# Elements of a programming language - 3 

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## Matrices

A matrix is a 2-dimensional data structure, like vector, it consists of elements of the same type. A matrix has rows and columns.

Say, we want to construct this matrix in R :

$$
\mathbf{X}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
4 & 5 & 6 \\
7 & 8 & 9
\end{array}\right]
$$

X <- matrix(1:9, \# a sequence of numbers to fill in nrow=3, \# three rows (alt. ncol=3) byrow=T) \# populate matrix by row
X

| \#\# | [,1] | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# | $[1]$, | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| \#\# | $[2]$, | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| \#\# | $[3]$, | 7 | 8 | 9 |

## Matrices - indexing

Elements of a matrix are retrieved using the '[]' notation, like we have seen for vectors. Here, we have to specify 2 dimensions - the row and the column:

X[1,2] \# Retrieve element from the 1st row, 2nd column
\#\# [1] 2

X[3,] \# Retrieve the entire 3rd row
\#\# [1] 789

X[,2] \# Retrieve the 2nd column
\#\# [1] 258

## Matrices - indexing cted.

X[c(1,3),] \# Retrieve rows 1 and 3

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| \#\# [2,] | 7 | 8 | 9 |

$X[c(1,3), c(3,1)]$

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 3 | 1 |
| \#\# [2,] | 9 | 7 |

## Matrices - dimensions

To check the dimensions of a matrix, use $\operatorname{dim}()$ :
X

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| \#\# [2,] | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| \#\# [3,] | 7 | 8 | 9 |

dim(X) \# 3 rows and 3 columns
\#\# [1] 33

Nobody knows why dim() does not work on vectors... use length() instead.

## Matrices - operations 1

Usually the functions that work for a vector also work for matrices. To order a matrix with respect to, say, 2nd column:

X <- matrix (sample(1:9,size $=9)$, nrow $=3$ ) ord <- order (X[,2])
X [ord,]

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 9 | 2 | 6 |
| \#\# [2,] | 1 | 3 | 4 |
| \#\# [3,] | 8 | 7 | 5 |

## Matrices - transposition

To transpose a matrix use $t()$ :
X

| \#\# | [,1] | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 9 | 2 | 6 |
| \#\# [2,] | 8 | 7 | 5 |
| \#\# [3,] | 1 | 3 | 4 |

t(X)

| \#\# | [,1] | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# | $[1]$, | 9 | 8 | 1 |
| \#\# | $[2]$, | 2 | 7 | 3 |
| \#\# | $[3]$, | 6 | 5 | 4 |

Nobody knows why dim() does not work on vectors... use length() instead.

## Matrices - operations 2

To get the diagonal, of the matrix:
X

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 9 | 2 | 6 |
| \#\# [2,] | 8 | 7 | 5 |
| \#\# [3,] | 1 | 3 | 4 |

diag(X) \# get values on the diagonal
\#\# [1] 974

## Matrices - operations, triangles

To get the upper or the lower triangle use upper.tri() and lower.tri() respectively:

X \# print X

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 9 | 2 | 6 |
| \#\# [2,] | 8 | 7 | 5 |
| \#\# [3,] | 1 | 3 | 4 |

upper.tri(X) \# which elements form the upper triangle

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \#\# [1,] | FALSE | TRUE | TRUE |
| \#\# [2,] FALSE FALSE | TRUE |  |  |
| \#\# [3,] | FALSE FALSE FALSE |  |  |

$X[$ upper tri $(X)]<-0$ \# set them to 0

## Matrices - multiplication

Different types of matrix multiplication exist:
A <- matrix(1:4, nrow = 2, byrow=T)
B <- matrix (5:8, nrow $=2$, byrow=T)
A * B \# Hadamard product

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 5 | 12 |
| \#\# [2,] | 21 | 32 |

A \%*\% B \# Matrix multiplication

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 19 | 22 |
| \#\# [2,] | 43 | 50 |

\# A \%x\% B \# Kronecker product
\# A \% \% B \# Outer nroduct (tensor nroduct.)

