

# Retaining, Lagging, Leading, and Interleaving Data

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## ABSTRACT

Many times a programmer must examine previous and/or future observations. When this happens, the programmer is generally inclined to search the help docs for pre-defined statements, functions and techniques to create a quick solution to the immediate problem. However, this approach often leaves the programmer a headache, increased frustration and stress, and mistakes in their program. In an attempt to “go beyond the help docs,” this paper examines frequently (mis)used techniques. Specifically, it addresses the `RETAIN` statement and `LAG` function as used to examine previous values, and the lead and interleaving techniques to look ahead at future values. The intent of this paper is not to provide the programmer with a comprehensive examination of these tools, but rather the fundamental understanding of their uses and subtleties required to make them an effective part of the programmer’s tool chest. The intended audience is beginner to intermediate programmers with a sound foundation in SAS®/BASE.

## INTRODUCTION

Every programmer finds at some point they need to look at a previous or future observation’s value. It is at this point that they start looking at the `RETAIN` statement, `LAG` function, lead technique, or even interleaving a data set back upon itself. However, little do they realize that many of these have “gotchas” that befuddle or perplex the uninitiated. This paper discusses some of the problems with using these tools; how to use them properly to look at a previous/future observation’s variable value.

## THE RETAIN STATEMENT

*“The `RETAIN` statement does not retain.”*

What do “Crack this”, “Help with Retain”, and (my personal favorite,) “Pimpy Question” have to do with the `RETAIN` statement? They all are the subject lines from posts to SAS-L, from those who have tried — and failed — to get the `RETAIN` statement to work “properly.” Most people think that the `RETAIN` statement does what its name implies; that is, it retains something. However, those initiated will quickly tell you that the `RETAIN` statement does not retain. That’s right! The `RETAIN` statement does not, will not, and (unless the underlying SAS/BASE code is rewritten) can never retain anything. This fact is precisely where most uninitiated programmers programs go awry.

If the `RETAIN` statement doesn’t retain, what exactly does it do? Logic suggests that it has to retain some variable’s value from one iteration to the next, doesn’t it? Not exactly. The `RETAIN` statement simply mimics retaining values by telling the SAS Supervisor *not to reset* the variables to missing at the beginning of each iteration of the `DATA` step. (This is not to say that a retained variable cannot be overwritten — it can be and often is).

To better understand how the `RETAIN` statement mimics retaining values, we need to look at what variables are set to missing and when. Jones and Whitlock (2002) observe that all `DATA` step variables can be put into one of four groups: unnamed variables, automatic variables, variables from a SAS `DATA` set, and all other variables. The first group pertains to `_TEMPORARY_` array variables; the second and third groups are automatically `RETAIN`’ed. Thus, our attention falls to the fourth and final group that includes, but is not limited to, variables from `INPUT` statements, assignment statements, and function calls. Variables included in this group have values that must be reset to missing with each iteration of the implicit `DATA` step loop. For their values to be “retained” (i.e., not-to-be-reset-to-missing), they must be explicitly stated in a `RETAIN` statement.

Now that we have identified the type of variables the `RETAIN` statement affects, it is time to investigate the effect of the `RETAIN` statement on these variables. To do this we need to look into how the `DATA` step works. The basic structure of the `DATA` step is as follows: 1) initialize the variables; 2) read a record; 3) do something with the data; 4) write out the transformed data; and 5) repeat steps 2 through 4 until all records have been read, processed and written (See Whitlock(1997)). Note that, in the basic `DATA` step structure, one observation gets read in, something is done to that observation, the observation is then written out. After the processing of that observation is complete, then the next observation gets read in and the process is repeated until there are no more observations.

