Data types and functions

Programming for Statistical Science

Shawn Santo

Supplementary materials

Full video lecture available in Zoom Cloud Recordings

Companion videos

- More on atomic vectors
- Generic vectors
- Introduction to functions
- More on functions

Videos were created for STA 323 & 523 - Summer 2020

Additional resources

- Section 3.5 Advanced R
- Section 3.7 Advanced R
- Chapter 6 Advanced R

Recall

Vectors

The fundamental building block of data in R is a vector (collections of related values, objects, other data structures, etc).

R has two types of vectors:

- atomic vectors
 - homogeneous collections of the *same* type (e.g. all logical values, all numbers, or all character strings).
- generic vectors
 - heterogeneous collections of *any* type of R object, even other lists (meaning they can have a hierarchical/tree-like structure).

I will use the term component or element when referring to a value inside a vector.

Atomic vectors

R has six atomic vector types:

logical, integer, double, character, complex, raw

In this course we will mostly work with the first four. You will rarely work with the last two types - complex and raw.

Conditional control flow

Conditional (choice) control flow is governed by if and switch().

```
if (condition) {
    # code to run
    # when condition is
    # TRUE
}
```

```
if (TRUE) {
  print("The condition must have k
}
```

if is not vectorized

To remedy this potential problem of a non-vectorized if, you can

1. try to collapse the logical vector to a vector of length 1

```
o any()
```

- o all()
- 2. use a vectorized conditional function such as ifelse() or dplyr::case when().

Loop types

R supports three types of loops: for, while, and repeat.

```
for (item in vector) {
    ##
    ## Iterate this code
    ##
}
```

```
while (we_have_a_true_condition) {
    ##
    ## Iterate this code
    ##
}
```

```
repeat {
    ##
    ## Iterate this code
    ##
}
```

In the repeat loop we will need a break statement to end iteration.

Concatenation

Atomic vectors can be constructed using the concatenate, c (), function.

```
c(1,2,3)

#> [1] 1 2 3

c("Hello", "World!")

#> [1] "Hello" "World!"

c(1,c(2, c(3)))

#> [1] 1 2 3
```

Atomic vectors are always flat.

More on atomic vectors

Atomic vectors

typeof()	mode()	storage.mode()
logical	logical	logical
double	numeric	double
integer	numeric	integer
character	character	character
complex	complex	complex
raw	raw	raw

- Function typeof() can handle any object
- Functions mode () and storage.mode () allow for assignment

Examples of type and mode

```
typeof(c(T, F, T))
                                         mode(c(T, F, T))
#> [1] "logical"
                                        #> [1] "logical"
typeof(7)
                                         mode(7)
#> [1] "double"
                                        #> [1] "numeric"
typeof(7L)
                                         mode (7L)
#> [1] "integer"
                                        #> [1] "numeric"
typeof("S")
                                         mode ("S")
#> [1] "character"
                                        #> [1] "character"
typeof("Shark")
                                         mode("Shark")
#> [1] "character"
                                        #> [1] "character"
```

Atomic vector type observations

- Numeric means an object of type integer or double.
- Integers must be followed by an L, except if you use operator :.

```
x <- 1:100
y <- as.numeric(1:100)
c(typeof(x), typeof(y))

#> [1] "integer" "double"

object.size(x)
object.size(y)

#> 448 bytes
#> 848 bytes
```

• There is no "string" type or mode, only "character".

Logical predicates

The is.* (x) family of functions performs a logical test as to whether x is of type *. For example,

```
is.integer(T)
                                          is.integer(pi)
#> [1] FALSE
                                         #> [1] FALSE
                                         is.double(pi)
is.double(pi)
#> [1] TRUE
                                         #> [1] TRUE
is.character("abc")
                                         is.integer(1:10)
                                         #> [1] TRUE
#> [1] TRUE
is.numeric(1L)
                                         is.numeric(1)
#> [1] TRUE
                                         #> [1] TRUE
```

Function is .numeric(x) returns TRUE when x is integer or double.

Coercion

Previously, we looked at R's coercion hierarchy:

```
character \rightarrow double \rightarrow integer \rightarrow logical
```

Coercion can happen implicitly through functions and operations; it can occur explicitly via the as.*() family of functions.

Implicit coercion

```
1 & TRUE & 5.0 & pi
x \leftarrow c(T, T, F, F, F)
mean(x)
                                         #> [1] TRUE
#> [1] 0.4
                                          0 == FALSE
c(1L, 1.0, "one")
                                         #> [1] TRUE
#> [1] "1" "1" "one"
                                         (0 | 1) \& 0
0 >= "0"
                                         #> [1] FALSE
#> [1] TRUE
(0 == "0") != "TRUE"
#> [1] FALSE
```

Explicit coercion

```
as.logical(sqrt(2))
                                         as.numeric(FALSE)
                                        #> [1] 0
#> [1] TRUE
as.character(5L)
                                         as.double(10L)
                                        #> [1] 10
#> [1] "5"
as.integer("4")
                                         as.complex(5.4)
#> [1] 4
                                        #> [1] 5.4+0i
as.integer("four")
                                         as.logical(as.character(3))
#> [1] NA
                                        #> [1] NA
```

Reserved words: NA, NaN, Inf, Inf

- NA is a logical constant of length 1 which serves a missing value indicator.
- NaN stands for not a number.
- Inf, -Inf are positive and negative infinity, respectively.

