MAP 2112 – Introdução à Lógica de Programação e Modelagem Computacional 1º Semestre - 2020

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MAP2112

ROTEIRO

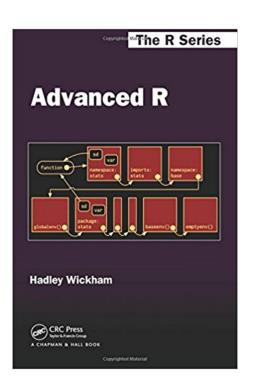
Esse material é fortemente baseado no livro

Advanced R (Chapman & Hall/CRC The R Series)

de Hadley Wickham (http://hadley.nz/) o Cientista-chefe do Rstudio

Seguindo o roteiro do Prof. Roger Peng http://www.biostat.jhsph.edu/~rpeng/

Quando chegarmos nos tópicos de modelagem e Data Science novas referências serão selecionadas.





Overview and History of R

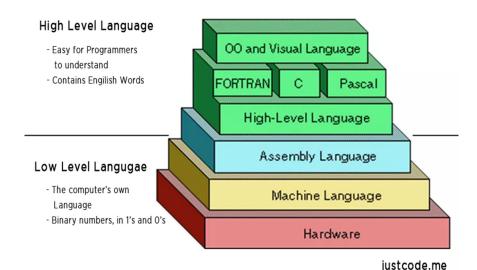
Roger D. Peng, Associate Professor of Biostatistics Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health



What is R?

What is R?

R is a dialect of the S language.



What is S?

- S is a language that was developed by John Chambers and others at Bell Labs.
- S was initiated in 1976 as an internal statistical analysis environment—originally implemented as Fortran libraries.
- Early versions of the language did not contain functions for statistical modeling.
- In 1988 the system was rewritten in C and began to resemble the system that we have today (this
 was Version 3 of the language). The book Statistical Models in S by Chambers and Hastie (the
 white book) documents the statistical analysis functionality.
- Version 4 of the S language was released in 1998 and is the version we use today. The book *Programming with Data* by John Chambers (the green book) documents this version of the language.

S Philosophy

In "Stages in the Evolution of S", John Chambers writes:

"[W]e wanted users to be able to begin in an interactive environment, where they did not consciously think of themselves as programming. Then as their needs became clearer and their sophistication increased, they should be able to slide gradually into programming, when the language and system aspects would become more important."

http://www.stat.bell-labs.com/S/history.html

What is R?

- 1991: Created in New Zealand by Ross Ihaka and Robert Gentleman. Their experience developing R is documented in a 1996 JCGS paper.
- 1993: First announcement of R to the public.
- 1995: Martin M\u00e4chler convinces Ross and Robert to use the GNU General Public License to make R free software.
- 1996: A public mailing list is created (R-help and R-devel)
- 1997: The R Core Group is formed (containing some people associated with S-PLUS). The core group controls the source code for R.
- 2000: R version 1.0.0 is released.
- 2013: R version 3.0.2 is released on December 2013.

https://cran.r-project.org/



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About R R Homepage The R Journal

Software
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Contributed

The Comprehensive R Archive Network

Download and Install R

Precompiled binary distributions of the base system and contributed packages, **Windows and Mac** users most likely want one of these versions of R:

- · Download R for Linux
- · Download R for (Mac) OS X
- · Download R for Windows

R is part of many Linux distributions, you should check with your Linux package management system in addition to the link above.

Source Code for all Platforms

Windows and Mac users most likely want to download the precompiled binaries listed in the upper box, not the source code. The sources have to be compiled before you can use them. If you do not know what this means, you probably do not want to do it!

- The latest release (2020-02-29, Holding the Windsock) R-3.6.3.tar.gz, read what's new in the latest version.
- Sources of <u>R alpha and beta releases</u> (daily snapshots, created only in time periods before a planned release).
- Daily snapshots of current patched and development versions are <u>available here</u>.
 Please read about <u>new features and bug fixes</u> before filing corresponding feature requests or bug reports.
- Source code of older versions of R is available here.
- Contributed extension <u>packages</u>

Questions About R

 If you have questions about R like how to download and install the software, or what the license terms are, please read our <u>answers to frequently asked questions</u> before you send an email.



