

Lecture 8. R Programming Structures

R and Data Visualization

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R Programming Structures

R is a block-structured language in the ALGOL-descendant family, such as C, C++, Python, Perl, and so on.

We cover the basic structures of R as a programming language.

Some more details on loops and functions will be covered.

Control Statements

Loops

- ▶ There will be one iteration of the loop for each component of vector `x`, with `n` taking on the values of those components.
- ▶ In the first iteration, `n = x[1]`; in the second iteration, `n = x[2]`; and so on.

```
x <- c(5,12,13)
for (n in x) print(n^2)
```

```
## [1] 25
```

```
## [1] 144
```

```
## [1] 169
```

- ▶ C-style looping with `while` and `repeat` is also available.

```
i <- 1
while (TRUE) {
  i <- i+4;  if (i > 10) break
}
# while (i <= 10) i <- i+4 # similar loop to above
```

```
i <- 1
repeat {
  i <- i+4;  if (i > 10) break
} # repeat has no Boolean exit condition
i
```

```
## [1] 13
```

Looping Over Nonvector Sets

- ▶ R does not support iteration over nonvector sets, but there are some indirect ways to do it.
- ▶ `get()`: takes as an argument a character string representing the name of some object and returns the object of that name.

```
u <- matrix(c(1,2,3,1,2,4),nrow=3,ncol=2)
v <- matrix(c(8,12,20,15,10,2),nrow=3,ncol=2)
for (m in c("u","v")){
  z <- get(m)
  print(lm(z[,2] ~ z[,1]))
}
# Here, m was first set to u.
# Then assign the matrix u to z,
# which allows the call to lm() on u.
```

```
##  
## Call:  
## lm(formula = z[, 2] ~ z[, 1])  
##  
## Coefficients:  
## (Intercept)          z[, 1]  
##      -0.6667          1.5000  
##  
##  
## Call:  
## lm(formula = z[, 2] ~ z[, 1])  
##  
## Coefficients:  
## (Intercept)          z[, 1]  
##      23.286          -1.071
```

if-else

```
if (r == 4) {  
  x <- 1  
} else {  
  x <- 3; y <- 4  
}
```

- ▶ Although the `if` section consists of just a single statement, the braces are needed.
- ▶ The right brace before `else` is used by the R parser to deduce that this is an `if – else` rather than just an `if`.

- ▶ An if – else statement works as a function call and it returns the last value assigned.

```
x <- 2  
y <- if(x == 2) x else x+1  
y
```

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

```
x <- 3  
if(x == 2) y <- x else y <- x+1  
y
```

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


Arithmetic and Boolean Operators and Value

Table 7-1: Basic R Operators

Operation	Description
<code>x + y</code>	Addition
<code>x - y</code>	Subtraction
<code>x * y</code>	Multiplication
<code>x / y</code>	Division
<code>x ^ y</code>	Exponentiation
<code>x %% y</code>	Modular arithmetic
<code>x %/% y</code>	Integer division
<code>x == y</code>	Test for equality
<code>x <= y</code>	Test for less than or equal to
<code>x >= y</code>	Test for greater than or equal to
<code>x && y</code>	Boolean AND for scalars
<code>x y</code>	Boolean OR for scalars
<code>x & y</code>	Boolean AND for vectors (vector x,y,result)
<code>x y</code>	Boolean OR for vectors (vector x,y,result)
<code>!x</code>	Boolean negation

```
x <- as.logical(c("TRUE", "FALSE", "TRUE"))
y <- as.logical(c("TRUE", "TRUE", "FALSE"))
x & y
```

```
## [1] TRUE FALSE FALSE
```

```
x && y # looks at just the first elements of each vector
```

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

```
if (x[1] && y[1]) print("both TRUE")
```

```
## [1] "both TRUE"
```

```
# if (x & y) print("both TRUE")
```

Note: In evaluation an if, we need a single Boolean, not a vector of Boolean.

The Boolean values TRUE and FALSE can be abbreviated as T and F. These values change to 1 and 0 in arithmetic expression:

```
1 < 2
```

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

```
(1 < 2) * (3 < 4) * (5 < 1)
```

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

```
(1 < 2) == TRUE
```

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

Return Values

The return value of a function can be any R object, e.g., a list and another function. Without calling `return()`, the value of the last executed statement will be returned by default.

```
oddcount <- function(x) {  
  k <- 0  
  for (n in x) {  
    if (n %% 2 == 1) k <- k+1  
  }  
  k # or return(k).  
}  
oddcount(1:11)
```

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

```
oddcoun ← function(x) {  
  k ← 0  
  for (n in x) {  
    if (n %% 2 == 1) k ← k+1  
  }  
  # k  
}  
oddcoun(1:11)
```

Note: The above function wouldn't work. The last executed statement is the call to `for()`, which returns the value `NULL`.

