Error checking, functions, and loops

Lecture 03

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Error Checking

stop and stopifnot

Often we want to validate user input, function arguments, or other assumptions in our code - if our assumptions are not met then we often want to report/throw an error and stop execution.

```
1  ok = FALSE

1  if (!ok)
2   stop("Things are not ok.")

Error in eval(expr, envir, enclos): Things are not ok.

1  stopifnot(ok)

Error: ok is not TRUE
```

Style choices

Do stuff:

```
1 if (condition_one) {
2
3  ## Do stuff
4
5 } else if (condition_two) {
6
7  ## Do other stuff
8
9 } else if (condition_error) {
10  stop("Condition error occured")
11 }
```

Do stuff (better):

```
1 # Do stuff better
 2 if (condition error) {
     stop("Condition error occured")
 4
   }
 5
   if (condition one) {
    ## Do stuff
 9
   } else if (condition two) {
11
12
     ## Do other stuff
13
14 }
```

Exercise 1

Write a set of conditional(s) that satisfies the following requirements,

- If x is greater than 3 and y is less than or equal to 3 then print "Hello world!"
- Otherwise if x is greater than 3 print "!dlrow olleH"
- If x is less than or equal to 3 then print "Something else ..."
- stop() execution if x is odd and y is even and report an error, don't print any of the text strings above.

Test out your code by trying various values of x and y.

Why errors?

R has a spectrum of output that can be provided to users,

- Printed output (i.e. cat(), print())
- Diagnostic messages (i.e. message())
- Warnings (i.e. warning())
- Errors (i.e. stop(), stopifnot())

Each of these provides outputs while also providing signals which can be interacted with programmatically (e.g. catching errors or treating warnings as errors).

Functions

What is a function

Functions are abstractions in programming languages that allow us to modularize our code into small "self contained" units.

In general the goals of writing functions is to,

- Simplify a complex process or task into smaller sub-steps
- Allow for the reuse of code without duplication
- Improve the readability of your code
- Improve the maintainability of your code

Function Parts

Functions are defined by *two* components: the arguments (formals) and the code (body).

Functions are 1st order objects in R and have a mode of function. They are assigned names like other objects using = or <-.

```
1 gcd = function(x1, y1, x2 = 0, y2 = 0) {
2   R = 6371 # Earth mean radius in km
3
4   # distance in km
5   acos(sin(y1)*sin(y2) + cos(y1)*cos(y2) * cos(x2-x1)) * R
6 }
```

Accessing function elements

```
1 str( formals(gcd) )

Dotted pair list of 4
  $ x1: symbol
  $ y1: symbol
  $ x2: num 0
  $ y2: num 0
```

```
1 body(gcd)

{
    R = 6371
    acos(sin(y1) * sin(y2) + cos(y1) *
    cos(y2) * cos(x2 - x1)) *
        R
}
```

Return values

As with most other languages, functions are most often used to process inputs and return a value as output. There are two approaches to returning values from functions in R - explicit and implicit returns.

Explicit - using one or more return function calls

```
1 f = function(x) {
2   return(x * x)
3 }
4 f(2)
```

[1] 4

Implicit - return value of the last expression is returned.

```
1 g = function(x) {
2    x * x
3 }
4 g(3)
```

[1] 9

Invisible returns

Many functions in R make use of an invisible return value

```
1  f = function(x) {
2   print(x)
3  }
4
5  y = f(1)
```

```
1 g = function(x) {
2  invisible(x)
3 }
```

```
1 g(2)
```

```
[1] 1

1 y

[1] 1
```

```
1 \quad z = g(2)
2 \quad z
```

[1] 2

Returning multiple values

If we want a function to return more than one value we can group results using atomic vectors or lists.

```
1 f = function(x) {
2   c(x, x^2, x^3)
3 }
4
5 f(1:2)
```

```
1 g = function(x) {
2   list(x, "hello")
3 }
4
5 g(1:2)
```

```
[1] 1 2 1 4 1 8
```

```
[[1]]
[1] 1 2
[[2]]
[1] "hello"
```

More on lists next time

Argument names

When defining a function we explicitly define names for the arguments, which become variables within the scope of the function.

