

# IST 3420: Introduction to Data Science and Management

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## Part 2: R Programming

# Agenda

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- ▶ Introduction to R Programming
- ▶ Data Structures in R
- ▶ R Functions
- ▶ Control Structures in R
- ▶ R Programming Style and Debug
- ▶ Dynamic Report: R Markdown



# Introduction to R Programming

# R

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- ▶ A free, open-source programming language for statistical computing
- ▶ An interpreted language (executed directly, no compilation)
- ▶ R supports matrix arithmetic (like Matlab)
- ▶ R supports both procedural programming and object-oriented programming

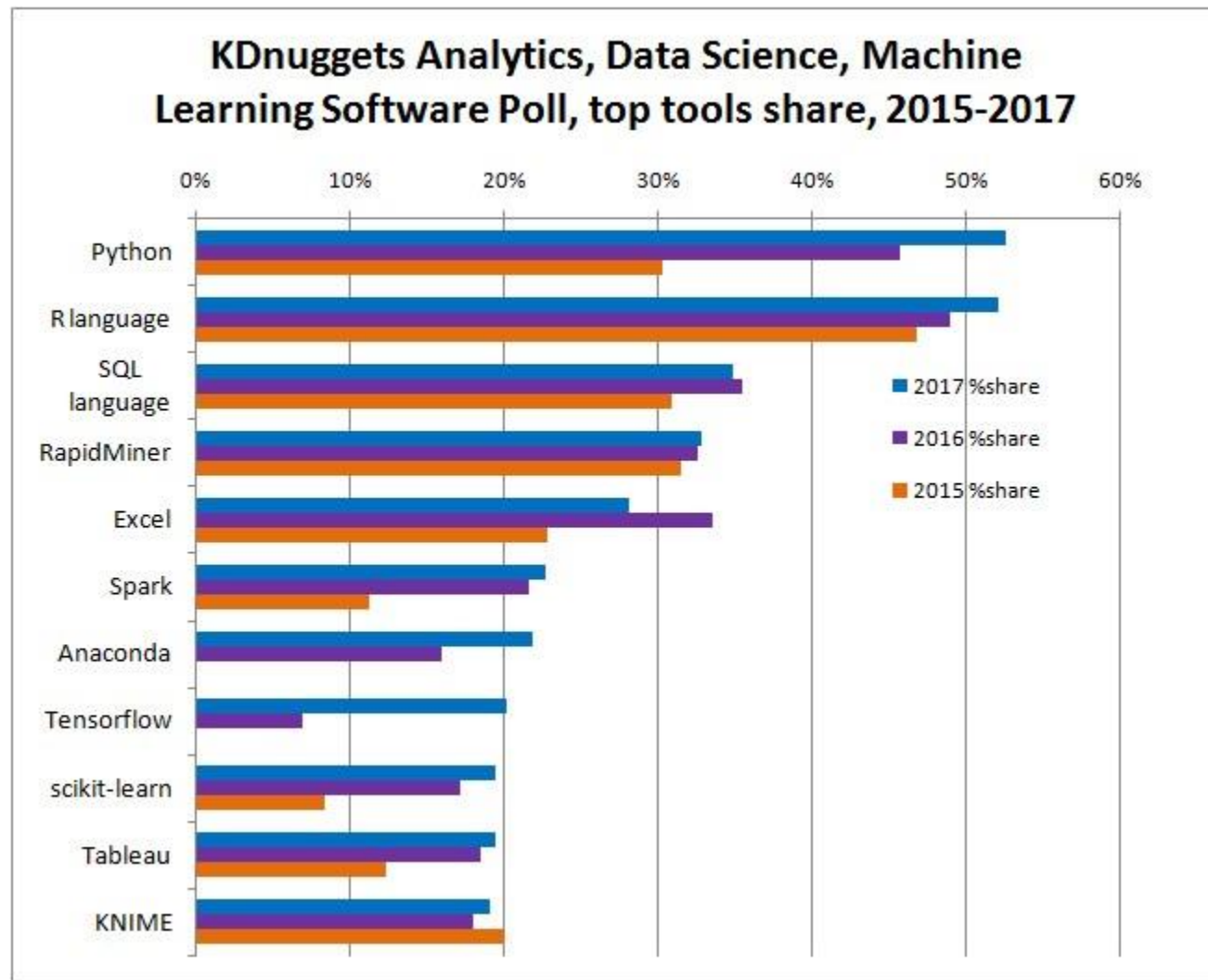


# Comprehensive R Archive Network

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- ▶ Capability extended through a packaging system on CRAN, the Comprehensive R Archive Network
  - ▶ <http://cran.r-project.org/>
- ▶ So many useful packages available on CRAN
- ▶ You can contribute to CRAN by uploading your own package!

# Revisit: R is popular; Don't get left behind.



To learn Python, choose “IST 5520 – Data Science and Machine Learning with Python” offered in Spring.

<http://www.kdnuggets.com/2017/05/poll-analytics-data-science-machine-learning-software-leaders.html>

# Steep Learning Curve for R

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## ▶ The “weird” syntax of R

“The best thing about R is that it was developed by statisticians. The worst thing about R is that ... it was developed by statisticians.”

-- Bo Cowgill, Google

“Unlike other high-level scripting languages, such as Python or Ruby, R has a unique and somewhat prickly syntax and tends to have a steeper learning curve than other languages.”

-- Drew Conway & John White, “Machine Learning for Hackers” P2.

# Resources for Learning R

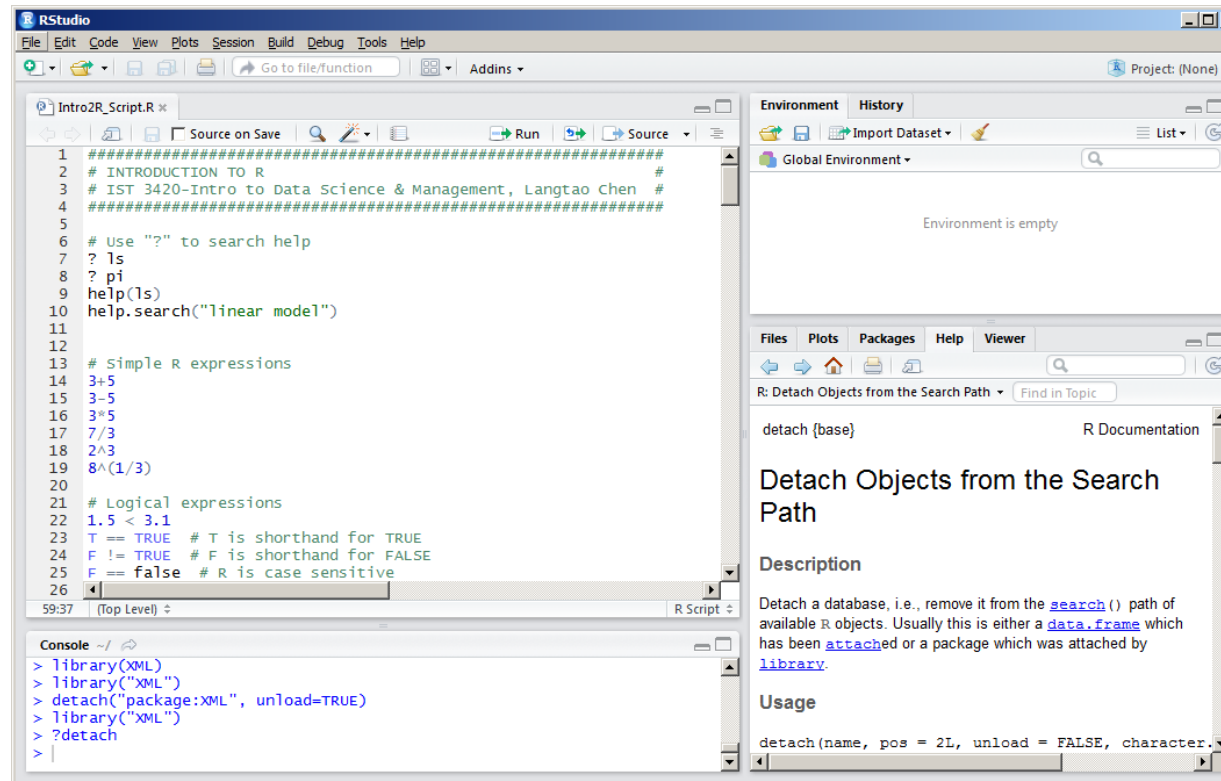
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- ▶ Remember the Rseek (search engine for R language)!
  - ▶ <http://rseek.org/>
- ▶ “An Introduction to R”
  - ▶ <https://cran.r-project.org/doc/manuals/R-intro.pdf>
- ▶ R Language Definition
  - ▶ <https://cran.r-project.org/doc/manuals/r-release/R-lang.pdf>
- ▶ “R Reference Card” – quick reference for important tasks
  - ▶ <https://cran.r-project.org/doc/contrib/Short-refcard.pdf>
- ▶ A Step-by-Step R Tutorial
  - ▶ <http://www.cyclismo.org/tutorial/R/>
- ▶ Stack Overflow Q&A Site
  - ▶ <http://stackoverflow.com/questions/tagged/r>
- ▶ Commonly Used R Packages
  - ▶ <https://support.rstudio.com/hc/en-us/articles/201057987-Quick-list-of-useful-R-packages>



# RStudio

- ▶ An open-source IDE for R
- ▶ Install the RStudio Desktop (open source edition) from <https://www.rstudio.com/products/rstudio/download/>



# Some Useful RStudio Keyboard Shortcuts

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- ▶ For a complete list, refer to

<https://support.rstudio.com/hc/en-us/articles/200711853-Keybaord-Shortcuts>

<b><i>Function</i></b>	<b><i>Windows &amp; Linux</i></b>	<b><i>Mac</i></b>
Move cursor to Source Editor	Ctrl + I	Ctrl + I
Move cursor to Console	Ctrl + 2	Ctrl + 2
Interrupt currently executing command	Esc	Esc
Navigate command history	Up/Down	Up/Down
Run current line/selection	Ctrl + Enter	Command + Enter
Save active document	Ctrl + S	Command + S

# R Basic Concepts

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- ▶ Everything that exists in R is an object.
- ▶ Everything that happens in R is a function call.
- ▶ Interfaces to other software are part of R.

Source: Chambers, John M. *Extending R*. CRC Press, 2016.

# Attributes of an Object

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- ▶ names
- ▶ dimnames
- ▶ dim
- ▶ class
- ▶ attributes (contain metadata)
- ▶ length (works on vectors and lists)
- ▶ nchar (number of characters in a string)

# Basic Operations

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- ▶ R is case sensitive!
- ▶ Use “?” to search help
- ▶ Constants and symbols
  - ▶ Any number typed directly is a constant.
  - ▶ The name of a variable is a symbol.
- ▶ Two assignment operators
  - ▶ Left assignment `<-` (for example, `a <- 4`)
  - ▶ Right assignment `->` (for example, `4 -> b`)
- ▶ List indexing: `$`

# Atomic Data Types

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- ▶ Character
  - ▶ “a”, “hello”
- ▶ Logical
  - ▶ TRUE, FALSE
- ▶ Integer
  - ▶ `x <- 5L` # Must add L at the end to explicitly denote integer
- ▶ Double
  - ▶ 4, 13.48
- ▶ Complex
  - ▶  $2 + 3i$

# R Basic Operators

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## ► Arithmetic Operators

Operator	Meaning	Unary or Binary
+	Plus	Both
-	Minus	Both
*	Multiplication	Binary
/	Division	Binary
^	Exponentiation	Binary
%%	Modulus	Binary
%/%	Integer division	Binary
%%*	Matrix product	Binary
%o%	Outer product	Binary

(cont.)

