Functions

## Packages for this section

```
library(tidyverse)
library(broom) # some regression stuff later
```


## Don't repeat yourself

$>$ See this:

```
a <- 50
b <- 11
d <- 3
as <- sqrt(a - 1)
as
```

[1] 7
bs <- sqrt(b - 1)
bs
[1] 3.162278
ds <- sqrt(d - 1)
ds
[1] 1.414214

## What's the problem?

- Same calculation done three different times, by copying, pasting and editing.

D Dangerous: what if you forget to change something after you pasted?

- Programming principle: "don't repeat yourself".
- Hadley Wickham: don't copy-paste more than twice.
- Instead: write a function.


## Anatomy of function

- Header line with function name and input value(s).
- Body with calculation of values to output/return.
$\rightarrow$ Return value: the output from function. In our case:

```
sqrt_minus_1 <- function(x) {
    ans <- sqrt(x - 1)
    return(ans)
}
```

or more simply ("the R way", better style)

```
sqrt_minus_1 <- function(x) {
    sqrt(x - 1)
}
```

If last line of function calculates value without saving it, that value is returned.

## About the input; testing

The input to a function can be called anything. Here we called it x . This is the name used inside the function.
$>$ The function is a "machine" for calculating square-root-minus-1. It doesn't do anything until you call it:

```
sqrt_minus_1(50)
[1] 7
sqrt_minus_1(11)
[1] 3.162278
sqrt_minus_1(3)
[1] 1.414214
q <- 17
sqrt_minus_1(q)
[1] 4
```


## Vectorization $1 / 2$

- We conceived our function to work on numbers:

```
sqrt_minus_1(3.25)
```

[1] 1.5
but it actually works on vectors too, as a free bonus of R :

```
sqrt_minus_1(c(50, 11, 3))
[1] 7.000000 3.162278 1.414214
    >or... (over)
```


## Vectorization $2 / 2$

$>$ or even data frames:

```
d <- data.frame(x = 1:2, y = 3:4)
```

d
x y
113
224
sqrt_minus_1(d)

|  | $x$ | $y$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 0 | 1.414214 |
| 2 | 1 | 1.732051 |

## More than one input

- Allow the value to be subtracted, before taking square root, to be input to function as well, thus:

```
sqrt_minus_value <- function(x, d) {
    sqrt(x - d)
}
```

$>$ Call the function with the x and d inputs in the right order:

```
sqrt_minus_value(51, 2)
```

[1] 7
$>$ or give the inputs names, in which case they can be in any order:
sqrt_minus_value(d = 2, x = 51)
[1] 7
$\operatorname{lm}(y \sim x$, data $=d)$

## Defaults $1 / 2$

- Many R functions have values that you can change if you want to, but usually you don't want to, for example:
$\mathrm{x}<-\mathrm{c}(3,4,5$, NA, 6, 7)
mean(x)
[1] NA

```
mean(x, na.rm = TRUE)
```

[1] 5

- By default, the mean of data with a missing value is missing, but if you specify na.rm=TRUE, the missing values are removed before the mean is calculated.
- That is, na.rm has a default value of FALSE: that's what it will be unless you change it.


## Defaults 2/2

- In our function, set a default value for d like this:

```
sqrt_minus_value <- function(x, d = 1) {
    sqrt(x - d)
}
```

- If you specify a value for d , it will be used. If you don't, 1 will be used instead:

```
sqrt_minus_value(51, 2)
```

[1] 7

```
sqrt_minus_value(51)
```

[1] 7.071068

## Catching errors before they happen

- What happened here?

```
sqrt_minus_value(6, 8)
```

Warning in sqrt(x - d): NaNs produced
[1] NaN

- Message not helpful. Actually, function tried to take square root of negative number.
- In fact, not even error, just warning.
$>$ Check that the square root will be OK first. Here's how:

```
sqrt_minus_value <- function(x, d = 1) {
    stopifnot(x - d >= 0)
    sqrt(x - d)
}
```


## What happens with stopifnot

$>$ This should be good, and is:

```
sqrt_minus_value(8, 6)
```

[1] 1.414214

- This should fail, and see how it does:
sqrt_minus_value (6, 8)
Error in sqrt_minus_value(6, 8): x - d >= 0 is not TRUE
- Where the function fails, we get informative error, but if everything good, the stopifnot does nothing.
- stopifnot contains one or more logical conditions, and all of them have to be true for function to work. So put in everything that you want to be true.


