# Statistics 360: Advanced R for Data Science Lecture 4

Brad McNeney

### Scoping

Lazy evaluation and . . .

Exiting a function

Function forms

Functional Programming Basics

# Digging deeper into functions

- ▶ Reading: Text, sections 6.4-6.8
- ► Topics:
  - more on scoping (finding objects)
  - lazy evaluation and variable arguments with ...
  - exiting a function
  - prefix, infix, replacement and special function forms

# Scoping

# Lexical scoping in R

- ▶ We have already touched on the essence of scoping in R: When a computation needs an object we start by looking in the current environment, and then search successive enclosing environments.
- More formally R has four rules:
  - Name masking
  - Functions versus variables
  - A fresh start
  - Dynamic lookup

# Name masking

► A consequence of the search order for objects is that names defined *inside* a function mask names defined *outside*.

```
x <- y <- 200
z <- 30 # defined in global environment
f <- function() { # f's env enclosed by global
  x <- 100 # defined in f's environment
  y <- 20
  g <- function() { #g's env enclosed by f's
       x <- 10 # defined in g's environment
       c(x,y,z)
  }
  g()
}
f()</pre>
```

## [1] 10 20 30

#### Functions vs names

▶ R does the "right thing" when you (stupidly) use the same name for a function and variable.

```
g09 <- function(x) x + 100
g10 <- function() {
  g09 <- 10
  g09(g09)
}
g10()</pre>
```

```
## [1] 110
```

# Each function call gets a new environment

As we saw in lecture 3, function calls create an environment. On exit, this environment is (typically) unbound and will disappear.

```
x < -100
f <- function(){
  print(environment())
  x < -x+1
f()
## <environment: 0x111c26228>
## [1] 101
f()
## <environment: 0x111cb5840>
## [1] 101
```

## Dynamic lookup

- ▶ Be aware that functions only look for objects when run (dynamic lookup), not when created (static lookup).
- ▶ If a function gets an object from an enclosing environment, it will return different results whenever the object in the enclosing environment changes.
  - ► This may be what you intend, but it's also a common source of errors. What if I meant to define y in f() but forgot:

```
y <- 100
f <- function(x) {
    x + y
}
f(1)

## [1] 101
y <- 200
f(1)

## [1] 201</pre>
```

consider adding rm(list=ls()) to the start of your scripts

Lazy evaluation and . . .

## Lazy evaluation

- Function arguments are only evaluated when needed.
  - ► The text describes how lazy evaluation is implemented (Section 6.5), but we will not discuss the details.

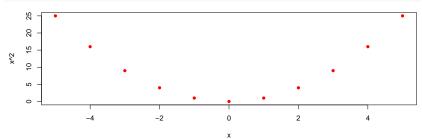
```
f<-function(xx,yy) {
    xx
}
f(1) # no value for yy, but OK since yy not used
## [1] 1
try(f(yy=1)) # xx is needed</pre>
```

## Error in f(yy = 1) : argument "xx" is missing, with no defaul

## Variable arguments with ...

- ► The special function argument . . . (dot-dot-dot) allows a function to take any number of arguments.
- ► A typical use is to pass these to another function, as in the following example.

```
myplot <- function(x,...) {
   plot(x,x^2,...) # pass any args not named x to plot
}
myplot((-5:5),col="red",pch=16)</pre>
```



# Exiting a function

## Exiting a function

- ► Functions can exit explicitly with return() or implicitly, where the last expression in the function is its return value
- ▶ When a function returns, explicitly or implicitly, the default is to print the return value.
  - You can suppress this with invisible().

```
ff <- function(x) { x }
ff(1)

## [1] 1

ff_invis <- function(x) { invisible(x) }
ff_invis(1) # but x <- ff_invis(1) same as x <- ff(1)</pre>
```

# Signalling conditions

- ► Functions can signal error, warning or message conditions with stop(), warning() and message(), respectively.
  - stop() stops execution, warning() and message() don't
- ► These signals can be "handled" by ignoring them
  - ▶ ignore errors with try()
  - ignore warnings with suppressWarnings()
  - ignore messages with suppressMessages()
- or implementing a custom handler that over-rides the default behaviour of a condition
  - see Chapter 8 of the text if you are interested in learning more about handling conditions
- ▶ We restrict attention to (i) signalling and (ii) cleaning up any changes to the R session before exiting.

