

**NATIONAL ENGINEERING CENTER**

University of the Philippines  
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# 4.0 Basic R Programming

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*Module 6 of the Business Intelligence and Analytics Certification  
of UP NEC and the UP Center for Business Intelligence*

# Outline for this Training

- Introduction to R and R Studio
- Data Types and Operators
  - Case Study on R Scripting
- Reading, Manipulating and Writing Data
  - Case Study on Dataset Analysis with ETL
- **Basic R Programming**
  - **Case Study: Writing Functions**
- Graphics and Plotting
- Deploying R and Dashboard Generation
  - Case Study: Deploying a Simple Dashboard
- Deploying R with C#
  - Case Study: A Simple Standalone GUI For R Apps



# Outline for this Session

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- Control Structures
- Functions
- Sourcing Scripts



# Control Structures

## Definition 4.1: Control Structures

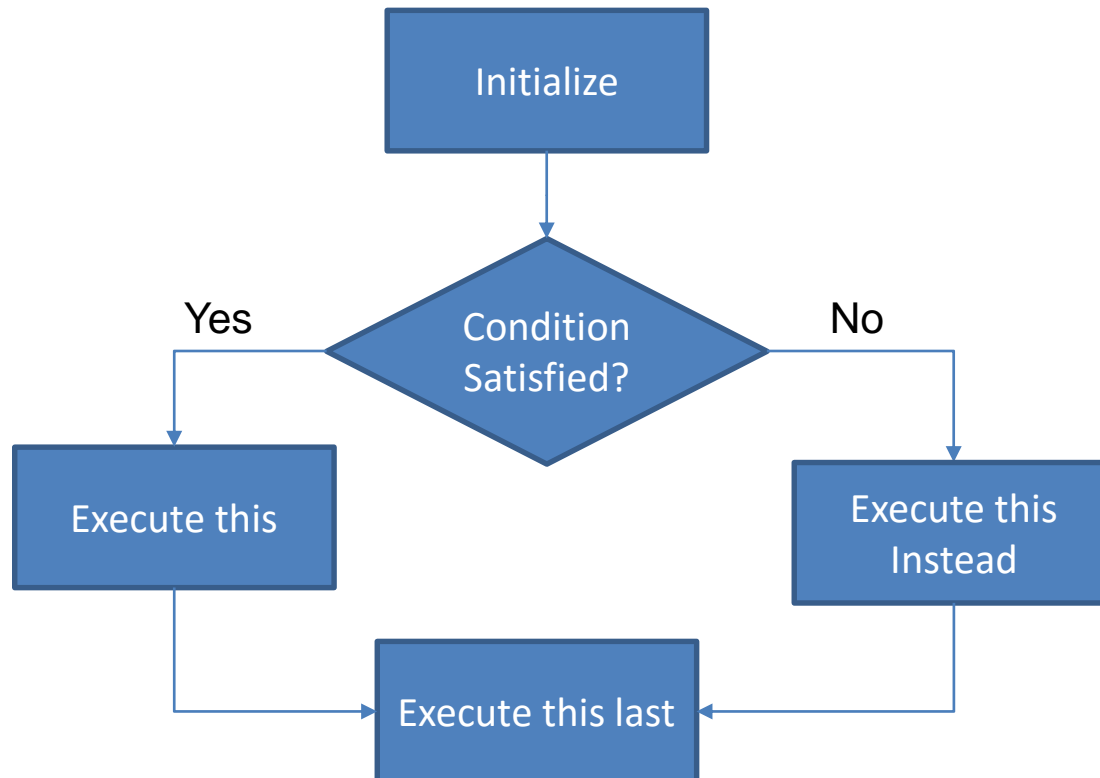
- Control structures in R allow you **to control the flow of execution** of the program. Examples are:
  - if, else: testing a condition
  - for: execute a loop x number of times
  - while: execute a loop while a condition is true
  - repeat: execute an infinite loop
  - break: break the execution of a loop
  - next: skip an interaction of a loop
  - return: exit a function
- Most control structures are not used in interactive sessions, but rather when **writing functions or longer expressions**.



