

Standards of programming in R

R style guide

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- ① R is **open source software**. It has many advantages of other commercial statistical platforms such as **MATLAB**, **SAS** and **SPSS**.
- ② R has its roots in the **statistics community**, being **created by statisticians for statisticians**. This is reflected in the design of the programming language: many of its core language elements are geared toward statistical analysis.
- ③ **The amount of code** that we need to write in R is **very small compared to other programming languages**. There are many high-level data types and functions available in R that hide the low-level implementation details from the programmer. Although there exist R systems used in production with **significant complexity**, for most data analysis tasks, we need to write only a few lines of code.

- ④ R's history is inexorably tied to its domain specific predecessors and cousins, as it is **100 percent focused and built for statistical data analysis and visualization**.
- ⑤ R can access and manipulate various file types and databases (and was also **designed for flexibility and extensibility**)
- ⑥ R focus on **foundational analytics-oriented data types**.
- ⑦ R makes it remarkably simple to **run extensive statistical analyses on your data and then generate informative and appealing visualizations with just a few lines of code**.
- ⑧ More modern R **libraries/packages** extend and enhance these base capabilities and are **the foundations of many of mind- and eye-catching examples of cutting-edge data analysis and visualization**. Vast package library called the **Comprehensive R Archive Network**, or more commonly known as CRAN

- ⑨ R also provides **an interactive execution shell** that has enough basic functionality for general needs.
- ⑩ The desire for even more interactivity sparked the development of **RStudio**, which is a combination of **integrated development environment (IDE)**, **data exploration tool**, and **iterative experimentation environment** that exponentially enhances R's default capabilities.

Click below to see more:

[The Comprehensive R Archive Network](#)





[RStudio – Open source and enterprise-ready professional software for R](#)


Both links provide full installation details for **Linux**, **Windows**, and **macOS** systems.

RStudio comes in two flavors: **Desktop** and **Server**.

RStudio core features:


- Built-in IDE
- Data structure and workspace exploration tools
- Quick access to the  console
-  help viewer
- Graphics panel viewer
- File system explorer
- Package manager
- Integration with version control systems

The primary difference is that one runs as a standalone, single-user application (RStudio Desktop) and the other (RStudio Server) is installed on a server, accessed via browser, and enables multiple users to take advantage of the compute infrastructure.

 abstract quite a bit of complexity when it comes to reading and parsing data into structures for processing. See functions:

- `read.table()` – reads a `*.txt` file in **table format** and creates a **data frame** from it
- `read.csv()` – reads a `*.csv` file in **table format** and creates a **data frame** from it (check also argument `encoding`, e.g. "Windows-1250", "UTF-8" or other)
- `read.delim()`

See `help()` arguments `header`, `sep` and `delim`.

- `download.file(url, destfile)` – to download a **single file** from the `url` and store it in `destfile`; the `url` must start with a scheme such as `http://`, `https://`, `ftp://` or `file://`
- `getURL(url)` – to download a **single file** from the `url` directly to  and then use function `read.table()` to read data – in library(RCurl)

First **set a working directory** to `dir` using function `setwd(dir)`. You can check an absolute `filepath` representing the **current working directory** using function `getwd()`.

```

1 ## reading *.txt file
2 DATA <- read.table("DATA.txt",header=TRUE)
3 ## reading *.csv file
4 DATA <- read.csv("DATA.csv",encoding="Windows-1250",
5                 header=TRUE)
6 ## reading from the web
7 URL <- "http://www.math.muni.cz/.../DATA.txt"
8 download.file(URL,destfile="DATA.txt",method="libcurl")
9 DATA <- read.table("DATA.txt",header=TRUE)
10 ## reading from the web
11 install.packages("RCurl")
12 library(RCurl)
13 URL <- getURL(URL)
14 DATA <- read.table(textConnection(URL))
15 head(DATA)

```

 functions for reading data from other statistical software:

- `readMat()` – package `R.matlab`
- `read.spss()` – reads a file stored by the SPSS save or export commands – also in library `foreign`
- `read.ssd()` – generates a SAS program to convert the content of `ssd` data file to SAS transport format and then uses `read.xport()` to obtain a `data.frames()` – library `foreign`
- `read.xport()` – reads a file as a SAS XPORT format library and returns a list of `data.frames()` – library `foreign`

 also provides extensive support for accessing data stored in various **SQL and NoSQL databases**. For SQL databases, use e.g. library(RPostgreSQL).

