Lec 04 - NAs, functions, and loops

Statistical Programming

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Missing Values

Missing Values

R uses NA to represent missing values in its data structures, what may not be obvious is that there are different NAS for different atomic types.

```
typeof(NA)
## [1] "logical"
 typeof(NA+1)
## [1] "double"
 typeof(NA+1L)
## [1] "integer"
 typeof(c(NA,""))
## [1] "character"
```

```
typeof(NA_character_)
## [1] "character"
 typeof(NA_real_)
## [1] "double"
 typeof(NA_integer_)
## [1] "integer"
 typeof(NA_complex_)
## [1] "complex"
```

NA "stickiness"

Because NAS represent missing values it makes sense that any calculation using them should also be missing.

```
1 + NA sqrt(NA)

## [1] NA ## [1] NA

1 / NA 3^NA

## [1] NA ## [1] NA

NA * 5 sum(c(1, 2, 3, NA))

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

Summarizing functions (e.g. sum(), mean(), sd(), etc.) will often have a na.rm argument which will allow you to drop missing values.

NAs are not always sticky

A useful mental model for NAS is to consider them as a unknown value that could take any of the possible values for that type.

For numbers or characters this isn't very helpful, but for a logical value we know that the value must either be TRUE or FALSE and we can use that when deciding what value to return.

```
TRUE & NA
## [1] NA
 FALSE & NA
## [1] FALSE
TRUE | NA
## [1] TRUE
 FALSE | NA
## [1] NA
```

Conditionals and missing values

NAS can be problematic in some cases (particularly for control flow)

```
1 == NA
## [1] NA
if (2 != NA)
  "Here"
## Error in if (2 != NA) "Here": missing value where TRUE/FALSE needed
if (all(c(1,2,NA,4) >= 1))
   "There"
## Error in if (all(c(1, 2, NA, 4) \geq 1)) "There": missing value where TRUE/FALSE needed
 if (any(c(1,2,NA,4) >= 1))
   "There"
## [1] "There"
```

Testing for NA

To explicitly test if a value is missing it is necessary to use is.na (often along with any or all).

```
NA == NA
## [1] NA
is.na(NA)
## [1] TRUE
is.na(1)
## [1] FALSE
```

```
is.na(c(1,2,3,NA))
## [1] FALSE FALSE TRUE

any(is.na(c(1,2,3,NA)))
## [1] TRUE

all(is.na(c(1,2,3,NA)))
## [1] FALSE
```

Other Special values (double)

These are defined as part of the IEEE floating point standard (not unique to R)

- Nan Not a number
- Inf Positive infinity
- -Inf Negative infinity

Testing for Inf and NaN

Γ17 TRUE

NaN and Inf don't have the same testing issues that NAS do, but there are still convenience functions for testing for these types of values

```
is.finite(Inf)
                                                          is.finite(NaN)
## [1] FALSE
                                                         ## [1] FALSE
 is.infinite(-Inf)
                                                          is.infinite(NaN)
## [1] TRUE
                                                         ## [1] FALSE
 is.nan(Inf)
                                                          is.nan(NaN)
## [1] FALSE
                                                         ## [1] TRUE
                                                          is.finite(NA)
is.nan(-Inf)
## [1] FALSE
                                                         ## [1] FALSE
Inf > 1
                                                          is.infinite(NA)
```

Γ17 FALSE

Coercion for infinity and NaN

First remember that Inf, -Inf, and NaN are doubles, however their coercion behavior is not the same as for other doubles

```
as.integer(Inf)
## Warning: NAs introduced by coercion to integer range
## [1] NA
 as.integer(NaN)
## Γ1 ] NA
                                                          as.character(Inf)
 as.logical(Inf)
## [1] TRUE
                                                         ## [1] "Inf"
                                                          as.character(-Inf)
 as.logical(-Inf)
                                                         ## [1] "-Inf"
## [1] TRUE
 as.logical(NaN)
                                                          as.character(NaN)
```

Functions

Function Parts

\$y1

##

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(x1, y1, x2 = 0, y2 = 0) {
   R = 6371 # Earth mean radius in km

   # distance in km
   acos(sin(y1)*sin(y2) + cos(y1)*cos(y2) * cos(x2-x1)) * R
}
```

##

}

R

```
typeof(gcd)

## [1] "closure"

## [1] "function"

formals(gcd)

## $x1

## {
## R = 6371
## acos(sin(y1) * sin(y2) + cos(y1) * cos(y2) * cos
```

Return values

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

Explicit - using one or more return function calls

```
f = function(x) {
  return(x * x)
}
f(2)
## [1] 4
```

Implicit - return value of the last expression is returned.