The R Project for Statistical Computing

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Help With R

Getting Started

R is a free software environment for statistical computing and graphics. It compiles and runs on a wide variety of UNIX platforms, Windows and MacOS. To **download R**, please choose your preferred CRAN mirror.

If you have questions about R like how to download and install the software, or what the license terms are, please read our answers to frequently asked questions before you send an email.

News

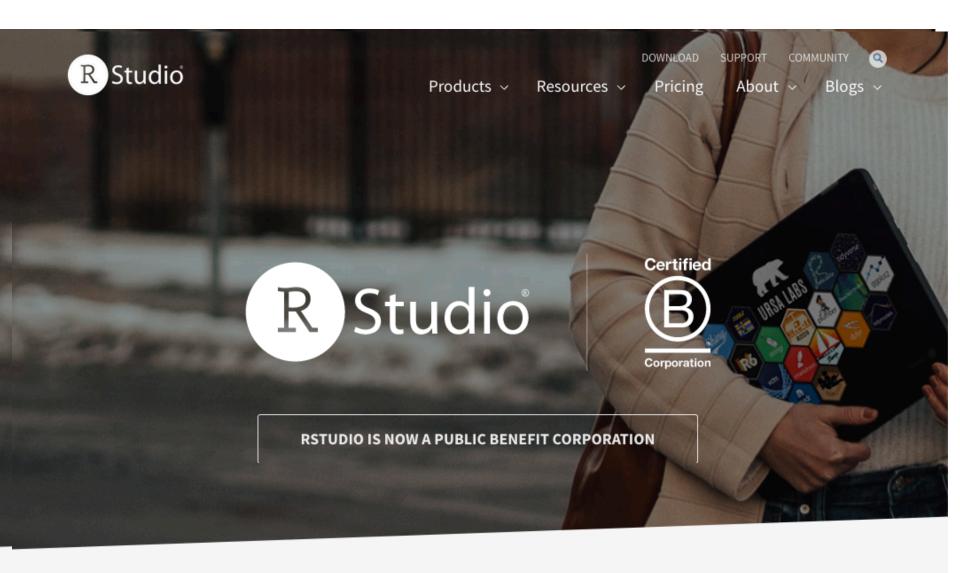
- R version 3.6.3 (Holding the Windsock) has been released on 2020-02-29.
- · useR! 2020 will take place in St. Louis, Missouri, USA.
- R version 3.5.3 (Great Truth) has been released on 2019-03-11.
- The R Foundation Conference Committee has released a call for proposals to host useR! 2020 in North America.
- You can now support the R Foundation with a renewable subscription as a supporting member
- The R Foundation has been awarded the Personality/Organization of the year 2018 award by the professional association of German market and social researchers.

Features of R

- · Syntax is very similar to S, making it easy for S-PLUS users to switch over.
- Semantics are superficially similar to S, but in reality are quite different (more on that later).
- · Runs on almost any standard computing platform/OS (even on the PlayStation 3)
- Frequent releases (annual + bugfix releases); active development.
- · Quite lean, as far as software goes; functionality is divided into modular packages
- Graphics capabilities very sophisticated and better than most stat packages.
- Useful for interactive work, but contains a powerful programming language for developing new tools (user -> programmer)
- · Very active and vibrant user community; R-help and R-devel mailing lists and Stack Overflow

Drawbacks of R

- Essentially based on 40 year old technology.
- Little built in support for dynamic or 3-D graphics (but things have improved greatly since the "old days").
- Functionality is based on consumer demand and user contributions. If no one feels like implementing your favorite method, then it's your job!
 - (Or you need to pay someone to do it)
- Objects must generally be stored in physical memory; but there have been advancements to deal with this too
- Not ideal for all possible situations (but this is a drawback of all software packages).



Products v





RStudio

Take control of your R code

RStudio is an integrated development environment (IDE) for R. It includes a console, syntax-highlighting editor that supports direct code execution, as well as tools for plotting, history, debugging and workspace management. Click here to see more RStudio features.

RStudio is available in **open source** and **commercial** editions and runs on the desktop (Windows, Mac, and Linux) or in a browser connected to RStudio Server or RStudio Server Pro (Debian/Ubuntu, Red Hat/CentOS, and SUSE Linux).