## stop()

▶ If your function encounters an error, use stop() to stop and print an error message, also called "throwing" an error.

## Error in centre(1:10, "mymean") : method mymean not implement

## warning()

► If you suspect an error but can proceed without stopping, throw a warning() instead.

```
centre <- function(x,method) {</pre>
  switch(method, mean=mean(x), median=median(x),
         {warning("\nmethod ",method,
                   " not implemented, using mean\n");
           mean(x))
centre(1:10, "mymean")
## Warning in centre(1:10, "mymean"):
## method mymean not implemented, using mean
## [1] 5.5
```

## message()

If you don't think the condition warrants a warning, you can issue a message.

```
centre <- function(x,method) {</pre>
  switch(method, mean=mean(x), median=median(x),
         {message("\nmethod ",method,
                   " not implemented, using mean\n");
           mean(x))
centre(1:10, "mymean")
##
## method mymean not implemented, using mean
## [1] 5.5
```

# Cleaning up with exit handlers

- An R session has a "global state" of options and parameters that control default behaviour.
  - type options() or par() to see some of these
- ▶ If your function temporarily modifies the global state, you can use an exit handler to re-set, even if your function stops.
  - Use add=TRUE to add more than one handler.

```
rplot <- function(y,x){
  opar <- par(mfrow=c(2,2))
  on.exit(par(opar),add=TRUE)
  plot(lm(y~x)) #could throw an error
}
y <- rnorm(100); x <- rnorm(10) # different length
try(rplot(y,x)) # Fails, but re-sets par mfrow</pre>
```

## Error in model.frame.default(formula = y ~ x, drop.unused.lev
## variable lengths differ (found for 'x')

## Function forms

#### Function forms

- ► We have been writing "prefix" functions, with a function name followed by arguments.
- ▶ Other forms are "infix", "replacement" and "special".
- ▶ We will cover each form very briefly; see the text, section 6.8 for more details.

#### Infix functions

- An infix function has two arguments and is called by putting the name between arguments, as in x+y.
  - x+y calls + as `+`(x,y)
  - + and are special infix functions that can be called with only one argument
  - You can define your own infix function by enclosing the function name in %.

```
"%-%" <- function(set1,set2){
   setdiff(set1,set2)
}
s1 <- 1:10; s2 <- 4:6
s1 %-% s2 # same as "%-%" (s1,s2)
## [1] 1 2 3 7 8 9 10</pre>
```

## Replacement functions

- ▶ Replacement functions are called to change values.
  - ► For example, change values of attributes of objects
- Must have arguments x and value, and must return the modified object.
- ► They are made to look like prefix functions, and may have prefix counterparts.

```
x < -c(a=1,b=2)
names(x)
## [1] "a" "b"
names(x) \leftarrow c("aa","bb")
X
## aa bb
x <- `names<-`(x,c("aaa","bbb"))</pre>
х
## aaa bbb
```

▶ You can write your own relacement functions if you end the function name with <-

```
`st360names<-` <- function(x,value){</pre>
  names(x) <- paste0(value, "360", names(x))</pre>
  х
st360names(x) <- c("a", "b")
х
## a360aaa b360bbb
```

# Special functions

- Examples: subset [ and extract [[, control flow if, for,etc.
- Key point: These are functions, and it is sometimes useful to know their names so that we can get help or use them like any other prefix function.

```
dd <- data.frame(x=1:2,y=3:4)
`[[`(dd,1) # compare to dd[[1]]

## [1] 1 2

dd <- `[[<-`(dd,1,value=5:6) #cf dd[[1]] <- 5:6

dd

## x y
## 1 5 3
## 2 6 4</pre>
```

▶ It can be useful to know functions by name so that we can call them in lapply-like functions.

# Functional Programming Basics

# Functional programming languages

- In a functional language functions are data structures.
  - Can assign them to variables, pass them as arguments to other functions and return them from other functions.
  - ▶ This is true of R functions, and is what we'll be focusing on.
- ▶ Many functional languages also require functions to be "pure".
  - Function output should only depend on the input, and the function should not have any side-effects.
  - We can see from our brief discussion of scoping that R functions can use global variables, and we know they have side-effects like generating plots.

