

jsr223: A Java Platform Integration for R with Programming Languages Groovy, JavaScript, JRuby (Ruby), Jython (Python), and Kotlin

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Abstract

The R package `jsr223` is a high-level integration for five programming languages in the Java platform: Groovy, JavaScript, JRuby, Jython, and Kotlin. Each of these languages can use Java objects in their own syntax. Hence, `jsr223` is also an integration for R and the Java platform. It enables developers to leverage Java solutions from within R by embedding code snippets or evaluating script files. This approach is generally easier than `rJava`'s low-level approach that employs the Java Native Interface. `jsr223`'s multi-language support is dependent on the Java Scripting API: an implementation of "JSR-223: Scripting for the Java Platform" that defines a framework to embed scripts in Java applications. The `jsr223` package also features extensive data exchange capabilities and a callback interface that allows embedded scripts to access the current R session. In all, `jsr223` makes solutions developed in Java or any of the `jsr223`-supported languages easier to use in R.

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1 Introduction

About the same time Ross Ihaka and Robert Gentleman began developing R at the University of Auckland in the early 1990s, James Gosling and the so-called Green Project Team was working on a new programming language at Sun Microsystems in California. The Green Team did not set out to make a new language; rather, they were trying to move platform-independent, distributed computing into the consumer electronics marketplace. As Gosling explained, “All along, the language was a tool, not the end” (O’Connell, 1995). Unexpectedly, the programming language outlived the Green Project and sparked one of the most successful development platforms in computing history: Java. According to the [TIOBE index](#), Java has been the most popular programming language, on average, over the last sixteen years. Java’s success can be attributed to several factors. Perhaps the most important factor is platform-independence: the same Java program can run on several operating systems and hardware devices. Another important factor is that memory management is handled automatically for the programmer. Consequently, Java programs are easier to write and have fewer memory-related bugs than programs written in C/C++. These and other factors accelerated Java’s adoption in enterprise systems which, in turn, established a thriving developer community that has created production-quality frameworks, libraries, and programming languages for the Java platform. Many successful Java solutions are relevant to data science today such as [Hadoop](#), [Hive](#), [Spark](#), [Cassandra](#), [HBase](#), [Mahout](#), [Deeplearning4j](#), [Stanford CoreNLP](#), and others.

In 2003, Simon Urbanek released [rJava](#) (2017), an integration package designed to avail R of the burgeoning development surrounding Java. The package has been very successful to this end. Today, it is one of the top-ranked solutions for R as measured by monthly downloads.¹ [rJava](#) is described by Urbanek as a low-level R to Java interface analogous to `.C` and `.Call`, the built-in R functions for calling compiled C code. Like R’s integration for C, [rJava](#) loads compiled code into an R process’s memory space where it can be accessed via various R functions. Urbanek achieves this feat using the Java Native Interface (JNI), a standard framework that enables native (i.e. platform-dependent) code to access and use compiled Java code. The [rJava](#) API requires users to specify classes and data types in JNI syntax. One advantage to this approach is that it gives users granular, direct access to Java classes. However, as with any low-level interface, the learning curve is relatively high and implementation requires verbose coding. A second advantage to using JNI is that it avoids the difficult task of dynamically interpreting or compiling source code. Of course, this is also a disadvantage: it limits [rJava](#) to using compiled code as opposed to embedding source code directly within R script.

Our [jsr223](#) package builds on [rJava](#) to provide a high-level interface to the Java platform. We accomplish this by embedding other programming languages in R that use Java objects in natural syntax. As we show in the [rJava software review](#), this approach is generally simpler and more intuitive than [rJava](#)’s low-level JNI interface. To date, [jsr223](#) supports embedding five programming languages: Groovy, JavaScript, JRuby, Jython, and Kotlin. (JRuby and Jython are Java platform implementations of the Ruby and Python languages, respectively.) See Table 1 for a brief description of each language.

The [jsr223](#) multi-language integration is made possible by the Java Scripting API (Oracle, 2016a), an implementation of the specification “JSR-223: Scripting for the Java Platform” (Sun Microsystems, Inc., 2006). The JSR-223 specification includes two crucial elements: an interface

¹ [rJava](#) ranks in the 99th percentile for R package downloads according to <http://rdocumentation.org>.

Table 1: The five programming languages supported by `jsr223`.

Language	Description
Groovy	Groovy is a scripting language that follows Java syntax very closely. Hence, <code>jsr223</code> enables developers to embed Java source code directly in R script. Groovy also supports an optionally typed, functional paradigm with relaxed syntax for less verbose code.
JavaScript	JavaScript is well known for its use in web applications. However, its popularity has overflowed into standalone solutions involving databases, plotting, machine learning, and network-enabled utilities, to name just a few. <code>jsr223</code> uses Nashorn, the ECMA-compliant JavaScript implementation for the Java platform. Note: As of Java 11, Nashorn is deprecated. Nashorn will be removed in a future Java release.
JRuby	JRuby is the Ruby implementation for the Java platform. Ruby is a general-purpose, object-oriented language with unique syntax. It is often used with the web application framework Ruby on Rails . Ruby libraries, called <i>gems</i> , can be accessed via <code>jsr223</code> .
Jython	Jython is the Python implementation for the Java platform. Like R, the Python programming language is used widely in science and analytics. Python has many powerful language features, yet it is known for being concise and easy to read. Popular libraries SciPy and NumPy are available for the Java platform through JyNI (the Jython Native Interface).
Kotlin	Kotlin version 1.0 was released in 2016 making it the newest <code>jsr223</code> -supported language. It is a statically typed language that supports both functional and object-oriented programming paradigms. Kotlin has similarities to Java, but it often requires less code than Java to accomplish the same task. Kotlin and Java are the only languages officially supported by Google for Android application development.

for Java applications to execute code written in scripting languages, and a guide for scripting languages to create Java objects in their own syntax. Hence, JSR-223 is the basis for our package. However, no knowledge of JSR-223 or the Java Scripting API is necessary to use `jsr223`. Figures 1 and 2 show how `rJava` and `jsr223` facilitate access to the Java platform. Where `rJava` uses JNI, `jsr223` uses the Java Scripting API and embeddable programming languages.

The primary goal of `jsr223` is to enable R developers to leverage existing Java solutions with relative ease. We demonstrate two typical use cases in this document with subjects that are of particular interest to many data scientists: a natural language processor, and a neural network



Figure 1: The `rJava` package facilitates low-level access to the Java platform through the Java Native Interface (JNI). Some knowledge of JNI is required.

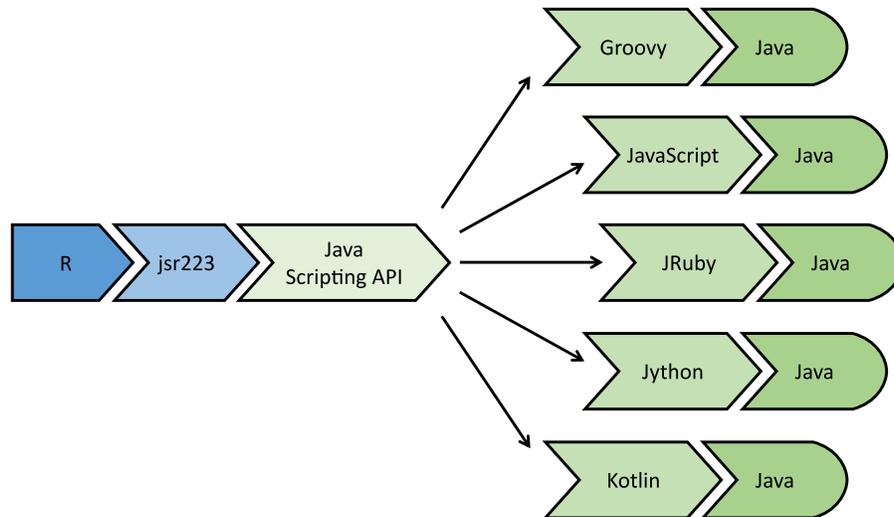


Figure 2: The `jsr223` package provides high-level access to the Java platform through five programming languages. Although `jsr223` uses the Java Scripting API in its implementation, users do not need to learn the API.

classifier. In addition to Java solutions, R developers can use projects developed in any of the five `jsr223`-supported programming languages. In essence, `jsr223` opens R to a broader ecosystem.

For Java developers, `jsr223` facilitates writing high-performance, cross-platform R extensions using their preferred platform. `jsr223` also allows organizations that run enterprise Java applications to more readily develop dashboards and other business intelligence tools. Instead of writing R code to query raw data from a database, `jsr223` enables R packages to consume data directly from their application’s Java object model where the data has been coalesced according to business rules. Java developers will also be interested to know that the `jsr223`-supported programming languages can implement interfaces and extend classes, just like the Java programming language. See [Extending existing Java solutions](#) for an in-depth code example that demonstrates extending Java classes and several other features.

1.1 `jsr223` package implementation and features overview

The `jsr223` package supports most of the major programming languages that implement JSR-223. Technically, any JSR-223 implementation will work with our package, but we may not officially support some languages. The most notable exclusion is Scala; we don’t support it simply because the JSR-223 implementation is not complete. (Consider, instead, the `rscala` package for a Scala/R integration ([Dahl, 2018](#).) We also exclude languages that are not actively developed, such as BeanShell.

The `jsr223` package features extensive, configurable data exchange between R and Java via `jsr223`'s companion package `jdk` (Gilbert and Dahl, 2018a). R vectors, factors, n-dimensional arrays, data frames, lists, and environments are converted to standard Java objects. Java scalars, n-dimensional arrays, maps, and collections are inspected for content and converted to the most appropriate R structure (vectors, n-dimensional arrays, data frames, or lists). Several data exchange options are available including row-major and column-major ordering schemes for data frames and n-dimensional arrays. Many language integrations for R provide a comparable feature set by using JSON (JavaScript Object Notation) libraries. In contrast, the `jsr223` package implements data exchange using custom Java routines to avoid the serialization overhead and loss of floating point precision inherent in JSON data conversion.

The `jsr223` package also supports converting the most common data structures from the `jsr223`-supported languages. For example, `jsr223` can convert Jython dictionaries and user-defined JavaScript objects to R objects. Behind the scenes, every Java-based programming language uses Java objects. For example, a Jython dictionary is backed by a Java object that defines the dictionary's behavior. The `jsr223` package uses `jdk` to inspect these Java objects for data and convert them to an appropriate R object. In most cases, the default conversion rules are intuitive and seamless.

The `jsr223` programming interface follows design cues from `rscala`, and `V8` (Ooms, 2017b). The application programming interface is implemented using `R6` (Chang, 2017) classes for a traditional object-oriented style of programming. `R6` objects wrap methods in an R environment making them accessible from the associated variable using list-like syntax (e.g., `myObject$myMethod()`).

`jsr223` uses `rJava` to load and communicate with the Java Virtual Machine (JVM): the abstract computing environment that executes compiled Java code. `jsr223` employs a client-server architecture and a custom multi-threaded messaging protocol to exchange data and handle script execution. This protocol optimizes performance by eliminating `rJava` calls that inspect generic return values and transform data, both which incur significant overhead. The protocol also facilitates callbacks that allow embedded scripts to manipulate variables and evaluate R code in the current R session. This callback implementation is lightweight, does not require any special R software configuration, and supports infinite callback recursion between R and the script engine (limited only by stack space). Other distinguishing `jsr223` features include script compiling and string interpolation.

1.2 Document organization

We begin with [Helpful terminology and concepts](#) to clarify some key ideas and define relevant jargon. Next, we provide [Typical use cases](#) that highlight `jsr223`'s core functionality. The sections [Installation](#) and [Feature documentation](#) provide the necessary details to install `jsr223` and become familiar with all of its features. If you are primarily interested in using `jsr223` with a specific programming language, jump to [R with Groovy](#), [R with JavaScript](#), [R with Python](#), [R with Ruby](#), or [R with Kotlin](#). The section [Software review](#) is a discussion that puts the `jsr223` project in context with comparisons to other relevant software solutions.

All code examples related to this document are available at our GitHub page: <https://github.com/fluidgilbert/jsr223>.

2 Helpful terminology and concepts

Java programs are compiled to Java bytecode that can be executed by an instance of a Java Virtual Machine (JVM). A JVM is an abstraction layer that provides a platform-independent execution environment for Java programs. A JVM interprets Java bytecode to machine code (i.e., processor-specific instructions). JVMs are available for a wide variety of hardware and software platforms. In principle, the same Java program will run on any platform that supports a JVM. The Java paradigm contrasts with traditional compiled languages, such as C, that are compiled directly to processor-dependent machine code, and therefore must be recompiled for every targeted architecture. Often, changes in the source code are also required to support different platforms.

Today, there are several programming languages that compile down to Java bytecode including all of the languages currently supported by **jsr223**. This may be surprising to some readers because languages like JavaScript are traditionally interpreted only, not compiled. In fact, the **jsr223** languages blur the line between scripting languages (those that are interpret-only) and traditional compiled languages. Nevertheless, we generally refer to the languages supported by **jsr223** as scripting languages in this document because, as far as the user is aware, source code is interpreted and executed (i.e., evaluated) in one step. Even so, this implementation benefits from the significant performance gains of compiled code.

A *scripting engine* (usually shortened to *script engine*) is software that enables a scripting language to be embedded in an application. Internally, a script engine uses an *interpreter* to parse and execute source code. The terms *script engine* and *interpreter* are often used interchangeably. In this document, *script engine* refers to the software component, not the interpreter. A *script engine instance* denotes an instantiated script engine. Finally, a *script engine environment* refers to the state (i.e., the variables and settings) of a given instance.

Bindings refers to the name/value pairs associated with variables in a given scope. Conceptually, a variable's name is bound to its value. The variable names and values in R's global environment are examples of bindings.

3 Typical use cases

This section includes introductory examples that demonstrate typical use cases for the `jsr223` package. For a complete overview of `jsr223` features, see the [Feature documentation](#). Following that section, we provide details and examples for each of the `jsr223`-supported languages.

3.1 Using Java libraries

For this introductory example, we use Stanford's Core Natural Language Processing Java libraries ([Manning et al., 2014](#)) to identify grammatical parts of speech in a text. Natural language processing (NLP) is a key component in statistical text analysis and artificial intelligence. This example shows how so-called "glue" code can be embedded in R to quickly leverage the Stanford NLP libraries. It also demonstrates how easily `jsr223` converts Java data structures to R objects. The full script is available at <https://github.com/fluidgilbert/jsr223/tree/master/examples/JavaScript/stanford-nlp.R>.

