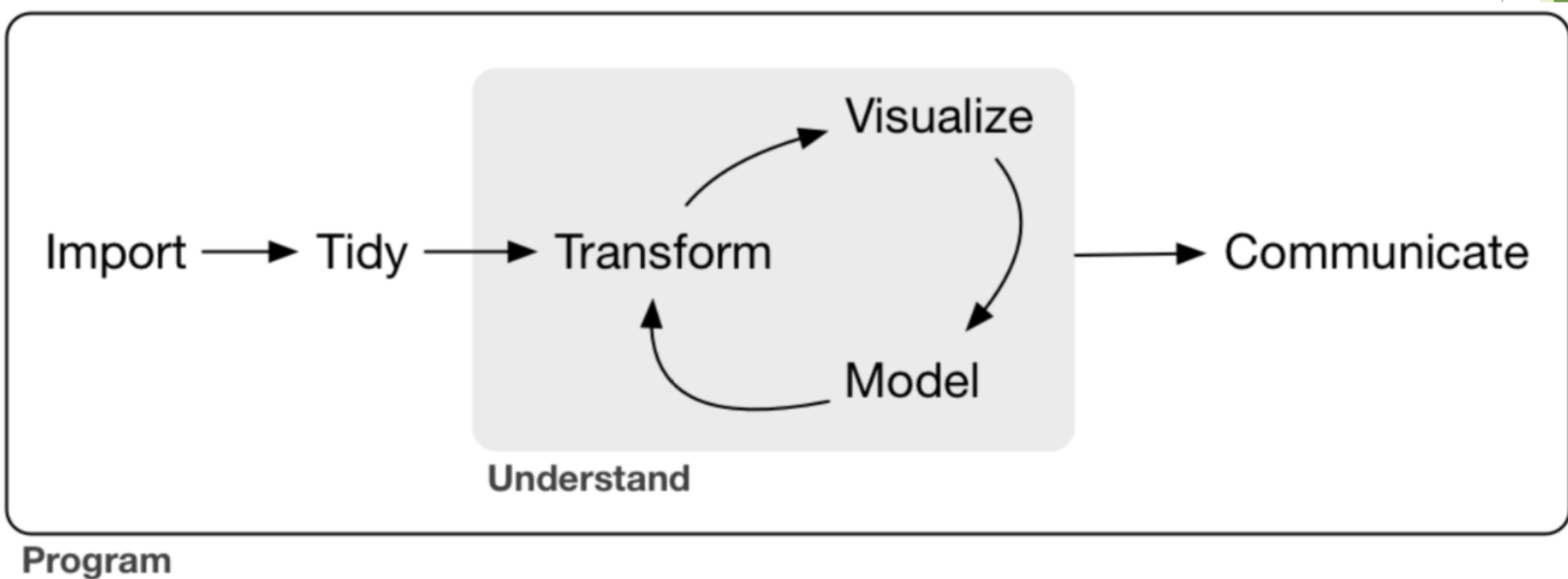


The background features a large, light blue 'R' logo on the left, partially obscured by the title text. The right side of the slide is decorated with a complex pattern of overlapping green triangles and polygons in various shades, creating a modern, abstract look. The title 'Programming in R' is centered in a dark green, serif font.

Programming in R

Elmer C. Peramo

Typical Data Processing Workflow in R



Demo

R Objects and Data Types

► R has 5 basic or “atomic” classes of objects:

- Character
- Numeric (Real Numbers)
- Integer
- Complex
- Boolean

► R has 4 data types:

