</code>	character; if not "any", only objects whose mode equals <code>mode</code> are searched.
<code>simple.words</code>	logical; if TRUE, the <code>what</code> argument is only searched as whole word.

Details

If `mode != "any"` only those objects which are of mode `mode` are considered. If `where` is TRUE, the positions in the search list are returned as the `names` attribute.

`find` is a different user interface for the same task as `apropos`. However, by default (`simple.words == TRUE`), only full words are searched with [grep](#)(`fixed = TRUE`).

Value

For `apropos` character vector, sorted by name, possibly with names giving the (numerical) positions on the search path.

For `find`, either a character vector of environment names, or for `numeric = TRUE`, a numerical vector of positions on the search path, with names giving the names of the corresponding environments.

Author(s)

Kurt Hornik and Martin Maechler (May 1997).

See Also

[glob2rx](#) to convert wildcard patterns to regular expressions.

[objects](#) for listing objects from one place, [help.search](#) for searching the help system, [search](#) for the search path.

Examples

```
require(stats)

## Not run: apropos("lm")
apropos("GLM")           # more than a dozen
## that may include internal objects starting '.__C__' if
## methods is attached
apropos("GLM", ignore.case = FALSE) # not one
apropos("lq")

cor <- 1:pi
find("cor")              #> ".GlobalEnv"   "package:stats"
find("cor", numeric = TRUE)      # numbers with these names
find("cor", numeric = TRUE, mode = "function") # only the second one
rm(cor)

## Not run: apropos(".", mode="list") # a long list

# need a DOUBLE backslash '\\' (in case you don't see it anymore)
apropos("\\[")

# everything % not diff-able
length(apropos("."))

# those starting with 'pr'
apropos("^pr")

# the 1-letter things
apropos("^[.]")
# the 1-2-letter things
apropos("^[.]?")
# the 2-to-4 letter things
apropos("^[.]{2,4}$")

# the 8-and-more letter things
apropos("^[.]{8,}$")
table(nchar(apropos("^[.]{8,}$")))
```

Description

Determine positions of approximate string matches.

Usage

```
aregexec(pattern, text, max.distance = 0.1, costs = NULL,
          ignore.case = FALSE, fixed = FALSE, useBytes = FALSE)
```

Arguments

pattern	a non-empty character string or a character string containing a regular expression (for <code>fixed = FALSE</code>) to be matched. Coerced by as.character to a string if possible.
text	character vector where matches are sought. Coerced by as.character to a character vector if possible.
max.distance	maximum distance allowed for a match. See agrep .
costs	cost of transformations. See agrep .
ignore.case	a logical. If TRUE, case is ignored for computing the distances.
fixed	If TRUE, the pattern is matched literally (as is). Otherwise (default), it is matched as a regular expression.
useBytes	a logical. If TRUE comparisons are byte-by-byte rather than character-by-character.

Details

`aregexec` provides a different interface to approximate string matching than [agrep](#) (along the lines of the interfaces to exact string matching provided by [regexec](#) and [grep](#)).

Note that by default, [agrep](#) performs literal matches, whereas `aregexec` performs regular expression matches.

See [agrep](#) and [adist](#) for more information about approximate string matching and distances.

Comparisons are byte-by-byte if pattern or any element of text is marked as "bytes".

Value

A list of the same length as `text`, each element of which is either `-1` if there is no match, or a sequence of integers with the starting positions of the match and all substrings corresponding to parenthesized subexpressions of pattern, with attribute `"match.length"` an integer vector giving the lengths of the matches (or `-1` for no match).

See Also

[regmatches](#) for extracting the matched substrings.

Examples

```
## Cf. the examples for agrep.
x <- c("1 lazy", "1", "1 LAZY")
aregexec("laysy", x, max.distance = 2)
aregexec("(lay)(sy)", x, max.distance = 2)
aregexec("(lay)(sy)", x, max.distance = 2, ignore.case = TRUE)
m <- aregexec("(lay)(sy)", x, max.distance = 2)
regmatches(x, m)
```

aspell

Spell Check Interface

Description

Spell check given files via Aspell, Hunspell or Ispell.

Usage

```
aspell(files, filter, control = list(), encoding = "unknown",
       program = NULL, dictionaries = character())
```

Arguments

files	a character vector with the names of files to be checked.
filter	an optional filter for processing the files before spell checking, given as either a function (with formals ifile and encoding), or a character string specifying a built-in filter, or a list with the name of a built-in filter and additional arguments to be passed to it. See Details for available filters. If missing or NULL, no filtering is performed.
control	a list or character vector of control options for the spell checker.
encoding	the encoding of the files. Recycled as needed.
program	a character string giving the name (if on the system path) or full path of the spell check program to be used, or NULL (default). By default, the system path is searched for aspell, hunspell and ispell (in that order), and the first one found is used.
dictionaries	a character vector of names or file paths of additional R level dictionaries to use. Elements with no path separator specify R system dictionaries (in subdirectory 'share/dictionaries' of the R home directory). The file extension (currently, only '.rds') can be omitted.

Details

The spell check programs employed must support the so-called Ispell pipe interface activated via command line option '-a'. In addition to the programs, suitable dictionaries need to be available. See <http://aspell.net>, <http://hunspell.sourceforge.net/> and <http://lasr.cs>.

ucla.edu/geoff/ispell.html, respectively, for obtaining the Aspell, Hunspell and (International) Ispell programs and dictionaries.

The currently available built-in filters are "Rd" (corresponding to `RdTextFilter`), "Sweave" (corresponding to `SweaveTeXFilter`), "R", "pot" and "dcf".

Filter "R" is for R code and extracts the message string constants in calls to `message`, `warning`, `stop`, `packageStartupMessage`, `gettext`, `gettextf`, and `ngettext` (the unnamed string constants for the first five, and `fmt` and `msg1/msg2` string constants, respectively, for the latter two). Filter "pot" is for message string catalog '.pot' files. Both have an argument `ignore` allowing to give regular expressions for parts of message strings to be ignored for spell checking: e.g., using `"[\\t]'[^']*'[\\t[:punct:]]"` ignores all text inside single quotes.

Filter "dcf" is for files in Debian Control File format. The fields to keep can be controlled by argument `keep` (a character vector with the respective field names). By default, 'Title' and 'Description' fields are kept.

The print method for the objects returned by `aspell` has an `indent` argument controlling the indentation of the positions of possibly mis-spelled words. The default is 2; Emacs users may find it useful to use an indentation of 0 and visit output in `grep-mode`. It also has a `verbose` argument: when this is true, suggestions for replacements are shown as well.

It is possible to employ additional R level dictionaries. Currently, these are files with extension '.rds' obtained by serializing character vectors of word lists using `saveRDS`. If such dictionaries are employed, they are combined into a single word list file which is then used as the spell checker's personal dictionary (option '-p'): hence, the default personal dictionary is not used in this case.

Value

A data frame inheriting from `aspell` (which has a useful print method) with the information about possibly mis-spelled words.

References

Kurt Hornik and Duncan Murdoch (2011), Watch your spelling! *The R Journal* 3(2), 22–28. http://journal.r-project.org/archive/2011-2/RJournal_2011-2_Hornik+Murdoch.pdf.

See Also

[aspell-utils](#) for utilities for spell checking packages.

Package **Aspell** on Omegahat (<http://www.omegahat.net/Aspell>) for a fine-grained R interface to the Aspell library.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## To check all Rd files in a directory, (additionally) skipping the
## \references sections.
files <- Sys.glob("*.Rd")
aspell(files, filter = list("Rd", drop = "\\references"))

## To check all Sweave files
files <- Sys.glob(c("*.Rnw", "*.Snw", "*.rnw", "*.snw"))
```

```

aspell(files, filter = "Sweave", control = "-t")

## To check all Texinfo files (Aspell only)
files <- Sys.glob("*.texi")
aspell(files, control = "--mode=texinfo")

## End(Not run)

## List the available R system dictionaries.
Sys.glob(file.path(R.home("share"), "dictionaries", "*.rds"))

```

aspell-utils

Spell Check Utilities

Description

Utilities for spell checking packages via Aspell, Hunspell or Ispell.

Usage

```

aspell_package_Rd_files(dir, drop = c("\\author", "\\references"),
                        control = list(), program = NULL,
                        dictionaries = character())
aspell_package_vignettes(dir,
                        control = list(), program = NULL,
                        dictionaries = character())
aspell_package_R_files(dir, ignore = character(), control = list(),
                      program = NULL, dictionaries = character())
aspell_package_C_files(dir, ignore = character(), control = list(),
                      program = NULL, dictionaries = character())

aspell_write_personal_dictionary_file(x, out, language = "en",
                                     program = NULL)

```

Arguments

dir	a character string specifying the path to a package's root directory.
drop	a character vector naming additional Rd sections to drop when selecting text via RdTextFilter .
control	a list or character vector of control options for the spell checker.
program	a character string giving the name (if on the system path) or full path of the spell check program to be used, or NULL (default). By default, the system path is searched for aspell, hunspell and ispell (in that order), and the first one found is used.
dictionaries	a character vector of names or file paths of additional R level dictionaries to use. See aspell .

ignore	a character vector with regular expressions to be replaced by blanks when filtering the message strings.
x	a character vector, or the result of a call to aspell() .
out	a character string naming the personal dictionary file to write to.
language	a character string indicating a language as used by Aspell.

Details

Functions `aspell_package_Rd_files`, `aspell_package_vignettes`, `aspell_package_R_files` and `aspell_package_C_files` perform spell checking on the Rd files, vignettes, R files, and C-level messages of the package with root directory `dir`. They determine the respective files, apply the appropriate filters, and run the spell checker.

See [aspell](#) for details on filters.

The C-level message string are obtained from the `'po/PACKAGE.pot'` message catalog file, with `PACKAGE` the basename of `dir`. See the section on “C-level messages” in “Writing R Extensions” for more information.

When using Aspell, the vignette checking skips parameters and/or options of commands `\Sexpr`, `\citep`, `\code`, `\pkg`, `\proglang` and `\samp`. Further commands can be skipped by adding `--add-tex-command` options to the control argument. E.g., to skip both option and parameter of `\mycmd`, add `--add-tex-command='mycmd op'`.

Suitable values for control, program, dictionaries, drop and ignore can also be specified using a package defaults file which should go as `'defaults.R'` into the `'.aspell'` subdirectory of `dir`, and provides defaults via assignments of suitable named lists, e.g.,

```
vignettes <- list(control = "--add-tex-command='mycmd op'")
```

for vignettes (when using Aspell) and similarly assigning to `Rd_files`, `R_files` and `C_files` for Rd files, R files and C level message defaults.

Maintainers of packages using both English and American spelling will find it convenient to pass control options `'--master=en_US'` and `'--add-extra-dicts=en_GB'` to Aspell and control options `'-d en_US,en_GB'` to Hunspell (provided that the corresponding dictionaries are installed).

Older versions of R had no support for R level dictionaries, and hence provided the function `aspell_write_personal_dictionary_file` to create (spell check) program-specific personal dictionary files from words to be accepted. The new mechanism is to use R level dictionaries, i.e., `'.rds'` files obtained by serializing character vectors of such words using [saveRDS](#). For such dictionaries specified via the package defaults mechanism, elements with no path separator can be R system dictionaries or dictionaries in the `'.aspell'` subdirectory.

See Also

[aspell](#)

available.packages	<i>List Available Packages at CRAN-like Repositories</i>
--------------------	--

Description

`available.packages` returns a matrix of details corresponding to packages currently available at one or more repositories. The current list of packages is downloaded over the internet (or copied from a local mirror).

Usage

```
available.packages(contriburl =
  contrib.url(getOption("repos"), type),
  method, fields = NULL,
  type = getOption("pkgType"),
  filters = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>contriburl</code>	URL(s) of the ‘contrib’ sections of the repositories. Specify this argument only if your repository mirror is incomplete, e.g., because you burned only the ‘contrib’ section on a CD.
<code>method</code>	download method, see download.file .
<code>type</code>	character string, indicate which type of packages: see install.packages . If <code>type = "both"</code> this will use the source repository.
<code>fields</code>	a character vector giving the fields to extract from the ‘PACKAGES’ file(s) in addition to the default ones, or NULL (default). Unavailable fields result in NA values.
<code>filters</code>	a character vector or list or NULL (default). See ‘Details’.

Details

The list of packages is either copied from a local mirror (specified by a ‘file://’ URI) or downloaded. If downloaded, the list is cached for the R session in a per-repository file in `tempdir()` with a name like

```
repos_http%3a%2f%2fcran.r-project.org%2fsrc%2fcontrib.rds
```

By default, the return value includes only packages whose version and OS requirements are met by the running version of R, and only gives information on the latest versions of packages.

Argument `filters` can be used to select which of the packages on the repositories are reported. It is called with its default value (NULL) by functions such as `install.packages`: this value corresponds to `getOption("available_packages_filters")` and to `c("R_version", "OS_type", "subarch", "duplicates")` if that is unset or set to NULL.

The built-in filters are

"R_version" Exclude packages whose R version requirements are not met.

"OS_type" Exclude packages whose OS requirement is incompatible with this version of R: that is exclude Windows-only packages on a Unix-alike platform and *vice versa*.

"subarch" For binary packages, exclude those with compiled code that is not available for the current sub-architecture, e.g. exclude packages only compiled for 32-bit Windows on a 64-bit Windows R.

"duplicates" Only report the latest version where more than one version is available, and only report the first-named repository (in `contrib.url`) with the latest version if that is in more than one repository.

"license/FOSS" Include only packages for which installation can proceed solely based on packages which can be verified as Free or Open Source Software (FOSS, e.g., <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/FOSS>) employing the available license specifications. Thus both the package and any packages that it depends on to load need to be *known to be* FOSS.

Note that this does depend on the repository supplying license information.

"license/restricts_use" Include only packages for which installation can proceed solely based on packages which are known not to restrict use.

"CRAN" Use CRAN versions in preference to versions from other repositories (even if these have a higher version number). This needs to be applied *before* the default "duplicates" filter, so cannot be used with `add = TRUE`.

If all the filters are from this set, then they can be specified as a character vector; otherwise filters should be a list with elements which are character strings, user-defined functions or `add = TRUE` (see below).

User-defined filters are functions which take a single argument, a matrix of the form returned by `available.packages`, and return a matrix consisting of a subset of the rows of the argument.

The special 'filter' `add = TRUE` appends the other elements of the filter list to the default filters.

Value

A matrix with one row per package, row names the package names and column names including "Package", "Version", "Priority", "Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo", "Suggests", "Enhances", "File" and "Repository". Additional columns can be specified using the `fields` argument.

Where provided by the repository, fields "OS_type", "License", "License_is_FOSS", "License_restricts_use", "Archs", "MD5sum" and "NeedsCompilation" are reported for use by the filters and package management tools, including [install.packages](#).

See Also

[install.packages](#), [download.packages](#), [contrib.url](#).

The 'R Installation and Administration' manual for how to set up a repository.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Restrict install.packages() (etc) to known-to-be-FOSS packages
options(available_packages_filters =
  c("R_version", "OS_type", "subarch", "duplicates", "license/FOSS"))
```

```
## or
options(available_packages_filters = list(add = TRUE, "license/FOSS"))

## Give priority to released versions on CRAN, rather than development
## versions on Omegahat, R-Forge etc.
options(available_packages_filters =
  c("R_version", "OS_type", "subarch", "CRAN", "duplicates"))

## End(Not run)
```

BATCH

Batch Execution of R

Description

Run R non-interactively with input from infile and send output (stdout/stderr) to another file.

Usage

R CMD BATCH [options] infile [outfile]

Arguments

infile	the name of a file with R code to be executed.
options	a list of R command line options, e.g., for setting the amount of memory available and controlling the load/save process. If infile starts with a '-', use '--' as the final option. The default options are '--restore --save --no-readline'. (Without '--no-readline' on Windows.)
outfile	the name of a file to which to write output. If not given, the name used is that of infile, with a possible '.R' extension stripped, and '.Rout' appended.

Details

Use R CMD BATCH --help to be reminded of the usage.

By default, the input commands are printed along with the output. To suppress this behavior, add options(echo = FALSE) at the beginning of infile, or use option '--slave'.

The infile can have end of line marked by LF or CRLF (but not just CR), and files with an incomplete last line (missing end of line (EOL) mark) are processed correctly.

A final expression 'proc.time()' will be executed after the input script unless the latter calls q(runLast = FALSE) or is aborted. This can be suppressed by the option '--no-timing'.

Additional options can be set by the environment variable R_BATCH_OPTIONS: these come after the default options (see the description of the options argument) and before any options given on the command line.

Note

Unlike `Splus BATCH` on a Unix-alike, this does not run the `R` process in the background. In most shells,

```
R CMD BATCH [options] infile [outfile] &
```

will do so.

 bibentry

Bibliography Entries

Description

Functionality for representing and manipulating bibliographic information in enhanced BibTeX style.

Usage

```
bibentry(bibtype, textVersion = NULL, header = NULL, footer = NULL,
         key = NULL, ..., other = list(),
         mheader = NULL, mfooter = NULL)
## S3 method for class 'bibentry'
print(x, style = "text", .bibstyle, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>bibtype</code>	a character string with a BibTeX entry type. See Entry Types for details.
<code>textVersion</code>	a character string with a text representation of the reference to optionally be employed for printing.
<code>header</code>	a character string with optional header text.
<code>footer</code>	a character string with optional footer text.
<code>key</code>	a character string giving the citation key for the entry.
<code>...</code>	for <code>bibentry</code> : arguments of the form <i>tag=value</i> giving the fields of the entry, with <i>tag</i> and <i>value</i> the name and value of the field, respectively. Arguments with empty values are dropped. See Entry Fields for details. For the print method, extra parameters to pass to the renderer.
<code>other</code>	a list of arguments as in <code>...</code> (useful in particular for fields named the same as <code>formals</code> of <code>bibentry</code>).
<code>mheader</code>	a character string with optional “outer” header text.
<code>mfooter</code>	a character string with optional “outer” footer text.
<code>x</code>	an object inheriting from class “ <code>bibentry</code> ”.
<code>style</code>	an optional character string specifying the print style. If present, must be a unique abbreviation (with case ignored) of the available styles, see Details .
<code>.bibstyle</code>	a character string naming a bibliography style.

Details

The bibentry objects created by bibentry can represent an arbitrary positive number of references. One can use `c()` to combine bibentry objects, and hence in particular build a multiple reference object from single reference ones. Alternatively, one can use bibentry to directly create a multiple reference object by “vectorizing” the given arguments, i.e., use character vectors instead of character strings.

The `print` method for bibentry objects provides a choice between seven different styles: plain text (style “text”), BibTeX (“Bibtex”), a mixture of plain text and BibTeX as traditionally used for citations (“citation”), HTML (“html”), LaTeX (“latex”), R code (“R”), and a simple copy of the textVersion elements (style “textVersion”). The “text”, “html” and “latex” styles make use of the `.bibstyle` argument using the `bibstyle` function. When printing bibentry objects in citation style, a header/footer for each item can be displayed as well as a mheader/mfooter for the whole vector of references.

The `print` method is based on a `format` method which provides the same styles, and for formatting as R code a choice between giving a character vector with one bibentry() call for each bibentry (as commonly used in ‘CITATION’ files), or a character string with one collapsed call, obtained by combining the individual calls with `c()` if there is more than one bibentry. This can be controlled by setting the option `collapse` to FALSE (default) or TRUE, respectively. (Printing in R style always collapses to a single call.) Further, for the “citation” style, `format()`’s optional argument `citation.bibtex.max` (with default `getOption("citation.bibtex.max")` which defaults to 1) determines for up to how many citation bibentries text style is shown together with with bibtex, automatically.

It is possible to subscript bibentry objects by their keys (which are used for character subscripts if the names are NULL).

There is also a `toBibtex` method for direct conversion to BibTeX.

Value

bibentry produces an object of class “bibentry”.

Entry Types

bibentry creates “bibentry” objects, which are modeled after BibTeX entries. The entry should be a valid BibTeX entry type, e.g.,

Article: An article from a journal or magazine.

Book: A book with an explicit publisher.

InBook: A part of a book, which may be a chapter (or section or whatever) and/or a range of pages.

InCollection: A part of a book having its own title.

InProceedings: An article in a conference proceedings.

Manual: Technical documentation like a software manual.

MastersThesis: A Master’s thesis.

Misc: Use this type when nothing else fits.

PhdThesis: A PhD thesis.

Proceedings: The proceedings of a conference.

TechReport: A report published by a school or other institution, usually numbered within a series.

Unpublished: A document having an author and title, but not formally published.

Entry Fields

The ... argument of `bibentry` can be any number of BibTeX fields, including

address: The address of the publisher or other type of institution.

author: The name(s) of the author(s), either as a character string in the format described in the LaTeX book, or a `person` object.

booktitle: Title of a book, part of which is being cited.

chapter: A chapter (or section or whatever) number.

doi: The DOI (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Digital_Object_Identifier) for the reference.

editor: Name(s) of editor(s), same format as author.

institution: The publishing institution of a technical report.

journal: A journal name.

note: Any additional information that can help the reader. The first word should be capitalized.

number: The number of a journal, magazine, technical report, or of a work in a series.

pages: One or more page numbers or range of numbers.

publisher: The publisher's name.

school: The name of the school where a thesis was written.

series: The name of a series or set of books.

title: The work's title.

url: A URL for the reference. (If the URL is an expanded DOI, we recommend to use the 'doi' field with the unexpanded DOI instead.)

volume: The volume of a journal or multi-volume book.

year: The year of publication.

See Also

`person`

Examples

```
## R reference
rref <- bibentry(
  bibtype = "Manual",
  title = "R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing",
  author = person("R Core Team"),
  organization = "R Foundation for Statistical Computing",
  address = "Vienna, Austria",
  year = 2014,
  url = "https://www.R-project.org/")
```

```

## Different printing styles
print(rref)
print(rref, style = "Bibtex")
print(rref, style = "citation")
print(rref, style = "html")
print(rref, style = "latex")
print(rref, style = "R")

## References for boot package and associated book
bref <- c(
  bibentry(
    bibtype = "Manual",
    title = "boot: Bootstrap R (S-PLUS) Functions",
    author = c(
      person("Angelo", "Canty", role = "aut",
        comment = "S original"),
      person(c("Brian", "D."), "Ripley", role = c("aut", "trl", "cre"),
        comment = "R port, author of parallel support",
        email = "ripley@stats.ox.ac.uk")
    ),
    year = "2012",
    note = "R package version 1.3-4",
    url = "https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=boot",
    key = "boot-package"
  ),

  bibentry(
    bibtype = "Book",
    title = "Bootstrap Methods and Their Applications",
    author = as.person("Anthony C. Davison [aut], David V. Hinkley [aut]"),
    year = "1997",
    publisher = "Cambridge University Press",
    address = "Cambridge",
    isbn = "0-521-57391-2",
    url = "http://statwww.epfl.ch/davison/BMA/",
    key = "boot-book"
  )
)

## Combining and subsetting
c(rref, bref)
bref[2]
bref["boot-book"]

## Extracting fields
bref$author
bref[1]$author
bref[1]$author[2]$email

## Convert to BibTeX
toBibtex(bref)

## Format in R style

```

```
## One bibentry() call for each bibentry:
writeLines(paste(format(bref, "R"), collapse = "\n\n"))
## One collapsed call:
writeLines(format(bref, "R", collapse = TRUE))
```

browseEnv

Browse Objects in Environment

Description

The browseEnv function opens a browser with list of objects currently in sys.frame() environment.

Usage

```
browseEnv(envir = .GlobalEnv, pattern,
          excludepatt = "^last\\.warning",
          html = .Platform$GUI != "AQUA",
          expanded = TRUE, properties = NULL,
          main = NULL, debugMe = FALSE)
```

Arguments

envir	an environment the objects of which are to be browsed.
pattern	a regular expression for object subselection is passed to the internal <code>ls()</code> call.
excludepatt	a regular expression for <i>dropping</i> objects with matching names.
html	is used to display the workspace on a HTML page in your favorite browser. The default except when running from R.app on OS X.
expanded	whether to show one level of recursion. It can be useful to switch it to FALSE if your workspace is large. This option is ignored if html is set to FALSE.
properties	a named list of global properties (of the objects chosen) to be showed in the browser; when NULL (as per default), user, date, and machine information is used.
main	a title string to be used in the browser; when NULL (as per default) a title is constructed.
debugMe	logical switch; if true, some diagnostic output is produced.

Details

Very experimental code: displays a static HTML page on all platforms except R.app on OS X.

Only allows one level of recursion into object structures.

It can be generalized. See sources for details. Most probably, this should rather work through using the `tkWidget` package (from <https://www.bioconductor.org>).

See Also[str](#), [ls](#).**Examples**

```

if(interactive()) {
  ## create some interesting objects :
  ofa <- ordered(4:1)
  ex1 <- expression(1+ 0:9)
  ex3 <- expression(u, v, 1+ 0:9)
  example(factor, echo = FALSE)
  example(table, echo = FALSE)
  example(ftable, echo = FALSE)
  example(lm, echo = FALSE, ask = FALSE)
  example(str, echo = FALSE)

  ## and browse them:
  browseEnv()

  ## a (simple) function's environment:
  af12 <- approxfun(1:2, 1:2, method = "const")
  browseEnv(envir = environment(af12))
}

```

browseURL

*Load URL into an HTML Browser***Description**

Load a given URL into an HTML browser.

Usage

```

browseURL(url, browser = getOption("browser"),
          encodeIfNeeded = FALSE)

```

Arguments

url	a non-empty character string giving the URL to be loaded.
browser	a non-empty character string giving the name of the program to be used as the HTML browser. It should be in the PATH, or a full path specified. Alternatively, an R function to be called to invoke the browser. Under Windows NULL is also allowed (and is the default), and implies that the file association mechanism will be used.
encodeIfNeeded	Should the URL be encoded by URLencode before passing to the browser? This is not needed (and might be harmful) if the browser program/function itself does encoding, and can be harmful for 'file://' URLs on some systems and for 'http://' URLs passed to some CGI applications. Fortunately, most URLs do not need encoding.

Details

The default browser is set by option "browser", in turn set by the environment variable R_BROWSER which is by default set in file '[R_HOME](#)/etc/Renviron' to a choice made manually or automatically when R was configured. (See [Startup](#) for where to override that default value.) To suppress showing URLs altogether, use the value "false".

On many platforms it is best to set option "browser" to a generic program/script and let that invoke the user's choice of browser. For example, on OS X use open and on many other Unix-alikes use xdg-open.

If browser supports remote control and R knows how to perform it, the URL is opened in any already-running browser or a new one if necessary. This mechanism currently is available for browsers which support the "-remote openURL(...)" interface (which includes Mozilla and Opera), Galeon, KDE konqueror (*via* kfmclient) and the GNOME interface to Mozilla. (Firefox has dropped support, but defaults to using an already-running browser.) Note that the type of browser is determined from its name, so this mechanism will only be used if the browser is installed under its canonical name.

Because "-remote" will use any browser displaying on the X server (whatever machine it is running on), the remote control mechanism is only used if DISPLAY points to the local host. This may not allow displaying more than one URL at a time from a remote host.

It is the caller's responsibility to encode url if necessary (see [URLencode](#)). This can be tricky for file URLs, where the format accepted can depend on both browser and OS.

To suppress showing URLs altogether, set browser = "false".

The behaviour for arguments url which are not URLs is platform-dependent. Some platforms accept absolute file paths; fewer accept relative file paths.

Examples

```
## Not run: ## for KDE users who want to open files in a new tab
options(browser = "kfmclient newTab")
browseURL("https://www.r-project.org")

## End(Not run)
```

browseVignettes

List Vignettes in an HTML Browser

Description

List available vignettes in an HTML browser with links to PDF, LaTeX/noweb source, and (tangled) R code (if available).

Usage

```
browseVignettes(package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL, all = TRUE)

## S3 method for class 'browseVignettes'
print(x, ...)
```

Arguments

package	a character vector with the names of packages to search through, or NULL in which "all" packages (as defined by argument all) are searched.
lib.loc	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known.
all	logical; if TRUE search all available packages in the library trees specified by lib.loc, and if FALSE, search only attached packages.
x	Object of class browseVignettes.
...	Further arguments, ignored by the print method.

Details

Function browseVignettes returns an object of the same class; the print method displays it as an HTML page in a browser (using [browseURL](#)).

See Also

[browseURL](#), [vignette](#)

Examples

```
## List vignettes from all *attached* packages
browseVignettes(all = FALSE)

## List vignettes from a specific package
browseVignettes("grid")
```

bug.report

Send a Bug Report

Description

Invokes an editor or email program to write a bug report or opens a web page for bug submission. Some standard information on the current version and configuration of R are included automatically.

Usage

```
bug.report(subject = "", address,
           file = "R.bug.report", package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL,
           ...)
```

Arguments

subject	Subject of the email.
address	Recipient's email address, where applicable: for package bug reports sent by email this defaults to the address of the package maintainer (the first if more than one is listed).
file	filename to use (if needed) for setting up the email.
package	Optional character vector naming a single package which is the subject of the bug report.
lib.loc	A character vector describing the location of R library trees in which to search for the package, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known.
...	additional named arguments such as method and ccaddress to pass to create.post .

Details

If package is NULL or a base package, this opens the R bugs tracker at <https://bugs.r-project.org/>.

If package is specified, it is assumed that the bug report is about that package, and parts of its 'DESCRIPTION' file are added to the standard information. If the package has a BugReports field in the 'DESCRIPTION' file, that URL will be opened using [browseURL](#), otherwise an email directed to the package maintainer will be generated using [create.post](#).

Value

Nothing useful.

When is there a bug?

If R executes an illegal instruction, or dies with an operating system error message that indicates a problem in the program (as opposed to something like "disk full"), then it is certainly a bug.

Taking forever to complete a command can be a bug, but you must make certain that it was really R's fault. Some commands simply take a long time. If the input was such that you KNOW it should have been processed quickly, report a bug. If you don't know whether the command should take a long time, find out by looking in the manual or by asking for assistance.

If a command you are familiar with causes an R error message in a case where its usual definition ought to be reasonable, it is probably a bug. If a command does the wrong thing, that is a bug. But be sure you know for certain what it ought to have done. If you aren't familiar with the command, or don't know for certain how the command is supposed to work, then it might actually be working right. Rather than jumping to conclusions, show the problem to someone who knows for certain.

Finally, a command's intended definition may not be best for statistical analysis. This is a very important sort of problem, but it is also a matter of judgement. Also, it is easy to come to such a conclusion out of ignorance of some of the existing features. It is probably best not to complain about such a problem until you have checked the documentation in the usual ways, feel confident that you understand it, and know for certain that what you want is not available. The mailing list r-devel@r-project.org is a better place for discussions of this sort than the bug list.

If you are not sure what the command is supposed to do after a careful reading of the manual this indicates a bug in the manual. The manual's job is to make everything clear. It is just as important to report documentation bugs as program bugs.

If the online argument list of a function disagrees with the manual, one of them must be wrong, so report the bug.

How to report a bug

When you decide that there is a bug, it is important to report it and to report it in a way which is useful. What is most useful is an exact description of what commands you type, from when you start R until the problem happens. Always include the version of R, machine, and operating system that you are using; type `version` in R to print this. To help us keep track of which bugs have been fixed and which are still open please send a separate report for each bug.

The most important principle in reporting a bug is to report FACTS, not hypotheses or categorizations. It is always easier to report the facts, but people seem to prefer to strain to posit explanations and report them instead. If the explanations are based on guesses about how R is implemented, they will be useless; we will have to try to figure out what the facts must have been to lead to such speculations. Sometimes this is impossible. But in any case, it is unnecessary work for us.

For example, suppose that on a data set which you know to be quite large the command `data.frame(x, y, z, monday, tuesday)` never returns. Do not report that `data.frame()` fails for large data sets. Perhaps it fails when a variable name is a day of the week. If this is so then when we got your report we would try out the `data.frame()` command on a large data set, probably with no day of the week variable name, and not see any problem. There is no way in the world that we could guess that we should try a day of the week variable name.

Or perhaps the command fails because the last command you used was a `[]` method that had a bug causing R's internal data structures to be corrupted and making the `data.frame()` command fail from then on. This is why we need to know what other commands you have typed (or read from your startup file).

It is very useful to try and find simple examples that produce apparently the same bug, and somewhat useful to find simple examples that might be expected to produce the bug but actually do not. If you want to debug the problem and find exactly what caused it, that is wonderful. You should still report the facts as well as any explanations or solutions.

Invoking R with the `--vanilla` option may help in isolating a bug. This ensures that the site profile and saved data files are not read.

A bug report can be generated using the function `bug.report()`. For reports on R this will open the Web page at <https://bugs.r-project.org/>: for a contributed package it will open the package's bug tracker Web page or help you compose an email to the maintainer.

Bug reports on **contributed packages** should not be sent to the R bug tracker: rather make use of the package argument.

Author(s)

This help page is adapted from the Emacs manual and the R FAQ

See Also

[help.request](#) which you possibly should try *before* `bug.report`.

[create.post](#), which handles emailing reports.

The R FAQ, also [sessionInfo\(\)](#) from which you may add to the bug report.

capture.output

Send Output to a Character String or File

Description

Evaluates its arguments with the output being returned as a character string or sent to a file. Related to [sink](#) in the same way that [with](#) is related to [attach](#).

Usage

```
capture.output(..., file = NULL, append = FALSE,
               type = c("output", "message"), split = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	Expressions to be evaluated.
<code>file</code>	A file name or a connection , or <code>NULL</code> to return the output as a character vector. If the connection is not open, it will be opened initially and closed on exit.
<code>append</code>	logical. If <code>file</code> a file name or unopened connection, append or overwrite?
<code>type, split</code>	are passed to sink() , see there.

Details

An attempt is made to write output as far as possible to `file` if there is an error in evaluating the expressions, but for `file = NULL` all output will be lost.

Messages sent to [stderr\(\)](#) (including those from [message](#), [warning](#) and [stop](#)) are captured by `type = "message"`. Note that this can be “unsafe” and should only be used with care.

Value

A character string (if `file = NULL`), or invisible `NULL`.

See Also

[sink](#), [textConnection](#)

Examples

```

require(stats)
glmout <- capture.output(summary(glm(case ~ spontaneous+induced,
                                     data = infert, family = binomial()))))

glmout[1:5]
capture.output(1+1, 2+2)
capture.output({1+1; 2+2})

## Not run: ## on Unix-alike with a2ps available
op <- options(useFancyQuotes=FALSE)
pdf <- pipe("a2ps -o - | ps2pdf - tempout.pdf", "w")
capture.output(example(glm), file = pdf)
close(pdf); options(op) ; system("evince tempout.pdf &")

## End(Not run)

```

changedFiles

Detect which files have changed

Description

fileSnapshot takes a snapshot of a selection of files, recording summary information about each. changedFiles compares two snapshots, or compares one snapshot to the current state of the file system. The snapshots need not be the same directory; this could be used to compare two directories.

Usage

```

fileSnapshot(path = ".", file.info = TRUE, timestamp = NULL,
             md5sum = FALSE, digest = NULL, full.names = length(path) > 1,
             ...)

changedFiles(before, after, path = before$path, timestamp = before$timestamp,
             check.file.info = c("size", "isdir", "mode", "mtime"),
             md5sum = before$md5sum, digest = before$digest,
             full.names = before$full.names, ...)