The consistency in the record format makes the consumption of the data equally as straightforward in each language. In each language/environment, we follow a typical pattern of:

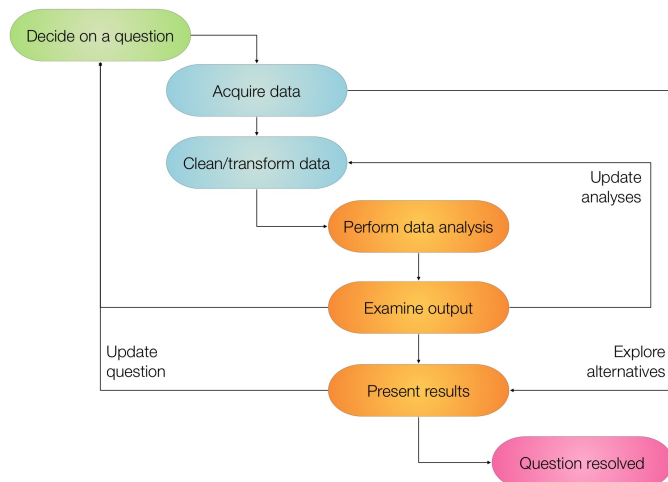
- 1 Reading in data
- 2 Assigning meaningful column names (if necessary)
- 3 Using built-in functions to get an overview of the data structure
- 4 Taking a look at the first few rows of data, typically with the `head()` or `tail()` function

Given some of the **"rookie mistakes"** seen in many scientific reports (bio-medical, geographical or other) or industry reports (pharmaceutical, security or other) and **the prevalence of raw counts** in science/industry dashboards, there is a high probability that statistics is the weakest area for science/industry professionals.

You do not need a Ph.D. in statistics to be **an effective data scientist**. However, its important to have an **understanding of the fundamentals of statistical analysis**, even when you are part of a **multidisciplinary team**.

Understanding and applying statistics correctly is more complex than you might imagine, and individuals in disciplines with a rich history of using statistics to solve complex problems oftentimes fall into common traps.

A hallmark of a **good data scientist** is adaptability and you should be continually scouring the digital landscape for emerging tools that will help you solve problems.



The methodology of extracting insights from data is called as **data science**. Historically, data science has been known by different names: in the early days, it was known simply as **statistics**, after which it became known as **data analytics**. There is an important difference between data science as compared to statistics and data analytics.

Data science is a multi-disciplinary subject: it is a combination of statistical analysis, programming, and domain expertise.





Over the last few years, data science has emerged as a discipline in its own right.




Three aspects and their importance:





- 1 **Statistical skills** are essential in applying the right kind of statistical methodology along with interpreting the results.
- 2 **Programming skills** are essential to implement the analysis methodology, combine data from multiple sources and especially, working with large-scale datasets.
- 3 **Domain expertise** is essential in identifying the problems that need to be solved, forming hypotheses about the solutions, and most importantly understanding how the insights of the analysis should be applied.

However, **there is no standardized set of tools that are used in the analysis**. Data scientists use a **variety of programming languages and tools** in their work, sometimes even using a **combination of heterogeneous tools to perform a single analysis**. This increases the learning curve for the new data scientists.

The  programming environment presents a **great homogeneous set of tools for most data science tasks**.

 is more than a programming language. It is an **interactive environment for doing statistics**. Think of  as *having* a programming language than *being* a programming language. The  language is the scripting language for the  environment. Variables can't be declared. They come into existence on first assignment (**lexical scoping**) – it is not always easy to determine the scope of a variable.

