Chapter 03 - Functions

May 8, 2021

0.1 Item 19: Never Unpack More Than Three Variables When Functions Return Multiple Values

- you can return multiple values as tuples in python
- you can use Catch-All Unpacking for function return
- using a large number of variables is error prone, espically if they are numerical
- this could be three individual values or 2 individual and one starred
- if you need to unpack more than three, your better off using a lightweight class or namedtuple

0.2 Item 20: Perfer Raising Exceptions to Returning None

0.3 Item 21: Know How Closures Interact with Variable Scope

- python supports **closure**: meaning functions refer to variables from the scope in which they were defined
- Functions are first-class objects in python, meaning you can refer to them directly, assign them to variables, pass them as arguments to other functions, compare them in expressions and if statements
- this is why you can pass closure functions as the key argument
- when you refrence a variable in an expression, python interpreter traverses the scope to resolve the reference in order
 - 1. the current functions scope
 - 2. any enclosing scopes (such as other containing functions)
 - 3. the scope of the module that contains the code (also called the global scope)
 - 4. the built-in scope (that contains functions like len and str)

- if none of these places are defined a variable with the referenced name, then a NameError exception is raised
- in the code below, found will never change to true because nonlocal is not used

```
[3]: def sort_priority2(numbers, group):
    found = False
    def helper(x):
        if x in group:
            found = True # Seems simple
                return (0, x)
        return (1, x)
        numbers.sort(key=helper)
        return found
```

- python treats closure variables as new variables even if they have the same name as a global variable
- in Python, there is a special syntax for getting data out of a closure, and as mentioned it is nonlocal
- the limit on nonlocal is it wont traverse up the module-level scope
- dont use nonlocal for anything but simple function
- when nonlocal starts getting complicated, its better to wrap your state in a helper class

```
[6]: class Sorter:
    def __init__(self, group):
        self.group = group
        self.found = False

    def __call__(self, x):
        if x in self.group:
            self.found = True
            return (0, x)
        return (1, x)

numbers = [8, 3, 1, 2, 5, 4, 7, 6]
group = {2, 3, 5, 7}

sorter = Sorter(group)
numbers.sort(key=sorter)
assert sorter.found is True
```

0.4 Item 22: Reduce Visual Nosie with Variable Positional Arguments

- accepting a variable number of positional arguments can reduce noise *args
- if you pass a list using *, then it will pass each element in the list as a seprate element

```
[9]: def log(message, *values):
    if not values:
```

```
print(message)
else:
    values_str = ', '.join(str(x) for x in values)
    print(f'{message}: {values_str}')

log('My numbers are', 1, 2)
log('Hi there') # Much better
```

My numbers are: 1, 2 Hi there

- the **first issue** with accepting a variable number of possible arguments is that these optional positional arguments are always turned into a **tuple** before they are passed to a function
- this means that if the caller of a function uses the * operator on a generator, it will be iterated untill it's exhausted
- the resulting tuple includes every value from the generator, which could consume alot of memory and cause the program to crash

```
[18]: def my_generator():
    for i in range(10):
        yield i

def my_func(*args):
    print(args)

it = my_generator()
my_func(*it)
```

```
(0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)
```

- functions that accept *args are best for situations where you know the number of inputs in the argument list will be reasonably small
- the **second** issue with *args is that you cant add new positional arguments to a function in the future without migrating every caller

0.5 Item 23: Provide Optional Behavior with Keyword Arguments

```
[23]: def remainder(number, divisor):
    return number % divisor
```

• if you already have a dictionary and you want to use its contents to call a function like remainder you can do this by using the ** operator

```
[29]: my_kwargs = {
         'number': 20,
         'divisor': 7
}
assert remainder(**my_kwargs) == 6
```

• you can mix and match the operator or use multiple **kwargs

```
[33]: my_kwargs = {
   'divisor': 7,
}

assert remainder(number=20, **my_kwargs) == 6

my_kwargs = {
   'number': 20,
}

other_kwargs = {
   'divisor': 7,
}
assert remainder(**my_kwargs, **other_kwargs) == 6
```

- first benefit is that keyword arguments make the function call clearer to new readers of the code
 - with the keyword arguments, number=20 and divisor=7 make it immediately obvious which parameter is being used for each purpose
- the second benefit of keyword arguments is that they can have default values specified in the function definition and thus eliminates repetitive code
- the thid reason to use keyword arguments is that they provide a powerful way to extend a functions parameters while remaining backword compatible with existing callers
 - this means you can provide additional functionality without having to migrate alot of existing code
- optional keyword arguments should always be passed by keyword instead of by position

0.6 Item 24: Use None and Docstrings to Specify Dynamic Default Arguments

- sometimes you need to use a non-static type as a keyword argument's default value
- for example if I want to print logging messages that are marked with the time of the logged event
- in the default case, I want the message to include the time when then function was called
- I might use the following approach

```
[35]: from time import sleep
from datetime import datetime

def log(message, when=datetime.now()):
    print(f'{when}: {message}')

log('Hi there!')
sleep(0.1)
log('Hello again!')
```

2021-04-12 08:37:12.308404: Hi there! 2021-04-12 08:37:12.308404: Hello again!