## S3 method for class 'fileSnapshot'
print(x, verbose = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'changedFiles'
print(x, verbose = FALSE, ...)

```

Arguments

path character vector; the path(s) to record.

file.info logical; whether to record [file.info](#) values for each file.

timestamp	character string or NULL; the name of a file to write at the time the snapshot is taken. This gives a quick test for modification, but may be unreliable; see the Details.
md5sum	logical; whether MD5 summaries of each file should be taken as part of the snapshot.
digest	a function or NULL; a function with header function(filename) which will take a vector of filenames and produce a vector of values of the same length, or a matrix with that number of rows.
full.names	logical; whether full names (as in <code>list.files</code>) should be recorded. Must be TRUE if <code>length(path) > 1</code> .
...	additional parameters to pass to <code>list.files</code> to control the set of files in the snapshots.
before, after	objects produced by <code>fileSnapshot</code> ; two snapshots to compare. If after is missing, a new snapshot of the current file system will be produced for comparison, using arguments recorded in before as defaults.
check.file.info	character vector; which columns from <code>file.info</code> should be compared.
x	the object to print.
verbose	logical; whether to list all data when printing.

Details

The `fileSnapshot` function uses `list.files` to obtain a list of files, and depending on the `file.info`, `md5sum`, and `digest` arguments, records information about each file.

The `changedFiles` function compares two snapshots.

If the `timestamp` argument to `fileSnapshot` is length 1, a file with that name is created. If it is length 1 in `changedFiles`, the `file_test` function is used to compare the age of all files common to both before and after to it. This test may be unreliable: it compares the current modification time of the after files to the timestamp; that may not be the same as the modification time when the after snapshot was taken. It may also give incorrect results if the clock on the file system holding the timestamp differs from the one holding the snapshot files.

If the `check.file.info` argument contains a non-empty character vector, the indicated columns from the result of a call to `file.info` will be compared.

If `md5sum` is TRUE, `fileSnapshot` will call the `tools::md5sum` function to record the 32 byte MD5 checksum for each file, and `changedFiles` will compare the values. The `digest` argument allows users to provide their own digest function.

Value

`fileSnapshot` returns an object of class "fileSnapshot". This is a list containing the fields

info	a data frame whose rownames are the filenames, and whose columns contain the requested snapshot data
path	the normalized path from the call

timestamp, file.info, md5sum, digest, full.names
 a record of the other arguments from the call

args other arguments passed via ... to [list.files](#).

changedFiles produces an object of class "changedFiles". This is a list containing

added, deleted, changed, unchanged
 character vectors of filenames from the before and after snapshots, with obvious meanings

changes a logical matrix with a row for each common file, and a column for each comparison test. TRUE indicates a change in that test.

[print](#) methods are defined for each of these types. The [print](#) method for "fileSnapshot" objects displays the arguments used to produce them, while the one for "changedFiles" displays the added, deleted and changed fields if non-empty, and a submatrix of the changes matrix containing all of the TRUE values.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch, using suggestions from Karl Millar and others.

See Also

[file.info](#), [file_test](#), [md5sum](#).

Examples

```
# Create some files in a temporary directory
dir <- tempfile()
dir.create(dir)
writeBin(1L, file.path(dir, "file1"))
writeBin(2L, file.path(dir, "file2"))
dir.create(file.path(dir, "dir"))

# Take a snapshot
snapshot <- fileSnapshot(dir, timestamp = tempfile("timestamp"), md5sum=TRUE)

# Change one of the files.
writeBin(3L:4L, file.path(dir, "file2"))

# Display the detected changes. We may or may not see mtime change...
changedFiles(snapshot)
changedFiles(snapshot)$changes
```

chooseBioCmirror	<i>Select a Bioconductor Mirror</i>
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Description

Interact with the user to choose a Bioconductor mirror.

Usage

```
chooseBioCmirror(graphics = getOption("menu.graphics"), ind = NULL,  
                 useHTTPS = getOption("useHTTPS", TRUE),  
                 local.only = FALSE)
```

Arguments

graphics	Logical. If true, use a graphical list: on Windows or the OS X GUI use a list box, and on a Unix-alike use a Tk widget if package tk and an X server are available. Otherwise use a text menu .
ind	Optional numeric value giving which entry to select.
useHTTPS	Whether to prefer HTTPS mirrors (see chooseCRANmirror).
local.only	Logical, try to get most recent list from the Bioconductor master or use file on local disk only.

Details

This sets the [option](#) "BioC_mirror": it is used before a call to [setRepositories](#). The out-of-the-box default for that option is NULL, which currently corresponds to the mirror <http://bioconductor.org>.

The 'Bioconductor (World-wide)' 'mirror' is a network of mirrors providing reliable world-wide access; other mirrors may provide faster access on a geographically local scale.

ind chooses a row in '[R_HOME](#)/doc/BioC_mirrors.csv', by number.

Value

None: this function is invoked for its side effect of updating options("BioC_mirror").

Note

The online list of mirrors is always accessed using HTTPS. If your build of R does not support HTTPS, R uses the local copy in '[R_HOME](#)/doc/BioC_mirrors.csv'. It can be updated from https://bioconductor.org/BioC_mirrors.csv.

See Also

[setRepositories](#), [chooseCRANmirror](#).

chooseCRANmirror	Select a CRAN Mirror
------------------	----------------------

Description

Interact with the user to choose a CRAN mirror.

Usage

```
chooseCRANmirror(graphics = getOption("menu.graphics"), ind = NULL,  
                 useHTTPS = getOption("useHTTPS", TRUE),  
                 local.only = FALSE)  
  
getCRANmirrors(all = FALSE, local.only = FALSE)
```

Arguments

graphics	Logical. If true, use a graphical list: on Windows or the OS X GUI use a list box, and on a Unix-alike use a Tk widget if package tcltk and an X server are available. Otherwise use a text menu .
ind	Optional numeric value giving which entry to select.
useHTTPS	Whether to prefer HTTPS mirrors.
all	Logical, get all known mirrors or only the ones flagged as OK.
local.only	Logical, try to get most recent list from the CRAN master or use file on local disk only.

Details

A list of mirrors is stored in file '[R_HOME](#)/doc/CRAN_mirrors.csv', but first an on-line list of current mirrors is consulted, and the file copy used only if the on-line list is inaccessible.

This function is called by a Windows GUI menu item and by [contrib.url](#) if it finds the initial dummy value of [options](#)("repos").

The useHTTPS argument defaults to TRUE. With useHTTPS = TRUE, HTTPS mirrors will be offered in preference to HTTP mirrors (which are listed in a sub-menu). If it is set to FALSE, no HTTPS mirrors will be offered. Choosing an HTTPS mirror provides some guarantees on the identity of the site chosen and so is recommended. (However, most but not all R builds support downloading from HTTPS sites.)

ind chooses a row in the list of current mirrors, by number. It is best used with local.only = TRUE and row numbers in '[R_HOME](#)/doc/CRAN_mirrors.csv'.

Value

None for chooseCRANmirror(), this function is invoked for its side effect of updating [options](#)("repos").

getCRANmirrors() returns a data frame with mirror information.

Note

The online list of mirrors is always accessed using HTTPS. If your build of R does not support HTTPS, R uses the local copy in '[R_HOME/doc/CRAN_mirrors.csv](#)'. It can be updated from https://cran.r-project.org/CRAN_mirrors.csv.

See Also

[setRepositories](#), [chooseBioCmirror](#), [contrib.url](#).

citation	<i>Citing R and R Packages in Publications</i>
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Description

How to cite R and R packages in publications.

Usage

```
citation(package = "base", lib.loc = NULL, auto = NULL)
readCitationFile(file, meta = NULL)
```

Arguments

package	a character string with the name of a single package. An error occurs if more than one package name is given.
lib.loc	a character vector with path names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. If the default is used, the loaded packages are searched before the libraries.
auto	a logical indicating whether the default citation auto-generated from the package 'DESCRIPTION' metadata should be used or not, or NULL (default), indicating that a 'CITATION' file is used if it exists, or an object of class " packageDescription " with package metadata (see below).
file	a file name.
meta	a list of package metadata as obtained by packageDescription , or NULL (the default).

Details

The R core development team and the very active community of package authors have invested a lot of time and effort in creating R as it is today. Please give credit where credit is due and cite R and R packages when you use them for data analysis.

Execute function `citation()` for information on how to cite the base R system in publications. If the name of a non-base package is given, the function either returns the information contained in the 'CITATION' file of the package or auto-generates citation information. In the latter case the package 'DESCRIPTION' file is parsed, the resulting citation object may be arbitrarily bad, but is quite useful (at least as a starting point) in most cases.

In R \geq 2.14.0, one can use a 'Authors@R' field in 'DESCRIPTION' to provide (R code giving) a [person](#) object with a refined, machine-readable description of the package "authors" (in particular specifying their precise roles). Only those with an author role will be included in the auto-generated citation.

If only one reference is given, the print method for the object returned by `citation()` shows both a text version and a BibTeX entry for it, if a package has more than one reference then only the text versions are shown. The BibTeX versions can be obtained using function `toBibtex()` (see the examples below).

The 'CITATION' file of an R package should be placed in the 'inst' subdirectory of the package source. The file is an R source file and may contain arbitrary R commands including conditionals and computations. Function `readCitationFile()` is used by `citation()` to extract the information in 'CITATION' files. The file is `source()`ed by the R parser in a temporary environment and all resulting bibliographic objects (specifically, of class "[bibentry](#)") are collected.

Traditionally, the 'CITATION' file contained zero or more calls to `citHeader`, then one or more calls to `citEntry`, and finally zero or more calls to `citFooter`, where in fact `citHeader` and `citFooter` are simply wrappers to `paste`, with their `...` argument passed on to `paste` as is. The "[bibentry](#)" class makes for improved representation and manipulation of bibliographic information (in fact, the old mechanism is implemented using the new one), and one can write 'CITATION' files using the unified [bibentry](#) interface.

One can include an auto-generated package citation in the 'CITATION' file via `citation(auto = meta)`.

`readCitationFile` makes use of the `Encoding` element (if any) of `meta` to determine the encoding of the file.

Value

An object inheriting from class "[bibentry](#)".

See Also

[bibentry](#)

Examples

```
## the basic R reference
citation()

## references for a package -- might not have these installed
if(nchar(system.file(package = "lattice"))) citation("lattice")
if(nchar(system.file(package = "foreign"))) citation("foreign")

## extract the bibtex entry from the return value
x <- citation()
toBibtex(x)
```

cite

Cite a bibliography entry.

Description

Cite a `bibentry` object in text. The `cite()` function uses the `cite()` function from the default `bibstyle` if present, or `citeNatbib()` if not. `citeNatbib()` uses a style similar to that used by the LaTeX package **natbib**.

Usage

```

cite(keys, bib, ...)
citeNatbib(keys, bib, textual = FALSE, before = NULL, after = NULL,
            mode = c("authoryear", "numbers", "super"),
            abbreviate = TRUE, longnamesfirst = TRUE,
            bibpunct = c("(", ")", ";", "a", "", ","), previous)

```

Arguments

<code>keys</code>	A character vector of keys of entries to cite. May contain multiple keys in a single entry, separated by commas.
<code>bib</code>	A " <code>bibentry</code> " object containing the list of documents in which to find the keys.
<code>...</code>	Additional arguments to pass to the <code>cite()</code> function for the default style.
<code>textual</code>	Produce a "textual" style of citation, i.e. what <code>\cit{et}</code> would produce in LaTeX.
<code>before</code>	Optional text to display before the citation.
<code>after</code>	Optional text to display after the citation.
<code>mode</code>	The "mode" of citation.
<code>abbreviate</code>	Whether to abbreviate long author lists.
<code>longnamesfirst</code>	If <code>abbreviate == TRUE</code> , whether to leave the first citation long.
<code>bibpunct</code>	A vector of punctuation to use in the citation, as used in natbib . See the Details section.
<code>previous</code>	A list of keys that have been previously cited, to be used when <code>abbreviate == TRUE</code> and <code>longnamesfirst == TRUE</code>

Details

Argument names are chosen based on the documentation for the LaTeX **natbib** package. See that documentation for the interpretation of the `bibpunct` entries.

The entries in `bibpunct` are as follows:

1. The left delimiter.
2. The right delimiter.
3. The separator between references within a citation.

4. An indicator of the “mode”: “n” for numbers, “s” for superscripts, anything else for author-year.
5. Punctuation to go between the author and year.
6. Punctuation to go between years when authorship is suppressed.

Note that if mode is specified, it overrides the mode specification in `bibpunct[4]`. Partial matching is used for mode.

The defaults for `citeNatbib` have been chosen to match the JSS style, and by default these are used in `cite`. See [bibstyle](#) for how to set a different default style.

Value

A single element character string is returned, containing the citation.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

Examples

```
## R reference
rref <- bibentry(
  bibtype = "Manual",
  title = "R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing",
  author = person("R Core Team"),
  organization = "R Foundation for Statistical Computing",
  address = "Vienna, Austria",
  year = 2013,
  url = "https://www.R-project.org/",
  key = "R")

## References for boot package and associated book
bref <- c(
  bibentry(
    bibtype = "Manual",
    title = "boot: Bootstrap R (S-PLUS) Functions",
    author = c(
      person("Angelo", "Canty", role = "aut",
        comment = "S original"),
      person(c("Brian", "D."), "Ripley", role = c("aut", "trl", "cre"),
        comment = "R port, author of parallel support",
        email = "ripley@stats.ox.ac.uk")
    ),
    year = "2012",
    note = "R package version 1.3-4",
    url = "https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=boot",
    key = "boot-package"
  ),
  bibentry(
    bibtype = "Book",
```

```

    title = "Bootstrap Methods and Their Applications",
    author = as.person("Anthony C. Davison [aut], David V. Hinkley [aut]"),
    year = "1997",
    publisher = "Cambridge University Press",
    address = "Cambridge",
    isbn = "0-521-57391-2",
    url = "http://statwww.epfl.ch/davison/BMA/",
    key = "boot-book"
  )
)

## Combine and cite
refs <- c(rref, bref)
cite("R, boot-package", refs)

## Cite numerically
savestyle <- tools::getBibstyle()
tools::bibstyle("JSSnumbered", .init = TRUE,
  fmtPrefix = function(paper) paste0("[", paper$.index, "]"),
  cite = function(key, bib, ...)
    citeNatbib(key, bib, mode = "numbers",
      bibpunct = c("[", "]", ";", "n", "", ", "), ...)
)
cite("R, boot-package", refs, textual = TRUE)
refs

## restore the old style
tools::bibstyle(savestyle, .default = TRUE)

```

citEntry

Bibliography Entries (Older Interface)

Description

Functionality for specifying bibliographic information in enhanced BibTeX style.

Usage

```

citEntry(entry, textVersion, header = NULL, footer = NULL, ...)
citHeader(...)
citFooter(...)

```

Arguments

entry	a character string with a BibTeX entry type. See section Entry Types in bibentry for details.
textVersion	a character string with a text representation of the reference.
header	a character string with optional header text.
footer	a character string with optional footer text.

... for `citEntry`, arguments of the form *tag=value* giving the fields of the entry, with *tag* and *value* the name and value of the field, respectively. See section **Entry Fields** in [bibentry](#) for details.
For `citHeader` and `citFooter`, character strings.

Value

`citEntry` produces an object of class "bibentry".

See Also

[citation](#) for more information about citing R and R packages and 'CITATION' files; [bibentry](#) for the newer functionality for representing and manipulating bibliographic information.

close.socket

Close a Socket

Description

Closes the socket and frees the space in the file descriptor table. The port may not be freed immediately.

Usage

```
close.socket(socket, ...)
```

Arguments

socket a socket object
... further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Value

logical indicating success or failure

Author(s)

Thomas Lumley

See Also

[make.socket](#), [read.socket](#).

Compiling in support for sockets is optional: see [capabilities](#)("sockets") to see if it is available.

combn

*Generate All Combinations of n Elements, Taken m at a Time***Description**

Generate all combinations of the elements of x taken m at a time. If x is a positive integer, returns all combinations of the elements of `seq(x)` taken m at a time. If argument `FUN` is not `NULL`, applies a function given by the argument to each point. If `simplify` is `FALSE`, returns a list; otherwise returns an [array](#), typically a [matrix](#). ... are passed unchanged to the `FUN` function, if specified.

Usage

```
combn(x, m, FUN = NULL, simplify = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	vector source for combinations, or integer n for <code>x <- seq_len(n)</code> .
<code>m</code>	number of elements to choose.
<code>FUN</code>	function to be applied to each combination; default <code>NULL</code> means the identity, i.e., to return the combination (vector of length m).
<code>simplify</code>	logical indicating if the result should be simplified to an array (typically a matrix); if <code>FALSE</code> , the function returns a list . Note that when <code>simplify = TRUE</code> as by default, the dimension of the result is simply determined from <code>FUN(1st combination)</code> (for efficiency reasons). This will badly fail if <code>FUN(u)</code> is not of constant length.
<code>...</code>	optionally, further arguments to <code>FUN</code> .

Details

Factors x are accepted from R 3.1.0 (although coincidentally they worked for `simplify = FALSE` in earlier versions).

Value

a [list](#) or [array](#), see the `simplify` argument above. In the latter case, the identity `dim(combn(n, m)) == c(m, choose(n, m))` holds.

Author(s)

Scott Chasalow wrote the original in 1994 for S; R package **combinat** and documentation by Vince Carey <stvjc@channing.harvard.edu>; small changes by the R core team, notably to return an array in all cases of `simplify = TRUE`, e.g., for `combn(5,5)`.

References

Nijenhuis, A. and Wilf, H.S. (1978) *Combinatorial Algorithms for Computers and Calculators*; Academic Press, NY.

See Also

[choose](#) for fast computation of the *number* of combinations. [expand.grid](#) for creating a data frame from all combinations of factors or vectors.

Examples

```
combn(letters[1:4], 2)
(m <- combn(10, 5, min)) # minimum value in each combination
mm <- combn(15, 6, function(x) matrix(x, 2, 3))
stopifnot(round(choose(10, 5)) == length(m),
           c(2,3, round(choose(15, 6))) == dim(mm))

## Different way of encoding points:
combn(c(1,1,1,1,2,2,2,3,3,4), 3, tabulate, nbins = 4)

## Compute support points and (scaled) probabilities for a
## Multivariate-Hypergeometric(n = 3, N = c(4,3,2,1)) p.f.:
# table.mat(t(combn(c(1,1,1,1,2,2,2,3,3,4), 3, tabulate, nbins = 4)))

## Assuring the identity
for(n in 1:7)
  for(m in 0:n) stopifnot(is.array(cc <- combn(n, m)),
                        dim(cc) == c(m, choose(n, m)))
```

compareVersion

Compare Two Package Version Numbers

Description

Compare two package version numbers to see which is later.

Usage

```
compareVersion(a, b)
```

Arguments

a, b Character strings representing package version numbers.

Details

R package version numbers are of the form x.y-z for integers x, y and z, with components after x optionally missing (in which case the version number is older than those with the components present).

Value

0 if the numbers are equal, -1 if b is later and 1 if a is later (analogous to the C function strcmp).

See Also

[package_version](#), [library](#), [packageStatus](#).

Examples

```
compareVersion("1.0", "1.0-1")
compareVersion("7.2-0", "7.1-12")
```

COMPILE

Compile Files for Use with R

Description

Compile given source files so that they can subsequently be collected into a shared object using R CMD SHLIB or an executable program using R CMD LINK.

Usage

```
R CMD COMPILE [options] srcfiles
```

Arguments

srcfiles	A list of the names of source files to be compiled. Currently, C, C++, Objective C, Objective C++ and Fortran are supported; the corresponding files should have the extensions <code>‘.c’</code> , <code>‘.cc’</code> (or <code>‘.cpp’</code>), <code>‘.m’</code> , <code>‘.mm’</code> (or <code>‘.M’</code>), <code>‘.f’</code> and <code>‘.f90’</code> or <code>‘.f95’</code> , respectively.
options	A list of compile-relevant settings, or for obtaining information about usage and version of the utility.

Details

R CMD SHLIB can both compile and link files into a shared object: since it knows what run-time libraries are needed when passed C++, Fortran and Objective C(++) sources, passing source files to R CMD SHLIB is more reliable.

Ratfor is not supported. If you have Ratfor source code, you need to convert it to FORTRAN. (On some Solaris systems mixing Ratfor and FORTRAN code will work.)

Objective C and Objective C++ support is optional and will work only if the corresponding compilers were available at R configure time: their main usage is on OS X.

Compilation arranges to include the paths to the R public C/C++ headers.

As this compiles code suitable for incorporation into a shared object, it generates PIC code: that might occasionally be undesirable for the main code of an executable program.

This is a make-based facility, so will not compile a source file if a newer corresponding `‘.o’` file is present.

Note

Some binary distributions of R have COMPILE in a separate bundle, e.g. an R-devel RPM. This is not available on Windows.

See Also

[LINK](#), [SHLIB](#), [dyn.load](#); the section on “Customizing compilation under Unix” in “R Administration and Installation” (see the ‘doc/manual’ subdirectory of the R source tree).

`contrib.url`*Find Appropriate Paths in CRAN-like Repositories*

Description

`contrib.url` adds the appropriate type-specific path within a repository to each URL in `repos`.

Usage

```
contrib.url(repos, type = getOption("pkgType"))
```

Arguments

<code>repos</code>	character vector, the base URL(s) of the repositories to use.
<code>type</code>	character string, indicating which type of packages: see install.packages .

Details

If `type = "both"` this will use the source repository.

Value

A character vector of the same length as `repos`.

See Also

[setRepositories](#) to set [options\("repos"\)](#), the most common value used for argument `repos`.
[available.packages](#), [download.packages](#), [install.packages](#).

The ‘R Installation and Administration’ manual for how to set up a repository.

count.fields	<i>Count the Number of Fields per Line</i>
--------------	--

Description

count.fields counts the number of fields, as separated by sep, in each of the lines of file read.

Usage

```
count.fields(file, sep = "", quote = "\"\"", skip = 0,
             blank.lines.skip = TRUE, comment.char = "#")
```

Arguments

file	a character string naming an ASCII data file, or a connection , which will be opened if necessary, and if so closed at the end of the function call.
sep	the field separator character. Values on each line of the file are separated by this character. By default, arbitrary amounts of whitespace can separate fields.
quote	the set of quoting characters
skip	the number of lines of the data file to skip before beginning to read data.
blank.lines.skip	logical: if TRUE blank lines in the input are ignored.
comment.char	character: a character vector of length one containing a single character or an empty string.

Details

This used to be used by [read.table](#) and can still be useful in discovering problems in reading a file by that function.

For the handling of comments, see [scan](#).

Consistent with [scan](#), count.fields allows quoted strings to contain newline characters. In such a case the starting line will have the field count recorded as NA, and the ending line will include the count of all fields from the beginning of the record.

Value

A vector with the numbers of fields found.

See Also

[read.table](#)

Examples

```
cat("NAME", "1:John", "2:Paul", file = "foo", sep = "\n")
count.fields("foo", sep = ":")
unlink("foo")
```

create.post

*Ancillary Function for Preparing Emails and Postings***Description**

An ancillary function used by [bug.report](#) and [help.request](#) to prepare emails for submission to package maintainers or to R mailing lists.

Usage

```
create.post(instructions = character(), description = "post",
            subject = "",
            method = getOption("mailer"),
            address = "the relevant mailing list",
            ccaddress = getOption("ccaddress", ""),
            filename = "R.post", info = character())
```

Arguments

instructions	Character vector of instructions to put at the top of the template email.
description	Character string: a description to be incorporated into messages.
subject	Subject of the email. Optional except for the "mailx" method.
method	Submission method, one of "none", "mailto", "gnudoit", "ess" or (Unix only) "mailx". See 'Details'.
address	Recipient's email address, where applicable: for package bug reports sent by email this defaults to the address of the package maintainer (the first if more than one is listed).
ccaddress	Optional email address for copies with the "mailx" and "mailto" methods. Use ccaddress = "" for no copy.
filename	Filename to use for setting up the email (or storing it when method is "none" or sending mail fails).
info	character vector of information to include in the template email below the 'please do not edit the information below' line.

Details

What this does depends on the method. The function first creates a template email body.

none A file editor (see [file.edit](#)) is opened with instructions and the template email. When this returns, the completed email is in file `file` ready to be read/pasted into an email program.

mailto This opens the default email program with a template email (including address, Cc: address and subject) for you to edit and send.

This works where default mailers are set up (usual on OS X and Windows, and where `xdg-open` is available and configured on other Unix-alikes: if that fails it tries the browser set by `R_BROWSER`).

This is the 'factory-fresh' default method.

`mailx` (Unix-alikes only.) A file editor (see [file.edit](#)) is opened with instructions and the template email. When this returns, it is mailed using a Unix command line mail utility such as `mailx`, to the address (and optionally, the Cc: address) given.

`gnudoit` An (X)emacs mail buffer is opened for the email to be edited and sent: this requires the `gnudoit` program to be available. Currently subject is ignored.

`ess` The body of the template email is sent to stdout.

Value

Invisible NULL.

See Also

[bug.report](#), [help.request](#).

data

Data Sets

Description

Loads specified data sets, or list the available data sets.

Usage

```
data(..., list = character(), package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL,
      verbose = getOption("verbose"), envir = .GlobalEnv)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	literal character strings or names.
<code>list</code>	a character vector.
<code>package</code>	a character vector giving the package(s) to look in for data sets, or NULL. By default, all packages in the search path are used, then the ‘data’ subdirectory (if present) of the current working directory.
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known.
<code>verbose</code>	a logical. If TRUE, additional diagnostics are printed.
<code>envir</code>	the environment where the data should be loaded.

Details

Currently, four formats of data files are supported:

1. files ending `‘.R’` or `‘.r’` are `source()`d in, with the R working directory changed temporarily to the directory containing the respective file. (data ensures that the **utils** package is attached, in case it had been run *via* `utils::data`.)
2. files ending `‘.RData’` or `‘.rda’` are `load()`ed.
3. files ending `‘.tab’`, `‘.txt’` or `‘.TXT’` are read using `read.table(..., header = TRUE)`, and hence result in a data frame.
4. files ending `‘.csv’` or `‘.CSV’` are read using `read.table(..., header = TRUE, sep = “;”)`, and also result in a data frame.

If more than one matching file name is found, the first on this list is used. (Files with extensions `‘.txt’`, `‘.tab’` or `‘.csv’` can be compressed, with or without further extension `‘.gz’`, `‘.bz2’` or `‘.xz’`.)

The data sets to be loaded can be specified as a set of character strings or names, or as the character vector `list`, or as both.

For each given data set, the first two types (`‘.R’` or `‘.r’`, and `‘.RData’` or `‘.rda’` files) can create several variables in the load environment, which might all be named differently from the data set. The third and fourth types will always result in the creation of a single variable with the same name (without extension) as the data set.

If no data sets are specified, `data` lists the available data sets. It looks for a new-style data index in the `‘Meta’` or, if this is not found, an old-style `‘00Index’` file in the `‘data’` directory of each specified package, and uses these files to prepare a listing. If there is a `‘data’` area but no index, available data files for loading are computed and included in the listing, and a warning is given: such packages are incomplete. The information about available data sets is returned in an object of class `“packageIQR”`. The structure of this class is experimental. Where the datasets have a different name from the argument that should be used to retrieve them the index will have an entry like `beaver1` (`beavers`) which tells us that dataset `beaver1` can be retrieved by the call `data(beaver)`.

If `lib.loc` and `package` are both `NULL` (the default), the data sets are searched for in all the currently loaded packages then in the `‘data’` directory (if any) of the current working directory.

If `lib.loc = NULL` but `package` is specified as a character vector, the specified package(s) are searched for first amongst loaded packages and then in the default library/ies (see `.libPaths`).

If `lib.loc` is specified (and not `NULL`), packages are searched for in the specified library/ies, even if they are already loaded from another library.

To just look in the `‘data’` directory of the current working directory, set `package = character(0)` (and `lib.loc = NULL`, the default).

Value

A character vector of all data sets specified, or information about all available data sets in an object of class `“packageIQR”` if none were specified.

Good practice

`data()` was originally intended to allow users to load datasets from packages for use in their examples, and as such it loaded the datasets into the workspace `.GlobalEnv`. This avoided having large datasets in memory when not in use. That need has been almost entirely superseded by lazy-loading of datasets.

The ability to specify a dataset by name (without quotes) is a convenience: in programming the datasets should be specified by character strings (with quotes).

Use of `data` within a function without an `envir` argument has the almost always undesirable side-effect of putting an object in the user's workspace (and indeed, of replacing any object of that name already there). It would almost always be better to put the object in the current evaluation environment by `data(..., envir = environment())`. However, two alternatives are usually preferable, both described in the 'Writing R Extensions' manual.

- For sets of data, set up a package to use lazy-loading of data.
- For objects which are system data, for example lookup tables used in calculations within the function, use a file `'R/sysdata.rda'` in the package sources or create the objects by R code at package installation time.

A sometimes important distinction is that the second approach places objects in the namespace but the first does not. So if it is important that the function sees `mytable` as an object from the package, it is system data and the second approach should be used. In the unusual case that a package uses a lazy-loaded dataset as a default argument to a function, that needs to be specified by `::`, e.g., `survival::survexp.us`.

Note

One can take advantage of the search order and the fact that a `'R'` file will change directory. If raw data are stored in `'mydata.txt'` then one can set up `'mydata.R'` to read `'mydata.txt'` and pre-process it, e.g., using `transform`. For instance one can convert numeric vectors to factors with the appropriate labels. Thus, the `'R'` file can effectively contain a metadata specification for the plaintext formats.

See Also

[help](#) for obtaining documentation on data sets, [save](#) for *creating* the second (`'rda'`) kind of data, typically the most efficient one.

The 'Writing R Extensions' for considerations in preparing the `'data'` directory of a package.

Examples

```
require(utils)
data() # list all available data sets
try(data(package = "rpart") ) # list the data sets in the rpart package
data(USArrests, "VADeaths") # load the data sets 'USArrests' and 'VADeaths'
## Not run: ## Alternatively
ds <- c("USArrests", "VADeaths"); data(list = ds)
## End(Not run)
help(USArrests) # give information on data set 'USArrests'
```

dataentry

*Spreadsheet Interface for Entering Data***Description**

A spreadsheet-like editor for entering or editing data.

Usage

```
data.entry(..., Modes = NULL, Names = NULL)
dataentry(data, modes)
de(..., Modes = list(), Names = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>...</code>	A list of variables: currently these should be numeric or character vectors or list containing such vectors.
<code>Modes</code>	The modes to be used for the variables.
<code>Names</code>	The names to be used for the variables.
<code>data</code>	A list of numeric and/or character vectors.
<code>modes</code>	A list of length up to that of <code>data</code> giving the modes of (some of) the variables. <code>list()</code> is allowed.

Details

The data entry editor is only available on some platforms and GUIs. Where available it provides a means to visually edit a matrix or a collection of variables (including a data frame) as described in the Notes section.

`data.entry` has side effects, any changes made in the spreadsheet are reflected in the variables. The functions `de`, `de.ncols`, `de.setup` and `de.restore` are designed to help achieve these side effects. If the user passes in a matrix, `X` say, then the matrix is broken into columns before `dataentry` is called. Then on return the columns are collected and glued back together and the result assigned to the variable `X`. If you don't want this behaviour use `dataentry` directly.

The primitive function is `dataentry`. It takes a list of vectors of possibly different lengths and `modes` (the second argument) and opens a spreadsheet with these variables being the columns. The columns of the `dataentry` window are returned as vectors in a list when the spreadsheet is closed.

`de.ncols` counts the number of columns which are supplied as arguments to `data.entry`. It attempts to count columns in lists, matrices and vectors. `de.setup` sets things up so that on return the columns can be regrouped and reassigned to the correct name. This is handled by `de.restore`.

Value

`de` and `dataentry` return the edited value of their arguments. `data.entry` invisibly returns a vector of variable names but its main value is its side effect of assigning new version of those variables in the user's workspace.

Resources

The data entry window responds to X resources of class `R_dataentry`. Resources foreground, background and geometry are utilized.

Note

The details of interface to the data grid may differ by platform and GUI. The following description applies to the X11-based implementation under Unix.

You can navigate around the grid using the cursor keys or by clicking with the (left) mouse button on any cell. The active cell is highlighted by thickening the surrounding rectangle. Moving to the right or down will scroll the grid as needed: there is no constraint to the rows or columns currently in use.

There are alternative ways to navigate using the keys. Return and (keypad) Enter and LineFeed all move down. Tab moves right and Shift-Tab move left. Home moves to the top left.

PageDown or Control-F moves down a page, and PageUp or Control-B up by a page. End will show the last used column and the last few rows used (in any column).

Using any other key starts an editing process on the currently selected cell: moving away from that cell enters the edited value whereas Esc cancels the edit and restores the previous value. When the editing process starts the cell is cleared. In numerical columns (the default) only letters making up a valid number (including `- . eE`) are accepted, and entering an invalid edited value (such as blank) enters NA in that cell. The last entered value can be deleted using the BackSpace or Del(ete) key. Only a limited number of characters (currently 29) can be entered in a cell, and if necessary only the start or end of the string will be displayed, with the omissions indicated by `>` or `<`. (The start is shown except when editing.)

Entering a value in a cell further down a column than the last used cell extends the variable and fills the gap (if any) by NAs (not shown on screen).

The column names can only be selected by clicking in them. This gives a popup menu to select the column type (currently Real (numeric) or Character) or to change the name. Changing the type converts the current contents of the column (and converting from Character to Real may generate NAs.) If changing the name is selected the header cell becomes editable (and is cleared). As with all cells, the value is entered by moving away from the cell by clicking elsewhere or by any of the keys for moving down (only).

New columns are created by entering values in them (and not by just assigning a new name). The mode of the column is auto-detected from the first value entered: if this is a valid number it gives a numeric column. Unused columns are ignored, so adding data in `var5` to a three-column grid adds one extra variable, not two.

The Copy button copies the currently selected cell: paste copies the last copied value to the current cell, and right-clicking selects a cell *and* copies in the value. Initially the value is blank, and attempts to paste a blank value will have no effect.

Control-L will refresh the display, recalculating field widths to fit the current entries.

In the default mode the column widths are chosen to fit the contents of each column, with a default of 10 characters for empty columns. you can specify fixed column widths by setting option `de.cellwidth` to the required fixed width (in characters). (set it to zero to return to variable widths). The displayed width of any field is limited to 600 pixels (and by the window width).

See Also

[vi](#), [edit](#): edit uses `dataentry` to edit data frames.

Examples

```
# call data entry with variables x and y
## Not run: data.entry(x, y)
```

debugger

Post-Mortem Debugging

Description

Functions to dump the evaluation environments (frames) and to examine dumped frames.

Usage

```
dump.frames(dumpto = "last.dump", to.file = FALSE)
debugger(dump = last.dump)
```

Arguments

<code>dumpto</code>	a character string. The name of the object or file to dump to.
<code>to.file</code>	logical. Should the dump be to an R object or to a file?
<code>dump</code>	An R dump object created by <code>dump.frames</code> .

Details

To use post-mortem debugging, set the option `error` to be a call to `dump.frames`. By default this dumps to an R object `last.dump` in the workspace, but it can be set to dump to a file (a dump of the object produced by a call to [save](#)). The dumped object contains the call stack, the active environments and the last error message as returned by [geterrmessage](#).

When dumping to file, `dumpto` gives the name of the dumped object and the file name has `‘.rda’` appended.

A dump object of class `"dump.frames"` can be examined by calling `debugger`. This will give the error message and a list of environments from which to select repeatedly. When an environment is selected, it is copied and the [browser](#) called from within the copy. Note that not all the information in the original frame will be available, e.g. promises which have not yet been evaluated and the contents of any `... argument`.

If `dump.frames` is installed as the error handler, execution will continue even in non-interactive sessions. See the examples for how to dump and then quit.

Value

Invisible `NULL`.

Note

Functions such as `sys.parent` and `environment` applied to closures will not work correctly inside debugger.

If the error occurred when computing the default value of a formal argument the debugger will report “recursive default argument reference” when trying to examine that environment.

Of course post-mortem debugging will not work if R is too damaged to produce and save the dump, for example if it has run out of workspace.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`browser` for the actions available at the Browse prompt.

`options` for setting error options; `recover` is an interactive debugger working similarly to debugger but directly after the error occurs.

Examples

```
## Not run:
options(error = quote(dump.frames("testdump", TRUE)))

f <- function() {
  g <- function() stop("test dump.frames")
  g()
}
f() # will generate a dump on file "testdump.rda"
options(error = NULL)
```

```
## possibly in another R session
load("testdump.rda")
debugger(testdump)
Available environments had calls:
1: f()
2: g()
3: stop("test dump.frames")
```

```
Enter an environment number, or 0 to exit
Selection: 1
Browsing in the environment with call:
f()
Called from: debugger.look(ind)
Browse[1]> ls()
[1] "g"
Browse[1]> g
function() stop("test dump.frames")
<environment: 759818>
Browse[1]>
```

```

Available environments had calls:
1: f()
2: g()
3: stop("test dump.frames")

Enter an environment number, or 0 to exit
Selection: 0

## A possible setting for non-interactive sessions
options(error = quote({dump.frames(to.file = TRUE); q(status = 1)}))

## End(Not run)

```

demo

*Demonstrations of R Functionality***Description**

demo is a user-friendly interface to running some demonstration R scripts. demo() gives the list of available topics.

Usage

```

demo(topic, package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL,
      character.only = FALSE, verbose = getOption("verbose"),
      echo = TRUE, ask = getOption("demo.ask"),
      encoding = getOption("encoding"))

```

Arguments

topic	the topic which should be demonstrated, given as a name or literal character string, or a character string, depending on whether character.only is FALSE (default) or TRUE. If omitted, the list of available topics is displayed.
package	a character vector giving the packages to look into for demos, or NULL. By default, all packages in the search path are used.
lib.loc	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. If the default is used, the loaded packages are searched before the libraries.
character.only	logical; if TRUE, use topic as character string.
verbose	a logical. If TRUE, additional diagnostics are printed.
echo	a logical. If TRUE, show the R input when sourcing.
ask	a logical (or "default") indicating if devAskNewPage (ask = TRUE) should be called before graphical output happens from the demo code. The value "default" (the factory-fresh default) means to ask if echo == TRUE and the graphics device appears to be interactive. This parameter applies both to any currently opened device and to any devices opened by the demo code. If this is evaluated to TRUE and the session is interactive , the user is asked to press RETURN to start.

encoding See [source](#). If the package has a declared encoding, that takes preference.

Details

If no topics are given, demo lists the available demos. The corresponding information is returned in an object of class "packageIQR".

See Also

[source](#) and [devAskNewPage](#) which are called by demo.

Examples

```
demo() # for attached packages

## All available demos:
demo(package = .packages(all.available = TRUE))

## Display a demo, pausing between pages
demo(lm.glm, package = "stats", ask = TRUE)

## Display it without pausing
demo(lm.glm, package = "stats", ask = FALSE)

## Not run:
ch <- "scoping"
demo(ch, character = TRUE)

## End(Not run)

## Find the location of a demo
system.file("demo", "lm.glm.R", package = "stats")
```

download.file

Download File from the Internet

Description

This function can be used to download a file from the Internet.

Usage

```
download.file(url, destfile, method, quiet = FALSE, mode = "w",
              cacheOK = TRUE,
              extra = getOption("download.file.extra"))
```

Arguments

url	A character string naming the URL of a resource to be downloaded.
destfile	A character string with the name where the downloaded file is saved. Tilde-expansion is performed.
method	Method to be used for downloading files. Current download methods are "internal", "wininet" (Windows only) "libcurl", "wget" and "curl", and there is a value "auto": see 'Details' and 'Note'. The method can also be set through the option "download.file.method": see options() .
quiet	If TRUE, suppress status messages (if any), and the progress bar.
mode	character. The mode with which to write the file. Useful values are "w", "wb" (binary), "a" (append) and "ab". Only used for the "internal" method.
cacheOK	logical. Is a server-side cached value acceptable?
extra	character vector of additional command-line arguments for the "wget" and "curl" methods.

Details

The function `download.file` can be used to download a single file as described by `url` from the internet and store it in `destfile`. The `url` must start with a scheme such as 'http://', 'https://', 'ftp://' or 'file://'.

If `method = "auto"` is chosen (the default), method "libcurl" is chosen for 'https://' and 'ftps://' URLs provided `capabilities("libcurl")` is true, and the internal method is chosen for 'file://' URLs and for the others provided `capabilities("http/ftp")` is true (which it almost always is).

Support for method "libcurl" is optional: use `capabilities("libcurl")` to see if it is supported on your build. (It uses an external library of that name (<http://curl.haxx.se/libcurl/>) against which R can be compiled.) It will usually provide (non-blocking) access to 'https://' and 'ftps://' URLs. There is support for simultaneous downloads, so `url` and `destfile` can be character vectors of the same length greater than one. For a single URL and `quiet = FALSE` a progress bar is shown in interactive use.

For methods "wget" and "curl" a system call is made to the tool given by `method`, and the respective program must be installed on your system and be in the search path for executables. They will block all other activity on the R process until they complete: this may make a GUI unresponsive.

`cacheOK = FALSE` is useful for 'http://' and 'https://' URLs: it will attempt to get a copy directly from the site rather than from an intermediate cache. It is used by [available.packages](#).

The "libcurl" and "wget" methods follow 'http://' and 'https://' redirections: the "internal" method does not. (For method "curl" use argument `extra = "-L"`. To disable redirection in wget, use `extra = "--max-redirect=0"`.) (The "wininet" method supports some redirections but not all.)

Note that 'https://' URLs are not supported by the internal method.

See [url](#) for how 'file://' URLs are interpreted, especially on Windows. The "internal" and "wininet" methods do not percent-decode 'file://' URLs, but the "libcurl" and "curl" methods do: method "wget" does not support them.

Most methods do not percent-encode special characters such as spaces in URLs (see [URLencode](#)), but it seems the "wininet" method does.

The remaining details apply to the "internal", "wininet" and "libcurl" methods only.

The timeout for many parts of the transfer can be set by the option `timeout` which defaults to 60 seconds.

The level of detail provided during transfer can be set by the `quiet` argument and the `internet.info` option: the details depend on the platform and scheme. For the "internal" method setting option `internet.info` to 0 gives all available details, including all server responses. Using 2 (the default) gives only serious messages, and 3 or more suppresses all messages. For the "libcurl" method values of the option less than 2 give verbose output.

A progress bar tracks the transfer. If the file length is known, an equals sign represents 2% of the transfer completed: otherwise a dot represents 10Kb.

Code written to download binary files must use mode = "wb", but the problems incurred by a text transfer will only be seen on Windows.

Value

An (invisible) integer code, 0 for success and non-zero for failure. For the "wget" and "curl" methods this is the status code returned by the external program. The "internal" method can return 1, but will in most cases throw an error.

Setting Proxies

The next two paragraphs apply to the internal code only.

Proxies can be specified via environment variables. Setting `no_proxy` to * stops any proxy being tried. Otherwise the setting of `http_proxy` or `ftp_proxy` (or failing that, the all upper-case version) is consulted and if non-empty used as a proxy site. For FTP transfers, the username and password on the proxy can be specified by `ftp_proxy_user` and `ftp_proxy_password`. The form of `http_proxy` should be `http://proxy.dom.com/` or `http://proxy.dom.com:8080/` where the port defaults to 80 and the trailing slash may be omitted. For `ftp_proxy` use the form `ftp://proxy.dom.com:3128/` where the default port is 21. These environment variables must be set before the download code is first used: they cannot be altered later by calling [Sys.setenv](#).

Usernames and passwords can be set for HTTP proxy transfers via environment variable `http_proxy_user` in the form `user:passwd`. Alternatively, `http_proxy` can be of the form `http://user:pass@proxy.dom.com:8080/` for compatibility with `wget`. Only the HTTP/1.0 basic authentication scheme is supported.

Much the same scheme is supported by method = "libcurl", including `no_proxy`, `http_proxy` and `ftp_proxy`, and for the last two a contents of `[user:password@]machine[:port]` where the parts in brackets are optional. See <http://curl.haxx.se/libcurl/c/libcurl-tutorial.html> for details.

Secure URLs

Methods which access 'https://' and 'ftps://' URLs should try to verify their certificates. This is usually done using the CA root certificates installed by the OS (although we have seen instances in which these got removed rather than updated). For further information see <http://curl.haxx.se/docs/sslcerts.html>.

This is an issue for `method = "libcurl"` on Windows, where the OS does not provide a suitable CA certificate bundle, so by default on Windows certificates are not verified. To turn verification on, set environment variable `CURL_CA_BUNDLE` to the path to a certificate bundle file, usually named `'ca-bundle.crt'` or `'curl-ca-bundle.crt'`. (This is normally done for a binary installation of R, which installs `'R_HOME/etc/curl-ca-bundle.crt'` and sets `CURL_CA_BUNDLE` to point to it if that environment variable is not already set.) For an updated certificate bundle, see <http://curl.haxx.se/docs/sslcerts.html>. Currently one can download a copy from <https://raw.githubusercontent.com/bagder/ca-bundle/master/ca-bundle.crt> and set `CURL_CA_BUNDLE` to the full path to the downloaded file.

Note that the root certificates used by R may or may not be the same as used in a browser, and indeed different browsers may use different certificate bundles (there is typically a build option to choose either their own or the system ones).

