R: Functional Programming

Signal Data Science

So far, you've been using for and while loops in R for iteration. There are, however, benefits to a functional programming approach.

In an iterative style, we *loop* through values and successively manipulate each value, whereas in a functional style we *apply* some function to every value independently. It's easiest to illustrate with an example.

Suppose that I have the following dataframe:

```
> df = data.frame(matrix(1:100, nrow=10))
> df
        X1       X2       X3       X4       X5       X6       X7       X8       X9       X10
1        1       11       21       31       41       51       61       71       81       91
2        2       12       22       32       42       52       62       72       82       92
3        3       13       23       33       43       53       63       73       83       93
4        4       14       24       34       44       54       64       74       84       94
5        5       15       25       35       45       55        65       75       85       95
6        6       16       26       36       46       56       66       76       86       96
7        7       17       27       37       47       57       67       77       87       97
8        8       18       28       38       48       58       68       78       88       98
9        9       19       29       39       49       59       69       79       89       99
10        10       20       30       40       50       60       70       80       90       100
```

Suppose we would like to calculate the mean of each column. One way to do this is to loop through the columns and use mean():

```
> means = c()
> for (i in 1:ncol(df)) {
+    means = c(means, mean(df[[i]]))
+ }
> means
[1] 5.5 15.5 25.5 35.5 45.5 55.5 65.5 75.5 85.5 95.5
```

However, I can do this in a somewhat more compact fashion by using R's sapply()](https://stat.ethz.ch/R-manual/R-devel/library/base/html/lapply.html):

```
> means = sapply(1:ncol(df), function(i) mean(df[[i]]))
> means
```

[1] 5.5 15.5 25.5 35.5 45.5 55.5 65.5 75.5 85.5 95.5

In general, the family of *apply() functions in R all facilitate programming in a functional paradigm.

lapply()

We'll first learn about functional programming by using [lapply()](https://stat.ethz.ch/R-manual/R-devel/library/base/html/lapply.html). The other *apply() functions are mainly extensions of [lapply()](https://stat.ethz.ch/R-manual/R-devel/library/base/html/lapply.html), and we'll cover them later.

A picture is worth a thousand words:

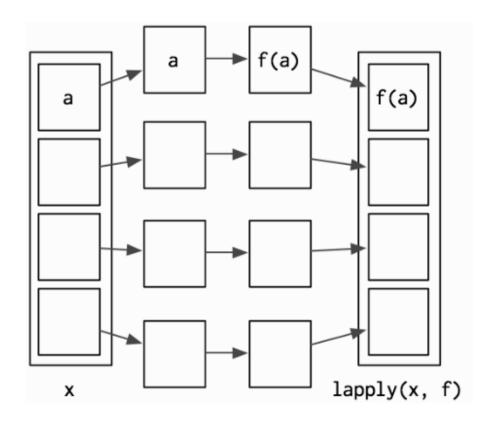


Figure 1: A visual illustration of lapply() from *Advanced R*.

Here's an example of using lapply() to double every number in a vector. Run

the following code:

```
double = function(x) {
   2*x
}
lapply(1:10, double)
```

We first create a function double(x) and then we lapply() the double() function onto the vector 1:10, with the result of each computation returned in a list. In general, when calling lapply(values, func), each element of the vector or list values is supplied as an unnamed first argument to func().

• Why might we want to return the output of lapply() in a *list* by default instead of just unlist()ing the values automatically?¹

We can write this more compactly using an *anonymous function*, which is an unnamed function defined for use in a local context only. This is illustrated in the following code:

```
> lapply(1:10, function(x) 2*x)
[1] 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20
```

If we anticipate that we won't be using a function often enough that it would be worth explicitly defining and naming the function, we can define it within sapply() like we did with function(x) 2*x. (Recall that a function doesn't need an explicit return() statement – it returns the last expression evaluated by default – and that it only needs curly braces if the body of the function has multiple expressions.)

- Write a function using <code>lapply()</code> and <code>class()</code> to print out the class of each column in the built-in <code>mtcars</code> dataset. Run <code>unlist()</code> at the end so it prints in a more human-readable format. (*Hint:* Remember that data frames are built on top of lists.)
- Write a function using lapply() to standardize each column of mtcars by (1) subtracting off its mean and (2) dividing it by its standard deviation (given by sd()). Be sure to check that your function returns a data frame.
- Write a function using lapply() that standardizes every numeric column
 of an input data frame and leaves the others unchanged. Test your
 function on the dataframe defined by df = data.frame(matrix(1:100,
 nrow=10)); df[1:5] = lapply(df[1:5], as.character) (understand what this code is doing as well).
- Implement a basic version of lapply(args, func) without using any other *apply() functions. Don't worry about complicated functionality like passing in named arguments (discussed below). Make sure to improve runtime by preallocating the needed space.

 $^{^1}$ Functions in R don't have a return type, so we don't know in advance what they'll return. Although double() only returns numerics, that isn't always the case, so it's best to return results in a list(), which allows for multiple types in its entries.