# Control Structures

## Definition 4.2: Conditional Statements

- Conditional Statements control the flow of the execution



# Control Structures

- `if(<condition>) {`
- `## do something`
- `} else {`
- `## do something else`
- `}`
- `if(<condition1>) {`
- `## do something`
- `} else if(<condition2>) {`
- `## do something different`
- `} else {`
- `## do something different`
- `}`



# Control Structures

## Example 4.1: Conditional Statements

➤ #If then Else

➤ x=4

➤ if (x > 3) {

➤   y <- 10

➤ } else {

➤   y <- 0

➤ }

➤ y

```
> #If then Else
> x=4
> if(x > 3) {
+ y <- 10
+ } else {
+ y <- 0
+ }
> y
[1] 10
> |
```

# Control Structures

- Vectorized If then Else
  - Previous If Else statements are done on an **element wise basis**
  - Some algorithms may require **vector based** if-then-else results
    - `ifelse(logicalvector, truevalue, falsevalue)`
  - This function returns the same size of the logicalvector



# Control Structures

## Example 4.2: Vectorized Conditional Statements

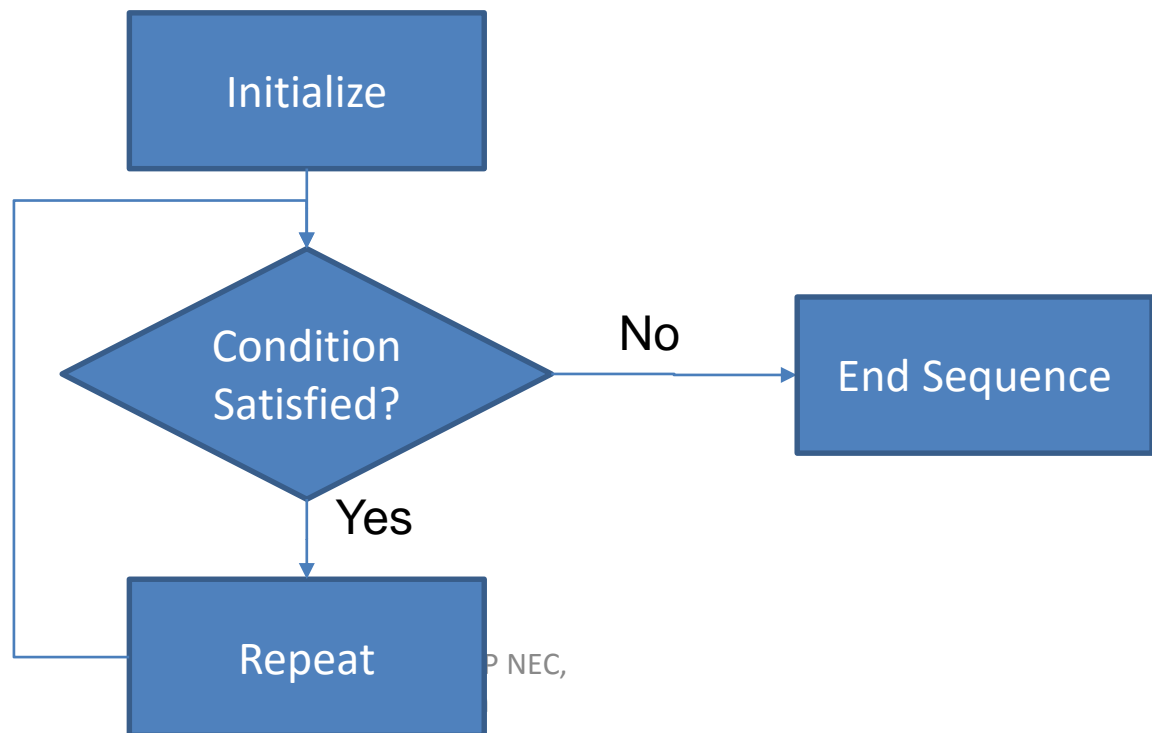
- #If Else
- `x <- c(6:-4)`
- `x`
- `sqrt(x)`
- `sqrt(ifelse(x >= 0, x, NA))`

```
> #If Else
> x <- c(6:-4)
> x
[1] 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 -1 -2 -3 -4
> sqrt(x)
[1] 2.449490 2.236068 2.000000 1.732051 1.414214 1.000000 0.000000      NaN      NaN
[10]      NaN      NaN
Warning message:
In sqrt(x) : NaNs produced
> sqrt(ifelse(x >= 0, x, NA))
[1] 2.449490 2.236068 2.000000 1.732051 1.414214 1.000000 0.000000      NA      NA
[10]      NA      NA
>
```

# Control Structures

## Definition 4.3: Loops

- A loop is a programming control sequence where certain statements are **repeated  $n$  times** or until a condition is not met



# Control Structures

## Definition 4.4: While Loops

- While loops begin by **testing a condition**. If it is true, then they **execute the loop body**. Once the loop body is executed, the condition is tested again, and so forth.

```
➤ count <- 0
➤ while(count < 10) {
➤   print(count)
➤   count <- count + 1
➤ }
```

- While loops can potentially result in infinite loops if not written properly. Use with care!