- 1 the **assignment operator** in  is "<->" (the arrow) with the receiving variable on the left; it is also possible, though uncommon, *to reverse the arrow* and put the receiving variable on the right; it is sometimes possible to use "=" for assignment
- 2 when supplying *default function arguments* or *calling functions with named arguments*, you must use the "=" operator and cannot use the arrow
- 3 at some time in the past  used *underscore* as assignment – this meant that the C convention of using underscores as separators in multi-word variable names was not only disallowed but produced strange side effects; however,  allows *underscore as a variable character* and not as an assignment operator
- 4 don't use *hyphens* "-"

- 5 because the underscore was not allowed as a variable character, the convention arose to use *dot* as a **name separator**
- 6 unlike its use in many object oriented languages, the dot character in  has no special significance, with two exceptions
 - the `ls()` function in  lists **active variables** but *does not list files that begin with a dot*
 - `...` is used to indicate a **variable number of function arguments**
- 7  uses "\$" in a manner analogous to the way other languages use dot (identifying the parts of an **object**) – see e.g. `data.frame()` and `list()`
- 8  has several **one-letter reserved words**: `c`, `q`, `s`, `t`, `C`, `D`, `F`, `I`, and `T` – actually, these are not reserved, but its best to think of them as reserved

- 9 the preferred form for **variable names** is **all lower case letters and words separated with dots** (`variable.name`), but `variableName` is also accepted
- 10 **function names** have **initial capital letters and no dots** (`FunctionName`)
- 11 **constants** are named like functions but with an initial k (`kConstantName`)
- 12 **line length** – the maximum line length is 80 characters
- 13 **indentation** – when indenting your code, use two spaces – never use tabs or mix tabs and spaces (exception: when a line break occurs inside parentheses, align the wrapped line with the first character inside the parenthesis)

14 spacing

- place spaces around all binary operators (`=`, `+`, `-`, `<-`, etc.) exception: spaces around `=`'s are optional when passing parameters in a function call
- do not place a space before a comma, but always place one after a comma
- place a space before left parenthesis, except in a function call
- extra spacing (i.e., more than one space in a row) is okay if it improves alignment of equals signs or arrows (`<-`)
- do not place spaces around code in parentheses or square brackets exception: always place a space after a comma.

- 15 **semicolons** – do not terminate your lines with semicolons or use semicolons to put more than one command on the same line

- 16 `attach()` – avoid using it – the possibilities for creating errors when using `attach` are numerous
- 17 **commenting** – comment your code
 - **entire commented lines** should begin with `"#"` and one space
 - **short comments** can be placed after code preceded by two spaces, `"#"`, and then one space
- 18 **function definitions and calls** – function definitions should first list arguments *without default values*, followed by those *with default values* – in both function definitions and function calls, *multiple arguments per line are allowed; line breaks are only allowed between assignments*

19 function documentation

- functions should contain a *comments section* immediately below the function definition line – these comments should consist of a *one-sentence description* of the function
- a list of the function's **arguments**, denoted by `Args:`, with a description of each (including the data type)
- and a description of the **return values**, denoted by `Returns:`
- the comments should be descriptive enough that a caller can use the function without reading any of the function's code

20 **general layout and ordering**

- copyright statement comment
- author comment
- file description comment, including purpose of program, inputs, and outputs
- `source()` and `library()` statements
- function definitions
- executed statements, if applicable (e.g., `print`, `plot`)

For more details see:
[Google's R Style Guide](#) and [R Coding Conventions](#)

1 built-in function for creating vectors is `c()`

2 "container vector" – an ordered collection of numbers with no other structure

- the **length of a vector** is the number of elements in the container
- **operations** are applied *componentwise*

3 "mathematical vector" – an element of a vector space

- **length of a vector** is geometrical length determined by an inner product
- the number of components is called **dimension**
- **operations** are *not applied componentwise*

A vector in R is a **container vector**, a statisticians collection of data, not a mathematical vector. The R language is designed around the assumption that a vector is **an ordered set of measurements** rather than a geometrical position or a physical state. R supports mathematical vector operations, but they are secondary in the design of the language.

The R language has no provision for **scalars**. The only way to represent a single number in a variable is to use a vector of length one. It is usually clearer and more efficient in R to operate on vectors as a whole.

