# Statistics 360: Advanced R for Data Science Lecture 4

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R Functions

Scoping

Lazy evaluation and ...

Exiting a function

Function forms

Functional Programming Basics

## Digging deeper into functions

- ▶ Reading: Text, chapter 5, sections 6.4-6.8
- ► Topics:
  - more on scoping (finding objects)
  - lazy evaluation and variable arguments with ...
  - exiting a function
  - prefix, infix, replacement and special function forms

### R Functions

#### R function fundamentals

- ▶ Reading: text sections 6.1 and 6.2
- ▶ In R, functions are objects with three essential components:
  - the code inside the function, or body,
  - the list of arguments to the function, or formals, and
  - an environment that contains all objects defined in the function.
- Functions can have other attributes, but the above three are essential.

## Example function

```
f <- function(x) {
   return(x^2)
}
f

## function(x) {
## return(x^2)
## }</pre>
```

### The function body

- ▶ This is the code we want to execute.
- ▶ When the end of a function is reached without a call to return(), the value of the last line is returned.
  - So in our example function, we could replace return(x^2) with just 'x^2.
- ▶ Use body() to see the body of a function.

```
body(f)
## {
## return(x^2)
## }
```

#### The function formals

- ▶ These are the arguments to the function.
- Function arguments can have default values and/or be defined in terms of other arguments.

```
f \leftarrow function(x=0) \{ x^2 \}
f \leftarrow function(x=0,y=3*x) \{ x^2 + y^2 \}
f()
## [1] O
f(x=1) # missing y, so y=3*x=3, results in: 1^2+3^2
## [1] 10
f(y=1) # missing x, default x=0, so it calls f(x=0,y=1): 0^2+1^2
## [1] 1
f(x=1,y=2) # 1^2+2^2
## [1] 5
```

Use formals() to see the formals of a function and their default values.

```
formals(f)

## $x
## [1] 0
##
## $y
## 3 * x
```

### Argument matching when calling a function

## [1] 3

▶ When you call a function, the arguments are matched first by name, then by "prefix" matching and finally by position:

```
f <- function(firstarg, secondarg) {</pre>
  firstarg<sup>2</sup> + secondarg
f(firstarg=1, secondarg=2) # same as f(secondarg=2, firstarg=1)
## [1] 3
f(secondarg=2,firstarg=1)
## [1] 3
f(s=2,f=1) # match by prefix
## [1] 3
f(2,f=1) # match by prefix first then by position
## [1] 3
f(1,2) # match by positions
```

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#### The function environment

- R creates an environment (with rlang::env()) within each function call to hold its variables.
- ► Initially includes the formals, but variables created within the function are also stored in this environment

```
f <- function(x) {
   y <- x^2
   ee <- environment() # Returns ID of environment w/in f
   print(ls(ee)) # list objects in ee
   ee
}
# After a function call its environment is usually discarded
my_ee <- f(1:3) # but not if you bind it to a name</pre>
```

```
## [1] "ee" "x" "y"

my_ee$new_var <- 100
x <- 1:100
ls(my_ee)</pre>
```

```
## [1] "ee" "new_var" "x" "y"
```

environment(f)

## <environment: R\_GlobalEnv>

### **Enclosing environments**

- Our function f was defined in the global environment, .GlobalEnv, which "encloses" the environment within f.
- ▶ If f needs a variable and can't find it within f's environment, it will look for it in the enclosing environment, and then the enclosing environment of .GlobalEnv, and so on.
- ► The search() function lists the heirarchy of environments that enclose .GlobalEnv.

```
search()
```

```
## [1] ".GlobalEnv" "package:stats" "package:graphics
## [4] "package:grDevices" "package:utils" "package:datasets
## [7] "package:methods" "Autoloads" "package:base"
```

➤ To facilitate this search, each environment includes a pointer to its enclosing environment.

#### R packages and the search list

# install.packages("hapassoc")

- Use the library() command to load packages.
- ▶ When we load a package it is inserted in position 2 of the search list, just after .GlobalEnv.