The first step: create a `jsr223` "ScriptEngine" instance that can dynamically execute source code. In this case, we use a JavaScript engine. The object is created using the `ScriptEngine$new` constructor method. This method takes two arguments: a scripting language's name and a character vector containing paths to the required Java libraries. In the code below, the `class.path` variable contains the required Java library paths. The new "ScriptEngine" object is assigned to the variable `engine`.

```
class.path <- c(
  "./protobuf.jar",
  "./stanford-corenlp-3.9.0.jar",
  "./stanford-corenlp-3.9.0-models.jar"
)
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("JavaScript", class.path)
```

Now we can execute JavaScript source code. The `jsr223` interface provides several methods to do so. In this example, we use the `%@%` operator; it executes a code snippet and discards the return value, if any. The code snippet imports the Stanford NLP "Document" class. The import syntax is peculiar to the JavaScript dialect. The result, `DocumentClass`, is used to instantiate objects or access static methods.

```
engine %@% 'var DocumentClass = Java.type("edu.stanford.nlp.simple.Document");'
```

The next code sample defines a JavaScript function named `getPartsOfSpeech`. It tags each element in a text with a grammatical part of speech (e.g., noun, adjective, or verb). The function parses the text using a new instance of the "Document" class. The parsing results are transferred to a list of JavaScript objects. Each JavaScript object contains the parsing information for a single sentence.

```

engine %@% '
function getPartsOfSpeech(text) {
  var doc = new DocumentClass(text);
  var list = [];
  for (i = 0; i < doc.sentences().size(); i++) {
    var sentence = doc.sentences().get(i);
    var o = {
      "words":sentence.words(),
      "pos.tag":sentence.posTags(),
      "offset.begin":sentence.characterOffsetBegin(),
      "offset.end":sentence.characterOffsetEnd()
    }
    list.push(o);
  }
  return list;
}

```

We use `engine$invokeFunction` to call the JavaScript function `getPartsOfSpeech` from R. The method `invokeFunction` takes the name of the function as the first parameter; any arguments that follow are automatically converted to Java objects and passed to the JavaScript function. The function's return value is converted to an R object. In this case, `jsr223` intuitively converts the list of JavaScript objects to a list of R data frames as seen in the output below. The parts of speech abbreviations are defined by the Penn Treebank Project (Taylor et al.). A quick reference is available at https://www.ling.upenn.edu/courses/Fall_2003/ling001/penn_treebank_pos.html.

```

engine$invokeFunction(
  "getPartsOfSpeech",
  "The jsr223 package makes Java objects easy to use. Download it from CRAN."
)

```

```

## [[1]]
##      words pos.tag offset.begin offset.end
## 1     The      DT           0           3
## 2  jsr223      NN           4          10
## 3 package      NN          11          18
## 4   makes     VBZ          19          24
## 5     Java     NNP          25          29
## 6 objects     NNS          30          37
## 7    easy      JJ           38          42
## 8      to      TO           43          45
## 9     use      VB           46          49
## 10     .       .           49          50
##
## [[2]]

```

```
##      words pos.tag offset.begin offset.end
## 1 Download      VB           51          59
## 2      it      PRP           60          62
## 3    from      IN           63          67
## 4    CRAN     NNP           68          72
## 5      .      .            72          73
```

In this example, we effectively used Stanford’s Core NLP library with a minimal amount of code. This same functionality can be replicated in any of the `jsr223`-supported programming languages.

3.2 Using Java libraries with complex dependencies

In this example we use `Deeplearning4j` (DL4J) (Eclipse Deeplearning4j Development Team, 2018) to build a neural network. DL4J is an open-source deep learning solution for the Java platform. It is notable both for its scalability and performance. DL4J can run on a local computer with a standard CPU, or it can use Spark for distributed computing and GPUs for massively parallel processing. DL4J is modular in design and it has a large number of dependencies. As with many other Java solutions, it is designed to be installed using a software project management utility like `Apache Maven`, `Gradle`, or `sbt`. These utilities feature dependency managers that automatically download a library’s dependencies from a central repository and make them accessible to your project. This is similar to installing an R package from CRAN using `install.packages`; by default, any referenced packages are also downloaded and installed.

The primary goal of this example is to show how `jsr223` can easily leverage complex Java solutions with the help of a project management utility. We will install both Groovy and DL4J using Apache Maven. We will then integrate Groovy script with R to create a simple neural network. The process is straightforward: i.) create a skeleton Java project; ii.) add dependencies to the project; iii.) build a class path referencing all of the dependencies; and iv.) pass the class path to `jsr223`. Though we use Maven here, the same concepts apply to any project management utility that supports Java.

To begin, visit the Maven web site (<https://maven.apache.org/>) and follow the installation instructions for your operating system. Next, create an empty folder for this sample project. Open a terminal (a system command prompt) and change the current directory to the project folder. Execute the following Maven command. It will create a skeleton Java project named ‘stub’ in a subfolder by the same name. The Java project is used only to retrieve dependencies; it is not required for the R project. If this is the first time Maven has been executed on your computer, several files will be downloaded to the local Maven repository cache on your computer.

```
mvn archetype:generate -DgroupId=none -DartifactId=stub -DinteractiveMode=false
```

Open the Maven project object model file, ‘stub/pom.xml’, in a plain text editor or an XML editor. Locate the XML element `<dependencies>`. It will be similar to the example displayed below. A `<dependency>` child element defines a single project dependency that will be retrieved from the Maven repository. Notice that a dependency has a group ID, an artifact ID, and a version. (*Artifact* is the general term for any file residing in a repository.) How do you know which dependencies are required for your project? They are often provided in installation documentation. Or, if

you are starting from a code example, dependencies can be located in a Maven repository using fully-qualified Java class names.

```
<dependencies>
  <dependency>
    <groupId>junit</groupId>
    <artifactId>junit</artifactId>
    <version>4.12</version>
    <scope>test</scope>
  </dependency>
</dependencies>
```

Maven dependency definitions can be located at <https://search.maven.org>. We will search for dependencies using the syntax 'g:<group-id> a:<artifact-id>'. This avoids erroneous results and near-matches. A search string for each dependency in our demonstration is provided in the bullet list below. Perform a search using the first bullet item. In the search results, click the version number under the column heading "Latest Version." On the right-hand side of the page that follows you will see an XML Maven dependency definition for the artifact. Copy the XML and insert it after the last </dependency> end tag in your 'pom.xml' file. It is not necessary to preserve indentations or other white space. Repeat this process for each of the remaining search strings below.

- g:org.apache.logging.log4j a:log4j-core
- g:org.slf4j a:slf4j-log4j12
- g:org.deeplearning4j a:deeplearning4j-core
- g:org.nd4j a:nd4j-native-platform
- g:org.datavec a:datavec-api
- g:org.codehaus.groovy a:groovy-all

Save the 'pom.xml' file. In your terminal window, change directories to the Java project folder ('stub') and execute the following Maven command. This will download all of the dependencies to a local repository cache on your computer. It will also create a file named 'jsr223.classpath' in the parent folder. It contains a class path referencing all of the dependencies that will be used by **jsr223**.

```
mvn dependency:build-classpath -Dmdep.outputFile="../../jsr223.classpath"
```

Now everything is in place to create a neural network using Groovy and DL4J. To keep the example simple, we use a feedforward neural network to classify species in the iris data set. The example involves an R script ('dl4j.R') and a Groovy script ('dl4j.groovy'). Both scripts can be downloaded from <https://github.com/fluidgilbert/jsr223/tree/master/examples/Groovy/dl4j>. Save both scripts in the same folder as 'jsr223.classpath'.

THE R SCRIPT First, we read in the class path created by Maven and create the Groovy script engine.

```
library(jsr223)

file.name <- "jsr223.classpath"
class.path <- readChar(file.name, file.info(file.name)$size)
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("groovy", class.path)
```

Next, we set a seed for reproducible results. The value is saved in a variable that will be retrieved by the Groovy script.

```
seed <- 10
set.seed(seed)
```

The code that follows splits the iris data into train and test matrices. The inputs are centered and scaled. The labels are converted to a binary matrix format: for each record, the number 1 is placed in the column corresponding to the correct label.

```
train.idx <- sample(nrow(iris), nrow(iris) * 0.65)
train <- scale(as.matrix(iris[train.idx, 1:4]))
train.labels <- model.matrix(~ -1 + Species, iris[train.idx, ])
test <- scale(as.matrix(iris[-train.idx, 1:4]))
test.labels <- model.matrix(~ -1 + Species, iris[-train.idx, ])
```

Finally, we execute the Groovy script. The results will be printed to the console.

```
result <- engine$source("dl4j.groovy")
cat(result)
```

THE GROOVY SCRIPT The Groovy script here follows Java syntax with one exception: we provide no class. Instead, we place all of the code at the top level to be executed at once. This is merely a style choice to keep the code samples easy to follow. The script begins by importing the necessary classes.

```
import org.deeplearning4j.eval.Evaluation;
import org.deeplearning4j.nn.conf.MultiLayerConfiguration;
import org.deeplearning4j.nn.conf.NeuralNetConfiguration;
import org.deeplearning4j.nn.conf.layers.DenseLayer;
import org.deeplearning4j.nn.conf.layers.OutputLayer;
import org.deeplearning4j.nn.multilayer.MultiLayerNetwork;
import org.deeplearning4j.nn.weights.WeightInit;
import org.nd4j.linalg.activations.Activation;
import org.nd4j.linalg.api.ndarray.INDArray;
import org.nd4j.linalg.cpu.nativecpu.NDArray;
import org.nd4j.linalg.dataset.DataSet;
import org.nd4j.linalg.learning.config.Sgd;
import org.nd4j.linalg.lossfunctions.LossFunctions;
```

Next, we convert the train and test data from R objects to the `DataSet` objects consumed by DL4J. We retrieve the data from the R environment using the `get` method of `jsr223`'s built-in R object. The R matrices are automatically converted to multi-dimensional Java arrays. These arrays are used to instantiate the `NDArrary` objects which, in turn, are used to instantiate the `DataSet` objects.

```
DataSet train = new DataSet(
    new NDArrary(R.get("train")),
    new NDArrary(R.get("train.labels"))
);
DataSet test = new DataSet(
    new NDArrary(R.get("test")),
    new NDArrary(R.get("test.labels"))
);
```

Pulling the data from the R environment using the R object is just one convenient way to share data between R and the Java environment. It is also possible to push data from R to the Groovy environment, or to pass the data as function parameters. Note: for very large data sets it is impractical to exchange data between R and Java using `jsr223` methods. Instead, load the data on the Java side for processing using DL4J classes optimized for big data.

Here we configure a feedforward neural network with backpropagation. The network consists of four inputs, a seven node hidden layer, a three node hidden layer, and a three node output layer. An explanation of the network's hyperparameters is beyond the scope of this discussion. See <https://deeplearning4j.org/docs/latest/deeplearning4j-troubleshooting-training> for a DL4J hyperparameter reference.

```
MultiLayerConfiguration conf = new NeuralNetConfiguration.Builder()
    .seed(R.get("seed").intValue())
    .activation(Activation.TANH)
    .weightInit(WeightInit.XAVIER)
    .updater(new Sgd(0.1)) // Learning rate.
    .list()
    .layer(new DenseLayer.Builder().nIn(4).nOut(7).build())
    .layer(new DenseLayer.Builder().nIn(7).nOut(3).build())
    .layer(
        new OutputLayer.Builder(LossFunctions.LossFunction.NEGATIVELOGLIKELIHOOD)
            .activation(Activation.SOFTMAX)
            .nIn(3)
            .nOut(3)
            .build()
    )
    .backprop(true)
    .build();
```

We use the network configuration to initialize a model which is then trained over 200 epochs.

```
MultiLayerNetwork model = new MultiLayerNetwork(conf);
model.init();
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < 200; i++) {
    model.fit(train);
}
```

At last, the trained model is evaluated using the test data. The last line produces a text report including classification metrics and a confusion matrix.

```
Evaluation eval = new Evaluation(3); // 3 is the number of possible classes
INDArray output = model.output(test.getFeatures());
eval.eval(test.getLabels(), output);
eval.stats();
```

RESULTS Executing the R script will produce the following console output. Our simple model performs reasonably well in this case, misclassifying two out of 53 observations.

```
## =====Evaluation Metrics=====
## # of classes:      3
## Accuracy:         0.9623
## Precision:        0.9628
## Recall:           0.9628
## F1 Score:         0.9628
## Precision, recall & F1: macro-averaged (equally weighted avg. of 3 classes)
##
##
## =====Confusion Matrix=====
##  0  1  2
## -----
## 17  0  0 | 0 = 0
##  0 16  1 | 1 = 1
##  0  1 18 | 2 = 2
##
## Confusion matrix format: Actual (rowClass) predicted as (columnClass) N times
## =====
```

This example demonstrated that complex Java solutions can be integrated with R using `jsr223` and standard dependency management practices.

3.3 Extending existing Java solutions

Many Java libraries are designed to let the developer define custom behaviors by implementing interfaces or extending classes. We illustrate one such solution here in the context of a Bayesian analysis. The library at hand implements a multi-threaded Metropolis sampler ([Metropolis et al., 1953](#)). We define a density function for the sampler by extending (i.e., subclassing) an abstract Java class.

We use the Groovy scripting language for this example. Groovy follows the Java programming language syntax very closely; hence, it is a natural choice for Java integrations. Programmers

that know Groovy will notice that our code is unnecessarily verbose. We chose to use strict Java coding conventions to make the implementation more familiar to Java programmers.

The Bayesian analysis involves count data y_1, \dots, y_n that we believe to be independently and identically distributed according to a zero-inflated Poisson sampling model. Given $0 < \pi < 1$ and $\lambda > 0$,

$$\Pr(y_i = 0 \mid \pi, \lambda) = \pi + (1 - \pi) e^{-\lambda}$$

$$\Pr(y_i = k \mid \pi, \lambda) = (1 - \pi) \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}, \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots$$

We choose independent priors $\pi \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ and $\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(\theta, \kappa)$. Furthermore, we use independent Gaussian proposal densities for π and λ .

Our analysis involves two scripts: (i) a Groovy script to extend and execute the Metropolis sampler class; and (ii) an R script to prepare the data and parameters, execute the Groovy script, and summarize the results. The scripts, named 'metropolis.groovy' and 'metropolis.R', are located at <https://github.com/flويدgilbert/jsr223/tree/master/examples/Groovy>. The required Java files can be downloaded from the 'lib' subfolder.