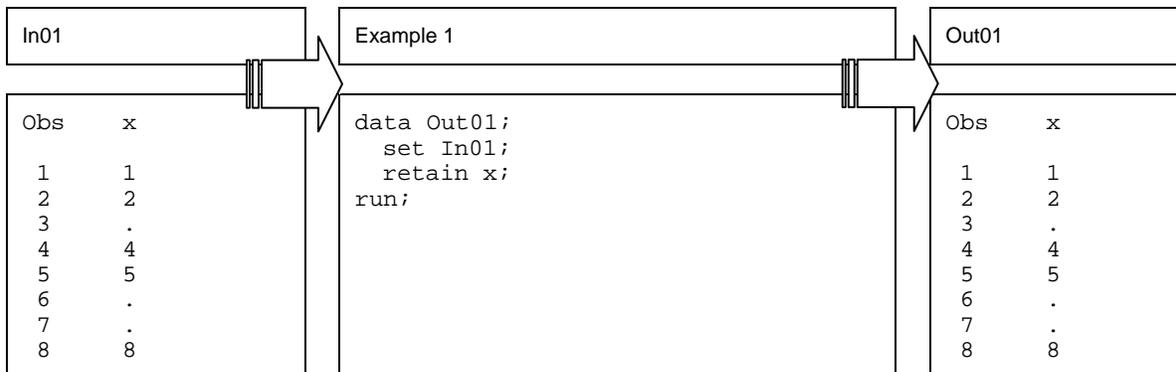
As each record is read in the data step without the `RETAIN` statement, variables from `INPUT` statements, assignment statements, and function calls are reset to missing. It is only these variables that are not implicitly retained because these are the only variables that will not necessarily have a value. The introduction of the `RETAIN` statement prevents these variable’s values from being reset to missing.

So now that we know how and what variables the `RETAIN` statement affects, let us explore some examples to show

the `RETAIN` statement in action. For examples, we show a input data set on left, the output data set on right, along with the `DATA` step code that takes the input and creates the output.

### EXAMPLE 1

The most prevalent question we have seen regarding the `RETAIN` statement is from programmers trying to get a variable to copy the previous observation's value to the current observation's value when the current observation's value is missing or null.