FTP sites

`'ftp:'` URLs are accessed using the FTP protocol which has a number of variants. One distinction is between `'active'` and `'(extended) passive'` modes: which is used is chosen by the client. The `"internal"` and `"libcurl"` method use passive mode, and that is almost universally used by browsers. Prior to R 3.2.3 the `"wininet"` method used active mode: since it first tries passive and then active.

Note

Files of more than 2GB are supported on 64-bit builds of R; they may be truncated on some 32-bit builds.

Method `"wget"` is mainly for historical compatibility, but it and `"curl"` can be used for URLs (e.g., `'https://'` URLs or those that use cookies or redirection) which the internal method does not support and where the `"libcurl"` method is not available.

Method `"wget"` can be used with proxy firewalls which require user/password authentication if proper values are stored in the configuration file for `wget`.

`wget` (<http://www.gnu.org/software/wget/>) is commonly installed on Unix-alikes (but not OS X). Windows binaries are available from Cygwin, gnuwin32 and elsewhere.

`curl` (<http://curl.haxx.se/>) is installed on OS X and commonly on Unix-alikes. Windows binaries are available at that URL.

See Also

[options](#) to set the `HTTPUserAgent`, `timeout` and `internet.info` options used by some of the methods.

[url](#) for a finer-grained way to read data from URLs.

[url.show](#), [available.packages](#), [download.packages](#) for applications.

Contributed package **RCurl** provides more comprehensive facilities to download from URLs.

download.packages	<i>Download Packages from CRAN-like Repositories</i>
-------------------	--

Description

These functions can be used to automatically compare the version numbers of installed packages with the newest available version on the repositories and update outdated packages on the fly.

Usage

```
download.packages(pkgs, destdir, available = NULL,
                  repos = getOption("repos"),
                  contriburl = contrib.url(repos, type),
                  method, type = getOption("pkgType"), ...)
```

Arguments

pkgs	character vector of the names of packages whose latest available versions should be downloaded from the repositories.
destdir	directory where downloaded packages are to be stored.
available	an object as returned by available.packages listing packages available at the repositories, or NULL which makes an internal call to available.packages .
repos	character vector, the base URL(s) of the repositories to use, i.e., the URL of the CRAN master such as "https://cran.r-project.org" or its Statlib mirror, "http://lib.stat.cmu.edu/R/CRAN".
contriburl	URL(s) of the contrib sections of the repositories. Use this argument only if your repository mirror is incomplete, e.g., because you burned only the 'contrib' section on a CD. Overrides argument repos.
method	Download method, see download.file .
type	character string, indicate which type of packages: see install.packages .
...	additional arguments to be passed to download.file .

Details

`download.packages` takes a list of package names and a destination directory, downloads the newest versions and saves them in `destdir`. If the list of available packages is not given as argument, it is obtained from repositories. If a repository is local, i.e. the URL starts with "file:", then the packages are not downloaded but used directly. Both "file:" and "file:/" are allowed as prefixes to a file path. Use the latter only for URLs: see [url](#) for their interpretation. (Other forms of 'file:/' URLs are not supported.)

Value

A two-column matrix of names and destination file names of those packages successfully downloaded. If packages are not available or there is a problem with the download, suitable warnings are given.

See Also

[available.packages](#), [contrib.url](#).

The main use is by [install.packages](#).

See [download.file](#) for how to handle proxies and other options to monitor file transfers.

The ‘R Installation and Administration’ manual for how to set up a repository.

edit

Invoke a Text Editor

Description

Invoke a text editor on an R object.

Usage

```
## Default S3 method:
edit(name = NULL, file = "", title = NULL,
      editor = getOption("editor"), ...)

vi(name = NULL, file = "")
emacs(name = NULL, file = "")
pico(name = NULL, file = "")
xemacs(name = NULL, file = "")
xedit(name = NULL, file = "")
```

Arguments

name	a named object that you want to edit. If name is missing then the file specified by file is opened for editing.
file	a string naming the file to write the edited version to.
title	a display name for the object being edited.
editor	usually a string naming the text editor you want to use. On Unix the default is set from the environment variables EDITOR or VISUAL if either is set, otherwise vi is used. On Windows it defaults to "internal", the script editor. On the OS X GUI the argument is ignored and the document editor is always used. editor can also be a function, in which case it is called with the arguments name, file, and title. Note that such a function will need to independently implement all desired functionality.
...	further arguments to be passed to or from methods.

Details

`edit` invokes the text editor specified by `editor` with the object name to be edited. It is a generic function, currently with a default method and one for data frames and matrices.

`data.entry` can be used to edit data, and is used by `edit` to edit matrices and data frames on systems for which `data.entry` is available.

It is important to realize that `edit` does not change the object called `name`. Instead, a copy of `name` is made and it is that copy which is changed. Should you want the changes to apply to the object `name` you must assign the result of `edit` to `name`. (Try [fix](#) if you want to make permanent changes to an object.)

In the form `edit(name)`, `edit` deparses `name` into a temporary file and invokes the editor `editor` on this file. Quitting from the editor causes `file` to be parsed and that value returned. Should an error occur in parsing, possibly due to incorrect syntax, no value is returned. Calling `edit()`, with no arguments, will result in the temporary file being reopened for further editing.

Note that deparsing is not perfect, and the object recreated after editing can differ in subtle ways from that deparsed: see [dput](#) and [.deparseOpts](#). (The deparse options used are the same as the defaults for `dump`.) Editing a function will preserve its environment. See [edit.data.frame](#) for further changes that can occur when editing a data frame or matrix.

Currently only the internal editor in Windows makes use of the `title` option; it displays the given name in the window header.

Note

The functions `vi`, `emacs`, `pico`, `xemacs`, `xedit` rely on the corresponding editor being available and being on the path. This is system-dependent.

See Also

[edit.data.frame](#), [data.entry](#), [fix](#).

Examples

```
## Not run:
# use xedit on the function mean and assign the changes
mean <- edit(mean, editor = "xedit")

# use vi on mean and write the result to file mean.out
vi(mean, file = "mean.out")

## End(Not run)
```

`edit.data.frame`

Edit Data Frames and Matrices

Description

Use data editor on data frame or matrix contents.

Usage

```
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
edit(name, factor.mode = c("character", "numeric"),
      edit.row.names = any(row.names(name) != 1:nrow(name)), ...)

## S3 method for class 'matrix'
edit(name, edit.row.names = !is.null(dn[[1]]), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>name</code>	A data frame or (numeric, logical or character) matrix.
<code>factor.mode</code>	How to handle factors (as integers or using character levels) in a data frame. Can be abbreviated.
<code>edit.row.names</code>	logical. Show the row names (if they exist) be displayed as a separate editable column? It is an error to ask for this on a matrix with NULL row names.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

At present, this only works on simple data frames containing numeric, logical or character vectors and factors, and numeric, logical or character matrices. Any other mode of matrix will give an error, and a warning is given when the matrix has a class (which will be discarded).

Data frame columns are coerced on input to *character* unless numeric (in the sense of `is.numeric`), logical or factor. A warning is given when classes are discarded. Special characters (tabs, non-printing ASCII, etc.) will be displayed as escape sequences.

Factors columns are represented in the spreadsheet as either numeric vectors (which are more suitable for data entry) or character vectors (better for browsing). After editing, vectors are padded with NA to have the same length and factor attributes are restored. The set of factor levels can not be changed by editing in numeric mode; invalid levels are changed to NA and a warning is issued. If new factor levels are introduced in character mode, they are added at the end of the list of levels in the order in which they encountered.

It is possible to use the data-editor's facilities to select the mode of columns to swap between numerical and factor columns in a data frame. Changing any column in a numerical matrix to character will cause the result to be coerced to a character matrix. Changing the mode of logical columns is not supported.

For a data frame, the row names will be taken from the original object if `edit.row.names = FALSE` and the number of rows is unchanged, and from the edited output if `edit.row.names = TRUE` and there are no duplicates. (If the `row.names` column is incomplete, it is extended by entries like `row223`.) In all other cases the row names are replaced by `seq(length = nrow)`.

For a matrix, `colnames` will be added (of the form `col17`) if needed. The `rownames` will be taken from the original object if `edit.row.names = FALSE` and the number of rows is unchanged (otherwise NULL), and from the edited output if `edit.row.names = TRUE`. (If the `row.names` column is incomplete, it is extended by entries like `row223`.)

Editing a matrix or data frame will lose all attributes apart from the row and column names.

Value

The edited data frame or matrix.

Note

`fix(dataframe)` works for in-place editing by calling this function.

If the data editor is not available, a dump of the object is presented for editing using the default method of `edit`.

At present the data editor is limited to 65535 rows.

Author(s)

Peter Dalgaard

See Also

[data.entry](#), [edit](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:
edit(InsectSprays)
edit(InsectSprays, factor.mode = "numeric")

## End(Not run)
```

example

Run an Examples Section from the Online Help

Description

Run all the R code from the **Examples** part of R's online help topic with possible exceptions `dontrun`, `dontshow`, and `donttest`, see 'Details' below.

Usage

```
example(topic, package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL,
        character.only = FALSE, give.lines = FALSE, local = FALSE,
        echo = TRUE, verbose = getOption("verbose"),
        setRNG = FALSE, ask = getOption("example.ask"),
        prompt.prefix = abbreviate(topic, 6),
        run.dontrun = FALSE, run.donttest = interactive())
```

Arguments

<code>topic</code>	name or literal character string: the online help topic the examples of which should be run.
<code>package</code>	a character vector giving the package names to look into for the topic, or <code>NULL</code> (the default), when all packages on the search path are used.
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or <code>NULL</code> . The default value of <code>NULL</code> corresponds to all libraries currently known. If the default is used, the loaded packages are searched before the libraries.
<code>character.only</code>	a logical indicating whether <code>topic</code> can be assumed to be a character string.
<code>give.lines</code>	logical: if true, the <i>lines</i> of the example source code are returned as a character vector.
<code>local</code>	logical: if <code>TRUE</code> evaluate locally, if <code>FALSE</code> evaluate in the workspace.
<code>echo</code>	logical; if <code>TRUE</code> , show the R input when sourcing.
<code>verbose</code>	logical; if <code>TRUE</code> , show even more when running example code.
<code>setRNG</code>	logical or expression; if not <code>FALSE</code> , the random number generator state is saved, then initialized to a specified state, the example is run and the (saved) state is restored. <code>setRNG = TRUE</code> sets the same state as R CMD check does for running a package's examples. This is currently equivalent to <code>setRNG = {RNGkind("default", "default"); set.seed(1)}</code> .
<code>ask</code>	logical (or "default") indicating if devAskNewPage (<code>ask = TRUE</code>) should be called before graphical output happens from the example code. The value "default" (the factory-fresh default) means to ask if <code>echo == TRUE</code> and the graphics device appears to be interactive. This parameter applies both to any currently opened device and to any devices opened by the example code.
<code>prompt.prefix</code>	character; prefixes the prompt to be used if <code>echo = TRUE</code> .
<code>run.dontrun</code>	logical indicating that <code>\dontrun</code> should be ignored.
<code>run.donttest</code>	logical indicating that <code>\donttest</code> should be ignored.

Details

If `lib.loc` is not specified, the packages are searched for amongst those already loaded, then in the libraries given by `.libPaths()`. If `lib.loc` is specified, packages are searched for only in the specified libraries, even if they are already loaded from another library. The search stops at the first package found that has help on the topic.

An attempt is made to load the package before running the examples, but this will not replace a package loaded from another location.

If `local = TRUE` objects are not created in the workspace and so not available for examination after example completes: on the other hand they cannot overwrite objects of the same name in the workspace.

As detailed in the manual *Writing R Extensions*, the author of the help page can markup parts of the examples for exception rules

`dontrun` encloses code that should not be run.

`dontshow` encloses code that is invisible on help pages, but will be run both by the package checking tools, and the `example()` function. This was previously `testonly`, and that form is still accepted.

`donttest` encloses code that typically should be run, but not during package checking. The default `run.donttest = interactive()` leads `example()` use in other help page examples to skip `\donttest` sections appropriately.

Value

The value of the last evaluated expression, unless `give.lines` is true, where a [character](#) vector is returned.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler and others

See Also

[demo](#)

Examples

```
example(InsectSprays)
## force use of the standard package 'stats':
example("smooth", package = "stats", lib.loc = .Library)

## set RNG *before* example as when R CMD check is run:

r1 <- example(quantile, setRNG = TRUE)
x1 <- rnorm(1)
u <- runif(1)
## identical random numbers
r2 <- example(quantile, setRNG = TRUE)
x2 <- rnorm(1)
stopifnot(identical(r1, r2))
## but x1 and x2 differ since the RNG state from before example()
## differs and is restored!
x1; x2

## Exploring examples code:
## How large are the examples of "lm..()" functions?
lmex <- sapply(apropos("^lm", mode = "function"),
              example, character.only = TRUE, give.lines = TRUE)
sapply(lmex, length)
```

file.edit*Edit One or More Files*

Description

Edit one or more files in a text editor.

Usage

```
file.edit(..., title = file, editor = getOption("editor"),
          fileEncoding = "")
```

Arguments

...	one or more character vectors containing the names of the files to be displayed. These will be tilde-expanded: see path.expand .
title	the title to use in the editor; defaults to the filename.
editor	the text editor to be used. See ‘Details’.
fileEncoding	the encoding to assume for the file: the default is to assume the native encoding. See the ‘Encoding’ section of the help for file .

Details

The behaviour of this function is very system dependent. Currently files can be opened only one at a time on Unix; on Windows, the internal editor allows multiple files to be opened, but has a limit of 50 simultaneous edit windows.

The title argument is used for the window caption in Windows, and is currently ignored on other platforms.

Any error in re-encoding the files to the native encoding will cause the function to fail.

The default for editor is system-dependent. On Windows it defaults to "internal", the script editor, and in the OS X GUI the document editor is used whatever the value of editor. On Unix the default is set from the environment variables EDITOR or VISUAL if either is set, otherwise vi is used.

See Also

[files](#), [file.show](#), [edit](#), [fix](#),

Examples

```
## Not run:
# open two R scripts for editing
file.edit("script1.R", "script2.R")

## End(Not run)
```

file_testShell-style Tests on Files

Description

Utility for shell-style file tests.

Usage

```
file_test(op, x, y)
```

Arguments

op	a character string specifying the test to be performed. Unary tests (only x is used) are "-f" (existence and not being a directory), "-d" (existence and directory) and "-x" (executable as a file or searchable as a directory). Binary tests are "-nt" (strictly newer than, using the modification dates) and "-ot" (strictly older than): in both cases the test is false unless both files exist.
x, y	character vectors giving file paths.

Details

'Existence' here means being on the file system and accessible by the stat system call (or a 64-bit extension) – on a Unix-like this requires execute permission on all of the directories in the path that leads to the file, but no permissions on the file itself.

For the meaning of "-x" on Windows see [file.access](#).

See Also

[file.exists](#) which only tests for existence (test -e on some systems) but not for not being a directory.

[file.path](#), [file.info](#)

Examples

```
dir <- file.path(R.home(), "library", "stats")
file_test("-d", dir)
file_test("-nt", file.path(dir, "R"), file.path(dir, "demo"))
```

findLineNum	<i>Find the Location of a Line of Source Code, or Set a Breakpoint There.</i>
-------------	---

Description

These functions locate objects containing particular lines of source code, using the information saved when the code was parsed with `keep.source = TRUE`.

Usage

```
findLineNum(srcfile, line, nameonly = TRUE,
            envir = parent.frame(), lastenv)

setBreakpoint(srcfile, line, nameonly = TRUE,
              envir = parent.frame(), lastenv, verbose = TRUE,
              tracer, print = FALSE, clear = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

srcfile	The name of the file containing the source code.
line	The line number within the file. See Details for an alternate way to specify this.
nameonly	If TRUE (the default), we require only a match to <code>basename(srcfile)</code> , not to the full path.
envir	Where do we start looking for function objects?
lastenv	Where do we stop? See the Details.
verbose	Should we print information on where breakpoints were set?
tracer	An optional tracer function to pass to trace . By default, a call to browser is inserted.
print	The print argument to pass to trace .
clear	If TRUE, call untrace rather than trace .
...	Additional arguments to pass to trace .

Details

The `findLineNum` function searches through all objects in environment `envir`, its parent, grandparent, etc., all the way back to `lastenv`.

`lastenv` defaults to the global environment if `envir` is not specified, and to the root environment [emptyenv\(\)](#) if `envir` is specified. (The first default tends to be quite fast, and will usually find all user code other than S4 methods; the second one is quite slow, as it will typically search all attached system libraries.)

For convenience, `envir` may be specified indirectly: if it is not an environment, it will be replaced with `environment(envir)`.

`setBreakpoint` is a simple wrapper function for [trace](#) and [untrace](#). It will set or clear breakpoints at the locations found by `findLineNum`.

The `srcfile` is normally a filename entered as a character string, but it may be a "`srcfile`" object, or it may include a suffix like "`filename.R#nn`", in which case the number `nn` will be used as a default value for `line`.

As described in the description of the `where` argument on the man page for `trace`, the R package system uses a complicated scheme that may include more than one copy of a function in a package. The user will typically see the public one on the search path, while code in the package will see a private one in the package namespace. If you set `envir` to the environment of a function in the package, by default `findLineNum` will find both versions, and `setBreakpoint` will set the breakpoint in both. (This can be controlled using `lastenv`; e.g., `envir = environment(foo)`, `lastenv = globalenv()` will find only the private copy, as the search is stopped before seeing the public copy.)

S version 4 methods are also somewhat tricky to find. They are stored with the generic function, which may be in the **base** or other package, so it is usually necessary to have `lastenv = emptyenv()` in order to find them. In some cases transformations are done by R when storing them and `findLineNum` may not be able to find the original code. Many special cases, e.g. methods on primitive generics, are not yet supported.

Value

`findLineNum` returns a list of objects containing location information. A print method is defined for them.

`setBreakpoint` has no useful return value; it is called for the side effect of calling `trace` or `untrace`.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

See Also

`trace`

Examples

```
## Not run:
# Find what function was defined in the file mysource.R at line 100:
findLineNum("mysource.R#100")

# Set a breakpoint in both copies of that function, assuming one is in the
# same namespace as myfunction and the other is on the search path
setBreakpoint("mysource.R#100", envir = myfunction)

## End(Not run)
```

fix*Fix an Object*

Description

`fix` invokes [edit](#) on `x` and then assigns the new (edited) version of `x` in the user's workspace.

Usage

```
fix(x, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	the name of an R object, as a name or a character string.
<code>...</code>	arguments to pass to editor: see edit .

Details

The name supplied as `x` need not exist as an R object, in which case a function with no arguments and an empty body is supplied for editing.

Editing an R object may change it in ways other than are obvious: see the comment under [edit](#). See [edit.data.frame](#) for changes that can occur when editing a data frame or matrix.

See Also

[edit](#), [edit.data.frame](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Assume 'my.fun' is a user defined function :
fix(my.fun)
## now my.fun is changed
## Also,
fix(my.data.frame) # calls up data editor
fix(my.data.frame, factor.mode="char") # use of ...

## End(Not run)
```

flush.console	<i>Flush Output to A Console</i>
---------------	----------------------------------

Description

This does nothing except on console-based versions of R. On the OS X and Windows GUIs, it ensures that the display of output in the console is current, even if output buffering is on.

Usage

```
flush.console()
```

format	<i>Format Unordered and Ordered Lists</i>
--------	---

Description

Format unordered (itemize) and ordered (enumerate) lists.

Usage

```
formatUL(x, label = "*", offset = 0,
         width = 0.9 * getOption("width"))
formatOL(x, type = "arabic", offset = 0, start = 1,
         width = 0.9 * getOption("width"))
```

Arguments

x	a character vector of list items.
label	a character string used for labelling the items.
offset	a non-negative integer giving the offset (indentation) of the list.
width	a positive integer giving the target column for wrapping lines in the output.
type	a character string specifying the ‘type’ of the labels in the ordered list. If "arabic" (default), arabic numerals are used. For "Alph" or "alph", single upper or lower case letters are employed (in this case, the number of the last item must not exceed 26. Finally, for "Roman" or "roman", the labels are given as upper or lower case roman numerals (with the number of the last item maximally 3899). type can be given as a unique abbreviation of the above, or as one of the HTML style tokens "1" (arabic), "A"/"a" (alphabetic), or "I"/"i" (roman), respectively.
start	a positive integer specifying the starting number of the first item in an ordered list.

Value

A character vector with the formatted entries.

See Also

[formatDL](#) for formatting description lists.

Examples

```
## A simpler recipe.
x <- c("Mix dry ingredients thoroughly.",
      "Pour in wet ingredients.",
      "Mix for 10 minutes.",
      "Bake for one hour at 300 degrees.")
## Format and output as an unordered list.
writeLines(formatUL(x))
## Format and output as an ordered list.
writeLines(formatOL(x))
## Ordered list using lower case roman numerals.
writeLines(formatOL(x, type = "i"))
## Ordered list using upper case letters and some offset.
writeLines(formatOL(x, type = "A", offset = 5))
```

getAnywhere

Retrieve an R Object, Including from a Namespace

Description

These functions locate all objects with name matching their argument, whether visible on the search path, registered as an S3 method or in a namespace but not exported. `getAnywhere()` returns the objects and `argsAnywhere()` returns the arguments of any objects that are functions.

Usage

```
getAnywhere(x)
argsAnywhere(x)
```

Arguments

`x` a character string or name.

Details

These functions look at all loaded namespaces, whether or not they are associated with a package on the search list.

They do not search literally “anywhere”: for example, local evaluation frames and namespaces that are not loaded will not be searched.

Where functions are found as registered S3 methods, an attempt is made to find which namespace registered them. This may not be correct, especially if namespaces have been unloaded.

Value

For `getAnywhere()` an object of class "getAnywhere". This is a list with components

<code>name</code>	the name searched for
<code>objs</code>	a list of objects found
<code>where</code>	a character vector explaining where the object(s) were found
<code>visible</code>	logical: is the object visible
<code>dups</code>	logical: is the object identical to one earlier in the list.

In computing whether objects are identical, their environments are ignored.

Normally the structure will be hidden by the `print` method. There is a `[` method to extract one or more of the objects found.

For `argsAnywhere()` one or more argument lists as returned by [args](#).

See Also

[getS3method](#) to find the method which would be used: this might not be the one of those returned by `getAnywhere` since it might have come from a namespace which was unloaded or be registered under another name.

[get](#), [getFromNamespace](#), [args](#)

Examples

```
getAnywhere("format.dist")
getAnywhere("simpleLoess") # not exported from stats
argsAnywhere(format.dist)
```

<code>getFromNamespace</code>	<i>Utility functions for Developing Namespaces</i>
-------------------------------	--

Description

Utility functions to access and replace the non-exported functions in a namespace, for use in developing packages with namespaces.

They should not be used in production code (except perhaps `assignInMyNamespace`, but see the 'Note').

Usage

```
getFromNamespace(x, ns, pos = -1, envir = as.environment(pos))

assignInNamespace(x, value, ns, pos = -1,
                  envir = as.environment(pos))

assignInMyNamespace(x, value)

fixInNamespace(x, ns, pos = -1, envir = as.environment(pos), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	an object name (given as a character string).
<code>value</code>	an R object.
<code>ns</code>	a namespace, or character string giving the namespace.
<code>pos</code>	where to look for the object: see get .
<code>envir</code>	an alternative way to specify an environment to look in.
<code>...</code>	arguments to pass to the editor: see edit .

Details

`assignInMyNamespace` is intended to be called from functions within a package, and chooses the namespace as the environment of the function calling it.

The namespace can be specified in several ways. Using, for example, `ns = "stats"` is the most direct, but a loaded package can be specified via any of the methods used for [get](#): `ns` can also be the environment printed as `<namespace:foo>`.

`getFromNamespace` is similar to (but predates) the `:::` operator: it is more flexible in how the namespace is specified.

`fixInNamespace` invokes [edit](#) on the object named `x` and assigns the revised object in place of the original object. For compatibility with `fix`, `x` can be unquoted.

Value

`getFromNamespace` returns the object found (or gives an error).

`assignInNamespace`, `assignInMyNamespace` and `fixInNamespace` are invoked for their side effect of changing the object in the namespace.

Warning

`assignInNamespace` should not be used in final code, and will in future throw an error if called from a package. Already certain uses are disallowed.

Note

`assignInNamespace`, `assignInMyNamespace` and `fixInNamespace` change the copy in the namespace, but not any copies already exported from the namespace, in particular an object of that name in the package (if already attached) and any copies already imported into other namespaces. They are really intended to be used *only* for objects which are not exported from the namespace. They do attempt to alter a copy registered as an S3 method if one is found.

They can only be used to change the values of objects in the namespace, not to create new objects.

See Also

[get](#), [fix](#), [getS3method](#)

Examples

```
getFromNamespace("findGeneric", "utils")
## Not run:
fixInNamespace("predict.ppr", "stats")
stats::predict.ppr
getS3method("predict", "ppr")
## alternatively
fixInNamespace("predict.ppr", pos = 3)
fixInNamespace("predict.ppr", pos = "package:stats")

## End(Not run)
```

getParseData	<i>Get detailed parse information from object.</i>
--------------	--

Description

If the "keep.source" option is TRUE, R's parser will attach detailed information on the object it has parsed. These functions retrieve that information.

Usage

```
getParseData(x, includeText = NA)
getParseText(parseData, id)
```

Arguments

x	an expression returned from parse , or a function or other object with source reference information
includeText	logical; whether to include the text of parsed items in the result
parseData	a data frame returned from <code>getParseData</code>
id	a vector of item identifiers whose text is to be retrieved

Details

In version 3.0.0, the R parser was modified to include code written by Romain Francois in his **parser** package. This constructs a detailed table of information about every token and higher level construct in parsed code. This table is stored in the [srcfile](#) record associated with source references in the parsed code, and retrieved by the `getParseData` function.

Value

For `getParseData`:

If parse data is not present, NULL. Otherwise a data frame is returned, containing the following columns:

line1	integer. The line number where the item starts. This is the parsed line number called "parse" in getSrcLocation , which ignores #line directives.
-------	---

col1	integer. The column number where the item starts. The first character is column 1. This corresponds to "column" in getSrcLocation .
line2	integer. The line number where the item ends.
col2	integer. The column number where the item ends.
id	integer. An identifier associated with this item.
parent	integer. The id of the parent of this item.
token	character string. The type of the token.
terminal	logical. Whether the token is "terminal", i.e. a leaf in the parse tree.
text	character string. If includeText is TRUE, the text of all tokens; if it is NA (the default), the text of terminal tokens. If includeText == FALSE, this column is not included. Very long strings (with source of 1000 characters or more) will not be stored; a message giving their length and delimiter will be included instead.

The rownames of the data frame will be equal to the id values, and the data frame will have a "srcfile" attribute containing the [srcfile](#) record which was used. The rows will be ordered by starting position within the source file, with parent items occurring before their children.

For getParseText:

A character vector of the same length as id containing the associated text items. If they are not included in parseData, they will be retrieved from the original file.

Note

There are a number of differences in the results returned by getParseData relative to those in the original **parser** code:

- Fewer columns are kept.
- The internal token number is not returned.
- col1 starts counting at 1, not 0.
- The id values are not attached to the elements of the parse tree, they are only retained in the table returned by getParseData.
- #line directives are identified, but other comment markup (e.g., **roxygen** comments) are not.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

References

Romain Francois (2012). parser: Detailed R source code parser. R package version 0.0-16. <https://github.com/halpo/parser>.

See Also

[parse](#), [srcref](#)

Examples

```
fn <- function(x) {
  x + 1 # A comment, kept as part of the source
}

d <- getParseData(fn)
if (!is.null(d)) {
  plus <- which(d$token == "'+'")
  sum <- d$parent[plus]
  print(d[as.character(sum),])
  print(getParseText(d, sum))
}
```

getS3method

*Get An S3 Method***Description**

Get a method for an S3 generic, possibly from a namespace or the generic's registry.

Usage

```
getS3method(f, class, optional = FALSE)
```

Arguments

f	character: name of the generic.
class	character: name of the class.
optional	logical: should failure to find the generic or a method be allowed?

Details

S3 methods may be hidden in namespaces, and will not then be found by [get](#): this function can retrieve such functions, primarily for debugging purposes.

Further, S3 methods can be registered on the generic when a namespace is loaded, and the registered method will be used if none is visible (using namespace scoping rules).

It is possible that which S3 method will be used may depend on where the generic f is called from: getS3method returns the method found if f were called from the same environment.

Value

The function found, or NULL if no function is found and optional = TRUE.

See Also

[methods](#), [get](#), [getAnywhere](#)

Examples

```
require(stats)
exists("predict.ppr") # false
getS3method("predict", "ppr")
```

glob2rx*Change Wildcard or Globbing Pattern into Regular Expression*

Description

Change *wildcard* aka *globbing* patterns into the corresponding regular expressions ([regex](#)).

Usage

```
glob2rx(pattern, trim.head = FALSE, trim.tail = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>pattern</code>	character vector
<code>trim.head</code>	logical specifying if leading " <code>^.*</code> " should be trimmed from the result.
<code>trim.tail</code>	logical specifying if trailing " <code>.*\$</code> " should be trimmed from the result.

Details

This takes a wildcard as used by most shells and returns an equivalent regular expression. `?` is mapped to `.` (match a single character), `*` to `.*` (match any string, including an empty one), and the pattern is anchored (it must start at the beginning and end at the end). Optionally, the resulting regexp is simplified.

Note that now even `(`, `[` and `{` can be used in pattern, but `glob2rx()` may not work correctly with arbitrary characters in pattern.

Value

A character vector of the same length as the input `pattern` where each wildcard is translated to the corresponding regular expression.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler, Unix/sed based version, 1991; current: 2004

See Also

[regex](#) about regular expression, [sub](#), etc about substitutions using regexps.

Examples

```
stopifnot(glob2rx("abc.*") == "^abc\\.\"",
  glob2rx("a?b.*") == "^a.b\\.\"",
  glob2rx("a?b.*", trim.tail = FALSE) == "^a.b\\.\\.*$\"",
  glob2rx("*.doc") == "^.*\\.doc$",
  glob2rx("*.doc", trim.head = TRUE) == "\\\\.doc$",
  glob2rx("*.t*") == "^.*\\.t\"",
  glob2rx("*.t??") == "^.*\\.t\\.\\.*$\"",
  glob2rx("[*]") == "^.*\\[\"")
)
```

globalVariables	<i>Declarations Used in Checking a Package</i>
-----------------	--

Description

For `globalVariables`, the names supplied are of functions or other objects that should be regarded as defined globally when the check tool is applied to this package. The call to `globalVariables` will be included in the package’s source. Repeated calls in the same package accumulate the names of the global variables.

Typical examples are the fields and methods in reference classes, which appear to be global objects to codetools. (This case is handled automatically by `setRefClass()` and friends, using the supplied field and method names.)

For `suppressForeignCheck`, the names supplied are of variables used as `.NAME` in foreign function calls which should not be checked by `checkFF(registration = TRUE)`. Without this declaration, expressions other than simple character strings are assumed to evaluate to registered native symbol objects. The type of call (`.Call`, `.External`, etc.) and argument counts will be checked. With this declaration, checks on those names will usually be suppressed. (If the code uses an expression that should only be evaluated at runtime, the message can be suppressed by wrapping it in a `dontCheck` function call, or by saving it to a local variable, and suppressing messages about that variable. See the example below.)

Usage

```
globalVariables(names, package, add = TRUE)
suppressForeignCheck(names, package, add = TRUE)
```

Arguments

names	The character vector of object names. If omitted, the current list of global variables declared in the package will be returned, unchanged.
package	The relevant package, usually the character string name of the package but optionally its corresponding namespace environment. When the call to <code>globalVariables</code> or <code>suppressForeignCheck</code> comes in the package’s source file, the argument is normally omitted, as in the example below.
add	Should the contents of names be added to the current global variables or replace it?

Details

The lists of declared global variables and native symbol objects are stored in a metadata object in the package's namespace, assuming the `globalVariables` or `suppressForeignCheck` call(s) occur as top-level calls in the package's source code.

The `check` command, as implemented in `package tools`, queries the list before checking the R source code in the package for possible problems.

`globalVariables` was introduced in R 2.15.1 and `suppressForeignCheck` was introduced in R 3.1.0 so both should be used conditionally: see the example.

Value

`globalVariables` returns the current list of declared global variables, possibly modified by this call.

`suppressForeignCheck` returns the current list of native symbol objects which are not to be checked.

Note

The global variables list really belongs to a restricted scope (a function or a group of method definitions, for example) rather than the package as a whole. However, implementing finer control would require changes in `check` and/or in `codetools`, so in this version the information is stored at the package level.

Author(s)

John Chambers and Duncan Murdoch

See Also

`dontCheck`.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## assume your package has some code that assigns ".obj1" and ".obj2"
## but not in a way that codetools can find.
## In the same source file (to remind you that you did it) add:
if(getRversion() >= "2.15.1") utils::globalVariables(c(".obj1", ".obj2"))

## To suppress messages about a run-time calculated native symbol,
## save it to a local variable.

## At top level, put this:
if(getRversion() >= "3.1.0") utils::suppressForeignCheck("localvariable")

## Within your function, do the call like this:
localvariable <- if (condition) entry1 else entry2
.Call(localvariable, 1, 2, 3)
```



```
## Alternatively, like this:
if(getRversion() < "3.1.0") dontCheck <- identity
.Call(dontCheck(if (condition) entry1 else entry2), 1, 2, 3)

## HOWEVER, it is much better practice to write code
## that can be checked thoroughly, e.g.
if(condition) .Call(entry1, 1, 2, 3) else .Call(entry2, 1, 2, 3)

## End(Not run)
```

head

Return the First or Last Part of an Object

Description

Returns the first or last parts of a vector, matrix, table, data frame or function. Since `head()` and `tail()` are generic functions, they may also have been extended to other classes.

Usage

```
head(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
head(x, n = 6L, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
head(x, n = 6L, ...)
## S3 method for class 'matrix'
head(x, n = 6L, ...)
## S3 method for class 'ftable'
head(x, n = 6L, ...)
## S3 method for class 'table'
head(x, n = 6L, ...)
## S3 method for class 'function'
head(x, n = 6L, ...)

tail(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
tail(x, n = 6L, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
tail(x, n = 6L, ...)
## S3 method for class 'matrix'
tail(x, n = 6L, addrownums = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'ftable'
tail(x, n = 6L, addrownums = FALSE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'table'
tail(x, n = 6L, addrownums = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'function'
tail(x, n = 6L, ...)
```

Arguments

x	an object
n	a single integer. If positive, size for the resulting object: number of elements for a vector (including lists), rows for a matrix or data frame or lines for a function. If negative, all but the n last/first number of elements of x.
addrownums	if there are no row names, create them from the row numbers.
...	arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

For matrices, 2-dim tables and data frames, `head()` (`tail()`) returns the first (last) `n` rows when `n > 0` or all but the last (first) `n` rows when `n < 0`. `head.matrix()` and `tail.matrix()` are exported. For functions, the lines of the deparsed function are returned as character strings.

If a matrix has no row names, then `tail()` will add row names of the form "[n,]" to the result, so that it looks similar to the last lines of `x` when printed. Setting `addrownums = FALSE` suppresses this behaviour.

Value

An object (usually) like `x` but generally smaller. For `fable` objects `x`, a transformed `format(x)`.

Author(s)

Patrick Burns, improved and corrected by R-Core. Negative argument added by Vincent Goulet.

Examples

```
head(letters)
head(letters, n = -6L)

head(freeny.x, n = 10L)
head(freeny.y)

tail(letters)
tail(letters, n = -6L)

tail(freeny.x)
tail(freeny.y)

tail(library)

head(stats::fable(Titanic))
```

help

*Documentation***Description**

help is the primary interface to the help systems.

Usage

```
help(topic, package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL,
      verbose = getOption("verbose"),
      try.all.packages = getOption("help.try.all.packages"),
      help_type = getOption("help_type"))
```

Arguments

topic	usually, a name or character string specifying the topic for which help is sought. A character string (enclosed in explicit single or double quotes) is always taken as naming a topic. If the value of topic is a length-one character vector the topic is taken to be the value of the only element. Otherwise topic must be a name or a reserved word (if syntactically valid) or character string. See ‘Details’ for what happens if this is omitted.
package	a name or character vector giving the packages to look into for documentation, or NULL. By default, all packages whose namespaces are loaded are used. To avoid a name being deparsed use e.g. (pkg_ref) (see the examples).
lib.loc	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. If the default is used, the loaded packages are searched before the libraries. This is not used for HTML help (see ‘Details’).
verbose	logical; if TRUE, the file name is reported.
try.all.packages	logical; see Note.
help_type	character string: the type of help required. Possible values are "text", "html" and "pdf". Case is ignored, and partial matching is allowed.

Details

The following types of help are available:

- Plain text help
- HTML help pages with hyperlinks to other topics, shown in a browser by [browseURL](#). (Where possible an existing browser window is re-used: the OS X GUI uses its own browser window.) If for some reason HTML help is unavailable (see [startDynamicHelp](#)), plain text help will be used instead.

- For help only, typeset as PDF – see the section on ‘Offline help’.

The ‘factory-fresh’ default is text help except from the OS X GUI, which uses HTML help displayed in its own browser window.

The rendering of text help will use directional quotes in suitable locales (UTF-8 and single-byte Windows locales): sometimes the fonts used do not support these quotes so this can be turned off by setting `options(useFancyQuotes = FALSE)`.

topic is not optional: if it is omitted R will give

- If a package is specified, (text or, in interactive use only, HTML) information on the package, including hints/links to suitable help topics.
- If `lib.loc` only is specified, a (text) list of available packages.
- Help on help itself if none of the first three arguments is specified.

Some topics need to be quoted (by `backticks`) or given as a character string. These include those which cannot syntactically appear on their own such as unary and binary operators, function and control-flow `reserved` words (including `if`, `else`, `for`, `in`, `repeat`, `while`, `break` and `next`). The other reserved words can be used as if they were names, for example `TRUE`, `NA` and `Inf`.

If multiple help files matching `topic` are found, in interactive use a menu is presented for the user to choose one: in batch use the first on the search path is used. (For HTML help the menu will be an HTML page, otherwise a graphical menu if possible if `getOption("menu.graphics")` is true, the default.)

Note that HTML help does not make use of `lib.loc`: it will always look first in the loaded packages and then along `.libPaths()`.

Offline help

Typeset documentation is produced by running the LaTeX version of the help page through `pdflatex`: this will produce a PDF file.

The appearance of the output can be customized through a file ‘`Rhelp.cfg`’ somewhere in your LaTeX search path: this will be input as a LaTeX style file after `Rd.sty`. Some `environment variables` are consulted, notably `R_PAPERSIZE` (via `getOption("papersize")`) and `R_RD4PDF` (see ‘Making manuals’ in the ‘R Installation and Administration Manual’).

If there is a function `offline_help_helper` in the workspace or further down the search path it is used to do the typesetting, otherwise the function of that name in the `utils` namespace (to which the first paragraph applies). It should accept at least two arguments, the name of the LaTeX file to be typeset and the type (which is nowadays ignored). It accepts a third argument, `texinputs`, which will give the graphics path when the help document contains figures, and will otherwise not be supplied.

Note

Unless `lib.loc` is specified explicitly, the loaded packages are searched before those in the specified libraries. This ensures that if a library is loaded from a library not in the known library trees, then the help from the loaded library is used. If `lib.loc` is specified explicitly, the loaded packages are *not* searched.

If this search fails and argument `try.all.packages` is `TRUE` and neither packages nor `lib.loc` is specified, then all the packages in the known library trees are searched for help on `topic` and

a list of (any) packages where help may be found is displayed (with hyperlinks for `help_type = "html"`). **NB:** searching all packages can be slow, especially the first time (caching of files by the OS can expedite subsequent searches dramatically).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`?` for shortcuts to help topics.

`help.search()` or `??` for finding help pages on a vague topic; `help.start()` which opens the HTML version of the R help pages; `library()` for listing available packages and the help objects they contain; `data()` for listing available data sets; `methods()`.

Use `prompt()` to get a prototype for writing help pages of your own package.