## Matrices - outer

Outer product can be useful for generating names
outer(letters[1:4], LETTERS[1:4], paste, sep="-")
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { \#\# } & {[, 1]} & {[, 2]} & {[, 3]} & {[, 4]} \\ \text { \#\# }[1,] & " a-A " & " a-B " & " a-C " & " a-D " \\ \text { \#\# }[2,] & " b-A " & " b-B " & " b-C " & " b-D " \\ \text { \#\# [3,] } & \text { "c-A" } & \text { "c-B" } & \text { "c-C" } & \text { "c-D" } \\ \text { \#\# [4,] } & \text { "d-A" } & \text { "d-B" } & \text { "d-C" } & \text { "d-D" }\end{array}$

## Expand grid

But expand.grid() is more convenient when you want, e.g. generate combinations of variable values:

```
expand.grid(height = seq(120, 121),
    weight = c('1-50', '51+'),
    sex = c("Male","Female"))
```

| \#\# | height | weight | sex |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# 1 | 120 | $1-50$ | Male |
| \#\# 2 | 121 | $1-50$ | Male |
| \#\# 3 | 120 | $51+$ | Male |
| \#\# 4 | 121 | $51+$ | Male |
| \#\# 5 | 120 | $1-50$ Female |  |
| \#\# 6 | 121 | $1-50$ Female |  |
| \#\# 7 | 120 | $51+$ Female |  |
| \#\# 8 | 121 | $51+$ Female |  |

## Matrices - apply

Function apply is a very useful function that applies a given function to either each value of the matrix or in a column/row-wise manner. Say, we want to have mean of values by column:

X

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| \#\# [2,] | 8 | 7 | 0 |
| \#\# [3,] | 1 | 3 | 4 |

apply(X, MARGIN=2, mean) \# MARGIN=1 would do it for rows
\#\# [1] 6.0000003 .3333331 .333333

## Matrices - apply cted.

And now we will use apply() to replace each element it a matrix with its deviation from the mean squared:

X

\#\#
[,1]
[,2]
[,3]
\#\# [1,] 29.64197512 .64197512 .6419753
\#\# [2.] 19.753086 11. $8641.98 \quad 12.641 .9753$

## Matrices - useful fns.

While apply() is handy, it is a bit slow and for the most common statistics, there are special functions col/row Sums/Means:

X

| \#\# | [,1] | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# [1,] | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| \#\# [2,] | 8 | 7 | 0 |
| \#\# [3,] | 1 | 3 | 4 |

colSums (X)
\#\# [1] 18 10 4

These functions are faster!

## Matrices - adding rows/columns

One may wish to add a row or a column to an already existing matrix or to make a matrix out of two or more vectors of equal length:
$\mathrm{x}<-\mathrm{c}(1,1,1)$
$\mathrm{y}<-\mathrm{c}(2,2,2)$
$\mathrm{cbind}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { \#\# } & & \mathrm{x} & \mathrm{y} \\ \text { \#\# [1,] } & 1 & 2 \\ \text { \#\# [2,] } & 1 & 2 \\ \text { \#\# [3,] } & 1 & 2\end{array}$
rbind ( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}$ )

| \#\# | $[, 1]$ | $[, 2]$ | $[, 3]$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\# \#$ | x | 1 | 1 |

## Matrices - more dimensions

## dim(Titanic)

\#\# [1] 4222

Matrices - more dimensions, example

Sex


## Lists - collections of various data types

A list is a collection of elements that can be of various data types:

```
name <- c('R2D2', 'C3PO', 'BB8')
weight <- c(21, 54, 17)
data <- list(name=name, weight)
data
```

\#\# \$name
\#\# [1] "R2D2" "C3PO" "BB8"
\#\#
\#\# [[2]]
\#\# [1] 215417
data\$name
\#\# [1] "R2D2" "C3PO" "BB8"
data[[1]]

