Basics of R

Jyotishka Datta

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(Almost) Everything is a Vector

Types of vectors

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

R has two fundamental vector classes:

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

Conditionals

Logical (boolean) operations

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

Vectorized?

```
x = c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
y = c(FALSE, TRUE, TRUE)
  x | y
                                           x & y
## [1] TRUE TRUE TRUE
                                        ## [1] FALSE FALSE TRUE
  x || y
                                           x && y
## Warning in x \mid | y: 'length(x) = 3 ## 1Warimircopeincixon&&toy:'lbgeircogth((1x))' = 3 > 1
                                        ## Warning in x && y: 'length(x) = 3 > 1
## [1] TRUE
                                        ## [1] FALSE
```

Length coercion

```
x = c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
y = c(TRUE)
z = c(FALSE, TRUE)
  x | y
                                         x & y
## [1] TRUE TRUE TRUE
                                       ## [1] TRUE FALSE TRUE
  y | z
                                         y & z
## [1] TRUE TRUE
                                       ## [1] FALSE TRUE
X \mid Z
## Warning in x \mid z: longer object length is not a multiple of shorter object
## length
## [1] TRUE TRUE TRUE
```

Comparisons

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

Comparisons

```
x = c("A", "B", "C")
z = c("A")
                                     x %in% z
  x == z
## [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE
                                  ## [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE
                                     z %in% x
  x != z
## [1] FALSE TRUE TRUE
                        ## [1] TRUE
  x > z
## [1] FALSE TRUE TRUE
```

Conditional Control Flow

Conditional execution of code blocks is achieved via if statements.

Note that if statements are **not** vectorized.

```
x = c(3,1)
if (3 %in% x)
  "Here!"

## [1] "Here!"

if (x >= 2)
  "Now Here!"
```

Error in if $(x \ge 2)$ "Now Here!": the condition has length > 1

Collapsing logical vectors

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

```
x = c(3,4)

any(x \ge 2)

!any(x \ge 2)

## [1] TRUE

## [1] FALSE

if (any(x \ge 2))

print("Now There!")

## [1] TRUE

## [1] "Now There!"
```

Error Checking

stop and stop i fnot

Often we want to validate user input or function arguments - if our assumptions are not met then we often want to report the error and stop execution.

```
ok = FALSE
if (!ok)
    stop("Things are not ok.")

## Error in eval(expr, envir, enclos): Things are not ok.

stopifnot(ok)

## Error: ok is not TRUE
```

Note - an error (like the one generated by stop) will prevent an RMarkdown document from compiling unless error=TRUE is set for that code block.

Style choices

```
# Do stuff
if (condition_one) {
    ##
    ## Do stuff
    ##
} else if (condition_two) {
    ##
    ## Do other stuff
    ##
} else if (condition_error) {
    stop("Condition error occured")
}
```

Style choices

```
# Do stuff better
if (condition_error) {
    stop("Condition error occured")
}

if (condition_one) {
    ##
    ## Do stuff
    ##
} else if (condition_two) {
    ##
    ## Do other stuff
    ##
}
```

Ultimately, it's subjective!

Loops

forloops

Simplest, and most common type of loop in R - given a vector iterate through the elements and evaluate the code block for each.

```
for(x in 1:10)
{
   cat(x^2,"")
}

## 1 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81 100

for(y in list(1:3, LETTERS[1:7], c(TRUE, FALSE)))
{
   cat(length(y),"")
}
```

3 7 2

while loops

Repeat until the given condition is **not** met (i.e. evaluates to FALSE)

```
i = 1
res = rep(NA,10)

while (i <= 10) {
  res[i] = i^2
   i = i+1
}
res</pre>
```

```
## [1] 1 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81 100
```

repeatloops

Repeat until break

```
i = 1
res = rep(NA,10)

repeat {
    res[i] = i^2
    i = i+1
    if (i > 10)
        break
}
```

```
## [1] 1 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81 100
```

Special keywords - break and next

These are special actions that only work *inside* of a loop

- break ends the current loop (inner-most)
- next ends the current iteration

```
for(i in 1:10) {
    if (i %% 2 == 0)
        break
    cat(i,"")
}
```

1

```
for(i in 1:10) {
    if (i %% 2 == 0)
        next
    cat(i,"")
}
```

1 3 5 7 9

Some helper functions

Often we want to use a loop across the indexes of an object and not the elements themselves. There are several useful functions to help you do this: :, length, seq, seq_along, seq_len, etc.

```
4:7
## [1] 4 5 6 7
seq(4,7,by=1)
## [1] 4 5 6 7
seq_along(4:7)
## [1] 1 2 3 4
seq_len(length(4:7))
## [1] 1 2 3 4
```

Exercise 2

Below is the list of primes between 2 and 100:

```
2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61, 67, 71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97
```

If you were given the vector x = c(3, 4, 12, 19, 23, 48, 50, 61, 63, 78), write out the R code necessary to print only the values of x that are *not* prime (without using subsetting or the %in% operator).