Examples

```
help()
help(help)           # the same

help(lapply)

help("for")          # or ?"for", but quotes/backticks are needed

try({# requires working TeX installation:
  help(dgamma, help_type = "pdf")
  ## -> nicely formatted pdf -- including math formula -- for help(dgamma):
  system2(getOption("pdfviewer"), "dgamma.pdf", wait = FALSE)
})

help(package = "splines") # get help even when package is not loaded

topi <- "women"
help(topi)

try(help("bs", try.all.packages = FALSE)) # reports not found (an error)
help("bs", try.all.packages = TRUE)       # reports can be found
                                           # in package 'splines'

## For programmatic use:
topic <- "family"; pkg_ref <- "stats"
help((topic), (pkg_ref))
```

help.request	<i>Send a Post to R-help</i>
--------------	------------------------------

Description

Prompts the user to check they have done all that is expected of them before sending a post to the R-help mailing list, provides a template for the post with session information included and optionally sends the email (on Unix systems).

Usage

```
help.request(subject = "",
             address = "r-help@R-project.org",
             file = "R.help.request", ...)
```

Arguments

subject	subject of the email. Please do not use single quotes (') in the subject! Post separate help requests for multiple queries.
address	recipient's email address.
file	filename to use (if needed) for setting up the email.
...	additional named arguments such as method and ccaddress to pass to create.post .

Details

This function is not intended to replace the posting guide. Please read the guide before posting to R-help or using this function (see <https://www.r-project.org/posting-guide.html>).

The help.request function:

- asks whether the user has consulted relevant resources, stopping and opening the relevant URL if a negative response is given.
- checks whether the current version of R is being used and whether the add-on packages are up-to-date, giving the option of updating where necessary.
- asks whether the user has prepared appropriate (minimal, reproducible, self-contained, commented) example code ready to paste into the post.

Once this checklist has been completed a template post is prepared including current session information, and passed to [create.post](#).

Value

Nothing useful.

Author(s)

Heather Turner, based on the then current code and help page of [bug.report\(\)](#).

See Also

The posting guide (<https://www.r-project.org/posting-guide.html>), also `sessionInfo()` from which you may add to the help request.

`create.post`.

help.search

Search the Help System

Description

Allows for searching the help system for documentation matching a given character string in the (file) name, alias, title, concept or keyword entries (or any combination thereof), using either [fuzzy matching](#) or [regular expression](#) matching. Names and titles of the matched help entries are displayed nicely formatted.

Vignette names, titles and keywords and demo names and titles may also be searched.

Usage

```
help.search(pattern, fields = c("alias", "concept", "title"),
            apropos, keyword, whatis, ignore.case = TRUE,
            package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL,
            help.db = getOption("help.db"),
            verbose = getOption("verbose"),
            rebuild = FALSE, agrep = NULL, use_UTF8 = FALSE,
            types = getOption("help.search.types"))
??pattern
field??pattern
```

Arguments

pattern	a character string to be matched in the specified fields. If this is given, the arguments apropos, keyword, and whatis are ignored.
fields	a character vector specifying the fields of the help database to be searched. The entries must be abbreviations of "name", "title", "alias", "concept", and "keyword", corresponding to the help page's (file) name, its title, the topics and concepts it provides documentation for, and the keywords it can be classified to. See below for details and how vignettes and demos are searched.
apropos	a character string to be matched in the help page topics and title.
keyword	a character string to be matched in the help page 'keywords'. 'Keywords' are really categories: the standard categories are listed in file 'R.home("doc")/KEYWORDS' (see also the example) and some package writers have defined their own. If keyword is specified, agrep defaults to FALSE.
whatis	a character string to be matched in the help page topics.
ignore.case	a logical. If TRUE, case is ignored during matching; if FALSE, pattern matching is case sensitive.

package	a character vector with the names of packages to search through, or NULL in which case <i>all</i> available packages in the library trees specified by <code>lib.loc</code> are searched.
lib.loc	a character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known.
help.db	a character string giving the file path to a previously built and saved help database, or NULL.
verbose	logical; if TRUE, the search process is traced. Integer values are also accepted, with TRUE being equivalent to 2, and 1 being less verbose. On Windows a progress bar is shown during rebuilding, and on Unix a heartbeat is shown for <code>verbose = 1</code> and a package-by-package list for <code>verbose >= 2</code> .
rebuild	a logical indicating whether the help database should be rebuilt. This will be done automatically if <code>lib.loc</code> or the search path is changed, or if package is used and a value is not found.
agrep	if NULL (the default unless keyword is used) and the character string to be matched consists of alphanumeric characters, whitespace or a dash only, approximate (fuzzy) matching via agrep is used unless the string has fewer than 5 characters; otherwise, it is taken to contain a regular expression to be matched via grep . If FALSE, approximate matching is not used. Otherwise, one can give a numeric or a list specifying the maximal distance for the approximate match, see argument <code>max.distance</code> in the documentation for agrep .
use_UTF8	logical: should results be given in UTF-8 encoding? Also changes the meaning of regexps in agrep to be Perl regexps.
types	a character vector listing the types of documentation to search. The entries must be abbreviations of "vignette" "help" or "demo". Results will be presented in the order specified.
field	a single value of fields to search.

Details

Upon installation of a package, a pre-built help.search index is serialized as 'hsearch.rds' in the 'Meta' directory (provided the package has any help pages). Vignettes are also indexed in the 'Meta/vignette.rds' file. These files are used to create the help search database via [hsearch_db](#).

The arguments `apropos` and `what.is` play a role similar to the Unix commands with the same names.

Searching with `agrep = FALSE` will be several times faster than the default (once the database is built). However, approximate searches should be fast enough (around a second with 5000 packages installed).

If possible, the help database is saved in memory for use by subsequent calls in the session.

Note that currently the aliases in the matching help files are not displayed.

As with [?](#), in `??` the pattern may be prefixed with a package name followed by `::` or `:::` to limit the search to that package.

For help files, '\keyword' entries which are not among the standard keywords as listed in file 'KEYWORDS' in the R documentation directory are taken as concepts. For standard keyword entries different from 'internal', the corresponding descriptions from file 'KEYWORDS' are additionally taken as concepts. All '\concept' entries used as concepts.

Vignettes are searched as follows. The "name" and "alias" are both the base of the vignette filename, and the "concept" entries are taken from the \VignetteKeyword entries. Vignettes are not classified using the help system "keyword" classifications. Demos are handled similarly to vignettes, without the "concept" search.

Value

The results are returned in a list object of class "hsearch", which has a print method for nicely formatting the results of the query. This mechanism is experimental, and may change in future versions of R.

In R.app on OS X, this will show up a browser with selectable items. On exiting this browser, the help pages for the selected items will be shown in separate help windows.

The internal format of the class is undocumented and subject to change.

See Also

[hsearch_db](#) for more information on the help search database employed, and for utilities to inspect available concepts and keywords.

[help](#); [help.start](#) for starting the hypertext (currently HTML) version of R's online documentation, which offers a similar search mechanism.

[RSiteSearch](#) to access an on-line search of R resources.

[apropos](#) uses regexps and has nice examples.

Examples

```
help.search("linear models")    # In case you forgot how to fit linear
                                # models
help.search("non-existent topic")

??utils::help # All the topics matching "help" in the utils package

help.search("print")           # All help pages with topics or title
                                # matching 'print'
help.search(apropos = "print") # The same

help.search(keyword = "hplot") # All help pages documenting high-level
                                # plots.
file.show(file.path(R.home("doc"), "KEYWORDS")) # show all keywords

## Help pages with documented topics starting with 'try'.
help.search("\\btry", fields = "alias")
```

Description

Start the hypertext (currently HTML) version of R's online documentation.

Usage

```
help.start(update = FALSE, gui = "irrelevant",  
           browser = getOption("browser"), remote = NULL)
```

Arguments

update	logical: should this attempt to update the package index to reflect the currently available packages. (Not attempted if remote is non-NULL.)
gui	just for compatibility with S-PLUS.
browser	the name of the program to be used as hypertext browser. It should be in the PATH, or a full path specified. Alternatively, it can be an R function which will be called with a URL as its only argument. This option is normally unset on Windows, when the file-association mechanism will be used.
remote	A character string giving a valid URL for the ' R_HOME ' directory on a remote location.

Details

Unless remote is specified this requires the HTTP server to be available (it will be started if possible: see [startDynamicHelp](#)).

One of the links on the index page is the HTML package index, '[R.home\("docs"\)/html/packages.html](#)', which can be remade by [make.packages.html\(\)](#). For local operation, the HTTP server will remake a temporary version of this list when the link is first clicked, and each time thereafter check if updating is needed (if [.libPaths](#) has changed or any of the directories has been changed). This can be slow, and using `update = TRUE` will ensure that the packages list is updated before launching the index page.

Argument remote can be used to point to HTML help published by another R installation: it will typically only show packages from the main library of that installation.

See Also

[help\(\)](#) for on- and off-line help in other formats.

[browseURL](#) for how the help file is displayed.

[RSiteSearch](#) to access an on-line search of R resources.

Examples

```
help.start()
## Not run:
## the 'remote' arg can be tested by
help.start(remote = paste0("file://", R.home()))

## End(Not run)
```

hsearch-utils

Help Search Utilities

Description

Utilities for searching the help system.

Usage

```
hsearch_db(package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL,
            types = getOption("help.search.types"),
            verbose = getOption("verbose"),
            rebuild = FALSE, use_UTF8 = FALSE)
hsearch_db_concepts(db = hsearch_db())
hsearch_db_keywords(db = hsearch_db())
```

Arguments

package	a character vector with the names of packages to search through, or NULL in which case <i>all</i> available packages in the library trees specified by lib.loc are searched.
lib.loc	a character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known.
types	a character vector listing the types of documentation to search. See help.search for details.
verbose	a logical controlling the verbosity of building the help search database. See help.search for details.
rebuild	a logical indicating whether the help search database should be rebuilt. See help.search for details.
use_UTF8	logical: should results be given in UTF-8 encoding?
db	a help search database as obtained by calls to hsearch_db().

Details

`hsearch_db()` builds and caches the help search database for subsequent use by [help.search](#). (In fact, re-builds only when forced (`rebuild = TRUE`) or “necessary”.)

The format of the help search database is still experimental, and may change in future versions. Currently, it consists of four tables: one with base information about all documentation objects found, including their names and titles and unique ids; three more tables contain the individual aliases, concepts and keywords together with the ids of the documentation objects they belong to. Separating out the latter three tables accounts for the fact that a single documentation object may provide several of these entries, and allows for efficient searching.

See the details in [help.search](#) for how searchable entries are interpreted according to help type.

`hsearch_db_concepts()` and `hsearch_db_keywords()` extract all concepts or keywords, respectively, from a help search database, and return these in a data frame together with their total frequencies and the numbers of packages they are used in, with entries sorted in decreasing total frequency.

Examples

```
db <- hsearch_db()
## Total numbers of documentation objects, aliases, keywords and
## concepts (using the current format):
sapply(db, NROW)
## Can also be obtained from print method:
db
## 10 most frequent concepts:
head(hsearch_db_concepts(), 10)
## 10 most frequent keywords:
head(hsearch_db_keywords(), 10)
```

INSTALL	<i>Install Add-on Packages</i>
---------	--------------------------------

Description

Utility for installing add-on packages.

Usage

```
R CMD INSTALL [options] [-l lib] pkgs
```

Arguments

<code>pkgs</code>	a space-separated list with the path names of the packages to be installed. See ‘Details’.
<code>lib</code>	the path name of the R library tree to install to. Also accepted in the form ‘--library=lib’. Paths including spaces should be quoted, using the conventions for the shell in use.
<code>options</code>	a space-separated list of options through which in particular the process for building the help files can be controlled. Use <code>R CMD INSTALL --help</code> for the full current list of options.

Details

This will stop at the first error, so if you want all the pkgs to be tried, call this via a shell loop.

If used as `R CMD INSTALL pkgs` without explicitly specifying `lib`, packages are installed into the library tree rooted at the first directory in the library path which would be used by `R` run in the current environment.

To install into the library tree *lib*, use `R CMD INSTALL -l lib pkgs`. This prepends `lib` to the library path for duration of the install, so required packages in the installation directory will be found (and used in preference to those in other libraries).

Both `lib` and the elements of `pkgs` may be absolute or relative path names of directories. `pkgs` may also contain names of package archive files: these are then extracted to a temporary directory. These are tarballs containing a single directory, optionally compressed by `gzip`, `bzip2`, `xz` or `compress`. Finally, binary package archive files (as created by `R CMD INSTALL --build`) can be supplied.

Tarballs are by default unpackaged by the internal `untar` function: if needed an external `tar` command can be specified by the environment variable `R_INSTALL_TAR`: please ensure that it can handle the type of compression used on the tarball. (This is sometimes needed for tarballs containing invalid or unsupported sections, and can be faster on very large tarballs. Setting `R_INSTALL_TAR` to `'tar.exe'` has been needed to overcome permissions issues on some Windows systems.)

The package sources can be cleaned up prior to installation by `'--preclean'` or after by `'--clean'`: cleaning is essential if the sources are to be used with more than one architecture or platform.

Some package sources contain a `'configure'` script that can be passed arguments or variables via the option `'--configure-args'` and `'--configure-vars'`, respectively, if necessary. The latter is useful in particular if libraries or header files needed for the package are in non-system directories. In this case, one can use the configure variables `LIBS` and `CPPFLAGS` to specify these locations (and set these via `'--configure-vars'`), see section “Configuration variables” in “R Installation and Administration” for more information. (If these are used more than once on the command line they are concatenated.) The configure mechanism can be bypassed using the option `'--no-configure'`.

If the attempt to install the package fails, leftovers are removed. If the package was already installed, the old version is restored. This happens either if a command encounters an error or if the install is interrupted from the keyboard: after cleaning up the script terminates.

For details of the locking which is done, see the section ‘Locking’ in the help for [install.packages](#).

Option `'--build'` can be used to tar up the installed package for distribution as a binary package (as used on OS X). This is done by `utils::tar` unless environment variable `R_INSTALL_TAR` is set.

By default a package is installed with static HTML help pages if and only if `R` was: use options `'--html'` and `'--no-html'` to override this.

Packages are not by default installed keeping the source formatting (see the `keep.source` argument to [source](#)): this can be enabled by the option `'--with-keep.source'` or by setting environment variable `R_KEEP_PKG_SOURCE` to `yes`.

Use `R CMD INSTALL --help` for concise usage information, including all the available options.

Sub-architectures

An `R` installation can support more than one sub-architecture: currently this is most commonly used for 32- and 64-bit builds on Windows.

For such installations, the default behaviour is to try to install source packages for all installed sub-architectures unless the package has a configure script or a 'src/Makefile' (or 'src/Makefile.win' on Windows), when only compiled code for the sub-architecture running R CMD INSTALL is installed.

To install a source package with compiled code only for the sub-architecture used by R CMD INSTALL, use '--no-multiarch'. To install just the compiled code for another sub-architecture, use '--libs-only'.

There are two ways to install for all available sub-architectures. If the configure script is known to work for both Windows architectures, use flag '--force-biarch' (and packages can specify this via a 'Biarch' field in their DESCRIPTION files). Second, a single tarball can be installed with

```
R CMD INSTALL --merge-multiarch mypkg_version.tar.gz
```

Note

The options do not have to precede 'pkgs' on the command line, although it will be more legible if they do. All the options are processed before any packages, and where options have conflicting effects the last one will win.

Some parts of the operation of INSTALL depend on the R temporary directory (see [tempdir](#), usually under '/tmp') having both write and execution access to the account running R. This is usually the case, but if '/tmp' has been mounted as noexec, environment variable TMPDIR may need to be set to a directory from which execution is allowed.

See Also

[REMOVE](#); [.libPaths](#) for information on using several library trees; [install.packages](#) for R-level installation of packages; [update.packages](#) for automatic update of packages using the Internet or a local repository.

The section on "Add-on packages" in "R Installation and Administration" and the chapter on "Creating R packages" in "Writing R Extensions" [RShowDoc](#) and the 'doc/manual' subdirectory of the R source tree).

install.packages

Install Packages from Repositories or Local Files

Description

Download and install packages from CRAN-like repositories or from local files.

Usage

```
install.packages(pkgs, lib, repos = getOption("repos"),
  contriburl = contrib.url(repos, type),
  method, available = NULL, destdir = NULL,
  dependencies = NA, type = getOption("pkgType"),
  configure.args = getOption("configure.args"),
```

```

configure.vars = getOption("configure.vars"),
clean = FALSE, Ncpus = getOption("Ncpus", 1L),
verbose = getOption("verbose"),
libs_only = FALSE, INSTALL_opts, quiet = FALSE,
keep_outputs = FALSE, ...)

```

Arguments

pkgs	<p>character vector of the names of packages whose current versions should be downloaded from the repositories.</p> <p>If repos = NULL, a character vector of file paths. These can be source directories or archives or binary package archive files (as created by R CMD build --binary). (http:// and file:// URLs are also accepted and the files will be downloaded and installed from local copies.) On a CRAN build of R for OS X these can be '.tgz' files containing binary package archives. Tilde-expansion will be done on file paths.</p> <p>If this is missing or a zero-length character vector, a listbox of available packages is presented where possible in an interactive R session.</p>
lib	character vector giving the library directories where to install the packages. Recycled as needed. If missing, defaults to the first element of <code>.libPaths()</code> .
repos	<p>character vector, the base URL(s) of the repositories to use, e.g., the URL of a CRAN mirror such as "http://cran.us.r-project.org". For more details on supported URL schemes see url.</p> <p>Can be NULL to install from local files, directories or URLs: this will be inferred by extension from pkgs if of length one.</p>
contriburl	URL(s) of the contrib sections of the repositories. Use this argument if your repository mirror is incomplete, e.g., because you burned only the 'contrib' section on a CD, or only have binary packages. Overrides argument repos. Incompatible with type = "both".
method	download method, see download.file . Unused if a non-NULL available is supplied.
available	a matrix as returned by available.packages listing packages available at the repositories, or NULL when the function makes an internal call to <code>available.packages</code> . Incompatible with type = "both".
destdir	directory where downloaded packages are stored. If it is NULL (the default) a subdirectory <code>downloaded_packages</code> of the session temporary directory will be used (and the files will be deleted at the end of the session).
dependencies	<p>logical indicating whether to also install uninstalled packages which these packages depend on/link to/import/suggest (and so on recursively). Not used if repos = NULL. Can also be a character vector, a subset of <code>c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo", "Suggests", "Enhances")</code>.</p> <p>Only supported if lib is of length one (or missing), so it is unambiguous where to install the dependent packages. If this is not the case it is ignored, with a warning.</p> <p>The default, NA, means <code>c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo")</code>.</p>

TRUE means to use `c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo", "Suggests")` for `pkgs` and `c("Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo")` for added dependencies: this installs all the packages needed to run `pkgs`, their examples, tests and vignettes (if the package author specified them correctly).

In all of these, "LinkingTo" is omitted for binary packages.

<code>type</code>	character, indicating the type of package to download and install. Will be "source" except on Windows and some OS X builds: see the section on 'Binary packages' for those.
<code>configure.args</code>	(Used only for source installs.) A character vector or a named list. If a character vector with no names is supplied, the elements are concatenated into a single string (separated by a space) and used as the value for the '--configure-args' flag in the call to <code>R CMD INSTALL</code> . If the character vector has names these are assumed to identify values for '--configure-args' for individual packages. This allows one to specify settings for an entire collection of packages which will be used if any of those packages are to be installed. (These settings can therefore be re-used and act as default settings.) A named list can be used also to the same effect, and that allows multi-element character strings for each package which are concatenated to a single string to be used as the value for '--configure-args'.
<code>configure.vars</code>	(Used only for source installs.) Analogous to <code>configure.args</code> for flag '--configure-vars', which is used to set environment variables for the configure run.
<code>clean</code>	a logical value indicating whether to add the '--clean' flag to the call to <code>R CMD INSTALL</code> . This is sometimes used to perform additional operations at the end of the package installation in addition to removing intermediate files.
<code>Ncpus</code>	the number of parallel processes to use for a parallel install of more than one source package. Values greater than one are supported if the make command specified by <code>Sys.getenv("MAKE", "make")</code> accepts argument <code>-k -j Ncpus</code> .
<code>verbose</code>	a logical indicating if some "progress report" should be given.
<code>libs_only</code>	a logical value: should the '--libs-only' option be used to install only additional sub-architectures for source installs? (See also <code>INSTALL_opts</code> .) This can also be used on Windows to install just the DLL(s) from a binary package, e.g. to add 64-bit DLLs to a 32-bit install.
<code>INSTALL_opts</code>	an optional character vector of additional option(s) to be passed to <code>R CMD INSTALL</code> for a source package install. E.g., <code>c("--html", "--no-multiarch")</code> . Can also be a named list of character vectors to be used as additional options, with names the respective package names.
<code>quiet</code>	logical: if true, reduce the amount of output.
<code>keep_outputs</code>	a logical: if true, keep the outputs from installing source packages in the current working directory, with the names of the output files the package names with '.out' appended. Alternatively, a character string giving the directory in which to save the outputs. Ignored when installing from local files.

... Arguments to be passed to [download.file](#) or to the functions for binary installs on OS X and Windows (which accept an argument "lock": see the section on 'Locking').

Details

This is the main function to install packages. It takes a vector of names and a destination library, downloads the packages from the repositories and installs them. (If the library is omitted it defaults to the first directory in `.libPaths()`, with a message if there is more than one.) If `lib` is omitted or is of length one and is not a (group) writable directory, in interactive use the code offers to create a personal library tree (the first element of `Sys.getenv("R_LIBS_USER")`) and install there.

For installs from a repository an attempt is made to install the packages in an order that respects their dependencies. This does assume that all the entries in `lib` are on the default library path for installs (set by environment variable `R_LIBS`).

You are advised to run `update.packages` before `install.packages` to ensure that any already installed dependencies have their latest versions.

Value

Invisible NULL.

Binary packages

This section applies only to platforms where binary packages are available: Windows and CRAN builds for OS X.

R packages are primarily distributed as *source* packages, but *binary* packages (a packaging up of the installed package) are also supported, and the type most commonly used on Windows and by the CRAN builds for OS X. This function can install either type, either by downloading a file from a repository or from a local file.

Possible values of `type` are (currently) "source", "mac.binary", "mac.binary.mavericks" and "win.binary": the appropriate binary type where supported can also be selected as "binary".

For a binary install from a repository, the function checks for the availability of a source package on the same repository, and reports if the source package has a later version, or is available but no binary version is. This check can be suppressed by using

```
options(install.packages.check.source = "no")
```

and should be if there is a partial repository containing only binary files.

An alternative (and the current default) is "both" which means 'use binary if available and current, otherwise try source'. The action if there are source packages which are preferred but may contain code which needs to be compiled is controlled by `getOption("install.packages.compile.from.source")`. `type = "both"` will be silently changed to "binary" if either `contriburl` or `available` is specified.

Using packages with `type = "source"` always works provided the package contains no C/C++/Fortran code that needs compilation. Otherwise, on OS X you otherwise need to have installed the 'Command-line tools for Xcode' (see the 'R Installation and Administration Manual') and if needed by the package a Fortran compiler, and have them in your path.

Locking

There are various options for locking: these differ between source and binary installs.

By default for a source install, the library directory is ‘locked’ by creating a directory ‘`00LOCK`’ within it. This has two purposes: it prevents any other process installing into that library concurrently, and is used to store any previous version of the package to restore on error. A finer-grained locking is provided by the option ‘`--pkglock`’ which creates a separate lock for each package: this allows enough freedom for parallel installation. Per-package locking is the default when installing a single package, and for multiple packages when `Ncpus > 1L`. Finally locking (and restoration on error) can be suppressed by ‘`--no-lock`’.

For an OS X or Windows binary install, no locking is done by default. Setting argument `lock` to `TRUE` (it defaults to the value of `getOption("install.lock", FALSE)`) will use per-directory locking as described for source installs: if the value is “`pkglock`” per-package locking will be used.

If package locking is used on Windows with `libs_only = TRUE` and the installation fails, the package will be restored to its previous state.

Note that it is possible for the package installation to fail so badly that the lock directory is not removed: this inhibits any further installs to the library directory (or for `--pkglock`, of the package) until the lock directory is removed manually.

Parallel installs

Parallel installs are attempted if `pkgs` has length greater than one and `Ncpus > 1`. It makes use of a parallel make, so the make specified (default make) when `R` was built must be capable of supporting `make -j n`: GNU make, `dmake` and `pmake` do, but Solaris make and older FreeBSD make do not: if necessary environment variable `MAKE` can be set for the current session to select a suitable make.

`install.packages` needs to be able to compute all the dependencies of `pkgs` from available, including if one element of `pkgs` depends indirectly on another. This means that if for example you are installing CRAN packages which depend on Bioconductor packages which in turn depend on CRAN packages, available needs to cover both CRAN and Bioconductor packages.

Note

Some binary distributions of `R` have `INSTALL` in a separate bundle, e.g. an `R-devel` RPM. `install.packages` will give an error if called with `type = "source"` on such a system.

Some binary Linux distributions of `R` can be installed on a machine without the tools needed to install packages: a possible remedy is to do a complete install of `R` which should bring in all those tools as dependencies.

See Also

[update.packages](#), [available.packages](#), [download.packages](#), [installed.packages](#), [contrib.url](#).

See [download.file](#) for how to handle proxies and other options to monitor file transfers.

[INSTALL](#), [REMOVE](#), [remove.packages](#), [library](#), [.packages](#), [read.dcf](#)

The ‘`R` Installation and Administration’ manual for how to set up a repository.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## A Linux example for Fedora's layout of udunits2 headers.
install.packages(c("ncdf4", "RNetCDF"),
  configure.args = c(RNetCDF = "--with-netcdf-include=/usr/include/udunits2"))

## End(Not run)
```

installed.packages	<i>Find Installed Packages</i>
--------------------	--------------------------------

Description

Find (or retrieve) details of all packages installed in the specified libraries.

Usage

```
installed.packages(lib.loc = NULL, priority = NULL,
  noCache = FALSE, fields = NULL,
  subarch = .Platform$r_arch)
```

Arguments

lib.loc	character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through, or NULL for all known trees (see .libPaths).
priority	character vector or NULL (default). If non-null, used to select packages; "high" is equivalent to c("base", "recommended"). To select all packages without an assigned priority use priority = "NA".
noCache	Do not use cached information, nor cache it.
fields	a character vector giving the fields to extract from each package's DESCRIPTION file in addition to the default ones, or NULL (default). Unavailable fields result in NA values.
subarch	character string or NULL. If non-null and non-empty, used to select packages which are installed for that sub-architecture.

Details

installed.packages scans the 'DESCRIPTION' files of each package found along lib.loc and returns a matrix of package names, library paths and version numbers.

The information found is cached (by library) for the R session and specified fields argument, and updated only if the top-level library directory has been altered, for example by installing or removing a package. If the cached information becomes confused, it can be refreshed by running installed.packages(noCache = TRUE).

Value

A matrix with one row per package, row names the package names and column names (currently) "Package", "LibPath", "Version", "Priority", "Depends", "Imports", "LinkingTo", "Suggests", "Enhances", "OS_type", "License" and "Built" (the R version the package was built under). Additional columns can be specified using the `fields` argument.

Note

This can be slow when thousands of packages are installed, so do not use this to find out if a named package is installed (use [system.file](#) or [find.package](#)) nor to find out if a package is usable (call [require](#) and check the return value) nor to find details of a small number of packages (use [packageDescription](#)). It needs to read several files per installed package, which will be slow on Windows and on some network-mounted file systems.

See Also

[update.packages](#), [install.packages](#), [INSTALL](#), [REMOVE](#).

Examples

```
## confine search to .Library for speed
str(ip <- installed.packages(.Library, priority = "high"))
ip[, c(1,3:5)]
plic <- installed.packages(.Library, priority = "high", fields = "License")
## what licenses are there:
table( plic[, "License"] )
```

LINK

Create Executable Programs

Description

Front-end for creating executable programs.

Usage

```
R CMD LINK [options] linkcmd
```

Arguments

<code>linkcmd</code>	a list of commands to link together suitable object files (include library objects) to create the executable program.
<code>options</code>	further options to control the linking, or for obtaining information about usage and version.

Details

The linker front-end is useful in particular when linking against the `R` shared or static library: see the examples.

The actual linking command is constructed by the version of `libtool` installed at `'R_HOME/bin'`.

`R CMD LINK --help` gives usage information.

Note

Some binary distributions of `R` have `LINK` in a separate bundle, e.g. an `R-devel` RPM.

This is not available on Windows.

See Also

[COMPILE](#).

Examples

```
## Not run: ## examples of front-ends linked against R.
## First a C program
CC=`R CMD config CC`
R CMD LINK $CC -o foo foo.o `R CMD config --ldflags`

## if Fortran code has been compiled into ForFoo.o
FLIBS=`R CMD config FLIBS`
R CMD LINK $CC -o foo foo.o ForFoo.o `R CMD config --ldflags` $FLIBS

## And for a C++ front-end
CXX=`R CMD config CXX`
R CMD COMPILE foo.cc
R CMD LINK $CXX -o foo foo.o `R CMD config --ldflags`

## End(Not run)
```

localeToCharset

Select a Suitable Encoding Name from a Locale Name

Description

This functions aims to find a suitable coding for the locale named, by default the current locale, and if it is a UTF-8 locale a suitable single-byte encoding.

Usage

```
localeToCharset(locale = Sys.getlocale("LC_CTYPE"))
```

Arguments

`locale` character string naming a locale.

Details

The operation differs by OS. Locale names are normally like `es_MX.iso88591`. If final component indicates an encoding and it is not `utf8` we just need to look up the equivalent encoding name. Otherwise, the language (here `es`) is used to choose a primary or fallback encoding.

In the C locale the answer will be `"ASCII"`.

Value

A character vector naming an encoding and possibly a fallback single-encoding, NA if unknown.

Note

The encoding names are those used by `libiconv`, and ought also to work with `glibc` but maybe not with commercial Unixen.

See Also

[Sys.getlocale](#), [iconv](#).

Examples

```
localeToCharset()
```

ls.str

List Objects and their Structure

Description

`ls.str` and `lsf.str` are variations of `ls` applying `str()` to each matched name: see section [Value](#).

Usage

```
ls.str(pos = -1, name, envir, all.names = FALSE,
       pattern, mode = "any")

lsf.str(pos = -1, envir, ...)

## S3 method for class 'ls_str'
print(x, max.level = 1, give.attr = FALSE, ...,
      digits = max(1, getOption("str")$digits.d))
```

Arguments

pos	integer indicating search path position, or -1 for the current environment.
name	optional name indicating search path position, see ls .
envir	environment to use, see ls .
all.names	logical indicating if names which begin with a . are omitted; see ls .
pattern	a regular expression passed to ls . Only names matching pattern are considered.
max.level	maximal level of nesting which is applied for displaying nested structures, e.g., a list containing sub lists. Default 1: Display only the first nested level.
give.attr	logical; if TRUE (default), show attributes as sub structures.
mode	character specifying the mode of objects to consider. Passed to exists and get .
x	an object of class "ls_str".
...	further arguments to pass. lsf.str passes them to ls.str which passes them on to ls . The (non-exported) print method <code>print.ls_str</code> passes them to str .
digits	the number of significant digits to use for printing.

Value

[ls.str](#) and [lsf.str](#) return an object of class "ls_str", basically the character vector of matching names (functions only for [lsf.str](#)), similarly to [ls](#), with a `print()` method that calls [str\(\)](#) on each object.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler

See Also

[str](#), [summary](#), [args](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)

lsf.str() #- how do the functions look like which I am using?
ls.str(mode = "list")  #- what are the structured objects I have defined?

## create a few objects
example(glm, echo = FALSE)
ll <- as.list(LETTERS)
print(ls.str(), max.level = 0)# don't show details

## which base functions have "file" in their name ?
lsf.str(pos = length(search()), pattern = "file")

## demonstrating that ls.str() works inside functions
## ["browser/debug mode"]:
```

```
tt <- function(x, y = 1) { aa <- 7; r <- x + y; ls.str() }  
(nms <- sapply(strsplit(capture.output(tt(2)), " *: *"), `[`, 1))  
stopifnot(nms == c("aa", "r", "x", "y"))
```

`maintainer`

Show Package Maintainer

Description

Show the name and email address of the maintainer of a package.

Usage

```
maintainer(pkg)
```

Arguments

`pkg` Character string. The name of a single package.

Details

Accesses the package description to return the name and email address of the maintainer.

Questions about contributed packages should often be addressed to the package maintainer; questions about base packages should usually be addressed to the R-help or R-devel mailing lists. Bug reports should be submitted using the [bug.report](#) function.

Value

A character string giving the name and email address of the maintainer of the package, or NA if no such package is installed.

Author(s)

David Scott <d.scott@auckland.ac.nz> from code on R-help originally due to Charlie Sharpsteen <source@sharpsteen.net>; multiple corrections by R-core.

References

<https://stat.ethz.ch/pipermail/r-help/2010-February/230027.html>

See Also

[packageDescription](#), [bug.report](#)

Examples

```
maintainer("MASS")
```

make.packages.html	<i>Update HTML Package List</i>
--------------------	---------------------------------

Description

Re-create the HTML list of packages.

Usage

```
make.packages.html(lib.loc = .libPaths(), temp = FALSE,  
                   verbose = TRUE, docdir = R.home("doc"))
```

Arguments

lib.loc	character vector. List of libraries to be included.
temp	logical: should the package indices be created in a temporary location for use by the HTTP server?
verbose	logical. If true, print out a message.
docdir	If temp is false, directory in whose 'html' directory the 'packages.html' file is to be created/updated.

Details

This creates the 'packages.html' file, either a temporary copy for use by [help.start](#), or the copy in 'R.home("doc")/html' (for which you will need write permission).

It can be very slow, as all the package 'DESCRIPTION' files in all the library trees are read.

For temp = TRUE there is some caching of information, so the file will only be re-created if lib.loc or any of the directories it lists have been changed.

Value

Invisible logical, with FALSE indicating a failure to create the file, probably due to lack of suitable permissions.

See Also

[help.start](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:  
make.packages.html()  
# this can be slow for large numbers of installed packages.  
  
## End(Not run)
```

make.socket	Create a Socket Connection
-------------	----------------------------

Description

With `server = FALSE` attempts to open a client socket to the specified port and host. With `server = TRUE` the R process listens on the specified port for a connection and then returns a server socket. It is a good idea to use [on.exit](#) to ensure that a socket is closed, as you only get 64 of them.

Usage

```
make.socket(host = "localhost", port, fail = TRUE, server = FALSE)
```

Arguments

host	name of remote host
port	port to connect to/listen on
fail	failure to connect is an error?
server	a server socket?

Value

An object of class "socket", a list with components:

socket	socket number. This is for internal use. On a Unix-alike it is a file descriptor.
port	port number of the connection.
host	name of remote computer.

Warning

I don't know if the connecting host name returned when `server = TRUE` can be trusted. I suspect not.

Author(s)

Thomas Lumley

References

Adapted from Luke Tierney's code for XLISP-Stat, in turn based on code from Robbins and Robbins "Practical UNIX Programming".

See Also

[close.socket](#), [read.socket](#).

Compiling in support for sockets is optional: see [capabilities\("sockets"\)](#) to see if it is available.

Examples

```
daytime <- function(host = "localhost"){
  a <- make.socket(host, 13)
  on.exit(close.socket(a))
  read.socket(a)
}
## Official time (UTC) from US Naval Observatory
## Not run: daytime("tick.usno.navy.mil")
```

memory.size	<i>Report on Memory Allocation</i>
-------------	------------------------------------

Description

memory.size and memory.limit are used to manage the total memory allocation on Windows. On other platforms these are stubs which report infinity with a warning.

Usage

```
memory.size(max = FALSE)

memory.limit(size = NA)
```

Arguments

- | | |
|------|--|
| max | logical. If true the maximum amount of memory obtained from the OS is reported, otherwise the amount currently in use. |
| size | numeric. If NA report the memory size, otherwise request a new limit, in Mb. |

Details

To restrict memory usage on a Unix-alike use the facilities of the shell used to launch R, e.g. limit or ulimit.

Value

Size in bytes: always Inf.

See Also

[Memory-limits](#) for other limits.

menu

Menu Interaction Function

Description

menu presents the user with a menu of choices labelled from 1 to the number of choices. To exit without choosing an item one can select '0'.

Usage

```
menu(choices, graphics = FALSE, title = NULL)
```

Arguments

choices	a character vector of choices
graphics	a logical indicating whether a graphics menu should be used if available.
title	a character string to be used as the title of the menu. NULL is also accepted.

Details

If graphics = TRUE and a windowing system is available (Windows, OS X or X11 *via* Tcl/Tk) a listbox widget is used, otherwise a text menu. It is an error to use menu in a non-interactive session.

Ten or fewer items will be displayed in a single column, more in multiple columns if possible within the current display width.

No title is displayed if title is NULL or "".

Value

The number corresponding to the selected item, or 0 if no choice was made.

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[select.list](#), which is used to implement the graphical menu, and allows multiple selections.

Examples

```
## Not run:
switch(menu(c("List letters", "List LETTERS")) + 1,
        cat("Nothing done\n"), letters, LETTERS)

## End(Not run)
```

methods

*List Methods for S3 Generic Functions or Classes***Description**

List all available methods for a S3 and S4 generic function, or all methods for an S3 or S4 class.

Usage

```
methods(generic.function, class)
.S3methods(generic.function, class, envir=parent.frame())
```

Arguments

<code>generic.function</code>	a generic function, or a character string naming a generic function.
<code>class</code>	a symbol or character string naming a class: only used if <code>generic.function</code> is not supplied.
<code>envir</code>	the environment in which to look for the definition of the generic function, when the generic function is passed as a character string.

Details

`methods()` finds S3 and S4 methods associated with either the `generic.function` or `class` argument. Methods are found in all packages on the current `search()` path. `.S3methods()` finds only S3 methods, `.S4methods()` finds only S4 methods.

When invoked with the `generic.function` argument, the `print` method displays the signatures (full names) of S3 and S4 methods. S3 methods are printed by pasting the generic function and class together, separated by a '.', as `generic.class`. The S3 method name is followed by an asterisk * if the method definition is not exported from the package namespace in which the method is defined. S4 method signatures are printed as `generic,class-method`; S4 allows for multiple dispatch, so there may be several classes in the signature `generic,A,B-method`.

When invoked with the `class` argument, the `print` method displays the names of the generic functions associated with the class, `generic`.

The source code for all functions is available. For S3 functions exported from the namespace, enter the method at the command line as `generic.class`. For S3 functions not exported from the namespace, see `getAnywhere` or `getS3method`. For S4 methods, see `getMethod`.

Help is available for each method, in addition to each generic. For interactive help, use the documentation shortcut ? with the name of the generic and tab completion, ?"generic<tab>" to select the method for which help is desired.

The S3 functions listed are those which *are named like methods* and may not actually be methods (known exceptions are discarded in the code).

Value

An object of class "MethodsFunction", a character vector of method names with "byclass" and "info" attributes. The "byclass" attribute is a logical(1) vector with value TRUE when the results were obtained with argument class defined. The "info" attribute is a data frame with columns:

generic character(), the name of the generic.

visible logical(), is the column exported from the namespace of the package in which it is defined?

isS4 logical(), true when the method is an S4 method.

from factor(), the location or package name where the method was found.

Note

The original methods function was written by Martin Maechler.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Classes and methods: object-oriented programming in S*. Appendix A of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

[S3Methods](#), [class](#), [getS3method](#).

For S4, [getMethod](#), [showMethods](#), [Methods](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)

methods(summary)
methods(class = "aov")      # S3 class
methods("[[")               # uses C-internal dispatching
methods("$")
methods("$<-")              # replacement function
methods("+")                # binary operator
methods("Math")             # group generic
require(graphics)
methods("axis")             # looks like a generic, but is not

if(require(Matrix)) {
  print(methods(class = "Matrix")) # S4 class
  m <- methods("dim")             # S3 and S4 methods
  print(m)
  print(attr(m, "info"))         # more extensive information
}

## --> help(showMethods) for related examples
```

`mirrorAdmin`*Managing Repository Mirrors*

Description

Functions helping to maintain CRAN, some of them may also be useful for administrators of other repository networks.

Usage

```
mirror2html(mirrors = NULL, file = "mirrors.html",
  head = "mirrors-head.html", foot = "mirrors-foot.html")
checkCRAN(method)
```

Arguments

<code>mirrors</code>	A data frame, by default the CRAN list of mirrors is used.
<code>file</code>	A connection or a character string.
<code>head</code>	Name of optional header file.
<code>foot</code>	Name of optional footer file.
<code>method</code>	Download method, see <code>download.file</code> .