## Lists - collections of various data types

Elements of a list can also be different data structures:

```
weight <- matrix(sample(1:9, size = 9), nrow=3)
data <- list(name, weight)
data
## [[1]]
## [1] "R2D2" "C3PO" "BB8"
##
## [[2]]
\begin{tabular}{lrrr} 
\#\# & {\([, 1]\)} & {\([, 2]\)} & {\([, 3]\)} \\
\#\# [1,] & 5 & 4 & 3 \\
\#\# [2,] & 7 & 9 & 8 \\
\#\# [3,] & 6 & 1 & 2
\end{tabular}
data[[2]][3]
```

\#\# [1] 6

## Data frames

A data frame or a data table is a data structure very handy to use. In this structure elements of every column have the same type, but different columns can have different types. Technically, a data frame is a list of vectors. . .

```
df <- data.frame(c(1:5),
    LETTERS[1:5],
    sample(c(TRUE, FALSE), size = 5,
        replace=T))
```

df

| \#\# | c.1.5. | LETTERS.1.5. sample.c.TRUE. .FALSE. . size. . . $5 \ldots$ |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | :--- |
| \#\# | 1 | 1 | A |
| \#\# | 2 | 2 | B |
| \#\# | 3 | 3 | C |
| \#\# | 4 | 4 | D |
| \#\# | 5 | 5 | E |

## Data frames - cted.

As you have seen, columns of a data frame are named after the call that created them. Not always the best option...

```
df <- data.frame(no=c(1:5),
    letter=c('a','b','c','d','e'),
    isBrown=sample(c(TRUE, FALSE),
    size = 5,
    replace=T))
```

df

| \#\# | no | letter | isBrown |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# | 1 | 1 | a | TRUE

## Data frames - accessing.

As you have seen, columns of a data frame are named after the call that created them. Not always the best option. . .

```
df[1,] # get the first row
```

\#\# no letter isBrown
\#\# $1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 1 & \text { a }\end{array}$
df[,2] \# the first column
\#\# [1] a b c d e
\#\# Levels: a b c d e
$\mathrm{df}[2: 3$, 'isBrown'] \# get rows 2-3 from the isBrown column
\#\# [1] TRUE TRUE
df\$]etter[1:2] \# oet the first 2 l.etters

## Data frames - factors

An interesting observation:
df\$letter
\#\# [1] a b c d e
\#\# Levels: a b c de
df\$letter <- as.character (df\$letter)
df\$letter
\#\# [1] "a" "b" "c" "d" "e"

## Data frames - factors cted.

To treat characters as characters at data frame creation time, one can use the stringsAsFactors option set to TRUE:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { df <- data.frame }(n o=c(1: 5), \\
& l e t t e r=c(" a ", " b ", " c ", " d ", " e "), \\
& \text { isBrown=sample(c(TRUE, FALSE), } \\
& \text { size }=5, \\
& \text { replace=T), } \\
& \text { stringsAsFactors }=\text { TRUE) }
\end{aligned}
$$

df\$letter
\#\# [1] a b c d e
\#\# Levels: a b c d e

Well, as you see, it did not work as expected. . .

## Data frames - names

```
To get or change row/column names:
colnames(df) \# get column names
\#\# [1] "no" "letter" "isBrown"
rownames(df) \# get row names
```

\#\# [1] "1" "2" "3" "4" "5"
rownames(df) <- letters[1:5]
rownames(df)
\#\# [1] "a" "b" "c" "d" "e"
df ['b', ]
\#\#

## Data frames - merging.

A very useful feature of $R$ is merging two data frames on certain key using merge:

```
df1 <- data.frame(no=c(1:5),
    letter=c("a", "b", "c", "d", "e"))
df2 <- data.frame (no=c(1:5),
    letter=c("A", "B", "C", "D", "E"))
```

merge(df1, df2, by='no')

| \#\# | no | letter.x | letter. y |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| \#\# | 1 | 1 | a |
| \#\# | 2 | 2 | b |
| \#\# | 3 | 3 | B |
| \#\# | 4 | 4 | c |
| \#\# | 5 | 5 | d |
| C |  |  |  |
|  |  | e | D |