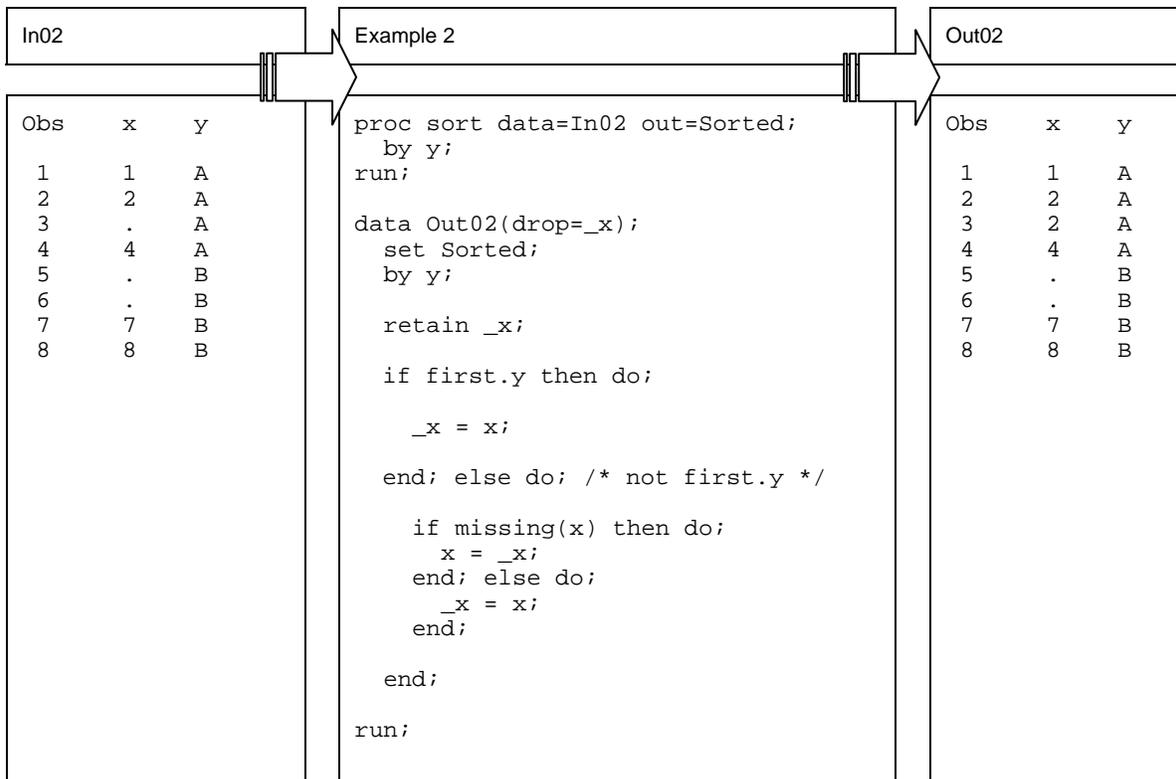


As you can see from the output above, the previous value of `x` is not retained when the current value of `x` is missing. This is due to the fact that, while the value of `x` from the previous observation was actually retained by SAS, it was also over-written by the value of `x` from the current observation (i.e., missing).

This begs the question: just how would a programmer fill in those missing values with the values of the previous observation? To explore this question, let us turn to Example 2.

### EXAMPLE 2

Well, to do this, a new variable will be created and dropped thus creating a temporary variable (if you will), to hold



the value of the last observation. One important thing to notice is that we have by group processing going on, so we do not want the value of the last observation if that observation is not in the same by group as the current

observation.

By conditionally setting the value to be retained, `_x`, and by then conditionally setting the current observation's value of `x` to the retained value, `_x`, you will get the desired result. By using the automatic variable `FIRST.Y` to control the conditional processing, we ensure that when the retained value is not in the same `BY`-group as the current observation, it will not overwrite the value in the current observation. Observation 5 shows that indeed we are doing just that.

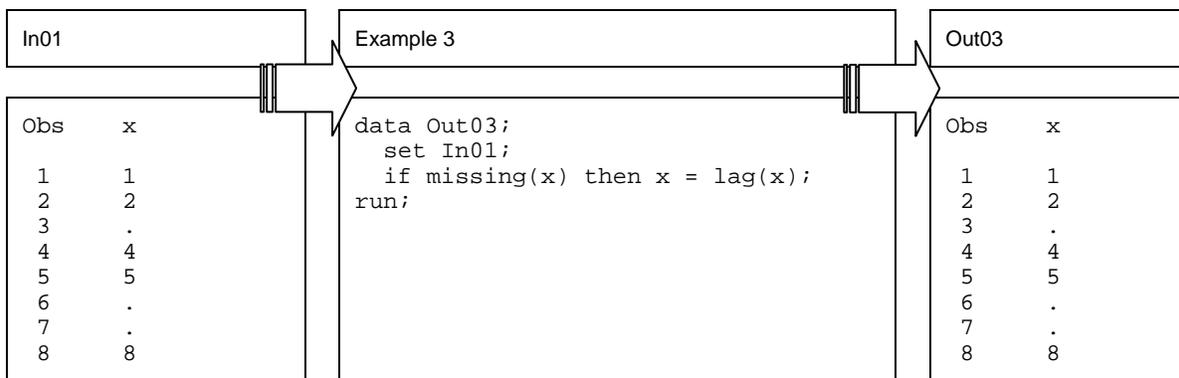
## THE LAG FUNCTION

*“There is a snag in the lag...”*

The `LAG` function, like the `RETAIN` statement, does not do what its name implies. One cannot expect the `LAG` function to perform a true lag. However, the `LAG` function can, like the `RETAIN` statement, in certain instances, be tricked into acting like a true `LAG` function. So how does the `LAG` function perform? It creates a FIFO (first-in, first-out) queue that is populated by a value. As this is not immediately obvious, let us turn to an example for further clarification.