Details

`mirror2html` creates the HTML file for the CRAN list of mirrors and invisibly returns the HTML text.

`checkCRAN` performs a sanity checks on all CRAN mirrors.

`modifyList`*Recursively Modify Elements of a List*

Description

Modifies a possibly nested list recursively by changing a subset of elements at each level to match a second list.

Usage

```
modifyList(x, val, keep.null = FALSE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A named list , possibly empty.
<code>val</code>	A named list with components to replace corresponding components in <code>x</code> .
<code>keep.null</code>	If TRUE, NULL elements in <code>val</code> become NULL elements in <code>x</code> . Otherwise, the corresponding element, if present, is deleted from <code>x</code> .

Value

A modified version of `x`, with the modifications determined as follows (here, list elements are identified by their names). Elements in `val` which are missing from `x` are added to `x`. For elements that are common to both but are not both lists themselves, the component in `x` is replaced (or possibly deleted, depending on the value of `keep.null`) by the one in `val`. For common elements that are in both lists, `x[[name]]` is replaced by `modifyList(x[[name]], val[[name]])`.

Author(s)

Deepayan Sarkar <Deepayan.Sarkar@R-project.org>

Examples

```
foo <- list(a = 1, b = list(c = "a", d = FALSE))
bar <- modifyList(foo, list(e = 2, b = list(d = TRUE)))
str(foo)
str(bar)
```

news

Build and Query R or Package News Information

Description

Build and query the news for R or add-on packages.

Usage

```
news(query, package = "R", lib.loc = NULL, format = NULL,
      reader = NULL, db = NULL)
```

Arguments

<code>query</code>	an expression for selecting news entries
<code>package</code>	a character string giving the name of an installed add-on package, or "R".
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known.
<code>format</code>	Not yet used.
<code>reader</code>	Not yet used.
<code>db</code>	a news db obtained from <code>news()</code> .

Details

If package is "R" (default), a news db is built with the news since the 3.0.0 release of R (corresponding to R's top-level 'NEWS' file). Otherwise, if the given add-on package can be found in the given libraries, it is attempted to read its news in structured form from files 'inst/NEWS.Rd', 'NEWS' or 'inst/NEWS' (in that order).

File 'inst/NEWS.Rd' should be an Rd file given the entries as Rd \itemize lists, grouped according to version using section elements with names starting with a suitable prefix (e.g. "Changes in version" followed by a space and the version number, and optionally followed by a space and a parenthesized ISO 8601 (%Y-%m-%d, see [strptime](#)) format date, and possibly further grouped according to categories using \subsection elements named as the categories. At the very end of \section{..}, the date may also be specified as (%Y-%m-%d, <note>), i.e., including parentheses.

The plain text 'NEWS' files in add-on packages use a variety of different formats; the default news reader should be capable to extract individual news entries from a majority of packages from the standard repositories, which use (slight variations of) the following format:

- Entries are grouped according to version, with version header "Changes in version" at the beginning of a line, followed by a version number, optionally followed by an ISO 8601 format date, possibly parenthesized.
- Entries may be grouped according to category, with a category header (different from a version header) starting at the beginning of a line.
- Entries are written as itemize-type lists, using one of 'o', '*', '-' or '+' as item tag. Entries must be indented, and ideally use a common indentation for the item texts.

Additional formats and readers may be supported in the future.

Package **tools** provides an (internal) utility function `news2Rd` to convert plain text 'NEWS' files to Rd. For 'NEWS' files in a format which can successfully be handled by the default reader, package maintainers can use `tools::news2Rd(dir, "NEWS.Rd")`, possibly with additional argument `codify = TRUE`, with `dir` a character string specifying the path to a package's root directory. Upon success, the 'NEWS.Rd' file can further be improved and then be moved to the 'inst' subdirectory of the package source directory.

The news db built is a character data frame inheriting from "news_db" with variables `Version`, `Category`, `Date` and `Text`, where the last contains the entry texts read, and the other variables may be NA if they were missing or could not be determined.

Using `query`, one can select news entries from the db. If missing or NULL, the complete db is returned. Otherwise, `query` should be an expression involving (a subset of) the variables `Version`, `Category`, `Date` and `Text`, and when evaluated within the db returning a logical vector with length the number of entries in the db. The entries for which evaluation gave TRUE are selected. When evaluating, `Version` and `Date` are coerced to [numeric_version](#) and [Date](#) objects, respectively, so that the comparison operators for these classes can be employed.

Value

An data frame inheriting from class "news_db".

Examples

```
## Build a db of all R news entries.
db <- news()

## Bug fixes with PR number in 3.0.1.
db3 <- news(Version == "3.0.1" & grepl("^BUG", Category) & grepl("PR#", Text),
           db = db)

## News from a date range ('Matrix' is there in a regular R installation):
if(length(iM <- find.package("Matrix", quiet=TRUE)) && nzchar(iM)) {
  dM <- news(package="Matrix")
  dM2014 <- news("2014-01-01" <= Date & Date <= "2014-12-31", db = dM)
  stopifnot(paste0("1.1-", 2:4) %in% dM2014[, "Version"])
}

## Which categories have been in use? % R-core maybe should standardize a bit more
sort(table(db[, "Category"]), decreasing = TRUE)
## Entries with version >= 3.0.0 (including "3.0.0 patched"):
table(news(Version >= "3.0.0", db = db)$Version)
```

nsl

*Look up the IP Address by Hostname***Description**

Interface to gethostbyname.

Usage

```
nsl(hostname)
```

Arguments

hostname the name of the host.

Details

This was included as a test of internet connectivity, to fail if the node running R is not connected. It will also return NULL if BSD networking is not supported, including the header file ‘arpa/inet.h’.

This function is not available on Windows.

Value

The IP address, as a character string, or NULL if the call fails.

Examples

```
## Not run: nsl("www.r-project.org")
```

object.size

Report the Space Allocated for an Object

Description

Provides an estimate of the memory that is being used to store an R object.

Usage

```
object.size(x)

## S3 method for class 'object_size'
format(x, units = "b", ...)
## S3 method for class 'object_size'
print(x, quote = FALSE, units = "b", ...)
```

Arguments

x	An R object.
quote	logical, indicating whether or not the result should be printed with surrounding quotes.
units	The units to be used in printing the size. Allowed values are "b", "Kb", "Mb", "Gb", "B", "KB", "MB", "GB", and "auto" (see 'Details'). Can be abbreviated.
...	Arguments to be passed to or from other methods.

Details

Exactly which parts of the memory allocation should be attributed to which object is not clear-cut. This function merely provides a rough indication: it should be reasonably accurate for atomic vectors, but does not detect if elements of a list are shared, for example. (Sharing amongst elements of a character vector is taken into account, but not that between character vectors in a single object.)

The calculation is of the size of the object, and excludes the space needed to store its name in the symbol table.

Associated space (e.g., the environment of a function and what the pointer in a EXTPTRSXP points to) is not included in the calculation.

Object sizes are larger on 64-bit builds than 32-bit ones, but will very likely be the same on different platforms with the same word length and pointer size.

units = "auto" in the format and print methods chooses the largest units in which the result is one or more (before rounding). Values in kilobytes, megabytes or gigabytes are rounded to the nearest 0.1.

Value

An object of class "object_size" with a length-one double value, an estimate of the memory allocation attributable to the object in bytes.

See Also

[Memory-limits](#) for the design limitations on object size.

Examples

```
object.size(letters)
object.size(ls)
format(object.size(library), units = "auto")
## find the 10 largest objects in the base package
z <- sapply(ls("package:base"), function(x)
  object.size(get(x, envir = baseenv())))
as.matrix(rev(sort(z))[1:10])
```

package.skeleton

Create a Skeleton for a New Source Package

Description

package.skeleton automates some of the setup for a new source package. It creates directories, saves functions, data, and R code files to appropriate places, and creates skeleton help files and a ‘Read-and-delete-me’ file describing further steps in packaging.

Usage

```
package.skeleton(name = "anRpackage", list,
  environment = .GlobalEnv,
  path = ".", force = FALSE,
  code_files = character())
```

Arguments

name	character string: the package name and directory name for your package.
list	character vector naming the R objects to put in the package. Usually, at most one of list, environment, or code_files will be supplied. See ‘Details’.
environment	an environment where objects are looked for. See ‘Details’.
path	path to put the package directory in.
force	If FALSE will not overwrite an existing directory.
code_files	a character vector with the paths to R code files to build the package around. See ‘Details’.

Details

The arguments `list`, `environment`, and `code_files` provide alternative ways to initialize the package. If `code_files` is supplied, the files so named will be sourced to form the environment, then used to generate the package skeleton. Otherwise `list` defaults to the objects in `environment` (including those whose names start with `.`), but can be supplied to select a subset of the objects in that environment.

Stubs of help files are generated for functions, data objects, and S4 classes and methods, using the `prompt`, `promptClass`, and `promptMethods` functions. If an object from another package is intended to be imported and re-exported without changes, the `promptImport` function should be used after `package.skeleton` to generate a simple help file linking to the original one.

The package sources are placed in subdirectory `name` of `path`. If `code_files` is supplied, these files are copied; otherwise, objects will be dumped into individual source files. The file names in `code_files` should have suffix `".R"` and be in the current working directory.

The filenames created for source and documentation try to be valid for all OSes known to run R. Invalid characters are replaced by `'_'`, invalid names are preceded by `'zz'`, names are converted to lower case (to avoid case collisions on case-insensitive file systems) and finally the converted names are made unique by `make.unique(sep = "_")`. This can be done for code and help files but not data files (which are looked for by name). Also, the code and help files should have names starting with an ASCII letter or digit, and this is checked and if necessary `z` prepended.

Functions with names starting with a dot are placed in file `'R/name-internal.R'`.

When you are done, delete the `'Read-and-delete-me'` file, as it should not be distributed.

Value

Used for its side-effects.

References

Read the `'Writing R Extensions'` manual for more details.

Once you have created a *source* package you need to install it: see the `'R Installation and Administration'` manual, [INSTALL](#) and [install.packages](#).

See Also

[prompt](#), [promptClass](#), and [promptMethods](#).

Examples

```
require(stats)
## two functions and two "data sets" :
f <- function(x, y) x+y
g <- function(x, y) x-y
d <- data.frame(a = 1, b = 2)
e <- rnorm(1000)

package.skeleton(list = c("f", "g", "d", "e"), name = "mypkg")
```

packageDescription	<i>Package Description</i>
--------------------	----------------------------

Description

Parses and returns the ‘DESCRIPTION’ file of a package.

Usage

```
packageDescription(pkg, lib.loc = NULL, fields = NULL,
                  drop = TRUE, encoding = "")
packageVersion(pkg, lib.loc = NULL)
```

Arguments

pkg	a character string with the package name.
lib.loc	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. If the default is used, the loaded packages and namespaces are searched before the libraries.
fields	a character vector giving the tags of fields to return (if other fields occur in the file they are ignored).
drop	If TRUE and the length of fields is 1, then a single character string with the value of the respective field is returned instead of an object of class "packageDescription".
encoding	If there is an Encoding field, to what encoding should re-encoding be attempted? If NA, no re-encoding. The other values are as used by iconv , so the default "" indicates the encoding of the current locale.

Details

A package will not be ‘found’ unless it has a ‘DESCRIPTION’ file which contains a valid Version field. Different warnings are given when no package directory is found and when there is a suitable directory but no valid ‘DESCRIPTION’ file.

An [attached](#) environment named to look like a package (e.g., `package:utils2`) will be ignored.

`packageVersion()` is a convenience shortcut, allowing things like `if (packageVersion("MASS") < "7.3") { do.things }`.

Value

If a ‘DESCRIPTION’ file for the given package is found and can successfully be read, `packageDescription` returns an object of class "packageDescription", which is a named list with the values of the (given) fields as elements and the tags as names, unless `drop = TRUE`.

If parsing the ‘DESCRIPTION’ file was not successful, it returns a named list of NAs with the field tags as names if `fields` is not null, and NA otherwise.

`packageVersion()` returns a (length-one) object of class "[package_version](#)".

See Also[read.dcf](#)**Examples**

```

packageDescription("stats")
packageDescription("stats", fields = c("Package", "Version"))

packageDescription("stats", fields = "Version")
packageDescription("stats", fields = "Version", drop = FALSE)

if(packageVersion("MASS") < "7.3.29")
  message("you need to update 'MASS'")

```

packageName

*Find package associated with an environment.***Description**

Many environments are associated with a package; this function attempts to determine that package.

Usage

```
packageName(env = parent.frame())
```

Arguments

env The environment whose name we seek.

Details

Environment env would be associated with a package if [topenv](#)(env) is the namespace environment for that package. Thus when env is the environment associated with functions inside a package, or local functions defined within them, packageName will normally return the package name.

Not all environments are associated with a package: for example, the global environment, or the evaluation frames of functions defined there. packageName will return NULL in these cases.

Value

A length one character vector containing the name of the package, or NULL if there is no name.

See Also

[getPackageName](#) is a more elaborate function that can construct a name if none is found.

Examples

```

packageName()
packageName(environment(mean))

```

packageStatus	<i>Package Management Tools</i>
---------------	---------------------------------

Description

Summarize information about installed packages and packages available at various repositories, and automatically upgrade outdated packages.

Usage

```
packageStatus(lib.loc = NULL, repositories = NULL, method,
              type = getOption("pkgType"))

## S3 method for class 'packageStatus'
summary(object, ...)

## S3 method for class 'packageStatus'
update(object, lib.loc = levels(object$inst$LibPath),
        repositories = levels(object$avail$Repository), ...)

## S3 method for class 'packageStatus'
upgrade(object, ask = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

lib.loc	a character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known.
repositories	a character vector of URLs describing the location of R package repositories on the Internet or on the local machine.
method	Download method, see download.file .
type	type of package distribution: see install.packages .
object	an object of class "packageStatus" as returned by packageStatus.
ask	if TRUE, the user is prompted which packages should be upgraded and which not.
...	currently not used.

Details

The URLs in repositories should be full paths to the appropriate contrib sections of the repositories. The default is `contrib.url(getOption("repos"))`.

There are print and summary methods for the "packageStatus" objects: the print method gives a brief tabular summary and the summary method prints the results.

The update method updates the "packageStatus" object. The upgrade method is similar to [update.packages](#): it offers to install the current versions of those packages which are not currently up-to-date.

Value

An object of class "packageStatus". This is a list with two components

inst	a data frame with columns as the <i>matrix</i> returned by installed.packages plus "Status", a factor with levels c("ok", "upgrade", "unavailable"). Only the newest version of each package is reported, in the first repository in which it appears.
avail	a data frame with columns as the <i>matrix</i> returned by available.packages plus "Status", a factor with levels c("installed", "not installed").

For the summary method the result is also of class "summary.packageStatus" with additional components

Libs	a list with one element for each library
Repos	a list with one element for each repository

with the elements being lists of character vectors of package name for each status.

See Also

[installed.packages](#), [available.packages](#)

Examples

```
## Not run:
x <- packageStatus()
print(x)
summary(x)
upgrade(x)
x <- update(x)
print(x)

## End(Not run)
```

page

Invoke a Pager on an R Object

Description

Displays a representation of the object named by x in a pager via [file.show](#).

Usage

```
page(x, method = c("dput", "print"), ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	An R object, or a character string naming an object.
<code>method</code>	The default method is to dump the object <i>via</i> <code>dput</code> . An alternative is to use <code>print</code> and capture the output to be shown in the pager. Can be abbreviated.
<code>...</code>	additional arguments for <code>dput</code> , <code>print</code> or <code>file.show</code> (such as <code>title</code>).

Details

If `x` is a length-one character vector, it is used as the name of an object to look up in the environment from which `page` is called. All other objects are displayed directly.

A default value of `title` is passed to `file.show` if one is not supplied in `...`.

See Also

`file.show`, `edit`, `fix`.

To go to a new page when graphing, see `frame`.

Examples

```
## Not run: ## four ways to look at the code of 'page'
page(page)          # as an object
page("page")       # a character string
v <- "page"; page(v) # a length-one character vector
page(utils::page)   # a call

## End(Not run)
```

person

Persons

Description

A class and utility methods for holding information about persons like name and email address.

Usage

```
person(given = NULL, family = NULL, middle = NULL,
       email = NULL, role = NULL, comment = NULL,
       first = NULL, last = NULL)

## Default S3 method:
as.person(x)
## S3 method for class 'person'
format(x,
      include = c("given", "family", "email", "role", "comment"),
      braces = list(given = "", family = "", email = c("<", ">"),
                    role = c("[", "]"), comment = c("(", ")")),
```

```
collapse = list(given = " ", family = " ", email = " ",
               role = " ", comment = " "),
...,
style = c("text", "R")
)
```

Arguments

<code>given</code>	a character vector with the <i>given</i> names, or a list thereof.
<code>family</code>	a character string with the <i>family</i> name, or a list thereof.
<code>middle</code>	a character string with the collapsed middle name(s). Deprecated, see Details .
<code>email</code>	a character string giving the email address, or a list thereof.
<code>role</code>	a character string specifying the role of the person (see Details), or a list thereof.
<code>comment</code>	a character string providing a comment, or a list thereof.
<code>first</code>	a character string giving the first name. Deprecated, see Details .
<code>last</code>	a character string giving the last name. Deprecated, see Details .
<code>x</code>	a character string for the <code>as.person</code> default method; an object of class "person" otherwise.
<code>include</code>	a character vector giving the fields to be included when formatting.
<code>braces</code>	a list of characters (see Details).
<code>collapse</code>	a list of characters (see Details).
<code>...</code>	currently not used.
<code>style</code>	a character string specifying the print style, with "R" yielding formatting as R code.

Details

Objects of class "person" can hold information about an arbitrary positive number of persons. These can be obtained by one call to `person()` with list arguments, or by first creating objects representing single persons and combining these via `c()`.

The `format()` method collapses information about persons into character vectors (one string for each person): the fields in `include` are selected, each collapsed to a string using the respective element of `collapse` and subsequently "embraced" using the respective element of `braces`, and finally collapsed into one string separated by white space. If `braces` and/or `collapse` do not specify characters for all fields, the defaults shown in the usage are imputed. The `print()` method calls the `format()` method and prints the result, the `toBibtex()` method creates a suitable BibTeX representation.

Person objects can be subscripted by fields (using `$`) or by position (using `[]`).

`as.person()` is a generic function. Its default method tries to reverse the default person formatting, and can also handle formatted person entries collapsed by comma or "and" (with appropriate white space).

Personal names are rather tricky, e.g., https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Personal_name.

The current implementation (starting from R 2.12.0) of the "person" class uses the notions of *given* (including middle names) and *family* names, as specified by `given` and `family` respectively. Earlier

versions used a scheme based on first, middle and last names, as appropriate for most of Western culture where the given name precedes the family name, but not universal, as some other cultures place it after the family name, or use no family name. To smooth the transition to the new scheme, arguments `first`, `middle` and `last` are still supported, but their use is deprecated and they must not be given in combination with the corresponding new style arguments. For persons which are not natural persons (e.g., institutions, companies, etc.) it is appropriate to use `given` (but not `family`) for the name, e.g., `person("R Core Team", role = "aut")`.

The new scheme also adds the possibility of specifying *roles* based on a subset of the MARC Code List for Relators (<https://www.loc.gov/marc/relators/relaterm.html>). When giving the roles of persons in the context of authoring R packages, the following usage is suggested.

`"aut"` (Author) Use for full authors who have made substantial contributions to the package and should show up in the package citation.

`"com"` (Compiler) Use for persons who collected code (potentially in other languages) but did not make further substantial contributions to the package.

`"ctb"` (Contributor) Use for authors who have made smaller contributions (such as code patches etc.) but should not show up in the package citation.

`"cph"` (Copyright holder) Use for all copyright holders.

`"cre"` (Creator) Use for the package maintainer.

`"ctr"` (Contractor) Use for authors who have been contracted to write (parts of) the package and hence do not own intellectual property.

`"dtc"` (Data contributor) Use for persons who contributed data sets for the package.

`"ths"` (Thesis advisor) If the package is part of a thesis, use for the thesis advisor.

`"trl"` (Translator) If the R code is a translation from another language (typically S), use for the translator to R.

In the old scheme, person objects were used for single persons, and a separate `"personList"` class with corresponding creator `personList()` for collections of these. The new scheme employs a single class for information about an arbitrary positive number of persons, eliminating the need for the `personList` mechanism.

Value

`person()` and `as.person()` return objects of class `"person"`.

See Also

[citation](#)

Examples

```
## Create a person object directly ...
p1 <- person("Karl", "Pearson", email = "pearson@stats.heaven")

## ... or convert a string.
p2 <- as.person("Ronald Aylmer Fisher")

## Combining and subsetting.
```

```

p <- c(p1, p2)
p[1]
p[-1]

## Extracting fields.
p$family
p$email
p[1]$email

## Specifying package authors, example from "boot":
## AC is the first author [aut] who wrote the S original.
## BR is the second author [aut], who translated the code to R [trl],
## and maintains the package [cre].
b <- c(person("Angelo", "Canty", role = "aut", comment =
  "S original, http://statwww.epfl.ch/davison/BMA/library.html"),
  person(c("Brian", "D."), "Ripley", role = c("aut", "trl", "cre"),
    comment = "R port", email = "ripley@stats.ox.ac.uk")
  )
b

## Formatting.
format(b)
format(b, include = c("family", "given", "role"),
  braces = list(family = c("", "", ""), role = c("(Role(s): ", ")")))

## Conversion to BibTeX author field.
paste(format(b, include = c("given", "family")), collapse = " and ")
toBibtex(b)

```

PkgUtils

Utilities for Building and Checking Add-on Packages

Description

Utilities for checking whether the sources of an R add-on package work correctly, and for building a source package from them.

Usage

```

R CMD check [options] pkgdirs
R CMD build [options] pkgdirs

```

Arguments

pkgdirs	a list of names of directories with sources of R add-on packages. For check these can also be the filenames of compressed tar archives with extension <code>‘.tar.gz’</code> , <code>‘.tgz’</code> , <code>‘.tar.bz2’</code> or <code>‘.tar.xz’</code> .
options	further options to control the processing, or for obtaining information about usage and version of the utility.

Details

R CMD check checks R add-on packages from their sources, performing a wide variety of diagnostic checks.

R CMD build builds R source tarballs. The name(s) of the packages are taken from the ‘DESCRIPTION’ files and not from the directory names. This works entirely on a copy of the supplied source directories.

Use R CMD foo --help to obtain usage information on utility foo.

The defaults for some of the options to R CMD build can be set by environment variables `_R_BUILD_RESAVE_DATA_` and `_R_BUILD_COMPACT_VIGNETTES_`: see ‘Writing R Extensions’. Many of the checks in R CMD check can be turned off or on by environment variables: see Chapter 6 of the ‘R Internals’ manual.

By default R CMD build uses the “internal” option to `tar` to prepare the tarball. An external tar program can be specified by the `R_BUILD_TAR` environment variable. This may be substantially faster for very large packages, and can be needed for packages with long path names (over 100 bytes) or very large files (over 8GB): however, the resulting tarball may not be portable.

R CMD check by default unpacks tarballs by the internal `untar` function: if needed an external tar command can be specified by the environment variable `R_INSTALL_TAR`: please ensure that it can handle the type of compression used on the tarball. (This is sometimes needed for tarballs containing invalid or unsupported sections, and can be faster on very large tarballs. Setting `R_INSTALL_TAR` to ‘tar.exe’ has been needed to overcome permissions issues on some Windows systems.)

See Also

The sections on “Checking and building packages” and “Processing Rd format” in “Writing R Extensions” (see the ‘doc/manual’ subdirectory of the R source tree).

process.events	<i>Trigger event handling</i>
----------------	-------------------------------

Description

R front ends like the Windows GUI handle key presses and mouse clicks through “events” generated by the OS. These are processed automatically by R at intervals during computations, but in some cases it may be desirable to trigger immediate event handling. The `process.events` function does that.

Usage

```
process.events()
```

Details

This is a simple wrapper for the C API function `R_ProcessEvents`. As such, it is possible that it will not return if the user has signalled to interrupt the calculation.

Value

NULL is returned invisibly.

Author(s)

Duncan Murdoch

See Also

See ‘Writing R Extensions’ and the ‘R for Windows FAQ’ for more discussion of the `R_ProcessEvents` function.

prompt

Produce Prototype of an R Documentation File

Description

Facilitate the constructing of files documenting R objects.

Usage

```
prompt(object, filename = NULL, name = NULL, ...)
```

```
## Default S3 method:
```

```
prompt(object, filename = NULL, name = NULL,
       force.function = FALSE, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
```

```
prompt(object, filename = NULL, name = NULL, ...)
```

```
promptImport(object, filename = NULL, name = NULL,
             importedFrom = NULL, importPage = name, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	an R object, typically a function for the default method. Can be missing when name is specified.
<code>filename</code>	usually, a connection or a character string giving the name of the file to which the documentation shell should be written. The default corresponds to a file whose name is name followed by “.Rd”. Can also be NA (see below).
<code>name</code>	a character string specifying the name of the object.
<code>force.function</code>	a logical. If TRUE, treat object as function in any case.
<code>...</code>	further arguments passed to or from other methods.
<code>importedFrom</code>	a character string naming the package from which object was imported. Defaults to the environment of object if object is a function.
<code>importPage</code>	a character string naming the help page in the package from which object was imported.

Details

Unless `filename` is `NA`, a documentation shell for `object` is written to the file specified by `filename`, and a message about this is given. For function objects, this shell contains the proper function and argument names. R documentation files thus created still need to be edited and moved into the ‘man’ subdirectory of the package containing the object to be documented.

If `filename` is `NA`, a list-style representation of the documentation shell is created and returned. Writing the shell to a file amounts to `cat(unlist(x), file = filename, sep = "\n")`, where `x` is the list-style representation.

When `prompt` is used in `for` loops or scripts, the explicit name specification will be useful.

The `importPage` argument for `promptImport` needs to give the base of the name of the help file of the original help page. For example, the `approx` function is documented in ‘`approxfun.Rd`’ in the **stats** package, so if it were imported and re-exported it should have `importPage = "approxfun"`. Objects that are imported from other packages are not normally documented unless re-exported.

Value

If `filename` is `NA`, a list-style representation of the documentation shell. Otherwise, the name of the file written to is returned invisibly.

Warning

The default filename may not be a valid filename under limited file systems (e.g., those on Windows).

Currently, calling `prompt` on a non-function object assumes that the object is in fact a data set and hence documents it as such. This may change in future versions of R. Use `promptData` to create documentation skeletons for data sets.

Note

The documentation file produced by `prompt.data.frame` does not have the same format as many of the data frame documentation files in the **base** package. We are trying to settle on a preferred format for the documentation.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates for `prompt.data.frame`

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

`promptData`, `help` and the chapter on “Writing R documentation” in “Writing R Extensions” (see the ‘doc/manual’ subdirectory of the R source tree).

For creation of many help pages (for a package), see `package.skeleton`.

To prompt the user for input, see `readline`.

Examples

```
require(graphics)
prompt(plot.default)
prompt(interactive, force.function = TRUE)
unlink("plot.default.Rd")
unlink("interactive.Rd")

prompt(women) # data.frame
unlink("women.Rd")

prompt(sunspots) # non-data.frame data
unlink("sunspots.Rd")

## Not run:
## Create a help file for each function in the .GlobalEnv:
for(f in ls()) if(is.function(get(f))) prompt(name = f)

## End(Not run)
```

promptData

Generate Outline Documentation for a Data Set

Description

Generates a shell of documentation for a data set.

Usage

```
promptData(object, filename = NULL, name = NULL)
```

Arguments

object	an R object to be documented as a data set.
filename	usually, a connection or a character string giving the name of the file to which the documentation shell should be written. The default corresponds to a file whose name is name followed by ".Rd". Can also be NA (see below).
name	a character string specifying the name of the object.

Details

Unless filename is NA, a documentation shell for object is written to the file specified by filename, and a message about this is given.

If filename is NA, a list-style representation of the documentation shell is created and returned. Writing the shell to a file amounts to `cat(unlist(x), file = filename, sep = "\n")`, where x is the list-style representation.

Currently, only data frames are handled explicitly by the code.

Value

If filename is NA, a list-style representation of the documentation shell. Otherwise, the name of the file written to is returned invisibly.

See Also

[prompt](#)

Examples

```
promptData(sunspots)
unlink("sunspots.Rd")
```

promptPackage

Generate a Shell for Documentation of a Package

Description

Generates a shell of documentation for an installed or source package.

Usage

```
promptPackage(package, lib.loc = NULL, filename = NULL,
              name = NULL, final = FALSE)
```

Arguments

package	a character string with the name of an <i>installed</i> or <i>source</i> package to be documented.
lib.loc	a character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through, or NULL. The default value of NULL corresponds to all libraries currently known. For a source package this should specify the parent directory of the package's sources.
filename	usually, a connection or a character string giving the name of the file to which the documentation shell should be written. The default corresponds to a file whose name is name followed by ".Rd". Can also be NA (see below).
name	a character string specifying the name of the help topic, typically of the form '<pkg>-package'.
final	a logical value indicating whether to attempt to create a usable version of the help topic, rather than just a shell.

Details

Unless `filename` is `NA`, a documentation shell for package is written to the file specified by `filename`, and a message about this is given.

If `filename` is `NA`, a list-style representation of the documentation shell is created and returned. Writing the shell to a file amounts to `cat(unlist(x), file = filename, sep = "\n")`, where `x` is the list-style representation.

If `final` is `TRUE`, the generated documentation will not include the place-holder slots for manual editing, it will be usable as-is. In most cases a manually edited file is preferable (but `final = TRUE` is certainly less work).

Value

If `filename` is `NA`, a list-style representation of the documentation shell. Otherwise, the name of the file written to is returned invisibly.

See Also

[prompt](#)

Examples

```
filename <- tempfile()
promptPackage("utils", filename = filename)
file.show(filename)
unlink(filename)
```

Question

Documentation Shortcuts

Description

These functions provide access to documentation. Documentation on a topic with name `name` (typically, an R object or a data set) can be displayed by either `help("name")` or `?name`.

Usage

`?topic`

`type?topic`

Arguments

topic	Usually, a name or character string specifying the topic for which help is sought. Alternatively, a function call to ask for documentation on a corresponding S4 method: see the section on S4 method documentation. The calls <code>pkg::topic</code> and <code>pkg:::topic</code> are treated specially, and look for help on topic in package <code>pkg</code> .
type	the special type of documentation to use for this topic; for example, if the type is <code>class</code> , documentation is provided for the class with name <code>topic</code> . See the Section ‘S4 Method Documentation’ for the uses of <code>type</code> to get help on formal methods, including <code>methods?function</code> and <code>method?call</code> .

Details

This is a shortcut to [help](#) and uses its default type of help.

Some topics need to be quoted (by [backticks](#)) or given as a character string. There include those which cannot syntactically appear on their own such as unary and binary operators, `function` and control-flow [reserved](#) words (including `if`, `else`, `for`, `in`, `repeat`, `while`, `break` and `next`). The other reserved words can be used as if they were names, for example `TRUE`, `NA` and `Inf`.

S4 Method Documentation

Authors of formal (‘S4’) methods can provide documentation on specific methods, as well as overall documentation on the methods of a particular function. The `"?"` operator allows access to this documentation in three ways.

The expression `methods?f` will look for the overall documentation methods for the function `f`. Currently, this means the documentation file containing the alias `f-methods`.

There are two different ways to look for documentation on a particular method. The first is to supply the `topic` argument in the form of a function call, omitting the `type` argument. The effect is to look for documentation on the method that would be used if this function call were actually evaluated. See the examples below. If the function is not a generic (no S4 methods are defined for it), the help reverts to documentation on the function name.

The `"?"` operator can also be called with `doc_type` supplied as method; in this case also, the `topic` argument is a function call, but the arguments are now interpreted as specifying the class of the argument, not the actual expression that will appear in a real call to the function. See the examples below.

The first approach will be tedious if the actual call involves complicated expressions, and may be slow if the arguments take a long time to evaluate. The second approach avoids these issues, but you do have to know what the classes of the actual arguments will be when they are evaluated.

Both approaches make use of any inherited methods; the signature of the method to be looked up is found by using `selectMethod` (see the documentation for [getMethod](#)).

References

Becker, R. A., Chambers, J. M. and Wilks, A. R. (1988) *The New S Language*. Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also[help](#)

?? for finding help pages on a vague topic.

Examples

```
?lapply

?"for"          # but quotes/backticks are needed
?"`+`

?women          # information about data set "women"

## Not run:
require(methods)
## define a S4 generic function and some methods
combo <- function(x, y) c(x, y)
setGeneric("combo")
setMethod("combo", c("numeric", "numeric"), function(x, y) x+y)

## assume we have written some documentation
## for combo, and its methods ....

?combo # produces the function documentation

methods?combo # looks for the overall methods documentation

method?combo("numeric", "numeric") # documentation for the method above

?combo(1:10, rnorm(10)) # ... the same method, selected according to
                        # the arguments (one integer, the other numeric)

?combo(1:10, letters)  # documentation for the default method

## End(Not run)
```

rcompgen*A Completion Generator for R*

Description

This page documents a mechanism to generate relevant completions from a partially completed command line. It is not intended to be useful by itself, but rather in conjunction with other mechanisms that use it as a backend. The functions listed in the usage section provide a simple control and query mechanism. The actual interface consists of a few unexported functions described further down.

Usage

```
rc.settings(ops, ns, args, func, ipck, S3, data, help,
            argdb, fuzzy, quotes, files)

rc.status()
rc.getOption(name)
rc.options(...)

.DollarNames(x, pattern)

## Default S3 method:
.DollarNames(x, pattern = "")
## S3 method for class 'list'
.DollarNames(x, pattern = "")
## S3 method for class 'environment'
.DollarNames(x, pattern = "")
```

Arguments

ops, ns, args, func, ipck, S3, data, help, argdb, fuzzy, quotes, files
 logical, turning some optional completion features on and off.

ops: Activates completion after the \$ and @ operators.

ns: Controls namespace related completions.

args: Enables completion of function arguments.

func: Enables detection of functions. If enabled, a customizable extension ("(" by default) is appended to function names. The process of determining whether a potential completion is a function requires evaluation, including for lazy loaded symbols. This is undesirable for large objects, because of potentially wasteful use of memory in addition to the time overhead associated with loading. For this reason, this feature is disabled by default.

S3: When `args = TRUE`, activates completion on arguments of all S3 methods (otherwise just the generic, which usually has very few arguments).

ipck: Enables completion of installed package names inside [library](#) and [require](#).

data: Enables completion of data sets (including those already visible) inside [data](#).

help: Enables completion of help requests starting with a question mark, by looking inside help index files.

argdb: When `args = TRUE`, completion is attempted on function arguments. Generally, the list of valid arguments is determined by dynamic calls to [args](#). While this gives results that are technically correct, the use of the `...` argument often hides some useful arguments. To give more flexibility in this regard, an optional table of valid arguments names for specific functions is retained internally. Setting `argdb = TRUE` enables preferential lookup in this internal data base for functions with an entry in it. Of

course, this is useful only when the data base contains information about the function of interest. Some functions are already included, and more can be added by the user through the unexported function `.addFunctionInfo` (see below).

fuzzy: Enables fuzzy matching, where close but non-exact matches (e.g., with different case) are considered if no exact matches are found. This feature is experimental and the details can change.

quotes: Enables completion in R code when inside quotes. This normally leads to filename completion, but can be otherwise depending on context (for example, when the open quote is preceded by `?`, help completion is invoked. Setting this to `FALSE` relegates completion to the underlying completion front-end, which may do its own processing (for example, readline on Unix-alikes will do filename completion).

files: Deprecated. Use quotes instead.

All settings are turned on by default except `ipck`, `func`, and `fuzzy`. Turn more off if your CPU cycles are valuable; you will still retain basic completion on names of objects in the search list. See below for additional details.

`name, ...` user-settable options. Currently valid names are

`function.suffix:` default `"(" "`

`funarg.suffix:` default `" = "`

`package.suffix` default `": : "`

Usage is similar to that of [options](#).

`x` An R object for which valid names after `"$"` are computed and returned.

`pattern` A regular expression. Only matching names are returned.

Details

There are several types of completion, some of which can be disabled using `rc.settings`. The most basic level, which can not be turned off once the completion functionality is activated, provides completion on names visible on the search path, along with a few special keywords (e.g., `TRUE`). This type of completion is not attempted if the partial ‘word’ (a.k.a. token) being completed is empty (since there would be too many completions). The more advanced types of completion are described below.

Completion after extractors `$` and `@`: When the `ops` setting is turned on, completion after `$` and `@` is attempted. This requires the prefix to be evaluated, which is attempted unless it involves an explicit function call (implicit function calls involving the use of `[`, `$`, etc *do not* inhibit evaluation).

Valid completions after the `$` extractor are determined by the generic function `.DollarNames`. Some basic methods are provided, and more can be written for custom classes.

Completion inside namespaces: When the `ns` setting is turned on, completion inside namespaces is attempted when a token is preceded by the `::` or `:::` operators. Additionally, the basic completion mechanism is extended to include all loaded namespaces, i.e., `foopkg::` becomes a valid completion of `foo` if `"foopkg"` is a loaded namespace.

The completion of package namespaces applies only to already loaded namespaces, i.e. if `MASS` is not loaded, `MAS` will not complete to `MASS::`. However, attempted completion *inside*

an apparent namespace will attempt to load the namespace if it is not already loaded, e.g. trying to complete on `MASS::fr` will load `MASS` if it is not already loaded.

Completion for help items: When the `help` setting is turned on, completion on help topics is attempted when a token is preceded by `?`. Prefixes (such as `class`, `method`) are supported, as well as quoted help topics containing special characters.

Completion of function arguments: When the `args` setting is turned on, completion on function arguments is attempted whenever deemed appropriate. The mechanism used will currently fail if the relevant function (at the point where completion is requested) was entered on a previous prompt (which implies in particular that the current line is being typed in response to a continuation prompt, usually `+`). Note that separation by newlines is fine.

The list of possible argument completions that is generated can be misleading. There is no problem for non-generic functions (except that `...` is listed as a completion; this is intentional as it signals the fact that the function can accept further arguments). However, for generic functions, it is practically impossible to give a reliable argument list without evaluating arguments (and not even then, in some cases), which is risky (in addition to being difficult to code, which is the real reason it hasn't even been tried), especially when that argument is itself an inline function call. Our compromise is to consider arguments of *all* currently available methods of that generic. This has two drawbacks. First, not all listed completions may be appropriate in the call currently being constructed. Second, for generics with many methods (like `print` and `plot`), many matches will need to be considered, which may take a noticeable amount of time. Despite these drawbacks, we believe this behaviour to be more useful than the only other practical alternative, which is to list arguments of the generic only.

Only S3 methods are currently supported in this fashion, and that can be turned off using the `S3` setting.

Since arguments can be unnamed in R function calls, other types of completion are also appropriate whenever argument completion is. Since there are usually many more visible objects than formal arguments of any particular function, possible argument completions are often buried in a bunch of other possibilities. However, recall that basic completion is suppressed for blank tokens. This can be useful to list possible arguments of a function. For example, trying to complete `seq([TAB])` and `seq(from = 1, [TAB])` will both list only the arguments of `seq` (or any of its methods), whereas trying to complete `seq(length[TAB])` will list both the `length.out` argument and the `length()` function as possible completions. Note that no attempt is made to remove arguments already supplied, as that would incur a further speed penalty.

Special functions: For a few special functions (`library`, `data`, etc), the first argument is treated specially, in the sense that normal completion is suppressed, and some function specific completions are enabled if so requested by the settings. The `ipck` setting, which controls whether `library` and `require` will complete on *installed packages*, is disabled by default because the first call to `installed.packages` is potentially time consuming (e.g., when packages are installed on a remote network file server). Note, however, that the results of a call to `installed.packages` is cached, so subsequent calls are usually fast, so turning this option on is not particularly onerous even in such situations.

Value

If `rc.settings` is called without any arguments, it returns the current settings as a named logical vector. Otherwise, it returns `NULL` invisibly.

`rc.status` returns, as a list, the contents of an internal (unexported) environment that is used to record the results of the last completion attempt. This can be useful for debugging. For such use, one must resist the temptation to use completion when typing the call to `rc.status` itself, as that then becomes the last attempt by the time the call is executed.