## Objects - type vs. class

An object of class factor is internally represented by numbers:

```
size <- factor('small')
```

class(size) \# Class 'factor'
\#\# [1] "factor"
mode(size) \# Is represented by 'numeric'
\#\# [1] "numeric"
typeof(size) \# Of integer type
\#\# [1] "integer"

## Objects - structure

Many functions return objects. We can easily examine their structure:

```
his <- hist(1:5, plot=F)
str(his)
```

\#\# List of 6
\#\# \$ breaks : num [1:5] 12345
\#\# \$ counts : int [1:4] 2111
\#\# \$ density : num [1:4] 0.40 .20 .20 .2
\#\# \$ mids : num [1:4] 1.52 .53 .54 .5
\#\# \$ xname : chr "1:5"
\#\# \$ equidist: logi TRUE
\#\# - attr(*, "class")= chr "histogram"
object.size(hist) \# How much memory the object consumes

## Objects - fix

We can easily modify values of object's atributes:
attributes(his)
\#\# \$names

```
\#\# [1] "breaks"
"counts"
"density"
"mids"
"xname"
\#\#
\#\# \$class
\#\# [1] "histogram"
```

attr(his, "names")
\#\# [1] "breaks" "counts" "density" "mids" "xname"
\#fix(his) \# Opens an object editor

## Lists as S3 classes

A list that has been named, becomes an S3 class:

```
my.list <- list(numbers = c(1:5),
    letters = letters[1:5])
class(my.list)
```

\#\# [1] "list"
class(my.list) <- 'my.list.class'
class(my.list) \# Now the list is of S3 class
\#\# [1] "my.list.class"

However, that was it. We cannot enforce that numbers will contain numeric values and that letters will contain only characters. S3 is a very primitive class.

For an S3 class we can define a generic function applicable to all objects of this class.

```
print.my.list.class <- function(x) {
    cat('Numbers:', x$numbers, '\n')
    cat('Letters:', x$letters)
}
print(my.list)
```

\#\# Numbers: 12345
\#\# Letters: a b c d e

But here, we have no error-proofing. If the object will lack numbers, the function will still be called:
class(his) <- 'my.list.class' \# alter class print(his) \# Gibberish but no error...

## S3 classes - still useful?

Well, S3 class mechanism is still in use, esp. when writing generic functions, most common examples being print and plot. For example, if you plot an object of a Manhattan.plot class, you write plot(gwas.result) but the true call is: plot.manhattan(gwas.result). This makes life easier as it requires less writing, but it is up to the function developers to make sure everything works!

## S4 class mechanism

S4 classes are more advanced as you actually define the structure of the data within the object of your particular class:

```
setClass('gene',
    representation(name='character',
    coords='numeric')
    )
my.gene <- new('gene', name='ANK3',
    coords=c(1.4e6, 1.412e6))
```


## S4 class - slots

The variables within an S 4 class are stored in the so-called slots. In the above example, we have 2 such slots: name and coords. Here is how to access them:
my.gene@name \# access using @ operator
\#\# [1] "ANK3"
my.gene@coords[2] \# access the 2nd element in slot coords
\#\# [1] 1412000

## S4 class - methods

The power of classes lies in the fact that they define both the data types in particular slots and operations (functions) we can perform on them. Let us define a generic print function for an S4 class:
setMethod('print', 'gene',
function(x) \{
cat('GENE: ', x@name, ' --> ') cat('[', x@coords, ']')
\})
\#\# Creating a generic function for 'print' from package 'ba
\#\# [1] "print"
print(my.gene) \# and we use the newly defined print
\#\# GENE: ANK3 --> [ 14000001412000 ]

