

Scientific Programming Using

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Variable = a 'place' in memory to store a value

```
> x <- 6.4
```

value to be stored

assignment operator

variable name (can include any alphanumeric symbol, but must start with a letter)

An operator is a symbol that makes the computer do something – the assignment operator *assigns* the given value to the declared variable. This is **NOT** the same as an equal sign in a mathematical equation (as we will see).



- > $a+b$ - Addition
- > $a-b$ - Subtraction
- > $a*b$ - Multiplication
- > a/b - Division
- > a^b - Exponentiation

$a = 6, b = 2:$

What does $a*b$ equal?

```
> a*b  
[1] 12
```

$a = 6, b = 2, c = 1, d = 2:$

What does $a/b*(c+d)$ equal? 1 or 9? Why?

```
> a/b*(c+d)
```

$(a = 6, b = 2, c = 1, d = 2)$

What does $a/b*(c+d)$ equal? 9.

```
> a/b*(c+d)
[1] 9
```

The value of depends on the order of operations. In most computer languages, including R, the order of arithmetic operations from is:

- 1) left to right
- 2) parentheses
- 3) exponents and roots
- 4) multiplication and division
- 5) addition and subtraction

To get an answer of 1, an additional set of parentheses is needed:

```
> a/(b*(c+d))
[1] 1
```



Functions are used to package a series of commands. A function is a program or script that carries out a particular task.

Prepackaged commands in R are examples of functions, but you can also create your own.

function name

assignment operator

parameter – one or more values passed to the function (can be left blank if no parameters)

```
> foo <- function(x) {  
+   a <- x  
+   b <- 3  
+   c <- a*b  
+   #unread comment  
+   return(c)  
+ }
```

series of command in squiggly brackets

lines beginning with “#” are ignored – useful for comments and instructions

this command spits out the result of the function

```
> foo  
function(x) {  
  a <- x  
  b <- 3  
  c <- a*b  
  return(c)  
}
```

```
> foo(2)  
[1] 6
```

Typing the name of the function returns its contents (this works for prepackaged functions as well as your own).

Typing the name of the function() and passing it a parameter value results in the commands being carried out.

```
> source("foo.R")
```

```
> foo2 <- edit(foo)
```

```
> X.2 <- edit(X)
```

Functions written elsewhere and saved as text files can be loaded into a workspace using the `source()` command.

The `edit()` command will open any object – a function, a dataframe, a matrix, etc. – and allow you to change it (including prepackaged functions). The new version will be saved to the assigned name.



Vector = a series of values

`> y <- c(2,5,8,11,2)`

name (and declaration) → `y`

assignment operator → `<-`

a function that combines arguments into a series → `c()`

values to be stored → `(2,5,8,11,2)`

```
> y
[1]  2  5  8 11  2
```




How does one access individual values?

By using index numbers.

```
> y  
[1] 2 5 8 11 2
```

vector name square brackets index

```
> y[2]  
[1] 5
```

The critical difference between an index number and the actual value is that an index number refers to a particular slot in a vector (or other object), whereas the value is what is found in that slot.

Individual values can be reassigned:

```
> y[3] <- 28  
> y  
[1] 2 5 28 11 2
```



Subsets of the vector can be drawn by referring to multiple indices:

```
> y[c(2,4,5)]  
[1] 5 11 2
```

```
> y[2:4]  
[1] 5 28 11
```

“:” is an operator that generates a sequence of integers *from:to* with a step size of 1.

```
> 2:5  
[1] 2 3 4 5
```

```
> 4:2  
[1] 4 3 2
```



Matrix = a table of values

values to
be stored

number
of rows

number
of columns

```
> X <- matrix(1:12, nrow=3, ncol=4)
```

name (and
declaration)

assignment
operator

function that
creates matrices

```
> X
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,]    1    4    7   10
[2,]    2    5    8   11
[3,]    3    6    9   12
```

How does one access individual values?
Again, by using index numbers.

```
> X[2,3]  
[1] 8
```

row index
column index

Entire rows or columns can be referenced by leaving the index blank.

```
> X[2,]  
[1] 2 5 8 11
```

```
> X[,3]  
[1] 7 8 9
```

Note that each of these is a vector.