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## ► Comparison Operators

Operator	Meaning	Unary or Binary	Example (a is 4)	Result
<	Less than	Binary	a < 0	FALSE
>	Greater than	Binary	a > 0	TRUE
==	Equal to	Binary	a == 3	FALSE
>=	Greater than or equal to	Binary	a >= 0	TRUE
<=	Less than or equal to	Binary	a <= 0	FALSE
!=	Not equal to	Binary	a != 3	TRUE



(cont.)

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► Logic Operators

Operator	Meaning	Unary or Binary	Example (a is TRUE, b is FALSE)	Result
&	And, vectorized	Binary	a & b	FALSE
	Or, vectorized	Binary	a   b	TRUE
&&	And, not vectorized	Binary	a && b	FALSE
	Or, not vectorized	Binary	a    b	TRUE
!	Not	Unary	!a	TRUE
xor	Exclusive or	Binary	xor(a,b)	TRUE
isTrue()	Test if true	Unary	isTRUE(a)	FALSE

# True Tables for Logical Operators

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<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>!a</b>	<b>a &amp; b</b>	<b>a   b</b>	<b>a &amp;&amp; b</b>	<b>a    b</b>	<b>xor(a,b)</b>
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	FALSE
TRUE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	TRUE	FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	TRUE	FALSE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	FALSE	TRUE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE

# Inf, NaN, and NULL

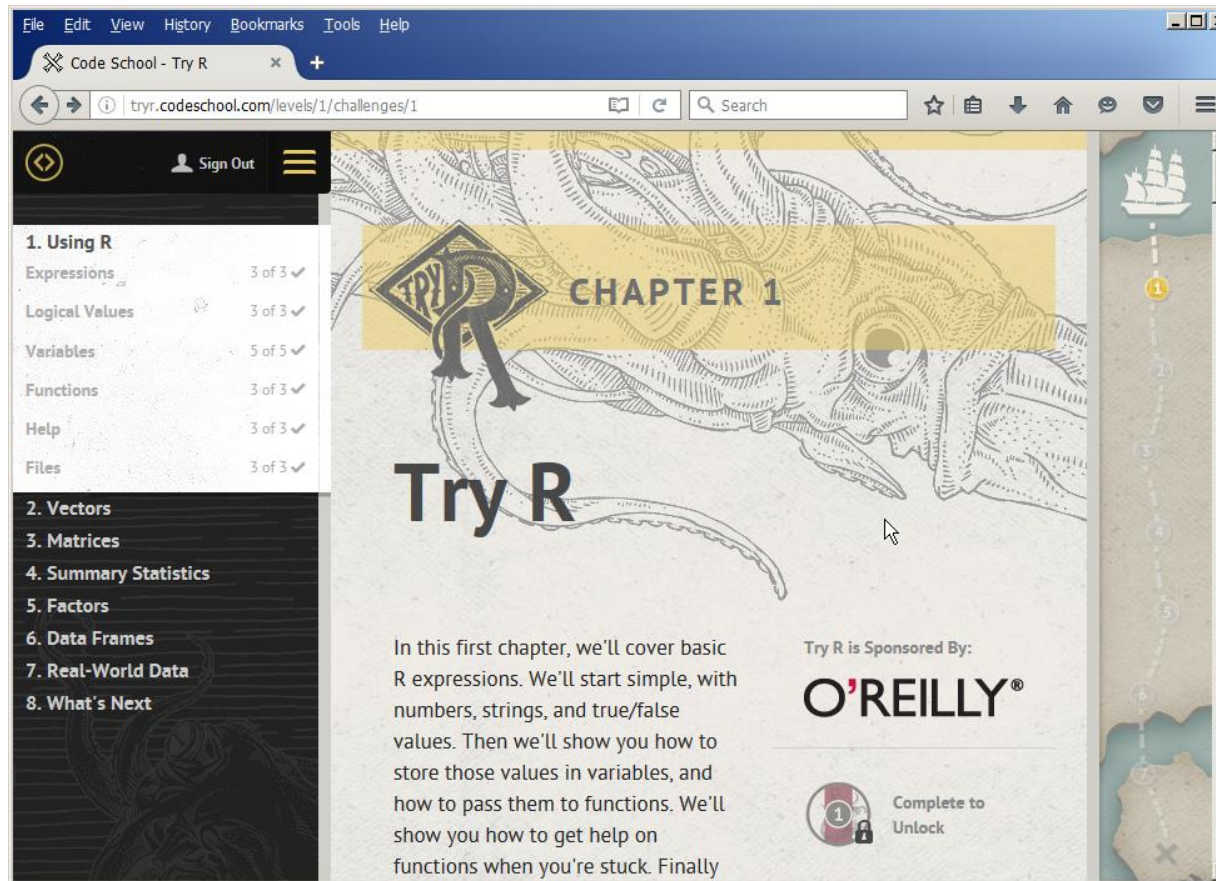
---

- ▶ **Inf** and **-Inf** are positive and negative infinity
- ▶ **NaN** (not a number, an undefined value)
- ▶ **NULL** means that object does not exist

```
> 1/0
[1] Inf
> 0/0
[1] NaN
> 1/0 + 1/0
[1] Inf
> 1/0 - 1/0
[1] NaN
> sin(Inf)
[1] NaN
Warning message: In sin(Inf) : NaNs produced
> dim(1)
NULL
```

# To be familiar with R

<http://tryr.codeschool.com/levels/1/challenges/1>



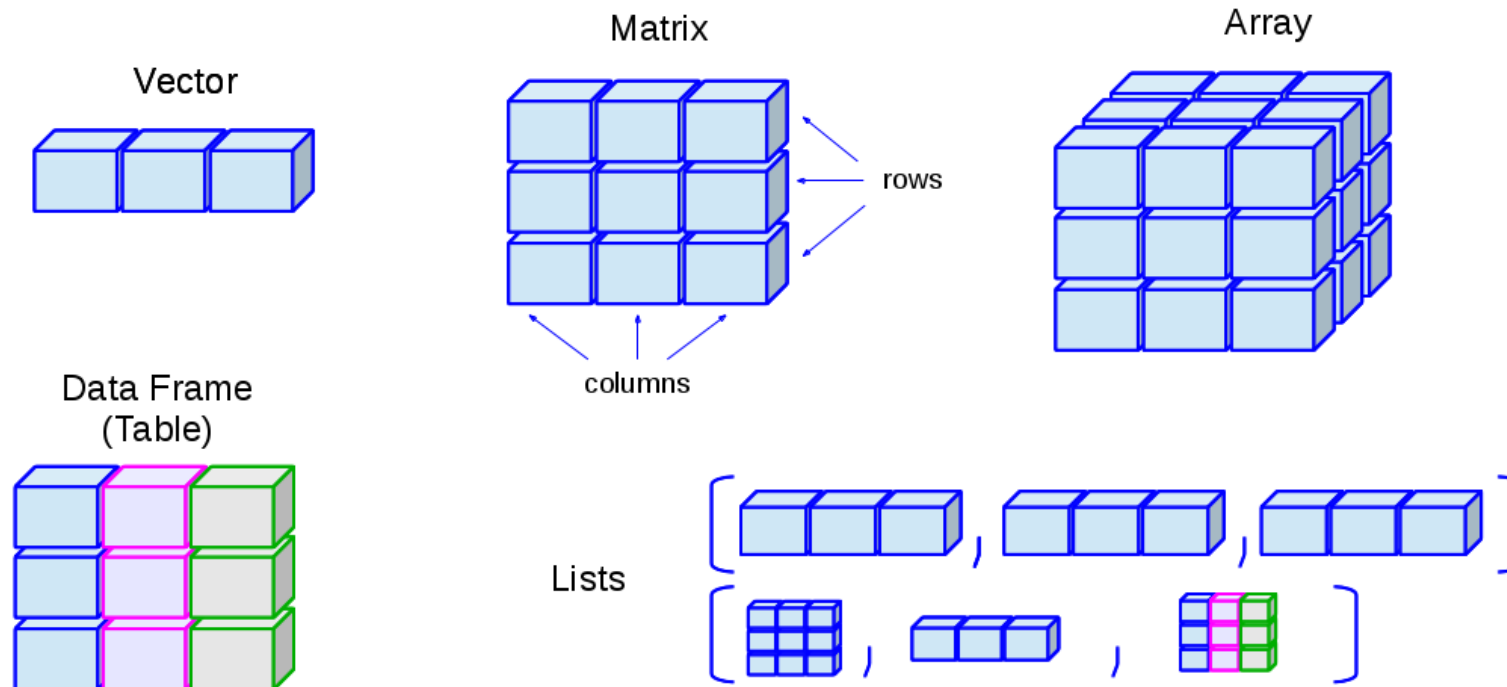


# Data Structures in R

# R Data Structures

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- ▶ Vectors, matrices, arrays, data frames (like tables in a RDBMS), and lists

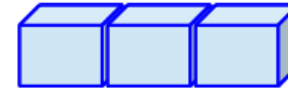


# Vectors

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- ▶ An ordered collection of elements
- ▶ Create a vector of numbers
  - ▶ `v1 <- c(1,2,3,4)`
- ▶ Use `[]` to access vector elements
- ▶ Create a vector of strings
  - ▶ `v2 <- c("a","b","c")`
- ▶ **Elements in a vector should be of the same type**
  - ▶ `v3 <- c(1, "a")`
  - ▶ `mode(v3)` # Check the type of storage mode  
[1] "character"

Vector



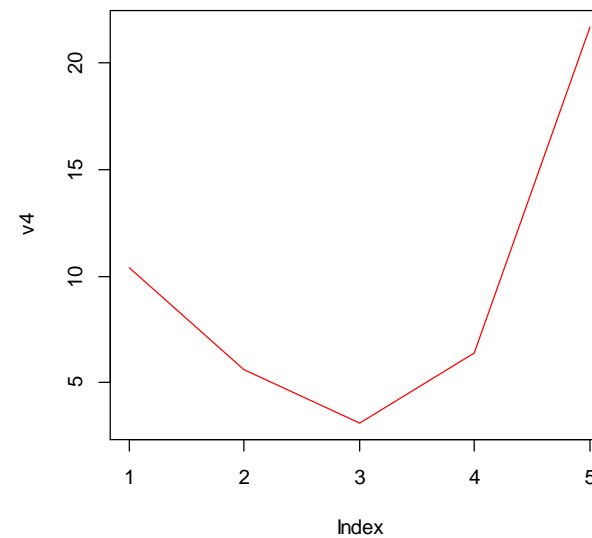
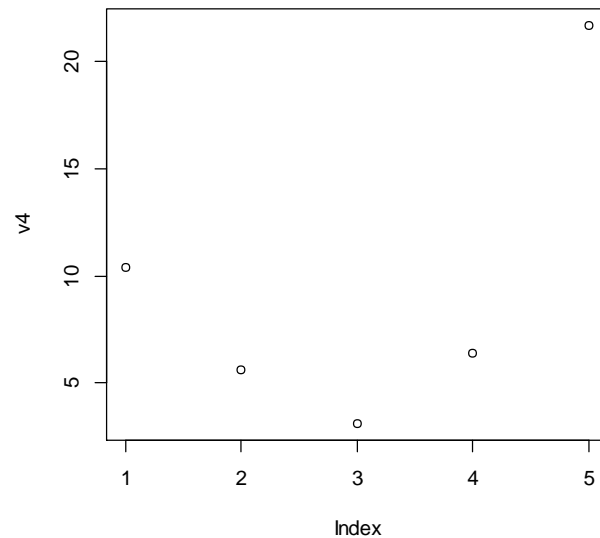
c function: c means “combine”

