# Data types and functions

# Programming for Statistical Science

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# 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

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