Your code should use nested loops to iterate through the vector of primes and x.

Next we will look at functions

source: https://r4ds.hadley.nz/functions.html

When to use functions

The goal of a function should be to encapsulate a *small reusable* piece of code.

- Name should make it clear what the function does (think in terms of simple verbs).
- Functionality should be simple enough to be quickly understood.
- The smaller and more modular the code the easier it will be to reuse elsewhere.
- Better to change code in one location than code everywhere.

When to use ...

Writing a function has four big advantages over using copy-and-paste:

- You can give a function an evocative name that makes your code easier to understand.
- As requirements change, you only need to update code in one place, instead of many.
- You eliminate the chance of making incidental mistakes when you copy and paste (i.e. updating a variable name in one place, but not in another).
- It makes it easier to reuse work from project-to-project, increasing your productivity over time.

Rule-of-thumb: did you copy-paste a block of code more than twice?

What does this do?

```
df <- tibble::tibble(</pre>
  a = rnorm(10),
  b = rnorm(10),
  c = rnorm(10),
  d = rnorm(10)
df$a <- (df$a - min(df$a, na.rm = TRUE)) /
  (\max(df\$a, na.rm = TRUE) - \min(df\$a, na.rm = TRUE))
df$b \leftarrow (df$b - min(df$b, na.rm = TRUE)) /
  (\max(df\$b, na.rm = TRUE) - \min(df\$a, na.rm = TRUE))
df$c <- (df$c - min(df$c, na.rm = TRUE)) /</pre>
  (\max(df\$c, na.rm = TRUE) - \min(df\$c, na.rm = TRUE))
df$d \leftarrow (df$d - min(df$d, na.rm = TRUE)) /
  (\max(df\$d, na.rm = TRUE) - \min(df\$d, na.rm = TRUE))
```

Error in copy-paste

You might be able to puzzle out that this rescales each column to have a range from 0 to 1.

But did you spot the mistake? I made an error when copying-and-pasting the code for df\$b: I forgot to change an a to a b.

Extracting repeated code out into a function is a good idea because it prevents you from making this type of mistake.

What does this do?

```
df <- tibble::tibble(</pre>
  a = rnorm(10),
  b = rnorm(10),
  c = rnorm(10),
  d = rnorm(10)
df$a <- (df$a - min(df$a, na.rm = TRUE)) /
  (\max(df\$a, na.rm = TRUE) - \min(df\$a, na.rm = TRUE))
df$b \leftarrow (df$b - min(df$b, na.rm = TRUE)) /
                                                           #<<
  (\max(df\$b, na.rm = TRUE) - \min(df\$a, na.rm = TRUE)) #<<
df$c <- (df$c - min(df$c, na.rm = TRUE)) /</pre>
  (\max(df\$c, na.rm = TRUE) - \min(df\$c, na.rm = TRUE))
df$d \leftarrow (df$d - min(df$d, na.rm = TRUE)) /
  (\max(df\$d, na.rm = TRUE) - \min(df\$d, na.rm = TRUE))
```

Write a function

To write a function you need to first analyse the code. How many inputs does it have?

```
(df$a - min(df$a, na.rm = TRUE))/(max(df$a, na.rm = TRUE) - min(df$a,

## [1] 0.02123465 0.54616475 1.000000000 0.46179244 0.38005883 0.08444326
## [7] 0.00000000 0.07246454 0.12356484 0.42641593
```

- Why is TRUE not an input?
- To make the inputs more clear, it's a good idea to rewrite the code using temporary variables with general names. Here this code only requires a single numeric vector, so I'll call it x:

```
x <- df$a
(x - min(x, na.rm = TRUE)) / (max(x, na.rm = TRUE) - min(x, na.rm = TRUE))
## [1] 0.02123465 0.54616475 1.000000000 0.46179244 0.38005883 0.08444326
## [7] 0.000000000 0.07246454 0.12356484 0.42641593</pre>
```

Redundancy?

There is some duplication in this code. We're computing the range of the data three times, so it makes sense to do it in one step:

```
rng <- range(x, na.rm = TRUE)
(x - rng[1]) / (rng[2] - rng[1])

## [1] 0.02123465 0.54616475 1.00000000 0.46179244 0.38005883 0.08444326
## [7] 0.00000000 0.07246454 0.12356484 0.42641593</pre>
```

Pulling out intermediate calculations into named variables is a good practice because it makes it more clear what the code is doing.