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

[1] 9

Invisible returns

Many functions in R make use of an invisible return value

```
f = function(x) {
   print(x)
 y = f(1)
## [1] 1
## [1] 1
 g = function(x) {
   invisible(x)
 g(2)
 z = g(2)
```

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Returning multiple values

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

```
f = function(x) {
   c(x, x^2, x^3)
}
f(1:2)
## [1] 1 2 1 4 1 8
```

```
g = function(x) {
   list(x, "hello")
}
g(1:2)
## [[1]]
```

[1] 1 2 ## **M**ore29n lists next time

Argument names

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

When defining a function we explicitly define names for the arguments, which become variables within the scope of the function.

When calling a function we can use these names to pass arguments in an alternative order.

```
f = function(x, y, z) {
   paste0("x=", x, " y=", y, " z=", z)
f(1, 2, 3)
                                                         f(y=2, 1, 3)
## [1] "x=1 y=2 z=3"
                                                        ## [1] "x=1 y=2 z=3"
f(z=1, x=2, y=3)
                                                         f(y=2, 1, x=3)
## [1] "x=2 y=3 z=1"
                                                        ## [1] "x=3 y=2 z=1"
f(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

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)

## [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, with no default

Scope

R has generous scoping rules, if it can't find a variable in the current scope (e.g. a function's body) it will look for it in the next higher scope, and so on.

```
y = 1

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

[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

```
\chi = 1
z = 1
f = function() {
    y = 2
    g = function() {
      7 = 3
      return(x + y + z)
    return(g())
f()
```

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

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

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

Exercise 1 - 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)
```

Lazy evaluation

One interesting feature of R is that function arguments are lazily evaluated, which means they are only evaluated when needed.

```
f = function(x) {
   TRUE
}

f(1)

## [1] TRUE

## [1] TRUE

## [1] TRUE

## Error in g(stop("Error")): Error
## Error
```

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.v <- v
       cl <- match.call()</pre>
       mf <- match.call(expand.dots = FALSE)</pre>
       m <- match(c("formula", "data", "subset", "weights", "na.action",</pre>
##
            "offset"), names(mf), 0L)
##
       mf <- mf[c(1L, m)]
##
##
       mf$drop.unused.levels <- TRUE
```

Less Helpful Examples

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

Loops

for loops

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

```
is_even = function(x) {
  res = c()

  for(val in x) {
    res = c(res, val %% 2 == 0)
  }

  res
}

is_even(1:10)
```

[1] FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE

```
is_even(seq(1,5,2))
```

[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE

while loops

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

```
make_seq = function(from = 1, to = 1, by = 1) {
    res = c(from)
    cur = from

while(cur+by <= to) {
        cur = cur + by
        res = c(res, cur)
    }

res
}

make_seq(1, 6)</pre>
```

[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6

```
make_seq(1, 6, 2)
```

[1] 1 3 5

repeat loops

Repeat the loop until a break is encountered

```
make_seg2 = function(from = 1, to = 1, by = 1) {
  res = c(from)
  cur = from
  repeat {
   cur = cur + bv
   if (cur > to)
     break
    res = c(res, cur)
  res
make_seq2(1, 6)
```

[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6

```
make_seq2(1, 6, 2)
```

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

```
f = function(x) {
  res = c()

for(i in x) {
   if (i %% 2 == 0)
      break

  res = c(res, i)
  }

res
}
```

```
g = function(x) {
  res = c()
 for(i in x) {
   if (i %% 2 == 0)
      next
    res = c(res, i)
  res
g(1:10)
```

Some helpful 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
      seq_along(4:7)

      ## [1] 4 5 6 7
      ## [1] 1 2 3 4

      length(4:7)
      seq_len(length(4:7))

      ## [1] 4
      ## [1] 1 2 3 4

      seq(4,7)
      seq(4,7,by=2)

      ## [1] 4 5 6 7
      ## [1] 4 6
```

Avoid using 1:length(x)

A common loop construction you'll see in a lot of R code is using 1:length(x) to generate a vector of index values for the vector x.

```
f = function(x) {
   for(i in 1:length(x)) {
     print(i)
                                                               print(i)
 f(2:1)
                                                           g(2:1)
## [1] 1
                                                          ## [1] 1
## [1] 2
                                                          ## [1] 2
 f(2)
                                                           g(2)
## [1] 1
                                                          ## [1] 1
 f(integer())
                                                           g(integer())
## [1] 1
## [1] 0
```

```
g = function(x) {
  for(i in seq_along(x)) {
```

Exercise 2

Below is a vector containing all prime numbers between 2 and 100:

```
primes = c( 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(3,4,12,19,23,51,61,63,78), write 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.