- Vector
- List
- Matrix
- Data Frame

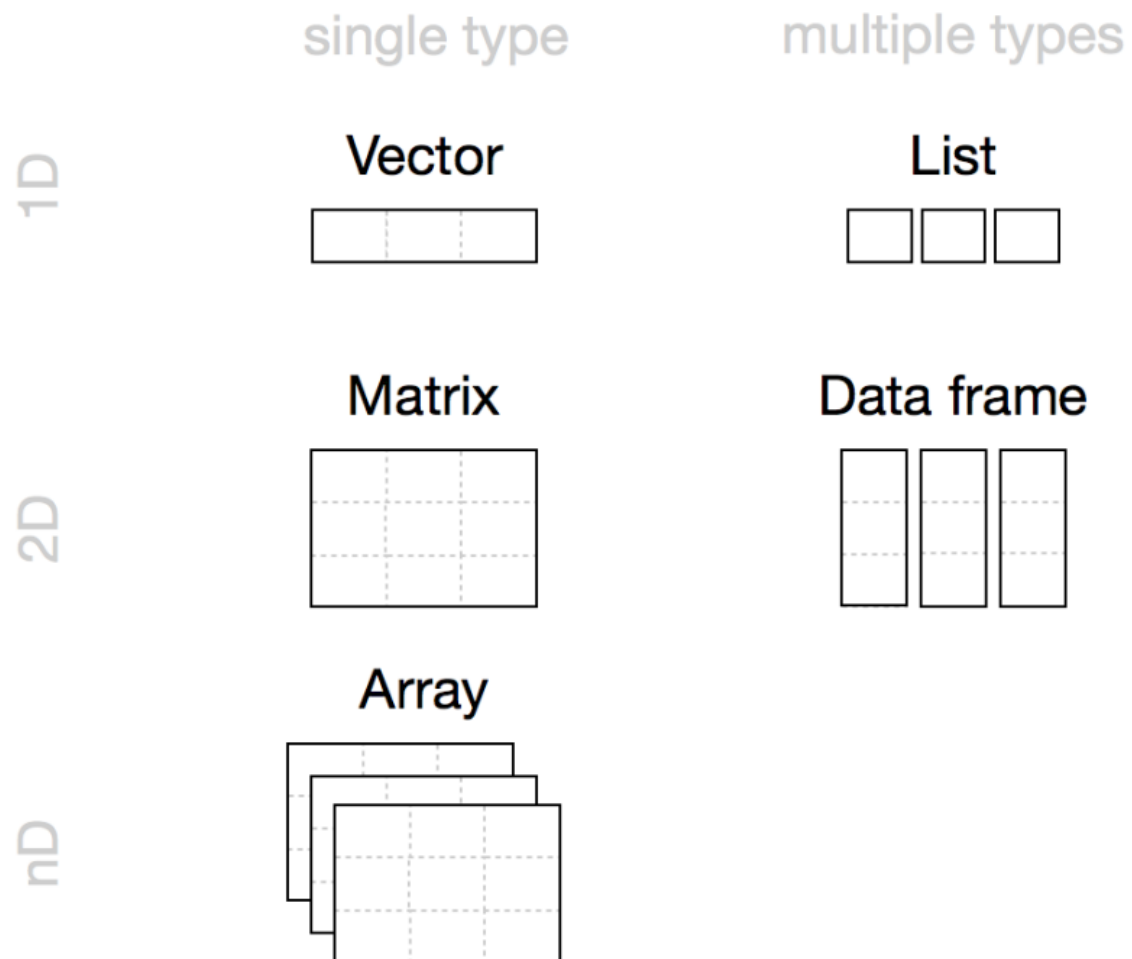
A **vector** can only contain objects of the same class.

A **list** can represent different classes.

A **matrix** is a two-dimensional vector.

A **data frame** is a two-dimensional list.

R Objects and Data Types



Naming R Objects

- You can name an object in R almost anything you want, but there are a few rules. First, a name cannot start with a number. Second, a name cannot use some special symbols, like ^, !, \$, @, +, -, /, or *:

Good names	Names that cause errors
a	1trial
b	\$
F00	^mean
my_var	2nd
.day	!bad

Numbers

- ▶ Numbers in R are generally treated as numeric objects (i.e., double precision real numbers). Append the L suffix if you want an integer. For example, entering 3 gives you a numeric object; entering 3L gives you an integer.
- ▶ There is also a special number `Inf` which represents infinity; e.g., $1/0$; `Inf` can be used in ordinary calculations; e.g., $1 / \text{Inf} = 0$
- ▶ The value `NaN` represents an undefined value (“not a number”); e.g., $0/0$; `NaN` can also be thought of as a missing value.

Mathematical Operators

► Arithmetic Operators

Operator	Description
+	addition
-	subtraction
*	multiplication
/	division
^ or **	exponentiation
x %% y	modulus (x mod y) 5%%2 is 1
x %/% y	integer division 5%/%2 is 2

► Logical Operators

Operator	Description
<	less than
<=	less than or equal to
>	greater than
>=	greater than or equal to
==	exactly equal to
!=	not equal to
!x	Not x
x y	x OR y
x & y	x AND y
isTRUE(x)	test if X is TRUE

Creating Vectors

- ▶ The `c()` function can be used to create vectors of object.

```
> x <- c(0.5, 0.6)      ## numeric
> x <- c(TRUE, FALSE)   ## logical
> x <- c(T, F)          ## logical
> x <- c("a", "b", "c") ## character
> x <- 9:29              ## integer
> x <- c(1+0i, 2+4i)     ## complex
```

- ▶ Using the `vector()` function

```
> x <- vector("numeric", length = 10)
> x
[1] 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
```

Mixing Objects and Explicit Coercion

- There are occasions when different classes of R objects get mixed together. Sometimes this happens by accident; it can also be done on purpose.

```
> y <- c(1.7, "a")    ## character
> y <- c(TRUE, 2)     ## numeric
> y <- c("a", TRUE)   ## character
```

