



WOMBAT 2024: Advanced R Tips & Tricks

Functional programming

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1 Functional programming

2 Functional problem solving



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2 Functional problem solving

R is commonly considered a 'functional' programming language - and so far we have used functional programming.

Functional programming

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Object-oriented programming

- Functions are associated with object types.
- Methods of the same 'function' produce object-specific output.

Literate programming

- Natural language is interspersed with code.
- Aimed at prioritising documentation/comments.
- Now used to create reproducible reports/documents.

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Reactive programming

Objects are expressed using code based on inputs.When inputs change, the object's value updates.

```
square <- function(x) {
  return(x<sup>2</sup>)
}
square(8)
```

[1] 64

The square function is an object like any other in R.

R functions can be printed,

print(square)

function(x) {
 return(x^2)
}

R functions can be printed,

print(square)

```
function(x) {
   return(x^2)
}
inspected,
```

formals(square)

put in a list,

```
my_functions <- list(square, sum, min, max)
my_functions</pre>
```

```
[[1]]
function(x) {
 return(x^2)
}
[[2]]
function (..., na.rm = FALSE) .Primitive("sum")
[[3]]
function (..., na.rm = FALSE) .Primitive("min")
[[4]]
```

used within lists,

my_functions[[1]](8)

[1] 64

used within lists,

my_functions[[1]](8)

[1] 64

but they can't be subsetted!

square\$x

Error in square\$x: object of type 'closure' is not subsettable

Functional programming handles different input types using control flow. The same code is ran regardless of object type.

```
square <- function(x) {
   if(!is.numeric(x)) {
     stop("`x` needs to be numeric")
   }
   return(x^2)
}</pre>
```

A function is comprised of three components:

- The arguments/inputs (formals())
- The body/code (body())
- The environment (environment())

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- The environment (environment())

🌢 Your turn!

Use these functions to take a closer look at square(). Try modifying the function's formals/body/env with <-. Since functions are like any other object, they can also be:

inputs to functions

Extensible design with function inputs

Using function inputs can improve your package's design! Rather than limiting users to a few specific methods, allow them to use and write any method with functions.

Consider a function which calculates accuracy measures:

```
accuracy <- function(e, measure, ...) {
  if (measure == "mae") {
    mean(abs(e), ...)
  } else if (measure == "rmse") {
    sqrt(mean(e<sup>2</sup>, ...))
  } else {
    stop("Unknown accuracy measure")
  }
}
```

💡 Improving the design

This function is limited to only computing MAE and RMSE.

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Using function operators allows any measure to be used.

```
MAE <- function(e, ...) mean(abs(e), ...)
RMSE <- function(e, ...) sqrt(mean(e<sup>2</sup>, ...))
accuracy <- function(e, measure, ...) {
    ???
}
accuracy(rnorm(100), measure = RMSE)</pre>
```

🌢 Your turn!

Complete the accuracy function to calculate accuracy statistics based on the function passed in to measure. Since functions are like any other object, they can also be:

- **inputs** to functions
- outputs of functions
- Functions making functions?

These functions are known as *function factories*. Where have you seen a function that creates a function?

Function factories

Let's generalise square() to raise numbers to any power.

```
power <- function(x, exp) {</pre>
 x^exp
power(8, exp = 2)
[1] 64
power(8, exp = 3)
[1] 512
  Starting a factory
  What if the function returned a function instead?
```

Function factories

```
power_factory <- function(exp) {
    # R is lazy and won't look at exp unless we ask it to
    force(exp)
    # Return a function, which finds exp from this environment
    function(x) {
        x^exp
    }
}
square <- power_factory(exp = 2)
square(8)</pre>
```

[1] 64

Function factories

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    # R is lazy and won't look at exp unless we ask it to
    force(exp)
    # Return a function, which finds exp from this environment
    function(x) {
        x^exp
    }
}
square <- power_factory(exp = 2)
square(8)</pre>
```

[1] 64

```
cube <- power_factory(exp = 3)
cube(8)</pre>
```

[1] 512

Consider this function to calculate plot breakpoints of vectors.

```
breakpoints <- function(x, n.breaks) {
   seq(min(x), max(x), length.out = n.breaks)
}</pre>
```

🌢 Your turn!

Convert this function into a function factory. Is it better to create functions via x or n.breaks?



1 Functional programming

2 Functional problem solving

Many problems can be simplified/solved using this process:

- split (break the problem into smaller parts)
- apply (solve the smaller problems)
- combine (join solved parts to solve original problem)

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This technique applies to both

writing functions (rewriting a function into sub-functions)

working with data (same function across groups or files)

data |> group_by() |> summarise()

An example of split-apply-combine being used to work with data is when group_by() and summarise() are used together.

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split: group_by() splits up the data into groups

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- combine: summarise() combines the results into a vector

An example of split-apply-combine being used to work with data is when group_by() and summarise() are used together.

- split: group_by() splits up the data into groups
- apply: your summarise() code calculates a single value
 combine: summarise() combines the results into a vector

library(dplyr)
mtcars >
group_by(cyl) >
<pre>summarise(mean(mpg))</pre>

#	А	tibb	ole:	3	х	2	
		cyl	`mea	an	(mp	og)`	
	<dbl></dbl>			<dbl></dbl>			
1		4			2	26.7	
2		6			2	19.7	
3		8				15.1	

Split-apply-combine for vectors and lists

The same idea can be used for calculations on vectors.

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There are two main implementations we consider:

base R: The *apply() functions
 purrr: The map*() functions

Split-apply-combine for vectors and lists

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There are two main implementations we consider:

- base R: The *apply() functions
- purrr: The map*() functions

We will use purrr and but I'll also share the base R equivalent.

for or map?

Let's square() a vector of numbers with a for loop.

