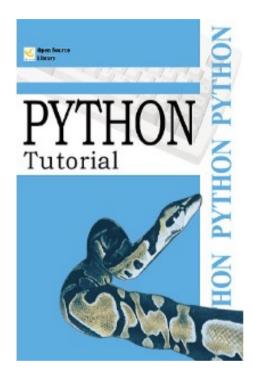
Functions



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Objectives

Specific Objectives

Understanding functions in Python

Source

- https://docs.python.org/3/reference/
- Charles R. Severance (www.pythonlearn.com)
- https://ellibrodepython.com/
- Python Tutorial Tapa blanda. GuidoVan Rossum (2012)



Outline

- Introduction
- Conversions
- Function components
- Value vs Reference
- Multiple parameters
- Nested functions
- Annotations
- Lambda functions
- Decorators



Introduction

- There are two kinds of functions in Python
 - Built-in functions that are provided as part of Python raw_input(), type(), float(), max(), min(), int(), ...
 - Functions (user defined) that we define ourselves and then use them
- We treat the built-in function names like reserved words (i.e. we avoid them as variable names)
- Functions are **objects**, then you can store them in data structures



Introduction

- Since functions are objects, it means that they can be:
 - Assigned to variables
 - Passed as arguments to other functions
 - Returned from functions
- Functions in Python have attributes. Common built-in attributes:
 - __name__: The name of the function
 - __doc__: The function's docstring
 - __module__: The module in which the function is defined





We know already

- A function is some reusable code that takes arguments(s) as input does some computation and then returns a result(s)
- We define a function using the *def* reserved word
 - We indent the body of the function
 - This defines the function but does not execute the body of the function
- We call/invoke the function by using the function name, parenthesis and arguments in an expression



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Type Conversions

- When you put an integer and floating point in an expression the integer is implicitly converted to a float
- You can control this with the built in functions int() and float()



Type Conversions

```
Example:
print (float(99) / 100) # Output: 0.99
i = 42
type(i) # Output: <type 'int'>
f = float(i) # print f -- Output: 42.0
type(f) # Output: <type 'float'>
a = 1 + 2 * float(3) / 4 - 5) # Output: -2.5
```



String Conversions

```
Example:
sval = '123'

type(sval) #<type 'str'>

#print(sval + 1) #Error

ival = int(sval)

type(ival) # <type 'int'>

print (ival + 1) # Output: 124

nsv = 'hello bob'

#niv = int(nsv) #Error, no numeric characters
```





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Arguments

- An argument is a value we pass into the function as its input when we call the function
- We use arguments so we can direct the function to do different kinds of work when we call it at different times
- We put the argument in parenthesis after the name of the function

```
Example:
Message = max ("my message")

#"my message" is the argument

#max is the name of the function
```





Parameters

- It is a variable which we use in the function definition
- It is a "handle" that allows the code in the function to access the arguments for a particular function invocation



Parameters

```
Example: Parameters
def greet(lang):
    if lang == 'es':
        print 'Hola'
    elif lang == 'fr':
        print 'Bonjour'
    else:
        print 'Hello'
```

```
Example: Arguments

greet('en') #Hello

greet('es') #Hola

greet('fr') # Bonjour
```





Return Values

- It will often take its arguments, do some computation and return a value to be used as the value of the function call in the calling expression
- The *return* keyword is used for this

```
Example:
def greater(num):
    if num >= 0:
        return True
    else:
        return False
```

```
Example:

print (greater (10)) # True

print (greater (-10)) # False
```





Mutiple Parameters/Arguments Values

• A function can take multiple parameters to perform operations

```
Example:
def add_numbers(a, b, c):
    return a + b + c

result = add_numbers(1, 2, 3)

print(result) # Output: 6
```





Returning Multiple Values

- Python allows functions to return multiple values at once
- This feature enhances code readability and efficiency
- Method 1: using tuples



Multiple Return Values

• A function can return multiple values:

```
Example: Returning
def get_person_info():
   name = "John Doe"
   age = 30
   city = "New York"
   return name, age, city
```

```
Example: Calling
name, age, city = get_person_info()

print(name) # Output: John Doe

print(age) # Output: 30

print(city) # Output: New York
```





Returning Multiple Values: Tuples

```
Example: Tuples
def get_coordinates():
    x = 10
    y = 20
    return x, y

coordinates = get_coordinates()

print(coordinates) # Output: (10, 20)

print(f"x: {x}, y: {y}") # Output: x: 10, y: 20
```