- Objects can be explicitly coerced from one class to another using the `as.*` functions.

```
> x <- 0:6
> class(x)
[1] "integer"
> as.numeric(x)
[1] 0 1 2 3 4 5 6
> as.logical(x)
[1] FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE
> as.character(x)
[1] "0" "1" "2" "3" "4" "5" "6"
```

Lists

- List can be explicitly created using the `list()` function

```
> x <- list(1, "a", TRUE, 1 + 4i)
```

```
> x
```

```
[[1]]
```

```
[1] 1
```

```
[[2]]
```

```
[1] "a"
```

```
[[3]]
```

```
[1] TRUE
```

- An empty list with a prespecified length can be created using the `vector()` function.

```
> x <- vector("list", length = 5)
```

```
> x
```

```
[[1]]
```

```
NULL
```

Matrices

- Matrices are vectors with a *dimension* attribute. The dimension attribute is itself an integer vector of length 2 (nrow,ncol)

```
> m <- matrix(nrow = 2, ncol = 3)
```

```
> m
```

```
      [,1] [,2] [,3]  
[1,]   NA   NA   NA  
[2,]   NA   NA   NA
```

```
> dim(m)
```

```
[1] 2 3
```

```
> attributes(m)
```

```
$dim
```

```
[1] 2 3
```

Matrices

- Matrices are constructed column-wise

```
> m <- matrix(1:6, nrow = 2, ncol = 3)
```

```
> m
```

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

Matrices

- Matrices can also be created directly from vectors by adding a dimension attribute.

```
> m <- 1:10
> m
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
> dim(m) <- c(2, 5)
> m
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
[1,]    1    3    5    7    9
[2,]    2    4    6    8   10
```

Matrices

- ▶ Matrices can be created by column-binding or row-binding with the `cbind()` and `rbind()` functions.

```
> x <- 1:3
```

```
> y <- 10:12
```

```
> cbind(x, y)
```

	x	y
[1,]	1	10
[2,]	2	11
[3,]	3	12

```
> rbind(x, y)
```

	[,1]	[,2]	[,3]
x	1	2	3
y	10	11	12

Missing Values

- ▶ Missing values are denoted by `NA` or `NaN` for undefined mathematical operations.
 - ▶ `is.na()` is used to test objects if they are `NA`.
 - ▶ `is.nan()` is used to test for `NaN`.
 - ▶ `NA` values have a class also, so there are integer `NA`, character `NA`, etc.
 - ▶ A `NaN` value is also `NA` but the converse is not true.

Missing Values

```
> ## Create a vector with NAs in it
> x <- c(1, 2, NA, 10, 3)
> ## Return a logical vector indicating which elements are NA
> is.na(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE
> ## Return a logical vector indicating which elements are NaN
> is.nan(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE

> ## Now create a vector with both NA and NaN values
> x <- c(1, 2, NaN, NA, 4)
> is.na(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE FALSE
> is.nan(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE
```

Data Frames

- ▶ Data frames are used to store tabular data.
- ▶ They are represented as a special type of list where every element of the list has to have the same length.
- ▶ Each element of the list can be thought of as a column and the length of each of the list is the number of rows.
- ▶ Unlike matrices, data frames can store different classes of objects in each column.
- ▶ Data frames also have a special attribute called `row.names`
- ▶ Data frames are usually created by calling `read.table()` or `read.csv()`
- ▶ Can be converted to a matrix by calling `data.matrix()`

Data Frames

```
> x <- data.frame(foo = 1:4, bar = c(T, T, F, F))
> x
  foo bar
1   1 TRUE
2   2 TRUE
3   3 FALSE
4   4 FALSE
> nrow(x)
[1] 4
> ncol(x)
[1] 2
```

Getting Help

- ▶ If you want to know something about an R command or a function, just type ‘?’ followed by the name of the function. You can also type `help` (“name of the function”) on the console.

Console ~/ ➔

```
> ?dget  
> help("read.csv")  
> ?write.table
```

- ▶ It is also helpful to use the `example()` function

read.table {utils}

R Documentation

Data Input

Description

Reads a file in table format and creates a data frame from it, with cases corresponding to lines and variables to fields in the file.