THE GROOVY SCRIPT To begin, we import the necessary classes. The first line below imports all of the static methods of the "Math" class. The second line imports the abstract class for the Metropolis sampler. The last line imports a univariate normal proposal class. (This latter class implements the interface "ProposalDistributionUnivariate". If we wanted to use a custom proposal distribution, we could do so by creating a class that implements this interface in script.)

```
import static java.lang.Math.*;
import org.fgilbert.jsr223.examples.MetropolisSamplerUnivariateProposal;
import org.fgilbert.jsr223.examples.ProposalDistributionUnivariateNormal;
```

The code that follows is the key element of this example; it defines the behavior of a Java class in script. Specifically, we define a class named "Sampler" that extends the abstract class "MetropolisSamplerUnivariateProposal". The "Sampler" class has just two members: the constructor method and the logPosterior method. The constructor method takes the parameter values for the prior distributions and computes statistics used in the posterior function. The logPosterior method implements the log of the posterior function that is called by the sampler.

```
public class Sampler extends MetropolisSamplerUnivariateProposal {
    private double alpha, beta, theta, kappa;
    private double dataLength, dataSum, dataZeroCount, dataPositiveCount;

    public Sampler(double alpha, double beta, double theta, double kappa, int[] data) {
        this.alpha = alpha; this.beta = beta;
        this.theta = theta; this.kappa = kappa;

        dataLength = data.length;
        for (int i = 0; i < dataLength; i++) {
            dataSum += data[i];
        }
    }
}
```

```

        if (data[i] == 0)
            dataZeroCount++;
    }
    dataPositiveCount = dataLength - dataZeroCount;
}

@Override
public double logPosterior(double[] values) {
    double pi = values[0];
    double lambda = values[1];
    if (pi <= 0 || pi >= 1 || lambda < 0)
        return Double.NEGATIVE_INFINITY;
    return (alpha - 1) * log(pi) + (beta - 1) * log(1 - pi) +
        (theta - 1) * log(lambda) - kappa * lambda +
        dataZeroCount * log(pi + (1 - pi) * exp(-lambda)) +
        dataPositiveCount * log((1 - pi) * exp(-lambda)) +
        dataSum * log(lambda);
}
}
}

```

The next lines initialize an array of normal proposal distribution objects that will be used by the sampler. Each distribution object is initialized with a variance. The `proposalVariances` array is not defined here; it is supplied by the R script.

```

ProposalDistributionUnivariateNormal[] pd =
    new ProposalDistributionUnivariateNormal[proposalVariances.length];
for (int i = 0; i < proposalVariances.length; i++)
    pd[i] = new ProposalDistributionUnivariateNormal(proposalVariances[i]);

```

Finally, we create a "Sampler" instance and assign it to the variable `sampler`. The last line runs the sampler. Because it is the last line in the script, its return value will be automatically returned to the R environment. Notice that all but one of the variables passed as method arguments have not been defined yet. They will be provided by the R script.

```

Sampler sampler = new Sampler(alpha, beta, theta, kappa, data);
sampler.sample(startingValues, pd, iterations, discard, threads);

```

THE R SCRIPT First, we instantiate a Groovy script engine. The paths to the required Java libraries are defined in `class.path`. The first file is the Groovy script engine; the second file contains the Metropolis sampler; and the last file is the Apache Commons Mathematics Library (<http://commons.apache.org/proper/commons-math>).

```

library("jsr223")

class.path <- c(
    "lib/groovy-all-2.4.7.jar",
    "lib/org.fgibert.jsr223.examples-0.3.0.jar",

```

```

"lib/commons-math3-3.6.1.jar"
)
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("Groovy", class.path)

```

The matrix `starting.values` defined here contains initial values for the Metropolis sampler. Each row is a (π, λ) value pair that will be used to initialize a random walk. Hence, we will have four MCMC chains for each parameter. The multi-threaded sampler computes these chains in parallel.

```

starting.values <- rbind(
  c(0.999, 0.001),
  c(0.001, 0.001),
  c(0.001, 30),
  c(0.999, 30)
)

```

In the next step, we initialize global variables that are used by the Groovy script. The `jsr223` package provides a few ways to do this, but the most convenient approach is the list-like assignment syntax shown below. The first four assignments (`alpha`, `beta`, `theta`, and `kappa`) correspond to the parameter values for the prior densities; the variable `data` contains the counts y_1, \dots, y_n ; `proposalVariances` is an array of variances for the Gaussian proposal distributions; `startingValues` contains the initial (π, λ) parameter values for four random walks; `iterations` indicates the number of MCMC iterations per random walk; `discard` is the number of initial draws to ignore; and `threads` defines the size of the parallel processing thread pool.

```

engine$alpha <- 1
engine$beta <- 1
engine$theta <- 2
engine$kappa <- 1
engine$data <- as.integer(c(rep(0, 25), rep(1, 6), rep(2, 4), rep(3, 3), 5))
engine$proposalVariances <- c(0.3^2, 1.2^2)
engine$startingValues <- starting.values
engine$iterations <- 10000L
engine$discard <- as.integer(engine$iterations * 0.20)
engine$threads <- parallel::detectCores()

```

The Metropolis sampler will return two multi-dimensional arrays. We prefer the arrays to be structured in a specific order, so we change the default ordering using the code here. For the sake of brevity, we refer the reader to [Handling R matrices and other n-dimensional arrays](#) for details regarding array order settings.

```

engine$setArrayOrder("column-minor")

```

Next, we compile and execute the Groovy script. Compiling the script is optional; we could evaluate the code in one step using the `jsr223` source method. However, we intend to execute the script more than once, so we compile it for efficiency. The first line below compiles the script and assigns the resulting object to the variable `cs`. The second line executes the compiled code and assigns the output to the variable `r`. The result is the return value of the last line in the script. In our Groovy script, the last line is a call to the method `sample` of the "Sampler" class.

```
cs <- engine$compileSource("metropolis.groovy")
r <- cs$eval()
```

The `sample` method returns a Java map (i.e., an associative array or dictionary) with two members: "acceptance_rates" and "chains". The `jsr223` package automatically converts the map and its contents to an R named list with the same member names. Define k as the number of iterations minus the number discarded, $p = 2$ as the number of parameters, and $w = 4$ as the number of random walks. Then the "chains" member is a 3-dimensional $k \times p \times w$ matrix containing the MCMC results. Here, we output the dimensions of the 3-dimensional array and the top six rows of first random walk.

```
dim(r$chains)

## [1] 8000    2    4

parameter.names <- c("pi", "lambda")
dimnames(r$chains) <- list(NULL, parameter.names, NULL)
head(r$chains[, , 1])

##           pi    lambda
## [1,] 0.5225463 1.647577
## [2,] 0.4613551 1.647577
## [3,] 0.4613551 1.647577
## [4,] 0.6012411 1.647577
## [5,] 0.6012411 1.647577
## [6,] 0.4965568 1.647577
```

The "acceptance_rates" member is a $w \times p$ matrix containing the acceptance rates for each parameter and random walk. We output those values below.

```
colnames(r$acceptance_rates) <- parameter.names
r$acceptance_rates

##           pi lambda
## [1,] 0.3695 0.3143
## [2,] 0.3655 0.3209
## [3,] 0.3638 0.3175
## [4,] 0.3708 0.3148
```

For the sake of demonstration, let's say that the acceptance rates are too high. We need to widen the variances for the proposal distributions and re-run the sampler. There is no need to recompile the script; instead, just update the corresponding global variable and execute the compiled script again. We output the acceptance rates here for comparison.

```
engine$proposalVariances <- c(0.5^2, 1.7^2)
r <- cs$eval()
colnames(r$acceptance_rates) <- parameter.names
```

```
r$acceptance_rates
##          pi lambda
## [1,] 0.2361 0.2377
## [2,] 0.2354 0.2383
## [3,] 0.2340 0.2305
## [4,] 0.2418 0.2304
```

Table 2 contains a summary for each parameter by individual chain. The code used to summarize the results can be found in the R script ‘metropolis.R’ on GitHub.

PERFORMANCE So far we have shown that we can extend compiled Java classes from within R. But, is the runtime performance acceptable? We report some performance metrics here. The scripts were run on a typical notebook computer with an Intel i7-5500U, 2.40Ghz processor and 8GB RAM. The processor can execute four threads in parallel. We allocated all four threads to the Metropolis sampler to execute four walks in parallel. We ran the simulation for 10,000, 100,000, and 1,000,000 MCMC iterations per random walk. No values were discarded. Timings were recorded using the **microbenchmark** package (Mersmann, 2018). We report the mean run time over 40 simulations in Table 3. The first column contains the number of MCMC iterations per random walk. The second column contains the mean run times for the expression `cs$eval()` as in our preceding example. The third column contains the mean run times for the expression `cs$eval(discard.return.value = TRUE)`. This expression executes the Groovy script but discards the results instead of converting them to R objects. The last column contains the difference of columns two and three; hence, it roughly represents the time required to convert the Java results to R. The number of values returned to R for each simulation is $p \times w + \text{iterations} \times p \times w$. For example, when one million MCMC iterations are requested, a total of 8,000,008 numeric values are returned. The size of the resulting R object is about 61MB (see `object.size(r)`).

To put these results in context, we ran another simulation where the Metropolis abstract class is extended in a compiled Java class instead of Groovy. Otherwise, the simulation is identical to the foregoing example. Table 4 summarizes those results. In the maximum case (one million MCMC iterations), the difference between the implementations is well under two seconds. We find this performance to be acceptable. Hence, the Groovy solution is a good balance of scripting convenience and compiled performance. These results may vary depending on the scripting language used.

What we have shown here is only one approach to this implementation. The total runtime could be reduced by using simpler data structures or summarizing the data on the Java side. However, R is designed for summarizing data. Therefore, we chose to transfer the full results to R in a convenient format because we believe it represents the most typical use case. Furthermore, we could have implemented this solution using anonymous classes, lambda functions, or closures. These constructs usually require less code, and they are supported within the various **jsr223**-compatible programming languages. However, we found that they did not execute as quickly.

Finally, how does the performance compare to a base R implementation? We created a parallel Metropolis sampler in R that is very similar to the Java sampler (see ‘metropolis-base-r.R’ on GitHub). Table 5 reports the mean run times over 40 simulations. For comparison, the table includes the timings for the implementations featuring the Groovy class and the Java class.

Table 2: A summary of the MCMC chains generated by the Metropolis sampler. Each parameter and chain is listed with quantiles, acceptance rate, and effective sample size (ESS).

Parameter	Chain	2.5%	25%	50%	75%	97.5%	Acc. Rate	ESS
π	1	0.288	0.460	0.537	0.606	0.724	0.236	764
π	2	0.288	0.467	0.540	0.604	0.724	0.235	864
π	3	0.298	0.459	0.529	0.603	0.722	0.234	989
π	4	0.268	0.456	0.528	0.598	0.713	0.242	702
λ	1	0.933	1.313	1.563	1.814	2.377	0.238	1023
λ	2	0.968	1.324	1.563	1.839	2.412	0.238	805
λ	3	0.935	1.356	1.579	1.816	2.344	0.231	785
λ	4	0.875	1.303	1.532	1.803	2.364	0.230	813

Table 3: Benchmark timings for the Java Metropolis sampler extended in Groovy. All times are in milliseconds. The first column indicates the number of MCMC iterations computed for each of the four random walks run in parallel. The second column contains the mean runtime for the expression `cs$eval()` over 40 simulations. The third column is the mean runtime for `cs$eval(TRUE)` (i.e., the return value is discarded). The last column is the difference between columns two and three; hence, it roughly represents the time required to convert the Java results to R objects.

Iterations	With Return Values		Difference
	Yes	No	
10,000	43.6	28.5	15.2
100,000	426.2	294.0	132.2
1,000,000	6,004.1	3,783.7	2,220.4

Table 4: Benchmark timings for the Metropolis sampler extended in Java. All times are in milliseconds. The columns are as in Table 3.

Iterations	With Return Values		Difference
	Yes	No	
10,000	33.6	17.9	15.8
100,000	293.2	171.1	122.2
1,000,000	5,348.2	2,391.5	2,956.7

Table 5: Performance comparison for the Metropolis samplers. The values are the mean run-times over 40 iterations reported in milliseconds.

Iterations	R	Groovy Class	Java Class
10,000	1,185.3	43.6	33.6
100,000	4,174.6	426.2	293.2
1,000,000	34,202.5	6,004.1	5,348.2

For 10,000 iterations, the Groovy class implementation is 27.2 times faster than the R implementation. The Java class implementation is 35.3 times faster. Part of the performance difference can be attributed to how parallelization is implemented in Java vs. R. The Java sampler uses a thread pool whereas the R approach uses a process pool. The latter requires significantly more overhead. When we consider one million iterations, the difference in parallelization implementations becomes insignificant and the Groovy implementation is only 5.7 times faster than the R implementation. However, the reduction in performance ratio is due, in part, to the conversion of large Java objects to R objects. If we exclude the data conversion time we have a more direct comparison of code execution performance. Using the run times excluding data conversion in Table 3 and Table 4, we find that the Groovy implementation executes 9.0 times faster than the R implementation and the Java implementation executes 14.3 times faster. This comparison is not comprehensive; we report these numbers only to give the reader some basic expectation of performance benefits.

CONCLUSION This example illustrated how `jsr223` facilitates the development of advanced Java solutions. Java interfaces can be implemented and classes extended within script promoting rapid application development and quick execution times.

3.4 Using other language libraries

In addition to using Java libraries, `jsr223` can easily take advantage of solutions written in other languages. In some cases, integration is as simple as sourcing a script file. For example, many common JavaScript libraries like Underscore (<http://underscorejs.org>) and Voca (<https://vocajs.com/>) can be sourced using a URL. The following example sources Voca and parses a string. See [Using JavaScript Solutions - Voca](#) for a more in-depth example.

```
engine$source(
  "https://raw.githubusercontent.com/panzerdp/voca/master/dist/voca.min.js",
  discard.return.value = TRUE
)
engine$invokeMethod(
  "v",
  "wordWrap",
  "A long sentence to wrap using Voca methods.",
  list(width = 20)
)

## [1] "A long sentence to\nwrap using Voca\nmethods."
```

Compiled Groovy and Kotlin libraries are accessed in the same way as Java libraries: simply include the relevant class or JAR files when instantiating a script engine.

The section [R with Ruby](#) includes detailed instructions for using Ruby gems (i.e., libraries) in R. Specifically, the example shows how to generate fake entities for demonstration data sets.

The core Python language features are fully accessible via `jsr223`. However, compatibility with many common Python libraries is limited. Please see [R with Python](#) for more information. That

section also includes a code example that uses core Python to implement a simple HTTP server. The server uses R callbacks to generate content.

4 Installation

4.1 Package installation

The `jsr223` package requires Java 8 Standard Edition or above. The current version of the Java Runtime Environment (JRE) can be determined by executing `'java -version'` from a system command prompt. See the example output below. Java 8 is denoted by version `1.8.x_xx`.

```
java version "1.8.0_144"
Java(TM) SE Runtime Environment (build 1.8.0_144-b01)
Java HotSpot(TM) 64-Bit Server VM (build 25.144-b01, mixed mode)
```

The JRE can be obtained from [Oracle's web site](#). Select the architecture (32 or 64 bit) that matches your R installation.

`jsr223` runs on a standard installation of R (e.g., the R build option `--enable-R-shlib` is not required). `jsr223` is available on CRAN and can be installed with the usual command:

```
install.packages("jsr223")
```

This command will also download and install the `rJava` dependency. However, the `rJava` installation will fail if R is not yet configured to use Java on Unix, Linux, or OSX. To configure R for Java, execute `'sudo R CMD javareconf'` in a terminal. This command is not required for Windows systems. If the Java reconfiguration command generates errors, address the errors and execute the command again. One common error can be resolved by determining whether the GNU Compiler Collection (GCC) is accessible. To check for GCC, execute `'gcc --help'` from a terminal. This command will fail if GCC is not installed or if the license agreement has not been accepted.