### EXAMPLE 3

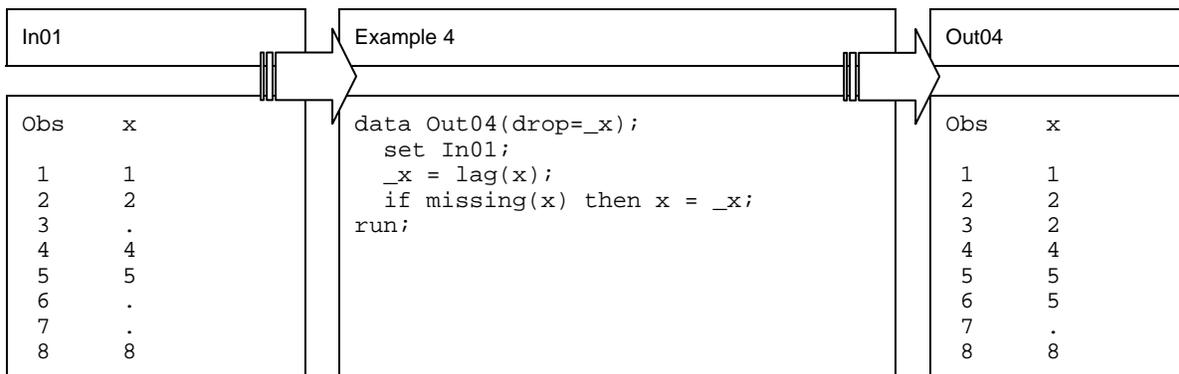
Consider lagging a variable only if it is missing.



From the above code, you can see that `x` was *not* lagged when it was missing. So what happened? Recall that the `LAG` function creates a queue and populates it with a value *only* when called. In our example, the first time the `LAG` function is called (i.e., the first time `x` has a missing value, observation 3) the queue only has a missing value in it since no other value had been passed to it yet. When the missing value for `x` is encountered, the `LAG` function looks to the queue to get the lagged value (of missing) and passes it back to `x`. The queue stores the new (missing) value of `x`. Thus, the second time the `LAG` function is called, it populates `x` with the (missing) value from the last call of the `Lag` function and passes a (missing) value from `x` to the queue. The third time the `LAG` function is called the same process takes place. Only the missing values go in and come out as the result.

### EXAMPLE 4

So just how do you actually achieve a true lag? Glad you asked. If we were to assign a variable to the lag of `x` outside of the condition of `x` being missing, it would do just that. The function should be called once for each and every observation and the queue would not be populated with only missing values (unless all the values are missing!). Then we reassign that lagged value to `x` when `x` is missing.



As you can see from the above code, this indeed does the trick. However, you will notice when *x* has more than one missing value in consecutive observations, the result will be missing values as in the problem we encountered in the previous example. This is due the `LAG` function lags by one (`LAG2` function lags by two, and so on). To fix this problem, one can use either a `RETAIN` statement as shown earlier, or multiple lags (in this case, use both `LAG` and `LAG2`).