# Plot Vectors

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## ► Plot vectors

- `v4 <- c(10.4, 5.6, 3.1, 6.4, 21.7)`
- `plot(v4)` # plot the vector
- `plot(v4, type = "l", col = "red")` # plot the vector in line graph





# Names of Vectors

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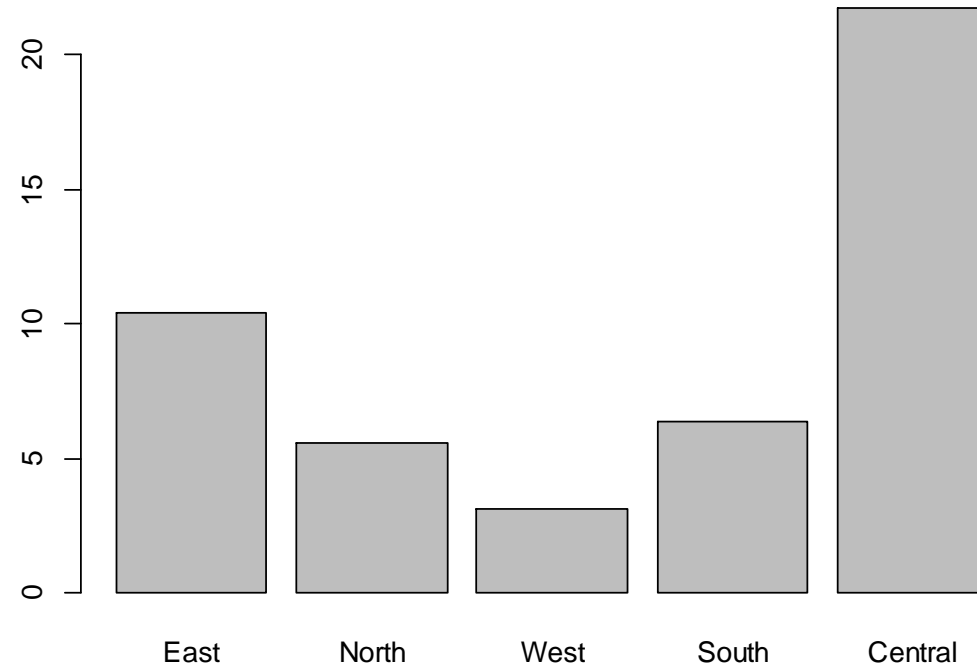
- ▶ Use `names()` to set or get names of an object

```
> v4
[1] 10.4 5.6 3.1 6.4 21.7
> names(v4) <- c("East", "North", "West", "South", "Central")
# To set vector name
> v4
  East North West South Central
 10.4  5.6  3.1  6.4  21.7
> names(v4) # To get vector name
[1] "East" "North" "West" "South" "Central"
```

# Bar Plot

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## ► `barplot(v4)`



# Sequences

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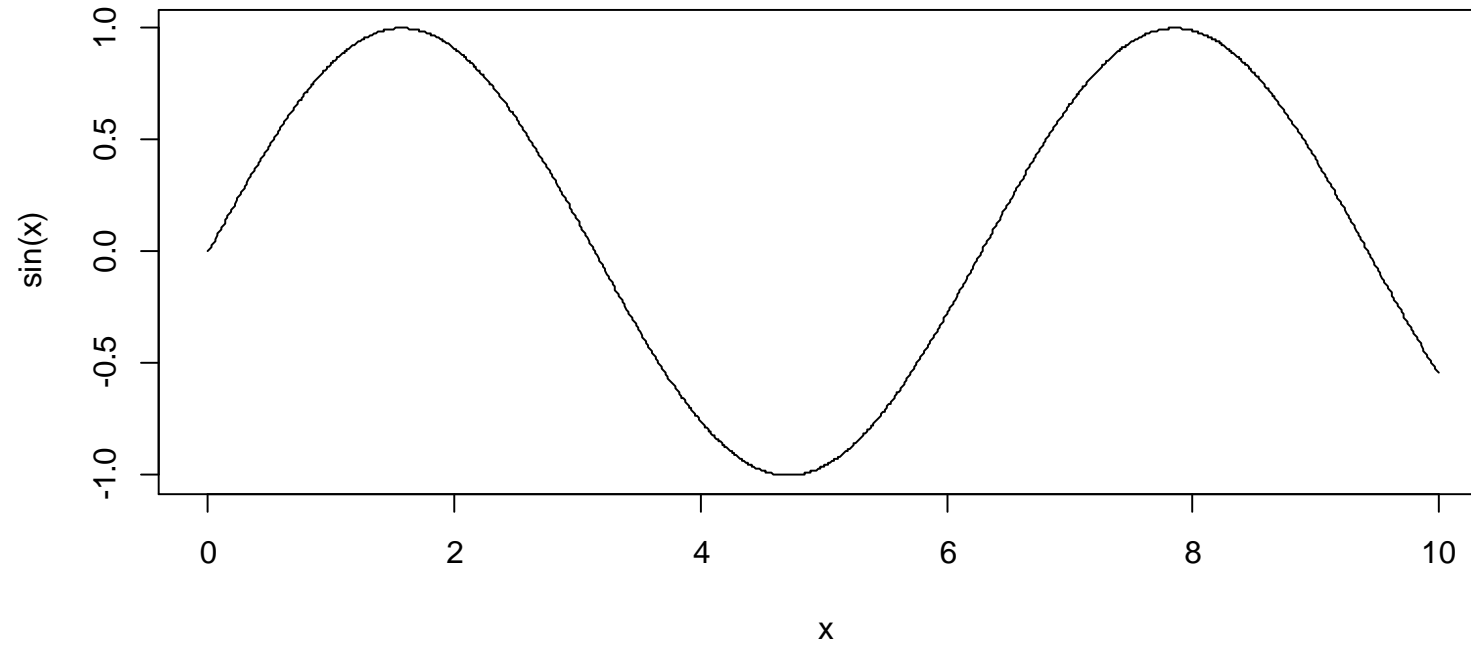
- ▶ Use colon :
- ▶ Use `seq()` function

```
> 5:9
[1] 5 6 7 8 9
> seq(5,9)
[1] 5 6 7 8 9
> seq(5,9,by = 1)
[1] 5 6 7 8 9
> seq(5,9,by = 0.5)
[1] 5.0 5.5 6.0 6.5 7.0 7.5 8.0 8.5 9.0
> seq(from = 5, to = 9, by = 0.4)
[1] 5.0 5.4 5.8 6.2 6.6 7.0 7.4 7.8 8.2 8.6 9.0
> seq(0, 1, length.out = 11)
[1] 0.0 0.1 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0
```

# Plot

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```
> x <- seq(0,10, by=0.01)  
> plot(x,sin(x),type="l")
```



# Repetitions

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- ▶ Use `rep()` function

```
> rep(1:4, 3)
[1] 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4
> rep(1:4, each = 3)
[1] 1 1 1 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4
> rep(1:4, c(3,3,3,3))
[1] 1 1 1 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4
> rep(1:4, c(1,2,3,4))
[1] 1 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4
```

# Vector Math

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- ▶ Most arithmetic operations work as well

```
> a <- c(1,2,3,4)
> b <- a + 2
> a*2
[1] 2 4 6 8
> a/3
[1] 0.3333333 0.6666667 1.0000000 1.3333333
> a^2
[1] 1 4 9 16
> a<b
[1] TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE
> sin(b)
[1] 0.1411200 -0.7568025 -0.9589243 -0.2794155
```

# Logical Operators “&” vs. “&&” (“|” vs. “||”)

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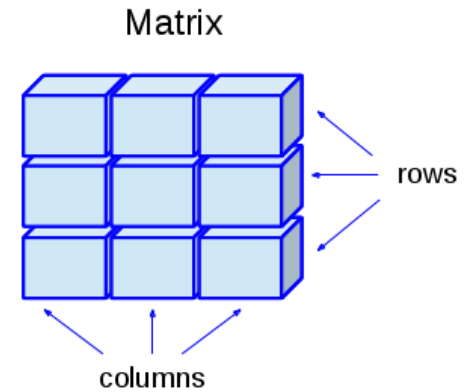
- ▶ What’s the difference between “&” and “&&” or between “|” and “||”?
- ▶ The longer form evaluates left to right examining only the first element of each vector.
- ▶  $(a < 2) \&\&(b < 4)$  is equivalent to  $(a[1] < 2) \&(b[1] < 4)$

```
> a
[1] 1 2 3 4
> b
[1] 3 4 5 6
> (a<2)&(b<4)
[1] TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE
> (a<2)&&(b<4)
[1] TRUE
```

# Matrices

---

- ▶ A matrix is a bi-dimensional array
  - ▶ Rows
  - ▶ Columns





# Column Names and Row Names

- ▶ Use `colnames` and `rownames` to retrieve or set the row and column names of a matrix-like object.