4.2 Script engine installation and instantiation

To create an instance of a language's script engine, `jsr223` requires access to the associated Java Archive (JAR) files. These instructions will help you obtain the required files and create a script engine instance. For simplicity, these instructions only direct you to download the files directly. For an example using a dependency manager, see [Using Java libraries with complex dependencies](#).

4.2.1 Groovy

Groovy is a Java-like scripting language. Java code can often be executed by the Groovy engine with little modification. Hence, this Groovy integration essentially brings the Java language to R.

To obtain the standalone Groovy engine, go to <http://groovy-lang.org> and click the 'Download' link. Locate the current binary distribution. Download and extract the archive to a temporary folder. Locate the 'embeddable' subfolder. Copy the file named 'groovy-all-x.x.x.jar' to a convenient location and make note of the path. Specify this path in the `class.path` parameter of the `ScriptEngine$new` constructor to create a Groovy script engine instance:

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("groovy", class.path = "~/your-path/groovy-all.jar")
```

4.2.2 JavaScript (Nashorn)

Nashorn is the JavaScript dialect included in Java 8 through 10. For these versions, Nashorn is included in the JRE, so no downloads are necessary to use JavaScript with **jsr223**. **Note: As of Java 11, Nashorn is deprecated. Nashorn will be removed in a future Java release.** Technical documentation and examples for Nashorn are available at [Oracle's web site](#). Create a JavaScript instance using

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("javascript")
```

4.2.3 JRuby

JRuby is a Java-based implementation of the Ruby programming language. Obtain the standalone JRuby engine by clicking the 'Downloads' link at <http://jruby.org>. Find 'JRuby x.x.x.x Complete.jar' and save it to a convenient location. Specify the path to the JAR file in the `class.path` parameter of the `ScriptEngine$new` constructor to create a JRuby script engine instance.

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("ruby", class.path = "~/your-path/jruby-complete.jar")
```

4.2.4 Jython

Jython is a Java-based implementation of the Python programming language. The standalone Jython engine is available at <http://www.jython.org>. Follow the 'Download' link. Click 'Download Jython x.x.x - Standalone Jar' to start the download. Save the JAR file to a convenient location and remember the path. This path will be used by **jsr223** to load the script engine as in the following code.

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  "python",
  class.path = "~/your-path/jython-standalone.jar"
)
```

4.2.5 Kotlin

Kotlin is a relatively new programming language that is interoperable with Java. As of this writing, a standalone JAR file is not available for the script engine. The most straight-forward way to obtain the files is to use selected files from the Community Edition of the **JetBrains IntelliJ Idea** integrated development environment (IDE). The IDE doesn't need to be installed. Download the IDE's archive file (e.g., a zip file, not the executable installer package). Create an empty target folder on your system for the Kotlin files. Extract the 'bin' and 'plugins/Kotlin' folders to the target folder preserving the original folder structures. **Note:** The 'bin' folder isn't strictly required, but it will eliminate warnings on some systems. Make note of the fully-qualified path to the 'plugins/Kotlin' folder; it will be used by **jsr223** to load the script engine.

If you are already using a current version of IntelliJ Idea, or if you decide to install the IDE, locate the path to the 'plugins/Kotlin' subfolder of the IDE's installation path. This folder will be used to load the script engine.

Because Kotlin does not provide a standalone script engine JAR file, **jsr223** includes a convenience function `getKotlinScriptEngineJars` to simplify adding JAR files to the class path. The following code demonstrates creating a Kotlin script engine instance using only the minimum required JAR files. The `kotlin.path` variable contains the path to the 'plugins/Kotlin' folder on your system.

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  "kotlin",
  class.path = getKotlinScriptEngineJars(kotlin.path)
)
```

To include all Kotlin system JAR files in the class path, use this example instead.

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  "kotlin",
  class.path = getKotlinScriptEngineJars(kotlin.path, minimum = FALSE)
)
```

5 Feature documentation

The primary features of `jsr223` are designed to be accessible to R programmers of all experience levels. This quick start guide illustrates these features with simple code examples. In general, the code samples work with all supported script engines with two exceptions.

1. Global variables in Ruby script must be prefixed with a dollar sign.
2. Kotlin script engine bindings are not created as global variables. See [Kotlin idiosyncrasies](#).

5.1 Hello world

The R code snippet below demonstrates the basic elements required to embed a scripting language: start a script engine, optionally pass data to the script engine environment, execute a script, and terminate the script engine when it is no longer needed.

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("javascript")
engine$message <- "Hello world"
engine %~% "print(message);"

## Hello world

engine$terminate()
```

The `ScriptEngine$new` constructor method creates a script engine instance. In the preceding example, we assign the new script engine object to the variable `engine`. The first argument of `ScriptEngine$new` specifies the type of script engine to create. In this case, we create a JavaScript engine. The third line assigns the value "Hello world" to a global variable named `message` in the script engine environment. The next line executes a JavaScript code snippet using the `%~%` operator. The snippet uses the JavaScript `print` method to write the message to the console. The last line in the example terminates the script engine and releases the associated resources.

To create a script engine other than JavaScript, specify a different script engine name and a character vector containing the required script engine JAR files. (See [Script engine installation](#) for instructions to obtain script engines.) The supported script engine names are listed in [Table 6](#). These names are defined by the script engine provider. **Note:** Script engine names are case sensitive.

The next example reproduces the "Hello world" example in Ruby script.

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  engine.name = "ruby",
  class.path = "~/your-path/jruby-complete.jar"
)
engine$message <- "Hello world"
engine %~% "puts $message"
```

```
## Hello world

engine$terminate()
```

In this case, two parameters are passed to the `ScriptEngine$new` method: the script engine name "ruby", and the path to the JRuby script engine JAR file. As before, we assign the value "Hello world" to a global variable named `message` and print it to the console. Notice that we prefix the global variable with a dollar sign: `$message`. This syntax is peculiar to global variables in the Ruby language.

Language	Script engine names
Groovy	groovy, Groovy
JavaScript (Nashorn)	js, JS, JavaScript, javascript, nashorn, Nashorn, ECMAScript, ecmaScript
JRuby (Ruby)	jruby, ruby
Jython (Python)	jython, python
Kotlin	kotlin

Table 6: The `ScriptEngine$new` constructor method creates a new script engine instance for a given language using the associated names in this table. Script engine names are case sensitive.

5.2 Executing script

`jsr223` provides several methods to execute script. The lines

```
return.value <- engine %~% script
return.value <- engine$eval(script)
```

both evaluate the expression in the character vector `script`. The return value is the result of the last expression in the script, if any, or `NULL` otherwise. Text written to standard output by the script engine is printed to the R console. The following line executes JavaScript code and assigns the result to an R variable.

```
result <- engine %~% "isFinite(1);"
```

The following lines also execute script, but there are no return values. This notation is convenient if the last expression in the snippet returns unneeded data or an unsupported type (like a function).

```
engine %@% script
engine$eval(script, discard.return.value = TRUE)
```

To execute a script file, use either of the following lines where `file.name` is the path or URL to the script file.

```
engine$source(file.name)
engine$source(file.name, discard.return.value = TRUE)
```

The methods `eval` and `source` take an argument named `bindings` that accepts an R named list. The name/value pairs in the list replace the script engine's global bindings during script execution. The following JavaScript example demonstrates this functionality. Notice that the result of `a + b` changes when bindings are specified.

```
engine$a <- 2
engine$b <- 3
engine$eval("a + b")

## 5

lst1 <- list(a = 6, b = 7)
engine$eval("a + b", bindings = lst1)
```

```
## 13
```

This script would throw an error because `'b'` is not defined in the list.

```
lst2 <- list(a = 6)
engine$eval("a + b", bindings = lst2)
```

When the `bindings` parameter is not specified, the script engine reverts to the default global bindings.

```
engine$eval("a + b")
```

```
## 5
```

5.3 Sharing data between language environments

The following two lines of R code are equivalent: they convert an R object to a Java object and assign the new object to a variable `myValue` in the script engine's environment. This syntax is the same for all supported R data structures.

```
engine$myValue <- iris
engine$set("myValue", iris)
```

To retrieve `myValue` from the script engine (i.e., to convert a Java object to an R object), use either of the following lines.

```
engine$myValue
engine$get("myValue")
```

Remove the `myValue` variable with `engine$remove("myValue")`. List all bindings in the script engine's environment with `engine$getBindings()`.

Bindings are synonymous with global variables in most script engine environments. For example, the following sample creates a binding using the R interface and retrieves the value through JavaScript.

```
engine$myValue1 <- 5
engine %~% "myValue1;"
```

```
## [1] 5
```

This example does the opposite; it creates a new global variable in JavaScript and returns its value through the `jsr223` binding interface.

```
engine %@% "var myValue2 = 6;"
engine$myValue2
```

```
## [1] 6
```

The Kotlin language is an exception to this behavior. It handles bindings through a the global object `jsr223Bindings` as follows. See [Kotlin idiosyncrasies](#) for more information.

```
engine$myValue1 <- 5
engine %~% 'jsr223Bindings["myValue1"]'
```

```
## [1] 5
```

```
engine %@% 'jsr223Bindings["myValue2"] = 6'
engine$myValue2
```

```
## [1] 6
```

All data structures in Java-based languages are backed by Java objects. Hence, `jsr223` can usually convert what appears to be a native language construct to an appropriate R object (e.g. JavaScript objects and Python tuples). Discover the Java class for any global variable using `engine$getJavaClassName("identifier")` where `identifier` is the variable's name.

Behind the scenes, `jsr223`'s simplified data exchange is provided by the R package `jdk`: Java Data Exchange for R and `rJava`. The `jdk` package's functionality was originally part of `jsr223`, but it was broken out into a separate package to simplify maintenance and to make its features available to other developers.

The `jdk` package (and hence `jsr223`) supports converting R vectors, factors, n-dimensional arrays, data frames, named lists, unnamed lists, nested lists (i.e., lists containing lists), and environments to generic Java objects. Row-major and column-major ordering options are available for arrays and data frames. R data types numeric, integer, character, raw, and logical are supported. Complex types and date/time classes are not supported.

Java scalars, n-dimensional arrays, collections, and maps can be converted to standard objects in the R environment. These structures cover all of the primary data types in the supported

scripting languages. Moreover, collections and maps are ubiquitous in Java APIs; providing support for these structures gives R developers easy access to a vast number of data structures available on the Java platform. This includes most scripting language structures such as Python dictionaries and native JavaScript objects.

All `jdx` data conversion options are mirrored by settings in `jsr223`. The most pertinent details are discussed in the following sections. For a more thorough discussion, see the vignette included with the `jdx` package.

5.4 Setting and getting script engine options

The `jsr223` "ScriptEngine" class exposes several methods that control settings for a script engine instance. These methods are named using the Java getter/setter convention: methods that set values are prefixed with "set" and methods that retrieve values begin with "get". For example, if `engine` is a script engine object, `engine$setArrayOrder('column-major')` will change the *array order* setting. The code `engine$getArrayOrder()` will retrieve the current *array order* setting.

5.5 Handling R vectors

By default, length-one R vectors are converted to Java scalars when passed to the script engine environment. If a Java length-one array is desired, wrap the value in the R "as-is" function (e.g., `I(myValue)`), or set the *length one vector as array* setting to `TRUE` using the `setLengthOneVectorAsArray` method. By default, length-one vectors are converted to Java scalars as demonstrated here.

```
engine$setLengthOneVectorAsArray(FALSE)
engine$myScalar <- 1
engine$getJavaClassName("myScalar")
```

```
## [1] "java.lang.Double"
```

Wrap a length-one vector with `I()` to indicate that an array should be created instead. In this case, the resulting Java class name is `"[D"` which denotes a primitive, double one-dimensional array.

To change the conversion behavior for all length-one vectors, set the *length one vector as array* setting to `TRUE`.

```
engine$setLengthOneVectorAsArray(TRUE)
engine$myArray <- 1
engine$getJavaClassName("myArray")
```

```
## [1] "[D"
```

Vectors of any length other than one are always converted to primitive Java arrays. The following code passes a vector of ten random normal deviates to the script engine environment. The first element of the resulting array is returned. **Note:** Java arrays use zero-based indexes.

```
set.seed(10)
engine$norms <- rnorm(10)
engine %~% "norms[0]"
```

```
## [1] 0.01874617
```

```
text
```

5.6 Handling R matrices and other n-dimensional arrays

By default, n-dimensional arrays are copied in row-major order. The following example demonstrates converting a simple 2 x 2 R matrix. Because the order is row-major, the last line of code returns the element in the first row, second column. Remember, Java arrays use zero-based indexes.

```
m <- matrix(1:4, 2, 2)
m
```

```
##      [,1] [,2]
## [1,]    1    3
## [2,]    2    4
```

```
engine$m <- m
engine %~% "m[0][1]"
```

```
## [1] 3
```

The `setArrayOrder` script engine method controls ordering for arrays converted from R to Java, and vice versa. Three array index ordering schemes are available: 'row-major', 'column-major', and 'column-minor'. These settings control how the destination Java array is constructed.

Before describing the ordering schemes, it is helpful to think of n-dimensional arrays as collections of smaller structures. A one-dimensional array (a vector) is a collection of scalars. A two-dimensional array (a matrix) is a collection of one-dimensional arrays representing either rows or columns of the matrix. A three-dimensional array (a rectangular prism or cube) is a collection of matrices. A four-dimensional array is a collection of cubes, and so forth.

Now we describe the each of the *array order* settings. We use the notation

```
[row][column][matrix]...[n]
```

to mean that, for a given array, the row index (within a column) comes first, followed by the column index (within a matrix), followed by the matrix index (within a cube), etc.

- 'row-major' – The data of the resulting Java n-dimensional array are ordered [row][column][matrix]...[n]. The `jsr223` package defaults to 'row-major' because R syntax uses this indexing scheme (though R stores the array in memory using column-major order). This row-major scheme is not intuitive for Java programmers when $n > 2$ because Java n-dimensional arrays are constructed as high-order objects containing low-order objects.

- 'column-major' – The data of the resulting Java n-dimensional array are ordered `[n]...[matrix][column][row]`. This ordering scheme is natural for Java programmers: the data contained in the one-dimensional arrays represent columns of the parent matrix.
- 'column-minor' – The data of the resulting Java n-dimensional array are ordered `[n]...[matrix][row][column]`. This provides Java programmers with a natural ordering scheme where the arrays at the one-dimensional level represent rows of the parent matrix. For matrices, 'column-minor' and 'row-major' are equivalent.

Note: If an R array is converted to Java using a particular array order, use the same array order when converting it back from Java to R. Otherwise, the data will be in the wrong order.