- 4 vectors in R are **indexed starting with 1** and matrices in are stored in **column-major order**
- 5 elements of a vector can be accessed using `"[]"`.
- 6 vectors automatically expand when assigning to an index past the end of the vector

7 **five types of indices/subscripts** in R

- **positive integers** – subscripts that reference particular elements
- **negative integers** – is an instruction to remove an element from a vector (it makes sense in statistical context)
- **zero** – is does nothing (it doesn't even produce an error)
- **Booleans**
 - a Boolean expression with a vector evaluates to a vector of Boolean values, the results of evaluating the expression componentwise (e.g. `x[x > 3]` – the expression `x > 3` evaluates to the vector of `TRUE` or `FALSE`)
 - when a vector with a Boolean subscript appears in an assignment, the assignment applies to the elements that would have been extracted if there had been no assignment (`x[x > 3] <- 7`)
- **nothing** – a subscript can be left out entirely (So `x[]` would simply return `x`)

8 sequences

- the expression `seq(a, b, n)` creates a *closed interval* from `a` to `b` in steps of size `n`
- the notation `a:b` is an abbreviation for `seq(a, b, 1)`
- the notation `seq(a, b, length=n)` is a variation that will set the step size to $(b-a)/(n-1)$ so that the sequence has `n` points

```
16 | seq(1,10, by=2) # odd numbers
17 | seq(1,10, length=4)
18 | seq(1,10, by=0.05) # sufficiently dense sequence (?)
```

9 replications – function `rep(x)` replicates the values in `x` – important arguments are `times`, `each` and `length`

```
19 | rep(1:4, 2)
20 | rep(1:4, each=2) # not the same as above
21 | rep(1:4, c(2,2,2,2)) # the same as above
22 | rep(1:4, c(2,1,2,1))
23 | rep(1:4, each=2, len=4) # only first four elements
```

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

12 Boolean operators

- true values** – `T` or `TRUE` and **false values** – `F` or `FALSE`
- the *shorter form* operators **and** `"&"` and **or** `"|"` apply element-wise on vectors (are vectorized)

```
29 | ((-2:2) >= 0) & ((-2:2) <= 0)
30 | # [1] FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE
```

- the *longer form* operators **and** `"&&"` and **or** `"||"` are often used in conditional statements (evaluates left to right examining only the first element of each vector)

```
31 | ((-2:2) >= 0) && ((-2:2) <= 0)
32 | # [1] FALSE
```

- the operators will not evaluate their second argument if the return value is determined by the first argument

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

10 the type of a vector is the type of the elements it contains and must be one of the following `logical`, `integer`, `numeric`, `character`, `factor`, `complex`, `double` (creates a double-precision vector), or `raw` – *all elements of a vector must have the same underlying type* (this restriction does not apply to lists)

```
24 | x1 <- c(TRUE, TRUE, TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, FALSE) # logical vector
25 | x2 <- c(1, 2, 5.3, 6, -2, 4) # numeric vector
26 | x3 <- c("one", "two", "three") # character vector
27 | gender <- c(rep("male", 20), rep("female", 30))
28 | gender <- factor(gender) # factor vector
```

11 type conversion functions have the naming convention `as.xxxxx()` for the function converts its argument to type `xxxx`, e.g., `as.integer(4.2)` returns the integer `3`, and `as.character(4.2)` returns the string `"4.2"` (see also `is.xxxxx()`)

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

13 lists are like vectors, except *elements need not all have the same type*, e.g. the first element of a list could be an integer and the second element be a string or a vector of Boolean values

- are created using the `list()` function
- elements can be access by position using `"[[]]"`.
- named elements of lists can be accessed by dollar sign `"$"`

```
33 | A <- list(name="John", age=24)
34 | A[[1]]
35 | A$name
```

- if you attempt to access a non-existent element of a list, say `A[[3]]` above, you will get an error
- you can assign to a non-existent element of a list, thus extending the list; if the index you assign to is more than one past the end of the list, intermediate elements are created and assigned `NULL` values