Turn this into a function

Now that I've simplified the code, and checked that it still works, I can turn it into a function:

```
rescale01 <- function(x) {
   rng <- range(x, na.rm = TRUE)
   (x - rng[1]) / (rng[2] - rng[1])
}
rescale01(c(0, 5, 10))</pre>
```

```
## [1] 0.0 0.5 1.0
```

Use with earlier example

We can simplify the original example now that we have a function:

```
df$a <- rescale01(df$a)
df$b <- rescale01(df$b)
df$c <- rescale01(df$c)
df$d <- rescale01(df$d)</pre>
```

Compare this with the original block of code.

Change easily

Another advantage of functions is that if our requirements change, we only **need to make the change in one place**.

For example, we might discover that some of our variables include infinite values, and rescale01() fails:

```
x <- c(1:10, Inf)
rescale01(x)

## [1] 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 NaN</pre>
```

Because we've extracted the code into a function, we only need to make the fix in one place:

```
rescale01 <- function(x) {
  rng <- range(x, na.rm = TRUE, finite = TRUE)
  (x - rng[1]) / (rng[2] - rng[1])
}
rescale01(x)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 0.0000000 0.1111111 0.2222222 0.3333333 0.4444444 0.5555556 0.6666667 ## [8] 0.7777778 0.8888889 1.0000000 Inf
```

Exercise

- Why is TRUE not a parameter to rescale01()? What would happen if x contained a single missing value, and na.rm was FALSE?
- In the second variant of rescale01(), infinite values are left unchanged. Rewrite rescale01() so that -Inf is mapped to 0, and Inf is mapped to 1.
- Write your own functions to compute the skewness of a numeric vector. Skewness is defined as:

$$Skew(x) = rac{rac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - ar{x})^3}{Var(x)^{3/2}}$$

Now, we will dissect the structure of a function in R

source: https://statprog-s1-2020.github.io/

Functions

- Functions are blocks of code that allows R to be modular and facilitate code reuse.
- An R programmer can define their own functions as follows:

```
function_name <- function([arg1], [arg2], ...){
#function code body
}</pre>
```

- The function arguments are optional. Function arguments are the variables passed to the function, used by the function's code to perform calculations. A function can take no arguments.
- A function can also return any R primitive or object using the return(object) statement.

Function arguments

Functions have named arguments which potentially have default values.

The *formal arguments* are the arguments included in the function definition

The formals function returns a list of all the formal arguments of a function

Not every function call in R makes use of all the formal arguments

Function arguments can be missing or might have default values

Argument matching

R functions arguments can be matched positionally or by name. So the following calls to sd are all equivalent.

```
mydata <- rnorm(100)</pre>
 sd(mydata)
## [1] 0.9742524
 sd(x = mydata)
## [1] 0.9742524
 sd(x = mydata, na.rm = FALSE)
## [1] 0.9742524
  sd(na.rm = FALSE, x = mydata)
## [1] 0.9742524
```

Examples

• Examples of two different functions

```
# computes the mean of a vector of numbers
mean <- function(a_vector) {
s <- sum(a_vector)
x <- s/length(a_vector)
}</pre>
```

```
# checks to see if a string s starts with letter x
startsWith <- function(x, s){
if(x == substr(s, 0, 1){
return(TRUE)
}
return(FALSE)
}</pre>
```

Anatomy of a function

- Default arguments
- Function arguments can be assigned default values as follows:

```
sort_vector <- function(a_vector, ascending=TRUE){
# sorting algorithm
}</pre>
```

- When calling this function, the arguments given default values do not need to be specified. In this case, the defaults are used.
- Example:

```
sort_vector(a_vector) # returns a_vector in ascending order
sort_vector(a_vector, FALSE) # returns a vector in descending order
```

"Scope" of a variable

- Variable Scoping
- Variables that are bound to an R primitive or object outside a function are called global variables, and are accessible everywhere in an R program.
- Example:

```
x <- 5
test <- function() {
cat(x + 5)
}
test();</pre>
```

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• Here 'x' is a "GLOBAL" variable - accessible from anywhere.

"Scope" (contd.)

• Variables bound inside a function are only accessible within that function. These are called local variables. Example:

```
x <- 10
test <- function() {
x <- 5
cat(x + 20)
}
test() #prints 25</pre>
```

25

```
cat(x + 20) #prints 30
```

30

• Note that the local variable assignment takes precedence inside the function test over the global assignment.