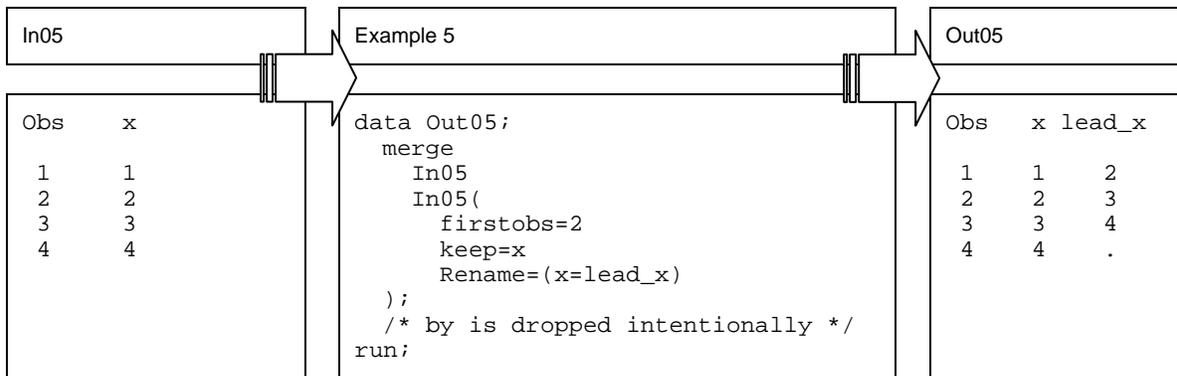
## THE LEAD TECHNIQUE

*“Lead your data.”*

I know the quote above sounds a little weird, but indeed in the case of SAS it sometimes is true. In a SAS Talk paper (Whitlock 2003) discussing the lead technique, Ian Whitlock asks “Well, if the `LAG` function merely remembers the last argument then the opposite must predict the next argument used and that, of course, cannot be done. Do you know why?” The astute reader will remember the basic outline of how the data step works from the `RETAIN` section of this paper. (In that outline one observation comes in; something is done to it; it is written out to the output data set; and this is repeated for future observations.) In this framework, it is impossible to know the value(s) in a future observation. If we can’t know what the next observation’s values will be then how can we have a lead technique? Next we explore the basic techniques to achieve this: the lead technique and interleaving a dataset back with itself.

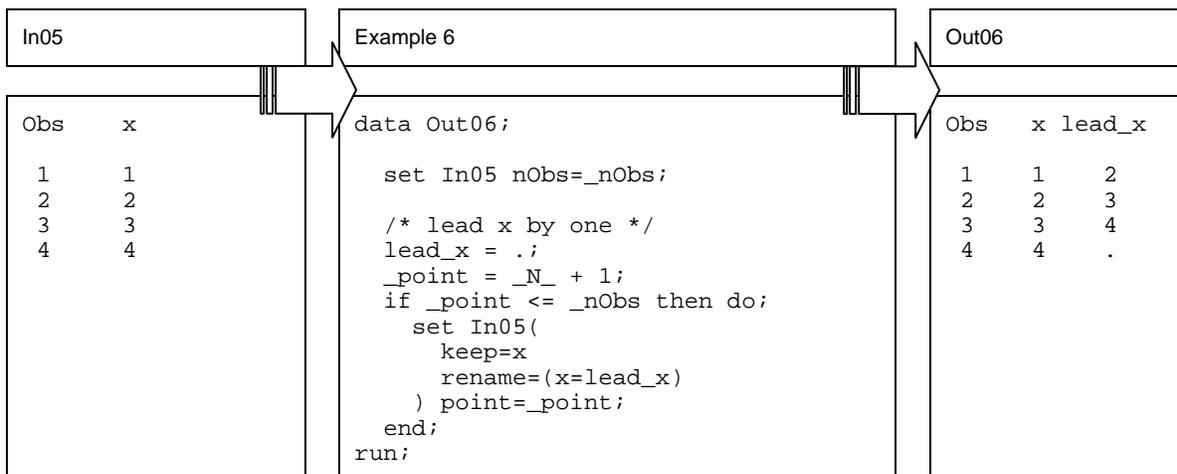
### EXAMPLE 5

A classic way of doing the “lead” a variable is `MERGE`’ing the data set with itself with *no* `BY` variable.



### EXAMPLE 6

When the data set is not huge, the `POINT=` option in the `SET` statement comes in very handy. It basically allows us to fetch *any* observation with the observation number in any order. For example, a simple “lead” as shown in the Example 5 can be implemented as below:



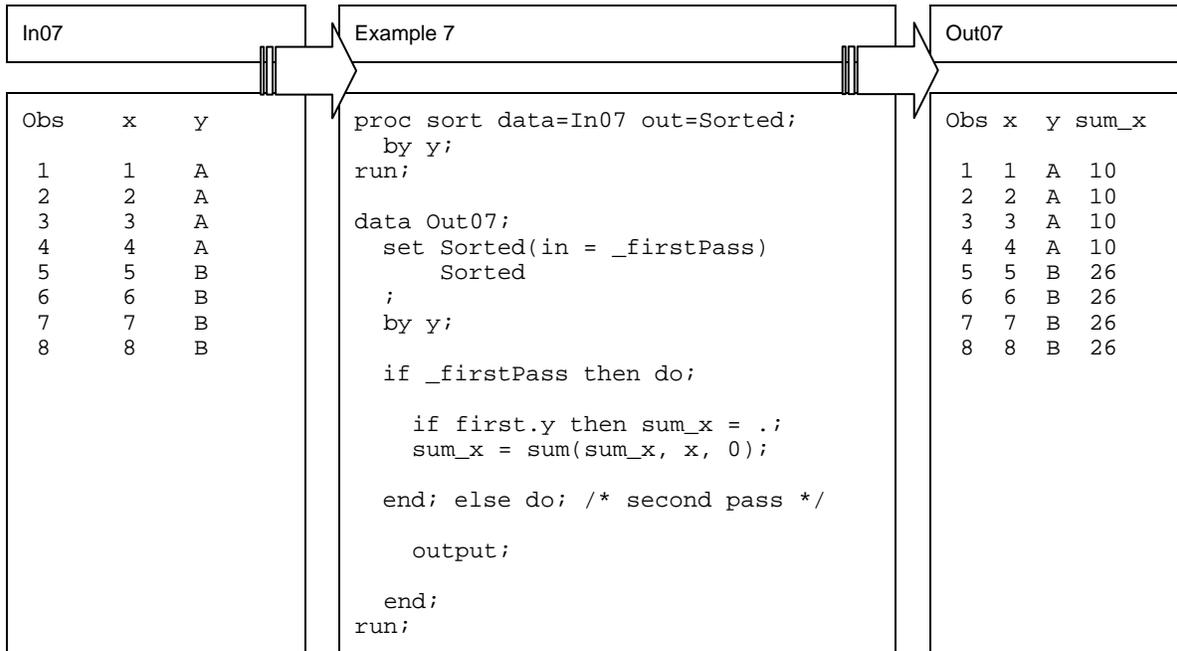
SAS is smart enough to automatically `DROP` the temporary pointer variable, `_POINT`. (In fact, it will issue a warning if you `DROP` it explicitly.) You have to reset the `LEAD_X` variable (to missing) for each observation yourself, because the `LEAD_X` value of the next to the last observation will be carried over to last observation otherwise.

## INTERLEAVING A DATASET BACK ON ITSELF

One of us first saw this technique explained in a paper entitled “Interleaving a Dataset with Itself: How and Why?” by Howard Schreier(2003). This paper and SAS-L posts made it popular. This technique involves taking a well-documented technique of interleaving observations and creatively applying it – to interleave one data set with itself. It is convenient when we try to calculate by-group summary statistics and to attach them back to the member observations.

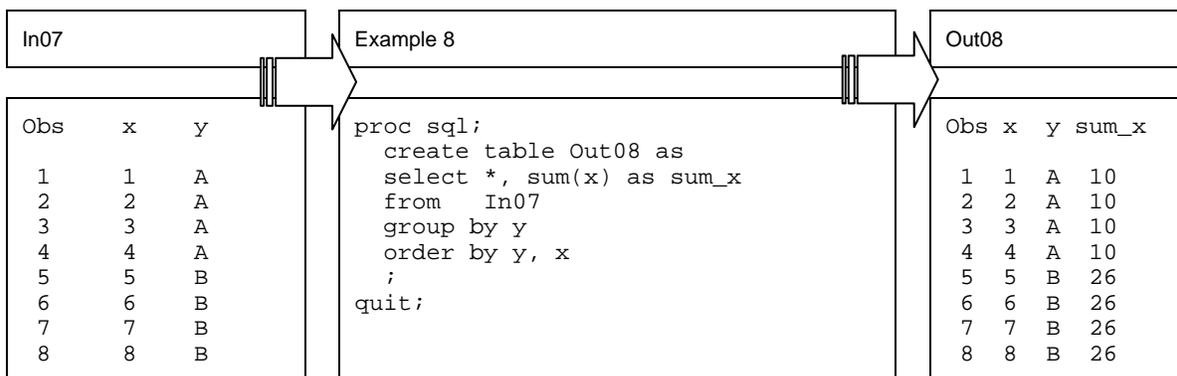
### EXAMPLE 7

The following calculate and attach the sum of x values within each by-group.