## Using R's built-ins

- When you write a function, you can use anything built-in to R, or even any functions that you defined before.
- For example, if you will be calculating a lot of regression-line slopes, you don't have to do this from scratch: you can use R's regression calculations, like this:

```
my_df <- data.frame(x = 1:4, y = c(10, 11, 10, 14))
my_df
    x y
110
2 2 11
3 310
4414
my_df.1 <- lm(y ~ x, data = my_df)
summary(my_df.1)
```

Call:

## Pulling out just the slope

Use pluck:
tidy(my_df.1) \%>\% pluck("estimate", 2)
[1] 1.1

## Making this into a function

$>$ First step: make sure you have it working without a function (we do)

- Inputs: two, an x and a y .

Output: just the slope, a number. Thus:

```
slope <- function(xx, yy) {
    y.1 <- lm(yy ~ xx)
    tidy(y.1) %>% pluck("estimate", 2)
}
```

- Check using our data from before: correct:

```
with(my_df, slope(x, y))
```

[1] 1.1

## Passing things on

- Im has a lot of options, with defaults, that we might want to change. Instead of intercepting all the possibilities and passing them on, we can do this:

```
slope <- function(xx, yy, ...) {
    y.1 <- lm(yy ~ xx, ...)
    tidy(y.1) %>% pluck("estimate", 2)
}
```

- The . . . in the header line means "accept any other input", and the ... in the lm line means "pass anything other than x and y straight on to 1 m ".


## Using . . .

- One of the things lm will accept is a vector called subset containing the list of observations to include in the regression.
- So we should be able to do this:

```
with(my_df, slope(x, y, subset = 3:4))
```

[1] 4

- Just uses the last two observations in x and y :

```
my_df %>% slice(3:4)
```

|  | $x$ | $y$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 3 | 10 |
| 2 | 4 | 14 |

$>$ so the slope should be $(14-10) /(4-3)=4$ and is.

## Running a function for each of several inputs

$>$ Suppose we have a data frame containing several different x's to use in regressions, along with the $y$ we had before:
$(d<-\operatorname{tibble}(x 1=1: 4, x 2=c(8,7,6,5), x 3=c(2,4,6$,
\# A tibble: $4 \times 3$

|  | x 1 | x 2 | x 3 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | <int> | <dbl> | <dbl> |
| 1 | 1 | 8 | 2 |
| 2 | 2 | 7 | 4 |
| 3 | 3 | 6 | 6 |
| 4 | 4 | 5 | 9 |

- Want to use these as different x's for a regression with y from my_df as the response, and collect together the three different slopes.
- Python-like way: a for loop.
$>$ R-like way: map_dbl: less coding, but more thinking.


## The loop way

```
    - "Pull out" column i of data frame d as d %>% pull(i).
    \ Create empty vector slopes to store the slopes.
    L Looping variable i goes from 1 to 3 (3 columns, thus 3
        slopes):
slopes <- numeric(3)
for (i in 1:3) {
    d %>% pull(i) -> xx
    slopes[i] <- slope(xx, my_df$y)
}
slopes
[1] 1.1000000-1.1000000 0.5140187
- Check this by doing the three lms, one at a time.
```


## The map_dbl way

- In words: for each of these (columns of d), run function (slope) with inputs "it" and y), and collect together the answers.
- Since slope returns a decimal number (a dbl), appropriate function-running function is map_dbl:

```
map_dbl(d, \(d) slope(d, my_df$y))
    x1 x2 x3
```

    \(1.1000000-1.1000000 \quad 0.5140187\)
    - Same as loop, with a lot less coding.


## Square roots

"Find the square roots of each of the numbers 1 through 10 ":

```
x <- 1:10
map_dbl(x, \(x) sqrt(x))
```

[1] 1.0000001 .4142141 .7320512 .0000002 .2360682 .449490
[9] 3.0000003 .162278

## Summarizing all columns of a data frame, two ways

- use my d from above:

```
map_dbl(d, \(d) mean(d))
    x1 x2 x3
2.50 6.50 5.25
d %>% summarize(across(everything(), \(x) mean(x)))
# A tibble: 1 x 3
    x1 x2 x3
    <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
1 2.5 6.5 5.25
```

The mean of each column, with the columns labelled.

## What if summary returns more than one thing?

- For example, finding quartiles:

```
quartiles <- function(x) {
    quantile(x, c(0.25, 0.75))
}
quartiles(1:5)
```

25\% 75\%
24
When function returns more than one thing, map (or map_df) instead of map_dbl.