The items of primary interest in the returned list are:

<code>comps</code>	The possible completions generated by the last call to <code>.completeToken</code> , as a character vector.
<code>token</code>	The token that was (or, is to be) completed, as set by the last call to <code>.assignToken</code> (possibly inside a call to <code>.guessTokenFromLine</code>).
<code>linebuffer</code>	The full line, as set by the last call to <code>.assignLinebuffer</code> .
<code>start</code>	The start position of the token in the line buffer, as set by the last call to <code>.assignStart</code> .
<code>end</code>	The end position of the token in the line buffer, as set by the last call to <code>.assignEnd</code> .
<code>fileName</code>	Logical, indicating whether the cursor is currently inside quotes.
<code>fguess</code>	The name of the function the cursor is currently inside.
<code>isFirstArg</code>	Logical. If cursor is inside a function, is it the first argument?

In addition, the components `settings` and `options` give the current values of settings and options respectively.

`rc.getOption` and `rc.options` behave much like [getOption](#) and [options](#) respectively.

Unexported API

There are several unexported functions in the package. Of these, a few are special because they provide the API through which other mechanisms can make use of the facilities provided by this package (they are unexported because they are not meant to be called directly by users). The usage of these functions are:

```
.assignToken(text)
.assignLinebuffer(line)
.assignStart(start)
.assignEnd(end)

.completeToken()
.retrieveCompletions()
.getFileComp()

.guessTokenFromLine()
.win32consoleCompletion(linebuffer, cursorPosition,
                        check.repeat = TRUE,
                        minlength = -1)

.addFunctionInfo(...)
```

The first four functions set up a completion attempt by specifying the token to be completed (`text`), and indicating where (`start` and `end`, which should be integers) the token is placed within the complete line typed so far (`line`).

Potential completions of the token are generated by `.completeToken`, and the completions can be retrieved as an R character vector using `.retrieveCompletions`. It is possible for the user to specify a replacement for this function by setting `rc.options("custom.completer")`; if not NULL, this function is called to compute potential completions. This facility is meant to help in situations where completing as R code is not appropriate. See source code for more details.

If the cursor is inside quotes, completion may be suppressed. The function `.getFileComp` can be used after a call to `.completeToken` to determine if this is the case (returns TRUE), and alternative completions generated as deemed useful. In most cases, filename completion is a reasonable fallback.

The `.guessTokenFromLine` function is provided for use with backends that do not already break a line into tokens. It requires the `linebuffer` and `endpoint` (cursor position) to be already set, and itself sets the token and the start position. It returns the token as a character string.

The `.win32consoleCompletion` is similar in spirit, but is more geared towards the Windows GUI (or rather, any front-end that has no completion facilities of its own). It requires the `linebuffer` and cursor position as arguments, and returns a list with three components, `addition`, `possible` and `comps`. If there is an unambiguous extension at the current position, `addition` contains the additional text that should be inserted at the cursor. If there is more than one possibility, these are available either as a character vector of preformatted strings in `possible`, or as a single string in `comps`. `possible` consists of lines formatted using the current width option, so that printing them on the console one line at a time will be a reasonable way to list them. `comps` is a space separated (collapsed) list of the same completions, in case the front-end wishes to display it in some other fashion.

The `minlength` argument can be used to suppress completion when the token is too short (which can be useful if the front-end is set up to try completion on every keypress). If `check.repeat` is TRUE, it is detected if the same completion is being requested more than once in a row, and ambiguous completions are returned only in that case. This is an attempt to emulate GNU Readline behaviour, where a single TAB completes up to any unambiguous part, and multiple possibilities are reported only on two consecutive TABs.

As the various front-end interfaces evolve, the details of these functions are likely to change as well.

The function `.addFunctionInfo` can be used to add information about the permitted argument names for specific functions. Multiple named arguments are allowed in calls to it, where the tags are names of functions and values are character vectors representing valid arguments. When the `argdb` setting is TRUE, these are used as a source of valid argument names for the relevant functions.

Note

If you are uncomfortable with unsolicited evaluation of pieces of code, you should set `ops = FALSE`. Otherwise, trying to complete `foo@ba` will evaluate `foo`, trying to complete `foo[i, 1:10]$ba` will evaluate `foo[i, 1:10]`, etc. This should not be too bad, as explicit function calls (involving parentheses) are not evaluated in this manner. However, this *will* affect promises and lazy loaded symbols.

Author(s)

Deepayan Sarkar, <deepayan.sarkar@r-project.org>

read.DIF

Data Input from Spreadsheet

Description

Reads a file in Data Interchange Format (DIF) and creates a data frame from it. DIF is a format for data matrices such as single spreadsheets.

Usage

```
read.DIF(file, header = FALSE,
         dec = ".", numerals = c("allow.loss", "warn.loss", "no.loss"),
         row.names, col.names, as.is = !stringsAsFactors,
         na.strings = "NA", colClasses = NA, nrow = -1,
         skip = 0, check.names = TRUE, blank.lines.skip = TRUE,
         stringsAsFactors = default.stringsAsFactors(),
         transpose = FALSE, fileEncoding = "")
```

Arguments

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| file | the name of the file which the data are to be read from, or a connection , or a complete URL.
The name "clipboard" may also be used on Windows, in which case read.DIF("clipboard") will look for a DIF format entry in the Windows clipboard. |
| header | a logical value indicating whether the spreadsheet contains the names of the variables as its first line. If missing, the value is determined from the file format: header is set to TRUE if and only if the first row contains only character values and the top left cell is empty. |
| dec | the character used in the file for decimal points. |
| numerals | string indicating how to convert numbers whose conversion to double precision would lose accuracy, see type.convert . |
| row.names | a vector of row names. This can be a vector giving the actual row names, or a single number giving the column of the table which contains the row names, or character string giving the name of the table column containing the row names.
If there is a header and the first row contains one fewer field than the number of columns, the first column in the input is used for the row names. Otherwise if row.names is missing, the rows are numbered.
Using row.names = NULL forces row numbering. |
| col.names | a vector of optional names for the variables. The default is to use "V" followed by the column number. |

as.is	<p>the default behavior of read.DIF is to convert character variables to factors. The variable as.is controls the conversion of columns not otherwise specified by colClasses. Its value is either a vector of logicals (values are recycled if necessary), or a vector of numeric or character indices which specify which columns should not be converted to factors.</p> <p>Note: In releases prior to R 2.12.1, cells marked as being of character type were converted to logical, numeric or complex using type.convert as in read.table.</p> <p>Note: to suppress all conversions including those of numeric columns, set colClasses = "character".</p> <p>Note that as.is is specified per column (not per variable) and so includes the column of row names (if any) and any columns to be skipped.</p>
na.strings	a character vector of strings which are to be interpreted as NA values. Blank fields are also considered to be missing values in logical, integer, numeric and complex fields.
colClasses	<p>character. A vector of classes to be assumed for the columns. Recycled as necessary, or if the character vector is named, unspecified values are taken to be NA.</p> <p>Possible values are NA (when type.convert is used), "NULL" (when the column is skipped), one of the atomic vector classes (logical, integer, numeric, complex, character, raw), or "factor", "Date" or "POSIXct". Otherwise there needs to be an as method (from package methods) for conversion from "character" to the specified formal class.</p> <p>Note that colClasses is specified per column (not per variable) and so includes the column of row names (if any).</p>
nrows	the maximum number of rows to read in. Negative values are ignored.
skip	the number of lines of the data file to skip before beginning to read data.
check.names	logical. If TRUE then the names of the variables in the data frame are checked to ensure that they are syntactically valid variable names. If necessary they are adjusted (by make.names) so that they are, and also to ensure that there are no duplicates.
blank.lines.skip	logical: if TRUE blank lines in the input are ignored.
stringsAsFactors	logical: should character vectors be converted to factors?
transpose	logical, indicating if the row and column interpretation should be transposed. Microsoft's Excel has been known to produce (non-standard conforming) DIF files which would need transpose = TRUE to be read correctly.
fileEncoding	character string: if non-empty declares the encoding used on a file (not a connection or clipboard) so the character data can be re-encoded. See the 'Encoding' section of the help for file , the 'R Data Import/Export Manual' and 'Note'.

Value

A data frame ([data.frame](#)) containing a representation of the data in the file. Empty input is an error unless col.names is specified, when a 0-row data frame is returned: similarly giving just a header line if header = TRUE results in a 0-row data frame.

Note

The columns referred to in `as.is` and `colClasses` include the column of row names (if any).
 Less memory will be used if `colClasses` is specified as one of the six atomic vector classes.

Author(s)

R Core; transpose option by Christoph Buser, ETH Zurich

References

The DIF format specification can be found by searching on <http://www.wotsit.org/>; the optional header fields are ignored. See also https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data_Interchange_Format.

The term is likely to lead to confusion: Windows will have a ‘Windows Data Interchange Format (DIF) data format’ as part of its WinFX system, which may or may not be compatible.

See Also

The *R Data Import/Export* manual.

`scan`, `type.convert`, `read.fwf` for reading fixed width formatted input; `read.table`; `data.frame`.

Examples

```
## read.DIF() may need transpose = TRUE for a file exported from Excel
udir <- system.file("misc", package = "utils")
dd <- read.DIF(file.path(udir, "exDIF.dif"), header = TRUE, transpose = TRUE)
dc <- read.csv(file.path(udir, "exDIF.csv"), header = TRUE)
stopifnot(identical(dd, dc), dim(dd) == c(4,2))
```

read.fortran

Read Fixed-Format Data in a Fortran-like Style

Description

Read fixed-format data files using Fortran-style format specifications.

Usage

```
read.fortran(file, format, ..., as.is = TRUE, colClasses = NA)
```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	File or connection to read from.
<code>format</code>	Character vector or list of vectors. See ‘Details’ below.
<code>...</code>	Other arguments for read.fwf .
<code>as.is</code>	Keep characters as characters?
<code>colClasses</code>	Variable classes to override defaults. See read.table for details.

Details

The format for a field is of one of the following forms: `rF1.d`, `rD1.d`, `rX1`, `rA1`, `rI1`, where `1` is the number of columns, `d` is the number of decimal places, and `r` is the number of repeats. `F` and `D` are numeric formats, `A` is character, `I` is integer, and `X` indicates columns to be skipped. The repeat code `r` and decimal place code `d` are always optional. The length code `1` is required except for `X` formats when `r` is present.

For a single-line record, format should be a character vector. For a multiline record it should be a list with a character vector for each line.

Skipped (`X`) columns are not passed to `read.fwf`, so `colClasses`, `col.names`, and similar arguments passed to `read.fwf` should not reference these columns.

Value

A data frame

Note

`read.fortran` does not use actual Fortran input routines, so the formats are at best rough approximations to the Fortran ones. In particular, specifying `d > 0` in the `F` or `D` format will shift the decimal `d` places to the left, even if it is explicitly specified in the input file.

See Also

[read.fwf](#), [read.table](#), [read.csv](#)

Examples

```
ff <- tempfile()
cat(file = ff, "123456", "987654", sep = "\n")
read.fortran(ff, c("F2.1", "F2.0", "I2"))
read.fortran(ff, c("2F1.0", "2X", "2A1"))
unlink(ff)
cat(file = ff, "123456AB", "987654CD", sep = "\n")
read.fortran(ff, list(c("2F3.1", "A2"), c("3I2", "2X")))
unlink(ff)
# Note that the first number is read differently than Fortran would
# read it:
cat(file = ff, "12.3456", "1234567", sep = "\n")
read.fortran(ff, "F7.4")
unlink(ff)
```

read.fwf

Read Fixed Width Format Files

Description

Read a table of fixed width formatted data into a [data.frame](#).

Usage

```
read.fwf(file, widths, header = FALSE, sep = "\t",
         skip = 0, row.names, col.names, n = -1,
         buffersize = 2000, fileEncoding = "", ...)
```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	the name of the file which the data are to be read from. Alternatively, <code>file</code> can be a connection , which will be opened if necessary, and if so closed at the end of the function call.
<code>widths</code>	integer vector, giving the widths of the fixed-width fields (of one line), or list of integer vectors giving widths for multiline records.
<code>header</code>	a logical value indicating whether the file contains the names of the variables as its first line. If present, the names must be delimited by <code>sep</code> .
<code>sep</code>	character; the separator used internally; should be a character that does not occur in the file (except in the header).
<code>skip</code>	number of initial lines to skip; see read.table .
<code>row.names</code>	see read.table .
<code>col.names</code>	see read.table .
<code>n</code>	the maximum number of records (lines) to be read, defaulting to no limit.
<code>buffersize</code>	Maximum number of lines to read at one time
<code>fileEncoding</code>	character string: if non-empty declares the encoding used on a file (not a connection) so the character data can be re-encoded. See the ‘Encoding’ section of the help for file , the ‘R Data Import/Export Manual’ and ‘Note’.
<code>...</code>	further arguments to be passed to read.table . Useful such arguments include <code>as.is</code> , <code>na.strings</code> , <code>colClasses</code> and <code>strip.white</code> .

Details

Multiline records are concatenated to a single line before processing. Fields that are of zero-width or are wholly beyond the end of the line in `file` are replaced by NA.

Negative-width fields are used to indicate columns to be skipped, e.g., -5 to skip 5 columns. These fields are not seen by `read.table` and so should not be included in a `col.names` or `colClasses` argument (nor in the header line, if present).

Reducing the `buffersize` argument may reduce memory use when reading large files with long lines. Increasing `buffersize` may result in faster processing when enough memory is available.

Note that `read.fwf` (not `read.table`) reads the supplied file, so the latter’s argument `encoding` will not be useful.

Value

A [data.frame](#) as produced by [read.table](#) which is called internally.

Author(s)

Brian Ripley for R version: originally in Perl by Kurt Hornik.

See Also

[scan](#) and [read.table](#).

[read.fortran](#) for another style of fixed-format files.

Examples

```
ff <- tempfile()
cat(file = ff, "123456", "987654", sep = "\n")
read.fwf(ff, widths = c(1,2,3))    #> 1 23 456 \ 9 87 654
read.fwf(ff, widths = c(1,-2,3))   #> 1 456 \ 9 654
unlink(ff)
cat(file = ff, "123", "987654", sep = "\n")
read.fwf(ff, widths = c(1,0, 2,3))  #> 1 NA 23 NA \ 9 NA 87 654
unlink(ff)
cat(file = ff, "123456", "987654", sep = "\n")
read.fwf(ff, widths = list(c(1,0, 2,3), c(2,2,2))) #> 1 NA 23 456 98 76 54
unlink(ff)
```

read.socket

Read from or Write to a Socket

Description

`read.socket` reads a string from the specified socket, `write.socket` writes to the specified socket. There is very little error checking done by either.

Usage

```
read.socket(socket, maxlen = 256L, loop = FALSE)
write.socket(socket, string)
```

Arguments

<code>socket</code>	a socket object.
<code>maxlen</code>	maximum length (in bytes) of string to read.
<code>loop</code>	wait for ever if there is nothing to read?
<code>string</code>	string to write to socket.

Value

`read.socket` returns the string read as a length-one character vector.
`write.socket` returns the number of bytes written.

Author(s)

Thomas Lumley

See Also[close.socket](#), [make.socket](#)**Examples**

```

finger <- function(user, host = "localhost", port = 79, print = TRUE)
{
  if (!is.character(user))
    stop("user name must be a string")
  user <- paste(user, "\r\n")
  socket <- make.socket(host, port)
  on.exit(close.socket(socket))
  write.socket(socket, user)
  output <- character(0)
  repeat{
    ss <- read.socket(socket)
    if (ss == "") break
    output <- paste(output, ss)
  }
  close.socket(socket)
  if (print) cat(output)
  invisible(output)
}
## Not run:
finger("root") ## only works if your site provides a finger daemon
## End(Not run)

```

read.table

*Data Input***Description**

Reads a file in table format and creates a data frame from it, with cases corresponding to lines and variables to fields in the file.

Usage

```

read.table(file, header = FALSE, sep = "", quote = "\"'",
  dec = ".", numerals = c("allow.loss", "warn.loss", "no.loss"),
  row.names, col.names, as.is = !stringsAsFactors,
  na.strings = "NA", colClasses = NA, nrows = -1,
  skip = 0, check.names = TRUE, fill = !blank.lines.skip,
  strip.white = FALSE, blank.lines.skip = TRUE,
  comment.char = "#",
  allowEscapes = FALSE, flush = FALSE,

```

```

stringsAsFactors = default.stringsAsFactors(),
fileEncoding = "", encoding = "unknown", text, skipNul = FALSE)

read.csv(file, header = TRUE, sep = ",", quote = "\"",
dec = ".", fill = TRUE, comment.char = "", ...)

read.csv2(file, header = TRUE, sep = ";", quote = "\"",
dec = ",", fill = TRUE, comment.char = "", ...)

read.delim(file, header = TRUE, sep = "\t", quote = "\"",
dec = ".", fill = TRUE, comment.char = "", ...)

read.delim2(file, header = TRUE, sep = "\t", quote = "\"",
dec = ",", fill = TRUE, comment.char = "", ...)

```

Arguments

file	<p>the name of the file which the data are to be read from. Each row of the table appears as one line of the file. If it does not contain an <i>absolute</i> path, the file name is <i>relative</i> to the current working directory, <code>getwd()</code>. Tilde-expansion is performed where supported. This can be a compressed file (see file).</p> <p>Alternatively, file can be a readable text-mode connection (which will be opened for reading if necessary, and if so closed (and hence destroyed) at the end of the function call). (If <code>stdin()</code> is used, the prompts for lines may be somewhat confusing. Terminate input with a blank line or an EOF signal, Ctrl-D on Unix and Ctrl-Z on Windows. Any pushback on <code>stdin()</code> will be cleared before return.)</p> <p>file can also be a complete URL. (For the supported URL schemes, see the ‘URLs’ section of the help for url.)</p>
header	a logical value indicating whether the file contains the names of the variables as its first line. If missing, the value is determined from the file format: header is set to TRUE if and only if the first row contains one fewer field than the number of columns.
sep	the field separator character. Values on each line of the file are separated by this character. If <code>sep = ""</code> (the default for <code>read.table</code>) the separator is ‘white space’, that is one or more spaces, tabs, newlines or carriage returns.
quote	the set of quoting characters. To disable quoting altogether, use <code>quote = ""</code> . See scan for the behaviour on quotes embedded in quotes. Quoting is only considered for columns read as character, which is all of them unless <code>colClasses</code> is specified.
dec	the character used in the file for decimal points.
numerals	string indicating how to convert numbers whose conversion to double precision would lose accuracy, see type.convert . Can be abbreviated. (Applies also to complex-number inputs.)
row.names	a vector of row names. This can be a vector giving the actual row names, or a single number giving the column of the table which contains the row names, or character string giving the name of the table column containing the row names.

If there is a header and the first row contains one fewer field than the number of columns, the first column in the input is used for the row names. Otherwise if row.names is missing, the rows are numbered.

Using row.names = NULL forces row numbering. Missing or NULL row.names generate row names that are considered to be ‘automatic’ (and not preserved by [as.matrix](#)).

col.names	a vector of optional names for the variables. The default is to use "V" followed by the column number.
as.is	<p>the default behavior of read.table is to convert character variables (which are not converted to logical, numeric or complex) to factors. The variable as.is controls the conversion of columns not otherwise specified by colClasses. Its value is either a vector of logicals (values are recycled if necessary), or a vector of numeric or character indices which specify which columns should not be converted to factors.</p> <p>Note: to suppress all conversions including those of numeric columns, set colClasses = "character".</p> <p>Note that as.is is specified per column (not per variable) and so includes the column of row names (if any) and any columns to be skipped.</p>
na.strings	a character vector of strings which are to be interpreted as NA values. Blank fields are also considered to be missing values in logical, integer, numeric and complex fields.
colClasses	<p>character. A vector of classes to be assumed for the columns. Recycled as necessary. If named and shorter than required, names are matched to the column names with unspecified values are taken to be NA.</p> <p>Possible values are NA (the default, when type.convert is used), "NULL" (when the column is skipped), one of the atomic vector classes (logical, integer, numeric, complex, character, raw), or "factor", "Date" or "POSIXct". Otherwise there needs to be an as method (from package methods) for conversion from "character" to the specified formal class.</p> <p>Note that colClasses is specified per column (not per variable) and so includes the column of row names (if any).</p>
nrows	integer: the maximum number of rows to read in. Negative and other invalid values are ignored.
skip	integer: the number of lines of the data file to skip before beginning to read data.
check.names	logical. If TRUE then the names of the variables in the data frame are checked to ensure that they are syntactically valid variable names. If necessary they are adjusted (by make.names) so that they are, and also to ensure that there are no duplicates.
fill	logical. If TRUE then in case the rows have unequal length, blank fields are implicitly added. See ‘Details’.
strip.white	logical. Used only when sep has been specified, and allows the stripping of leading and trailing white space from unquoted character fields (numeric fields are always stripped). See scan for further details (including the exact meaning of ‘white space’), remembering that the columns may include the row names.

<code>blank.lines.skip</code>	logical: if TRUE blank lines in the input are ignored.
<code>comment.char</code>	character: a character vector of length one containing a single character or an empty string. Use "" to turn off the interpretation of comments altogether.
<code>allowEscapes</code>	logical. Should C-style escapes such as ‘\n’ be processed or read verbatim (the default)? Note that if not within quotes these could be interpreted as a delimiter (but not as a comment character). For more details see scan .
<code>flush</code>	logical: if TRUE, scan will flush to the end of the line after reading the last of the fields requested. This allows putting comments after the last field.
<code>stringsAsFactors</code>	logical: should character vectors be converted to factors? Note that this is overridden by <code>as.is</code> and <code>colClasses</code> , both of which allow finer control.
<code>fileEncoding</code>	character string: if non-empty declares the encoding used on a file (not a connection) so the character data can be re-encoded. See the ‘Encoding’ section of the help for file , the ‘R Data Import/Export Manual’ and ‘Note’.
<code>encoding</code>	encoding to be assumed for input strings. It is used to mark character strings as known to be in Latin-1 or UTF-8 (see Encoding): it is not used to re-encode the input, but allows R to handle encoded strings in their native encoding (if one of those two). See ‘Value’ and ‘Note’.
<code>text</code>	character string: if file is not supplied and this is, then data are read from the value of <code>text</code> via a text connection. Notice that a literal string can be used to include (small) data sets within R code.
<code>skipNul</code>	logical: should nuls be skipped?
<code>...</code>	Further arguments to be passed to <code>read.table</code> .

Details

This function is the principal means of reading tabular data into R.

Unless `colClasses` is specified, all columns are read as character columns and then converted using [type.convert](#) to logical, integer, numeric, complex or (depending on `as.is`) factor as appropriate. Quotes are (by default) interpreted in all fields, so a column of values like "42" will result in an integer column.

A field or line is ‘blank’ if it contains nothing (except whitespace if no separator is specified) before a comment character or the end of the field or line.

If `row.names` is not specified and the header line has one less entry than the number of columns, the first column is taken to be the row names. This allows data frames to be read in from the format in which they are printed. If `row.names` is specified and does not refer to the first column, that column is discarded from such files.

The number of data columns is determined by looking at the first five lines of input (or the whole input if it has less than five lines), or from the length of `col.names` if it is specified and is longer. This could conceivably be wrong if `fill` or `blank.lines.skip` are true, so specify `col.names` if necessary (as in the ‘Examples’).

`read.csv` and `read.csv2` are identical to `read.table` except for the defaults. They are intended for reading ‘comma separated value’ files (‘.csv’) or (`read.csv2`) the variant used in countries that use a comma as decimal point and a semicolon as field separator. Similarly, `read.delim`

and `read.delim2` are for reading delimited files, defaulting to the TAB character for the delimiter. Notice that `header = TRUE` and `fill = TRUE` in these variants, and that the comment character is disabled.

The rest of the line after a comment character is skipped; quotes are not processed in comments. Complete comment lines are allowed provided `blank.lines.skip = TRUE`; however, comment lines prior to the header must have the comment character in the first non-blank column.

Quoted fields with embedded newlines are supported except after a comment character. Embedded nuls are unsupported: skipping them (with `skipNul = TRUE`) may work.

Value

A data frame ([data.frame](#)) containing a representation of the data in the file.

Empty input is an error unless `col.names` is specified, when a 0-row data frame is returned: similarly giving just a header line if `header = TRUE` results in a 0-row data frame. Note that in either case the columns will be logical unless `colClasses` was supplied.

Character strings in the result (including factor levels) will have a declared encoding if encoding is "latin1" or "UTF-8".

Memory usage

These functions can use a surprising amount of memory when reading large files. There is extensive discussion in the 'R Data Import/Export' manual, supplementing the notes here.

Less memory will be used if `colClasses` is specified as one of the six [atomic](#) vector classes. This can be particularly so when reading a column that takes many distinct numeric values, as storing each distinct value as a character string can take up to 14 times as much memory as storing it as an integer.

Using `nrows`, even as a mild over-estimate, will help memory usage.

Using `comment.char = ""` will be appreciably faster than the `read.table` default.

`read.table` is not the right tool for reading large matrices, especially those with many columns: it is designed to read *data frames* which may have columns of very different classes. Use [scan](#) instead for matrices.

Note

The columns referred to in `as.is` and `colClasses` include the column of row names (if any).

There are two approaches for reading input that is not in the local encoding. If the input is known to be UTF-8 or Latin1, use the encoding argument to declare that. If the input is in some other encoding, then it may be translated on input. The `fileEncoding` argument achieves this by setting up a connection to do the re-encoding into the current locale. Note that on Windows or other systems not running in a UTF-8 locale, this may not be possible.

References

Chambers, J. M. (1992) *Data for models*. Chapter 3 of *Statistical Models in S* eds J. M. Chambers and T. J. Hastie, Wadsworth & Brooks/Cole.

See Also

The ‘R Data Import/Export’ manual.

`scan`, `type.convert`, `read.fwf` for reading *fixed width formatted* input; `write.table`; `data.frame`.

`count.fields` can be useful to determine problems with reading files which result in reports of incorrect record lengths (see the ‘Examples’ below).

<https://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc4180> for the IANA definition of CSV files (which requires comma as separator and CRLF line endings).

Examples

```
## using count.fields to handle unknown maximum number of fields
## when fill = TRUE
test1 <- c(1:5, "6,7", "8,9,10")
tf <- tempfile()
writeLines(test1, tf)

read.csv(tf, fill = TRUE) # 1 column
ncol <- max(count.fields(tf, sep = ","))
read.csv(tf, fill = TRUE, header = FALSE,
         col.names = paste0("V", seq_len(ncol)))
unlink(tf)

## "Inline" data set, using text=
## Notice that leading and trailing empty lines are auto-trimmed

read.table(header = TRUE, text = "
a b
1 2
3 4
")
```

recover

Browsing after an Error

Description

This function allows the user to browse directly on any of the currently active function calls, and is suitable as an error option. The expression `options(error = recover)` will make this the error option.

Usage

```
recover()
```

Details

When called, `recover` prints the list of current calls, and prompts the user to select one of them. The standard R [browser](#) is then invoked from the corresponding environment; the user can type ordinary R language expressions to be evaluated in that environment.

When finished browsing in this call, type `c` to return to `recover` from the browser. Type another frame number to browse some more, or type `0` to exit `recover`.

The use of `recover` largely supersedes [dump.frames](#) as an error option, unless you really want to wait to look at the error. If `recover` is called in non-interactive mode, it behaves like `dump.frames`. For computations involving large amounts of data, `recover` has the advantage that it does not need to copy out all the environments in order to browse in them. If you do decide to quit interactive debugging, call [dump.frames](#) directly while browsing in any frame (see the examples).

Value

Nothing useful is returned. However, you *can* invoke `recover` directly from a function, rather than through the error option shown in the examples. In this case, execution continues after you type `0` to exit `recover`.

Compatibility Note

The R `recover` function can be used in the same way as the S function of the same name; therefore, the error option shown is a compatible way to specify the error action. However, the actual functions are essentially unrelated and interact quite differently with the user. The navigating commands `up` and `down` do not exist in the R version; instead, exit the browser and select another frame.

References

John M. Chambers (1998). *Programming with Data*; Springer.
See the compatibility note above, however.

See Also

[browser](#) for details about the interactive computations; [options](#) for setting the error option; [dump.frames](#) to save the current environments for later debugging.

Examples

```
## Not run:

options(error = recover) # setting the error option

### Example of interaction

> myFit <- lm(y ~ x, data = xy, weights = w)
Error in lm.wfit(x, y, w, offset = offset, ...) :
  missing or negative weights not allowed

Enter a frame number, or 0 to exit
1:lm(y ~ x, data = xy, weights = w)
```

```

2:lm.wfit(x, y, w, offset = offset, ...)
Selection: 2
Called from: eval(expr, envir, enclos)
Browse[1]> objects() # all the objects in this frame
[1] "method" "n"      "ny"      "offset" "tol"     "w"
[7] "x"      "y"
Browse[1]> w
[1] -0.5013844  1.3112515  0.2939348 -0.8983705 -0.1538642
[6] -0.9772989  0.7888790 -0.1919154 -0.3026882
Browse[1]> dump.frames() # save for offline debugging
Browse[1]> c # exit the browser

Enter a frame number, or 0 to exit
1:lm(y ~ x, data = xy, weights = w)
2:lm.wfit(x, y, w, offset = offset, ...)
Selection: 0 # exit recover
>

```

```
## End(Not run)
```

relist

Allow Re-Listing an unlist()ed Object

Description

`relist()` is an S3 generic function with a few methods in order to allow easy inversion of `unlist(obj)` when that is used with an object `obj` of (S3) class "relistable".

Usage

```

relist(flesh, skeleton)
## Default S3 method:
relist(flesh, skeleton = attr(flesh, "skeleton"))
## S3 method for class 'factor'
relist(flesh, skeleton = attr(flesh, "skeleton"))
## S3 method for class 'list'
relist(flesh, skeleton = attr(flesh, "skeleton"))
## S3 method for class 'matrix'
relist(flesh, skeleton = attr(flesh, "skeleton"))

as.relistable(x)
is.relistable(x)

## S3 method for class 'relistable'
unlist(x, recursive = TRUE, use.names = TRUE)

```


Arguments

flesh	a vector to be relisted
skeleton	a list, the structure of which determines the structure of the result
x	an R object, typically a list (or vector).
recursive	logical. Should unlisting be applied to list components of x?
use.names	logical. Should names be preserved?

Details

Some functions need many parameters, which are most easily represented in complex structures, e.g., nested lists. Unfortunately, many mathematical functions in R, including `optim` and `nlm` can only operate on functions whose domain is a vector. R has `unlist()` to convert nested list objects into a vector representation. `relist()`, its methods and the functionality mentioned here provide the inverse operation to convert vectors back to the convenient structural representation. This allows structured functions (such as `optim()`) to have simple mathematical interfaces.

For example, a likelihood function for a multivariate normal model needs a variance-covariance matrix and a mean vector. It would be most convenient to represent it as a list containing a vector and a matrix. A typical parameter might look like

```
list(mean = c(0, 1), vcov = cbind(c(1, 1), c(1, 0))).
```

However, `optim` cannot operate on functions that take lists as input; it only likes numeric vectors. The solution is conversion. Given a function `mvdnorm(x, mean, vcov, log = FALSE)` which computes the required probability density, then

```
ipar <- list(mean = c(0, 1), vcov = c bind(c(1, 1), c(1, 0)))
initial.param <- as.relistable(ipar)

ll <- function(param.vector)
{
  param <- relist(param.vector, skeleton = ipar))
  -sum(mvdnorm(x, mean = param$mean, vcov = param$vcov,
              log = TRUE))
}

optim(unlist(initial.param), ll)
```

`relist` takes two parameters: `skeleton` and `flesh`. `Skeleton` is a sample object that has the right shape but the wrong content. `flesh` is a vector with the right content but the wrong shape. Invoking

```
relist(flesh, skeleton)
```

will put the content of `flesh` on the `skeleton`. You don't need to specify `skeleton` explicitly if the `skeleton` is stored as an attribute inside `flesh`. In particular, if `flesh` was created from some object `obj` with `unlist(as.relistable(obj))` then the `skeleton` attribute is automatically set. (Note that this does not apply to the example here, as `optim` is creating a new vector to pass to `ll` and not its `par` argument.)

As long as `skeleton` has the right shape, it should be a precise inverse of `unlist`. These equalities hold:

```
relist(unlist(x), x) == x
unlist(relist(y, skeleton)) == y
```

```
x <- as.relistable(x)
relist(unlist(x)) == x
```

Value

an object of (S3) class "relistable" (and "list").

Author(s)

R Core, based on a code proposal by Andrew Clausen.

See Also

[unlist](#)

Examples

```
ipar <- list(mean = c(0, 1), vcov = cbind(c(1, 1), c(1, 0)))
initial.param <- as.relistable(ipar)
ul <- unlist(initial.param)
relist(ul)
stopifnot(identical(relist(ul), initial.param))
```

REMOVE

Remove Add-on Packages

Description

Utility for removing add-on packages.

Usage

```
R CMD REMOVE [options] [-l lib] pkgs
```

Arguments

pkgs	a space-separated list with the names of the packages to be removed.
lib	the path name of the R library tree to remove from. May be absolute or relative. Also accepted in the form '--library=lib'.
options	further options for help or version.

Details

If used as `R CMD REMOVE pkgs` without explicitly specifying `lib`, packages are removed from the library tree rooted at the first directory in the library path which would be used by `R` run in the current environment.

To remove from the library tree *lib* instead of the default one, use `R CMD REMOVE -l lib pkgs`.

Use `R CMD REMOVE --help` for more usage information.

Note

Some binary distributions of `R` have `REMOVE` in a separate bundle, e.g. an `R-devel` RPM.

See Also

[INSTALL](#), [remove.packages](#)

<code>remove.packages</code>	<i>Remove Installed Packages</i>
------------------------------	----------------------------------

Description

Removes installed packages/bundles and updates index information as necessary.

Usage

```
remove.packages(pkgs, lib)
```

Arguments

<code>pkgs</code>	a character vector with the names of the packages to be removed.
<code>lib</code>	a character vector giving the library directories to remove the packages from. If missing, defaults to the first element in .libPaths() .

See Also

[REMOVE](#) for a command line version; [install.packages](#) for installing packages.

removeSource	<i>Remove Stored Source from a Function.</i>
--------------	--

Description

When `options("keep.source")` is TRUE, a copy of the original source code to a function is stored with it. This function removes that copy.

Usage

```
removeSource(fn)
```

Arguments

`fn` A single function from which to remove the source.

Details

This removes the "srcref" and related attributes.

Value

A copy of the function with the source removed.

See Also

[srcref](#) for a description of source reference records, [deparse](#) for a description of how functions are deparsed.

Examples

```
fn <- function(x) {  
  x + 1 # A comment, kept as part of the source  
}  
fn  
fn <- removeSource(fn)  
fn
```

RHOME	<i>R Home Directory</i>
-------	-------------------------

Description

Returns the location of the R home directory, which is the root of the installed R tree.

Usage

```
R RHOME
```

roman

Roman Numerals

Description

Manipulate integers as roman numerals.

Usage

```
as.roman(x)
```

Arguments

x a numeric vector, or a character vector of arabic or roman numerals.

Details

as.roman creates objects of class "roman" which are internally represented as integers, and have suitable methods for printing, formatting, subsetting, and coercion to character.

Only numbers between 1 and 3899 have a unique representation as roman numbers.

References

Wikipedia contributors (2006). Roman numerals. Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia. https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Roman_numerals&oldid=78252134. Accessed September 29, 2006.

Examples

```
## First five roman 'numbers'.
(y <- as.roman(1 : 5))
## Middle one.
y[3]
## Current year as a roman number.
(y <- as.roman(format(Sys.Date(), "%Y")))
## 10 years ago ...
y - 10
```

Rprof*Enable Profiling of R's Execution*

Description

Enable or disable profiling of the execution of R expressions.

Usage

```
Rprof(filename = "Rprof.out", append = FALSE, interval = 0.02,  
      memory.profiling = FALSE, gc.profiling = FALSE,  
      line.profiling = FALSE, numfiles = 100L, bufsize = 10000L)
```

Arguments

filename	The file to be used for recording the profiling results. Set to NULL or "" to disable profiling.
append	logical: should the file be over-written or appended to?
interval	real: time interval between samples.
memory.profiling	logical: write memory use information to the file?
gc.profiling	logical: record whether GC is running?
line.profiling	logical: write line locations to the file?
numfiles, bufsize	integers: line profiling memory allocation

Details

Enabling profiling automatically disables any existing profiling to another or the same file.

Profiling works by writing out the call stack every interval seconds, to the file specified. Either the [summaryRprof](#) function or the wrapper script `R CMD Rprof` can be used to process the output file to produce a summary of the usage; use `R CMD Rprof --help` for usage information.

How time is measured varies by platform: on a Unix-alike it is the CPU time of the R process, so for example excludes time when R is waiting for input or for processes run by [system](#) to return.

Note that the timing interval cannot usefully be too small: once the timer goes off, the information is not recorded until the next timing click (probably in the range 1–10msecs).

Functions will only be recorded in the profile log if they put a context on the call stack (see [sys.calls](#)). Some [primitive](#) functions do not do so: specifically those which are of [type](#) "special" (see the 'R Internals' manual for more details).

Individual statements will be recorded in the profile log if `line.profiling` is TRUE, and if the code being executed was parsed with source references. See [parse](#) for a discussion of source references. By default the statement locations are not shown in [summaryRprof](#), but see that help page for options to enable the display.

Note

Profiling is not available on all platforms. By default, support for profiling is compiled in if possible – configure R with ‘--disable-R-profiling’ to change this.

As R profiling uses the same mechanisms as C profiling, the two cannot be used together, so do not use Rprof in an executable built for C-level profiling.

Note

The profiler interrupts R asynchronously, and it cannot allocate memory to store results as it runs. This affects line profiling, which needs to store an unknown number of file pathnames. The numfiles and bufsize arguments control the size of pre-allocated buffers to hold these results: the former counts the maximum number of paths, the latter counts the numbers of bytes in them. If the profiler runs out of space it will skip recording the line information for new files, and issue a warning when Rprof(NULL) is called to finish profiling.

See Also

The chapter on “Tidying and profiling R code” in “Writing R Extensions” (see the ‘doc/manual’ subdirectory of the R source tree).

[summaryRprof](#) to analyse the output file.

[tracemem](#), [Rprofmem](#) for other ways to track memory use.

Examples

```
## Not run: Rprof()
## some code to be profiled
Rprof(NULL)
## some code NOT to be profiled
Rprof(append = TRUE)
## some code to be profiled
Rprof(NULL)
...
## Now post-process the output as described in Details

## End(Not run)
```

Rprofmem

Enable Profiling of R's Memory Use

Description

Enable or disable reporting of memory allocation in R.

Usage

```
Rprofmem(filename = "Rprofmem.out", append = FALSE, threshold = 0)
```

Arguments

filename	The file to be used for recording the memory allocations. Set to NULL or "" to disable reporting.
append	logical: should the file be over-written or appended to?
threshold	numeric: allocations on R's "large vector" heap larger than this number of bytes will be reported.

Details

Enabling profiling automatically disables any existing profiling to another or the same file.

Profiling writes the call stack to the specified file every time malloc is called to allocate a large vector object or to allocate a page of memory for small objects. The size of a page of memory and the size above which malloc is used for vectors are compile-time constants, by default 2000 and 128 bytes respectively.

The profiler tracks allocations, some of which will be to previously used memory and will not increase the total memory use of R.

Value

None

Note

The memory profiler slows down R even when not in use, and so is a compile-time option. The memory profiler can be used at the same time as other R and C profilers.

See Also

The R sampling profiler, [Rprof](#) also collects memory information.

[tracemem](#) traces duplications of specific objects.

The "Writing R Extensions" manual section on "Tidying and profiling R code"

Examples

```
## Not run:
## not supported unless R is compiled to support it.
Rprofmem("Rprofmem.out", threshold = 1000)
example(glm)
Rprofmem(NULL)
noquote(readLines("Rprofmem.out", n = 5))

## End(Not run)
```


Rscript

*Scripting Front-End for R***Description**

This is an alternative front end for use in ‘#!’ scripts and other scripting applications.

Usage

```
Rscript [options] [-e expr [-e expr2 ...] | file] [args]
```

Arguments

options	a list of options, all beginning with ‘--’. These can be any of the options of the standard R front-end, and also those described in the details.
expr, expr2	R expression(s), properly quoted.
file	the name of a file containing R commands. ‘-’ indicates ‘stdin’.
args	arguments to be passed to the script in file.