### Detaching packages

Detach a package from the search list with detach()

## Package namespaces

- Package authors create a list of objects that will be visible to users when the package is loaded. This list is called the package namespace.
- You can access functions in a package's namespace without loading the package using the :: operator.

```
set.seed(321)
n<-30; x<-(1:n)/n; y<-rnorm(n,mean=x); ff<-lm(y~x)
car::sigmaHat(ff)
## [1] 0.926726</pre>
```

Doing so does not add the package to the search list.

# Scoping

#### Lexical scoping in R

- ▶ We have already touched on the essence of scoping in R: When a computation needs an object we start by looking in the current environment, and then search successive enclosing environments.
- ► More formally R has four rules:
  - Functions
  - Name masking
  - Functions versus variables
  - A fresh start
  - Dynamic lookup

## Name masking

► A consequence of the search order for objects is that names defined *inside* a function mask names defined *outside*.

## [1] 10 20 30

#### Functions vs names

▶ R does the "right thing" when you (stupidly) use the same name for a function and variable.

```
g09 <- function(x) x + 100
g10 <- function() {
  g09 <- 10
  g09(g09)
}
g10()</pre>
```

```
## [1] 110
```

### Each function call gets a new environment

As we saw in previous slides, function calls create an environment. On exit, this environment is (typically) unbound and will disappear.

```
x < -100
f <- function(){
  print(environment())
  x \leftarrow x+1
f()
## <environment: 0x7fbf7e3b4748>
## [1] 101
f()
## <environment: 0x7fbf7e40cc88>
## [1] 101
```

#### Dynamic lookup

- ▶ Be aware that functions only look for objects when run (dynamic lookup), not when created (static lookup).
- ▶ If a function gets an object from an enclosing environment, it will return different results whenever the object in the enclosing environment changes.
  - ► This may be what you intend, but it's also a common source of errors. What if I meant to define y in f() but forgot:

```
y <- 100
f <- function(x) {
    x + y
}
f(1)

## [1] 101
y <- 200
f(1)

## [1] 201</pre>
```

consider adding rm(list=ls()) to the start of your scripts

Lazy evaluation and . . .

#### Lazy evaluation

- Function arguments are only evaluated when needed.
  - ► The text describes how lazy evaluation is implemented (Section 6.5), but we will not discuss the details.

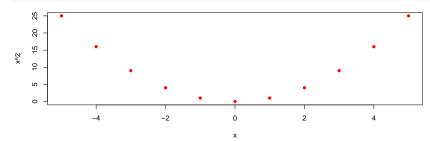
```
f<-function(xx,yy) {
    xx
}
f(1) # no value for yy, but OK since yy not used
## [1] 1
try(f(yy=1)) # xx is needed</pre>
```

## Error in f(yy = 1) : argument "xx" is missing, with no defaul

### Variable arguments with ...

- ► The special function argument . . . (dot-dot-dot) allows a function to take any number of arguments.
- ► A typical use is to pass these to another function, as in the following example.

```
myplot <- function(x,...) {
  plot(x,x^2,...) # pass any args not named x to plot
}
myplot((-5:5),col="red",pch=16)</pre>
```



## Exiting a function

#### Exiting a function

- ► Functions can exit explicitly with return() or implicitly, where the last expression in the function is its return value
- ▶ When a function returns, explicitly or implicitly, the default is to print the return value.
  - ► You can suppress this with invisible().

```
ff <- function(x) { x }
ff(1)

## [1] 1

ff_invis <- function(x) { invisible(x) }
ff_invis(1) # but x <- ff_invis(1) same as x <- ff(1)</pre>
```

## Signalling conditions

- ► Functions can signal error, warning or message conditions with stop(), warning() and message(), respectively.
  - stop() stops execution, warning() and message() don't
- ▶ These signals can be "handled" by ignoring them
  - ▶ ignore errors with try()
  - ignore warnings with suppressWarnings()
  - ignore messages with suppressMessages()
- or implementing a custom handler that over-rides the default behaviour of a condition
  - see Chapter 8 of the text if you are interested in learning more about handling conditions
- ▶ We restrict attention to (i) signalling and (ii) cleaning up any changes to the R session before exiting.