## map results

- Try:
map(d, <br>(d) quartiles(d))
\$x1
25\% 75\%
1.753 .25
\$x2
25\% 75\%
5.757 .25
\$x3
25\% 75\%
3.506 .75
- A list.
- Better: pretend output from quartiles is one-column data frame:

```
map_df(d, \(d) quartiles(d))
# A tibble: 3 x 2
    ` 25%`` `75%`
    <dbl> <dbl>
1
2 5.75 7.25
3 3.5 6.75
```


## Or even

## d \%>\% map_df(<br>(d) quartiles(d))

\# A tibble: 3 x 2

- $25 \%{ }^{-}{ }^{-} 75 \%^{-}$
<dbl> <dbl>
$\begin{array}{lll}1 & 1.75 & 3.25\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lll}2 & 5.75 & 7.25\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lll}3 & 3.5 & 6.75\end{array}$


## Comments

$>$ This works because the implicit first thing in map is (the columns of) the data frame that came out of the previous step.

- These are 1st and 3rd quartiles of each column of d, according to R's default definition (see help for quantile).


## Map in data frames with mutate

- map can also be used within data frames to calculate new columns. Let's do the square roots of 1 through 10 again:

```
d <- tibble(x = 1:10)
d %>% mutate(root = map_dbl(x, \(x) sqrt(x)))
```

\# A tibble: 10 x 2
x root
<int> <dbl>
111
$2 \quad 2 \quad 1.41$
$3 \quad 3 \quad 1.73$

442
$5 \quad 5 \quad 2.24$
$6 \quad 6 \quad 2.45$
$7 \quad 7 \quad 2.65$
882.83
$9 \quad 9 \quad 3$
$10 \quad 10 \quad 3.16$

## Write a function first and then map it

- If the "for each" part is simple, go ahead and use map_-whatever.
- If not, write a function to do the complicated thing first.
- Example: "half or triple plus one": if the input is an even number, halve it; if it is an odd number, multiply it by three and add one.
This is hard to do as a one-liner: first we have to figure out whether the input is odd or even, and then we have to do the right thing with it.


## Odd or even?

$>$ Odd or even? Work out the remainder when dividing by 2 :
$6 \% \% 2$
[1] 0
$5 \% \% 2$
[1] 1

- 5 has remainder 1 so it is odd.


## Write the function

$>$ First test for integerness, then test for odd or even, and then do the appropriate calculation:

```
hotpo <- function(x) {
    stopifnot(round(x) == x) # passes if input an integer
    remainder <- x %% 2
    if (remainder == 1) { # odd number
    ans <- 3 * x + 1
    }
    else { # even number
    ans <- x %/% 2 # integer division
    }
    ans
}
x <- 4
ifelse((x %% 2) == 1, 3*x + 1, x %/% 2)
```

[1] 2

## Test it

```
hotpo(3)
[1] 10
hotpo(12)
[1] }
hotpo(4.5)
Error in hotpo(4.5): round(x) == \(x\) is not TRUE
```


## One through ten

- Use a data frame of numbers 1 through 10 again:
tibble(x = 1:10) \%>\% mutate(y = map_int(x, <br>(x) hotpo(x)))
\# A tibble: 10 x 2

|  | x | y |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | <int> | <int> |
| 1 | 1 | 4 |
| 2 | 2 | 1 |
| 3 | 3 | 10 |
| 4 | 4 | 2 |
| 5 | 5 | 16 |
| 6 | 6 | 3 |
| 7 | 7 | 22 |
| 8 | 8 | 4 |
| 9 | 9 | 28 |
| 10 | 10 | 5 |

## Until I get to 1 (if I ever do)

- If I start from a number, find hotpo of it, then find hotpo of that, and keep going, what happens?
$\rightarrow$ If I get to 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1 I'll repeat for ever, so let's stop when we get to 1 :

```
hotpo_seq <- function(x) {
    ans <- x
    while (x != 1) {
        x <- hotpo(x)
        ans <- c(ans, x)
    }
    ans
}
```

Strategy: keep looping "while x is not 1 ".

- Each new x : add to the end of ans. When I hit 1, I break out of the while and return the whole ans.


