Data Science for Economists

Functions and Parallel Programming

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Prologue

Prologue

- By the end of class you will:
 - Be able to write basic functions in R
 - Be able to iterate tasks serially and in parallel in R
 - Be able to bootstrap in parallel in R

Attribution

I pull most of this lecture from the textbook Data Science in R by James Scott

Functions

What is a function?

• In math, a function is a mapping from domain to range

```
f(x) = x^2 Takes a number from the domain and returns its square in the range f(2) = 4 The function applied to 2 returns 4
```

• In programming, a function is a mapping from input to output

```
exponentiate 
function(x,p=2) {
  x^p
}
exponentiate(x=2) # Returns 4
```

```
## [1] 4
```

The functions: why and how

Why write functions?

Abstraction

• Summarize complex operations into single lines of code that are easier to remember

Automation

Automate a task to happen many times without having to write the same code over and over

Documentation

• Well-written and named functions are "self-documenting," so you can remember what you did

How do I write a function?

In R, functions are defined using the function keyword

```
some_function ← function(positional_input1=1,positional_input2="two",keyword_inputs) {
    # Do something with these inputs
    # Create output or ouputs
    return(output) # Return the output
    # If you do not specify return, it returns the last object
}
```

function takes keyword inputs and positional inputs or "arguments." The order of the inputs is important unless you specify otherwise!

Control flow: If/else logic

```
square_ifelse ← function(x = NULL) {
    if (is.null(x)) { ## Start multi-line IF statement with {
      x = 1 # Default value
      message("No input value provided. Using default value of 1.") ## Message to users:
                     ## Close multi-line if statement with }
    x sq = x^2
    d = data.frame(value = x, value squared = x sq)
    return(d)
print(square ifelse())
## No input value provided. Using default value of 1.
   value value squared
## 1
     1
print(square ifelse(2))
    value value_squared
## 1
```

This function has a default value of 1 for when you fail to provide a value.

Each step of bootstrap

```
# library(tidyverse) # Already loaded
set.seed(1)
df \( \int \text{tibble}(x = \text{rnorm}(1000, \text{mean} = 0, \text{ sd} = 1), \)
    y = x + \text{rnorm}(1000, \text{mean} = 0, \text{ sd} = 1))

bootstrap_sample \( \int \text{function}(\text{df}) \) {
    # 1. Draw a random sample with replacement of size N from your sample.
    sample \( \int \text{df} \) % sample_frac(1, \text{replace} = \text{TRUE})
    # 2. Perform the same analysis, here a median, on the new sample.
    return(coef(feols(y \sim x, \text{data} = \text{sample}))[2])
}

bootstrap_sample(df)
```

```
## x
## 0.9671832
```

Aside: What's a seed?

- The set.seed() function sets the seed for the random number generator
- If you set the seed to the same number, you will get the same random numbers each time
- This is important for reproducibility

More on functions

- There is a lot more to functions!
- Check out Grant McDermott's Introductory and Advanced chapters on functions
- There are some incredible tips on how to:
 - Debug functions
 - Write functions that are easy to read
 - Catch errors
 - Cache or memoise big functions

Iteration

Iteration: For loops

- You've likely heard of for loops before!¹
- They're the most common way to iterate across programming languages
- In R, the syntax is fairly simple:

[1] 25 ## [1] 36 ## [1] 49 ## [1] 64 ## [1] 81 ## [1] 100

```
for(i in 1:10) {
   print(exponentiate(i))
}

## [1] 1
## [1] 4
## [1] 9
## [1] 16
```

Bootstrapping for loop

To save output, you have to pre-define a list where you deposit the output

```
deposit \( \subseteq \text{vector("list",10)} \) # preallocate list of 10 values
set.seed(1)
for (i in 1:10) {
    # perform bootstrap
    deposit[[i]] \( \text{bootstrap_sample(df)} \)}
bootstrapped_for \( \text{bind_rows(deposit)} \)
head(bootstrapped_for)
```

Binding output

- Did you notice the bind_rows() function I called?
- After any iteration that leaves you a bunch of dataframes in a list, you'll want to put them together
- The bind_rows function is a great way to bind together a list of data frames
- Other options include:
 - o do.call(rbind, list_of_dataframes)
 - o data.table::rbindlist()

Issues with for loops

- For loops are slow in R
- They clutter up your environment with extra variables (like the i indexer)
- They can also be an absolute headache to debug if they get too nested
- Look at the example below: this is a nested for loop that is hard to read and debug
- In some languages, this is all you have, but not in R!

```
for (i in 1:5) {
    for (k in 1:5) {
        if (i > k) {
            print(i*k)
        }
        else {
            for (j in 1:5) {
                print(i*j*k)
            }
        }
    }
}
```