# Control Structures

## Example 4.3: While Loops

```
➤ x <- 1
➤ while (x < 5) {
➤     x <- x+1
➤     print(x)
➤ }
```

```
> x <- 1
> while(x < 5){
+ x <- x+1
+ print(x)
+ }
[1] 2
[1] 3
[1] 4
[1] 5
>
```

# Control Structures

## Definition 4.5: For Loops

- for loops take an **iterator variable** and assign it successive values from a sequence or vector.
- For loops are most commonly used for iterating over the **elements of an object** (list, vector, etc.)
  - `for (i in 1:10) {`
  - `print(i)`
  - `}`
- This loop takes the `i` variable and in each iteration of the loop gives it values 1, 2, 3, ..., 10, and then exits.

# Control Structures

## Example 4.4: For Loops

- `x <- c("a", "b", "c", "d")`
- `x`
- `for(i in 1:4) {`
- `print(x[i])`
- `}`
- `for(letter in x) {`
- `print(letter)`
- `}`
- `for(i in 1:4) print(x[i])`

```
> x <- c("a", "b", "c", "d")
> x
[1] "a" "b" "c" "d"
> for(i in 1:4) {
+ print(x[i])
+ }
[1] "a"
[1] "b"
[1] "c"
[1] "d"
> for(letter in x) {
+ print(letter)
+ }
[1] "a"
[1] "b"
[1] "c"
[1] "d"
> for(i in 1:4) print(x[i])
[1] "a"
[1] "b"
[1] "c"
[1] "d"
> |
```

# Control Structures

## Example 4.5: Nested Loops

- for loops can be nested.

```
➤ x <- matrix(1:6, 2, 3)
➤ for(i in seq_len(nrow(x))) {
➤   for(j in seq_len(ncol(x))) {
➤     print(x[i, j])
➤   }
➤ }
```

- Be careful with nesting though. Nesting beyond 2-3 levels is often very difficult to read/understand.

# Control Structures

- Vector Based and Cursor Based Algorithms
  - Set Based Algorithms **are more efficient** as compared to cursor based algorithms
  - As much as possible use **Set Based Algorithms**





# Control Structures

## Example 4.6: Vector versus Cursor Based Algorithms

- `zVec <- sample(0:999, 10000000, replace=T)`
- **#Cursor Based Example**
- `avg = mean(zVec)`
- `dev = 0`
- `for(i in 1:length(zVec)) {`
- `dev = dev + (zVec[i]-avg)^2`
- `}`
- `sdev = (dev/(length(zVec)-1))^0.5`
- **#Vector Based Example**
- `vdev = (sum((zVec-mean(zVec))^2/(length(zVec)-1)))^0.5`



# Control Structures

## Example 4.6 (Cont.) : Vector versus Cursor Based Algorithms

- Which took longer?

```
> #Cursor Based Example
> avg = mean(zVec)
> dev = 0
> for(i in 1:length(zVec)){
+ dev = dev + (zVec[i]-avg)^2
+ }
> sdev = (dev/(length(zVec)-1))^0.5
> sdev
[1] 288.6938
> #Vector Based Example
> vdev = (sum((zVec-mean(zVec))^2/(length(zVec)-1)))^0.5
> vdev
[1] 288.6938
```

# Outline for this Session

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- Control Structures
- **Functions**
- Sourcing Scripts



# Functions

## Definition 4.6: Functions

- As we have seen informally along the way, the R language allows the user to create objects called **“functions”**
- These are true R functions that are stored in a special internal form and may be used in **further expressions** and so on.
- In the process, the language gains enormously in power, convenience and elegance, and learning to write useful functions is one of the main ways to make your use of R **comfortable and productive.**



# Functions

- Functions are created using **the function() directive** and are stored as R objects just like anything else. In particular, they are R objects of class “function”.
  - `f <- function(<arguments>) {`
  - `## Do something interesting`
  - `}`
- Functions in **R are “first class objects”**, which means that they can be treated much like any other R object. Importantly,
  - Functions can be passed as arguments to other functions
  - Functions can be nested, so that you can define a function inside of another function

# Functions

- Functions are called **by their name and arguments** are passed
  - `f (<arguments>)`

# Functions

## Example 4.7: Functions

- #Declare a Function
- `squarethis <- function(number) {`
- `return(number^2)`
- `}`