Details

Rscript --help gives details of usage, and Rscript --version gives the version of Rscript.

Other invocations invoke the R front-end with selected options. This front-end is convenient for writing ‘#!’ scripts since it is an executable and takes file directly as an argument. Options ‘--slave --no-restore’ are always supplied: these imply ‘--no-save’. (The standard Windows command line has no concept of ‘#!’ scripts, but Cygwin shells do.)

Either one or more ‘-e’ options or file should be supplied. When using ‘-e’ options be aware of the quoting rules in the shell used: see the examples.

Additional options accepted (before file or args) are

‘--verbose’ gives details of what Rscript is doing. Also passed on to R.

‘--default-packages=list’ where list is a comma-separated list of package names or NULL. Sets the environment variable R_DEFAULT_PACKAGES which determines the packages loaded on startup. The default for Rscript omits **methods** as it takes about 60% of the startup time.

Spaces are allowed in expression and file (but will need to be protected from the shell in use, if any, for example by enclosing the argument in quotes).

Normally the version of R is determined at installation, but this can be overridden by setting the environment variable RHOME.

`stdin()` refers to the input file, and `file("stdin")` to the stdin file stream of the process.

Note

Rscript is only supported on systems with the execv system call.

Examples

```
## Not run:
Rscript -e 'date()' -e 'format(Sys.time(), "%a %b %d %X %Y")'

## example #! script for a Unix-alike

#! /path/to/Rscript --vanilla --default-packages=utils
args <- commandArgs(TRUE)
res <- try(install.packages(args))
if(inherits(res, "try-error")) q(status=1) else q()

## End(Not run)
```

RShowDoc

Show R Manuals and Other Documentation

Description

Utility function to find and display R documentation.

Usage

```
RShowDoc(what, type = c("pdf", "html", "txt"), package)
```

Arguments

what	a character string: see ‘Details’.
type	an optional character string giving the preferred format. Can be abbreviated.
package	an optional character string specifying the name of a package within which to look for documentation.

Details

what can specify one of several different sources of documentation, including the R manuals (R-admin, R-data, R-exts, R-intro, R-ints, R-lang), NEWS, COPYING (the GPL licence), any of the licenses in ‘share/licenses’, FAQ (also available as R-FAQ), and the files in ‘[R_HOME](#)/doc’.

Only on Windows, the R for Windows FAQ is specified by rw-FAQ.

If package is supplied, documentation is looked for in the ‘doc’ and top-level directories of an installed package of that name.

If what is missing a brief usage message is printed.

The documentation types are tried in turn starting with the first specified in type (or "pdf" if none is specified).

Value

A invisible character string given the path to the file found.

See Also

For displaying regular help files, [help](#) (or [?](#)) and [help.start](#).

For type = "txt", [file.show](#) is used. [vignettes](#) are nicely viewed via `RShowDoc(*, package= .)`.

Examples

```
RShowDoc("R-lang")
RShowDoc("FAQ", type = "html")
RShowDoc("frame", package = "grid")
RShowDoc("changes.txt", package = "grid")
RShowDoc("NEWS", package = "MASS")
```

RSiteSearch

Search for Key Words or Phrases in Documentation

Description

Search for key words or phrases in help pages, vignettes or task views, using the search engine at <http://search.r-project.org> and view them in a web browser.

Usage

```
RSiteSearch(string,
             restrict = c("functions", "vignettes", "views"),
             format = c("normal", "short"),
             sortby = c("score", "date:late", "date:early",
                        "subject", "subject:descending",
                        "from", "from:descending",
                        "size", "size:descending"),
             matchesPerPage = 20)
```

Arguments

string	A character string specifying word(s) or a phrase to search. If the words are to be searched as one entity, enclose all words in braces (see the first example).
restrict	a character vector, typically of length greater than one. Values can be abbreviated. Possible areas to search in: functions for help pages, views for task views and vignettes for package vignettes.
format	normal or short (no excerpts); can be abbreviated.
sortby	character string (can be abbreviated) indicating how to sort the search results: (score, date:late for sorting by date with latest results first, date:early for earliest first, subject for subject in alphabetical order, subject:descending for reverse alphabetical order, from or from:descending for sender (when applicable), size or size:descending for size.)
matchesPerPage	How many items to show per page.

Details

This function is designed to work with the search site at <http://search.r-project.org>, and depends on that site continuing to be made available (thanks to Jonathan Baron and the School of Arts and Sciences of the University of Pennsylvania).

Unique partial matches will work for all arguments. Each new browser window will stay open unless you close it.

Value

(Invisibly) the complete URL passed to the browser, including the query string.

Author(s)

Andy Liaw and Jonathan Baron

See Also

[help.search](#), [help.start](#) for local searches.

[browseURL](#) for how the help file is displayed.

Examples

```
# need Internet connection
RSiteSearch("{logistic regression}") # matches exact phrase
Sys.sleep(5) # allow browser to open, take a quick look
## Search in vignettes and store the query-string:
fullquery <- RSiteSearch("lattice", restrict = "vignettes")
fullquery # a string of ~ 110 characters
```

rtags

An Etags-like Tagging Utility for R

Description

rtags provides etags-like indexing capabilities for R code, using R's own parser.

Usage

```
rtags(path = ".", pattern = "\\.[RrSs]$",
      recursive = FALSE,
      src = list.files(path = path, pattern = pattern,
                      full.names = TRUE,
                      recursive = recursive),
      keep.re = NULL,
      ofile = "", append = FALSE,
      verbose = getOption("verbose"))
```

Arguments

path, pattern, recursive	Arguments passed on to <code>list.files</code> to determine the files to be tagged. By default, these are all files with extension <code>.R</code> , <code>.r</code> , <code>.S</code> , and <code>.s</code> in the current directory. These arguments are ignored if <code>src</code> is specified.
src	A vector of file names to be indexed.
keep.re	A regular expression further restricting <code>src</code> (the files to be indexed). For example, specifying <code>keep.re = "/R/[^/]*\\.R\$"</code> will only retain files with extension <code>.R</code> inside a directory named <code>R</code> .
ofile	Passed on to <code>cat</code> as the file argument; typically the output file where the tags will be written ("TAGS" by convention). By default, the output is written to the R console (unless redirected).
append	Logical, indicating whether the output should overwrite an existing file, or append to it.
verbose	Logical. If TRUE, file names are echoed to the R console as they are processed.

Details

Many text editors allow definitions of functions and other language objects to be quickly and easily located in source files through a tagging utility. This functionality requires the relevant source files to be preprocessed, producing an index (or tag) file containing the names and their corresponding locations. There are multiple tag file formats, the most popular being the vi-style `ctags` format and the emacs-style `etags` format. Tag files in these formats are usually generated by the `ctags` and `etags` utilities respectively. Unfortunately, these programs do not recognize R code syntax. They do allow tagging of arbitrary language files through regular expressions, but this too is insufficient.

The `rtags` function is intended to be a tagging utility for R code. It parses R code files (using R's parser) and produces tags in Emacs' `etags` format. Support for vi-style tags is currently absent, but should not be difficult to add.

Author(s)

Deepayan Sarkar

References

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ctags>, https://www.gnu.org/software/emacs/manual/html_node/eintr/etags.html

See Also

`list.files`, `cat`

Examples

```
## Not run:
rtags("/path/to/src/repository",
      pattern = "[.]*\\.R[RsS]$",
```

```

    keep.re = "/R/",
    verbose = TRUE,
    ofile = "TAGS",
    append = FALSE,
    recursive = TRUE)

## End(Not run)

```

Rtangle

R Driver for Stangle

Description

A driver for [Stangle](#) that extracts R code chunks.

Usage

```

Rtangle()
RtangleSetup(file, syntax, output = NULL, annotate = TRUE,
             split = FALSE, quiet = FALSE, ...)

```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	Name of Sweave source file. See the description of the corresponding argument of Sweave .
<code>syntax</code>	An object of class <code>SweaveSyntax</code> .
<code>output</code>	Name of output file used unless <code>split = TRUE</code> : see ‘Details’.
<code>annotate</code>	By default, code chunks are separated by comment lines specifying the names and numbers of the code chunks. If <code>FALSE</code> the decorating comments are omitted.
<code>split</code>	Split output into a file for each code chunk?
<code>quiet</code>	If <code>TRUE</code> all progress messages are suppressed.
<code>...</code>	Additional named arguments setting defaults for further options.

Details

Unless `split = TRUE`, the default name of the output file is `basename(file)` with an extension corresponding to the Sweave syntax (e.g., ‘`Rnw`’, ‘`Stex`’) replaced by ‘`R`’. File names “`stdout`” and “`stderr`” are interpreted as the output and message connection respectively.

If splitting is selected (including by the options in the file), each chunk is written to a separate file with extension the name of the ‘engine’ (default ‘`.R`’).

The annotation is of one of the forms

```
#####
### code chunk number 3: viewport
#####

#####
### code chunk number 18: grid.Rnw:647-648
#####

#####
### code chunk number 19: trellisdata (eval = FALSE)
#####
```

using either the chunk label or the file name and line numbers.

Note that this driver does not simply extract the code chunks verbatim because code chunks can re-use earlier chunks.

Supported Options

Rtangle supports the following options for code chunks (the values in parentheses show the default values):

engine: character string ("R"). Only chunks with engine equal to "R" or "S" are processed.

keep.source: logical (TRUE). If `keep.source == TRUE` the original source is copied to the file. Otherwise, deparsed source is output.

eval: logical (TRUE). If FALSE, the code chunk is copied across but commented out.

prefix Used if `split = TRUE`. See `prefix.string`.

prefix.string: a character string, default is the name of the source file (without extension). Used if `split = TRUE` as the prefix for the filename if the chunk has no label, or if it has a label and `prefix = TRUE`. Note that this is used as part of filenames, so needs to be portable.

show.line.nos logical (FALSE). Should the output be annotated with comments showing the line number of the first code line of the chunk?

Author(s)

Friedrich Leisch and R-core.

See Also

[‘Sweave User Manual’](#), a vignette in the **utils** package.

[Sweave](#), [RweaveLatex](#)

RweaveLatex

*R/LaTeX Driver for Sweave***Description**

A driver for [Sweave](#) that translates R code chunks in LaTeX files.

Usage

```
RweaveLatex()
```

```
RweaveLatexSetup(file, syntax, output = NULL, quiet = FALSE,
                  debug = FALSE, stylepath, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	Name of Sweave source file. See the description of the corresponding argument of Sweave .
<code>syntax</code>	An object of class <code>SweaveSyntax</code> .
<code>output</code>	Name of output file. The default is to remove extension <code>‘.nw’</code> , <code>‘.Rnw’</code> or <code>‘.Snw’</code> and to add extension <code>‘.tex’</code> . Any directory paths in <code>file</code> are also removed such that the output is created in the current working directory.
<code>quiet</code>	If TRUE all progress messages are suppressed.
<code>debug</code>	If TRUE, input and output of all code chunks is copied to the console.
<code>stylepath</code>	See ‘Details’.
<code>...</code>	named values for the options listed in ‘Supported Options’.

Details

The LaTeX file generated needs to contain the line `‘\usepackage{Sweave}’`, and if this is not present in the Sweave source file (possibly in a comment), it is inserted by the `RweaveLatex` driver. If `stylepath = TRUE`, a hard-coded path to the file `‘Sweave.sty’` in the R installation is set in place of `Sweave`. The hard-coded path makes the LaTeX file less portable, but avoids the problem of installing the current version of `‘Sweave.sty’` to some place in your TeX input path. However, TeX may not be able to process the hard-coded path if it contains spaces (as it often will under Windows) or TeX special characters.

The default for `stylepath` is now taken from the environment variable `SWEAVE_STYLEPATH_DEFAULT`, or is FALSE if that is unset or empty. If set, it should be exactly TRUE or FALSE: any other values are taken as FALSE.

The simplest way for frequent Sweave users to ensure that `‘Sweave.sty’` is in the TeX input path is to add `‘R_HOME/share/texmf’` as a ‘texmf tree’ (‘root directory’ in the parlance of the ‘MiKTeX settings’ utility).

By default, `‘Sweave.sty’` sets the width of all included graphics to:
`‘\setkeys{Gin}{width=0.8\textwidth}’`.

This setting affects the width size option passed to the `\includegraphics{}` directive for each plot file and in turn impacts the scaling of your plot files as they will appear in your final document. Thus, for example, you may set `width=3` in your figure chunk and the generated graphics files will be set to 3 inches in width. However, the width of your graphic in your final document will be set to `0.8\textwidth` and the height dimension will be scaled accordingly. Fonts and symbols will be similarly scaled in the final document.

You can adjust the default value by including the `\setkeys{Gin}{width=...}` directive in your `.Rnw` file after the `\begin{document}` directive and changing the width option value as you prefer, using standard LaTeX measurement values.

If you wish to override this default behavior entirely, you can add a `\usepackage[nogin]{Sweave}` directive in your preamble. In this case, no size/scaling options will be passed to the `\includegraphics{}` directive and the height and width options will determine both the runtime generated graphic file sizes and the size of the graphics in your final document.

`Sweave.sty` also supports the `[noae]` option, which suppresses the use of the `ae` package, the use of which may interfere with certain encoding and typeface selections. If you have problems in the rendering of certain character sets, try this option.

As from R 3.1.0 it also supports the `[inconsolata]` option, to render monospaced text in `inconsolata`, the font used by default for R help pages.

The use of fancy quotes (see [sQuote](#)) can cause problems when setting R output. Either set `options(useFancyQuotes = FALSE)` or arrange that LaTeX is aware of the encoding used (by a `\usepackage[utf8]{inputenc}` declaration: Windows users of Sweave from `Rgui.exe` will need to replace `utf8` by `cp1252` or similar) and ensure that typewriter fonts containing directional quotes are used.

Some LaTeX graphics drivers do not include `.png` or `.jpg` in the list of known extensions. To enable them, add something like `\DeclareGraphicsExtensions{.png,.pdf,.jpg}` to the preamble of your document or check the behavior of your graphics driver. When both pdf and png are TRUE both files will be produced by Sweave, and their order in the `\DeclareGraphicsExtensions` list determines which will be used by `pdflatex`.

Supported Options

RweaveLatex supports the following options for code chunks (the values in parentheses show the default values). Character string values should be quoted when passed from [Sweave](#) through ... but not when use in the header of a code chunk.

engine: character string (`"R"`). Only chunks with engine equal to `"R"` or `"S"` are processed.

echo: logical (`TRUE`). Include R code in the output file?

keep.source: logical (`TRUE`). When echoing, if `keep.source == TRUE` the original source is copied to the file. Otherwise, deparsed source is echoed.

eval: logical (`TRUE`). If `FALSE`, the code chunk is not evaluated, and hence no text nor graphical output produced.

results: character string (`"verbatim"`). If `"verbatim"`, the output of R commands is included in the verbatim-like `Soutput` environment. If `"tex"`, the output is taken to be already proper LaTeX markup and included as is. If `"hide"` then all output is completely suppressed (but the code executed during the weave). Values can be abbreviated.

- print:** logical (FALSE). If TRUE, this forces auto-printing of all expressions.
- term:** logical (TRUE). If TRUE, visibility of values emulates an interactive R session: values of assignments are not printed, values of single objects are printed. If FALSE, output comes only from explicit `print` or similar statements.
- split:** logical (FALSE). If TRUE, text output is written to separate files for each code chunk.
- strip.white:** character string ("true"). If "true", blank lines at the beginning and end of output are removed. If "all", then all blank lines are removed from the output. If "false" then blank lines are retained.
A 'blank line' is one that is empty or includes only whitespace (spaces and tabs).
Note that blank lines in a code chunk will usually produce a prompt string rather than a blank line on output.
- prefix:** logical (TRUE). If TRUE generated filenames of figures and output all have the common prefix given by the `prefix.string` option: otherwise only unlabelled chunks use the prefix.
- prefix.string:** a character string, default is the name of the source file (without extension). Note that this is used as part of filenames, so needs to be portable.
- include:** logical (TRUE), indicating whether input statements for text output (if `split = TRUE`) and `'\includegraphics'` statements for figures should be auto-generated. Use `include = FALSE` if the output should appear in a different place than the code chunk (by placing the input line manually).
- fig:** logical (FALSE), indicating whether the code chunk produces graphical output. Note that only one figure per code chunk can be processed this way. The labels for figure chunks are used as part of the file names, so should preferably be alphanumeric.
- eps:** logical (FALSE), indicating whether EPS figures should be generated. Ignored if `fig = FALSE`.
- pdf:** logical (TRUE), indicating whether PDF figures should be generated. Ignored if `fig = FALSE`.
- pdf.version, pdf.encoding, pdf.compress:** passed to `pdf` to set the version, encoding and compression (or not). Defaults taken from `pdf.options()`.
- png:** logical (FALSE), indicating whether PNG figures should be generated. Ignored if `fig = FALSE`. Only available in R \geq 2.13.0.
- jpeg:** logical (FALSE), indicating whether JPEG figures should be generated. Ignored if `fig = FALSE`. Only available in R \geq 2.13.0.
- grdevice:** character (NULL): see section 'Custom Graphics Devices'. Ignored if `fig = FALSE`. Only available in R \geq 2.13.0.
- width:** numeric (6), width of figures in inches. See 'Details'.
- height:** numeric (6), height of figures in inches. See 'Details'.
- resolution:** numeric (300), resolution in pixels per inch: used for PNG and JPEG graphics. Note that the default is a fairly high value, appropriate for high-quality plots. Something like 100 is a better choice for package vignettes.
- concordance:** logical (FALSE). Write a concordance file to link the input line numbers to the output line numbers. This is an experimental feature; see the source code for the output format, which is subject to change in future releases.
- figs.only:** logical (FALSE). By default each figure chunk is run once, then re-run for each selected type of graphics. That will open a default graphics device for the first figure chunk and use that device for the first evaluation of all subsequent chunks. If this option is true, the figure chunk is run only for each selected type of graphics, for which a new graphics device is opened and then closed.

In addition, users can specify further options, either in the header of an individual code section or in a `'\SweaveOpts{...}'` line in the document. For unknown options, their type is set at first use.

Custom Graphics Devices

If option `grdevice` is supplied for a code chunk with both `fig` and `eval` true, the following call is made

```
get(options$grdevice, envir = .GlobalEnv)(name=, width=,
                                           height=, options)
```

which should open a graphics device. The chunk's code is then evaluated and `dev.off` is called. Normally a function of the name given will have been defined earlier in the Sweave document, e.g.

```
<<results=hide>>=
my.Swd <- function(name, width, height, ...)
  grDevices::png(filename = paste(name, "png", sep = "."),
                 width = width, height = height, res = 100,
                 units = "in", type = "quartz", bg = "transparent")
@
```

Currently only one custom device can be used for each chunk, but different devices can be used for different chunks.

A replacement for `dev.off` can be provided as a function with suffix `.off`, e.g. `my.Swd.off()`.

Hook Functions

Before each code chunk is evaluated, zero or more hook functions can be executed. If `getOption("SweaveHooks")` is set, it is taken to be a named list of hook functions. For each *logical* option of a code chunk (`echo`, `print`, ...) a hook can be specified, which is executed if and only if the respective option is TRUE. Hooks must be named elements of the list returned by `getOption("SweaveHooks")` and be functions taking no arguments. E.g., if option `"SweaveHooks"` is defined as `list(fig = foo)`, and `foo` is a function, then it would be executed before the code in each figure chunk. This is especially useful to set defaults for the graphical parameters in a series of figure chunks.

Note that the user is free to define new Sweave logical options and associate arbitrary hooks with them. E.g., one could define a hook function for a new option called `clean` that removes all objects in the workspace. Then all code chunks specified with `clean = TRUE` would start operating on an empty workspace.

Author(s)

Friedrich Leisch and R-core

See Also

'[Sweave User Manual](#)', a vignette in the `utils` package.

[Sweave](#), [Rtangle](#)

savehistory	<i>Load or Save or Display the Commands History</i>
-------------	---

Description

Load or save or display the commands history.

Usage

```
loadhistory(file = ".Rhistory")
savehistory(file = ".Rhistory")

history(max.show = 25, reverse = FALSE, pattern, ...)

timestamp(stamp = date(),
           prefix = "##----- ", suffix = " -----##",
           quiet = FALSE)
```

Arguments

file	The name of the file in which to save the history, or from which to load it. The path is relative to the current working directory.
max.show	The maximum number of lines to show. Inf will give all of the currently available history.
reverse	logical. If true, the lines are shown in reverse order. Note: this is not useful when there are continuation lines.
pattern	A character string to be matched against the lines of the history. When supplied, only <i>unique</i> matching lines are shown.
...	Arguments to be passed to grep when doing the matching.
stamp	A value or vector of values to be written into the history.
prefix	A prefix to apply to each line.
suffix	A suffix to apply to each line.
quiet	If TRUE, suppress printing timestamp to the console.

Details

There are several history mechanisms available for the different R consoles, which work in similar but not identical ways. There are separate versions of this help file for Unix and Windows.

The functions described here work on Unix-alikes under the `readline` command-line interface but may not otherwise (for example, in batch use or in an embedded application). Note that R can be built without `readline`.

R.app, the console on OS X, has a separate and largely incompatible history mechanism, which by default uses a file `‘.Rapp.history’` and saves up to 250 entries. These functions are not currently implemented there.

The readline history mechanism is controlled by two environment variables: `R_HISTSIZE` controls the number of lines that are saved (default 512), and `R_HISTFILE` (default `‘.Rhistory’`) sets the filename used for the loading/saving of history if requested at the beginning/end of a session (but not the default for `loadhistory/savehistory`). There is no limit on the number of lines of history retained during a session, so setting `R_HISTSIZE` to a large value has no penalty unless a large file is actually generated.

These environment variables are read at the time of saving, so can be altered within a session by the use of [Sys.setenv](#).

Note that readline history library saves files with permission `0600`, that is with read/write permission for the user and not even read permission for any other account.

The `timestamp` function writes a timestamp (or other message) into the history and echos it to the console. On platforms that do not support a history mechanism only the console message is printed.

Note

If you want to save the history at the end of (almost) every interactive session (even those in which you do not save the workspace), you can put a call to `savehistory()` in [.Last](#). See the examples.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Save the history in the home directory: note that it is not
## (by default) read from there but from the current directory
.Last <- function()
  if(interactive()) try(savehistory("~/Rhistory"))

## End(Not run)
```

select.list

Select Items from a List

Description

Select item(s) from a character vector.

Usage

```
select.list(choices, preselect = NULL, multiple = FALSE,
            title = NULL, graphics = getOption("menu.graphics"))
```

Arguments

<code>choices</code>	a character vector of items.
<code>preselect</code>	a character vector, or <code>NULL</code> . If non-null and if the string(s) appear in the list, the item(s) are selected initially.
<code>multiple</code>	logical: can more than one item be selected?
<code>title</code>	optional character string for window title, or <code>NULL</code> for no title.
<code>graphics</code>	logical: should a graphical widget be used?

Details

The normal default is `graphics = TRUE`. Under the OS X GUI this brings up a modal dialog box with a (scrollable) list of items, which can be selected by the mouse. On other Unix-like platforms it will use a Tcl/Tk listbox widget if possible.

If `graphics` is `FALSE` or no graphical widget is available it displays a text list from which the user can choose by number(s). The `multiple = FALSE` case uses [menu](#). Preselection is only supported for `multiple = TRUE`, where it is indicated by a "+" preceding the item.

It is an error to use `select.list` in a non-interactive session.

Value

A character vector of selected items. If `multiple` is false and no item was selected (or Cancel was used), "" is returned. If `multiple` is true and no item was selected (or Cancel was used) then a character vector of length 0 is returned.

See Also

[menu](#), [tk_select.list](#) for a graphical version using Tcl/Tk.

Examples

```
## Not run:
select.list(sort(.packages(all.available = TRUE)))

## End(Not run)
```

sessionInfo

Collect Information About the Current R Session

Description

Print version information about R, the OS and attached or loaded packages.

Usage

```
sessionInfo(package = NULL)
## S3 method for class 'sessionInfo'
print(x, locale = TRUE, ...)
## S3 method for class 'sessionInfo'
toLatex(object, locale = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

package	a character vector naming installed packages, or NULL (the default) meaning all attached packages.
x	an object of class "sessionInfo".
object	an object of class "sessionInfo".
locale	show locale information?
...	currently not used.

Value

An object of class "sessionInfo", which has a print method. This is a list with components

R.version	a list, the result of calling R.Version() .
platform	a character string describing the platform. Where sub-architectures are in use this is of the form 'platform/sub-arch (nn-bit)'.
running	a character string describing the OS and version which it is running under (as distinct from compiled under).
locale	a character string, the result of calling Sys.getlocale() .
basePkgs	a character vector of base packages which are attached.
otherPkgs	(not always present): a character vector of other attached packages.
loadedOnly	(not always present): a named list of the results of calling packageDescription on packages whose namespaces are loaded but are not attached.

Note

The information on 'loaded' packages and namespaces is the *current* version installed at the location the package was loaded from: it can be wrong if another process has been changing packages during the session.

How OSes identify themselves and their versions can be arcane: where possible running uses a human-readable form.

See Also

[R.version](#)

Examples

```
sessionInfo()
toLatex(sessionInfo(), locale = FALSE)
```

setRepositories	<i>Select Package Repositories</i>
-----------------	------------------------------------

Description

Interact with the user to choose the package repositories to be used.

Usage

```
setRepositories(graphics = getOption("menu.graphics"),
               ind = NULL, addURLs = character())
```

Arguments

graphics	Logical. If true, use a graphical list: on Windows or OS X GUI use a list box, and on a Unix-alike if tcltk and an X server are available, use Tk widget. Otherwise use a text menu .
ind	NULL or a vector of integer indices, which have the same effect as if they were entered at the prompt for graphics = FALSE.
addURLs	A character vector of additional URLs: it is often helpful to use a named vector.

Details

The default list of known repositories is stored in the file '[R_HOME](#)/etc/repositories'. That file can be edited for a site, or a user can have a personal copy in the file pointed to by the environment variable R_REPOSITORIES, or if this is unset or does not exist, in '[HOME](#)/.R/repositories', which will take precedence.

A Bioconductor mirror can be selected by setting `options("BioC_mirror")`, e.g. via [chooseBioCmirror](#) — the default value is "`http://bioconductor.org`".

The items that are preselected are those that are currently in `options("repos")` plus those marked as default in the list of known repositories.

The list of repositories offered depends on the setting of option "pkgType" as some repositories only offer a subset of types (e.g., only source packages or not OS X binary packages). Further, for binary packages some repositories (notably R-Forge) only offer packages for the current or recent versions of R. (Type "both" is equivalent to "source".)

Repository 'CRAN' is treated specially: the value is taken from the current setting of `getOption("repos")` if this has an element "CRAN": this ensures mirror selection is sticky.

This function requires the R session to be interactive unless `ind` is supplied.

Some of the entries have https versions which use '`https://`' for access, so if selected need an R build which supports this. (Choosing the https version provides some guarantees on the identity of the site.)

Value

This function is invoked mainly for its side effect of updating `options("repos")`. It returns (invisibly) the previous repos options setting (as a [list](#) with component `repos`) or `NULL` if no changes were applied.

Note

This does **not** set the list of repositories at startup: to do so set `options(repos =)` in a start up file (see help topic [Startup](#)).

See Also

[chooseCRANmirror](#), [chooseBioCmirror](#), [install.packages](#).

Examples

```
## Not run:
setRepositories(addURLs =
  c(CRANxtras = "http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/pub/RWin"))

## End(Not run)
```

SHLIB	<i>Build Shared Object/DLL for Dynamic Loading</i>
-------	--

Description

Compile the given source files and then link all specified object files into a shared object aka DLL which can be loaded into R using `dyn.load` or `library.dynam`.

Usage

R CMD SHLIB [options] [-o dllname] files

Arguments

files	a list specifying the object files to be included in the shared object/DLL. You can also include the name of source files (for which the object files are automagically made from their sources) and library linking commands.
dllname	the full name of the shared object/DLL to be built, including the extension (typically <code>.so</code> on Unix systems, and <code>.dll</code> on Windows). If not given, the base-name of the object/DLL is taken from the basename of the first file.
options	Further options to control the processing. Use <code>R CMD SHLIB --help</code> for a current list.

Details

R CMD SHLIB is the mechanism used by [INSTALL](#) to compile source code in packages. It will generate suitable compilation commands for C, C++, Objective C(++) and Fortran sources: Fortran 90/95 sources can also be used but it may not be possible to mix these with other languages (on most platforms it is possible to mix with C, but mixing with C++ rarely works).

Please consult section ‘Creating shared objects’ in the manual ‘Writing R Extensions’ for how to customize it (for example to add cpp flags and to add libraries to the link step) and for details of some of its quirks.

Items in files with extensions ‘.c’, ‘.cpp’, ‘.cc’, ‘.C’, ‘.f’, ‘.f90’, ‘.f95’, ‘.m’ (ObjC), ‘.M’ and ‘.mm’ (ObjC++) are regarded as source files, and those with extension ‘.o’ as object files. All other items are passed to the linker.

Objective C(++) support is optional when R was configured: their main usage is on OS X.

Note that the appropriate run-time libraries will be used when linking if C++, Fortran or Objective C(++) sources are supplied, but not for compiled object files from these languages.

Option ‘-n’ (also known as ‘--dry-run’) will show the commands that would be run without actually executing them.

Note

Some binary distributions of R have SHLIB in a separate bundle, e.g., an R-devel RPM.

See Also

[COMPILE](#), [dyn.load](#), [library.dynam](#).

The ‘R Installation and Administration’ and ‘Writing R Extensions’ manuals, including the section on “Customizing compilation” in the former.

Examples

```
## Not run:
# To link against a library not on the system library paths:
R CMD SHLIB -o mylib.so a.f b.f -L/opt/acml3.5.0/gnu64/lib -lacml

## End(Not run)
```

Description

These functions extract information from source references.

Usage

```
getSrcFilename(x, full.names = FALSE, unique = TRUE)
getSrcDirectory(x, unique = TRUE)
getSrcref(x)
getSrcLocation(x, which = c("line", "column", "byte", "parse"),
               first = TRUE)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	An object (typically a function) containing source references.
<code>full.names</code>	Whether to include the full path in the filename result.
<code>unique</code>	Whether to list only unique filenames/directories.
<code>which</code>	Which part of a source reference to extract. Can be abbreviated.
<code>first</code>	Whether to show the first (or last) location of the object.

Details

Each statement of a function will have its own source reference if the "keep.source" option is TRUE. These functions retrieve all of them.

The components are as follows:

line The line number where the object starts or ends.

column The column number where the object starts or ends.

byte As for "column", but counting bytes, which may differ in case of multibyte characters.

parse As for "line", but this ignores #line directives.

Value

`getSrcFilename` and `getSrcDirectory` return character vectors holding the filename/directory.

`getSrcref` returns a list of "srcref" objects or NULL if there are none.

`getSrcLocation` returns an integer vector of the requested type of locations.

See Also

[srcref](#), [getParseData](#)

Examples

```
fn <- function(x) {
  x + 1 # A comment, kept as part of the source
}

# Show the temporary file directory
# where the example was saved

getSrcDirectory(fn)
getSrcLocation(fn, "line")
```

stack*Stack or Unstack Vectors from a Data Frame or List*

Description

Stacking vectors concatenates multiple vectors into a single vector along with a factor indicating where each observation originated. Unstacking reverses this operation.

Usage

```
stack(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
stack(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
stack(x, select, ...)

unstack(x, ...)
## Default S3 method:
unstack(x, form, ...)
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
unstack(x, form, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a list or data frame to be stacked or unstacked.
select	an expression, indicating which variable(s) to select from a data frame.
form	a two-sided formula whose left side evaluates to the vector to be unstacked and whose right side evaluates to the indicator of the groups to create. Defaults to formula(x) in the data frame method for unstack.
...	further arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The stack function is used to transform data available as separate columns in a data frame or list into a single column that can be used in an analysis of variance model or other linear model. The unstack function reverses this operation.

Note that stack applies to *vectors* (as determined by [is.vector](#)): non-vector columns (e.g., factors) will be ignored (with a warning as from R 2.15.0). Where vectors of different types are selected they are concatenated by [unlist](#) whose help page explains how the type of the result is chosen.

These functions are generic: the supplied methods handle data frames and objects coercible to lists by [as.list](#).

Value

unstack produces a list of columns according to the formula form. If all the columns have the same length, the resulting list is coerced to a data frame.

stack produces a data frame with two columns:

values	the result of concatenating the selected vectors in x.
ind	a factor indicating from which vector in x the observation originated.

Author(s)

Douglas Bates

See Also

[lm](#), [reshape](#)

Examples

```
require(stats)
formula(PlantGrowth)      # check the default formula
pg <- unstack(PlantGrowth) # unstack according to this formula
pg
stack(pg)                  # now put it back together
stack(pg, select = -ctrl)  # omitting one vector
```

str

Compactly Display the Structure of an Arbitrary R Object

Description

Compactly display the internal **structure** of an R object, a diagnostic function and an alternative to [summary](#) (and to some extent, [dput](#)). Ideally, only one line for each ‘basic’ structure is displayed. It is especially well suited to compactly display the (abbreviated) contents of (possibly nested) lists. The idea is to give reasonable output for **any** R object. It calls [args](#) for (non-primitive) function objects.

strOptions() is a convenience function for setting [options](#)(str = .), see the examples.

Usage

```
str(object, ...)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
str(object, ...)
```

```
## Default S3 method:
str(object, max.level = NA,
      vec.len = str0$vec.len, digits.d = str0$digits.d,
```

```

nchar.max = 128, give.attr = TRUE,
give.head = TRUE, give.length = give.head,
width = getOption("width"), nest.lev = 0,
indent.str = paste(rep.int(" ", max(0, nest.lev + 1)),
                    collapse = "..."),
comp.str = "$ ", no.list = FALSE, envir = baseenv(),
strict.width = str0$strict.width,
formatNum = str0$formatNum, list.len = 99, ...)

strOptions(strict.width = "no", digits.d = 3, vec.len = 4,
           formatNum = function(x, ...)
             format(x, trim = TRUE, drop0trailing = TRUE, ...))

```

Arguments

<code>object</code>	any R object about which you want to have some information.
<code>max.level</code>	maximal level of nesting which is applied for displaying nested structures, e.g., a list containing sub lists. Default NA: Display all nesting levels.
<code>vec.len</code>	numeric (≥ 0) indicating how many ‘first few’ elements are displayed of each vector. The number is multiplied by different factors (from .5 to 3) depending on the kind of vector. Defaults to the <code>vec.len</code> component of option “str” (see options) which defaults to 4.
<code>digits.d</code>	number of digits for numerical components (as for print). Defaults to the <code>digits.d</code> component of option “str” which defaults to 3.
<code>nchar.max</code>	maximal number of characters to show for character strings. Longer strings are truncated, see longch example below.
<code>give.attr</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), show attributes as sub structures.
<code>give.length</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), indicate length (as <code>[1:...]</code>).
<code>give.head</code>	logical; if TRUE (default), give (possibly abbreviated) mode/class and length (as <code><type>[1:...]</code>).
<code>width</code>	the page width to be used. The default is the currently active options (“width”); note that this has only a weak effect, unless <code>strict.width</code> is not “no”.
<code>nest.lev</code>	current nesting level in the recursive calls to <code>str</code> .
<code>indent.str</code>	the indentation string to use.
<code>comp.str</code>	string to be used for separating list components.
<code>no.list</code>	logical; if true, no ‘list of ...’ nor the class are printed.
<code>envir</code>	the environment to be used for <i>promise</i> (see delayedAssign) objects only.
<code>strict.width</code>	string indicating if the width argument’s specification should be followed strictly, one of the values <code>c("no", "cut", "wrap")</code> , which can be abbreviated. Defaults to the <code>strict.width</code> component of option “str” (see options) which defaults to “no” for back compatibility reasons; “wrap” uses strwrap (*, width = width) whereas “cut” cuts directly to width. Note that a small <code>vec.length</code> may be better than setting <code>strict.width = "wrap"</code> .

formatNum	a function such as format for formatting numeric vectors. It defaults to the formatNum component of option "str", see "Usage" of strOptions() above, which is almost back compatible to R <= 2.7.x, however, using formatC may be slightly better.
list.len	numeric; maximum number of list elements to display within a level.
...	potential further arguments (required for Method/Generic reasons).

Value

str does not return anything, for efficiency reasons. The obvious side effect is output to the terminal.

Author(s)

Martin Maechler <maechler@stat.math.ethz.ch> since 1990.

See Also

[ls.str](#) for *listing* objects with their structure; [summary](#), [args](#).

Examples

```
require(stats); require(grDevices); require(graphics)
## The following examples show some of 'str' capabilities
str(1:12)
str(ls)
str(args) #- more useful than  args(args) !
str(freeny)
str(str)
str(.Machine, digits.d = 20) # extra digits for identification of binary numbers
str( lsfit(1:9, 1:9))
str( lsfit(1:9, 1:9), max.level = 1)
str( lsfit(1:9, 1:9), width = 60, strict.width = "cut")
str( lsfit(1:9, 1:9), width = 60, strict.width = "wrap")
op <- options(); str(op)  # save first;
                        # otherwise internal options() is used.
need.dev <-
  !exists(".Device") || is.null(.Device) || .Device == "null device"
{ if(need.dev) postscript()
  str(par())
  if(need.dev) graphics.off()
}
ch <- letters[1:12]; is.na(ch) <- 3:5
str(ch) # character NA's

str(list(a = "A", L = as.list(1:100)), list.len = 9)
nchar(longch <- paste(rep(letters,100), collapse = ""))
str(longch)
str(longch, nchar.max = 52)

str(longch, strict.width = "wrap")
```

```
## Settings for narrow transcript :
op <- options(width = 60,
              str = strOptions(strict.width = "wrap"))
str(lsf1(1:9,1:9))
str(options())
## reset to previous:
options(op)
```

```
str(quote( { A+B; list(C, D) } ))
```

```
## S4 classes :
require(stats4)
x <- 0:10; y <- c(26, 17, 13, 12, 20, 5, 9, 8, 5, 4, 8)
ll <- function(y, lambda=y/(1+x/xh), log=TRUE))
      -sum(dpois(y, lambda=log=TRUE))
fit <- mle(ll)
str(fit)
```

summaryRprof

Summarise Output of R Sampling Profiler

Description

Summarise the output of the [Rprof](#) function to show the amount of time used by different R functions.

Usage

```
summaryRprof(filename = "Rprof.out", chunksize = 5000,
             memory = c("none", "both", "tseries", "stats"),
             lines = c("hide", "show", "both"),
             index = 2, diff = TRUE, exclude = NULL,
             basenames = 1)
```

Arguments

filename	Name of a file produced by Rprof().
chunksize	Number of lines to read at a time.
memory	Summaries for memory information. See ‘Memory profiling’ below. Can be abbreviated.
lines	Summaries for line information. See ‘Line profiling’ below. Can be abbreviated.
index	How to summarize the stack trace for memory information. See ‘Details’ below.

diff	If TRUE memory summaries use change in memory rather than current memory.
exclude	Functions to exclude when summarizing the stack trace for memory summaries.
basenames	Number of components of the path to filenames to display.

Details

This function provides the analysis code for [Rprof](#) files used by R CMD Rprof.

As the profiling output file could be larger than available memory, it is read in blocks of chunksize lines. Increasing chunksize will make the function run faster if sufficient memory is available.

Value

If memory = "none" and lines = "hide", a list with components

by.self A data frame of timings sorted by 'self' time.

by.total A data frame of timings sorted by 'total' time.

sample.interval
 The sampling interval.

sampling.time Total time of profiling run.

The first two components have columns 'self.time', 'self.pct', 'total.time' and 'total.pct', the times in seconds and percentages of the total time spent executing code in that function and code in that function or called from that function, respectively.

If lines = "show", an additional component is added to the list:

by.line A data frame of timings sorted by source location.

If memory = "both" the same list but with memory consumption in Mb in addition to the timings.

If memory = "tseries" a data frame giving memory statistics over time.

If memory = "stats" a [by](#) object giving memory statistics by function.

Prior to R 2.15.3 an error was thrown if no events were recorded: now zero-row data frames are returned.

Memory profiling

Options other than memory = "none" apply only to files produced by [Rprof](#)(memory.profiling = TRUE).

When called with memory.profiling = TRUE, the profiler writes information on three aspects of memory use: vector memory in small blocks on the R heap, vector memory in large blocks (from malloc), memory in nodes on the R heap. It also records the number of calls to the internal function duplicate in the time interval. duplicate is called by C code when arguments need to be copied. Note that the profiler does not track which function actually allocated the memory.

With memory = "both" the change in total memory (truncated at zero) is reported in addition to timing data.

With memory = "tseries" or memory = "stats" the index argument specifies how to summarize the stack trace. A positive number specifies that many calls from the bottom of the stack; a negative number specifies the number of calls from the top of the stack. With memory = "tseries"

the index is used to construct labels and may be a vector to give multiple sets of labels. With `memory = "stats"` the index must be a single number and specifies how to aggregate the data to the maximum and average of the memory statistics. With both `memory = "tseries"` and `memory = "stats"` the argument `diff = TRUE` asks for summaries of the increase in memory use over the sampling interval and `diff = FALSE` asks for the memory use at the end of the interval.

Line profiling

If the code being run has source reference information retained (via `keep.source = TRUE` in `source` or `KeepSource = TRUE` in a package ‘DESCRIPTION’ file or some other way), then information about the origin of lines is recorded during profiling. By default this is not displayed, but the `lines` parameter can enable the display.

If `lines = "show"`, line locations will be used in preference to the usual function name information, and the results will be displayed ordered by location in addition to the other orderings.

If `lines = "both"`, line locations will be mixed with function names in a combined display.

See Also

The chapter on “Tidying and profiling R code” in “Writing R Extensions” (see the ‘doc/manual’ subdirectory of the R source tree).

[Rprof](#)

[tracemem](#) traces copying of an object via the C function `duplicate`.

[Rprofmem](#) is a non-sampling memory-use profiler.

<https://developer.r-project.org/memory-profiling.html>

Examples

```
## Not run:
## Rprof() is not available on all platforms
Rprof(tmp <- tempfile())
example(glm)
Rprof()
summaryRprof(tmp)
unlink(tmp)

## End(Not run)
```

Description

Sweave provides a flexible framework for mixing text and R/S code for automatic report generation. The basic idea is to replace the code with its output, such that the final document only contains the text and the output of the statistical analysis: however, the source code can also be included.

Usage

```
Sweave(file, driver = RweaveLatex(),
       syntax = getOption("SweaveSyntax"), encoding = "", ...)