There are two versions of RStudio:



RStudio Desktop

Run RStudio on your desktop

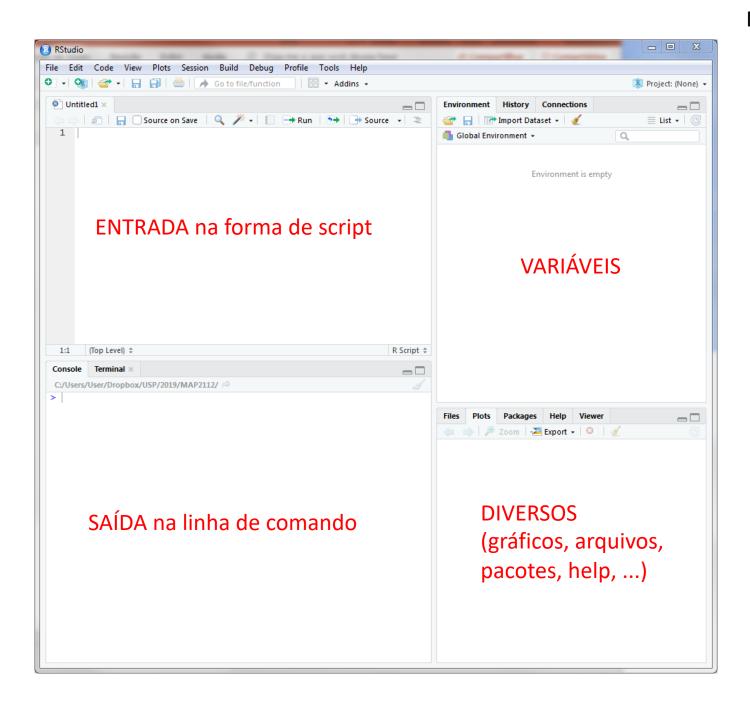


RStudio Server

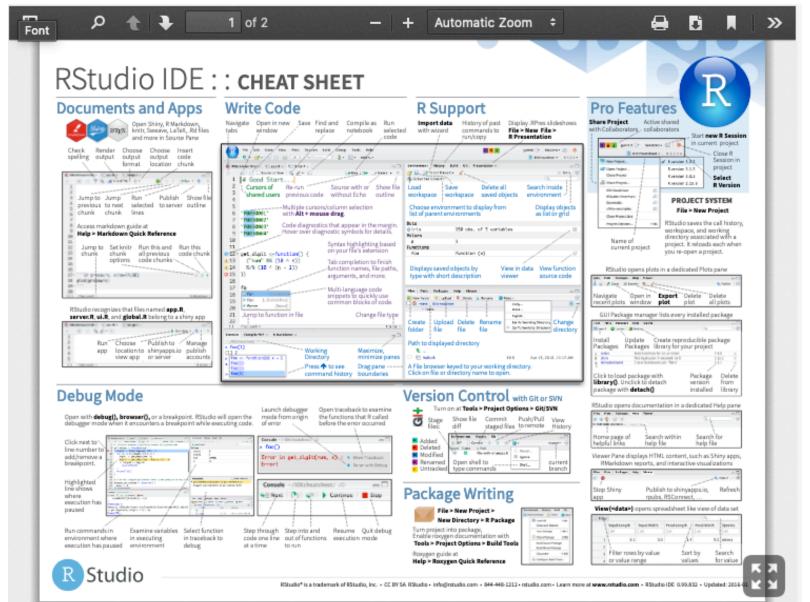
Centralize access and computation

R Studio Desktop

	Open Source Edition
Overview	 Access RStudio locally Syntax highlighting, code completion, and smart indentation Execute R code directly from the source editor Quickly jump to function definitions Easily manage multiple working directories using projects Integrated R help and documentation Interactive debugger to diagnose and fix errors quickly Extensive package development tools
Support	Community forums only
License	AGPL v3
Pricing	Free
	DOWNLOAD RSTUDIO DESKTOP



https://resources.rstudio.com/rstudio-developed/rstudio-ide



Entering Input

At the R prompt we type expressions. The <- symbol is the assignment operator.

```
> x <- 1
> print(x)
[1] 1
> x
[1] 1
> msg <- "hello"</pre>
```

The grammar of the language determines whether an expression is complete or not.

```
> x <- ## Incomplete expression
```

The # character indicates a comment. Anything to the right of the # (including the # itself) is ignored.