Looping patterns

We'll pause for a moment to discuss, at a higher level, the operation of looping. In general, there are three main ways to loop through a list-based data structure:

- 1. Looping through the elements: for (col in df)
- Looping through the indices: for (i in 1:length(df))
- 3. Looping through the names: for (n in names(df))

(Remember that a data frame is just a list, so the first loop iterates through each column individually and the second loop iterates from 1 to the number of columns in df.)

• Write a function that takes a data frame as input and modifies each column to be equal to itself minus the *previous* column, with the first column remaining unchanged. Test your function on df = data.frame(matrix(1:100, nrow=10)) – aside from 9 entries in the first column, every entry should be equal to 10.

The first form of iteration is the simplest, but you don't get the name or index of each item, just the item itself. The second and the third are more complex, but provide you with more information, so keep them in mind – they may be helpful for more complex problems.

vapply() and sapply()

lapply() is the most basic of the *apply() functions, but there are more. Here's
a brief description of two more functions to give you a sense for the overall
landscape:

- 1. lapply() maps a function onto a list and *returns a list*. (Listed here for comparison purposes.)
- vapply() is an extension of lapply() that maps a function onto a list and returns an atomic vector. It takes an additional argument specifying the type and length of each element of the return vector, throwing an error if they don't match.
- sapply() is an extension of lapply() which will unlist() the results. If appropriate, it will also assign dimensions to the output, turning it into a matrix.

It's dangerous to use sapply() when writing functions you'll use elsewhere, because you won't know if your output is an unexpected type or has an unexpected length until your program exhibits strange behavior elsewhere. It's better to use vapply(), which throws an error when the output isn't of the specified type and length and enforces type consistency in various edge cases.

However, it's fine to use sapply() when working interactively in the console, where you'll be able to visually notice any strange behavior.

Passing in named arguments

If you have sapply(df, func) and want to pass in named arguments to every call of func(), you can do so by passing in named arguments into sapply() directly, e.g., sapply(df, func, param=TRUE) will call func(c, param=TRUE) for every column c of df.

Suppose that we define the multiply() function as follows:

```
multiply = function(x, k=2) {
   k*x
}
```

Without being able to pass in named arguments as described above, if we wanted to call multiply() with k=5, we would have to do something ugly with anonymous functions:

```
> sapply(1:10, function(x) multiply(x, k=5))
[1] 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50
```

However, passing in the named arguments to sapply() directly is much easier:

```
> sapply(1:10, multiply)
[1] 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20
> sapply(1:10, multiply, k=3)
[1] 3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24 27 30
> sapply(1:10, multiply, k=10)
[1] 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
```

Write a function using sapply() to find the mean of every vector in a list
of numeric vectors, ignoring NA values. Test your function on the list L =
lapply(1:5, function(x) sample(c(1:4, NA))).

The same syntax works for lapply(). For vapply(), the named arguments go after the example return value.

Why use *apply() instead of loops?

 Write a function that takes a data frame as input and returns it with its column names modified, where the name of the nth column has "_n" appended to the end.

At times, the usage of loops is inevitable and the most natural way to program something. Don't get caught up in trying to code something functionally if a

loop seems intuitive. In particular, these three use cases are more suitable for loops than for functional programming:

- 1. Modifying a data structure in place (changing it without making a new copy).
 - This is because you have to use the <<- operator to modify the object while situated in the scope of a function call.
- 2. Recursive functionality, which is self-dependent, contrary to the isolated nature of each function call when using *apply().²
- 3. While loops, because you don't know in advance how many times the loop will iterate.

Moreover, people will sometimes say say that you should use the *apply() functions instead of loops because loops are slow. This is not true.

As we saw earlier with the *n*-dominoes problem, loops can be sped up significantly by *preallocating memory* for the data structures which you access. In general, loops can be made approximately as fast as writing equivalent code for a function to be used with *apply() if you follow these guidelines³:

- 1. Initialize new objects to full length before the loop, rather than increasing their size within the loop.
 - Every time you increase the size of an object within a loop, you actually *copy the whole structure over to a different part of memory* every single time.
- 2. Do not do things in a loop that can be done outside the loop.

Given that loops don't actually have performance issues in R, why should we use *apply() functions at all? For these two reasons:⁴

- 1. Using the *apply() functions can make it clearer what you're doing.
 - The notion of applying the same function to every element of a list is in general very intuitive. Code clarity is important, both for yourself and for others.
- 2. The *apply() functions have no unwanted side effects.
 - That is to say, their functionality is *isolated* from the rest of your code, so it's harder for you to make accidental modifications to variables you've defined elsewhere.⁵

²Recurrence relations can sometimes be "solved" in a sense and transformed into a nonrecursive form that's potentially amenable to functional programming, but this is difficult.

³From a 2008 issue of R News.

⁴See the answers to Is R's apply family more than syntactic sugar, including the comments on the first one.

⁵Two caveats are that this isn't true if you use assign() or the <<- operator, which are seldom used and only show up in very specific situations.