Usage

```
read.table(file, header = FALSE, sep = ",", quote = "\"",  
           dec = ".", numerals = c("allow.loss", "warn.loss", "no.loss"),  
           row.names, col.names, as.is = !stringsAsFactors,  
           na.strings = "NA", colClasses = NA, nrows = -1,  
           skip = 0, check.names = TRUE, fill = !blank.lines.skip,  
           strip.white = FALSE, blank.lines.skip = TRUE,  
           comment.char = "#",  
           allowEscapes = FALSE, flush = FALSE,  
           stringsAsFactors = default.stringsAsFactors(),  
           fileEncoding = "", encoding = "unknown", text, skipNul = FALSE)
```

```
read.csv(file, header = TRUE, sep = ",", quote = "\"",  
         dec = ".", fill = TRUE, comment.char = "", ...)
```

Reading Lines of a Text File

- `readLines` can be useful for reading in lines of web pages.

```
> con <- url("http://www.uap.asia", "r")
> x <- readLines(con)
> head(x)
[1] "<!DOCTYPE html>"
[2] "<html lang=\"en-US\">"
[3] "<head itemscope itemtype=\"https://schema.org/WebSite\">"
[4] "<meta charset=\"UTF-8\" />"
[5] "<title>UA&P – Where Dragons Live</title><meta name=\"des"
[6] "\t\t<meta name=\"robots\" content=\"noodp,noydir\" />"
```

Reading and Writing Lines of Text

```
> ## Open connection to gz-compressed text file
> con <- gzfile("words.gz")
> x <- readLines(con, 10)
> x
[1] "1080"      "10-point" "10th"      "11-point" "12-point" "16-point"
[7] "18-point" "1st"      "2"         "20-point"
```

- ▶ `writeLines` takes a character vector and writes each element one line at a time to a text file.

Getting to Know Your Dataset

- ▶ After reading in a dataset, here are some common functions to run:
 - ▶ `head()`, `tail()` shows the first or the last six values
 - ▶ `summary()` shows result summaries of the data
 - ▶ `str()` displays the structure of the data frame
 - ▶ `names()` displays the column names of a data frame
 - ▶ `nrow()` shows the number of rows or observations
 - ▶ `ncol()` shows the number of columns or observations
 - ▶ `sum()` returns the sum of the arguments
 - ▶ `min()`, `max()` - lowest and highest values
 - ▶ `mean()`, `sd()` - average and standard deviation

Subsetting

- ▶ There are a number of operators that can be used to extract subsets of R objects.
- ▶ `[]` always returns an object of the same class as the original; can be used to select more than one element
- ▶ `[[` is used to extract elements of a list or a data frame; it can only be used to extract a single element and a class of the returned object will not necessarily be a list or data frame.
- ▶ `$` is used to extract elements of a list or data frame by name; semantics are similar to `[[`.

Subsetting

```
> x <- c("a", "b", "c", "c", "d", "a")  
> x[1]      ## Extract the first element  
[1] "a"  
> x[2]      ## Extract the second element  
[1] "b"  
> x[1:4]  
[1] "a" "b" "c" "c"  
> x[c(1, 3, 4)]  
[1] "a" "c" "c"
```

Subsetting

```
> u <- x > "a"
```

```
> u
```

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

```
> x[u]
```

```
[1] "b" "c" "c" "d"
```

```
> x[x > "a"]
```

```
[1] "b" "c" "c" "d"
```

Subsetting a List

```
> x <- list(foo = 1:4, bar = 0.6)
```

```
> x
```

```
$foo
```

```
[1] 1 2 3 4
```

```
$bar
```

```
[1] 0.6
```

```
> x[[1]]
```

```
[1] 1 2 3 4
```

```
> x[["bar"]]
```

```
[1] 0.6
```

```
> x$bar
```

```
[1] 0.6
```

Subsetting a List

- One thing that differentiates the `[]` operator from the `$` is that the `[]` operator can be used with computed indices. The `$` operator can only be used with literal names.

```
> x <- list(foo = 1:4, bar = 0.6, baz = "hello")
> name <- "foo"
>
> ## computed index for "foo"
> x[[name]]
[1] 1 2 3 4
>
> ## element "name" doesn't exist! (but no error here)
> x$name
NULL
>
> ## element "foo" does exist
> x$foo
[1] 1 2 3 4
```

Subsetting a List

- The `[[` operator can take an integer sequence if you want to extract a nested element of a list.

```
> x <- list(a = list(10, 12, 14), b = c(3.14, 2.81))
>
> ## Get the 3rd element of the 1st element
> x[[c(1, 3)]]
[1] 14
>
> ## Same as above
> x[[1]][[3]]
[1] 14
>
> ## 1st element of the 2nd element
> x[[c(2, 1)]]
[1] 3.14
```

Subsetting a Matrix

- Matrices can be subsetting in a usual way with (i,j) type indices.

```
> x <- matrix(1:6, 2, 3)    > x[1, 2]
```

```
> x                          [1] 3
```

```
      [,1] [,2] [,3]      > x[2, 1]
```

```
[1,]     1     3     5      [1] 2
```

```
[2,]     2     4     6
```

```
> x[1, ]  ## Extract the first row
```

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

```
> x[, 2]  ## Extract the second column
```

```
[1] 3 4
```

Dropping Matrix Dimensions

```
> x <- matrix(1:6, 2, 3)
```

```
> x[1, 2]
```

```
[1] 3
```

```
> x[1, 2, drop = FALSE]
```

```
      [,1]
```

```
[1,]      3
```

```
> x <- matrix(1:6, 2, 3)
```

```
> x[1, ]
```

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

```
> x[1, , drop = FALSE]
```

```
      [,1] [,2] [,3]
```

```
[1,]      1      3      5
```

- ▶ By default, when a single element of a matrix is retrieved, it is returned as a vector of length 1 rather than a 1x1 matrix.
- ▶ Similarly, subsetting a single column or a single row will give you a vector, not a matrix (by default).