In the following JavaScript example, a three-dimensional array is copied to the script engine using each of the three indexing options. We use the Java static method `deepToString` to create a string representation of the array that shows the resulting order of the data in the script engine.

```
a <- array(1:8, c(2, 2, 2))
a

## , , 1
##
##      [,1] [,2]
## [1,]    1    3
## [2,]    2    4
##
## , , 2
##
##      [,1] [,2]
## [1,]    5    7
## [2,]    6    8

engine$setArrayOrder("row-major")
engine$a <- a
engine %~% "java.util.Arrays.deepToString(a);"

## [1] "[[[1, 5], [3, 7]], [[2, 6], [4, 8]]]"

engine$setArrayOrder("column-major")
engine$a <- a
engine %~% "java.util.Arrays.deepToString(a);"

## [1] "[[[1, 2], [3, 4]], [[5, 6], [7, 8]]]"

engine$setArrayOrder("column-minor")
engine$a <- a
engine %~% "java.util.Arrays.deepToString(a);"

## [1] "[[[1, 3], [2, 4]], [[5, 7], [6, 8]]]"
```

5.7 Handling R data frames

R data frames can be converted to the script engine using either row-major or column-major order. Row-major order (the default) creates a list of records. This representation is perhaps the most common in programming for tabular data. Column-major order, on the other hand, creates a list of columns. Column-major structures are faster to create and are generally preferred for aggregate column calculations. Change the *data frame order* setting with the `setDataFrameRowMajor` method.

When the row-major setting is selected (i.e., `engine$setDataFrameRowMajor(TRUE)`), an R data frame is converted to a `java.util.ArrayList` object. The list contains `java.util.LinkedHashMap` objects that represent the rows of the data frame. Each member of the hash map is a name/value pair of a single field in the data frame. The name of the field is the corresponding column's name. The following example uses R's built-in `iris` data set to illustrate using row-major data frames in the script environment.

```
engine$setDataFrameRowMajor(TRUE)
engine$iris <- iris

# Return the number of rows.
engine %~% "iris.size()"

## [1] 150

# Retrieve the sepal length in the first row.
engine %~% "iris[0].get('Sepal.Length')"

## [1] 5.1

# Retrieve the second row as a list.
engine %~% "iris[1]"

## $`Sepal.Length`
## [1] 4.9
##
## $Sepal.Width
## [1] 3
##
## $Petal.Length
## [1] 1.4
##
## $Petal.Width
## [1] 0.2
##
## $Species
## [1] "setosa"
```

When the column-major setting is selected (i.e., `engine$setDataFrameRowMajor(FALSE)`), an R data frame is converted to a `java.util.LinkedHashMap` object. The map members are arrays representing the columns in the data frame.

Row names for data frames are not preserved during conversion. To include row names in the conversion, simply add them as a column in your data frame. We do not automatically include row names in conversion because it would require us to create an additional element in the Java map with a reserved key value such as `_row`. Instead, we leave the decision of how to handle row names to the developer.

The following commented example uses R's built-in `mtcars` data set to illustrate basic functionality.

```
engine$setDataFrameRowMajor(FALSE)

# 'mtcars' is an R data frame containing information for 32 cars. 'mtcars'
# stores vehicle names as row names. Row names are not preserved during
# conversion. This line creates a new R data frame with the vehicle names as
# a new column 'name'.
df <- data.frame(name = row.names(mtcars), mtcars)

# This line converts the new data frame to a Java map named 'mtcars'.
engine$mtcars <- df

# Return the number of columns in the map.
engine %~% "mtcars.size()"

## [1] 12

# Access each column using the map's 'get' method and the column's name. This
# line returns the first element of the column 'name'.
engine %~% "mtcars.get('name')[0]"

## [1] "Mazda RX4"

# Add a new column named 'cylsize' representing the size of a single cylinder.
engine$cylsize <- mtcars[, "disp"] / mtcars[, "cyl"]
engine %@% "mtcars.put('cylsize', cylsize)"

# Remove the columns 'name' and 'cylsize'.
engine %@% "mtcars.remove('name')"
engine %@% "mtcars.remove('cylsize')"

# Compare the contents of the map to the original data frame in R.
all.equal(mtcars, engine$mtcars, check.attributes = FALSE)

## [1] TRUE
```

Groovy and JavaScript support an additional syntax that allows map elements to be accessed like object properties instead of using the `get` and `put` methods.

```
# The following two lines are equivalent in Groovy and JavaScript.
engine %~% "mtcars.cyl[0];"
engine %~% "mtcars.get('cyl')[0];"
```

5.8 Handling R factors

R factors are comprised of a character vector of levels and an integer vector of indexes that reference the levels. For example, if the integer vector `5:7` is converted to a factor, the levels will be `c("5", "6", "7")` and the indexes will be `c(1L, 2L, 3L)`. The script engine *coerce factors* setting determines how the factor levels are handled when converting the factor to a Java array. When this setting is enabled (e.g., `engine$setCoerceFactors(TRUE)`), an attempt is made to coerce the factor levels to integer, numeric, or logical values. If coercion fails, the character levels are used. When *coerce factors* is disabled, the factor is always converted to a string array. The *coerce factors* setting applies to standalone factors as well as factors in data frames.

After `jsr223` converts an R factor to a Java array, there is no consistent way to determine whether the array was originally created from an R factor. Therefore, if an R factor is copied to the script engine, and then the resulting array is returned to R, it will be converted to an R vector, not a factor.

When creating a data frame in R, character vectors are converted to factors by default. The `jsr223` package follows this standard when a qualifying Java object is converted to an R data frame. The `setStringsAsFactors` method modifies this behavior. The method takes one of three values: `NULL`, `TRUE`, and `FALSE`. If `NULL` is specified (the default), the R system setting is used (see `getOption("stringsAsFactors")`). A value of `TRUE` ensures that character vectors are always converted to factors for new data frames. Finally, a setting of `FALSE` disables conversion to factors.

5.9 Handling R lists and environments

The `jsr223` package converts R lists and environments to Java objects. List elements may be any R data structure supported by `jsr223`, including other lists (i.e., nested lists). There is no limitation to the levels of nesting.

R named lists and environments are converted to Java `java.util.HashMap` objects. See [Handling R data frames](#) for map code examples. The only difference is that a data frame's contents are always converted to a map of arrays. For lists, the map elements may be any data structure.

R unnamed lists are converted to Java objects implementing the `java.util.ArrayList` interface. The following code demonstrates basic `java.util.ArrayList` functionality.

```
# Create an unnamed list with three elements.
engine$list <- list(c("a", "b", "c"), TRUE, pi)

# Members in the list are accessed by index. This line returns the first element.
engine %~% "list[0]"
```

```
## [1] "a" "b" "c"

# Replace an element in the list.
engine %@% "list[0] = 'replaced'"

# Add a new element to the end of the list.
engine %@% "list.add('last item')"
```

```
## [1] 4
```

5.10 Data exchange details

So far, we have discussed all of the basic functionality and settings related to data exchange. This section includes a few additional notes for data exchange. A comprehensive guide, including details for unexpected conversion behaviors, is included in the `jdk` package vignette.

R reserves special NA values to indicate missing types. Table 7 outlines how NA values are handled for different R data types. Table 8, in turn, describes how Java null values are interpreted when converting Java objects to R.

Because `jsr223` converts data to generic Java data structures, R attributes such as names cannot always be included in conversion. For example, R vectors are converted to native Java arrays, therefore names associated with vector elements must be discarded. Likewise, dimension names are not preserved for n-dimensional structures. Column names for data frames are preserved, but row names are not. To preserve data frame row names, simply copy the names to a new column before converting the data frame.

R Structure	NA Behavior
numeric	NA_real_ maps to a reserved value.
integer	NA_integer_ maps to a reserved value.
character	NA_character_ maps to Java null.
logical	NA maps to Java false with a warning.

Table 7: R reserves special NA values to indicate missing types. This table outlines how NA values are converted to Java values.

Java Structure	Java null Conversion
<code>Boolean[]..[]</code>	null maps to FALSE with a warning.
<code>Byte[]..[]</code>	null maps to raw 0x00 with a warning.
<code>Character[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_character_.
<code>Double[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_real_.
<code>Float[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_real_.
<code>Integer[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_integer_.
<code>java.math.BigDecimal[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_real_.
<code>java.math.BigInteger[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_real_.
<code>Long[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_real_.
<code>Object[]..[]</code>	null maps to NULL.
<code>Short[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_integer_.
<code>java.lang.String[]..[]</code>	null maps to NA_character_.

Table 8: Java null indicates missing or uninitialized values. This table outlines how null is interpreted when converting Java objects to R. The syntax `[]..[]` is used to indicate an array of one or more dimensions.

The `jsr223` package always converts R vectors and arrays to Java arrays. Java arrays are intuitive to use in all of the supported scripting environments. However, the supported scripting languages can also create array structures that are not native Java arrays. `jsr223` also supports converting these language-specific array and collection structures to R vectors and arrays.

Java n-dimensional arrays whose subarrays of a given dimension are not the same dimension are known as *ragged arrays*. Ragged arrays cannot be converted to R arrays. Instead, `jsr223` translates ragged arrays to lists of the appropriate object. For example, a matrix containing subarrays of different lengths will be converted to an R list of vectors. Likewise, a three-dimensional array containing two matrices of different dimensions will be converted to an R list of matrices.

As described earlier, R unnamed lists are converted to `java.util.ArrayList` objects. The `ArrayList` class implements the `java.util.Collection` interface. This is one of the most basic interfaces in Java and it is common to a large number of structures. `jsr223` converts Java objects implementing the `java.util.Collection` interface to vectors, n-dimensional arrays, data frames, and unnamed lists, depending on the structure’s content. In some cases an R list converted to a Java object, and then converted back to an R object, may not produce an R list. See the sections “Java Collections” and “Conversion Issues” in the `jdx` package vignette for conversion rules and in-depth explanations.

The `jdx` package converts R raw values to Java byte values and vice versa. R raw values and Java byte values are both 8 bits, but they are interpreted differently. R raw values range from 0 to 255 (i.e., unsigned bytes). Java byte values range from -128 to 127 (i.e., signed bytes). The 8-bit value `0xff` represents 255 in R, but is -1 in Java. Usually this discrepancy is not an issue because

raw and byte values are used to store and transfer binary data such as images. If human-readable values are important, use integer vectors instead.

5.11 Calling script functions and methods

Functions and methods defined in script can be called directly from R via the `invokeFunction` and `invokeMethod` script engine methods. Any number of supported R structures can be passed as parameter values.

Note: The Groovy, Python, and Kotlin engines can use `invokeMethod` to call methods of Java objects. The JavaScript and Ruby engines only support calling methods of native scripting objects. For the latter two engines, we recommend wrapping Java objects in native functions or methods to facilitate their use from R.

As described in [Handling R vectors](#), length-one vectors are converted to Java scalars by default. One way to ensure that a vector is always converted to a Java array is by wrapping it in the “as-is” function `I()`. This feature is particularly useful when passing multiple parameters to a script function. In the same function, some parameters may require scalars while others require arrays. Simply use `I()` to indicate which vectors should be converted to arrays.

The following example demonstrates calling a simple JavaScript function, `sumThis`, that sums the elements of an array. If the first parameter is not an array, the function throws an error.

```
# Define a simple global function 'sumThis'.
engine %<>% "
function sumThis(a) {
  if (!a.getClass().isArray())
    throw 'Not an array.';
  sum = 0;
  for (i = 0; i < a.length; i++) {
    sum += a[i];
  }
  return sum;
}
"

# Set the default length-one vectors setting so the example works as intended.
engine$setLengthOneVectorAsArray(FALSE)

# Call the function with a vector with length > 1.
vector <- c(1, 2, 3)
engine$invokeFunction("sumThis", vector)

## [1] 6

# If the vector is length-one, an error is thrown because an array parameter
# is expected.
vector <- 1
```

```

engine$invokeFunction("sumThis", vector)

## javax.script.ScriptException: Not an array. in <eval> at line number 4 at
## column number 4

# Try again, this time marking the vector as-is, meaning that it should
# always be converted to an array.
vector <- 1
engine$invokeFunction("sumThis", I(vector))

## [1] 1

```

The next example demonstrates using `invokeMethod`. It is essentially the same as `invokeFunction` except that the first two parameters require the object's name and method, respectively.

```

# Invoke the 'abs' (absolute value) method of the JavaScript 'Math' object.
engine$invokeMethod("Math", "abs", -3)

## [1] 3

```

5.12 String interpolation

`jsr223` features string interpolation before code evaluation. R code placed between `@{` and `}` in a code snippet is evaluated and replaced by the a string representation of the return value before the snippet is executed by the script engine. A script may contain multiple `@{...}` expressions. String interpolation is enabled by default. It can be disabled using

```
engine$setInterpolation(FALSE)
```

Note: Interpolated decimal values may lose precision when coerced to a string.

This example simply sums two numbers. The section [Callbacks](#) includes a more interesting interpolation example involving recursion.

```

a <- 1; b <- 2
engine %~% "@{a} + @{b}"

## 3

```

Interpolation expressions are evaluated in the current scope. The following example shows that interpolation locates the value defined in the function's scope before the global variable of the same name.

```

a <- 1

constantFunction <- function() {
  a <- 3

```

```
  engine %~% "@{a}"
}
```

```
constantFunction()
```

```
## [1] 3
```

5.13 Callbacks

Embedded scripts can access the R environment using the `jsr223` callback interface. When a script engine is started, `jsr223` creates a global object named `R` in the script engine's environment. This object is used to execute R code and set/get variables in the R session's global environment.

This code example demonstrates setting and getting a variable in the R environment. For Ruby, remember to prefix the global variable `R` with a dollar sign.

```
engine %@% "R.set('a', [1, 2, 3])"
engine %~% "R.get('a')"
```

```
## [1] 1 2 3
```

Note: Changing any of the data exchange settings will affect the behavior of the callback interface. For example, using `engine$setLengthOneVectorAsArray(TRUE)` will cause `R.get("pi")` to return an array with a single element instead of a scalar value.

Execute R script with `R.eval(script)` where `script` is a string containing R code. This example returns a single random normal draw from `R`.

```
set.seed(10)
engine %~% "R.eval('rnorm(1)')"
```

```
## [1] 0.01874617
```

Infinite recursive calls between R and the script engine are supported. The only limitation is available stack space. The following code demonstrates recursive calls and string interpolation with a countdown.

```
recursiveCountdown <- function(start.value) {
  cat("T minus ", start.value, "\n", sep = "")
  if (start.value > 0)
    engine %~% "R.eval('recursiveCountdown(@{start.value - 1})');"
}
```

```
engine %~% "R.eval('recursiveCountdown(3)')"
```

```
## T minus 3
## T minus 2
## T minus 1
## T minus 0
```

5.14 Embedding R in another scripting language

It is often desirable to use R as an embedded language. The `jsr223` interface does not provide a standalone interface to call into R. However, the same functionality can be achieved with the `RScript` command line executable, a simple launch script, and the `jsr223` callback interface. The following R script is an example of a launch script for Groovy. It executes any Groovy script file provided as a command line parameter.