### EXAMPLE 8

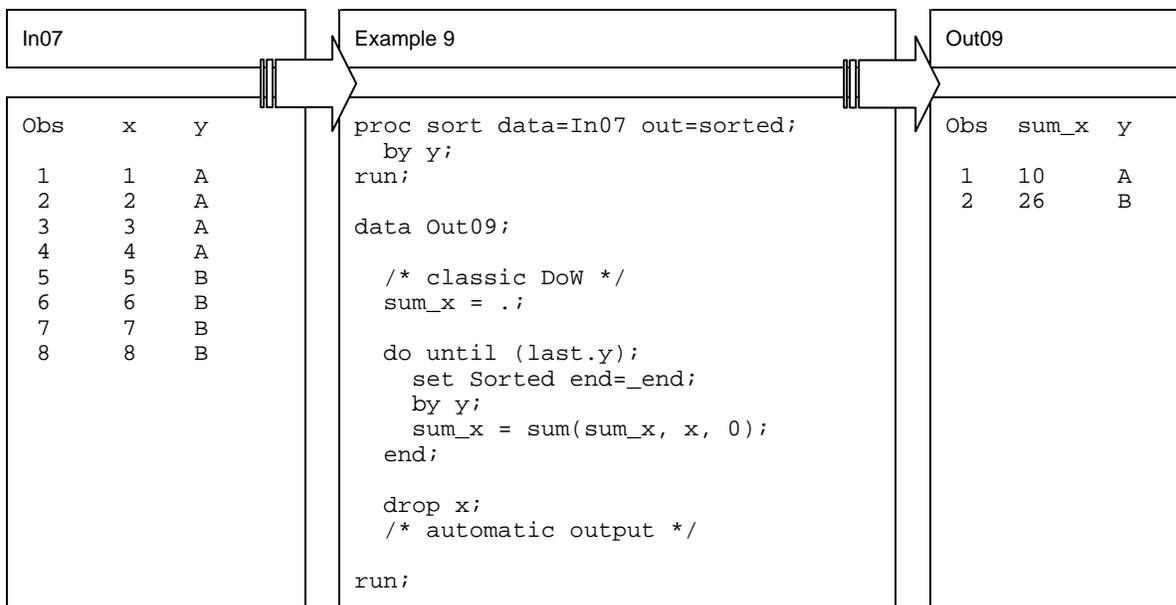
The same thing can be accomplished by simply using PROC SQL, thanks to PROC SQL's automatic re-merging the summary statistics back to the observations under certain conditions (for instance, when we SELECT non-CALCULATED fields as well).



## DOW

I know one or more of you may be saying “Hey, I need to get aggregated data attached to disaggregated data, but the PROC SQL is a whole thing to learn and I don't want to have to worry about whether or not I reset the count variable every time a new BY-group is encountered with the Schreier Self-interleave technique. There is hope for you yet with the DoW loop. No, no, not the Dow Jones Industrial Average, but the Do-Loop of Whitlock (also known as the Whitlock Do-Loop). The DoW is commonly used to BY-group process in natural way. For example, aggregating a dataset by calculating the sum of the variables can be done using DoW.