Vectorized Operations

- Many operations in R are vectorized, making code more efficient, concise, and easier to read.

```
> x <- 1:4
> y <- 6:9
> z <- x + y
> z
[1] 7 9 11 13

> x
[1] 1 2 3 4
> x > 2
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE
```


Vectorized Operations

```
> x >= 2  
[1] FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE
```

```
> x < 3  
[1] TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE
```

```
> y == 8  
[1] FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE
```

```
> x - y  
[1] -5 -5 -5 -5
```

```
> x * y  
[1] 6 14 24 36
```

```
> x / y  
[1] 0.1666667 0.2857143 0.3750000 0.4444444
```

Vectorized Operations

```
> x <- matrix(1:4, 2, 2)
> y <- matrix(rep(10, 4), 2, 2)
>
> ## element-wise multiplication
> x * y
      [,1] [,2]
[1,]   10   30
[2,]   20   40
>
```

```
> ## element-wise division
> x / y
      [,1] [,2]
[1,]  0.1  0.3
[2,]  0.2  0.4
>
> ## true matrix multiplication
> x %*% y
      [,1] [,2]
[1,]   40   40
[2,]   60   60
```

Sorting

- Use the `order()` function to sort a vector or dataframe in R

```
# sorting examples using the mtcars dataset
attach(mtcars)

# sort by mpg
newdata <- mtcars[order(mpg),]

# sort by mpg and cyl
newdata <- mtcars[order(mpg, cyl),]

# sort by mpg (ascending) and cyl (descending)
newdata <- mtcars[order(mpg, -cyl),]

detach(mtcars)
```

```
> a <- c(100, 10, 1000)
> order(a)
[1] 2 1 3
```

```
> a[order(a)]
[1] 10 100 1000
```

Exercises

- ▶ 1. WHO dataset
 - ▶ a. load and run Session1.R
 - ▶ b. country with the biggest population
 - ▶ c. population of Malaysia
 - ▶ d. country with the lowest literacy
 - ▶ e. Richest country in Europe based on GNI
 - ▶ f. Mean Life expectancy of countries in Africa
 - ▶ g. Number of countries with population greater than 10,000
 - ▶ h. Top 5 countries in the Americas with the highest child mortality

Exercises

- ▶ 2. NBA dataset (Historical NBA Performance.xlsx)
 - ▶ a. The year Bulls has the highest winning percentage
 - ▶ b. Teams with an even win-loss record in a year
- ▶ 3. Seasons_Stats.csv
 - ▶ a. Player with the highest 3-pt attempt rate in a season.
 - ▶ b. Player with the highest free throw rate in a season.
 - ▶ c. What year/season does LeBron James scored the highest?
 - ▶ d. What year/season does Michael Jordan scored the highest?
 - ▶ e. Player efficiency rating of Kobe Bryant in the year where his MP is the lowest?
- ▶ 4. National Universities Rankings.csv
 - ▶ a. University with the most number of undergrads
 - ▶ b. Average Tuition in the Top 10 University

Other Resources

- ▶ Datacamp.com
- ▶ R-bloggers.com
- ▶ Statmethods.net (Quick-R)
- ▶ Rstudio.com
- ▶ and of course <https://cran.r-project.org/doc/manuals/r-release/R-intro.html>
- ▶ Swirl (package.install(swirl))

Quiz #1

Dates in R

- ▶ The two standard date-time classes in R are `POSIXct` and `POSIXlt`.
- ▶ `ct` is short for “calendar time,” and the `POSIXct` class stores dates as the number of seconds since the start of 1970, in the Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) zone.
- ▶ `POSIXlt` stores dates as a list, with components for seconds, minutes, hours, day of month, etc.
- ▶ `POSIXct` is best for storing dates and calculating with them, whereas `POSIXlt` is best for extracting specific parts of a date.
- ▶ The function `Sys.time` returns the current date and time in `POSIXct` form:

```
(now_ct <- Sys.time())  
## [1] "2013-07-17 22:47:01 BST"
```

- ▶ Now try taking the `class()` and `unclass()` functions of `now_ct`.