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

- 14 **matrix** and **array** – R does not support matrices and arrays, only vectors, but you can *change the dimension of a vector*, essentially making it a matrix (see also `rbind()`, `cbind()`)
 - R fills matrices by column
 - to fill matrix by row, add the argument `byrow = TRUE` to the call to the `matrix()` function

```
36 A1 <- array(c(1,2,3,4,5,6), dim=c(2,3))
37 A2 <- matrix(c(1,2,3,4,5,6), 2, 3)
38 A3 <- matrix(c(1,2,3,4,5,6), 2, 3, byrow=TRUE)
```

- 15 **data frame** – is more general than a matrix, in that different columns can have different modes (numeric, character, factor, etc.)

```
39 x1 <- c(1,2,3,4)
40 x2 <- c("red", "white", "red", NA)
41 x3 <- c(TRUE, TRUE, TRUE, FALSE)
42 mydata <- data.frame(x1, x2, x3)
43 names(mydata) <- c("ID", "Color", "Passed") # variable names
```

- 16 **missing values and NaNs** – the result of an operation on numbers may return different types **non-number**

- "not a number" – NaN
- "not applicable" – NA (to indicate missing data, and is unfortunately fairly common in data sets)
- the author of an R function, has *no control over the data* his function will receive because NA is a legal value inside an R vector – there is no way to specify that a function takes only vectors with non-null components – you must handle NA values, even if you handle them by returning an error
- the function `is.nan()` will return TRUE for those components of its argument that are NaN (see also `!is.nan()`)
- the function `is.na()` will return true for those components that are NA or NaN (see also `!is.na()`)

- 17 `sessionInfo()` – prints the R version, OS, packages loaded, etc.
- 18 `help(fctn)` – displays help on any function `fctn`,
- 19 the function `quit()` or its alias `q()` terminate the current R session
- 20 `save.image()` is just a short-cut for "save my current workspace"
- 21 `ls()` – shows which objects are defined
- 22 `rm(list=ls())` – clears all defined objects
- 23 prefixes `d`, `p`, `q`, `r` stand for **density** (probability density function, PDF), **probability** (cumulative distribution function, CDF), **quantile** (CDF^{-1}), and **random sample** – e.g., `dnorm()` is the density function of a normal random variable and `rnorm()` generates a sample from a normal random variable etc.

function	description	function	description
binomial distribution		Poisson distribution	
<code>dbinom()</code>	probability mass function	<code>dpois()</code>	probability mass function
<code>pbinom()</code>	distribution function	<code>ppois()</code>	distribution function
<code>qbinom()</code>	quantile	<code>qpois()</code>	quantile
<code>rbinom()</code>	pseudo-random numbers	<code>rpois()</code>	pseudo-random numbers
multinomial distribution		gamma distribution	
<code>dmultinom()</code>	probability mass function	<code>dgamma()</code>	density function
<code>pmultinom()</code>	distribution function	<code>pgamma()</code>	distribution function
<code>qmultinom()</code>	quantile	<code>qgamma()</code>	quantile
<code>rmultinom()</code>	pseudo-random numbers	<code>rgamma()</code>	pseudo-random numbers
normal distribution		Student t distribution	
<code>dnorm()</code>	density function	<code>dt()</code>	density function
<code>pnorm()</code>	distribution function	<code>pt()</code>	distribution function
<code>qnorm()</code>	quantile	<code>qt()</code>	quantile
<code>rnorm()</code>	pseudo-random numbers	<code>rt()</code>	pseudo-random numbers
χ^2 distribution		Fisher F distribution	
<code>dchisq()</code>	density function	<code>df()</code>	density function
<code>pchisq()</code>	distribution function	<code>pf()</code>	distribution function
<code>qchisq()</code>	quantile	<code>qf()</code>	quantile
<code>rchisq()</code>	pseudo-random numbers	<code>rf()</code>	pseudo-random numbers
multivariate normal distribution		multivariate normal distribution	
library <code>mvtnorm</code>		library <code>MASS</code>	
<code>rmvnorm()</code>	pseudo-random numbers	<code>mvrnorm()</code>	pseudo-random numbers

For more details see e.g. [R language for programmers](#).