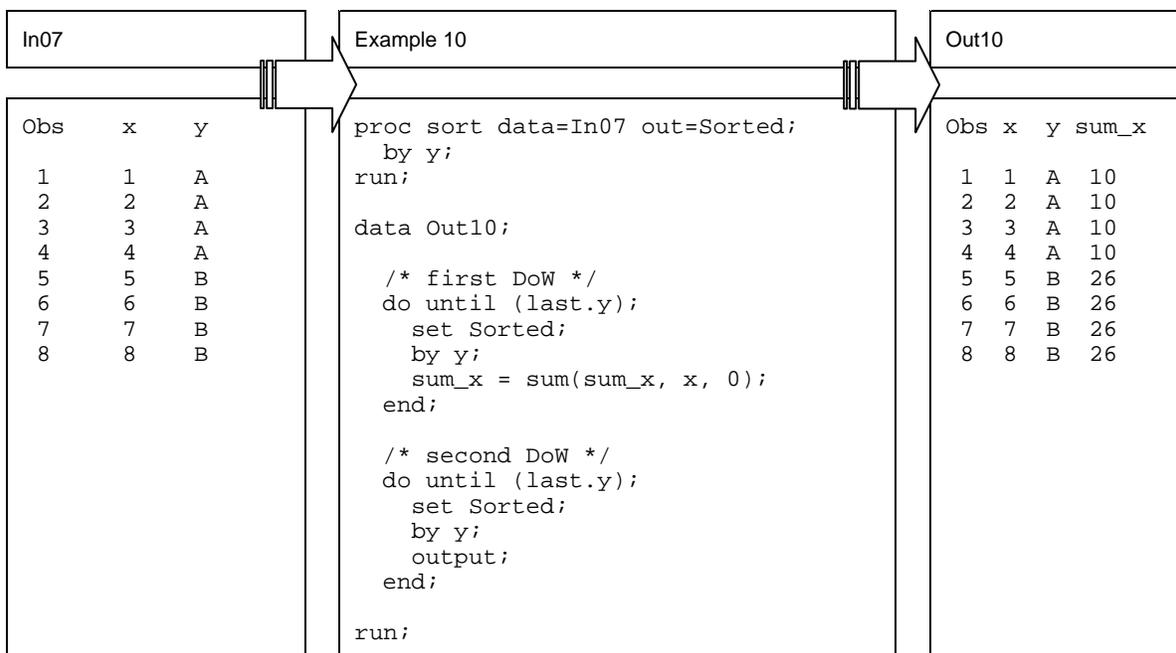
## EXAMPLE 9



The DoW is characterized by the SET statement wrapped by a DO loop and the automatic OUTPUT done once for each value of the BY-variable. The same thing can be done using a more traditional technique of (1) SET the data set near the top of the DATA step; (2) initialize if FIRST.BY-variable is true; (3) do something for each observation; then finally; (4) OUTPUT when LAST.BY-variable is true. So what is the big deal about DoW? As Dorfman(2002) so eloquently puts it: "It is all in the logic. The DoW-loop programmatically separates the before-, during-, and after-group actions in the same manner and sequence as does the stream-of-the-consciousness logic [...]"

## EXAMPLE 10

But how about merging the aggregate statistics back to the original data set? For this, the expert consensus seems to be using PROC SQL is the shortest way. If we stick to DoW, then there also is a variation called "Double DoW," shown below. Here the first DoW reads one BY-group observation at a time and computes the sum of x. The second DoW loop reads the same group and OUTPUT the observations with the calculated BY-group statistic (SUM\_X) attached to each observation. Neat, isn't it?



## CONCLUSIONS

There are many ways to look not only back but forward through your datasets. There are three major considerations that will affect what technique you use. First is your data. We have trivialized the examples because we wanted to highlight the technique and some of their associated pitfalls. In reality, data are much larger and more complicated. Without knowing your data, you will get lost even when you are well-equipped with fancy programming technique. Second is the problem that you want to solve. Before you decide on a technique, you have to understand your problem better. As demonstrated, each method has its advantages and disadvantages. So, know what needs to be done. Then, only then, choose the appropriate method to obtain your results. And lastly, understand your chosen method fully. As a paper, not a book, this paper does not cover each and every technique fully. We just hope that we inspired you enough not to be intimidated by data step code that looks forwards and backwards. Better yet, we hope you try to take advantage of these and other programming technique and solve your data problems a little bit more easily. We have added a further reading section at the end of this paper for those who are interested in learning more about these techniques.

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## FURTHER READING

*General Interest:*

SAS-L is a very active e-mail discussion group about SAS. Nice web access to an archive is found at <<http://www.listserv.uga.edu/archives/sas-l.html>>

Whitlock (1999) is a must read for serious SAS users.

*On Retain:*

Read Jones and Whitlock (2002) for learning about four different types of SAS variables. Did you know that SAS distinguishes between setting a value to missing at the top of the data step loop from setting a value to missing when data is not read?

Gorrell (1999) has nice tutorial with lots of examples.

*On LAGging:*

Whitlock(2003) is short but sweet and it is exclusively on the LAG function.

*On Interleaving:*

Schreier (2003) is widely considered as the inventor of the technique of this "Schreier Self-interleave," even though he rather humbly credits Bob Vigile for teaching him the technique of merging a dataset with itself. See the SAS-L thread regarding this topic archived at Schreier(2004).

*On DoW:*

Even though Whitlock invented the DoW, the classic paper on Dow is by Dorfman(2002). See also Whitlock(2003).

## **CONTACT INFORMATION**

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