```
> m2 <- matrix(1:12, ncol = 4, byrow = TRUE)
> m2
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,]     1     2     3     4
[2,]     5     6     7     8
[3,]     9    10    11    12
> colnames(m2) <- c("a", "b", "c", "d")
> rownames(m2) <- c("i", "j", "k")
> m2
   a  b  c  d
i  1  2  3  4
j  5  6  7  8
k  9 10 11 12
> colnames(m2)
[1] "a" "b" "c" "d"
> rownames(m2)
[1] "i" "j" "k"
```

# Matrix Computations

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- ▶ Addition
- ▶ Subtraction
- ▶ Scalar multiplication
- ▶ Element-wise multiplication
- ▶ Matrix multiplication
- ▶ Inverse
- ▶ Cholesky Decomposition

(cont.)

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## ► Cholesky Decomposition (Cholesky Factorization)

Every positive definite matrix  $A$  can be decomposed as

$$A = LL^T$$

where  $L$  is a lower triangular matrix with positive diagonal elements

$A =$

1	1	0
1	3	1
0	1	7

$L =$

1	0.0000000	0.00000
1	1.4142136	0.00000
0	0.7071068	2.54951

For more information, refer to

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cholesky\\_decomposition](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cholesky_decomposition)

# Plot Matrix: Maunga Whau Volcano

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- ▶ Maunga Whau (Mt Eden) is one of about 50 volcanos in the Auckland volcanic field. This data set gives topographic information for Maunga Whau on a 10m by 10m grid.
- ▶ **volcano** is an elevation matrix with 87 rows and 61 columns, rows corresponding to grid lines running east to west and columns to grid lines running south to north.

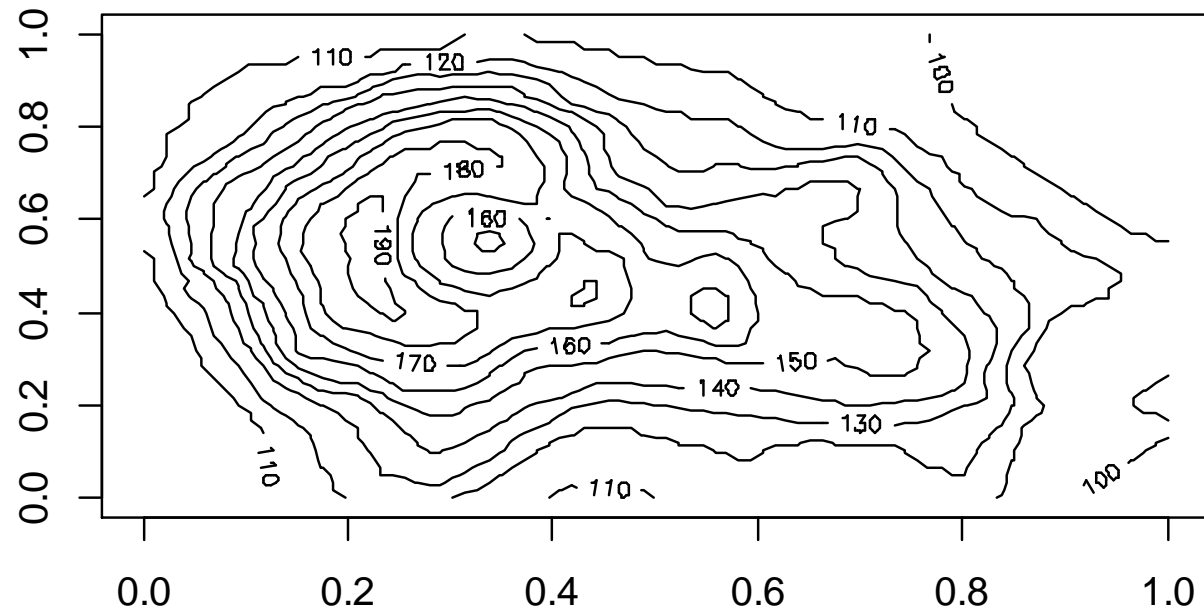


Image source: <http://www.teara.govt.nz/en/photograph/8706/mt-eden>

# Draw a Contour Map

---

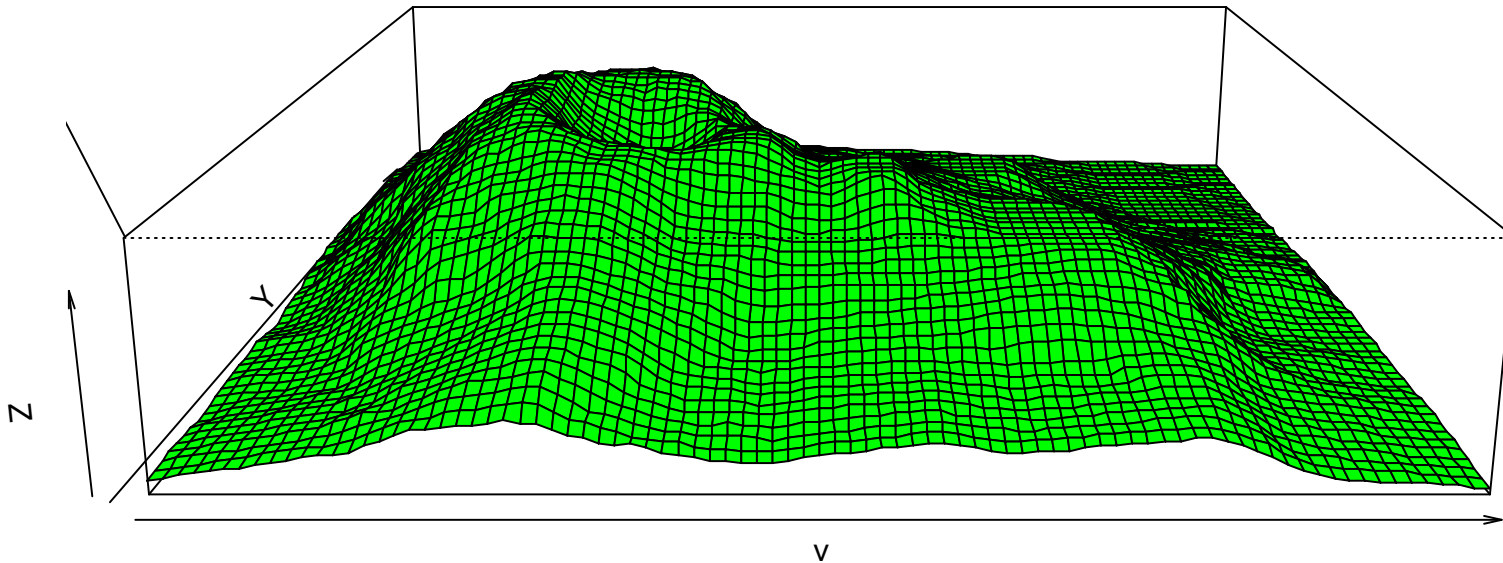
- ▶ `v <- volcano`
- ▶ `contour(v)`



# Draw a Perspective Plot

---

- ▶ `v <- volcano`
- ▶ `persp(v, expand=0.2, col = "green")`



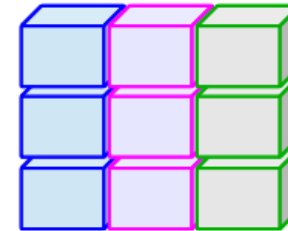
# Data Frames

---

- ▶ Data frame is a list of vectors of equal length.
- ▶ **Each column should be of the same type.**
- ▶ Similar to tables in RDBMS, or data set in SAS or SPSS, i.e. a “cases by variables” matrix of data.

```
> id <- c(11,12,13)
> name <- c("Lily","Jim","Tom")
> credit <- c(710,700,680)
> df <- data.frame(id,name,credit)
> df
  id name credit
1 11  Lily   710
2 12   Jim   700
3 13   Tom   680
> df["name"] # Show the name column
  name
1 Lily
2  Jim
3  Tom
> df[["name"]]
[1] Lily Jim  Tom
Levels: Jim Lily Tom
```

Data Frame  
(Table)



## (cont.)

---

- ▶ **Single brackets vs. double brackets**
  - ▶ Single brackets mean subsetting, the result is a data frame
  - ▶ Double brackets return a vector (or use **\$** sign)

```
> a <- df["credit"]
> attributes(a)
$names
[1] "credit"

$row.names
[1] 1 2 3

$class
[1] "data.frame"

> b <- df[["credit"]]
> attributes(b)
NULL
> c <- df$credit # A shorthand for double brackets
> attributes(c)
NULL
```



(cont.)

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## ► Rename Columns

- `names(data.frame)[names(data.frame)=="old.name"] <- "new.name"`

```
> df
  id name credit
1 11 Lily    710
2 12 Jim     700
3 13 Tom     710
> names(df)[names(df)=="name"] <- "first.name"
> df
  id first.name credit
1 11      Lily    710
2 12       Jim     700
3 13       Tom     710
```

# Motor Trend Data Built in R

- ▶ The `mtcars` is a built-in data frame which comprises fuel consumption and 10 aspects of automobile design and performance for 32 automobiles (1973–74 models).

```
> head(mtcars)
```

	mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat	wt	qsec	vs	am	gear	carb
Mazda RX4	21.0	6	160	110	3.90	2.620	16.46	0	1	4	4
Mazda RX4 wag	21.0	6	160	110	3.90	2.875	17.02	0	1	4	4
Datsun 710	22.8	4	108	93	3.85	2.320	18.61	1	1	4	1
Hornet 4 Drive	21.4	6	258	110	3.08	3.215	19.44	1	0	3	1
Hornet Sportabout	18.7	8	360	175	3.15	3.440	17.02	0	0	3	2
Valiant	18.1	6	225	105	2.76	3.460	20.22	1	0	3	1

```
> head(mtcars,n=3)
```

	mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat	wt	qsec	vs	am	gear	carb
Mazda RX4	21.0	6	160	110	3.90	2.620	16.46	0	1	4	4
Mazda RX4 wag	21.0	6	160	110	3.90	2.875	17.02	0	1	4	4
Datsun 710	22.8	4	108	93	3.85	2.320	18.61	1	1	4	1

```
> tail(mtcars)
```

	mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat	wt	qsec	vs	am	gear	carb
Porsche 914-2	26.0	4	120.3	91	4.43	2.140	16.7	0	1	5	2
Lotus Europa	30.4	4	95.1	113	3.77	1.513	16.9	1	1	5	2
Ford Pantera L	15.8	8	351.0	264	4.22	3.170	14.5	0	1	5	4
Ferrari Dino	19.7	6	145.0	175	3.62	2.770	15.5	0	1	5	6
Maserati Bora	15.0	8	301.0	335	3.54	3.570	14.6	0	1	5	8
Volvo 142E	21.4	4	121.0	109	4.11	2.780	18.6	1	1	4	2

# Summary of All Variables(Columns)

```
> summary(mtcars) # Summary of all variables(columns)
```

mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat
Min. :10.40	Min. :4.000	Min. : 71.1	Min. : 52.0	Min. :2.760
1st Qu.:15.43	1st Qu.:4.000	1st Qu.:120.8	1st Qu.: 96.5	1st Qu.:3.080
Median :19.20	Median :6.000	Median :196.3	Median :123.0	Median :3.695
Mean :20.09	Mean :6.188	Mean :230.7	Mean :146.7	Mean :3.597
3rd Qu.:22.80	3rd Qu.:8.000	3rd Qu.:326.0	3rd Qu.:180.0	3rd Qu.:3.920
Max. :33.90	Max. :8.000	Max. :472.0	Max. :335.0	Max. :4.930

wt	qsec	vs	am
Min. :1.513	Min. :14.50	Min. :0.0000	Min. :0.0000
1st Qu.:2.581	1st Qu.:16.89	1st Qu.:0.0000	1st Qu.:0.0000
Median :3.325	Median :17.71	Median :0.0000	Median :0.0000
Mean :3.217	Mean :17.85	Mean :0.4375	Mean :0.4062
3rd Qu.:3.610	3rd Qu.:18.90	3rd Qu.:1.0000	3rd Qu.:1.0000
Max. :5.424	Max. :22.90	Max. :1.0000	Max. :1.0000

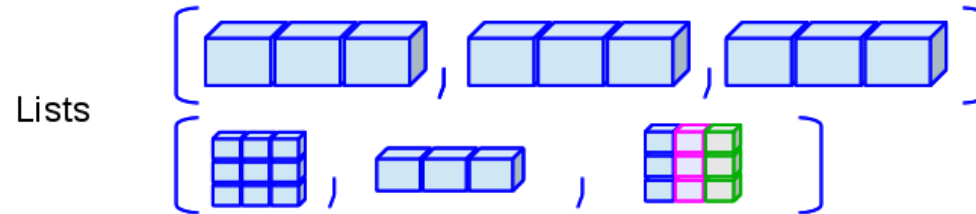
  

gear	carb
Min. :3.000	Min. :1.000
1st Qu.:3.000	1st Qu.:2.000
Median :4.000	Median :2.000
Mean :3.688	Mean :2.812
3rd Qu.:4.000	3rd Qu.:4.000
Max. :5.000	Max. :8.000

# Lists

---

- ▶ A list is a special type of vector. **Elements can be of different types.**
- ▶ Use lists act as containers.



(cont.)

---