#### stop()

▶ If your function encounters an error, use stop() to stop and print an error message, also called "throwing" an error.

## Error in centre(1:10, "mymean") : method mymean not implement

#### warning()

▶ If you suspect an error but can proceed without stopping, throw a warning() instead.

```
centre <- function(x,method) {</pre>
  switch(method, mean=mean(x), median=median(x),
         {warning("\nmethod ",method,
                   " not implemented, using mean\n");
           mean(x))
centre(1:10, "mymean")
## Warning in centre(1:10, "mymean"):
## method mymean not implemented, using mean
## [1] 5.5
```

#### message()

If you don't think the condition warrants a warning, you can issue a message.

```
centre <- function(x,method) {</pre>
  switch(method, mean=mean(x), median=median(x),
         {message("\nmethod ",method,
                   " not implemented, using mean\n");
           mean(x))
centre(1:10, "mymean")
##
## method mymean not implemented, using mean
## [1] 5.5
```

### Cleaning up with exit handlers

- ► An R session has a "global state" of options and parameters that control default behaviour.
  - type options() or par() to see some of these
- ▶ If your function temporarily modifies the global state, you can use an exit handler to re-set, even if your function stops.
  - Use add=TRUE to add more than one handler.

```
rplot <- function(y,x){
  opar <- par(mfrow=c(2,2))
  on.exit(par(opar),add=TRUE)
  plot(lm(y~x)) #could throw an error
}
y <- rnorm(100); x <- rnorm(10) # different length
try(rplot(y,x)) # Fails, but re-sets par mfrow</pre>
```

```
## Error in model.frame.default(formula = y ~ x, drop.unused.lev
## variable lengths differ (found for 'x')
```

#### Function forms

#### Function forms

- ► We have been writing "prefix" functions, with a function name followed by arguments.
- ▶ Other forms are "infix", "replacement" and "special".
- We will cover each form very briefly; see the text, section 6.8 for more details.

#### Infix functions

- An infix function has two arguments and is called by putting the name between arguments, as in x+y.
  - x+y calls + as `+`(x,y)
  - + and are special infix functions that can be called with only one argument
  - You can define your own infix function by enclosing the function name in %.

```
"-%" <- function(set1,set2){
   setdiff(set1,set2)
}
s1 <- 1:10; s2 <- 4:6
s1 %-% s2 # same as `%-%`(s1,s2)
## [1] 1 2 3 7 8 9 10</pre>
```

#### Replacement functions

- ▶ Replacement functions are called to change values.
  - ► For example, change values of attributes of objects
- Must have arguments x and value, and must return the modified object.
- They are made to look like prefix functions, and may have prefix counterparts.

```
x < -c(a=1,b=2)
names(x)
## [1] "a" "b"
names(x) \leftarrow c("aa","bb")
X
## aa bb
x <- `names<-`(x,c("aaa","bbb"))</pre>
х
## aaa bbb
```

You can write your own relacement functions if you end the function name with <-</p>

```
st360names<-` <- function(x,value){
  names(x) <- pasteO(value, "360",names(x))
  x
}
st360names(x) <- c("a","b")
x

## a360aaa b360bbb
## 1 2</pre>
```

#### Special functions

- Examples: subset [ and extract [[, control flow if, for,etc.
- Key point: These are functions, and it is sometimes useful to know their names so that we can get help or use them like any other prefix function.

```
dd <- data.frame(x=1:2,y=3:4)
`[[`(dd,1) # compare to dd[[1]]

## [1] 1 2

dd <- `[[<-`(dd,1,value=5:6) #cf dd[[1]] <- 5:6

dd

## x y
## 1 5 3
## 2 6 4</pre>
```

▶ It can be useful to know functions by name so that we can call them in lapply-like functions.

# Functional Programming Basics

#### Functional programming languages

- In a functional language functions are data structures.
  - Can assign them to variables, pass them as arguments to other functions and return them from other functions.
  - ▶ This is true of R functions, and is what we'll be focusing on.
- ▶ Many functional languages also require functions to be "pure".
  - ► Function output should only depend on the input, and the function should not have any side-effects.
  - We can see from our brief discussion of scoping that R functions can use global variables, and we know they have side-effects like generating plots.