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("groovy", "groovy-all.jar")
tryCatch (
  engine$source(commandArgs(TRUE)[1], discard.return.value = TRUE),
  error = function(e) { cat(e$message, "\n", sep = "") },
  finally = { engine$terminate() }
)
```

The following command line uses the launch script to execute a Groovy script. The launch script is named `'groovy-launcher.R'` and `'source.groovy'` is an arbitrary Groovy source file.

```
RScript groovy-launcher.R source.groovy
```

With this setup, a developer can author a Groovy script in a dedicated script editor. The Groovy script can embed R using the `jsr223` callback interface as if it were a standalone interface. The command line above can be provided to a code editor to execute the Groovy script on demand. The Groovy code below is an example of embedding R.

```
// Set a variable named 'probabilities' in the R global environment.
R.set('probabilities', [0.25, 0.5, 0.20, 0.05]);

// Take a random draw of size two using the given probabilities.
draws = R.eval('sample(4, 2, prob = probabilities)');
```

5.15 Compiling script

The Java Scripting API supports compiling script to Java bytecode before evaluation. If unstructured code (i.e., code not encapsulated in methods or functions) is to be executed repeatedly, compiling it will improve performance. This feature does not apply to methods and functions as they are compiled on demand.

The following two lines show how to compile code snippets and source files, respectively. For the latter, local disk files or URLs can be specified. In both cases, a compiled script object is returned.

```
cs <- engine$compile(script)
cs <- engine$compileSource(file.name)
```

The compiled script object has a single method, `eval`, that is used to execute the compiled code. It can be argued that the method should be called `exec` in this case, but our interface follows the Java Scripting API naming scheme. The following trivial example demonstrates the compiled script interface.

```

# Compile a code snippet.
cs <- engine$compile("c + d")

# This line would throw an error because 'c' and 'd' have not yet been declared.
## cs$eval()

engine$c <- 2
engine$d <- 3
cs$eval()

## 5

```

The `eval` method takes an argument named `bindings` that accepts an R named list. The name/value pairs in the list replace the script engine's global bindings during script execution as shown in this code sample.

```

lst <- list(c = 6, d = 7)
cs$eval(bindings = lst)

## 13

# When 'bindings' is not specified, the script engine reverts to the original
# environment.
cs$eval()

## 5

```

The `discard.return.value` argument of the `eval` method determines whether the return value of a script is discarded. The default is `FALSE`. The following line executes code but does not return a value.

```
cs$eval(discard.return.value = TRUE)
```

5.16 Handling console output

When script is evaluated, any text printed to standard output appears in the R console by default. Console output can be disabled entirely with `engine$setStandardOutputMode('quiet')`. To resume printing output to the console, use `engine$setStandardOutputMode('console')`.

Text printed to the console by a script engine cannot be captured using R's `sink` or `capture.output` methods. To capture output, set the *standard output mode* setting to `'buffer'`. In this JavaScript example, the `print` method output will not appear in the R console; it will be stored in an internal buffer. The contents of the buffer can be retrieved and cleared using the `getStandardOutput` method.

```

engine$setStandardOutputMode("buffer")
engine %@@% ("print('abc');")
engine$getStandardOutput()

```

```
## [1] "abc\n"
```

Alternatively, the buffer can be discarded using the `clearStandardOutput` method.

```
engine %@% ("print('abc');")
engine$clearStandardOutput()
```

5.17 Console mode: a simple REPL

jsr223 provides a simple read-evaluate-print-loop (REPL) for interactive code execution. This feature is inspired by Jeroen Ooms's **V8** package. The REPL is useful for quickly setting and inspecting variables in the script engine. Returned values are printed to the console using `base::dput`. The `base::cat` function is not used because it does not handle complex data structures.

Use `engine$console()` to enter the REPL. Enter 'exit' to return to the R prompt. The REPL supports only single line entry: no line continuations or carriage returns are allowed. This limitation arises from the fact that the Java Scripting API does not support code validation.

The following output was produced by a Python REPL session. The code creates a Python dictionary object and accesses the elements. The tilde character ('~') indicates a prompt.

python console. Press ESC, CTRL + C, or enter 'exit' to exit the console.

```
~ dict = {"first": 1, "second": 2}
```

```
~ dict["first"]
```

```
1
```

```
~ dict["second"]
```

```
2
```

```
~ exit
```

```
Exiting console.
```

Most developers are familiar with the command history in the R REPL. Unfortunately, command history for the **jsr223** REPL is unreliable or non-existent because there is no functional standard for saving and restoring commands in R consoles.

6 R with Groovy

Groovy is a dynamically typed programming language that closely follows Java syntax. Hence, the `jsr223` integration for Groovy enables developers to essentially embed Java language solutions in R. There are some minor language differences between Groovy and Java; they are described in the online guide [Differences with Java](#).

6.1 Groovy idiosyncrasies

Top-level (i.e., global) variables created in Groovy script will be discarded after script evaluation unless the variables are declared using specific syntax. To create a binding that persists in the script engine environment, declare a top-level variable omitting the type definition and Groovy's `def` keyword. For example `myValue = 42` will create a global variable. The `@myValue` notation cannot be used. To specify a data type for a global variable, use a constructor (`myVar = new Integer(42)`) or a type suffix (`myVar = 42L`).

6.2 Groovy and Java classes

If you already know Java, using Java classes in Groovy will be very familiar. Java package members are imported (i.e., made accessible to the script) using the `import` statement. Groovy automatically imports many common Java packages by default such as `java.io.*`, `java.lang.*`, `java.net.*`, and `java.util.*`. If the package is not part of the JRE, add the package's JAR file to the `class.path` parameter of the `ScriptEngine$new` constructor when creating the script engine.

Tip: Supply class paths as separate elements of a vector instead of concatenating the paths with the usual path delimiters ("`;`" for Windows, and "`:`" for all others). This will make your code platform-independent and easier to read.

This example demonstrates using Java objects in R. We use the [Apache Commons Mathematics Library](#) to sample from a bivariate normal distribution.

```
library("jsr223")

# Include both the Groovy script engine and the Apache Commons Mathematics
# libraries in the class path. Specify the paths seperately in a character
# vector.
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  engine.name = "groovy",
  class.path = c("groovy-all.jar", "commons-math3-3.6.1.jar")
)

# The getClassPath method displays the current class path.
engine$getClassPath()

# Define the means vector and covariance matrix that will be used to create the
# bivariate normal distribution.
engine$means <- c(0, 2)
```

```
engine$covariances <- diag(1, nrow = 2)

# Import the package member and instantiate a new class. For Groovy, excluding
# the type and 'def' keyword will make 'mvn' a global variable.
engine %@@% "
  import org.apache.commons.math3.distribution.MultivariateNormalDistribution;
  mvn = new MultivariateNormalDistribution(means, covariances);
"

# Take a sample.
engine$invokeMethod("mvn", "sample")

## [1] 0.3279374 0.8652296

# Take three samples.
replicate(3, engine$invokeMethod("mvn", "sample"))

##           [,1]      [,2]      [,3]
## [1,] 0.9924368 -1.295875 0.2025815
## [2,] 2.5145855  2.128243 1.1666272

engine$terminate()
```

7 R with JavaScript

Note: As of Java 11, Nashorn JavaScript is deprecated. See JEP 335.

The popularity of JavaScript has overflowed the arena of web development into standalone solutions involving databases, charting, machine learning, and network-enabled utilities, to name just a few. Many of these solutions can be harnessed by R with the help of `jsr223`. Even browser-based scripts that require a document object model (DOM) can be executed using Java's `WebView` browser. Popular JavaScript solutions can be found at [JavaScripting](#), an online database of JavaScript solutions. [Github](#) also lists trending solutions for JavaScript, as well as other languages.

Nashorn is the JavaScript dialect included in Java 8. Nashorn implements ECMAScript 5.1. No download is required to use JavaScript with `jsr223`. JavaScript Nashorn provides wide support for Java classes, including the ability to extend classes and implement interfaces. For details, see the [official Nashorn documentation](#).

Data in JavaScript objects can be converted to R named lists or data frames, depending on content. The following converts a simple JavaScript object to an R named list. Other native JavaScript types, such as lists, are also converted to R objects.

```
engine %@% 'var person = {fname:"Jim", lname:"Hyatt", title:"Principal"};'
engine$person
```

```
## $`fname`
## [1] "Jim"
##
## $lname
## [1] "Hyatt"
##
## $title
## [1] "Principal"
```

7.1 JavaScript and Java classes

Nashorn provides several methods to reference JavaScript classes. We demonstrate the two most common methods. The first approach is the one recommended in the Nashorn documentation; it uses the built-in `Java.type` method to create a JavaScript reference to the class. This reference can be used to access static members or to create instances. In this example, we use a static method of the `java.util.Arrays` class to sort a vector of integers.

```
engine %~% "
  var Arrays = Java.type('java.util.Arrays');
  var random = R.eval('sample(5)');
  Arrays.sort(random);
  random;
"

## [1] 1 2 3 4 5
```

A second approach involves accessing the target class using its fully-qualified name. This approach requires more overhead per call, but it is more convenient than using `Java.type`. The following code is functionally equivalent to the previous example.

```
engine %~% "
  var random = R.eval('sample(5)');
  java.util.Arrays.sort(random);
  random;
"
```

```
## [1] 1 2 3 4 5
```

The `Java.type` method is required to create Java primitives. In this example, we create a Java integer array with five elements.

```
engine %~% "
  var IntegerArrayType = Java.type('int[]');
  var myArray = new IntegerArrayType(5);
  myArray;
"
```

```
## [1] 0 0 0 0 0
```

Next, we reproduce the Groovy bivariate normal example in JavaScript. The code demonstrates importing an external library and highlights an important limitation in Nashorn regarding `invokeMethod`.

```
library("jsr223")
```

```
# Include the Apache Commons Mathematics library in class.path.
```

```
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  engine.name = "js",
  class.path = "commons-math3-3.6.1.jar"
)
```

```
# Define the means vector and covariance matrix that will be used to create the
# bivariate normal distribution.
```

```
engine$means <- c(0, 2)
engine$covariances <- diag(1, nrow = 2)
```

```
# Import the package member and instantiate a new class.
```

```
engine %@% "
  var MultivariateNormalDistributionClass = Java.type(
    'org.apache.commons.math3.distribution.MultivariateNormalDistribution'
  );
  var mvn = new MultivariateNormalDistributionClass(means, covariances);
"
```

```

# This line would throw an error. Nashorn JavaScript supports 'invokeMethod' for
# native JavaScript objects, but not for Java objects.
#
## engine$invokeMethod("mvn", "sample")

# Instead, use script...
engine %~% "mvn.sample();"

## [1] 0.3279374 0.8652296

# ...or wrap the method in a JavaScript function.
engine %@% "function sample() {return mvn.sample();}"
engine$invokeFunction("sample")

## [1] 0.2527757 1.1942332

# Take three samples.
replicate(3, engine$invokeFunction("sample"))

##           [,1]      [,2]      [,3]
## [1,] 0.9924368 -1.295875 0.2025815
## [2,] 2.5145855  2.128243 1.1666272

engine$terminate()

```

7.2 Using JavaScript solutions - Voca

The `jsr223` package enables developers to access solutions developed in other languages by simply sourcing a script file. For example, `Voca` is a popular string manipulation library that simplifies many difficult tasks such as word wrapping and diacritic detection (e.g., the “é” café). Using `Voca` with `jsr223` is simply a matter of sourcing a single script file. This sample script loads `Voca` and demonstrates its functionality.

```

# Source the Voca library. This creates a utility object named 'v'.
engine$source(
  "https://raw.githubusercontent.com/panzerdp/voca/master/dist/voca.min.js",
  discard.return.value = TRUE
)

# 'prune' truncates string, without break words, ensuring the given length, including
# a trailing "...".
engine %~% "v.prune('A long string to prune.', 12);"

## [1] "A long..."

# Methods can be invoked from within R using parameters.

```

```

engine$invokeMethod("v", "prune", "A long string to prune.", 12)

## [1] "A long..."

# Provide a different suffix to 'prune'.
engine$invokeMethod("v", "prune", "A long string to prune.", 12, "(more)")

## [1] "A long (more)"

# Voca supports method chaining.
engine %~% "
v('Voca chaining example')
  .lowerCase()
  .words()
"

## [1] "voca"      "chaining" "example"

# Split graphemes.
engine$invokeMethod("v", "graphemes", "cafe\u0301")

## [1] "c" "a" "f" "é"

# Word wrapping.
engine %~% "v.wordWrap('A long string to wrap', {width: 10});"

## [1] "A long\nstring to\nwrap"

# Notice above, the second method parameter is a JavaScript object. We can still
# use invokeMethod as follows.
engine$invokeMethod(
  "v",
  "wordWrap",
  "A long sentence to wrap using Voca methods.",
  list(width = 20)
)

## [1] "A long\nstring to\nwrap"

# Word wrapping with custom delimiters.
engine$invokeMethod(
  "v",
  "wordWrap",
  "A long sentence to wrap using Voca methods.",
  list(width = 20, newLine = "<br>", indent="__")
)

## [1] "__A long<br/>__string to<br/>__wrap"

```

8 R with Python

Like R, the **Python** programming language is used widely in science and analytics. Python has many powerful language features, yet it is known for being concise and easy to read. The **Jython** project has migrated core Python to the Java platform. This implementation does not include popular libraries such as NumPy and SciPy. These libraries compile to machine code and, as such, they are not compatible with the JVM. However, JVM implementations of some Python native libraries are being developed in a related project, **JyNI** (the Jython Native Interface). To include these libraries in a **jsr223** solution, download the JyNI JAR file and include it in the class path when instantiating a Jython script engine.

The **jsr223** package automatically converts most of the core Python data structures to equivalent R objects. For example, lists, tuples, and sets are converted to R vectors; dicts are converted to R data frames or named lists, depending on content.

8.1 Python idiosyncrasies

Leading white space is significant in Python; it is used to delimit code blocks. Avoid syntax errors by left-aligning code in multi-line string snippets as shown in the examples.

8.2 Python and Java classes

To create a Java object in Python, simply import the associated package and call the class constructor. The **Jython User Guide** provides further details for using Java classes. This example generates a random number using the `java.util.Random` class. Notice that the Python code is not indented; leading white space is significant.

```
# Create an object from the java.util.Random class.
engine %~% "
from java.util import Random
r = Random(10)
"

# Jython supports invoking Java methods.
engine$invokeMethod("r", "nextDouble")

## [1] 0.7304303
```

Jython's `jarray` module is required to create native Java arrays. The `array` method copies a Python sequence to a Java array of the given type. The `zeros` method initializes a Java array of the requested type with zero or null. This code snippet demonstrates both methods.