Dates in R

- Dates are represented by the Date class and can be coerced from a character string using the `as.Date()` function.

```
> ## Coerce a 'Date' object from character  
> x <- as.Date("1970-01-01")  
> x  
[1] "1970-01-01"
```

- You can see the internal representation of a Date object by using the `unclass()` function.

```
> unclass(x)  
[1] 0  
> unclass(as.Date("1970-01-02"))  
[1] 1
```

Time in R

- Times can be coerced from a character string using the `as.POSIXlt` or `as.POSIXct` function.

```
> x <- Sys.time()
> x
[1] "2015-04-13 10:09:17 EDT"
> class(x)    ## 'POSIXct' object
[1] "POSIXct" "POSIXt"
```

- The `POSIXlt` object contains some useful metadata.

```
> p <- as.POSIXlt(x)
> names(unclass(p))
[1] "sec"    "min"    "hour"   "mday"   "mon"    "year"   "wday"
[8] "yday"   "isdst"  "zone"   "gmtoff"
> p$wday    ## day of the week
[1] 1
```

Time in R

- You can also use the `POSIXct` format.

```
> x <- Sys.time()
> x                ## Already in 'POSIXct' format
[1] "2015-04-13 10:09:17 EDT"
> unclass(x)       ## Internal representation
[1] 1428934157
> x$sec            ## Can't do this with 'POSIXct'!
Error in x$sec: $ operator is invalid for atomic vectors
> p <- as.POSIXlt(x)
> p$sec            ## That's better
[1] 17.16238
```

Operations on Dates and Times

- You can use the + and – operators on dates and times. You can do comparisons (==, >, <) too.

```
> x <- as.Date("2012-01-01")
```

```
> y <- strptime("9 Jan 2011 11:34:21", "%d %b %Y %H:%M:%S")
```

```
> x-y
```

```
Warning: Incompatible methods ("-.Date", "-.POSIXt") for "-"
```

```
Error in x - y: non-numeric argument to binary operator
```

```
> x <- as.POSIXlt(x)
```

```
> x-y
```

```
Time difference of 356.3095 days
```

```
> x <- as.Date("2012-03-01")
```

```
> y <- as.Date("2012-02-28")
```

```
> x-y
```

```
Time difference of 2 days
```

Operations on Dates and Times

- ▶ You can use the + and – operators on dates and times. You can do comparisons (==, >, <) too.

```
> x <- as.Date("2012-01-01")
```

```
> y <- strptime("9 Jan 2011 11:34:21", "%d %b %Y %H:%M:%S")
```

```
> x-y
```

```
Warning: Incompatible methods ("-.Date", "-.POSIXt") for "-"
```

```
Error in x - y: non-numeric argument to binary operator
```

```
> x <- as.POSIXlt(x)
```

```
> x-y
```

```
Time difference of 356.3095 days
```

```
> x <- as.Date("2012-03-01")
```

```
> y <- as.Date("2012-02-28")
```

```
> x-y
```

```
Time difference of 2 days
```

Control Structures

- ▶ Commonly used control structures are
 - ▶ **if** and **else**: testing a condition and acting on it
 - ▶ **for**: execute a loop a fixed number of times
 - ▶ **while**: execute a loop while a condition is true
 - ▶ **repeat**: execute an infinite loop
 - ▶ **break**: stop the execution of the loop
 - ▶ **next** : skip an iteration of a loop

if ... else

```
if(<condition>) {  
    ## do something  
}  
## Continue with rest of code
```

```
if(<condition1>) {  
    ## do something  
} else if(<condition2>) {  
    ## do something different  
} else {  
    ## do something different  
}
```

```
if(<condition>) {  
    ## do something  
}  
else {  
    ## do something else  
}
```

```
if(<condition1>) {  
  
}  
  
if(<condition2>) {  
  
}
```

if ... else

- Here are examples of a valid `if ... else` structure:

```
## Generate a uniform random number
```

```
x <- runif(1, 0, 10)
```

```
if(x > 3) {  
    y <- 10  
} else {  
    y <- 0  
}
```

```
y <- if(x > 3) {  
    10  
} else {  
    0  
}
```


for Loops

- Here are examples of a valid `for` loop structure:

```
> for(i in 1:10) {  
+     print(i)  
+ }
```

```
> x <- c("a", "b", "c", "d")  
>  
> for(i in 1:4) {  
+     ## Print out each element of 'x'  
+     print(x[i])  
+ }
```

```
> for(letter in x) {  
+     print(letter)  
+ }
```

```
> ## Generate a sequence based on length of 'x'  
> for(i in seq_along(x)) {  
+     print(x[i])  
+ }  
- -  
> for(i in 1:4) print(x[i])  
[1] "a"  
[1] "b"  
[1] "c"  
[1] "d"
```