Evaluation

When a complete expression is entered at the prompt, it is evaluated and the result of the evaluated expression is returned. The result may be auto-printed.

```
> x <- 5 ## nothing printed
> x ## auto-printing occurs
[1] 5
> print(x) ## explicit printing
[1] 5
```

The [1] indicates that x is a vector and 5 is the first element.

Printing

```
> x <- 1:20
> x
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15
[16] 16 17 18 19 20
```

The: operator is used to create integer sequences.

Objects

R has five basic or "atomic" classes of objects:

- character
- numeric (real numbers)
- integer
- complex
- · logical (True/False)

The most basic object is a vector

- · A vector can only contain objects of the same class
- BUT: The one exception is a list, which is represented as a vector but can contain objects of different classes (indeed, that's usually why we use them)

Empty vectors can be created with the vector() function.

Empty vectors can be created with the vector() function.

```
> x <- vector("numeric",5)
> x
[1] 0 0 0 0 0
```

Numbers

- Numbers in R a generally treated as numeric objects (i.e. double precision real numbers)
- If you explicitly want an integer, you need to specify the L suffix
- Ex: Entering 1 gives you a numeric object; entering 1L explicitly 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 / Inf is 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 (more on that later)

Attributes

R objects can have attributes

- names, dimnames
- dimensions (e.g. matrices, arrays)
- class
- length
- · other user-defined attributes/metadata

Attributes of an object can be accessed using the attributes() function.



Creating Vectors

The c() function can be used to create vectors of objects.

```
> 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</pre>
```

Using the vector() function

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

Atomic vectors are usually created with c(), short for combine:

```
dbl_var <- c(1, 2.5, 4.5)
# With the L suffix, you get an integer rather than a double
int_var <- c(1L, 6L, 10L)
# Use TRUE and FALSE (or T and F) to create logical vectors
log_var <- c(TRUE, FALSE, T, F)
chr_var <- c("these are", "some strings")</pre>
```

Atomic vectors are always flat, even if you nest c()'s:

```
c(1, c(2, c(3, 4)))
#> [1] 1 2 3 4
# the same as
c(1, 2, 3, 4)
#> [1] 1 2 3 4
```

Given a vector, you can determine its type with typeof(), or check if it's a specific type with an "is" function: is.character(), is.double(), is.integer(), is.logical(), or, more generally, is.atomic().

```
int_var <- c(1L, 6L, 10L)
typeof(int_var)
#> [1] "integer"
is.integer(int_var)
#> [1] TRUE
is.atomic(int_var)
#> [1] TRUE
                                        is.numeric(int_var)
dbl_var <- c(1, 2.5, 4.5)
typeof(dbl_var)
                                        #> [1] TRUE
#> [1] "double"
                                        is.numeric(dbl_var)
is.double(dbl_var)
                                        #> [1] TRUE
#> [1] TRUE
is.atomic(dbl_var)
#> [1] TRUE
```

Mixing Objects

What about the following?

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

When different objects are mixed in a vector, *coercion* occurs so that every element in the vector is of the same class.

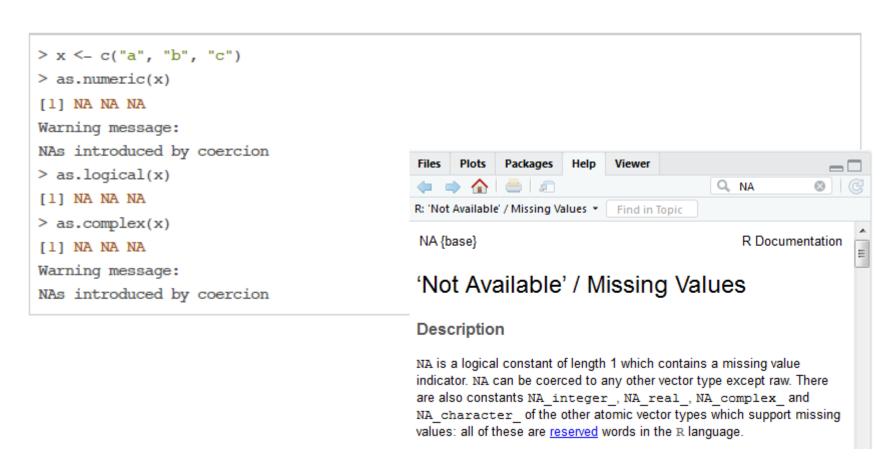
Explicit Coercion

Objects can be explicitly coerced from one class to another using the as.* functions, if available.

```
> 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
> as.character(x)
[1] "0" "1" "2" "3" "4" "5" "6"
```