Subsets can also be referenced and values can be changed:

```
> X[2:3,3:4]
      [,1] [,2]
[1]      8    11
[2]      9    12

> X[c(1,3),c(2,4)]
      [,1] [,2]
[1]      4    10
[2]      6    12
```

```
> X[2,3] <- 36
> X
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,]      1      4      7     10
[2,]      2      5     36     11
[3,]      3      6      9     12
```

Loops are used repeat a series of commands.

```
> A = c("H", "A", "P", "P", "Y")
> for (i in 1:5) {
+   print(i*2)
+   print(A[i])
+ }
```

index variable or "counter" (points to `i`)

number sequence (points to `1:5`)

squiggly brackets (points to `{` and `}`)

i is a variable that starts with the first value in the number sequence. Each command after “{” is carried out in succession. Every time the full succession is done (i.e., it hits “}”), *i* goes to the next value in the number sequence and each of the commands is repeated. Commands can change depending on the value of *i*. The loop will continue to repeat until *i* reaches the last value in the number sequence.

Nested loops are “loops within loops” – they provide a means of working with objects that have multiple indices.

```
> X = matrix(0,nrow=12,ncol=9)
> for (i in 1:12) {
+   for (j in 1:9) {
+     X[i,j] <- i*j
+   }
+ }
```

Indenting the body of a loop is regarded as good programming practice because it is a good way to keep track of the structure of the program.

What happens: first, i equals 1; j equals 1 and $X[1,1]$ is assigned $1*1$; next j equals 2 and $X[1,2]$ is assigned $1*2$; j equals 3 and $X[1,3]$ is assigned $1*3$...until j equals 9. Now the first sweep through the i -loop is done and i becomes 2, but the j -loop starts again (the previous sweep is done and forgotten), so j equals 1 and $X[2,1]$ is assigned $2*1$; j equals 2 and $X[2,2]$ is assigned $2*2$...etc. Each time the j -loop is completed, the i -loop steps one value further and the whole set of commands (including the j -loop) within the i -loop is repeated.



Comparison Operators

- > $a == b$ - Equal
- > $a != b$ - Not equal
- > $a > b$ - Greater than
- > $a < b$ - Less than
- > $a >= b$ - Greater than *or* equal
- > $a <= b$ - Less than *or* equal

```
> 3 > 2  
[1] TRUE
```

```
> 3 < 2  
[1] FALSE
```

```
> 3 == 2  
[1] FALSE
```

```
> 3 != 2  
[1] TRUE
```

These operators result in a value of *TRUE* or *FALSE*.

Note that in typical use, an equal sign '=' can mean either assignment of a value OR a logical statement that is either true or false. These two roles have different operators: '<-' and '==,' respectively. In R, '=' is equivalent to assignment, but it is regarded as poor form (except when setting arguments in a function call).



Conditional statements are used to compare values.

```
> a <- 3
> b <- 2
> if (a>=b) {
+ print("VICTORY")
+ } else {
+ print("FAILURE")
+ }
[1] "VICTORY"
```

comparison resulting in TRUE
or FALSE (a logical value)

squiggly bracket

commands to perform
if condition is true

commands to perform
if condition is NOT true

The *if-else* framework carries out one series of commands if a condition is TRUE and another if the condition is not TRUE. The `()` define the condition and the `{}` define the commands.



Logical Operators (Boolean Algebra)

- > $(a > b) \ \& \ (c > d)$ - And: TRUE if both conditions are TRUE
- > $(a > b) \ | \ (c > d)$ - Or: TRUE if one or other condition is TRUE
- > $!(a > b)$ - Not: Changes TRUE to FALSE and vice-versa

>	$(3 > 2)$	$\&$	$(5 > 4)$	T
>	$(3 > 2)$	$\&$	$(5 < 4)$	F
>	$(3 < 2)$	$\&$	$(5 < 4)$	F

>	$(3 > 2)$	$ $	$(5 > 4)$	T
>	$(3 > 2)$	$ $	$(5 < 4)$	T
>	$(3 < 2)$	$ $	$(5 < 4)$	F

>	$(3 > 2)$	$\&$	$!(5 > 4)$	F
>	$(3 > 2)$	$\&$	$!(5 < 4)$	T
>	$(3 < 2)$	$\&$	$!(5 < 4)$	F
>	$!(3 < 2)$	$\&$	$!(5 < 4)$	F

These operators compare the truth value of multiple comparisons and result in a value of *TRUE* or *FALSE*.

```
> 3*(4<5)
[1] 3      #3*1
> 3*(4>5)
[1] 0      #3*0
```

In R, logical values (i.e., comparisons resulting in TRUE or FALSE) are assigned numerical values: TRUE = 1 and FALSE = 0, allowing them to be manipulated as values.

Comparisons can be applied to vectors of values.

```
> x <- c(2,6,3,8,5,3)
> x > 4
[1] FALSE  TRUE FALSE  TRUE  TRUE FALSE
```

Vectors of logical values can be used to subset vectors, etc.

```
> x <- c(2,6,3,8,5,3)
> y <- x > 4
> x[y]
[1] 6 8 5
```