```
# Use 'jarray.array' to copy a sequence to a Java array of the requested type.
engine %~% "
from jarray import *
myArray = array([3, 2, 1], 'i')
"
```

```

engine$myArray

## [1] 3 2 1

# Alternatively, use zeros to initialize an array with zeros or null. This
# example allocates an array and updates the values with a loop.
engine %~% "
myArray = zeros(5, 'i')
for i in range(myArray.__len__()):
    myArray[i] = i
"
engine$myArray

## [1] 0 1 2 3 4

```

8.3 A simple Python HTTP server

This code sample creates a simple HTTP server using core Python features and libraries. It demonstrates calling Python class members from R and calling R code from Python. The Python script below defines two classes: the `MyHandler` class processes HEAD and GET requests for the server; and the `MyServer` class is used from an R script to start and stop the web server. The Python code is adapted from the [Python Wiki](#).

```

import time
import BaseHTTPServer

# HTTP request handler class
class MyHandler(BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler):
    def do_HEAD(s):
        s.send_response(200)
        s.send_header("Content-type", "text/html")
        s.end_headers()
    def do_GET(s):
        print time.asctime(), "Received request"
        s.send_response(200)
        s.send_header("Content-type", "text/html")
        s.end_headers()
        s.wfile.write("<html><head><title>R/Python HTTP Server</title></head>")
        html = R.eval('getHtmlTable()') # Get HTML table from R.
        s.wfile.write(html)
        s.wfile.write("</body></html>")

class MyServer:
    def __init__(self, host_name, port_number, timeout):
        self.host_name = host_name
        self.port_number = port_number
        server_class = BaseHTTPServer.HTTPServer
        self.httpd = server_class((self.host_name, self.port_number), MyHandler)
        self.httpd.timeout = timeout

```

```

    print time.asctime(), "Server Started - %s:%s" % (self.host_name, self.port_number)
def handle_request(self):
    # This method exists only for demonstration purposes. For a more robust
    # implementation, see 'SocketServer.serve_forever()'.
    self.httpd.handle_request()
def close(self):
    self.httpd.server_close()
    print time.asctime(), "Server Stopped - %s:%s" % (self.host_name, self.port_number)

```

The R script here sources the Python script and starts the web server. It also defines `getHtmlTable`: a function that generates HTML content for the web server. Run the R script and point a web browser to <http://localhost:8080> to see the result. For demonstration purposes, the R script shuts down the Python web server automatically after 60 seconds.

```

library("xtable")
library("jsr223")

# Format the iris data set as an HTML table. This function will be called from
# the Python web server in response to an HTTP GET request.
getHtmlTable <- function() {
  t <- xtable(iris, "Iris Data")
  html <- capture.output(print(t, type = "html", caption.placement = "top"))
  paste0(html, collapse = "\n")
}

# Start the python engine.
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  engine.name = "python",
  class.path = "jython-standalone.jar"
)

# Source the Python script.
engine$source("./python-http-server.py", discard.return.value = TRUE)

runServer <- function(server.runtime = 60) {
  # Automatically shut down server when this function exits.
  on.exit(
    {
      engine$invokeMethod("server", "close")
      engine$terminate()
    }
  )

  # Create an instance of Python 'MyServer' class which starts the server at the
  # specified port with the given request timeout in seconds. A timeout would
  # not be used in a production scenario.
  engine %>% "server = MyServer('localhost', 8080, 2)"

```

```
# Handle requests for 'server.runtime' seconds before shutting down. The
# 'handle_request' method waits for the timeout specified in the 'MyServer'
# constructor before returning to the event loop to allow interruptions. In a
# true web service, the R side would not be involved in monitoring requests.
# See Python's 'SocketServer.serve_forever()' for more information.
started <- as.numeric(Sys.time())
while(as.numeric(Sys.time()) - started < server.runtime)
  engine$invokeMethod("server", "handle_request")
}

runServer(60)
```

9 R with Ruby

The **Ruby** programming language is a general-purpose, object-oriented programming language invented by Yukihiro Matsumoto. According to Matsumoto, he designed the language to “help every programmer in the world to be productive, and to enjoy programming, and to be happy” (Matsumoto, 2008). **JRuby** is a Java implementation of the Ruby language. It is compatible with the popular web application framework **Ruby on Rails**.

The **jsr223** package automatically converts the primary Ruby data structures to equivalent R objects (e.g. Ruby n-dimensional arrays and hashes).

9.1 Ruby idiosyncrasies

Global variables in Ruby script must be prefixed with a dollar sign. Hence, if we create a variable `myValue` using a **jsr223** assignment (e.g., `engine$myValue <- 10`), it is accessed in Ruby script as `$myValue`. Do not use the dollar sign prefix when accessing global variables via **jsr223** methods (e.g., `engine$get("myValue")`).

We have observed a bug in JRuby’s exception handling: when JRuby encounters an error, the engine may continue to throw errors erroneously in subsequent evaluation requests. If this happens, restart the script engine.

9.2 Ruby and Java classes

JRuby implements several methods to access Java classes in Ruby syntax. For a comprehensive guide, see **Calling Java from JRuby**. We demonstrate the most intuitive syntax using the multivariate normal random sampler.

```
library("jsr223")

# Include both the JRuby script engine and the Apache Commons Mathematics
# libraries in the class path. Specify the paths seperately in a character
# vector.
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  engine.name = "ruby",
  class.path = c(
    "jrubby-complete.jar",
    "commons-math3-3.6.1.jar"
  )
)

# Define the means vector and covariance matrix that will be used to create the
# bivariate normal distribution.
engine$means <- c(0, 2)
engine$covariances <- diag(1, nrow = 2)

# Import the class and create a new object from the class.
```

```

engine %@" "
java_import org.apache.commons.math3.distribution.MultivariateNormalDistribution
$mvn = MultivariateNormalDistribution.new($means, $covariances)
"

# This line would throw an error. JRuby supports 'invokeMethod' for
# native Ruby objects, but not for Java objects.
#
## engine$invokeMethod("mvn", "sample")

# Instead, use script...
engine %~% "$mvn.sample()"

## [1] 0.3279374 0.8652296

# ...or wrap the method in a function.
engine %@" "
def sample()
  return $mvn.sample()
end
"
engine$invokeFunction("sample")

## [1] 0.2527757 1.1942332

# Take three samples.
replicate(3, engine$invokeFunction("sample"))

##           [,1]      [,2]      [,3]
## [1,] 0.9924368 -1.295875 0.2025815
## [2,] 2.5145855  2.128243 1.1666272

engine$terminate()

```

9.3 Ruby gems

Ruby libraries and programs are distributed in a standardized package format called a *gem*. We demonstrate using gems in `jsr223` with Benjamin Curtis's `faker`: a library used to produce fake records for data sets (2018).

A full installation of JRuby is required to use gems. Install JRuby and using the instructions found in [Getting Started with JRuby](#). Install the `faker` gem using `'gem install faker'` in a terminal.

To access `faker` with `jsr223`, the paths to the gem and its dependencies must be added to the `ScriptEngine$new` class path. These paths can be discovered using the JRuby REPL, `jirb`, in a terminal session as shown here.

```
me@ubuntu:~$ jirb
irb(main):001:0> require 'faker'
=> true
irb(main):002:0> puts $LOAD_PATH
~/jruby-9.1.15.0/lib/ruby/gems/shared/gems/concurrent-ruby-1.0.5-java/lib
~/jruby-9.1.15.0/lib/ruby/gems/shared/gems/i18n-0.9.3/lib
~/jruby-9.1.15.0/lib/ruby/gems/shared/gems/faker-1.8.7/lib
~/jruby-9.1.15.0/lib/ruby/2.3/site_ruby
~/jruby-9.1.15.0/lib/ruby/stdlib
=> nil
irb(main):003:0> exit
```

These resulting paths will be required along with the path to 'jruby.jar' (the latter is in the 'lib' subfolder of the JRuby installation). Supply these paths to the `class.path` parameter of the `jsr223 ScriptEngine$new` method when creating the script engine instance. In our experience, the 'site_ruby' path did not exist. If `ScriptEngine$new` throws an error indicating a path does not exist, simply exclude it from the class path.

The code below uses the `faker` gem to generate a data frame containing fake names and titles.

```
library("jsr223")

class.path <- "
~/jruby-9.1.12.0/lib/jruby.jar
~/jruby-9.1.12.0/lib/ruby/gems/shared/gems/i18n-0.8.6/lib
~/jruby-9.1.12.0/lib/ruby/gems/shared/gems/faker-1.8.4/lib
~/jruby-9.1.12.0/lib/ruby/stdlib
"
class.path <- unlist(strsplit(class.path, "\n", fixed = TRUE))

engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  engine.name = "jruby",
  class.path = class.path
)

# Import the required Ruby libraries.
engine %>% "require 'faker'"

# To create data deterministically, set a seed.
engine %>% "Faker::Config.random = Random.new(10)"

# Demonstrate unique, fake name.
engine %>% "Faker::Name.unique.name"

## [1] "Ms. Adrain Torphy"

# Define a Ruby function to return a given number of fake profiles.
```

```
engine %@" "
def random_profile(n = 1)
  fname = Array.new(n)
  lname = Array.new(n)
  title = Array.new(n)
  for i in 0..(n - 1)
    fname[i] = Faker::Name.unique.first_name
    lname[i] = Faker::Name.unique.last_name
    title[i] = Faker::Name.unique.title
  end
  return {'fname' => fname, 'lname' => lname, 'title' => title}
end
"

# Retrieve 5 fake profiles. The Ruby hash of same-length arrays will be
# automatically converted to a data frame.
engine$invokeFunction("random_profile", 5)

##      fname      lname      title
## 1 Quentin   Barton      Dynamic Paradigm Agent
## 2  Claud    Bernier      Regional Metrics Planner
## 3  Kevin Hodkiewicz      Investor Marketing Designer
## 4   Toni     Stracke Legacy Implementation Strategist
## 5  Jannie     Haag Dynamic Implementation Architect

engine$terminate()
```

10 R with Kotlin

Kotlin is a statically typed programming language that supports both functional and object-oriented programming paradigms. Kotlin is concise and pragmatic; in many cases, it requires less code than Java to accomplish the same task. Kotlin version 1.0 was released in 2016 ([Breslav, 2016](#)) making it the newest of the **jsr223**-supported languages.

Kotlin's JSR-223 implementation is progressing quickly though it is not complete. We will not list the deficiencies here as they will probably be resolved soon. See the [jsr223 issue tracker](#) to review pending issues and workarounds. In the issue tracker search dialog, select the "Kotlin issues" label and include both open and closed issues.

10.1 Kotlin idiosyncrasies

The Kotlin script engine handles bindings through a global map object instead of creating global variables in the script engine environment. The best way to illustrate this behavior is by example. The following code creates and retrieves a binding `myValue` as you would expect.

```
engine$myValue <- 4
engine$myValue
```

```
## [1] 4
```

However, `myValue` will not be available as a global variable in Kotlin script environment. Instead, it must be accessed and updated via the `jsr223Bindings` object as follows.

```
engine %@% 'jsr223Bindings.put("myValue", 5)'\nengine %~% 'jsr223Bindings.get("myValue")'
```

```
## [1] 5
```

Kotlin documentation demonstrates managing bindings through an object named `bindings`. However, the `bindings` object is read-only as of this writing. This is a reported bug. The accepted workaround is to use `jsr223Bindings`.

In [Callbacks](#), we explain how a global R object is added to the script engine environment to enable callbacks into the R environment. This R object is necessarily present in `jsr223Bindings`, but we do not recommend accessing it from that structure. Instead, use the global R variable as demonstrated in the code here.

```
# jsr223 automatically creates a variable R in the global scope of the Kotlin\n# environment to facilitate callbacks.\nengine %@% 'R.set("c", 4)'
```

```
# The R object in `jsr223Bindings` is inconvenient to use because it must be\n# cast to an explicit type.\nengine %@% '(jsr223Bindings["R"] as org.fgilbert.jsr223.RClient).set("c", 3)'
```

10.2 Kotlin and Java classes

Kotlin is designed to be interoperable with Java. This example uses the [Apache Commons Mathematics Library](#) to sample from a bivariate normal distribution.

```
library("jsr223")

# Change this path to the installation directory of the Kotlin compiler.
kotlin.directory <- Sys.getenv("KOTLIN_HOME")

# Include both the Kotlin script engine jars and the Apache Commons Mathematics
# libraries in the class path.
engine <- ScriptEngine$new(
  engine.name = "kotlin"
  , class.path = c(
    getKotlinScriptEngineJars(kotlin.directory),
    "commons-math3-3.6.1.jar"
  )
)

# Define the means vector and covariance matrix that will be used to create the
# bivariate normal distribution.
engine$means <- c(0, 2)
engine$covariances <- diag(1, nrow = 2)

# Import the package member and instantiate a new class.
engine %>% '
import org.apache.commons.math3.distribution.MultivariateNormalDistribution
val mvn = MultivariateNormalDistribution(
  jsr223Bindings["means"] as DoubleArray,
  jsr223Bindings["covariances"] as Array<DoubleArray>
)
'

# This line is a workaround for a Kotlin bug involving `invokeMethod`.
# https://github.com/fluidgilbert/jsr223/issues/1
engine %>% 'jsr223Bindings["mvn"] = mvn'

# Take a multivariate sample.
engine$invokeMethod("mvn", "sample")

## [1] -2.286145  2.016230

# Take three samples.
replicate(3, engine$invokeMethod("mvn", "sample"))
```

```
##           [,1]      [,2]      [,3]
## [1,] 0.9924368 -1.295875 0.2025815
## [2,] 2.5145855  2.128243 1.1666272
```

```
# Terminate the script engine.
engine$terminate()
```

11 Software review

There are many integrations that combine the strengths of R with other programming languages. These language integrations can generally be classified as either *R-major* or *R-minor*. R-major integrations use R as the primary environment to control some other embedded language environment. R-minor integrations are the inverse of R-major integrations. For example, **rJava** is an R-major integration that allows Java objects to be used within an R session. The Java/R Interface (**JRI**), in contrast, is an R-minor integration that enables Java applications to embed R.

The **jsr223** package provides an R-major integration for the Java platform and several programming languages. In this software review, we provide context for the **jsr223** project through comparisons with other R-major integrations. Popular R-minor language integrations such as **Rserve** (Urbanek, 2013) and **opencpu** (Ooms, 2017a) are not included in this discussion because their objectives and features do not necessarily align with those of **jsr223**. We do, however, include a brief discussion of an R language implementation for the JVM.

Before we compare **jsr223** to other R packages, we point out one unique feature that contrasts **jsr223** with all other integrations in this discussion: **jsr223** is the only package that provides a standard interface to integrate R with multiple programming languages. This key feature enables developers to take advantage of solutions and features in several languages without the need to learn multiple integration packages.

Our software review does not include integrations for Ruby and Kotlin because **jsr223** is the only R-major integration for those languages on CRAN.

11.1 rJava software review

As noted in the introduction, **rJava** is the preeminent Java integration for R. It provides a low-level interface to compiled Java classes via the JNI. The **jsr223** package uses **rJava** together with the Java Scripting API to create a user-friendly, multi-language integration for R and the Java platform.

The following code example is taken from **rJava**'s web site <http://www.rforge.net/rJava>. It demonstrates the essential functions of the **rJava** API by way of creating and displaying a GUI window with a single button. The first two lines are required to initialize **rJava**. The next lines use the `.jnew` function to create two Java objects: a GUI frame and a button. The associated class names are denoted in JNI syntax. Of particular note is the first invocation of `.jcall`, the function used to call object methods. In this case, the `add` method of the frame object is invoked. For **rJava** to identify the appropriate method, an explicit return type must be specified in JNI notation as the second parameter to `.jcall` (unless the return value is `void`). The last parameter to `.jcall` specifies the object to be added to the frame object. It must be explicitly cast to the correct interface for the call to be successful.