```
> list1 <- list("a",5,TRUE)
> list1
[[1]]
[1] "a"

[[2]]
[1] 5

[[3]]
[1] TRUE

> list1[[1]]
[1] "a"
> list2 <- list(list1,1+2i) # list2 contains list1
> list2[[1]][[2]]
[1] 5
```

# Two List Index Forms

---

- ▶ Difference between `[[` and `[` notations
  - ▶ `[[` form allows only a single element to be selected using integer or character indices.
  - ▶ `[` allows indexing by vectors.



# R Functions

# Functions: Closure Type Objects

---

- ▶ So many built-in functions available
- ▶ You can define your own functions
  - ▶ Function name
  - ▶ Input (argument list)
  - ▶ Output

```
> f2c <- function(f){  
+ # Fahrenheit to Celsius conversion  
+ c <- (f-32)*5/9  
+ return(c)  
+ }  
> f2c(90)  
[1] 32.22222  
> f2c(32)  
[1] 0  
> typeof(f2c)  
[1] "closure"
```



# Writing Your Own Functions

---

## ▶ Syntax

`function ( arglist ) body`

- ▶ The keyword `function` indicates that you want to create a function.
- ▶ An argument list is a comma separated list of formal arguments. A formal argument can be a symbol, a statement of the form ‘symbol = expression’, or the special formal argument ‘...’.
- ▶ The body can be any valid R expression. Generally, the body is a group of expressions contained in curly braces (‘{’ and ‘}’) called `block`.
- ▶ Generally functions are assigned to symbols but they don’t need to be (anonymous functions).

(cont.)

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- ▶ Formal arguments define the variables whose values will be supplied at the time the function is invoked. The names of these arguments can be used within the function body.
- ▶ Default values for arguments can be specified using the special form 'name = expression'. In this case, if the user does not specify a value for the argument when the function is invoked the expression will be associated with the corresponding symbol.



## Control Structures in R

# Statement

---

- ▶ Computation in R consists of sequentially evaluating statements.
- ▶ Statements, such as `x<-1:10` or `mean(y)`, can be separated by either a semi-colon or a new line.
- ▶ Whenever the evaluator is presented with a syntactically complete statement that statement is evaluated and the value returned.
- ▶ The result of evaluating a statement can be referred to as the value of the statement. The value can always be assigned to a symbol.
- ▶ Both semicolons and new lines can be used to separate statements. A semicolon always indicates the end of a statement while a new line may indicate the end of a statement. If the current statement is not syntactically complete new lines are simply ignored by the evaluator. If the session is interactive the prompt changes from ‘>’ to ‘+’.

```
> x <- 0; x + 5      > y <- c(1,2,3,  
[1] 5               + 4,5,6)  
                    > y  
                    [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6
```

# Block (Grouped Expression)

---

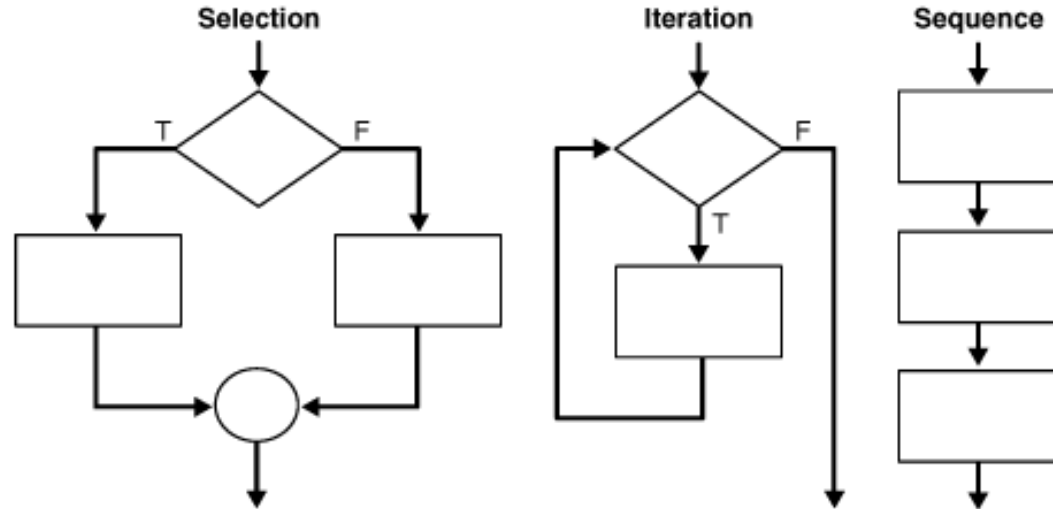
- ▶ Statements can be grouped together in braces, {expr\_l; ...; expr\_m}
- ▶ A group of statements is sometimes called a **block**.
- ▶ Blocks are not evaluated until a new line is entered after the closing brace “}”.
- ▶ The value of the block is the result of the last expression in the block evaluated.

```
b = {a <- 0  
     a + 5}
```

```
> b = {a <- 0  
+ a + 5}  
> b  
[1] 5
```

# Structure Theorem

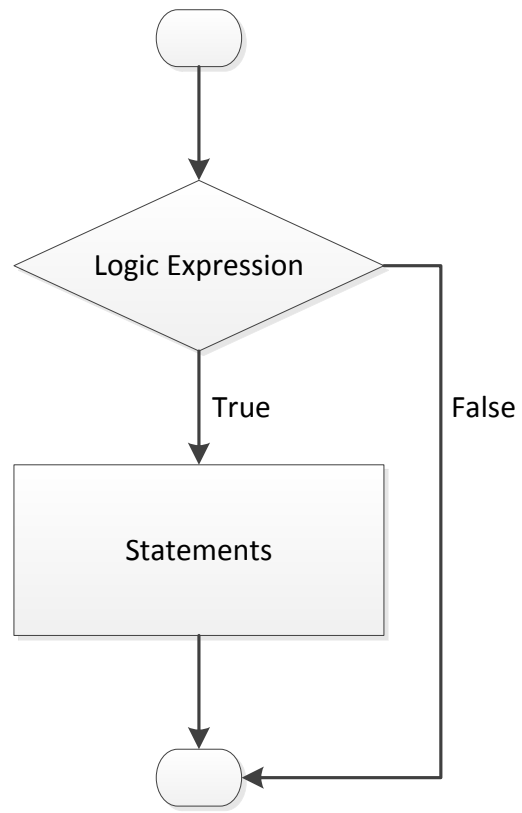
- ▶ According to the structure theorem, any computable program can be written using three basic control structures:
  - ▶ **Sequence**: executing one subprogram, and then another subprogram
  - ▶ **Selection**: executing one of two subprograms according to the value of a boolean expression
  - ▶ **Iteration (loop)**: executing a subprogram until a boolean expression is true



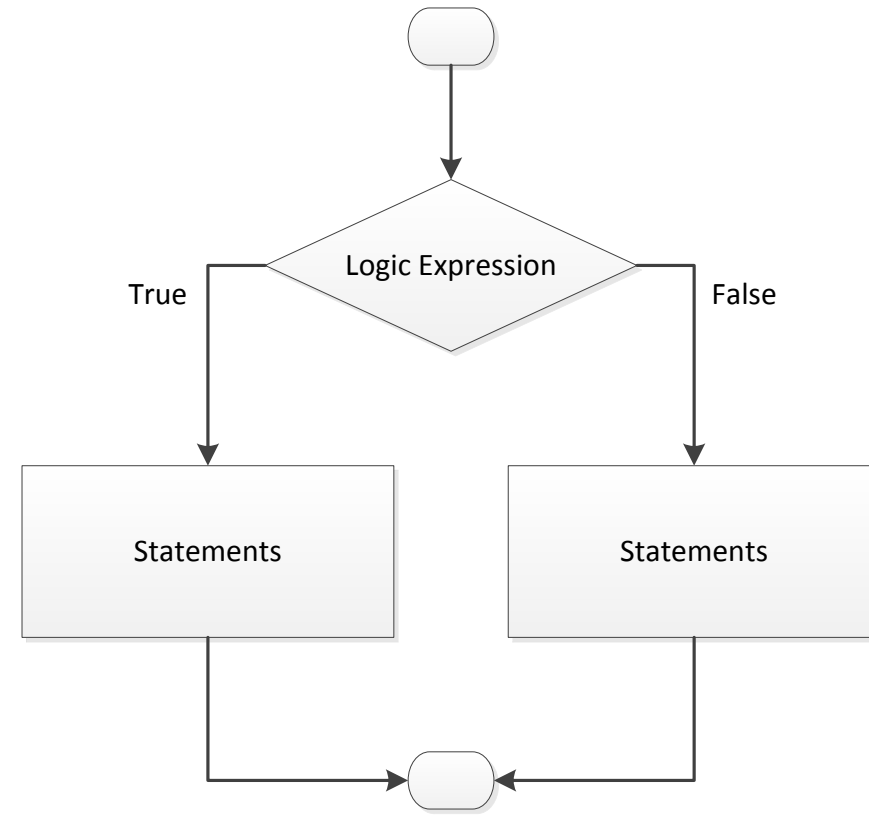
Reading: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Structured\\_program\\_theorem](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Structured_program_theorem)

# Selection Structure

## One-way selection structure



## Two-way selection structure



# One-Way Selection Structure in R

---

## ► Syntax

`if(logic expression) {...}`

Function

```
is.even <- function(x){  
  if(x%%2==0){  
    return(TRUE)  
  }  
}
```

Test