```
x <- c(1, 3, 8)
x2 <- numeric(length(x))
for (i in seq_along(x)) {
    x2[i] <- square(x[i])
}
x2</pre>
```

[1] 1 9 64

for or map?

Let's square() a vector of numbers with a for loop.

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x <- c(1, 3, 8)
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  x2[i] <- square(x[i])
}
x2</pre>
```

[1] 1 9 64

Vectorisation?

Of course square() is vectorised, so we should use square(x). Other functions like lm() or read.csv() are not!

for or map?

Instead using map() we get...

library(purrr)
x <- c(1, 3, 8)
map(x, square) # lapply(x, square)</pre>

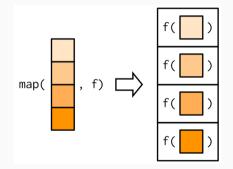
[[1]][1] 1

[[2]] [1] 9

[[3]] [1] 64

Mapping vectors

The same result, but it has been combined differently!



To combine the results into a vector rather than a list, we instead use map_vec() to combine results into a vector.

library(purr)
x <- c(1, 3, 8)
map_vec(x, square) # vapply(x, square, numeric(1L))</pre>

[1] 1 9 64

for or map

Advantages of map

- Less coding (less bugs!)
- Easier to read and understand.

for or map

💡 Advantages of map

- Less coding (less bugs!)
- Easier to read and understand.
- Disadvantages of map
 - Less control over loop
 - Cannot solve sequential problems

Functional mapping

Recall group_by() and summarise() from dplyr:

```
mtcars |>
  group_by(cyl) |>
  summarise(mean(mpg))
```

Your turn!

Use split() and map_vec() to achieve a similar result.
Hint: split(mtcars\$mpg, mtcars\$cyl) creates a list that
splits mtcars\$mpg by each value of mtcars\$cyl.

Suppose we want to separately model mpg for each cyl.

```
lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, mtcars[mtcars$cyl == 4,])
lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, mtcars[mtcars$cyl == 6,])
lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, mtcars[mtcars$cyl == 8,])
```

We can split the data by cyl with split(),

mtcars_cyl <- split(mtcars, mtcars\$cyl)</pre>

but map(mtcars_cyl, lm, mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt)
won't work - why?

We can split the data by cyl with split(),

mtcars_cyl <- split(mtcars, mtcars\$cyl)</pre>

but map(mtcars_cyl, lm, mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt)
won't work - why?

Difficult to map

Using map(mtcars_cyl, lm) will apply lm(mtcars_cyl[i]). The mapped vector is always used as the first argument!

We can write our own functions!

```
mtcars_lm <- function(.) lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .)
map(mtcars_cyl, mtcars_lm)</pre>
```

\$`4`

```
Call:
lm(formula = mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .)
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept)	disp	hp	drat	wt
52.51953	-0.06294	-0.07602	-1.44216	-3.10007

\$`6`

Or use ~ body to create anonymous functions.

```
# lapply(mtcars_cyl, \(.) lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .))
map(mtcars_cyl, ~ lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .))
```

\$`4`

```
Call:
lm(formula = mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .)
```

Coefficients: (Intercent) disp bp drat

()	uisp	ΠP	urac	wc
53 -0.0	96294 -0.	.07602 -	1.44216 -	3.10007

C . 1 7

···+

Mapping mapping mapping

How would you then get the coefficients from all 3 models?

```
# mtcars_cyl |> lapply(\(.) lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .))
mtcars_cyl |>
map(~ lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .))
```

How would you then get the coefficients from all 3 models?

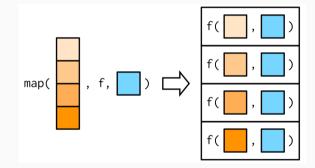
```
# mtcars_cyl |> lapply(\(.) lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .))
mtcars_cyl |>
map(~ lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .))
```

🍨 Solution

```
# lapply(mtcars_cyl, \(.) lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .))
mtcars_cyl |>
    map(~ lm(mpg ~ disp + hp + drat + wt, data = .)) |>
    map(coef)
$`4`
(Intercept) disp hp drat wt
52.51952502 -0.06293845 -0.07601929 -1.44215918 -3.10006904
```

Mapping arguments

Any arguments after your function are passed to all functions.



This works by passing through ... to the function.

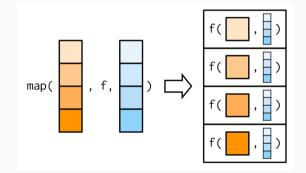
```
x <- list(1:5, c(1:10, NA))
map_dbl(x, ~ mean(.x, na.rm = TRUE))</pre>
```

[1] 3.0 5.5
map_dbl(x, mean, na.rm = TRUE)

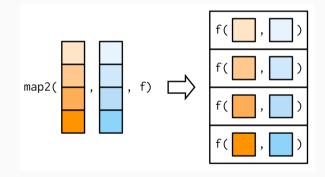
[1] 3.0 5.5

Mapping arguments

These additional arguments are not decomposed / mapped.



It is often useful to map multiple arguments.