Tips on iterating

- Start small! Set your iteration to 1 or 2 and make sure it works
- Why?
 - You'll know faster if it broke
- Print where it is in the iteration (or use a progress bar with something like phapply)

```
for (i in 1:2) {
   print(i)
   # complex function
}
## [1] 1
## [1] 2
```

While loops

- I'm largely skipping while loops, but they're also important!
- While loops iterate until one or more conditions are met
 - Typically one condition is a max number of iterations
 - Another conditions is that the some value of the loop is within a small amount of a target value
- These are critical for numerical solvers, which are common in computational economics and machine learning

Iteration: apply family

- R has a much more commonly used approach to iteration: the *apply family of functions: apply, sapply, vapply, lapply, mapply
- The *apply family takes a function and applies it to each element of a list or vector
- lapply is the most commonly used and returns a list back
- *apply family is a little confusing at first
- Syntax is *apply(list_or_vector, function, other input)
- The first input of the function will be the current element of the list/vector in the iteration
- other inputs are next inputs passed to the function

```
lapply(1:10, exponentiate,p=2)
## [[1]]
## [1] 1
## [[2]]
## [1] 4
##
   [[3]]
   [1] 9
##
## [[4]]
## [1] 16
##
## [[5]]
## [1] 25
##
  [[6]]
## [1] 36
                                                19 / 37
## [[7]]
```

Bootstrapping lapply

9 0.987 10 0.987

- One trick: *apply insists on iterating over some sequence indexed i like a for-loop
- But you can ignore it by using function(i) and then not using i in the function

Wrapper functions due to odd syntax

- Maybe you don't like the ugly syntax of function(i) and then not using i in the function
- Well you can write a wrapper function to get around that

```
set.seed(1)
wrapper_bootstrap ← function(i, df) {
  bootstrap_sample(df)
}
lapply(1:10, wrapper_bootstrap, df=df) %>%
  bind_rows()
```

Iteration: map

- The **purrr** package introduces map functions, which are more intuitive with **tidyverse**
- The variant map_df is especially useful beause it automatically binds the output into a data frame
 - The same iteration syntax applies here too.

```
set.seed(1)
map df(1:10, function(i) bootstrap sample(df=df))
  # A tibble: 10 × 1
##
      <dbl>
##
    1 1.02
    2 0.987
    3 0.997
##
    4 0.987
    5 0.947
    6 0.999
   7 0.966
    8 0.983
    9 0.987
   10 0.987
```

- Imagine you get home from the grocery store with 100 bags of groceries
- You have to bring them all inside, but you can only carry 2 at a time
- That's 50 trips back and forth, so how can you speed things up?

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One trip? Okay ,sure

A warning

- Parallel Programming is an incredibly exponentiateful tool, but it is full of pitfalls
- A friend of mine from the PhD said that he did not understand it until the 4th year of his PhD
- Many economists understand the intuition, but not the details until they have to
- That used to be me until I started teaching this class!
- So if it is hard, that's normal. But it is worth learning!

Parallel Programming: What?

- Your computer has multiple cores, which are like multiple brains
- Each of these is capable of doing the same tasks
- Parallel Programming is the act of using multiple cores to do the same task at the same time

Parallel Programming: What?

- Your computer has multiple cores, which are like multiple brains
- Each of these is capable of doing the same tasks
- Parallel Programming is the act of using multiple cores to do the same task at the same time
- Many coding tasks are "embarassingly parallel"
 - o That means they can be broken up into many small tasks that can be done at the same time
 - Bootstrapping is one such example
- Some "serial" tasks are not "embarrassingly parallel"
 - Still, parts of these tasks may be possible to do in parallel
- R has many Parallel Programming packages:
 - future.apply today
 - furrr today
 - parallel today
 - future
 - pbapply
 - foreach
 - doParallel

Parallel Programming: Why?

- Parallel Programming is a great way to speed up your code and often there are straight-forward ways to do it
- It is not always worth doing:
 - Theoretically, the gain should be linear: each additional node should speed up your code by the same amount
 - o In practice, there are "overhead" costs to Parallel Programming that can slow things down
 - Overhead costs: reading in and subsetting data, tracking each node

Across computer clusters

- Parallel Programming is also a way to speed up your code across multiple computers
- This is called "distributed computing"
- It is a way to speed up your code when you have a lot of data and a lot of computers
- Imagine you have 1000 computers, each with 1/1000th of your data
- You can run the same code on each computer, and then combine the results
- Same logic, but the "overhead" costs are higher

How many cores are there?