- the code above does not work as intended because the time stamps are the same
- that is because datetime.now is executed only a single time, when the function is defined
- a default argument value is evaluated only once per module load
- after the module containing the code is loaded, the datetime.now() default argument will never be evaluated again
- in python we address this by providing a default value of None and to the document the actual behavior

```
2021-04-12 08:41:49.145273: Hi there! 2021-04-12 08:41:49.249204: Hello again!
```

- using the None default aregument is espically important when the arguments are mutable
- for example, say I want to load a value encoded as JSON data
- if decoding the data fails, I want an empty dictionary to be returned

```
[41]: import json

def decode(data, default={}):
    try:
        return json.loads(data)
    except ValueError:
        return default

foo = decode('bad data')
  foo['stuff'] = 5
  bar = decode('also bad')
  bar['meep'] = 1
  print('Foo:', foo)
  print('Bar:', bar)
```

```
Foo: {'stuff': 5, 'meep': 1} Bar: {'stuff': 5, 'meep': 1}
```

- the problem above is the same as the datetime.now example
- the dectionary specified for default will be shared by all calls to decode because default argument values are evaluated only one
- you might have expected two different dictionaries, but modifying one modifes the other one

```
[42]: def decode(data, default=None):
          Load JSON data from a string
          Args:
              data: JSON data to decode
              default: Value to return if decoding fails
                  Defaults to an empty dictionary
          HHHH
          try:
              return json.loads(data)
          except ValueError:
              if default is None:
                  default = {}
              return default
      foo = decode('bad data')
      foo['stuff'] = 5
      bar = decode('also bad')
      bar['meep'] = 1
      print('Foo:', foo)
      print('Bar:', bar)
      assert foo is not bar
     Foo: {'stuff': 5}
     Bar: {'meep': 1}
[43]: from typing import Optional
      def log_typed(message: str, when: Optional[datetime]=None) -> None:
          """ Log a message with a timestamp
          Args:
              message: Message to print
              when: datetime of when the message occurred.
                  Defaults to the present time
          if when is None:
              when = datetime.now()
          print(f'{when}: {message}')
```

0.7 Item 25: Enforce Clarity with Keyword-Only and Postional-Only Arguments

- when you have complex behavior in a function and the the caller can use any parameters, it might be a good idea to enforce things
- we can redefine a function to accept keyword-only arguments
- the * symbol in the argument list indicates the end of positional arguments and the beginning of keyword-onyl arguments

```
[45]: def safe_division(number, divisor, *,
                               ignore overflow,
                               ignore_zero_division):
          try:
              return number / divisor
          except OverflowError:
              if ignore_overflow:
                  return 0
              else:
                  raise
          except ZeroDivisionError:
              if ignore_zero_division:
                  return float('inf')
              else:
                  raise
      # this will no longer work
      # safe_division(1.0, 10*500, True, False)
      # this will work
      safe_division(1.0, 0, ignore_zero_division=True)
```

- but even that is not good because callers may specify the first two required arguments (number and divisor) with a mix of postions and keywords
- python offers a solution called postional-only arguments
- these arguments can be supplied only by position and never by keyword (oppiste of the keyword only example above)
- the symbol / in the argument lsit indicates where positional-only arguments end

```
[49]: def safe_division_d(numerator, denominator, /, *, # Changed ignore_overflow=False, ignore_zero_division=False):

pass
```

- in the above example, you cannot do this
 - safe_division_d(numerator=2, denominator=5)
- but you have to do this
 - ignore_overflow=False, ignore_zero_division=False
- a problem still exists where between the / and the *, you can arguments may be passed either

0.8 Item 26: Define Function Decorators with functools.wrap

• a decorator has the baility to run additional code before and after each call to a function it wraps

- using the @ symbol is equivalent to calling the decorator on the function it wraps and assigning the return value to the original name in the same scope
- the decorator function runs the wrapper code before and after fibonacci runs
- it prings the arguments and return value at each level in the recursive stack
- the one issue with a wrapper is that if you use print(fibonacci) you dont get fibonacci but rather trace
- the trace function returns the wrapper defined within its body
- the wrapper function is whats assigned to the fibonacci name in the containing module because of the decorator
- object serializers brake because they cant determine the location of the original function that was decorated
- the solution is to use the wraps helper from the functools module
- this is a decorator that helps you write decorators
- when you apply it, it copies all of the important metadata about the inner function to the outter function

```
[54]: from functools import wraps

def trace(func):
    @wraps(func)
    def wrapper(args, *kwargs):
        pass
    return wrapper
@trace
```

```
def fibonacci(n):
   pass
```

 $\bullet\,$ Use the wraps decorator from the functools built-in module when you define your own decorators to avoid issues