```
> is.even(24)  
[1] TRUE  
> is.even(23)  
> is.even(10.5)
```



# Two-Way Selection Structure in R

---

## ► Syntax

`if(logic expression) {...} else {...}`

### Function

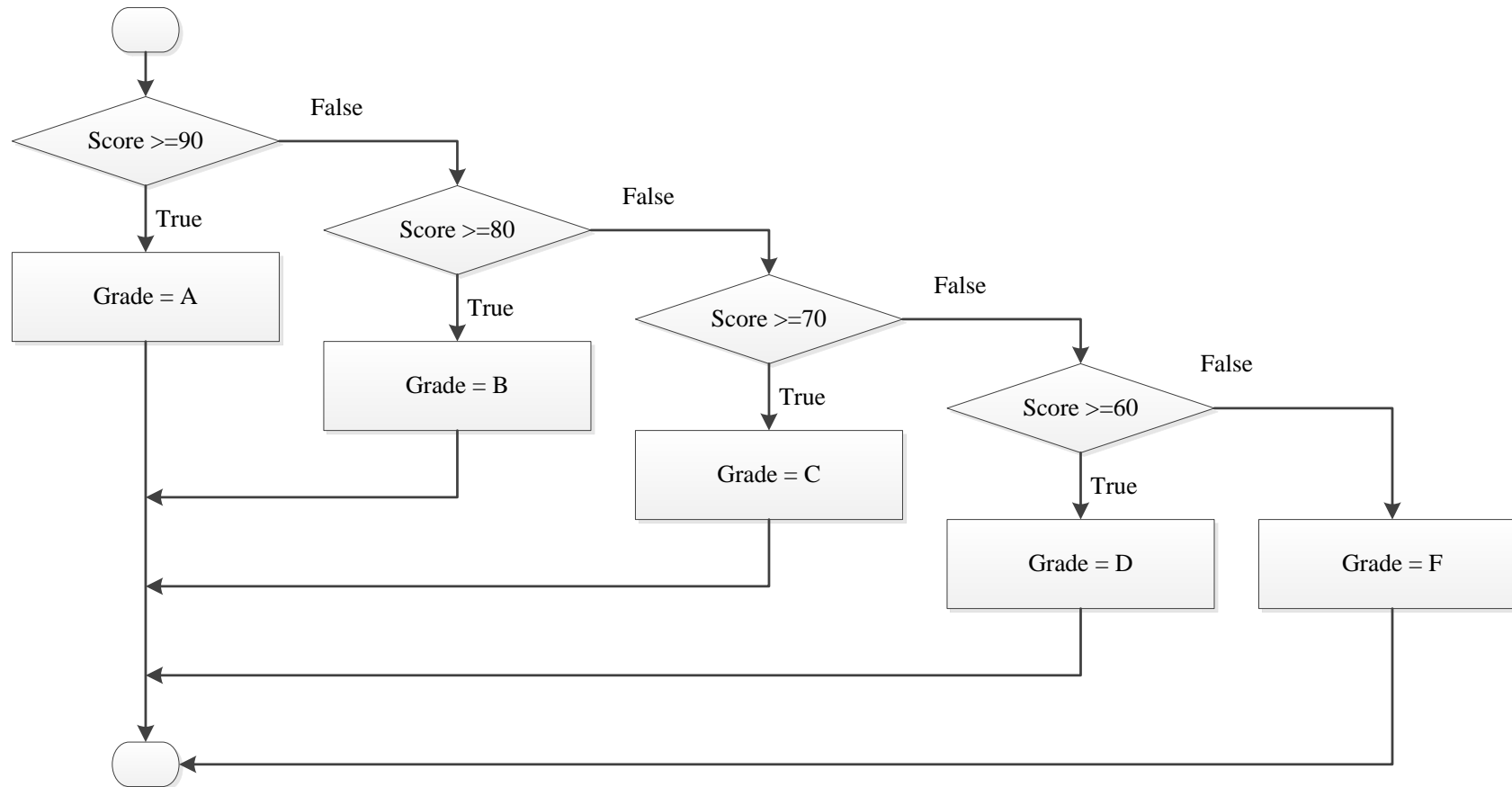
```
is.even2 <- function(x){  
  if(x%%2==0){  
    return(TRUE)  
  } else{  
    return(FALSE)  
  }  
}
```

### Test

```
> is.even2(24)  
[1] TRUE  
> is.even2(23)  
[1] FALSE  
> is.even2(10.5)  
[1] FALSE
```

# Multi-Way Selection Structure

## ► Convert score to letter grade



# (cont.)

---

## Function

```
score2grade <- function(score){  
  if(score >= 90) return("A")  
  else if (score >= 80) return("B")  
    else if (score >= 70) return("C")  
      else if (score >= 60) return("D")  
        else return("F")  
}
```

## Test

```
> score2grade(99)  
[1] "A"  
> score2grade(90.1)  
[1] "A"  
> score2grade(89.9)  
[1] "B"  
> score2grade(70.1)  
[1] "C"  
> score2grade(68.6)  
[1] "D"  
> score2grade(57)  
[1] "F"
```

## The Nearest Rule (if else ambiguity)

The else clause matches the nearest preceding if clause in the same block.

# Motivations for Looping

---

- Suppose that you are given scores for 100 students, you need to calculate letter grades for them.
  - Scores are stored in a vector called `score_v`.
  - Grades should be stored in a vector called `grade_v`.
- How do you solve this problem?

# Opening Problem

---

- ▶ Problem: it would be tedious to write 100 statements

100  
times

```
grade_v[1] = score2grade(score_v[1])
grade_v[2] = score2grade(score_v[2])
grade_v[3] = score2grade(score_v[3])
grade_v[4] = score2grade(score_v[4])
grade_v[5] = score2grade(score_v[5])
grade_v[6] = score2grade(score_v[6])
...
...
...
grade_v[98] = score2grade(score_v[98])
grade_v[99] = score2grade(score_v[99])
grade_v[100] = score2grade(score_v[100])
```

# Introducing Loops

---

```
grade_v <- NULL
```

```
for (i in 1:100)
```

```
  grade_v[i] = score2grade(score_v[i])
```

- In general, loop constructs control repeated executions of a block of statements.

# Loop Structure in R

---

- ▶ R provides three statements to support looping
  - ▶ `for` statement
  - ▶ `while` statement
  - ▶ `repeat` statement
- ▶ Two statements used to explicitly control looping
  - ▶ `break` statement
  - ▶ `next` statement

# for Loop

---

## ► Syntax

for (*name in vector*)  
statement

```
# Generate random scores for 100 students
score_v <- sample(50:100, 100, replace=T)
print(score_v)

# Use for loop
grade_v <- NULL # Initiate a grade vector
for (i in 1:100)
  grade_v[i] = score2grade(score_v[i])
print(grade_v) # Show the grades calculated
```



# while Loop

---

## ► Syntax

while (logic expression)  
statement

```
# Use while loop
grade_v <- NULL
i <- 1
while (i <= 100){
  grade_v[i] = score2grade(score_v[i])
  i <- i + 1
}
print(grade_v) # Show the grades calculated
```

# repeat Loop

---

## ► Syntax

repeat statement

```
# Use repeat loop
grade_v <- NULL
i <- 1
repeat {
  grade_v[i] = score2grade(score_v[i])
  i <- i + 1
  if (i == 101) break
}
print(grade_v) # Show the grades calculated
```

# Which Loop to Use?

---

- ▶ The three forms of loop statements, for, while, and repeat, are expressively equivalent.
- ▶ You can write a loop in any of these three forms.

# Guidelines for Choosing Loop Structures

---

- ▶ Use the one that is most intuitive and comfortable for you.
- ▶ In general, a for loop may be used if the number of repetitions is known, as, for example, when you need to print a message 100 times.
- ▶ A while loop may be used if the number of repetitions is not known, as in the case of reading the numbers until the input is 0.
- ▶ A repeat loop can be used to replace a while loop if the loop body has to be executed before testing the continuation condition.

# Using `break` and `next`

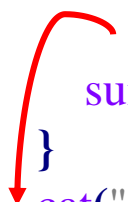
---

- ▶ The `break` and `next` keywords provide additional controls in a loop.
- ▶ `break` statement breaks out of the loop.
- ▶ `continue` statement bypasses the current iteration.

# break Statement

---

```
breakdemo <- function(){  
  sum <- 0  
  i <- 0  
  while(i < 20){  
    i <- i + 1  
    if (sum >= 100)  
      break  
    sum <- sum + i  
  }  
  cat("The i is",i,"\n")  
  cat("The sum is",sum,"\n")  
}
```



```
> breakdemo()  
The i is 15  
The sum is 105
```

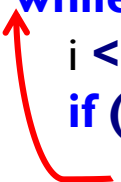
break statement breaks out of the loop.

$sum = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + 14 = 105$

# next Statement

---

```
nextdemo <- function(){  
  sum <- 0  
  i <- 0  
  while(i < 20){  
    i <- i + 1  
    if (i == 10 | i == 11)  
      next  
    sum <- sum + i  
  }  
  cat("The i is",i,"\n")  
  cat("The sum is",sum,"\n")  
}
```



```
> nextdemo()  
The i is 20  
The sum is 189
```

next statement bypasses the current iteration.

$$\text{sum} = 1 + 2 + \dots + 8 + 9 + 12 + 13 + \dots + 20 = 189$$



# R Programming Style and Debug



# Programming Style and Documentation

---

- ▶ Programming style is important
  - ▶ Good programming style makes a program more readable
  - ▶ Good programming style helps reduce programming errors
- ▶ Several guidelines
  - ▶ Appropriate Comments
  - ▶ Naming Conventions
  - ▶ Proper Indentation and Spacing Lines

# Google's R Style Guide

---

▶ <https://google.github.io/styleguide/Rguide.xml>

## ▶ Summary

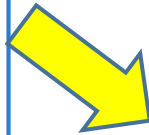
1. **File Names:** end in `.R`
2. **Identifiers:** `variable.name` (or `variableName`), `FunctionName`, `kConstantName`
3. **Line Length:** maximum 80 characters
4. **Indentation:** two spaces, no tabs
5. **Spacing**
6. **Curly Braces:** first on same line, last on own line
7. **else:** Surround else with braces
8. **Assignment:** use `<-`, not `=`
9. **Semicolons:** don't use them
10. **General Layout and Ordering**
11. **Commenting Guidelines:** all comments begin with `#` followed by a space; inline comments need two spaces before the `#`
12. **Function Definitions and Calls**
13. **Function Documentation**
14. **Example Function**
15. **TODO Style:** `TODO (username)`

# Display Messages in R

---

- ▶ `stop()`: provide error messages and stop execution
- ▶ `warning()`: provide warning message and continue execution
- ▶ `message()`: provide a general message and continue execution

```
sign2 <- function(x){  
  if(is.numeric(x)){  
    if (x>0){  
      return(1);  
    }  
    if (x==0){  
      warning("Input is zero!")  
      return(NaN)  
    } else {  
      return(-1)  
    }  
  } else{  
    stop("Input number be a number!")  
  }  
}
```



```
> sign2(-23)  
[1] -1  
> sign2(0)  
[1] NaN  
Warning message: In sign2(0) : Input is zero!  
> sign2(10.5)  
[1] 1  
> sign2("a")  
Error in sign2("a") : Input number be a number!
```

# Programming Errors

---

## ▶ Syntax Errors

- ▶ You type a command that R cannot understand
- ▶ For example, missing commas, unmatched parentheses, wrong function name etc.