# Functional style

- ▶ We will say that functional programming *style* means a top-down approach that breaks big problems into smaller pieces that we solve with small, easy (easier) to understand functions.
- This is the way we are approaching our implementation of MARS.
- ► Functional languages support this style with "higher-order" functions that take other functions as input.
  - ► The higher-order function is part of the "big problem", and its input is the "small function".

#### **Functionals**

- ➤ You have already seen higher-order functions in Stat 260: The map family of functions from the purrr package, or lapply() from base R.
- ► The text calls these functionals and they are discussed in Chapter 9.
- ➤ You have already studied the map functions, so our discussion here will be brief, with an emphasis on parallelization:
  - Not only can we break a computation into pieces, but we can have the pieces computed on different cores of a computer or nodes of a compute cluster.

#### Map-like functions such as lapply()

- ► Take a vector and function as input and return a list (or some simplification) whose elements are the function applied to each vector element.
  - $\blacktriangleright$  We are mapping (in math sense) the vector elements x to f(x).
- ▶ Basically a for loop over the input vector, calling the input function at each iteration.

```
simple_map <- function(x, f, ...) { # text, Section 9.2
  out <- vector("list", length(x))
  for (i in seq_along(x)) {
    out[[i]] <- f(x[[i]], ...)
  }
  out
}</pre>
```

# Examples with lapply()

```
rfun <- function(seed,n) { set.seed(seed); return(rnorm(n))}
dat <- lapply(1:10,rfun,n=1e7) # specify non-vectorized arg by name
mfun <- function(x) { return(mean(quantile(x,probs=c(.25,.75)))) }
system.time( unlist(lapply(dat,mfun)) ) # Look at elapsed</pre>
```

```
## user system elapsed
## 1.975 0.070 2.045
```

# Parallel execution with mclapply()

mclapply() is the multi-core version of lapply(); i.e., function calls are done on separate cores.

```
library(parallel) # comes with R
ncores <- detectCores(); cat("number of cores=",ncores,"\n")

## number of cores= 10
system.time({ unlist(mclapply(dat,mfun,mc.cores=ncores)) })

## user system elapsed
## 1.900 0.581 0.390</pre>
```

#### Another example

```
dat2 <- lapply(1:10,rfun,n=1e5)
mfun2 <- function(x) { return(data.frame(sum=sum(x),n=length(x))) }
sumdat <- lapply(dat2,mfun2)</pre>
```

#### Reduce-like functions

- ▶ Reduce functions successively combine vector elements.
  - ► Can use them to assemble output of a map-like function.
  - When implemented to parallelize over multiple computers, this is the MapReduce programming model you hear about for "big data".
- Reducers combine with a loop:

```
simple_reduce <- function(x, f) { # Text section 9.5
  out <- x[[1]]
  for (i in seq(2, length(x))) {
    out <- f(out, x[[i]])
  }
  out
}</pre>
```

#### Example reduce

## [1] -0.001245298

```
allres <- simple_reduce(sumdat,rbind)
allres
##
            sum
                     n
## 1 -224.40833 100000
## 2 307.85570 100000
## 3 36.96750 100000
## 4 -20.44743 100000
## 5 -726,27096 100000
## 6 -191.83899 100000
## 7 -50.00946 100000
## 8 270,86608 100000
## 9 -52,17403 100000
## 10 -595.83810 100000
sum(allres$sum)/sum(allres$n) # mean
```

# Further reading on parallel computing

For parallel computing on a cluster, see the doParallel and foreach packages (canonical link to doParallel vignette currently broken):

 $http://users.iems.northwestern.edu/{\sim}nelsonb/Masterclass/getting startedParallel.pdf\\$ 

# Other higher-order functions

- ▶ Other chapters discuss function factories (Chapter 10) and function operators (Chapter 11).
- ▶ These are used less and will not be discussed.

In Out	Vector	Function
Vector	Regular function	Function factory
Function	Functional	Function operator

Figure 1: Higher-order functions