Explicit Coercion

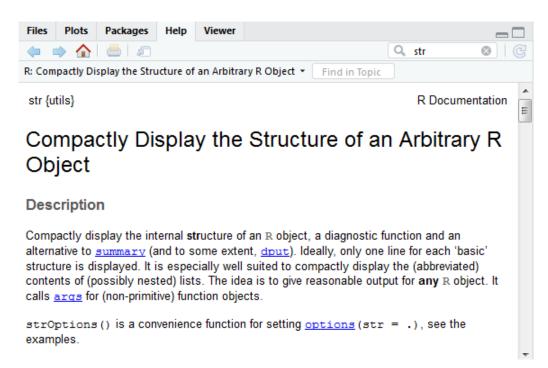
Nonsensical coercion results in NAS



All elements of an atomic vector must be the same type, so when you attempt to combine different types they will be **coerced** to the most flexible type. Types from least to most flexible are: logical, integer, double, and character.

For example, combining a character and an integer yields a character:

```
str(c("a", 1))
#> chr [1:2] "a" "1"
```



When a logical vector is coerced to an integer or double, TRUE becomes 1 and FALSE becomes 0. This is very useful in conjunction with sum() and mean()

```
x <- c(FALSE, FALSE, TRUE)
as.numeric(x)
#> [1] 0 0 1

# Total number of TRUEs
sum(x)
#> [1] 1

# Proportion that are TRUE
mean(x)
#> [1] 0.3333
```

Coercion often happens automatically. Most mathematical functions (+, log, abs, etc.) will coerce to a double or integer, and most logical operations (&, |, any, etc) will coerce to a logical. You will usually get a warning message if the coercion might lose information. If confusion is likely, explicitly coerce with as.character(), as.double(), as.integer(), or as.logical().

Lists

Lists are a special type of vector that can contain elements of different classes. Lists are a very important data type in R and you should get to know them well.

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

[[2]]
[1] "a"

[[3]]
[1] TRUE
[[4]]
[1] 1+4i
```

Lists are different from atomic vectors because their elements can be of any type, including lists. You construct lists by using list() instead of c():

```
x <- list(1:3, "a", c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE), c(2.3, 5.9))
str(x)
#> List of 4
#> $ : int [1:3] 1 2 3
#> $ : chr "a"
#> $ : logi [1:3] TRUE FALSE TRUE
#> $ : num [1:2] 2.3 5.9
```

Lists are sometimes called **recursive** vectors, because a list can contain other lists. This makes them fundamentally different from atomic vectors.

```
x <- list(list(list(list())))
str(x)
#> List of 1
#> $:List of 1
#> ..$:List of 1
#> ...$: list()
is.recursive(x)
#> [1] TRUE
```

c() will combine several lists into one. If given a combination of atomic vectors and lists, c() will coerce the vectors to list before combining them. Compare the results of list() and c():

```
x \leftarrow list(list(1, 2), c(3, 4))
y \leftarrow c(list(1, 2), c(3, 4))
str(x)
#> List of 2
#> $ :List of 2
#> ..$ : num 1
#> ..$ : num 2
#> $ : num [1:2] 3 4
str(y)
#> List of 4
#> $ : num 1
#> $ : num 2
#> $ : num 3
#> $ : num 4
```

The typeof() a list is list. You can test for a list with is.list() and coerce to a list with as.list(). You can turn a list into an atomic vector with unlist(). If the elements of a list have different types, unlist() uses the same coercion rules as c().

```
Console
         Terminal ×
C:/Users/User/Dropbox/USP/2019/MAP2112/
> x <- list("a",15,10L,TRUE)</p>
> X
[[1]]
[[2]]
[1] 15
[[3]]
[1] 10
[[4]]
[1] TRUE
> y <- unlist(x)</pre>
            "15" "10"
```

Time-Series Calendar Heatmap

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