Stangle(file, driver = Rtangle(),
       syntax = getOption("SweaveSyntax"), encoding = "", ...)
```

Arguments

<code>file</code>	Path to Sweave source file. Note that this can be supplied without the extension, but the function will only proceed if there is exactly one Sweave file in the directory whose basename matches <code>file</code> .
<code>driver</code>	The actual workhorse, see ‘Details’.
<code>syntax</code>	NULL or an object of class <code>SweaveSyntax</code> or a character string with its name. See the section ‘Syntax Definition’.
<code>encoding</code>	The default encoding to assume for <code>file</code> .
<code>...</code>	Further arguments passed to the driver’s setup function: see section ‘Drivers’, RweaveLatex and Rtangle .

Details

Automatic generation of reports by mixing word processing markup (like latex) and S code. The S code gets replaced by its output (text or graphs) in the final markup file. This allows a report to be re-generated if the input data change and documents the code to reproduce the analysis in the same file that also produces the report.

Sweave combines the documentation and code chunks together (or their output) into a single document. Stangle extracts only the code from the Sweave file creating an S source file that can be run using [source](#). (Code inside `\Sexpr{}` statements is ignored by Stangle.)

Stangle is just a wrapper to Sweave specifying a different default driver. Alternative drivers can be used: the CRAN package **cacheSweave** and the Bioconductor package **weaver** both provide drivers based on the default driver [RweaveLatex](#) which incorporate ideas of *caching* the results of computations on code chunks.

Environment variable `SWEAVE_OPTIONS` can be used to override the initial options set by the driver: it should be a comma-separated set of key=value items, as would be used in a ‘`\SweaveOpts`’ statement in a document.

Non-ASCII source files must contain a line of the form

```
\usepackage[foo]{inputenc}
```

(where ‘foo’ is typically ‘latin1’, ‘latin2’, ‘utf8’ or ‘cp1252’ or ‘cp1250’) or they will give an error. Re-encoding can be turned off completely with argument `encoding = "bytes"`.

Syntax Definition

Sweave allows a flexible syntax framework for marking documentation and text chunks. The default is a noweb-style syntax, as alternative a latex-style syntax can be used. (See the user manual for further details.)

If `syntax = NULL` (the default) then the available syntax objects are consulted in turn, and selected if their extension component matches (as a regexp) the file name. Objects `SweaveSyntaxNoweb` (with `extension = "[rsRS]nw$"`) and `SweaveSyntaxLatex` (with `extension = "[rsRS]tex$"`) are supplied, but users or packages can supply others with names matching the pattern `SweaveSyntax.*`.

Author(s)

Friedrich Leisch and R-core.

References

Friedrich Leisch (2002) Dynamic generation of statistical reports using literate data analysis. In W. Härdle and B. Rönz, editors, *Compstat 2002 - Proceedings in Computational Statistics*, pages 575–580. Physika Verlag, Heidelberg, Germany, ISBN 3-7908-1517-9.

See Also

[‘Sweave User Manual’](#), a vignette in the **utils** package.

[RweaveLatex](#), [Rtangle](#).

Packages **cacheSweave**, **weaver** (Bioconductor) and **SweaveListingUtils**.

Further Sweave drivers are in, for example, packages **R2HTML**, **ascii**, **odfWeave** and **pgfSweave**.

Non-Sweave vignettes may be built with tools: [:buildVignette](#).

Examples

```
testfile <- system.file("Sweave", "Sweave-test-1.Rnw", package = "utils")

## enforce par(ask = FALSE)
options(device.ask.default = FALSE)

## create a LaTeX file
Sweave(testfile)

## This can be compiled to PDF by
## tools::texi2pdf("Sweave-test-1.tex")
## or outside R by
## R CMD texi2pdf Sweave-test-1.tex
## which sets the appropriate TEXINPUTS path.

## create an R source file from the code chunks
Stangle(testfile)
## which can be sourced, e.g.
source("Sweave-test-1.R")
```

SweaveSyntConv

Convert Sweave Syntax

Description

This function converts the syntax of files in [Sweave](#) format to another Sweave syntax definition.

Usage

```
SweaveSyntConv(file, syntax, output = NULL)
```

Arguments

file	Name of Sweave source file.
syntax	An object of class SweaveSyntax or a character string with its name giving the target syntax to which the file is converted.
output	Name of output file, default is to remove the extension from the input file and to add the default extension of the target syntax. Any directory names in file are also removed such that the output is created in the current working directory.

Author(s)

Friedrich Leisch

See Also

[‘Sweave User Manual’](#), a vignette in the **utils** package.

[RweaveLatex](#), [Rtangle](#)

Examples

```
testfile <- system.file("Sweave", "Sweave-test-1.Rnw", package = "utils")

## convert the file to latex syntax
SweaveSyntConv(testfile, SweaveSyntaxLatex)

## and run it through Sweave
Sweave("Sweave-test-1.Stex")
```

tar

*Create a Tar Archive***Description**

Create a tar archive.

Usage

```
tar(tarfile, files = NULL,
    compression = c("none", "gzip", "bzip2", "xz"),
    compression_level = 6, tar = Sys.getenv("tar"),
    extra_flags = "")
```

Arguments

tarfile	The pathname of the tar file: tilde expansion (see path.expand) will be performed. Alternatively, a connection that can be used for binary writes.
files	A character vector of filepaths to be archived: the default is to archive all files under the current directory.
compression	character string giving the type of compression to be used (default none). Can be abbreviated.
compression_level	integer: the level of compression. Only used for the internal method.
tar	character string: the path to the command to be used. If the command itself contains spaces it needs to be quoted (e.g., by shQuote) – but argument tar can also contain flags separated from the command by spaces.
extra_flags	any extra flags for an external tar.

Details

This is either a wrapper for a tar command or uses an internal implementation in R. The latter is used if tarfile is a connection or if the argument tar is "internal" or "" (the 'factory-fresh' default). Note that whereas Unix-alike versions of R set the environment variable TAR, its value is not the default for this function.

Argument extra_flags is passed to an external tar and so is platform-dependent. Possibly useful values include '-h' (follow symbolic links, also '-L' on some platforms), '--acls', '--exclude-backups', '--exclude-vcs' (and similar) and on Windows '--force-local' (so drives can be included in filepaths: however, this is the default for the Rtools tar). For GNU tar, '--format=ustar' forces a more portable format. (The default is set at compilation and will be shown at the end of the output from tar --help: for version 1.28 'out-of-the-box' it is '--format=gnu', but the manual says the intention is to change to '--format=pax' which GNU incorrectly calls 'POSIX' – it was never part of the POSIX standard for tar and should not be used.) For libarchive's bsdtar, '--format=ustar' is more portable than the default.

Value

The return code from `system` or 0 for the internal version, invisibly.

Portability

The ‘tar’ format no longer has an agreed standard! ‘Unix Standard Tar’ was part of POSIX 1003.1:1998 but has been removed in favour of pax, and in any case many common implementations diverged from the former standard. Many R platforms use a version of GNU tar (including Rtools on Windows), but the behaviour seems to be changed with each version. OS X \geq 10.6 and FreeBSD use bsdtar from the ‘libarchive’ project, and commercial Unixes will have their own versions.

Known problems arise from

- The handling of file paths of more than 100 bytes. These were unsupported in early versions of tar, and supported in one way by POSIX tar and in another by GNU tar and yet another by the POSIX pax command which recent tar programs often support. The internal implementation warns on paths of more than 100 bytes, uses the ‘ustar’ way from the 1998 POSIX standard which supports up to 256 bytes (depending on the path: in particular the final component is limited to 100 bytes) if possible, otherwise the GNU way (which is widely supported, including by `untar`).

Most formats do not record the encoding of file paths.

- (File) links. tar was developed on an OS that used hard links, and physical files that were referred to more than once in the list of files to be included were included only once, the remaining instances being added as links. Later a means to include symbolic links was added. The internal implementation supports symbolic links (on OSes that support them), only. Of course, the question arises as to how links should be unpacked on OSes that do not support them: for regular files file copies can be used.

Names of links in the ‘ustar’ format are restricted to 100 bytes. There is an GNU extension for arbitrarily long link names, but bsdtar ignores it. The internal method uses the GNU extension, with a warning.

- Header fields, in particular the padding to be used when fields are not full or not used. POSIX did define the correct behaviour but commonly used implementations did (and still do) not comply.
- File sizes. The ‘ustar’ format is restricted to 8GB per (uncompressed) file.

For portability, avoid file paths of more than 100 bytes and all links (especially hard links and symbolic links to directories).

The internal implementation writes only the blocks of 512 bytes required (including trailing blocks of nuls), unlike GNU tar which by default pads with ‘nul’ to a multiple of 20 blocks (10KB). Implementations which pad differ on whether the block padding should occur before or after compression (or both): padding was designed for improved performance on physical tape drives.

See Also

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tar_\(file_format\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tar_(file_format)), http://pubs.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9699919799/utilities/pax.html#tag_20_92_13_06 for the way the POSIX utility pax handles tar formats.

<https://github.com/libarchive/libarchive/wiki/FormatTar>.
[untar](#).

toLatex

Converting R Objects to BibTeX or LaTeX

Description

These methods convert R objects to character vectors with BibTeX or LaTeX markup.

Usage

```
toBibtex(object, ...)  
toLatex(object, ...)  
## S3 method for class 'Bibtex'  
print(x, prefix = "", ...)  
## S3 method for class 'Latex'  
print(x, prefix = "", ...)
```

Arguments

object	object of a class for which a toBibtex or toLatex method exists.
x	object of class "Bibtex" or "Latex".
prefix	a character string which is printed at the beginning of each line, mostly used to insert whitespace for indentation.
...	in the print methods, passed to writeLines .

Details

Objects of class "Bibtex" or "Latex" are simply character vectors where each element holds one line of the corresponding BibTeX or LaTeX file.

See Also

[citEntry](#) and [sessionInfo](#) for examples

txtProgressBar	<i>Text Progress Bar</i>
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Description

Text progress bar in the R console.

Usage

```
txtProgressBar(min = 0, max = 1, initial = 0, char = "=",
              width = NA, title, label, style = 1, file = "")

getTxtProgressBar(pb)
setTxtProgressBar(pb, value, title = NULL, label = NULL)
## S3 method for class 'txtProgressBar'
close(con, ...)
```

Arguments

min, max	(finite) numeric values for the extremes of the progress bar. Must have min < max.
initial, value	initial or new value for the progress bar. See ‘Details’ for what happens with invalid values.
char	the character (or character string) to form the progress bar.
width	the width of the progress bar, as a multiple of the width of char. If NA, the default, the number of characters is that which fits into <code>getOption("width")</code> .
style	the ‘style’ of the bar – see ‘Details’.
file	an open connection object or "" which indicates the console: <code>stderr()</code> might be useful here.
pb, con	an object of class "txtProgressBar".
title, label	ignored, for compatibility with other progress bars.
...	for consistency with the generic.

Details

txtProgressBar will display a progress bar on the R console (or a connection) via a text representation.

setTxtProgeessBar will update the value. Missing (NA) and out-of-range values of value will be (silently) ignored. (Such values of initial cause the progress bar not to be displayed until a valid value is set.)

The progress bar should be closed when finished with: this outputs the final newline character.

style = 1 and style = 2 just shows a line of char. They differ in that style = 2 redraws the line each time, which is useful if other code might be writing to the R console. style = 3 marks the end of the range by | and gives a percentage to the right of the bar.

Value

For txtProgressBar an object of class "txtProgressBar".

For getTxtProgressBar and setTxtProgressBar, a length-one numeric vector giving the previous value (invisibly for setTxtProgressBar).

Note

Using style 2 or 3 or reducing the value with style = 1 uses '\r' to return to the left margin – the interpretation of carriage return is up to the terminal or console in which R is running, and this is liable to produce ugly output on a connection other than a terminal, including when stdout() is redirected to a file.

See Also

[tkProgressBar](#).

Windows versions of R also have winProgressBar.

Examples

```
# slow
testit <- function(x = sort(runif(20)), ...)
{
  pb <- txtProgressBar(...)
  for(i in c(0, x, 1)) {Sys.sleep(0.5); setTxtProgressBar(pb, i)}
  Sys.sleep(1)
  close(pb)
}
testit()
testit(runif(10))
testit(style = 3)
```

type.convert

Type Conversion on Character Variables

Description

Convert a character vector to logical, integer, numeric, complex or factor as appropriate.

Usage

```
type.convert(x, na.strings = "NA", as.is = FALSE, dec = ".",
             numerals = c("allow.loss", "warn.loss", "no.loss"))
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	a character vector.
<code>na.strings</code>	a vector of strings which are to be interpreted as NA values. Blank fields are also considered to be missing values in logical, integer, numeric or complex vectors.
<code>as.is</code>	logical. See ‘Details’.
<code>dec</code>	the character to be assumed for decimal points.
<code>numerals</code>	string indicating how to convert numbers whose conversion to double precision would lose accuracy, typically when <code>x</code> has more digits than can be stored in a double . Can be abbreviated. Possible values are <code>numerals = "allow.loss"</code> , default: the conversion happens with some accuracy loss. This has been the only behavior of R versions 3.0.3 and earlier. <code>numerals = "warn.loss"</code> : a warning about accuracy loss is signalled and the conversion happens as with <code>numerals = "allow.loss"</code> . <code>numerals = "no.loss"</code> : <code>x</code> is <i>not</i> converted to a number, but to a factor or left as character, depending on <code>as.is</code> . This has been the only behavior of R version 3.1.0.

Details

This is principally a helper function for [read.table](#). Given a character vector, it attempts to convert it to logical, integer, numeric or complex, and failing that converts it to factor unless `as.is = TRUE`. The first type that can accept all the non-missing values is chosen.

Vectors which are entirely missing values are converted to logical, since NA is primarily logical.

Vectors containing just F, T, FALSE, TRUE and values from `na.strings` are converted to logical. Vectors containing optional whitespace followed by decimal constants representable as R integers or values from `na.strings` are converted to integer. Other vectors containing optional whitespace followed by other decimal or hexadecimal constants (see [NumericConstants](#)), or NaN, Inf or infinity (ignoring case) or values from `na.strings` are converted to numeric. Where converting inputs to numeric or complex would result in loss of accuracy they can optionally be returned as strings (for `as.is = TRUE`) or factors.

Since this is a helper function, the caller should always pass an appropriate value of `as.is`.

Value

An atomic vector or (for `as.is = FALSE`) a factor.

See Also

[read.table](#)

untar	<i>Extract or List Tar Archives</i>
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Description

Extract files from or list the contents of a tar archive.

Usage

```
untar(tarfile, files = NULL, list = FALSE, exdir = ".",
      compressed = NA, extras = NULL, verbose = FALSE,
      restore_times = TRUE, tar = Sys.getenv("TAR"))
```

Arguments

tarfile	The pathname of the tar file: tilde expansion (see path.expand) will be performed. Alternatively, a connection that can be used for binary reads.
files	A character vector of recorded filepaths to be extracted: the default is to extract all files.
list	If TRUE, list the files (the equivalent of <code>tar -tf</code>). Otherwise extract the files (the equivalent of <code>tar -xf</code>).
exdir	The directory to extract files to (the equivalent of <code>tar -C</code>). It will be created if necessary.
compressed	logical or character string. Values "gzip", "bzip2" and "xz" select that form of compression (and may be abbreviated to the first letter). TRUE indicates gzip compression, FALSE no known compression (but an external tar command may detect compression automatically), and NA (the default) indicates that the type is inferred from the file header.
extras	NULL or a character string: further command-line flags such as '-p' to be passed to an external tar program.
verbose	logical: if true echo the command used.
restore_times	logical. If true (default) restore file modification times. If false, the equivalent of the '-m' flag. Times in tarballs are supposed to be in UTC, but tarballs have been submitted to CRAN with times in the future or far past: this argument allows such times to be discarded.
tar	character string: the path to the command to be used. If the command itself contains spaces it needs to be quoted – but tar can also contain flags separated from the command by spaces.

Details

This is either a wrapper for a tar command or for an internal implementation written in R. The latter is used if tarfile is a connection or if the argument tar is "internal" or "" (except on Windows, when tar.exe is tried first).

What options are supported will depend on the tar used. Modern GNU flavours of tar will support compressed archives, and since 1.15 are able to detect the type of compression automatically: version 1.20 added support for lzma and version 1.22 for xz compression using LZMA2. OS X 10.6 and later (and FreeBSD and some other OSes) have a tar (also known as bsdtar) from the 'libarchive' project which can also detect gzip and bzip2 compression automatically. For other flavours of tar, environment variable R_GZIPCMD gives the command to decompress gzip and compress files, and R_BZIPCMD for bzip2 files.

Arguments compressed, extras and verbose are only used when an external tar is used.

The internal implementation restores symbolic links as links on a Unix-alike, and as file copies on Windows (which works only for existing files, not for directories), and hard links as links. If the linking operation fails (as it may on a FAT file system), a file copy is tried. Since it uses [gzfile](#) to read a file it can handle files compressed by any of the methods that function can handle: at least compress, gzip, bzip2 and xz compression, and some types of lzma compression. It does not guard against restoring absolute file paths, as some tar implementations do. It will create the parent directories for directories or files in the archive if necessary. It handles the standard (USTAR/POSIX), GNU and pax ways of handling file paths of more than 100 bytes, and the GNU way of handling link targets of more than 100 bytes.

You may see warnings from the internal implementation such as

```
unsupported entry type 'x'
```

This often indicates an invalid archive: entry types "A-Z" are allowed as extensions, but other types are reserved. The only thing you can do with such an archive is to find a tar program that handles it, and look carefully at the resulting files. There may also be the warning

```
using pax extended headers
```

This indicates that additional information may have been discarded, such as ACLs, encodings

The standards only support ASCII filenames (indeed, only alphanumeric plus period, underscore and hyphen). `untar` makes no attempt to map filenames to those acceptable on the current system, and treats the filenames in the archive as applicable without any re-encoding in the current locale.

Value

If `list = TRUE`, a character vector of (relative or absolute) paths of files contained in the tar archive.

Otherwise the return code from [system](#) with an external tar or 0L, invisibly.

See Also

[tar](#), [unzip](#).

unzip

*Extract or List Zip Archives***Description**

Extract files from or list a zip archive.

Usage

```
unzip(zipfile, files = NULL, list = FALSE, overwrite = TRUE,
      junkpaths = FALSE, exdir = ".", unzip = "internal",
      setTimes = FALSE)
```

Arguments

zipfile	The pathname of the zip file: tilde expansion (see path.expand) will be performed.
files	A character vector of recorded filepaths to be extracted: the default is to extract all files.
list	If TRUE, list the files and extract none. The equivalent of <code>unzip -l</code> .
overwrite	If TRUE, overwrite existing files, otherwise ignore such files. The equivalent of <code>unzip -o</code> .
junkpaths	If TRUE, use only the basename of the stored filepath when extracting. The equivalent of <code>unzip -j</code> .
exdir	The directory to extract files to (the equivalent of <code>unzip -d</code>). It will be created if necessary.
unzip	The method to be used. An alternative is to use <code>getOption("unzip")</code> , which on a Unix-alike may be set to the path to a unzip program.
setTimes	logical. For the internal method only, should the file times be set based on the times in the zip file? (NB: this applies to included files, not to directories.)

Value

If `list = TRUE`, a data frame with columns Name (character) Length (the size of the uncompressed file, numeric) and Date (of class "[POSIXct](#)").

Otherwise for the "internal" method, a character vector of the filepaths extracted to, invisibly.

Note

The default internal method is a minimal implementation, principally designed for Windows' users to be able to unpack Windows binary packages without external software. It does not (for example) support Unicode filenames as introduced in zip 3.0: for that use `unzip = "unzip"` with `unzip 6.00` or later. It does have some support for bzip2 compression and > 2GB zip files (but not >= 4GB files pre-compression contained in a zip file: like many builds of unzip it may truncate these, in R's case with a warning if possible).

If unzip specifies a program, the format of the dates listed with `list = TRUE` is unknown (on Windows it can even depend on the current locale) and the return values could be NA or expressed in the wrong time zone or misinterpreted (the latter being far less likely as from unzip 6.00).

File times in zip files are stored in the style of MS-DOS, as local times to an accuracy of 2 seconds. This is not very useful when transferring zip files between machines (even across continents), so we chose not to restore them by default.

Source

The internal C code uses zlib and is in particular based on the contributed ‘minizip’ application in the zlib sources (from <http://zlib.net>) by Gilles Vollant.

See Also

[unz](#) to read a single component from a zip file.

[zip](#).

update.packages

Compare Installed Packages with CRAN-like Repositories

Description

`old.packages` indicates packages which have a (suitable) later version on the repositories whereas `update.packages` offers to download and install such packages.

`new.packages` looks for (suitable) packages on the repositories that are not already installed, and optionally offers them for installation.

Usage

```
update.packages(lib.loc = NULL, repos = getOption("repos"),
               contriburl = contrib.url(repos, type),
               method, instlib = NULL,
               ask = TRUE, available = NULL,
               oldPkgs = NULL, ..., checkBuilt = FALSE,
               type = getOption("pkgType"))
```

```
old.packages(lib.loc = NULL, repos = getOption("repos"),
            contriburl = contrib.url(repos, type),
            instPkgs = installed.packages(lib.loc = lib.loc),
            method, available = NULL, checkBuilt = FALSE,
            type = getOption("pkgType"))
```

```
new.packages(lib.loc = NULL, repos = getOption("repos"),
            contriburl = contrib.url(repos, type),
            instPkgs = installed.packages(lib.loc = lib.loc),
            method, available = NULL, ask = FALSE, ...,
            type = getOption("pkgType"))
```

Arguments

<code>lib.loc</code>	character vector describing the location of R library trees to search through (and update packages therein), or NULL for all known trees (see .libPaths).
<code>repos</code>	character vector, the base URL(s) of the repositories to use, e.g., the URL of a CRAN mirror such as "http://cran.us.r-project.org".
<code>contriburl</code>	URL(s) of the contrib sections of the repositories. Use this argument if your repository is incomplete. Overrides argument <code>repos</code> . Incompatible with <code>type = "both"</code> .
<code>method</code>	Download method, see download.file . Unused if a non-NULL available is supplied.
<code>instlib</code>	character string giving the library directory where to install the packages.
<code>ask</code>	logical indicating whether to ask the user to select packages before they are downloaded and installed, or the character string "graphics", which brings up a widget to allow the user to (de-)select from the list of packages which could be updated. (The latter value only works on systems with a GUI version of select.list , and is otherwise equivalent to <code>ask = TRUE</code> .)
<code>available</code>	an object as returned by available.packages listing packages available at the repositories, or NULL which makes an internal call to available.packages . Incompatible with <code>type = "both"</code> .
<code>checkBuilt</code>	If TRUE, a package built under an earlier major.minor version of R (e.g., 3.1) is considered to be 'old'.
<code>oldPkgs</code>	if specified as non-NULL, <code>update.packages()</code> only considers these packages for updating. This may be a character vector of package names or a matrix as returned by <code>old.packages</code> .
<code>instPkgs</code>	by default all installed packages, installed.packages (<code>lib.loc = lib.loc</code>). A subset can be specified; currently this must be in the same (character matrix) format as returned by <code>installed.packages()</code> .
<code>...</code>	Arguments such as <code>destdir</code> and dependencies to be passed to install.packages .
<code>type</code>	character, indicating the type of package to download and install. See install.packages .

Details

`old.packages` compares the information from [available.packages](#) with that from `instPkgs` (computed by [installed.packages](#) by default) and reports installed packages that have newer versions on the repositories or, if `checkBuilt = TRUE`, that were built under an earlier minor version of R (for example built under 3.1.x when running R 3.2.0). (For binary package types here is no check that the version on the repository was built under the current minor version of R, but it is advertised as being suitable for this version.)

`new.packages` does the same comparison but reports uninstalled packages that are available at the repositories. If `ask != FALSE` it asks which packages should be installed in the first element of `lib.loc`.

The main function of the set is `update.packages`. First a list of all packages found in `lib.loc` is created and compared with those available at the repositories. If `ask = TRUE` (the default) packages

with a newer version are reported and for each one the user can specify if it should be updated. If so the packages are downloaded from the repositories and installed in the respective library path (or instlib if specified).

For how the list of suitable available packages is determined see [available.packages](#). `available = NULL` make a call to `available.packages(contriburl = contriburl, method = method)` and hence by default filters on R version, OS type and removes duplicates.

Value

`update.packages` returns `NULL` invisibly.

For `old.packages`, `NULL` or a matrix with one row per package, row names the package names and column names "Package", "LibPath", "Installed" (the version), "Built" (the version built under), "ReposVer" and "Repository".

For `new.packages` a character vector of package names, *after* any selected *via* ask have been installed.

Warning

Take care when using dependencies (passed to [install.packages](#)) with `update.packages`, for it is unclear where new dependencies should be installed. The current implementation will only allow it if all the packages to be updated are in a single library, when that library will be used.

See Also

[install.packages](#), [available.packages](#), [download.packages](#), [installed.packages](#), [contrib.url](#).

The options listed for `install.packages` under [options](#).

See [download.file](#) for how to handle proxies and other options to monitor file transfers.

[INSTALL](#), [REMOVE](#), [remove.packages](#), [library](#), [.packages](#), [read.dcf](#)

The 'R Installation and Administration' manual for how to set up a repository.

url.show

Display a text URL

Description

Extension of [file.show](#) to display text files from a remote server.

Usage

```
url.show(url, title = url, file = tempfile(),
         delete.file = TRUE, method, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>url</code>	The URL to read from.
<code>title</code>	Title for the browser.
<code>file</code>	File to copy to.
<code>delete.file</code>	Delete the file afterwards?
<code>method</code>	File transfer method: see download.file
<code>...</code>	Arguments to pass to file.show .

Note

Since this is for text files, it will convert to CRLF line endings on Windows.

See Also

[url](#), [file.show](#), [download.file](#)

Examples

```
## Not run: url.show("http://lib.stat.cmu.edu/datasets/csb/ch3a.txt")
```

URLencode	<i>Encode or Decode a (partial) URL</i>
-----------	---

Description

Functions to percent-encode or decode characters in URLs.

Usage

```
URLencode(URL, reserved = FALSE, repeated = FALSE)
URLdecode(URL)
```

Arguments

<code>URL</code>	a character string.
<code>reserved</code>	logical: should ‘reserved’ characters be encoded? See ‘Details’.
<code>repeated</code>	logical: should apparently already-encoded URLs be encoded again?

Details

Characters in a URL other than the English alphanumeric characters and ‘- _ . ~’ should be encoded as % plus a two-digit hexadecimal representation, and any single-byte character can be so encoded. (Multi-byte characters are encoded byte-by-byte.) The standard refers to this as ‘percent-encoding’.

In addition, ‘! \$ & ' () * + , ; = : / ? @ # []’ are reserved characters, and should be encoded unless used in their reserved sense, which is scheme specific. The default in `URLencode` is to leave them alone, which is appropriate for ‘file://’ URLs, but probably not for ‘http://’ ones.

An ‘apparently already-encoded URL’ is one containing %xx for two hexadecimal digits.

Value

A character string.

References

Internet STD 66 (formerly RFC 3986), <https://tools.ietf.org/html/std66>

Examples

```
(y <- URLencode("a url with spaces and / and @"))
URLdecode(y)
(y <- URLencode("a url with spaces and / and @", reserved = TRUE))
URLdecode(y)

URLdecode(z <- "ab%20cd")
c(URLencode(z), URLencode(z, repeated = TRUE)) # first is usually wanted
```

utils-deprecated

*Deprecated Functions in Package **utils***

Description

These functions are provided for compatibility with older versions of R only, and may be defunct as soon as of the next release.

See Also

[Deprecated](#), [Defunct](#)

View	<i>Invoke a Data Viewer</i>
------	-----------------------------

Description

Invoke a spreadsheet-style data viewer on a matrix-like R object.

Usage

```
View(x, title)
```

Arguments

x	an R object which can be coerced to a data frame with non-zero numbers of rows and columns.
title	title for viewer window. Defaults to name of x prefixed by Data:.

Details

Object x is coerced (if possible) to a data frame, then columns are converted to character using [format.data.frame](#). The object is then viewed in a spreadsheet-like data viewer, a read-only version of [data.entry](#).

If there are row names on the data frame that are not 1:nrow, they are displayed in a separate first column called row.names.

Objects with zero columns or zero rows are not accepted.

The array of cells can be navigated by the cursor keys and Home, End, Page Up and Page Down (where supported by X11) as well as Enter and Tab.

Value

Invisible NULL. The functions puts up a window and returns immediately: the window can be closed via its controls or menus.

See Also

[edit.data.frame](#), [data.entry](#).

vignette

*View or List Package Vignettes***Description**

View a specified package vignette, or list the available ones.

Usage

```
vignette(topic, package = NULL, lib.loc = NULL, all = TRUE)

## S3 method for class 'vignette'
print(x, ...)
## S3 method for class 'vignette'
edit(name, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>topic</code>	a character string giving the (base) name of the vignette to view. If omitted, all vignettes from all installed packages are listed.
<code>package</code>	a character vector with the names of packages to search through, or <code>NULL</code> in which ‘all’ packages (as defined by argument <code>all</code>) are searched.
<code>lib.loc</code>	a character vector of directory names of R libraries, or <code>NULL</code> . The default value of <code>NULL</code> corresponds to all libraries currently known.
<code>all</code>	logical; if <code>TRUE</code> search all available packages in the library trees specified by <code>lib.loc</code> , and if <code>FALSE</code> , search only attached packages.
<code>x, name</code>	Object of class <code>vignette</code> .
<code>...</code>	Ignored by the <code>print</code> method, passed on to <code>file.edit</code> by the <code>edit</code> method.

Details

Function `vignette` returns an object of the same class, the `print` method opens a viewer for it. The program specified by the `pdfviewer` option is used for viewing PDF versions of vignettes. If several vignettes have PDF/HTML versions with base name identical to `topic`, the first one found is used.

If no topics are given, all available vignettes are listed. The corresponding information is returned in an object of class `"packageIQR"`.

The `edit` method copies the R code extracted from the vignette to a temporary file and opens the file in an editor (see [edit](#)). This makes it very easy to execute the commands line by line, modify them in any way you want to help you test variants, etc.

See Also

[browseVignettes](#) for an HTML-based vignette browser; `RShowDoc(<basename>, package = "<pkg>")` displays a “rendered” vignette (pdf or html).

Examples

```
## List vignettes from all *attached* packages
vignette(all = FALSE)

## List vignettes from all *installed* packages (can take a long time!):
vignette(all = TRUE)

## Not run:
## Open the grid intro vignette
vignette("grid")

## The same
v1 <- vignette("grid")
print(v1)

## Now let us have a closer look at the code
edit(v1)

## An alternative way of extracting the code,
## R file is written to current working directory
Stangle(v1$file)

## A package can have more than one vignette (package grid has several):
vignette(package = "grid")
vignette("rotated")
## The same, but without searching for it:
vignette("rotated", package = "grid")

## End(Not run)
```

write.table

Data Output

Description

write.table prints its required argument x (after converting it to a data frame if it is not one nor a matrix) to a file or [connection](#).

Usage

```
write.table(x, file = "", append = FALSE, quote = TRUE, sep = " ",
            eol = "\n", na = "NA", dec = ".", row.names = TRUE,
            col.names = TRUE, qmethod = c("escape", "double"),
            fileEncoding = "")

write.csv(...)
write.csv2(...)
```

Arguments

x	the object to be written, preferably a matrix or data frame. If not, it is attempted to coerce x to a data frame.
file	either a character string naming a file or a connection open for writing. "" indicates output to the console.
append	logical. Only relevant if file is a character string. If TRUE, the output is appended to the file. If FALSE, any existing file of the name is destroyed.
quote	a logical value (TRUE or FALSE) or a numeric vector. If TRUE, any character or factor columns will be surrounded by double quotes. If a numeric vector, its elements are taken as the indices of columns to quote. In both cases, row and column names are quoted if they are written. If FALSE, nothing is quoted.
sep	the field separator string. Values within each row of x are separated by this string.
eol	the character(s) to print at the end of each line (row). For example, eol = "\r\n" will produce Windows' line endings on a Unix-alike OS, and eol = "\r" will produce files as expected by Excel:mac 2004.
na	the string to use for missing values in the data.
dec	the string to use for decimal points in numeric or complex columns: must be a single character.
row.names	either a logical value indicating whether the row names of x are to be written along with x, or a character vector of row names to be written.
col.names	either a logical value indicating whether the column names of x are to be written along with x, or a character vector of column names to be written. See the section on 'CSV files' for the meaning of col.names = NA.
qmethod	a character string specifying how to deal with embedded double quote characters when quoting strings. Must be one of "escape" (default for write.table), in which case the quote character is escaped in C style by a backslash, or "double" (default for write.csv and write.csv2), in which case it is doubled. You can specify just the initial letter.
fileEncoding	character string: if non-empty declares the encoding to be used on a file (not a connection) so the character data can be re-encoded as they are written. See file .
...	arguments to write.table: append, col.names, sep, dec and qmethod cannot be altered.

Details

If the table has no columns the rownames will be written only if row.names = TRUE, and *vice versa*.

Real and complex numbers are written to the maximal possible precision.

If a data frame has matrix-like columns these will be converted to multiple columns in the result (via [as.matrix](#)) and so a character col.names or a numeric quote should refer to the columns in the result, not the input. Such matrix-like columns are unquoted by default.

Any columns in a data frame which are lists or have a class (e.g., dates) will be converted by the appropriate as.character method: such columns are unquoted by default. On the other hand,

any class information for a matrix is discarded and non-atomic (e.g., list) matrices are coerced to character.

Only columns which have been converted to character will be quoted if specified by `quote`.

The `dec` argument only applies to columns that are not subject to conversion to character because they have a class or are part of a matrix-like column (or matrix), in particular to columns protected by `I()`. Use `options("OutDec")` to control such conversions.

In almost all cases the conversion of numeric quantities is governed by the option `"scipen"` (see `options`), but with the internal equivalent of `digits = 15`. For finer control, use `format` to make a character matrix/data frame, and call `write.table` on that.

These functions check for a user interrupt every 1000 lines of output.

If `file` is a non-open connection, an attempt is made to open it and then close it after use.

To write a Unix-style file on Windows, use a binary connection e.g. `file = file("filename", "wb")`.

CSV files

By default there is no column name for a column of row names. If `col.names = NA` and `row.names = TRUE` a blank column name is added, which is the convention used for CSV files to be read by spreadsheets. Note that such CSV files can be read in R by

```
read.csv(file = "<filename>", row.names = 1)
```

`write.csv` and `write.csv2` provide convenience wrappers for writing CSV files. They set `sep` and `dec` (see below), `qmethod = "double"`, and `col.names` to `NA` if `row.names = TRUE` (the default) and to `TRUE` otherwise.

`write.csv` uses `"."` for the decimal point and a comma for the separator.

`write.csv2` uses a comma for the decimal point and a semicolon for the separator, the Excel convention for CSV files in some Western European locales.

These wrappers are deliberately inflexible: they are designed to ensure that the correct conventions are used to write a valid file. Attempts to change `append`, `col.names`, `sep`, `dec` or `qmethod` are ignored, with a warning.

CSV files do not record an encoding, and this causes problems if they are not ASCII for many other applications. Windows Excel 2007/10 will open files (e.g., by the file association mechanism) correctly if they are ASCII or UTF-16 (use `fileEncoding = "UTF-16LE"`) or perhaps in the current Windows codepage (e.g., `"CP1252"`), but the 'Text Import Wizard' (from the 'Data' tab) allows far more choice of encodings. Excel:mac 2004/8 can *import* only 'Macintosh' (which seems to mean Mac Roman), 'Windows' (perhaps Latin-1) and 'PC-8' files. OpenOffice 3.x asks for the character set when opening the file.

There is an IETF RFC4180 (<https://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc4180>) for CSV files, which mandates comma as the separator and CRLF line endings. `write.csv` writes compliant files on Windows: use `eol = "\r\n"` on other platforms.

Note

`write.table` can be slow for data frames with large numbers (hundreds or more) of columns: this is inevitable as each column could be of a different class and so must be handled separately. If they are all of the same class, consider using a matrix instead.

See Also

The ‘R Data Import/Export’ manual.

[read.table](#), [write](#).

[write.matrix](#) in package **MASS**.

Examples

```
## Not run:
## To write a CSV file for input to Excel one might use
x <- data.frame(a = I("a \" quote"), b = pi)
write.table(x, file = "foo.csv", sep = ",", col.names = NA,
            qmethod = "double")
## and to read this file back into R one needs
read.table("foo.csv", header = TRUE, sep = ",", row.names = 1)
## NB: you do need to specify a separator if qmethod = "double".

### Alternatively
write.csv(x, file = "foo.csv")
read.csv("foo.csv", row.names = 1)
## or without row names
write.csv(x, file = "foo.csv", row.names = FALSE)
read.csv("foo.csv")

## To write a file in Mac Roman for simple use in Mac Excel 2004/8
write.csv(x, file = "foo.csv", fileEncoding = "macroman")
## or for Windows Excel 2007/10
write.csv(x, file = "foo.csv", fileEncoding = "UTF-16LE")

## End(Not run)
```

zip

Create Zip archives

Description

A wrapper for an external zip command to create zip archives.

Usage

```
zip(zipfile, files, flags = "-r9X", extras = "",
    zip = Sys.getenv("R_ZIPCMD", "zip"))
```

Arguments

zipfile	The pathname of the zip file: tilde expansion (see path.expand) will be performed.
files	A character vector of recorded filepaths to be included.

flags	A character string of flags to be passed to the command: see 'Details'.
extras	An optional character vector: see 'Details'.
zip	A character string specifying the external command to be used.

Details

On a Unix-alike, the default for zip will by default use the value of R_ZIPCMD, which is set in 'etc/Renviron' if an unzip command was found during configuration. On Windows, the default relies on a zip program (for example that from Rtools) being in the path.

The default for flags is that appropriate for zipping up a directory tree in a portable way: see the system-specific help for the zip command for other possibilities.

Argument extras can be used to specify -x or -i followed by a list of filepaths to exclude or include.

Value

The status value returned by the external command, invisibly.

See Also

[unzip](#), [unz](#).

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