• You can find out how many cores you have with the parallel::detectCores() function

```
parallel::detectCores()
```

[1] 8

- The more cores, the more you can speed up your code
- But remember, there are diminishing returns to Parallel Programming
 - If a task takes 10 minutes on 1 core, it might take 6 minutes on 2 cores, but 4 minutes on 4 cores

Trivial example: square numbers

- Let's start with some trivial to understand examples
- Here is a function called slow_square, which takes a number and squares it, but after a pause.

```
## Emulate slow function
slow_square =
  function(x = 1) {
    x_sq = x^2
    d = data.frame(value = x, value_squared = x_sq)
    Sys.sleep(2) # literally do nothing for two seconds
    return(d)
  }
```

Let's time that quickly.

```
# library(tictoc) ## Already loaded

tic()
serial_ex = lapply(1:12, slow_square)
toc(log = TRUE)
```

24.83 sec elapsed

Now in parallel

• plan multisession tells R to use multiple cores

```
# library(future.apply) ## Already loaded
# plan(multisession) ## Already set above

tic()
future_ex = future_lapply(1:12, slow_square)
toc(log = TRUE)

## 10 sec elapsed

all.equal(serial_ex, future_ex)

## [1] TRUE
```

Example: bootstrapping in parallel

- The future_lapply works the same, but now I have to set the seed inside the function with future.seed
- Why? Because each node is a separate R session, so they need to coordinate their random numbers

```
set.seed(1)
tic()
serial_boot ← lapply(1:1e4, function(i) bootstrap_sample(df)) %>%
  bind_rows()
toc(log = TRUE)
```

220.22 sec elapsed

```
tic()
parallel_boot ← future_lapply(1:1e4,
   function(i) bootstrap_sample(df),
   future.seed=1) %>%
   bind_rows()
toc(log = TRUE)
```

82.45 sec elapsed

Want to use map? Try furrr

The **furrr** package, i.e. future **purrrr** is a Parallel Programming version of **purrr**

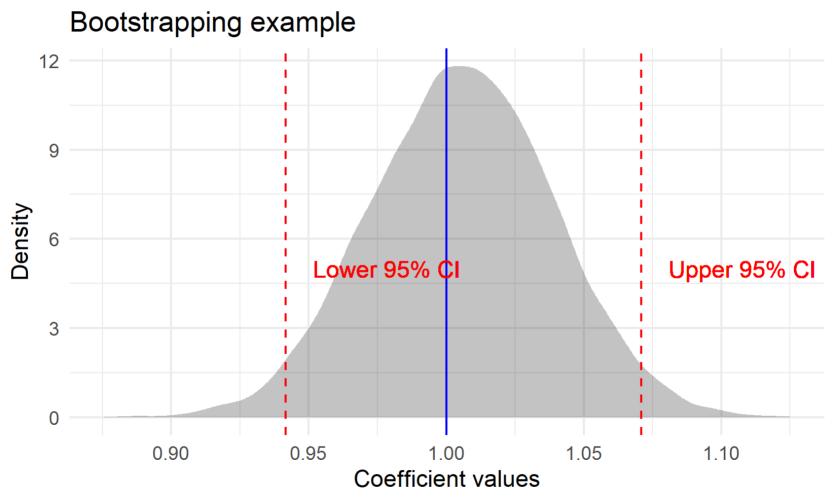
• Again, set the seed inside the function with .options.

```
tic()
furrr_boot = future_map_dfr(1:1e4,
    function(i) bootstrap_sample(df),
    .options = furrr_options(seed=1))
toc(log = TRUE)
```

92.55 sec elapsed

Get standard errors from results

• Now that we have a bunch of estimates, we can get the standard error of our estimates



Notes: Density based on 1,000 draws with sample size of 10,000 ea@h./ 37

Many R packages use Parallel

- Many R packages already use Parallel Programming
- feols() from **fixest** uses Parallel Programming to speed up regressions
 - You can control how using the nthreads input
- data.table uses Parallel Programming to speed up data wrangling
- boot and sandwich can use Parallel Programming to speed up bootstrapping
- And many others do the same

What next?

- Go try how to bootstrap in R!
- Better yet, learn to do it in parallel
- Navigate to the lecture activity 13a-bootstrapping-functions-practice

Next lecture: Machine Learning Intro

Parallel Programming vocab

The vocab for Parallel Programming can get a little confusing:

- Socket: A socket is a physical connection between a processor and the motherboard
- **Core**: A core is a physical processor that can do computations
- **Process**: A process is a task that is being done by a core (Windows users may know this from Task Manager)
- **Thread**: A thread is a subtask of a process that can be done in parallel and share memory with other threads
- Cluster: A cluster is a group of computers that can be used to do Parallel Programming
- Node: One computer within a cluster