`k` or `return(k)`? Calling `return()` in the function lengthens execution time, however, unless the function is very short, the time saved is negligible.

Returning Complex Objects

- ▶ You can return complex objects.

```
g <- function(){  
  t <- function(x) return(x^2)  
  return(t)  
}  
g()
```

```
## function(x) return(x^2)  
## <environment: 0x0000000012f76088>
```

Note: If your function has multiple return values, place them in a list or other container.

Functions Are Objects

R functions are *first-class objects*, meaning that they can be used for the most part just like other objects.

```
g <- function(x) return(x+1)
formals(g)
```

```
## $x
```

```
body(g)
```

```
## return(x + 1)
```

Note: Some of R's most fundamental built-in functions are written directly in C, and thus they are not viewable.

```
sum
```

```
## function (... , na.rm = FALSE) .Primitive("sum")
```


- ▶ You can also assign them, use them as arguments to other functions, and so on.

```
f1 <- function(a, b) return(a+b)
f2 <- function(a, b) return(a-b)
f <- f1
f(3,2)
```

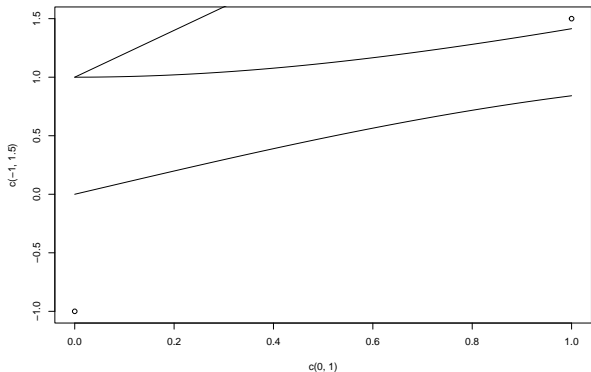
```
## [1] 5
```

```
g <- function(h,a,b) h(a,b)
g(f2,3,2)
```

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

- You can loop through a list consisting of several functions.

```
g1 <- function(x) return(sin(x))  
g2 <- function(x) return(sqrt(x^2+1))  
g3 <- function(x) return(2*x+1)  
plot(c(0,1),c(-1,1.5)) # prepare the graph, specifying X and Y ranges  
for (f in c(g1,g2,g3)) plot(f,0,1,add=T) # add plot to existing graph
```



- ▶ You can replace functions using `formals()` and `body()`.

```
g <- function(h,a,b) h(a,b)
body(g) <- quote(2*x + 3)
g
```

```
## function (h, a, b)
## 2 * x + 3
```

```
g(3)
```

```
## [1] 5 3 5
```

Environment and Scope Issues

A function consists not only of its arguments and body but of its *environment*.

The latter is made up of the collection of objects present at the time the function is created.

An understanding of how environments work in R is essential for writing effective R functions.

The Top-Level Environment and The Scope Hierarchy

```
rm(list=ls())  
w <- 12  
f <- function(y) {  
  d <- 8  
  h <- function() {  
    return(d*(w+y))  
  }  
  return(h())  
}  
environment(f)  
  
## <environment: R_GlobalEnv>
```

Note: The function `f()` is created at the *top level*, i.e., at the interpreter command prompt, and thus has the top-level environment, which in R output is referred to as `R_Global` but which confusingly you refer to in R code as `.GlobalEnv`.

Note: The hierarchical nature of scope in `f()` implies that since `w` is global to `f()`, it is global to `h()` as well. Indeed, we do use `w` within `h()`.

Try the following code:

```
> f(2)
```

```
[1] 112
```

```
> d
```

```
Error: object 'd' not found
```

```
> h
```

```
Error: object 'h' not found
```

`h()` is local to `f()` and invisible at the top level.