More about Functions

Function Parts

Functions are defined by two components: the arguments (formals) and the code (body). Functions are assigned names like any other object in R (using = or <-)

```
gcd = function(long1, lat1, long2, lat2) {
  R = 6371 # Earth mean radius in km

  # distance in km
  acos(sin(lat1)*sin(lat2) + cos(lat1)*cos(lat2) * cos(long2-long1))
}
```

Returning values

There are two approaches to returning values from functions in R - explicit and implicit return values.

Explicit - using one or more return statements

```
f = function(x) {
    x + 1
    return(x * x)
}
f(2)
```

[1] 4

Implicit - return value of the last expression is returned.

```
g = function(x) {
    x + 1
    x * x
}
g(3)
```

[1] 9 47 /

Returning multiple values

If we want a function to return more than one value we can group things using either vectors or lists.

```
f = function(x) {
   c(x, x^{\lambda}2, x^{\lambda}3)
f(1:2)
## [1] 1 2 1 4 1 8
 g = function(x)  {
   list(x, "hello")
g(1:2)
## [[1]]
## [1] 1 2
##
## [[2]]
## [1] "hello"
```

Argument names

When defining a function we are also implicitly defining names for the arguments, when calling the function we can use these names to pass arguments in a alternative order.

```
f = function(x, y, z) {
  paste0("x=", x, " y=", y, " z=", z)
}
```

```
f(1, 2, 3)

## [1] "x=1 y=2 z=3"

## [1] "x=1 y=2 z=3"

f(z=1, x=2, y=3)

## [1] "x=2 y=3 z=1"

## [1] "x=3 y=2 z=1"

f(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

Error in f(1, 2, 3, 4): unused argument (4)

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Argument defaults

It is also possible to give function arguments default values, so that they don't need to be provided every time the function is called.

```
f = function(x, y=1, z=1) {
  paste0("x=", x, " y=", y, " z=", z)
f(3)
                                      f(z=3, x=2)
## [1] "x=3 y=1 z=1"
                                     ## [1] "x=2 y=1 z=3"
f(x=3)
                                      f(y=2, 2)
## [1] "x=3 y=1 z=1"
                                     ## [1] "x=2 y=2 z=1"
f()
```

Error in paste0("x=", x, " y=", y, " z=", z): argument "x" is missing, wit

Scope

R has generous scoping rules, if it can't find a variable in the functions body, it will look for it in the next higher scope, and so on.

```
y = 1
f = function(x) {
    x + y
}
f(3)
```

[1] 4

```
y = 1
g = function(x) {
  y = 2
  x + y
}
```

[1] 5

Additionally, variables defined within a scope only persist for the duration of that scope, and do not overwrite variables at a higher scopes

```
x = 1
y = 1
z = 1
f = function() {
    y = 2
    g = function() {
        z = 3
        return(x + y + z)
    }
    return(g())
}
```

```
## [1] 6
```

```
c(x,y,z)
```

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

Exercise - scope

What is the output of the following code? Explain why.

```
z = 1

f = function(x, y, z) {
    z = x+y

    g = function(m = x, n = y) {
        m/z + n/z
    }

    z * g()
}

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

Operators as functions

In R, operators are actually a special type of function - using backticks around the operator we can write them as functions.

```
`+`
## function (e1, e2) .Primitive("+")
typeof(`+`)
## [1] "builtin"
x = 4:1
x + 2
## [1] 6 5 4 3
+ (x, 2)
## [1] 6 5 4 3
```

Getting Help

Prefixing any function name with a ? will open the related help file for that function.

```
?`+`
?sum
```

For functions not in the base package, you can generally see their implementation by entering the function name without parentheses (or using the body function).

```
lm
## function (formula, data, subset, weights, na.action, method = "qr",
       model = TRUE, x = FALSE, y = FALSE, qr = TRUE, singular.ok = TRUE,
##
##
       contrasts = NULL, offset, ...)
## {
##
      ret.x <- x
   ret.y <- y
##
   cl <- match.call()
##
       mf <- match.call(expand.dots = FALSE)</pre>
##
       m <- match(c("formula", "data", "subset", "weights", "na.action", 59,
##
           "offset"), names(mf), 0L)
##
```

Less Helpful Examples

```
list
## function (...) .Primitive("list")
## .Primitive("[")
sum
## function (..., na.rm = FALSE) .Primitive("sum")
`+`
## function (e1, e2) .Primitive("+")
```

Acknowledgments

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- Colin Rundell's slides.
- Hadley Wickham Advanced R
- R Language Definition