Nested for Loops

- `for` loops can be nested inside each other:

```
x <- matrix(1:6, 2, 3)

for(i in seq_len(nrow(x))) {
  for(j in seq_len(ncol(x))) {
    print(x[i, j])
  }
}
```

while Loops

```
> count <- 0
> while(count < 10) {
+     print(count)
+     count <- count + 1
+ }
```

```
> z <- 5
> set.seed(1)
>
> while(z >= 3 && z <= 10) {
+     coin <- rbinom(1, 1, 0.5)
+
+     if(coin == 1) { ## random walk
+         z <- z + 1
+     } else {
+         z <- z - 1
+     }
+ }
> print(z)
[1] 2
```

repeat Loops

- `repeat` loops initiate an infinite loop

```
x0 <- 1
tol <- 1e-8

repeat {
  x1 <- computeEstimate()

  if(abs(x1 - x0) < tol) { ## Close enough?
    break
  } else {
    x0 <- x1
  }
}
```

next, break

- **next** is used to skip an iteration of a loop.

```
for(i in 1:100) {  
    if(i <= 20) {  
        ## Skip the first 20 iterations  
        next  
    }  
    ## Do something here  
}
```

- **break** is used to exit a loop immediately

```
for(i in 1:100) {  
    print(i)  
  
    if(i > 20) {  
        ## Stop loop after 20 iterations  
        break  
    }  
}
```

..., break

Functions

- Functions are defined using the `function()` directive and are stored as R objects.

```
> f <- function() {  
+     ## This is an empty function  
+ }  
> ## Functions have their own class  
> class(f)  
[1] "function"  
> ## Execute this function  
> f()  
NULL
```

Functions

- ▶ A simple function

```
> f <- function() {  
+   cat("Hello, world!\n")  
+ }  
> f()  
Hello, world!
```


Functions

- ▶ A function with argument

```
> f <- function(num) {  
+   for(i in seq_len(num)) {  
+     cat("Hello, world!\n")  
+   }  
+ }  
> f(3)  
Hello, world!  
Hello, world!  
Hello, world!
```

Function Arguments with Default Values

```
> f <- function(num = 1) {  
+   hello <- "Hello, world!\n"  
+   for(i in seq_len(num)) {  
+     cat(hello)  
+   }  
+   chars <- nchar(hello) * num  
+   chars  
+ }  
> f()    ## Use default value for 'num'  
Hello, world!  
[1] 14  
> f(2)   ## Use user-specified value  
Hello, world!  
Hello, world!  
[1] 28
```

Argument Matching

- Arguments can be matched positionally or by name

```
> str(rnorm)
```

```
function (n, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

```
> mydata <- rnorm(100, 2, 1) ## Generate some data
```

```
> ## Positional match first argument, default for 'na.rm'
```

```
> sd(mydata)
```

```
[1] 0.9033251
```

```
> ## Specify 'x' argument by name, default for 'na.rm'
```

```
> sd(x = mydata)
```

```
[1] 0.9033251
```

```
> ## Specify both arguments by name
```

```
> sd(x = mydata, na.rm = FALSE)
```

```
[1] 0.9033251
```

Argument Matching

- Arguments can be matched positionally or by name

> *## Specify both arguments by name*

> sd(na.rm = **FALSE**, x = mydata)

[1] 0.9033251

> sd(na.rm = **FALSE**, mydata)

[1] 0.9033251

Lazy Evaluation

```
> f <- function(a, b) {  
+     a^2  
+ }  
> f(2)  
[1] 4
```

```
> f <- function(a, b) {  
+     print(a)  
+     print(b)  
+ }  
> f(45)  
[1] 45
```

Error in print(b): argument "b" is missing, with no default

Scoping Rules

- What if there's a conflict in naming your functions. Which one will R follow?