- #Call the Function
- `squarethis(1)`
- `squarethis(4)`
- `squarethis(12)`

```
> #Declare a Function
> squarethis <- function(number){
+ return(number^2)
+ }
> squarethis(1)
[1] 1
> squarethis(4)
[1] 16
> squarethis(12)
[1] 144
>
```

# Functions

- The return value of a function is **the last expression** in the function body to be evaluated.
- Functions have named **input arguments** which potentially have default values.
  - The formal arguments are the arguments included in the function definition
  - Not every function call in R makes use of all the formal arguments
  - Function arguments can be missing or might have default values



# Functions

- Argument Matching
  - R functions arguments can be matched by **position or by name**. So the following calls to function `sd` are all equivalent
    - `mydata <- rnorm(100)`
    - `sd(mydata)`
    - `sd(x = mydata)`
    - `sd(x = mydata, na.rm = FALSE)`
    - `sd(na.rm = FALSE, x = mydata)`
    - `sd(na.rm = FALSE, mydata)`
  - It's not recommend to mess around with the **order** of the arguments too much, since it can lead to some confusion.

# Functions

- Argument Matching
  - You can mix positional matching with **matching by name**.
  - When an argument is matched by name, it is “taken out” of the argument list and the remaining unnamed arguments are matched in the order that they are listed in the function definition.



# Functions

## Example 4.8: Function Argument Matching

- `args(lm)`
- #The following two calls are equivalent.
- `mydata= read.csv("deliverytime.csv")`
- `lm(data = mydata, deltime ~ ncases, model = FALSE, 1:100)`
- `lm(deltime ~ ncases, mydata, 1:100, model = FALSE)`

# Functions

```
> #The following two calls are equivalent.  
> mydata= read.csv("deliverytime.csv")  
> lm(data = mydata, deltime ~ ncases, model = FALSE, 1:100)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = deltime ~ ncases, data = mydata, subset = 1:100,  
    model = FALSE)
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept)	ncases
3.321	2.176

```
> lm(deltime ~ ncases, mydata, 1:100, model = FALSE)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = deltime ~ ncases, data = mydata, subset = 1:100,  
    model = FALSE)
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept)	ncases
3.321	2.176

```
> |
```

# Functions

- Argument Matching
  - Most of the time, named arguments are useful on the command line when you have a long argument list and you want to use the defaults for everything except for an argument near the end of the list
  - Named arguments also help if you can remember the name of the argument and not its position on the argument list (plotting is a good example).
  - Function arguments can also be partially matched, which is useful for interactive work.
  - The order of operations when given an argument is
    - 1 Check for exact match for a named argument
    - 2 Check for a partial match
    - 3 Check for a positional match



# Functions

- Defining a Function

- `f <- function(a, b = 1, c = 2, d = NULL) {`
  - `}`

- In addition to not specifying a default value, you can also set an argument value to NULL.

# Functions

- Lazy Evaluation

- Arguments to functions are evaluated lazily, so they are evaluated only as needed.

- `f <- function(a, b) {`

- `a^2`

- `}`

- `f(2)`

- This function never actually uses the argument `b`, so calling `f(2)` will not produce an error because the `2` gets positionally matched to `a`.

# Outline for this Session

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- Control Structures
- Functions
- **Sourcing Scripts**





# Sourcing Scripts

- R can read a R file and execute its contents without typing
- Can be used for functions that are used all the time
- Methodology:
  - Write an entire script then save as an R file
  - Use the `source()` function

# Sourcing Scripts

- Saving a Script
  - Type the following script as a new R script by clicking on File->New File->R Script
    - `#Declare this function`
    - `arithmeticsum <- function(number) {`
    - `return(number/2*(1+number))`
    - `}`
  - Save the file in the current working directory as `"arithmeticsum.R"`



# Sourcing Scripts

## Example 4.9: Sourcing Scripts

- Type the following script as a new R script by clicking on File->New File->R Script

- `#Source the Function`
- `source('arithmeticsum.R')`

- `#Call the Function`

- `arithmeticsum(3)`

- `arithmeticsum(10)`

- `arithmeticsum(100)`

```
> #Source the Function
> source('arithmeticsum.R')
> #Call the Function
> arithmeticsum(3)
[1] 6
> arithmeticsum(10)
[1] 55
> arithmeticsum(100)
[1] 5050
>
```



# Case 3

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- Writing Functions



# Outline for This Session

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- If Then Else
- Loops
- Functions
- Sourcing Functions