# Functional style

- ▶ We will say that functional programming *style* means a top-down approach that breaks big problems into smaller pieces that we solve with small, easy (easier) to understand functions.
- This is the way we are approaching our implementation of MARS.
- ► Functional languages support this style with "higher-order" functions that take other functions as input .
  - ► The higher-order function is part of the "big problem", and its input is the "small function".

#### **Functionals**

- ➤ You have already seen higher-order functions in Stat 260: The map family of functions from the purr package, or lapply() from base R.
- The text calls these functionals and they are discussed in Chapter 9.
- ➤ You have already studied the map functions, so our discussion here will be brief, with an emphasis on parallelization:
  - Not only can we break a computation into pieces, but we can have the pieces computed on different cores of a computer or nodes of a compute cluster.

# Map-like functions such as lapply()

- ► Take a vector and function as input and return a list (or some simplification) whose elements are the function applied to each vector element.
  - $\blacktriangleright$  We are mapping (in math sense) the vector elements x to f(x).
- ▶ Basically a for loop over the input vector, calling the input function at each iteration.

```
simple_map <- function(x, f, ...) { # text, Section 9.2
  out <- vector("list", length(x))
  for (i in seq_along(x)) {
    out[[i]] <- f(x[[i]], ...)
  }
  out
}</pre>
```

# Examples with lapply()

```
rfun <- function(seed,n) { set.seed(seed); return(rnorm(n))}
dat <- lapply(1:10,rfun,n=1e7) # specify non-vectorized arg by name
mfun <- function(x) { return(mean(quantile(x,probs=c(.25,.75)))) }
system.time( unlist(lapply(dat,mfun)) ) # Look at elapsed</pre>
```

```
## user system elapsed
## 1.709 0.255 2.007
```

# Parallel execution with mclapply()

mclapply() is the multi-core version of lapply(); i.e., function calls are done on separate cores.

```
library(parallel) # comes with R
ncores <- detectCores(); cat("number of cores=",ncores,"\n")

## number of cores= 8
system.time({ unlist(mclapply(dat,mfun,mc.cores=ncores)) })

## user system elapsed
## 1.640 0.835 1.060</pre>
```

## Another example

```
dat2 <- lapply(1:10,rfun,n=1e5)
mfun2 <- function(x) { return(data.frame(sum=sum(x),n=length(x))) }
sumdat <- lapply(dat2,mfun2)</pre>
```

#### Reduce-like functions

- ▶ Reduce functions successively combine vector elements.
  - ▶ Can use them to assemble output of a map-like function.
  - When implemented to parallelize over multiple computers, this is the MapReduce programming model you hear about for "big data".
- Reducers combine with a loop:

```
simple_reduce <- function(x, f) { # Text section 9.5
  out <- x[[1]]
  for (i in seq(2, length(x))) {
    out <- f(out, x[[i]])
  }
  out
}</pre>
```

## Example reduce

```
allres <- simple_reduce(sumdat,rbind)
allres
##
            sum
                     n
## 1 -224.40833 100000
## 2 307.85570 100000
## 3 36.96750 100000
## 4 -20.44743 100000
## 5 -726,27096 100000
## 6 -191.83899 100000
## 7 -50.00946 100000
## 8 270,86608 100000
## 9 -52,17403 100000
## 10 -595.83810 100000
sum(allres$sum)/sum(allres$n) # mean
## [1] -0.001245298
```

# Further reading on parallel computing

For parallel computing on a cluster, see the doParallel and foreach packages (canonical link to doParallel vignette currently broken):

 $http://users.iems.northwestern.edu/\sim nelsonb/Masterclass/getting startedParallel.pdf\\$ 

# Other higher-order functions

- ▶ Other chapters discuss function factories (Chapter 10) and function operators (Chapter 11).
- ▶ These are used less and will not be discussed.

In Out	Vector	Function
Vector	Regular function	Function factory
Function	Functional	Function operator

Figure 1: Higher-order functions