Missing values

• NA can be coerced to any other vector type except raw.

```
typeof(NA)

typeof(NA_character_)

#> [1] "logical"

#> [1] "character"

typeof(NA_real_)

#> [1] "double"

#> [1] "double"

typeof(NA_integer_)

#> [1] "integer"

#> [1] "integer"
```

NA in, NA out (most of the time)

```
x <- c(-4, 0, NA, 33, 1 / 9)
mean(x)

#> [1] NA

NA ^ 4

#> [1] NA

log(NA)

#> [1] NA
```

Some of the base R functions have an argument na.rm to remove NA values in the calculation.

```
mean(x, na.rm = TRUE)

#> [1] 7.277778
```

Special non-infectious NA cases

```
NA ^ 0

#> [1] 1

NA | TRUE

#> [1] TRUE

NA & FALSE

#> [1] FALSE
```

Why does NA / Inf result in NA?

Testing for NA

Use function is.na() (vectorized) to test for NA values.

NaN, Inf, and -Inf

- Functions is.finite() and is.nan() test for Inf, -Inf, and NaN, respectively.
- Coercion is possible with the as.* () family of functions. Be careful with these; they may not always work as you expect.

```
as.integer(Inf)
#> [1] NA
```

Atomic vector properties

- Homogeneous
- Elements can have names
- Elements can be indexed by name or position
- Matrices, arrays, factors, and date-times are built on top of atomic vectors by adding attributes.

```
x <- c(-3:2)
attributes(x)

attributes(x)

attributes(x)

#> NULL

#> $dim
#> [1] 2 3

x

#> [1] 2 3

x

#> [1] 2 3

x
#> [1] -3 -2 -1 0 1 2

#> [1] [2] [3]
#> [1,] -3 -1 1
#> [2,] -2 0 2
```

Exercises

1. What is the type of each vector below? Check your answer in R.

```
c(4L, 16, 0)
c(NaN, NA, -Inf)
c(NA, TRUE, FALSE, "TRUE")
c(pi, NaN, NA)
```

2. Write a conditional statement that prints "Can't proceed NA or NaN present!" if a vector contains NA or NaN. Test your code with vectors x and y below.

```
x <- NA
y <- c(1:5, NaN, NA, sqrt(3))
```

Generic vectors

Lists

Lists are generic vectors, in that they are 1 dimensional (i.e. have a length) and can contain any type of R object. They are heterogeneous structures.

```
list("A", c(TRUE, FALSE), (1:4)/2, function(x) x^2)

#> [[1]]
#> [1] "A"
#>
#> [[2]]
#> [1] TRUE FALSE
#>
#> [[3]]
#> [1] 0.5 1.0 1.5 2.0
#>
#> [[4]]
#> function(x) x^2
```

Structure

For complex objects, function str() will display the structure in a compact form.

```
str(list("A", c(TRUE, FALSE), (1:4)/2, function(x) x^2))

#> List of 4
#> $ : chr "A"

#> $ : logi [1:2] TRUE FALSE
#> $ : num [1:4] 0.5 1 1.5 2
#> $ :function (x)
#> ... attr(*, "srcref") = 'srcref' int [1:8] 1 39 1 53 39 53 1 1
#> ... attr(*, "srcfile") = Classes 'srcfilecopy', 'srcfile' <environment: 0x7</pre>
```

Coercion and testing

Lists can be complex structures and even include other lists.

```
x <- list("a", list("b", c("c", "d"), list(1:5)))
> str(x)
List of 2
$ : chr "a"
$ :List of 3
..$ : chr "b"
..$ : chr [1:2] "c" "d"
..$ :List of 1
...$ : int [1:5] 1 2 3 4 5
```

Coercion and testing

Lists can be complex structures and even include other lists.

```
x <- list("a", list("b", c("c", "d"), list(1:5)))

> str(x)
List of 2
$ : chr "a"
$ :List of 3
..$ : chr "b"
..$ : chr [1:2] "c" "d"
..$ : List of 1
...$ : int [1:5] 1 2 3 4 5
```

Coercion and testing

Lists can be complex structures and even include other lists.

```
x <- list("a", list("b", c("c", "d"), list(1:5)))

> str(x)
List of 2
$ : chr "a"
$ : List of 3
..$ : chr "b"
..$ : chr [1:2] "c" "d"
..$ : List of 1
...$ : int [1:5] 1 2 3 4 5
```

```
typeof(x)
```

```
#> [1] "list"
```

You can test for a list and coerce an object to a list with is.list() and as.list(), respectively.