```
> a <- c(0,1,2,3]  
Error: unexpected ']' in "a <- c(0,1,2,3]"  
> a <- c(0,1,2 3)  
Error: unexpected numeric constant in "a <- c(0,1,2 3"
```

## ▶ Runtime Errors

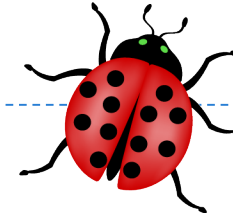
- ▶ Causes the program to abort

## ▶ Logic Errors

- ▶ The program can run, but produce wrong results
- ▶ Difficult to find

# Debugging

---



- ▶ Logic errors are called **bugs**.
- ▶ The process of finding and correcting errors is called **debugging**.
- ▶ A common approach to debugging is to use a combination of methods to narrow down to the part of the program where the bug is located.
  - ▶ For a short and simple program, you can hand-trace the program (i.e., catch errors by reading the program), or you can insert print statements in order to show the values of the variables or the execution flow of the program.
  - ▶ For a large, complex program, the most effective approach for debugging is to use a debugger utility.

# Debugger

---

- ▶ Debugger is a program that facilitates debugging. You can use a debugger to
  - ▶ Execute a single statement at a time.
  - ▶ Trace into or stepping over a function.
  - ▶ Set breakpoints.
  - ▶ Display variables.
  - ▶ Display call stack.

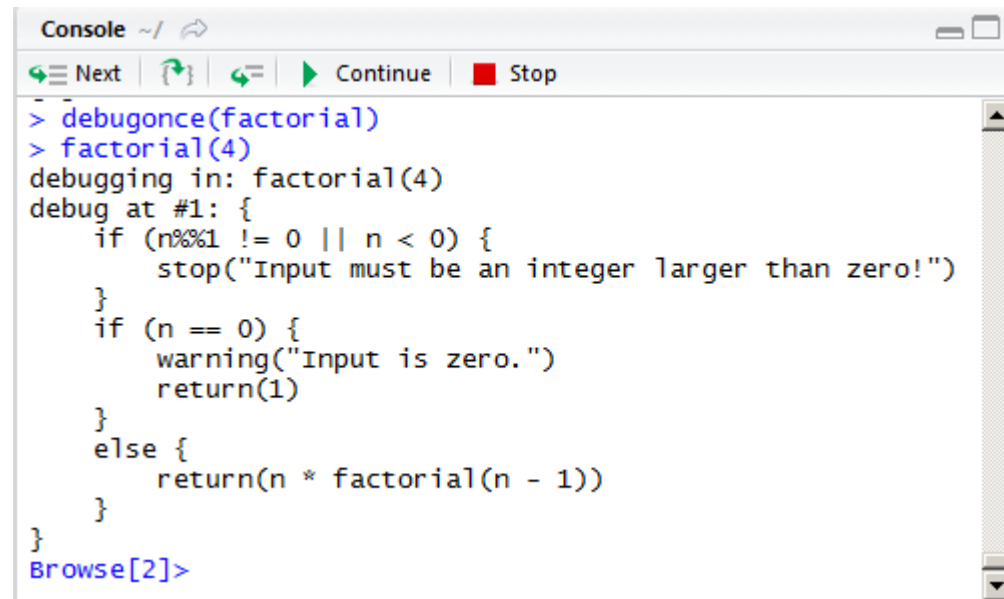
# Debugging in R

- ▶ Call `debug()` or `debugonce()` function to go to debug mode

## Function Definition

```
factorial <- function(n=3) {  
  if (n%%1!=0 || n<0) {  
    stop("Input must be an  
integer larger than zero!")  
  }  
  if (n==0) {  
    return(1)  
  } else {  
    return(n*factorial(n-  
1))  
  }  
}
```

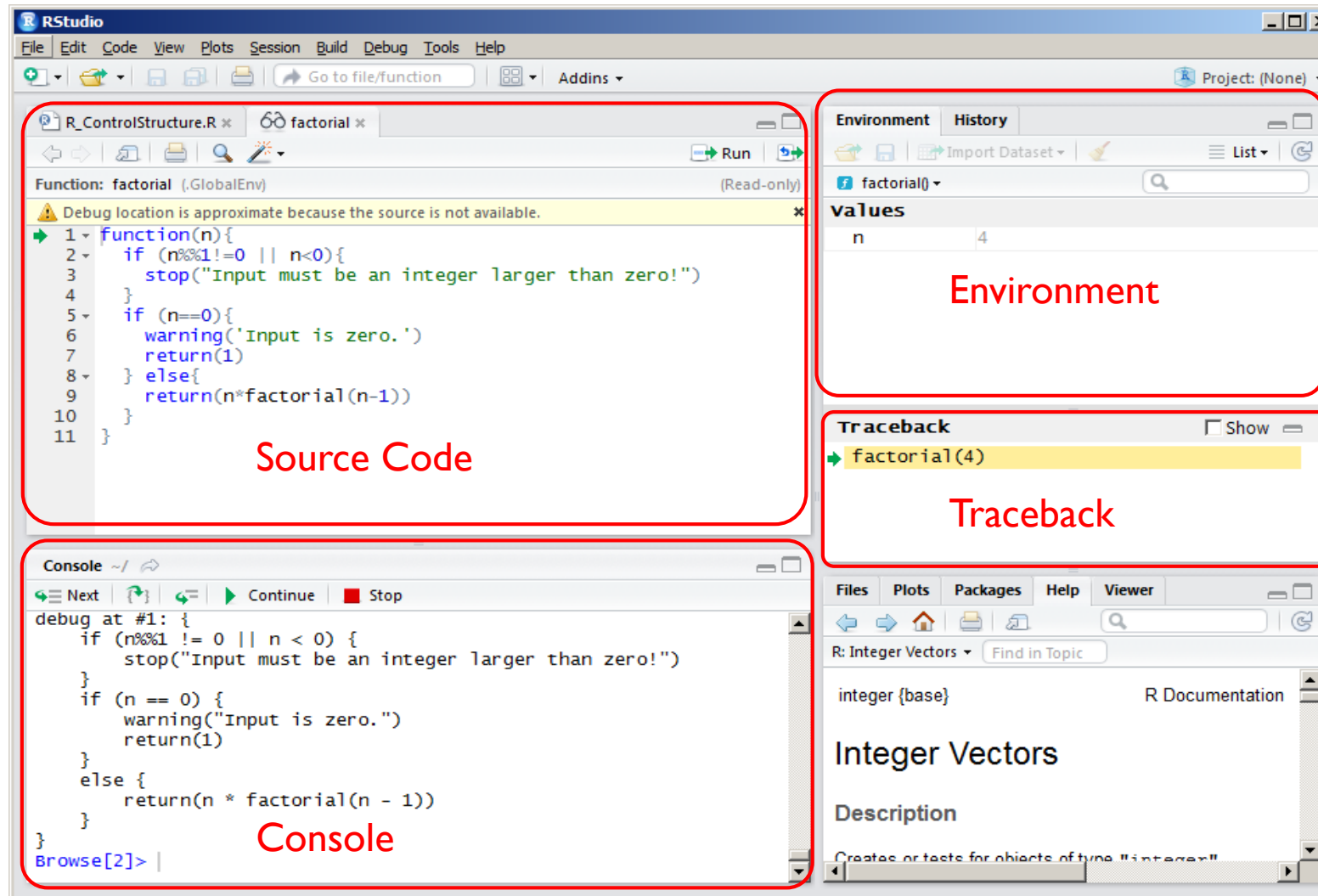
## Debug Mode



The screenshot shows an R console window with the title 'Console ~/'. The toolbar includes buttons for 'Next', 'Previous', 'Continue', and 'Stop'. The console output shows the following sequence of commands and results:

