

The very basics of programming

March 07, 2016

One of the very nice features of R when one comes from other statistical software like SAS or Stata is that it is very easy to program. And that is a really good thing, because the manipulation, analysis, and visualization of data is considerably easier when one can write small functions. In addition, because R is open-source, you can inspect what every function does, so it is useful to get a sense of the most basic elements of programming to be able to take advantage of that feature.

Defining functions

Think about functions as a way of packing operations in one reusable expression. For instance, consider a trivial example in which we want to calculate a mean. Instead of doing `sum` over `length` in every situation, we could just pack those operations together and give them a name:

```
my_mean <- function(x) sum(x)/length(x)
my_mean(c(0, 1))
```

```
## [1] 0.5
```

To define a function, we use the keyword `function` followed by parenthesis and (optionally) the arguments that the function takes, and the expression that the function runs. We then assign this function to a name, in this case, `my_mean`.

See how typing `my_mean` allows you to see what you have just defined.

```
my_mean

## function(x) sum(x)/length(x)
## <environment: 0x7f811d175878>
```

The way we defined the function is perfectly valid but we could also be a bit more explicit by enclosing the statement in parenthesis and ensuring that it is returned.

```
my_mean <- function(x) {
  return(sum(x)/length(x))
}
```

Now that we have the fundamentals of how to define a function, let's take a look at control flow operations.

Loops

`for` allows us to iterate and repeat an operation over a sequence. As you can imagine, we need to be explicit about two things: the sequence and the variable that will be taking values over that sequence.

```
for (i in 1:3) print(i)
```

```
## [1] 1
## [1] 2
## [1] 3
```

Let's see a less trivial example in which we want to calculate the sum of a vector:

```
myvector <- c(1, 2, 3, 4)
out <- 0
for (i in 1:length(myvector)) {
  out <- myvector[i] + out
}
out
```

```
## [1] 10
```

Here `out` will hold the result of progressively adding the values of `myvector`. Notice how `i` takes, in each iteration, a different value in the sequence between 1 and the length of `myvector` that we then use to retrieve the value in each position.

Depending on the context, it will probably make sense to wrap this operations in a function. At the end of the day, the only thing that will change in different calculations of a sum is the vector it operates over, so we can *parametrize* over that vector:

```
my_sum <- function(x) {
  out <- 0
  for (i in 1:length(x)) {
    out <- x[i] + out
  }
  return(out)
}
my_sum(c(1, 2, 3, 4))
```

```
## [1] 10
```

Another way to build loops is with the statement `while`. It will evaluate an expression until a condition is not met:

```
i <- 0
while (i < 3) {
  print(i)
  i <- i + 1
}
```

```
## [1] 0
## [1] 1
## [1] 2
```

The thing to notice is that how in each iteration of the loop, the value of `i` changes: when it takes the value 3, the condition `i < 3` evaluates to `FALSE`, and the loop stops –and therefore, 3 is not printed to the screen.

There are some cases in which the use of `while` is natural, like when we want to run algorithms until something converges. Take for instance the calculation of Newton-Raphson:

```
tol <- 0.01
x_last <- 10; diff <- 1
while (abs(diff) > tol) {
```

```

x <- x_last - (x_last^2)/(2*x_last)
diff <- (x - x_last)
x_last <- x
print(x)
}

```

```

## [1] 5
## [1] 2.5
## [1] 1.25
## [1] 0.625
## [1] 0.312
## [1] 0.156
## [1] 0.0781
## [1] 0.0391
## [1] 0.0195
## [1] 0.00977

```

However, `while` may end up producing infinite loops if one is not careful.

Conditionals

As you can imagine, conditionals execute an action depending on the value (`TRUE` or `FALSE`) of another statement. In R, they use the follow syntax:

```

if (x > 0) {
  print("It's positive")
} else if (x == 0) {
  print("It's neither positive nor negative")
} else {
  print("It's negative")
}

```

which we may wrap up in a function

```

my_sign <- function(x) {
  if (x > 0) {
    out <- "It's positive!"
  } else if (x == 0) {
    out <- "It's neither positive nor negative!"
  } else {
    out <- "It's negative!"
  }
  return(out)
}

```

and use it to illustrate what happens when you are not careful:^[1]

```
my_sign("A cow")
```

```
## [1] "It's positive!"
```

How to deal with the previous issue? By issuing an error:

```
my_sign <- function(x) {  
  if (!is.numeric(x)) {  
    stop("Input is not a number")  
  }  
  
  if (x > 0) {  
    out <- "It's positive!"  
  } else if (x == 0) {  
    out <- "It's neither positive nor negative!"  
  } else {  
    out <- "It's negative!"  
  }  
  return(out)  
}
```

Two things to notice here. First, that `!` is the negation operator (`TRUE == !FALSE`). Second, that `stop` interrupts the evaluation and produces an error, so the function never reaches the next conditional.

The if-else structure is the building block of a rejection sampling algorithm, so let's use it to make samples out of a $Beta(3, 6)$.

```
R <- 10000  
samples <- matrix(NA, nrow=R, ncol=2)  
  
for(i in 1:R) {  
  samples[i, 1] <- runif(1, 0, 1)  
  U <- runif(1, 0, 1)  
  if(dunif(samples[i, 1], 0, 1)*3*U <= dbeta(samples[i, 1], 3, 6)) {  
    samples[i, 2] <- 1  
  }  
  else if(dunif(samples[i, 1], 0, 1)*3*U > dbeta(samples[i, 1], 3, 6)) {  
    samples[i, 2] <- 0  
  }  
}  
  
samples <- data.frame(samples)  
names(samples) <- c("candidate", "accept")  
samples <- samples[samples$accept == 1,]  
  
library(ggplot2)  
p <- ggplot(samples, aes(x=candidate))  
p + geom_density() +  
  stat_function(fun=dbeta, args=list(3, 6), colour="red", linetype=2)
```

