Basic Course on R: Programming Structures 2

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1 Environment and Scope Issues

• Each function, whether built-in or user-defined, has an associated *environment*, which can be thought of as a container that holds all of the objects present at the time the function is created.

1.1 The Top-Level (or Global) Environment

• When a function is created on the command line, it's environment is the so-called *Global Environment* (or *Workspace*):

```
w <- 2
```

```
f <- function(y) {
  d <- 3
  return(d * (w + y))
}</pre>
```

```
environment(f)
## <environment: R_GlobalEnv>
```

• The function objects() (or ls()), when called from the command line, lists the objects in the Global Environment:

```
objects()
## [1] "f" "w"
```

1.2 Global and Local Variables

- In the function f() defined above, the variable w is said to be **global** to f() and the variable d, because it's created within f(), is said to be **local**.
- Global variables (like w) are visible from within a function, but local variables (like d) aren't visible from outside the function. In fact, local variables are *temporary*, and disappear when the function call is completed:

```
f(y = 1)
## [1] 9
d
## Error in eval(expr, envir, enclos): object 'd' not found
```

• When a global and local variable share the same name, the local variable is used:

```
w <- 2
d <- 4
f <- function(y) {
   d <- 3
   return(d * (w + y))
}
f(y = 1)</pre>
## [1] 9
```

• Note also that when an assignment takes place within a function, and the local variable shares its name with an existing global variable, only the local variable is affected:

1.3 Nested Functions and the Scope Hierarchy

- For user-defined functions created on the command line, the global variables for that function are those in the Workspace, or *global environment*. They're listed by typing ls() (or objects()) on the command line.
- When a function is *created inside another function*, its global variables are the local variables of the outer function *plus* the outer function's global variables.
- Regardless of whether a function is created on the command line or inside another function, its local variables are the variables created inside of it *plus* its formal arguments to which values have been passed.
- For example:

Above,

- w is global to f() and therefore also to h().
- y and d are local to f(), but global to h().
- b is local to h().
- This **scope hierarchy** continues when multiple function definitions are **nested** inside of each other.

• We can use a print(ls()) statement to see which objects are local to f():

• Likewise we can use a print(environment(h)) statement to view the environment of h():

In the output above, the environment of h() is referred to by its memory location. The *environment* of h() is the "container" that contains h() as well as the objects d and y.

1.4 Writing "Upstairs" in the Scope Hierarchy

• Sometimes we need to assign a value to a variable in the global environment from within a function. We can do so using either of the following:

```
# Assign a value to a variable in the global environment
# (Workspace).
assign() # Assign a value to a variable in the global environment
# (Workspace).
```

• Here's an example using the so-called *superassignment operator* <<-:

Above, the assignment of 3 to d is done in the global environment, or Workspace, overwriting the previous value (4).

• Here's how to accomplish the same thing using assign():

(Note that when assign() is used, d is written as a character string (i.e. in quotes as "d") and the global environment is written as .GlobalEnv.)

• Be aware that assignment to the variable d using <<- actually results in a search up the environment hierarchy, stopping at the first level at which the name d is encountered. If it's not encountered, then assignment is done in the global environment. For example:

1.5 When Should You Use Global Variables?

- Here are suggestions about using global variables. They're especially important when your code will be shared with other R users:
 - Assignment to the global environment using <<- or assign() should be used very sparingly (i.e. only when necessary) because it can accidentally overwrite existing variables.
 - The use of a global variable can be justified when that variable needs to be accessed by several different functions (that aren't nested).
 - It's generally preferable to pass variables as arguments to functions rather than accessing them from the global environment.

2 Printing a Warning Message or Terminating a Function Call Using warning(), return(), or stop()

• The following functions are useful for terminating a function call or just printing a warning message:

```
return()  # Terminate a function call and return a value.

stop()  # Terminate a function call and print an error message.

warning()  # Print a warning message (without terminating the  # function call).
```

2.1 Terminating a Function Call Using if() and return()

• One way to terminate a function call is with return() which, when encountered, immediately terminates the call and returns a value. For example:

```
mySign <- function(x) {
  if(x < 0) return("Negative")
  if(x > 0) return("Positive")
  return("Zero")
}
```

Passing my.sign() the value x = 13 produces the following:

```
mySign(x = 13)
## [1] "Positive"
```

(Note that the last line, return("Zero"), was never encountered during the call to my.sign().)

2.2 Terminating a Function Call and Printing an Error Message Using if() and stop()

• Another way to terminate a function call is with stop(), which then prints an error message without returning a value. Here's an example:

```
myRatio <- function(x, y) {
  if(y == 0) stop("Cannot divide by 0")
  return(x/y)
}</pre>
```

An attempt to pass the value 0 for y now results in the following:

```
myRatio(x = 3, y = 0)
## Error in myRatio(x = 3, y = 0): Cannot divide by 0
```

(Note that the last line, return(x/y), was never encountered during the call to myRatio().)

2.3 Printing a Warning Message Using if() and warning()

• warning() just prints a warning message to the screen without terminating the function call. Here's an example:

```
myRatio <- function(x, y) {
  if(y == 0) warning("Attempt made to divide by 0")
  return(x/y)
}</pre>
```

Now when we pass the value O for y the function call isn't terminated (the value Inf is returned), but we get the warning message:

```
myRatio(x = 3, y = 0)
## Warning in myRatio(x = 3, y = 0): Attempt made to divide by 0
## [1] Inf
```

3 Recursion

- **Recursion** is a programming technique in which a function calls itself.
- Here's an example in which the function f() takes a non-negative integer x and returns the factorial of x, denoted x! and defined as

$$x! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ x(x-1)(x-2)\cdots(2)(1) & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

• Notice that we can write

$$x! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ x(x-1)! & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

```
f <- function(x) {
   if(x == 0) {
      return(1)
      } else {
      return(x * f(x - 1))
      }
}
f(0)

## [1] 1

f(5)

## [1] 120</pre>
```

- In general, to solve a problem of type X by writing a recursive function f():
 - 1. Break the original problem of type X into one or more smaller problems of type X.
 - 2. Within f(), call f() on each of the smaller problems.
 - 3. Within f(), piece together the results of Step 2 to solve the original problem.

4 Replacement Functions

• Some of R's built-in functions can be used both to *return* a value and to *replace* a value. For example using the data frame:

```
var1 \leftarrow c(1, 2, 3)
var2 \leftarrow c(19, 20, 16)
var3 <- c("small", "medium", "large")</pre>
x <- data.frame(var1, var2, var3)</pre>
X
##
     var1 var2
                   var3
## 1
         1
              19 small
## 2
         2
              20 medium
## 3
         3
              16 large
```

names() will both return the names of the variables in x:

```
names(x)
## [1] "var1" "var2" "var3"
```

and replace them:

```
names(x) <- c("IDNumber", "Weight", "Size")
names(x)
## [1] "IDNumber" "Weight" "Size"</pre>
```

- Such functions are called *replacement functions*.
- It's possible to create user-defined replacement functions.