```
> debugonce(factorial)  
> factorial(4)  
debugging in: factorial(4)  
debug at #1: {  
  if (n%%1 != 0 || n < 0) {  
    stop("Input must be an integer larger than zero!")  
  }  
  if (n == 0) {  
    warning("Input is zero.")  
    return(1)  
  }  
  else {  
    return(n * factorial(n - 1))  
  }  
}  
Browse[2]>
```

# R Debugger Overview





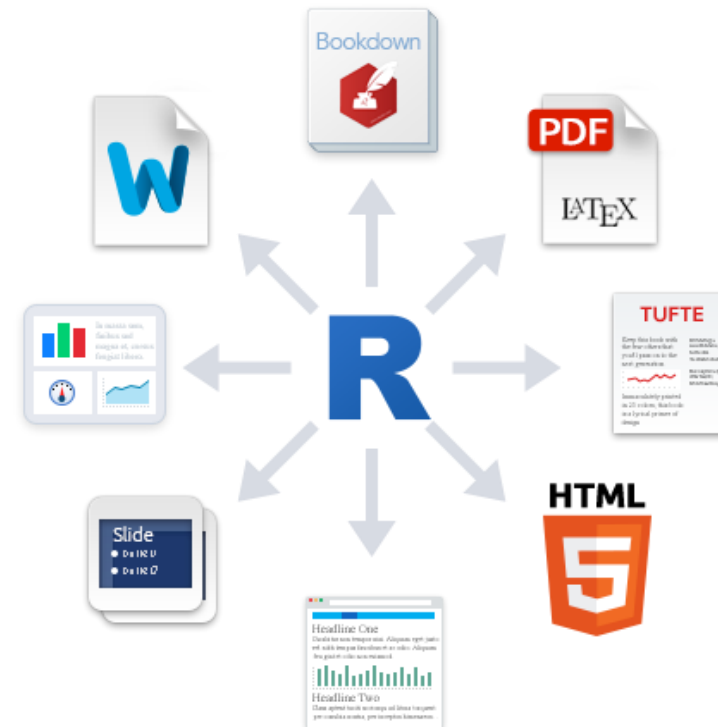


## Dynamic Report: R Markdown

# Dynamic Documents in R

---

- ▶ “**R Markdown** is an authoring format that enables easy creation of dynamic documents, presentations, and reports from R”.
- ▶ R code embedded in text
  - ▶ You can write R code in plain text and generate data analysis reports in various formats such as HTML, PDF, Word, HTML5 slides.
- ▶ Reproducible analysis
  - ▶ You can easily reproduce the data analysis results after the data and/or code change.

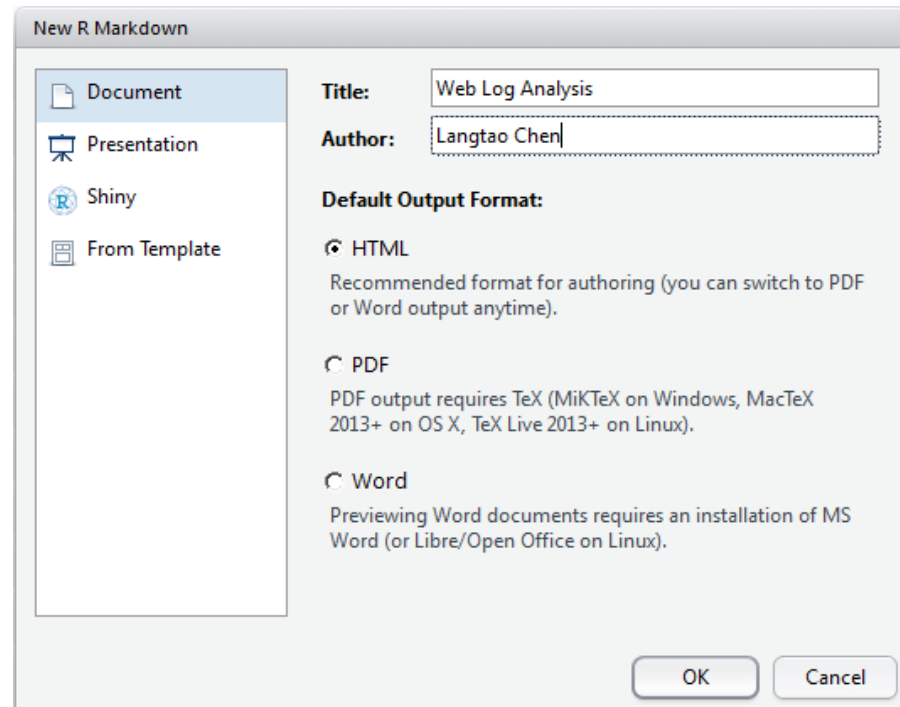


Source: <http://rmarkdown.rstudio.com/>

# Use R Markdown

---

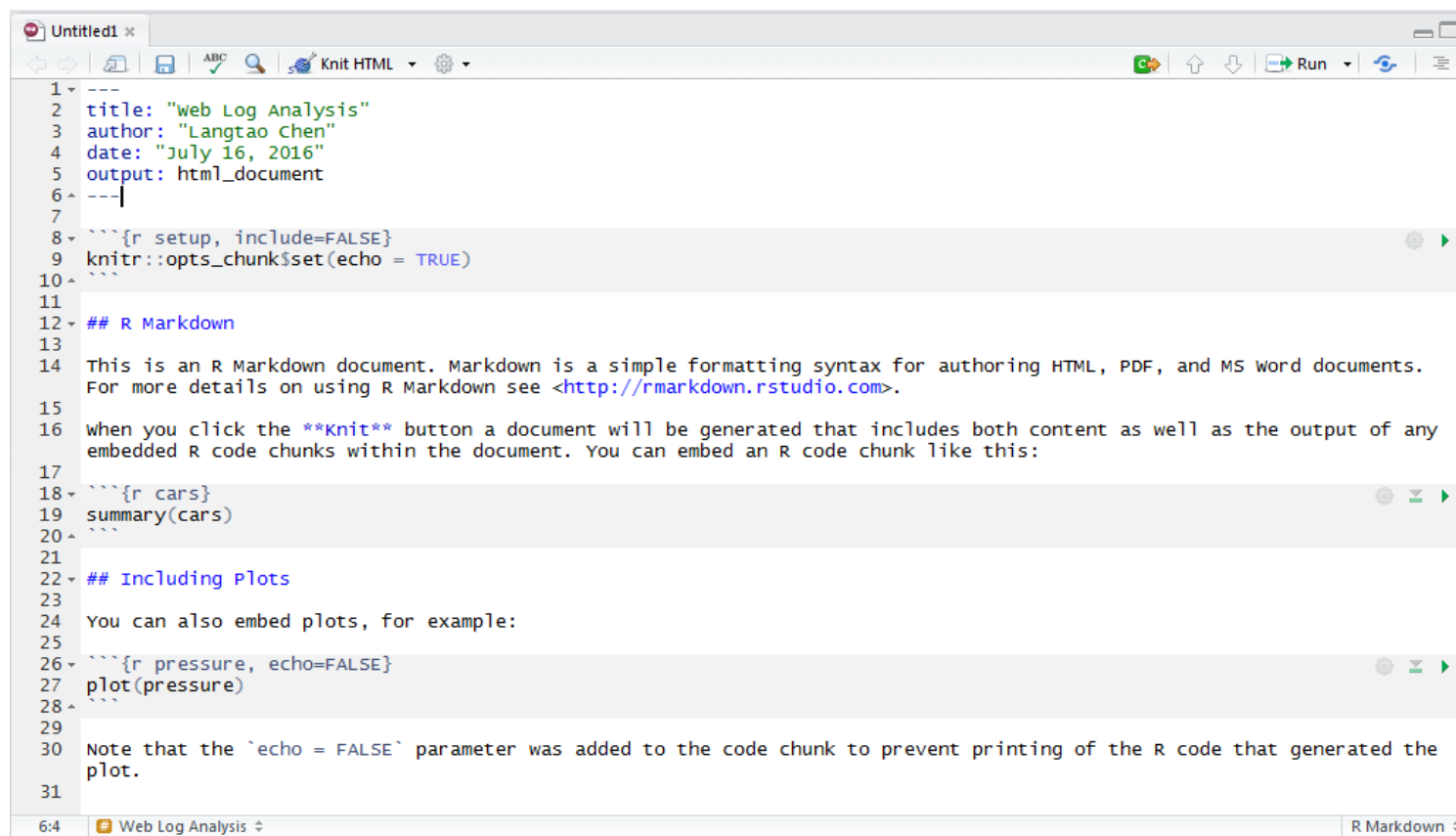
- ▶ Install R markdown package
  - ▶ `install.packages("rmarkdown")`
- ▶ In Rstudio, click “File -> New File -> R Markdown...” menu
- ▶ In the popup window, input header information, then click “OK” button



# (cont.)

---

- ▶ RStudio generates a sample R markdown (.Rmd) file for you



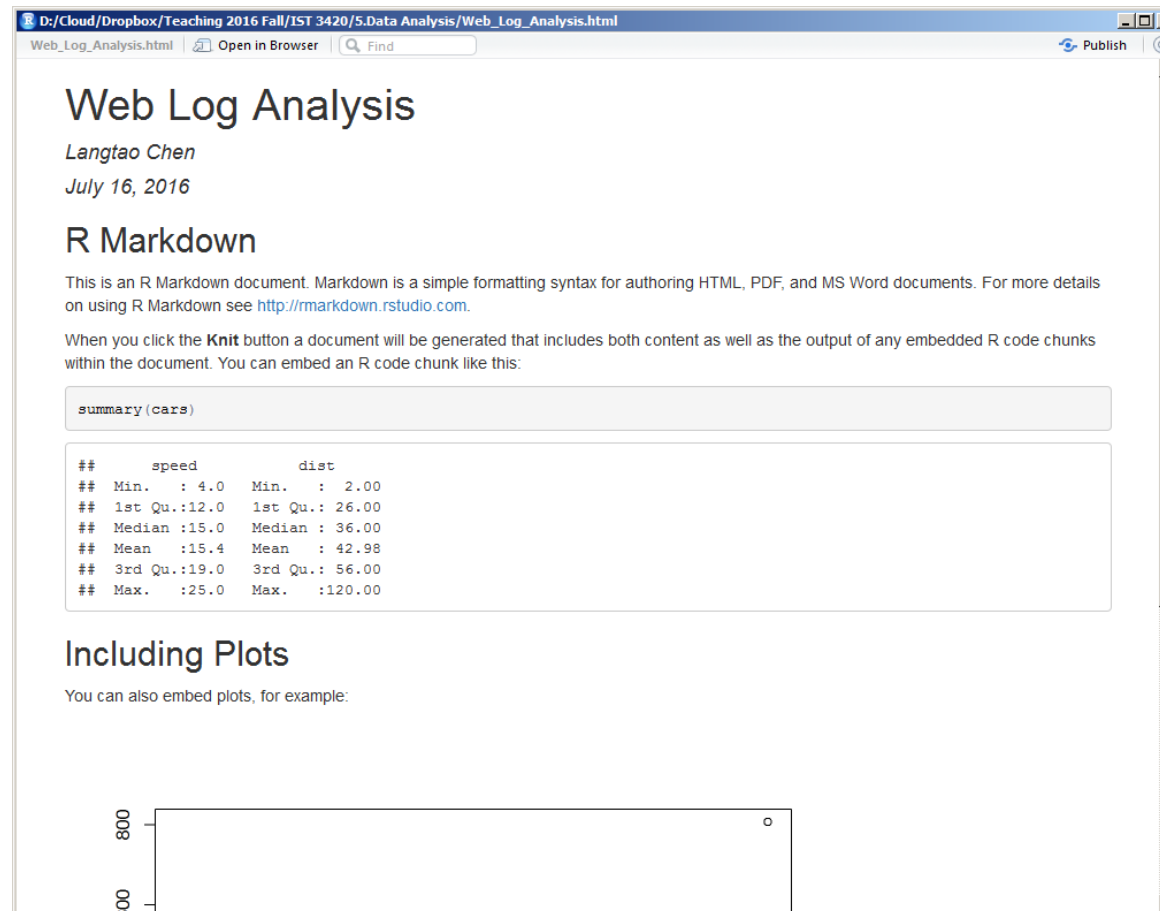
The screenshot shows the RStudio editor interface with a file named 'Untitled1.Rmd'. The editor contains the following text:

```
1 ---
2 title: "Web Log Analysis"
3 author: "Langtao Chen"
4 date: "July 16, 2016"
5 output: html_document
6 ---
7
8 ```{r setup, include=FALSE}
9 knitr::opts_chunk$set(echo = TRUE)
10 ```
11
12 ## R Markdown
13
14 This is an R Markdown document. Markdown is a simple formatting syntax for authoring HTML, PDF, and MS word documents.
15 For more details on using R Markdown see <http://rmarkdown.rstudio.com>.
16
17 when you click the knit button a document will be generated that includes both content as well as the output of any
18 embedded R code chunks within the document. You can embed an R code chunk like this:
19
20 ```{r cars}
21 summary(cars)
22 ```
23
24 ## Including Plots
25
26 You can also embed plots, for example:
27
28 ```{r pressure, echo=FALSE}
29 plot(pressure)
30 ```
31
32 Note that the `echo = FALSE` parameter was added to the code chunk to prevent printing of the R code that generated the
33 plot.
```

The status bar at the bottom indicates the current line is 6:4 and the file is 'Web Log Analysis.Rmd'.

# (cont.)

- ▶ Click the “Knit HTML” button  on the toolbar to generate the HTML report



(cont.)

---

- ▶ Follow the R markdown syntax demonstrated in the sample file, write your own data analysis by editing the Rmd template.

# R Markdown Syntax Summary

---

- ▶ **YAML Header (key: value pairs)**
  - ▶ At the beginning of Rmd file
  - ▶ Between lines of `---`
- ▶ **Plain Text Format**
  - ▶ Headers: Begin with `#`
  - ▶ Lists: Begin with `-`
  - ▶ LaTeX or MathML equations: Enclosed within `$`
- ▶ **Embedded R Code**
  - ▶ R Code Chunks: Begin with ```{r}` and end with ````
  - ▶ Inline R Code: Begin with ``r` and end with ```

# An Example

---

- ▶ R Markdown File

[R Markdown Sample.Rmd](#)

- ▶ PDF Output

[R Markdown Sample.pdf](#)



# Reference

---

- ▶ “An Introduction to R”
  - ▶ <https://cran.r-project.org/doc/manuals/R-intro.pdf>
- ▶ R Language Definition
  - ▶ <https://cran.r-project.org/doc/manuals/r-release/R-lang.pdf>
- ▶ Base R Cheat Sheet
  - ▶ <http://www.rstudio.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/r-cheat-sheet.pdf>
- ▶ Advanced R Cheat Sheet
  - ▶ <http://www.rstudio.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/advancedR.pdf>
- ▶ R Markdown Cheat Sheet
  - ▶ <http://www.rstudio.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/rmarkdown-cheatsheet-2.0.pdf>
- ▶ R Markdown Reference Guide
  - ▶ <http://www.rstudio.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/rmarkdown-reference.pdf>

# Q & A

---