```
xs <- map(1:8, ~ ifelse(runif(10) > 0.8, NA, runif(10)))
map_vec(xs, mean, na.rm = TRUE)
```

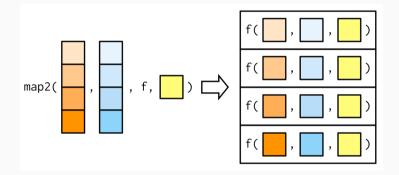
[1] 0.5298053 0.4535120 0.4972954 0.3761379 0.5603879 0.42 [8] 0.4608077

```
xs <- map(1:8, ~ ifelse(runif(10) > 0.8, NA, runif(10)))
map_vec(xs, mean, na.rm = TRUE)
```

[1] 0.5298053 0.4535120 0.4972954 0.3761379 0.5603879 0.42 [8] 0.4608077

ws <- map(1:8, ~ rpois(10, 5) + 1)
map2_vec(xs, ws, weighted.mean, na.rm = TRUE)</pre>

[1] 0.5199651 0.4452852 0.4631680 0.3489870 0.5464348 0.49
[8] 0.4804868



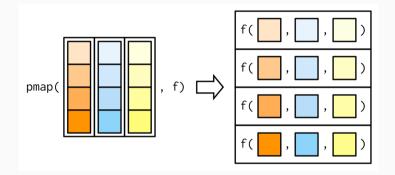
Mapping many arguments

It is also possible to map any number of inputs with pmap.

```
n <- 1:3
min <- c(0, 10, 100)
max <- c(1, 100, 1000)
pmap(list(n, min, max), runif) # .mapply(runif, list(n, min, max), list())
[[1]]
[1] 0.8066672
[[2]]
[1] 35.75897 52.32907</pre>
```

[[3]] [1] 751.5277 596.4991 941.6216

Mapping many arguments



Parallel mapping

Split-apply-combine problems are *embarrassingly parallel*.

Split-apply-combine problems are *embarrassingly parallel*.

The furrr package (future + purrr) makes it easy to use map() in parallel, providing future_map() variants.

library(furrr)
plan(multisession, workers = 4)
future_map_dbl(xs, mean, na.rm = TRUE)

[1] 0.5298053 0.4535120 0.4972954 0.3761379 0.5603879 0.42
[8] 0.4608077

future_map2_dbl(xs, ws, weighted.mean, na.rm = TRUE)

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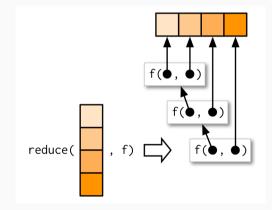
[1] 0.5199651 0.4452852 0.4631680 0.3489870 0.5464348 0.49

Sometimes you want to collapse a vector, reducing it to a single value. reduce() always returns a vector of length 1.

```
x <- sample(1:100, 10)
x
[1] 70 42 35 61 85 81 77 65 68 40
sum(x)
[1] 624
# Alternative to sum()
reduce(x, `+`) # Reduce(`+`, x)</pre>
```

Reduce vectors to single values

The result from the function is re-used as the first argument.



Reduce vectors to single values

🌢 Your turn!

We're studying the letters in 3 bowls of alphabet soup.



Reduce vectors to single values

🍐 Your turn!

We're studying the letters in 3 bowls of alphabet soup. Use reduce() to find the letters were in all bowls of soup! Are all letters found in the soups?

```
alphabet_soup <- map(c(10,24,13), sample, x=letters, replace=TRUE)
alphabet_soup</pre>
```

```
[[1]]
[1] "k" "h" "a" "h" "b" "e" "k" "x" "c" "y"
```

```
[[2]]
[1] "k" "e" "d" "m" "k" "r" "w" "e" "d" "o" "k" "y" "p" "u" "u" "n" "r" "u" "f"
[20] "a" "m" "k" "q" "d"
```

purrr also offers many *adverbs*, which modify a function.

Capturing conditions

- possibly(.f, otherwise): If the function errors, it will return otherwise instead.
- safely(.f): The function now returns a list with 'result' and 'error', preventing errors.
- quietly(.f): Any conditions (messages, warnings, printed output) are now captured into a list.

purrr also offers many *adverbs*, which modify a function.

```
Capturing conditions
```

```
negate(.f) will return !result.
```

Chaining functions

compose(...) will chain functions together like a chain of piped functions. purrr also offers many *adverbs*, which modify a function.

• Functions modifying functions?

These functions are all *function factories*! More specifically they are known as *function operators* since both the input and output is a function. memoise::memoise() is also a *function operator*.