`ls()`

- ▶ `ls()` lists the objects of an environment.
- ▶ `ls.str()` provides a bit more information.

```
ls()
```

```
## [1] "f" "w"
```

```
ls.str()
```

```
## f : function (y)
```

```
## w :  num 12
```


- ▶ With the `envir` argument, it prints the names of the locals of any frame in the call chain.

```
f <- function(y){ d <- 8; return(h(d,y)) }  
h <- function(dee,yyy){  
  print(ls())  
  print(ls(envir=parent.frame(n=1)))  
  return(dee*(w+yyy))  
} # the argument n specifies how many frames  
  # to go up in the call chain.  
f(2)
```

```
## [1] "dee" "yyy"
```

```
## [1] "d" "y"
```

```
## [1] 112
```

Functions Have (Almost) No Side Effects

- ▶ Functions do not change nonlocal variables, i.e., there are no side effects.
- ▶ The code in a function has read access to its nonlocal variables, but it does not have write access to them.

```
w <- 12
f <- function(y) {
  d <- 8; w <- w + 1; y <- y - 2
  print(w)
  h <- function() return(d*(w+y))
  return(h())
}
```

```
t <- 4  
f(t) # w -> w+1 & d*(w+y) -> d*((w+1)+(y-2))
```

```
## [1] 13
```

```
## [1] 120
```

```
c(w, t)
```

```
## [1] 12 4
```

Note: w at the top level did not change, even though it appeared to change within $f()$. Only a local *copy* of w , within $f()$, changed.

Recursion

A *recursive* function calls itself. A classic example is Quicksort, an algorithm used to sort a vector of numbers from smallest to largest.

```
qs <- function(x) { # sort() (written in C) is much faster  
  if (length(x) <= 1) return(x) # termination condition  
  pivot <- x[1]; therest <- x[-1]  
  sv1 <- therest[therest < pivot]  
  sv2 <- therest[therest >= pivot]  
  sv1 <- qs(sv1); sv2 <- qs(sv2)  
  return(c(sv1,pivot,sv2))  
}  
qs(c(5,4,12,13,3,8,88))
```

```
## [1] 3 4 5 8 12 13 88
```

Replacement Functions

```
x <- c(1,2,4)
names(x) <- c("a","b","ab")
x
```

```
##  a  b ab
##  1  2  4
```

```
y <- "names<-"(x, value=c("a","b","ab"))
y
```

```
##  a  b ab
##  1  2  4
```

Note: The call here is indeed to a function named `names<-()`.

What's Considered a Replacement Function?

- ▶ Any assignment statement in which the left side is not just an identifier (meaning a variable name) is considered a replacement function.

When encountering this:

```
g(u) <- v
```

R will try to execute this:

```
u <- "g<-"(u, value=v)
```

```
x <- c(8, 88, 5, 12, 13)
x[3]
```

```
## [1] 5
```

```
"["(x,3)
```

```
## [1] 5
```

```
y <- "["(x,2:3,value=99:100)
y
```

```
## [1] 8 99 100 12 13
```

Tools for Composing Function Code

Text Editors and Integrated Development Environments

- ▶ You can use a text editor to write your code in a file and then read it into R from the file.
- ▶ `source` function can be used in R.

```
source("your_code.R")
```

Note: If you don't have much code, you can cut and paste from your editor window to your R window.

The `edit()` Function

- ▶ For a small, quick change, the `edit()` function can be handy.
- ▶ It opens the default editor on the code for `f` below, which we could then edit and assign back to `f`.

```
f <- edit(f)
```

Writing Your Own Binary Operations

- ▶ You can invent your own operations.
- ▶ Write a function whose name begins and ends with %, with two arguments of a certain type, and a return value of that type.

```
"%a2b%" <- function(a,b) return(a+2*b)
```

```
3 %a2b% 5
```

```
## [1] 13
```

Anonymous Functions

```
inc <- function(x) return(x+1)
```

- ▶ The functions without the last step (the assignment) are called *anonymous*, since they have no name.
- ▶ Anonymous functions can be convenient if they are short one-liners and are called by another function.

```
z <- matrix(1:6, nrow=3,ncol=2)
f <- function(x) x/c(2,8)
y <- apply(z,1,f)
y
```

```
##      [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]  0.5 1.000 1.50
## [2,]  0.5 0.625 0.75
```

```
y <- apply(z,1,function(x) x/c(2,8))
y
```

```
##      [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,]  0.5 1.000 1.50
## [2,]  0.5 0.625 0.75
```

Reference

- ▶ Matloff, N. [The Art of R Programming: A Tour of Statistical Software Design](#). No Starch Press. Chapter 7.