 Also, when calling, say, sapply(args, func), each call of func() is completely independent of the other ones. This allows them to easily be dispatched to different processor cores.⁶

Supplemental exercises

- Go back to your old code for various R exercises. Find five functions which
 could be written more easily or clearly using functional programming (e.g.,
 using the *apply() functions instead of a for loop) and rewrite them.
 Check the difference in runtime.
- If you remember writing any R code in the past for exercises where you
 kept adding values to a vector or list on every iteration of a loop, rewrite
 the code here using a preallocated data structure (if possible). Check the
 difference in runtime using the timeit package.
- Return to these two exercises from the first day's assignments:
 - Calculate the sums $\sum_{i=10}^{100} \left(i^3+4i^2\right)$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{25} \left(\frac{2^i}{i}+\frac{3^i}{i^2}\right)$ using the sum() function.
 - Create a vector of the values of $e^x \cos(x)$ at x = 3,3.1,3.2,...,6.

Answer them again using the *apply() functions.

Return to the exercise yesterday about expanding factors into binary indicator variables and rewrite your function using the *apply() functions. You can assume that your data frame contains only factors, because with a more general dataframe you can simply extract the column factors only and operate on those.

More complex functions

Now that we've covered the basics, we'll start to consider some more complex, lesser-used functions.

apply()

Calling apply(mat, dims, func) will preserve the dimensions specified in dims and collapse the rest of the dimensions to single values using func() for

⁶Multi-core processing packages for R implement parallelization by overwriting the built-in *apply() functions with their own versions. As such, liberal usage of *apply() in your code means that you'll be able to easily parallelize it without much rewriting.

every combination of the values taken on by the dimensions of dism.

For example, we can take row means of a matrix like so:

Since we passed in a dimension of 1 to apply(), for every value of the 1st dimension (*i.e.*, for every row number) all the data corresponding to that value (*i.e.*, each row) was passed in to mean(). As such, we end up taking the row means of the matrix.

• What will happen when we call apply(m, c(1, 2), mean)? Predict an answer before running the code.

apply() is mostly useful for running functions over every row of a data frame.

Map()

We'll begin this section with a discussion of mapply(), upon which Map() is built.

mapply() applies a function (which accepts multiple parameters) over multiple vectors of arguments, calling the function on the first element of each list, then the second elements, and so on and so forth. Precisely, it accepts as input a function func and N equivalently-sized lists of arguments args1, ..., argsN, each of length k. It returns as output a list containing func(args1[1], ..., argsN[1]), func(arg1[2], ..., argsN[2]), ..., func(args1[k], ..., argsN[k]).

Intuitively, you can think of mapply() as walking down multiple parallel vectors of arguments, applying the function to each row in turn and returning the results. Alternatively, you can also think of lapply() as being a stunted version of Map() which can only iterate over one vector of arguments instead of arbitrarily many.

Map() is a wrapper for mapply() that calls it with the parameter simplify=FALSE. This is usually good, because the simplify=TRUE default can result in odd, unexpected behavior.

- Using Map(), write a function that takes two lists of equal size, values and weights, and applies weighted.mean() to calculate the mean of each vector in values weighted by the corresponding weights in weights. Test your function on the inputs values = lapply(1:10, function(x) rnorm(10)); weights = lapply(1:10, function(x) rnorm(10)). Return the output as a vector.
- Modify your previous function for applying weighted.mean() over a list of vectors so that the mean of vectors containing NAs ignores them.

Reduce()

Reduce(func, vec) calls func() on the first two elements of vec, and then calls func() on the output and the third element of vec, and so on and so forth. That is, Reduce(f, 1:4) is equivalent to f(f(f(1, 2), 3), 4).

- Implement your own version of sum() using Reduce() and addition. (*Hint*: "+" counts as a function.)
- Write my_union(L) and my_intersect(L) functions using Reduce() and set operations (see ?sets) that take lists of arbitrarily many vectors and calculates, respectively, the union or intersection of all of them.
- There are functions which, when passed into Reduce(), give a different
 overall result depending on whether Reduce() starts with the two leftmost or the two rightmost elements of the vector it's operating on. Write a
 function that runs Reduce() in both directions and, if the two results are
 the same, returns the result, and returns NA otherwise.
- Implement your own version of Reduce() with all the basic functionality.

Filter(), Find(), and Position()

All three of these functions accept a function func() as their first argument and a vector or list vals as their second argument, with the restriction that func() must return only TRUE or FALSE when applied to the entries of vals.

- 1. Filter() returns the elements in vals for which func() returns TRUE when evaluated on each of those elements.
- 2. Find() returns the first element in vals for which func() returns TRUE when evaluated on that element.
- 3. Position() returns the position of the first element in vals for which func() returns TRUE when evaluated on that element.

Both Find() and Position() search from the left by default, but they can search starting from the right with the parameter right=TRUE.

• Implement Any(), a function that takes a list and a predicate function (a function returning either TRUE or FALSE), and returns TRUE if the predicate function returns TRUE for any of the inputs. Implement All() similarly.⁷

 $^{^7}$ *Hint:* The logical operators "|" and "&" can be passed into Reduce().