```
> lm <- function(x) { x * x }  
> lm  
function(x) { x * x }
```

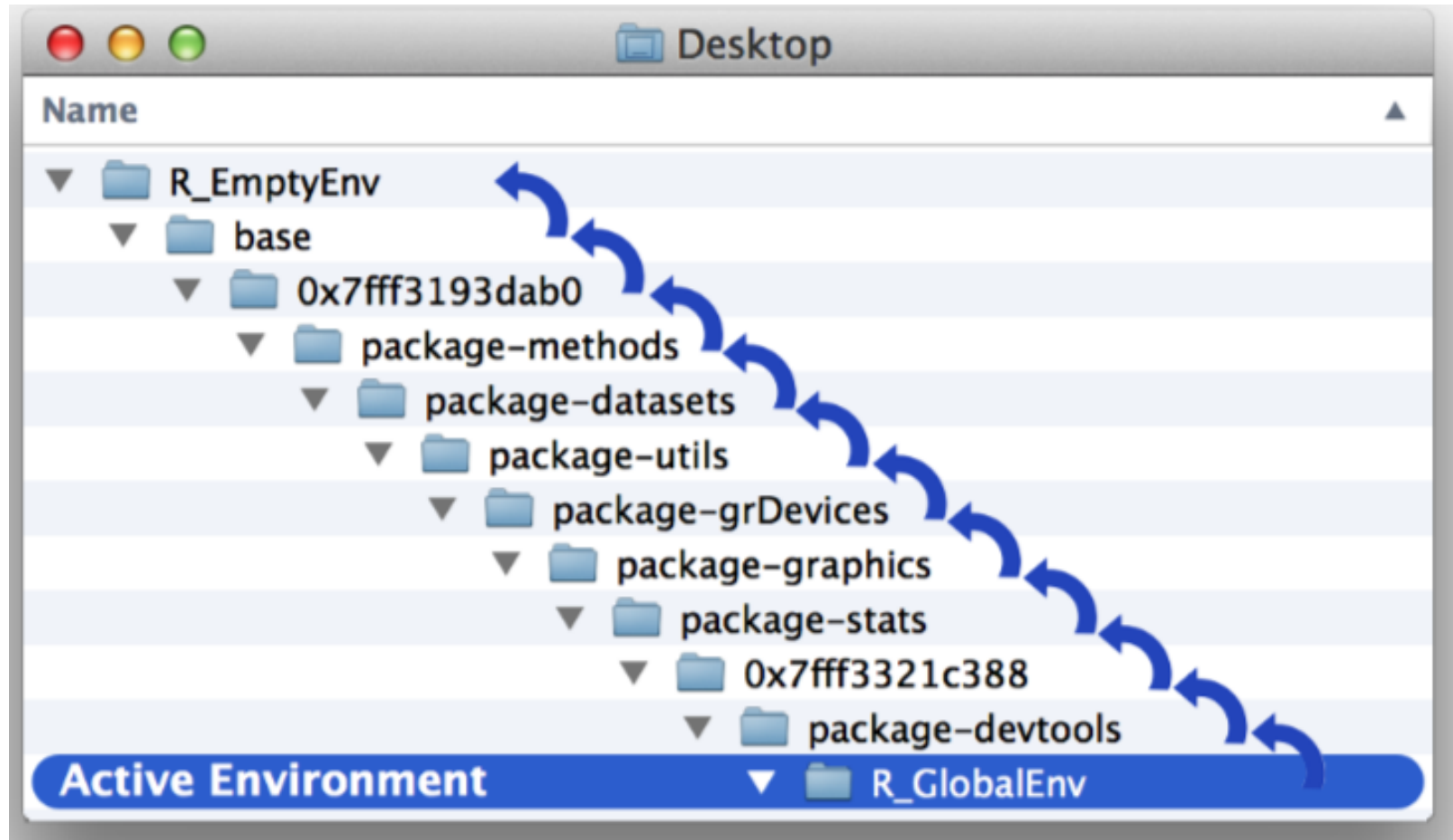
1. Search the global environment (i.e. your workspace) for a symbol name matching the one requested.

2. Search the namespaces of each of the packages on the search list

- The search list can be found by using the `search()` function.

```
> search()  
[1] ".GlobalEnv"          "package:knitr"        "package:stats"  
[4] "package:graphics"    "package:grDevices"    "package:utils"  
[7] "package:datasets"    "Autoloads"            "package:base"
```

Scoping Rules



Lexical Scoping

```
> f <- function(x, y) {  
+   x^2 + y / z  
+ }
```

- ▶ Lexical scoping in R means that the values of free variables are searched for in the environment in which the function was defined.
- ▶ If the value of a symbol is not found in the environment in which a function was defined, then the search is continued in the parent environment.
- ▶ The search continues down the sequence of parent environments until we hit the top-level environment; this usually the global environment (workspace) or the namespace of a package.
- ▶ After the top-level environment, the search continues down the search list until we hit the empty environment.

Lexical Scoping vs. Dynamic Scoping

```
> y <- 10
>
> f <- function(x) {
+   y <- 2
+   y^2 + g(x)
+ }
>
> g <- function(x) {
+   x*y
+ }
```

► What is the value of $f(3)$?

```
> g <- function(x) {
+   a <- 3
+   x+a+y
+   ## 'y' is a free variable
+ }
> g(2)
Error in g(2): object 'y' not found
> y <- 3
> g(2)
[1] 8
```

Coding Standards

- ▶ Always use text files / text editor.
- ▶ Indent your code
- ▶ Limit the width of your code.
- ▶ Limit the length of individual functions.
- ▶ Organize your files within a project
- ▶ Use version control systems like Git