Flattening

Function unlist() will turn a list into an atomic vector. Keep R's coercion hierarchy in mind if you use this function.

```
y <- list(1:5, pi, c(T, F, T, T))
unlist(y)

#> [1] 1.000000 2.000000 3.000000 4.000000 5.000000 3.141593 1.000000 0.000000
#> [9] 1.000000 1.000000

x <- list("a", list("b", c("c", "d"), list(1:5)))
unlist(x)

#> [1] "a" "b" "c" "d" "1" "2" "3" "4" "5"
```

List properties

- Lists are heterogeneous.
- Lists elements can have names.

```
list(stocks = c("AAPL", "BA", "PFE", "C"),
    eps = c(1.1, .9, 2.3, .54),
    index = c("DJIA", "NASDAQ", "SP500"))
```

```
#> $stocks
#> [1] "AAPL" "BA" "PFE" "C"
#>
#> $eps
#> [1] 1.10 0.90 2.30 0.54
#>
#> $index
#> [1] "DJIA" "NASDAQ" "SP500"
```

- Lists can be indexed by name or position.
- Lists let you extract sublists or a specific object.

Exercise

Create a list based on the JSON product order data below.

```
"id": {
  "oid": "5968dd23fc13ae04d9000001"
},
 "product name": "sildenafil citrate",
"supplier": "Wisozk Inc",
"quantity": 261,
"unit cost": "$10.47"
},
"id": {
  "oid": "5968dd23fc13ae04d9000002"
 "product name": "Mountain Juniperus ashei",
 "supplier": "Keebler-Hilpert",
"quantity": 292,
"unit cost": "$8.74"
```

Functions

Fundamentals

A function is comprised of arguments (formals), body, and environment. The first two will be our main focus as we use and develop these objects.

```
f <- function(x, y, z) {
    # combine words
    paste(x, y, z, sep = " ")
}
f(x = "just", y = "three",
    z = "words")</pre>
```

#> [1] "just three words"

```
formals(f)
#> $x
#>
#>
#> $y
#>
#>
#> $z
body(f)
#> {
#>
     paste(x, y, z, sep = "")
#> }
environment(f)
#> <environment: R GlobalEnv>
```

Exiting

Most functions end by returning a value (implicitly or explicitly) or in error.

Implicit return

```
centers <- function(x) {
  c(mean(x), median(x))
}</pre>
```

Explicit return

```
standardize <- function(x) {
  stopifnot(length(x) > 1)
  x_stand <- (x - mean(x)) / sd(x)
  return(x_stand)
}</pre>
```

R functions can return any object.

Calls

Function calls involve the function's name and, at a minimum, values to its required arguments. Arguments can be given values by

1. position

```
z <- 1:30
mean(z, .3, FALSE)

#> [1] 15.5
```

2. name

```
mean(x = z, trim = .3, na.rm = FALSE)

#> [1] 15.5
```

3. partial name matching

```
mean(x = z, na = FALSE, t = .3)
\#> [1] 15.5
```

Call style

The best choice is

```
mean(z, trim = .3) \#>[1] 15.5
```

Leave the argument's name out for the commonly used (required) arguments, and always specify the argument names for the optional arguments.

Scope

R uses lexical scoping. This provides a lot of flexibility, but it can also be problematic if a user is not careful. Let's see if we can get an idea of the scoping rules.

```
y <- 1
f <- function(x) {
    y <- x ^ 2
    return(y)
}

f(x = 3)
y</pre>
```

What is the result of f(x = 3) and y?

```
y <- 1
z <- 2
f <- function(x) {
  y < -x^{2}
  q <- function() {</pre>
    c(x, y, z)
  } # closes body of g()
  g()
} # closes body of f()
f(x = 3)
C(y, z)
```

What is the result of f(x = 3) and c(y, z)?

R first searches for a value associated with a name in the current environment. If the object is not found the search is widened to the next higher scope.

Lazy evaluation

Arguments to R functions are not evaluated until needed.

```
f <- function(a, b, x) {
  print(a)
  print(b ^ 2)
  0 * x
}
f(5, 6)</pre>
```



```
#> [1] 5
#> [1] 36

#> Error in f(5, 6): argument "x" is missing, with no default
```

Four function forms

Form	Description	Example(s)
Prefix	name comes before arguments	log(x, base = exp(1))
Infix	name between arguments	+, %>%, %/%
Replacement	replace values by assignment	names(x) <- c("a", "b")
Special	all others not defined above	[[, for, break, (

Help

To get help on any function, type ?fcn_name in your console, where fcn_name is the function's name. For infix, replacement, and special functions you will need to surround the function with backticks.



Using function help() is an alternative to?.

Best practices

- Write a function when you have copied code more than twice.
- Try to use a verb for your function's name.
- Keep argument names short but descriptive.
- Add code comments to explain the "why" of your code.
- Link a family of functions with a common prefix: pnorm(), pbinom(), ppois().
- Keep data arguments first, then other required arguments, then followed by default arguments. The . . . argument can be placed last.

To understand computations in R, two slogans are helpful:

- Everything that exists is an object.
- Everything that happens is a function call.

John Chambers

References

- Grolemund, G., & Wickham, H. (2019). R for Data Science. https://r4ds.had.co.nz/
- Wickham, H. (2019). Advanced R. https://adv-r.hadley.nz/