```
library("rJava")
.jinit()
f <- .jnew("java/awt/Frame", "Hello")
b <- .jnew("java/awt/Button", "OK")
.jcall(f, "Ljava/awt/Component;", "add", .jcast(b, "java/awt/Component"))
.jcall(f, , "pack")
# Show the window.
```

```
.jcall(f, , "setVisible", TRUE)
# Close the window.
.jcall(f, , "dispose")
```

The snippet below reproduces the **rJava** example above using JavaScript. In comparison, the JavaScript code is more natural for most programmers to write and maintain. The fine details of method lookups and invocation are handled automatically: no explicit class names or type casts are required. This same example can be reproduced in any of the five other **jsr223**-supported programming languages.

```
var f = new java.awt.Frame('Hello');
f.add(new java.awt.Button('OK'));
f.pack();
// Show the window.
f.setVisible(true);
// Close the window.
f.dispose();
```

Using **jsr223**, the preceding code snippet can be embedded in an R script. The first step is to create an instance of a script engine. A JavaScript engine is created as follows.

```
library(jsr223)
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("JavaScript")
```

This engine object is now ready to evaluate script on demand. Source code can be passed to the engine using character vectors or files. The sample below demonstrates embedding JavaScript code in-line with character vectors. This method is appropriate for small snippets of code. (Note: If you try this example the window may appear in the background. Also, the window must be closed using the last line of code. These are limitations of the code example, not **jsr223**.)

```
# Execute code inline to create and show the window.
engine %<>% "
  var f = new java.awt.Frame('Hello');
  f.add(new java.awt.Button('OK'));
  f.pack();
  f.setVisible(true);
"

# Close the window
engine %<>% "f.dispose();"
```

To execute source code in a file, use the script engine object's `source` method: `engine$source(file.name)`. The variable `file.name` may specify a local file path or a URL. Whether evaluating small code snippets or sourcing script files, embedding source code using **jsr223** is straightforward.

In comparison to **rJava**'s low-level interface, **jsr223** allows developers to use Java objects without knowing the details of JNI and method lookups. However, it is important to note that **rJava**

does include a high-level interface for invoking object methods. It uses the Java reflection API to automatically locate the correct method signature. This is an impressive feature, but according to the **rJava** web site, its high-level interface is much slower than the low-level interface and it does not work correctly for all scenarios.

The **jsr223**-compatible programming languages also feature support for advanced object-oriented constructs. For example, classes can be extended and interfaces can be implemented using any language. These features allow developers to quickly implement sophisticated solutions in R without developing, compiling, and distributing custom Java classes. This can speed development and deployment significantly.

The **rJava** package supports exchanging scalars, arrays, and matrices between R and Java. The following R code demonstrates converting an R matrix to a Java object, and vice versa, using **rJava**.

```
a <- matrix(rnorm(10), 5, 2)
# Copy matrix to a Java object with rJava
o <- .jarray(a, dispatch = TRUE)
# Convert it back to an R matrix.
b <- .jevalArray(o, simplify = TRUE)
```

Again, the **jsr223** package builds on **rJava** functionality by extending data exchange. Our package converts R vectors, factors, n-dimensional arrays, data frames, lists, and environments to generic Java objects.² In addition, **jsr223** can convert Java scalars, n-dimensional arrays, maps, and collections to base R objects. Several data exchange options are available, including row-major and column-major ordering schemes for data frames and n-dimensional arrays.

This code snippet demonstrates data exchange using **jsr223**. The variable engine is a **jsr223** ScriptEngine object. Similar to the preceding **rJava** example, this code copies a matrix to the Java environment and back again. The same syntax is used for all supported data types and structures.

```
a <- matrix(rnorm(10), 5, 2)
# Copy an R object to Java using jsr223.
engine$a <- a
# Retrieve the object.
engine$a
```

The **rJava** package does not directly support callbacks into R. Instead, callbacks are implemented through **JRI**: the Java/R Interface. The **JRI** interface is included with **rJava**. However, to use **JRI**, R must be compiled with the shared library option `'--enable-R-shlib'`. The **JRI** interface is technical and extensive. In contrast, **jsr223** supports callbacks into R using a lightweight interface that provides just three methods to execute R code, set variable values, and retrieve variable values. The **jsr223** package does not use **JRI**, so there is no requirement for R to be compiled as a shared library.

In conclusion, **jsr223** provides an alternative integration for the Java platform that is easy to learn and use.

² **rJava**'s interface can theoretically support n-dimensional arrays, but currently the feature does not produce correct results for $n > 2$. See the related issue at the **rJava** Github repository: ".jarray(..., dispatch=T) on multi-dimensional arrays creates Java objects with wrong content."

11.2 Groovy integrations software review

Besides `jsr223`, the only other Groovy language integration available on CRAN is **rGroovy** (Fuller, 2018). It is a simple integration that uses **rJava** to instantiate `groovy.lang.GroovyShell` and pass code snippets to its `evaluate` method. We outline the typical integration approach using **rGroovy**.

Class paths must be set in the global option `GR00VY_JARS` *before* loading the **rGroovy** package.

```
options(GR00VY_JARS = list("groovy-all.jar", ...))
library("rGroovy")
```

After the package is loaded, the `Initialize` function is called to instantiate an instance of the Groovy script engine that will be used to handle script evaluation. The `Initialize` function has one optional argument named `binding`. This argument accepts an **rJava** object reference to a `groovy.lang.Binding` object that represents the bindings available to the Groovy script engine. Hence, **rJava** must be used to create, set, and retrieve values in the bindings object. The following code example demonstrates instantiating the Groovy script engine. We initialize the script engine bindings with a variable named `myValue` that contains a vector of integers. Notice that knowledge of **rJava** and JNI notation is required to create an instance of the bindings object, convert the vector to a Java array, cast the resulting Java array to the appropriate interface, and finally, call the `setVariable` method of the bindings object.

```
bindings <- rJava::.jnew("groovy/lang/Binding")
Initialize(bindings)
myValue <- rJava::.jarray(1:3)
myValue <- rJava::.jcast(myValue, "java/lang/Object")
rJava::.jcall(bindings, "V", method = "setVariable", "myValue", myValue)
```

Finally, Groovy code can be executed using the `Evaluate` method; it returns the value of the last statement, if any. In this example, we modify the last element of our `myValue` array, and return the contents of the array.

```
script <- "
  myValue[2] = 5;
  myValue;
"
Evaluate(groovyScript = script)

## [1] 1 2 5
```

The **rGroovy** package includes another function, `Execute`, that allows developers to evaluate Groovy code without using **rJava**. However, this interface creates a new Groovy script engine instance each time it is called. In other words, it does not allow the developer to preserve state between each script evaluation.

In this code example, we demonstrate Groovy integration with `jsr223`. After the library is loaded, an instance of a Groovy script engine is created. The class path is defined at the same time the script engine is created. The variable `engine` represents the script engine instance; it

exposes several methods and properties that control data exchange behavior and code evaluation. The third line creates a binding named `myValue` in the script engine's environment; the R vector is automatically converted to a Java array. The fourth line executes Groovy code that changes the last element of the `myValue` Java array before returning it to the R environment.

```
library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("Groovy", "groovy-all.jar")
engine$myValue <- 1:3
engine %~% "
  myValue[2] = 5;
  myValue;
"

## [1] 1 2 5
```

In comparison to `rGroovy`, the `jsr223` implementation is more concise and requires no knowledge of `rJava` or Java classes. Though not illustrated in this example, `jsr223` can invoke Groovy functions and methods from within R, it supports callbacks from Groovy into R, and it provides extensive and configurable data exchange between Groovy and R. These features are not available in `rGroovy`.

In summary, `rGroovy` exposes a simple interface for executing Groovy code and returning a result. Data exchange is primarily handled through `rJava`, and therefore requires knowledge of `rJava` and JNI. The `jsr223` integration is more comprehensive and does not require any knowledge of `rJava`.

11.3 JavaScript integrations software review

The most prominent JavaScript integration for R is Jeroen Ooms' `V8` package (2017b). It uses the open source V8 JavaScript engine (Google developers, 2018) featured in Google's Chrome browser. We discuss the three primary differences between `V8` and `jsr223`.

First, the JavaScript engine included with `V8` provides only essential ECMAScript functionality. For example, `V8` does not include even basic file and network operations. In contrast, `jsr223` provides access to the entire JVM which includes a vast array of libraries and computing functionality.

Second, all data exchanged between `V8` and R is serialized using JSON via the `jsonlite` package (Ooms et al., 2017). JSON is very flexible; it can represent virtually any data structure. However, JSON converts all values to/from string representations which adds overhead and imposes round-off error for floating point values. The `jsr223` package handles all data using native values which reduces overhead and preserves maximum precision. In many applications, the loss of precision is not critical as far as the final numeric results are concerned, but it does require defensive programming when checking for equality. For example, an application using `V8` must round two values to a given decimal place before checking if they are equal.

The following code example demonstrates the precision issue using the R constant `pi`. The JSON conversion is handled via `jsonlite`, just as in the `V8` package. We see that after JSON conversion the value of `pi` is not identical to the original value. In contrast, the `jsr223` conversion result is identical to the original value.

```
# `digits = NA` requests maximum precision.
library("jsonlite")
identical(pi, fromJSON(toJSON(pi, digits = NA)))

## [1] FALSE

library("jsr223")
engine <- ScriptEngine$new("js")
engine$pi <- pi
identical(engine$pi, pi)

## [1] TRUE
```

The third significant difference between **V8** and **jsr223** is syntax checking. **V8** includes an interface to check JavaScript code syntax. The Java Scripting API does not provide an interface for syntax checking, hence, **jsr223** does not provide this feature. We have investigated other avenues to check syntax, but none are uniformly reliable across all of the **jsr223**-supported languages. Moreover, this feature is not critical for most integration scenarios; syntax validation is more common in applications that involve interactive code editing.

11.4 Python integrations software review

In this section, we compare **jsr223** with two Python integrations for R: **reticulate** (Allaire et al., 2018) and **rjython** (Grothendieck and Bellosta, 2012). Of the many Python integrations available for R on CRAN, **reticulate** is the most popular as measured by monthly downloads.³ We also discuss **rjython** because, like **jsr223**, it targets Python on the JVM.

The **reticulate** package is a very thorough Python integration for R. It includes some refined interface features that are not available in **jsr223**. For example, **reticulate** enables Python objects to be manipulated in R script using list-like syntax. One major **jsr223** feature that **reticulate** does not support is callbacks (i.e., calling R from Python). Though there are many interface differences between **jsr223** and **reticulate** (too many to list here), the most practical difference arises from their respective Python implementations. The **reticulate** package targets CPython, the reference implementation of the Python script engine. As such, **reticulate** can take advantage of the many Python libraries compiled to machine code such as Pandas (McKinney, 2010). The **jsr223** package targets the JVM via Jython, and therefore supports accessing Java objects from Python script. It cannot, however, access the Python libraries compiled to machine code because they cannot be executed by the JVM. This isn't a complete dead-end for Jython; many important Python extensions are being migrated to the JVM by the Jython Native Interface project (<http://www.jyni.org>). These extensions can easily be accessed through **jsr223**.

The **rjython** package is similar to **jsr223** in that it employs Jython. Both **jsr223** and **rjython** can execute arbitrary Python code, call Python functions and methods directly from R, use Java objects, and copy data between environments. However, there are also several important differences.

³ The **reticulate** package has 3,681 downloads per month according to <http://rdocumentation.org>. The next most popular Python integration is **PythonInR** (Schwendinger, 2018) with 322 monthly downloads.

Data exchange for **rJython** can be handled via JSON or direct calls to the Jython interpreter object via **rJava**. When using **rJava** for data exchange, **rJython** is essentially limited to vectors and matrices. When using JSON for data exchange, **rJython** converts R objects to Jython structures. In contrast, the **jsr223** supports a single data exchange interface that supports all major R data structures. It uses custom Java routines that avoid the overhead and roundoff error associated with JSON conversion. Finally, **jsr223** converts R objects to generic Java structures instead of Jython objects.

JSON data exchange for **rJython** is handled by the **rjson** (Couture-Beil, 2014) package. It does not handle some R structures as one would expect. For example, n-dimensional arrays and unnamed lists are both converted to one-dimensional JSON arrays. Furthermore, **rJython** converts data frames to Jython dictionaries, but dictionaries are always returned to R as named lists.

The **jsr223** package does not exhibit these limitations; it provides predictable data exchange for all major R data structures.

Unlike **jsr223**, the **rJython** package does not return the value of the last expression when executing Python code. Instead, scripts must assign a value to a global Python variable to be fetched by another **rJython** method. This does not promote fast code exploration and prototyping. In addition, **rJython** does not supply interfaces for callbacks, script compiling, or capturing console output.

In essence, **rJython** implements a basic interface to the Jython language. The **jsr223** package, in comparison, provides a more developed feature set.

11.5 Renjin software review

Renjin (Renjin developers, 2018) is an ambitious project whose primary goal is to create a drop-in replacement for the R language on the Java platform. The Renjin solution features R syntax extensions that allow Java classes to be created and used naturally within R script. The Renjin language implementation has two important limitations: (i) it does not support plotting; and (ii) it can't use R packages that contain native libraries (like C). The **jsr223** package, in contrast, is designed for the reference distribution of R. As such, it can be used in concert with any R package.

Renjin also distributes an R package called **renjin**. It is not available from CRAN. (Find the installation instructions at <http://www.renjin.org>.) The **renjin** package exports a single method that evaluates an R expression. It is designed only to improve execution performance for R expressions; it does not allow Java classes to be used in R script. Hence, the **renjin** package is not a Java platform integration.

Overall, Renjin is a promising Java solution for R, but it is not yet feature-complete. In comparison, **jsr223** presents a viable Java solution for R today.

12 Limitations and issues

All limitations and issues are managed via the GitHub issue tracker at <https://github.com/fluidgilbert/jsr223/issues>. By default, the tracker lists only open issues. Modify the search parameters to see limitations and workarounds deemed as closed issues.

13 Summary

Java is one of the most successful development platforms in computing history. Its popularity continues as more programming languages, tools, and technologies target the JVM. The `jsr223` package provides a high-level, user-friendly interface that enables R developers to take advantage of the flourishing Java ecosystem. In addition, `jsr223`'s unified integration interface for Groovy, JavaScript, Python, Ruby, and Kotlin also facilitates access to solutions developed in these languages. In all, `jsr223` significantly extends the computing capabilities of the R software environment.

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