When calling a function we can use these names to pass arguments in an alternative order.

```
1 f = function(x, y, z)  {
 2 paste0("x=", x, " y=", y, " z=", z)
 3 }
 1 f(1, 2, 3)
                                             1 f(y=2, 1, 3)
[1] "x=1 y=2 z=3"
                                           [1] "x=1 y=2 z=3"
 1 f(z=1, x=2, y=3)
                                             1 f(y=2, 1, x=3)
[1] "x=2 y=3 z=1"
                                           [1] "x=3 y=2 z=1"
 1 f(1, 2, 3, 4)
                                             1 f(1, 2, m=3)
Error in f(1, 2, 3, 4): unused
                                           Error in f(1, 2, m = 3): unused
argument (4)
                                           argument (m = 3)
                                   Sta 523 - Fall 2023
```

Argument defaults

It is also possible to give function arguments default values, so that they don't need to be provided every time the function is called.

```
1 f = function(x, y=1, z=1) {
   paste0("x=", x, " y=", y, " z=", z)
 3 }
 1 f(3)
                                             1 f(z=3, x=2)
[1] "x=3 y=1 z=1"
                                           [1] "x=2 y=1 z=3"
 1 \quad f(x=3)
                                             1 f(y=2, 2)
[1] "x=3 y=1 z=1"
                                           [1] "x=2 y=2 z=1"
 1 f()
```

Error in f(): argument "x" is missing, with no default

Scope

R has generous scoping rules, if it can't find a variable in the current scope (e.g. a function's body) it will look for it in the next higher scope, and so on until it runs out of environments or an object with that name is found.

```
1  y = 1
2
3  f = function(x) {
4   x + y
5  }
6
7  f(3)
```

```
[1] 4
```

```
1  y = 1
2
3  g = function(x) {
4   y = 2
5   x + y
6  }
7
8  g(3)
```

```
[1] 5

1 y

[1] 1
```

Scope persistance

Additionally, variables defined within a scope only persist for the duration of that scope, and do not overwrite variables at higher scope(s).

```
1 x = 1
 2 y = 1
 3 z = 1
   f = function() {
    y = 2
    g = function() {
         z = 3
         return(x + y + z)
10
11
       return(g())
12 }
```

```
1 f()
[1] 6

1 c(x,y,z)

[1] 1 1 1
```

Exercise 2 - scope

What is the output of the following code? Explain why.

```
1 z = 1
 3 f = function(x, y, z) {
     z = x+y
    g = function(m = x, n = y) {
    m/z + n/z
9
10
   z * g()
11
12
13 f(1, 2, x = 3)
```

Lazy evaluation

Another interesting / unique feature of R is that function arguments are lazily evaluated, which means they are only evaluated when needed.

```
1 f = function(x) {
                                              g = function(x) {
     TRUE
                                                 X
 3
   }
                                                 TRUE
                                            4 }
 1 f(1)
                                            1 g(1)
[1] TRUE
                                           [1] TRUE
 1 f(stop("Error"))
                                            1 g(stop("Error"))
                                          Error in g(stop("Error")): Error
[1] TRUE
```

More practical lazy evaluation

The previous example is not particularly useful, a more common use for this lazy evaluation is that this enables us define arguments as expressions of other arguments.

```
1  f = function(x, y=x+1, z=1) {
2    x = x + z
3    y
4  }
5
6  f(x=1)
```

```
[1] 3

1 f(x=1, z=2)

[1] 4
```

Operators as functions

In R, operators are actually a special type of function - using backticks around the operator we can write them as functions.

```
1 \+\
function (e1, e2) .Primitive("+")
 1 typeof(`+`)
[1] "builtin"
 1 x = 4:1
 2 x + 2
[1] 6 5 4 3
 1 + (x, 2)
[1] 6 5 4 3
```

Getting Help

Prefixing any function name with a ? will open the related help file for that function.

```
1 ?`+`
2 ?sum
```

For functions not in the base package, you can generally see their implementation by entering the function name without parentheses (or using the body function).