## Trying it $1 / 2$

$>$ Start at 6:
hotpo_seq(6)
[1] $\quad 6 \quad 3 \quad 10 \quad 5 \quad 16$

## Trying it 2/2

- Start at 27:

| hotpo_seq(27) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| [1] | 27 | 82 | 41 | 124 | 62 | 31 | 94 | 47 | 142 | 71 | 214 |
| $[12]$ | 107 | 322 | 161 | 484 | 242 | 121 | 364 | 182 | 91 | 274 | 137 |
| $[23]$ | 412 | 206 | 103 | 310 | 155 | 466 | 233 | 700 | 350 | 175 | 526 |
| $[34]$ | 263 | 790 | 395 | 1186 | 593 | 1780 | 890 | 445 | 1336 | 668 | 334 |
| $[45]$ | 167 | 502 | 251 | 754 | 377 | 1132 | 566 | 283 | 850 | 425 | 1276 |
| $[56]$ | 638 | 319 | 958 | 479 | 1438 | 719 | 2158 | 1079 | 3238 | 1619 | 4858 |
| $[67]$ | 2429 | 7288 | 3644 | 1822 | 911 | 2734 | 1367 | 4102 | 2051 | 6154 | 3077 |
| $[78]$ | 9232 | 4616 | 2308 | 1154 | 577 | 1732 | 866 | 433 | 1300 | 650 | 325 |
| $[89]$ | 976 | 488 | 244 | 122 | 61 | 184 | 92 | 46 | 23 | 70 | 35 |
| $[100]$ | 106 | 53 | 160 | 80 | 40 | 20 | 10 | 5 | 16 | 8 | 4 |
| $[111]$ | 2 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## Which starting points have the longest sequences?

- The length of the vector returned from hotpo_seq says how long it took to get to 1 .
$>$ Out of the starting points 1 to 100 , which one has the longest sequence?


## Top 10 longest sequences

tibble (start = 1:100) \%>\%
mutate (seq_length = map_int $($
start, <br>(start) length(hotpo_seq(start)))) $\%>\%$ slice_max (seq_length, n = 10)
\# A tibble: 10 x 2
start seq_length
<int> <int>
197119
273116
$3 \quad 54 \quad 113$
$4 \quad 55 \quad 113$
$5 \quad 27 \quad 112$
$6 \quad 82 \quad 111$
$7 \quad 83 \quad 111$
$8 \quad 41 \quad 110$
$9 \quad 62 \quad 108$
$10 \quad 63 \quad 108$

## What happens if we save the entire sequence?

```
tibble(start = 1:7) %%%
    mutate(sequence = map(start, \(start) hotpo_seq(start)))
# A tibble: 7 x 2
    start sequence
    <int> <list>
1 1 <int [1]>
2 2 <dbl [2]>
3 3 <dbl [8]>
4 4 <dbl [3]>
5 5 <dbl [6]>
6 6 <dbl [9]>
7 7 <dbl [17]>
```

- Each entry in sequence is itself a vector. sequence is a "list-column".

Using the whole sequence to find its length and its max

```
tibble(start = 1:7) %%%
    mutate(sequence = map(start, \(start) hotpo_seq(start)))
    mutate(
    seq_length = map_int(sequence, \(sequence) length(seque
    seq_max = map_int(sequence, \(sequence) max(sequence))
)
# A tibble: 7 x 4
    start sequence seq_length seq_max
    <int> <list> <int> <int>
1 1 <int [1]>
            1 1
2 2 <dbl [2]>
    2
3 3 <dbl [8]>
    4 <dbl [3]>
    3
    4
5 5 <dbl [6]> 6 16
6 6 <dbl [9]> 
```


## Does it work with rowwise?

```
tibble(start=1:7) %>%
    rowwise() %>%
    mutate(sequence = list(hotpo_seq(start))) %>%
mutate(seq_length = length(sequence)) %>%
mutate(seq_max = max(sequence))
```

\# A tibble: $7 \times 4$
\# Rowwise:
start sequence seq_length seq_max
<int> <list> <int> <dbl>

| 1 | 1 | <int | [1] > | 1 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 2 | <dbl | [2] > | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 3 | <dbl | [8] > | 8 | 16 |
| 4 | 4 | <dbl | [3] > | 3 | 4 |
| 5 | 5 | <dbl | [6] > | 6 | 16 |
| 6 | 6 | <dbl | [9] > | 9 | 16 |
| 7 | 7 | <dbl | [17] > | 17 | 52 |

It does.

## Final thoughts on this

- Called the Collatz conjecture.
$>$ Nobody knows whether the sequence always gets to 1 .
Nobody has found an $n$ for which it doesn't.
$\rightarrow$ A tree.