Less Helpful Examples

```
function (...) .Primitive("list")

1 `[`
.Primitive("[")

1 sum

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

1 `+`

function (e1, e2) .Primitive("+")
```

Loops

for loops

There are the most common type of loop in R - given a vector it iterates through the elements and evaluate the code expression for each value.

```
1 is_even = function(x) {
2    res = c()
3
4    for(val in x) {
5       res = c(res, val %% 2 == 0)
6    }
7
8    res
9  }
10
11 is_even(1:10)
```

[1] FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE

```
1 is_even(seq(1,5,2))
```

[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE

while loops

This loop repeats evaluation of the code expression until the condition is **not** met (i.e. evaluates to FALSE)

```
1 make seq = function(from = 1, to = 1, by = 1) {
     res = c(from)
     cur = from
 4
     while(cur+by <= to) {</pre>
 5
     cur = cur + by
 6
      res = c(res, cur)
 8
 9
10
     res
11 }
12
13 make_seq(1, 6)
```

```
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6

1 make_seq(1, 6, 2)

[1] 1 3 5
```

repeat loops

Equivalent to a while (TRUE) {} loop, it repeats until a break statement is encountered

```
1 make seq2 = function(from = 1, to = 1, by = 1) {
     res = c(from)
 3
     cur = from
 4
 5
     repeat {
       cur = cur + by
 6
       if (cur > to)
        break
 9
       res = c(res, cur)
10
11
12
     res
13 }
14
15 make_seq2(1, 6)
```

```
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6
```

```
1 make_seq2(1, 6, 2)
Sta 523 - Fall 2023
```

Special keywords - break and next

These are special actions that only work *inside* of a loop

- break ends the current **loop** (inner-most)
- next ends the current iteration

```
1  f = function(x) {
2   res = c()
3   for(i in x) {
4     if (i %% 2 == 0)
5      break
6   res = c(res, i)
7   }
8   res
9  }
10  f(1:10)
```

```
1  g = function(x) {
2   res = c()
3   for(i in x) {
4     if (i %% 2 == 0)
5         next
6     res = c(res,i)
7   }
8   res
9  }
10  g(1:10)
```

```
[1] 1

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

[1] 1 1 1
```

```
[1] 1 3 5 7 9

1 g(c(1,1,1,2,2,3))
```

[1] 1 1 1 3

Some helpful functions

Often we want to use a loop across the indexes of an object and not the elements themselves. There are several useful functions to help you do this: :, length, seq, seq_along, seq_len, etc.

```
      1 4:7
      1 seq_along(4:7)

      [1] 4 5 6 7
      [1] 1 2 3 4

      1 length(4:7)
      1 seq_len(length(4:7))

      [1] 4
      [1] 1 2 3 4

      1 seq(4,7)
      1 seq(4,7,by=2)

      [1] 4 5 6 7
      [1] 4 6
```

Sta 523 - Fall 2023 32

Avoid using 1:length(x)

[1] 0

A common loop construction you'll see in a lot of R code is using 1: length(x) to generate a vector of index values for the vector x.

```
1 f = function(x) {
                                             1 g = function(x) {
                                                 for(i in seq_along(x)) {
      for(i in 1:length(x)) {
        print(i)
                                                   print(i)
 5
   f(2:1)
                                            7 g(2:1)
[1] 1
                                           [1] 1
[1] 2
                                           [1] 2
 1 f(2)
                                            1 g(2)
[1] 1
                                           [1] 1
 1 f(integer())
                                            1 g(integer())
[1]
```

What was the problem?

```
1 length(integer())
[1] 0
1 l:length(integer())

[1] 1 0
1 seq_along(integer())

integer(0)
```

Exercise 3

Below is a vector containing all prime numbers between 2 and 100:

```
1 primes = c(2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41,
2     43, 47, 53, 59, 61, 67, 71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97)
```

If you were given the vector x = c(3,4,12,19,23,51,61,63,78), write the R code necessary to print only the values of x that are *not* prime (without using subsetting or the in% operator).

Your code should use *nested* loops to iterate through the vector of primes and x.