Returning Multiple Values: List

```
Example: List
def get_fibonacci(n):
    fib = [0, 1]
    for i in range(2, n):
        fib.append(fib[i-1] + fib[i-2])
    return fib

fibonacci_sequence = get_fibonacci(10)

print(f"First 10 Fibonacci numbers: {fibonacci_sequence}")
```





Returning Multiple Values: Dictionary

```
Example: Dictionary
def get movie info():
    return {
        "title": "La habitación de al lado",
        "director": "Almodovar",
        "year": 2024,
        "rating": 9.2
movie = get movie info()
print(f"{movie['title']} ({movie['year']}) directed by {movie['director']}")
```





Returning Multiple Values: Class

```
Example: Class
class Rectangle:
    def __init__(self, width, height):
        self.width = width
        self.height = height

def get_rectangle():
    return Rectangle(10, 5)

rect = get_rectangle()

print(f"Rectangle: width={rect.width}, height={rect.height}")
```





Void Functions

- A function that does not return any value
- It performs an action but does not return a result to the caller
- They do not use the return statement to return a value
- They perform an action such as printing, modifying global variables, or writing to a file
- If no return statement is used, they implicitly return None

```
Example:
def greet(lang):
    if lang == 'es':
        print 'Hola'
    elif lang == 'fr':
        print 'Bonjour'
    else:
        print 'Hello
```





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Value vs Reference

- Value: is the actual data stored in a variable
- Reference: is the address or location in memory where the data is stored
- In Python, variables are references to objects in memory.
- This means when you assign a variable, you are assigning a reference to an object, not the actual value



Immutable vs. Mutable Types

- Immutable Types:
 - Definition: objects that cannot be changed after they are created
 - Examples: int, float, str, tuple
 - Behavior: when an immutable object is modified, a new object is created
- Mutable Types:
 - Definition: objects that can be changed after they are created
 - Examples: list, dict, set
 - Behavior: when a mutable object is modified, the original object is changed





Immutable Types (Pass by Value)

• When passed to a function, a copy of the reference is made

• Rebinding the reference inside the function does not affect the original

object

• Result: The original variable remains unchanged

```
Example: immutable: int, float, str, tuple
x = 10

def funcion(entrada):
    entrada = 0

funcion(x)

print(x) # Output: 10
```





Mutable Types (Pass by Reference)

- When passed to a function, a reference to the object is passed
- Modifying the object inside the function affects the original object
- Result: The original list x is modified

```
Example: mutable: list, dict, set
x = [10, 20, 30]

def function(entrada):
    entrada.append(40)

function(x)

print(x) # Output: [10, 20, 30, 40]
```





Rebinding vs. Modifying Mutable Objects

• Rebinding "entr" to a new list does not change the original list x

• The reference "entr" now points to a new list, but x still points to the

original list

• Result: The original list x remains unchanged

```
Example: Rebinding a mutable object
x = [10, 20, 30]

def function(entr):
    entr = []

function(x)

print(x) # Output: [10, 20, 30]
```





Using id() to Understand References (I)

• The id() function returns a unique id for the object

```
Example: Different objects
x = 10

print(id(x))  # Example Output: 4349704528

def funcion(ent):
    entrada = 0

    print(id(ent))  # Example Output: 4349704208

funcion(x)
```





Using id() to Understand References (II)

```
Example: The same object
x = [10, 20, 30]
print(id(x)) # Example Output: 4422423560

def funcion(entrada):
    entrada.append(40)
    print(id(entrada)) # Example Output: 4422423560

funcion(x)
```





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Multiple Parameters with *args

- Use *args to pass a variable number of <u>non-keyword arguments</u> to a function
- non-keyword arguments = argumentos posicionales
- "*" means to pack them in a **tuple**
- Useful when you don't know the number of arguments to the function
- The name "args" is a convection, you can change it



Multiple Parameters with *args

Example I: *args

```
def test_var_args(f_arg, *args):
    print("primer argumento normal:", f_arg)
    for arg in argv:
        print("argumentos de *argv:", arg)

test var args('python', 'foo', 'bar')
```

Output

```
primer argumento normal: python
argumentos de *argv: foo
argumentos de *argv: bar
```





Multiple Parameters with *args (I)

```
Example II: *args
def print_numbers(*args):
    for number in args:
        print(number)

print_numbers(1, 2, 3, 4, 5) # Output: 1\n 2 \n 3\n 4\n 5\n
```





Multiple Parameters with **kwargs

- Use **kwargs to pass a variable number of <u>keyword arguments</u> to a function
- Key arguments = argumentos con nombre o de palabras clave
- ** means to pack the arguments in a dictionary
- The name "kwargs" is a convection, you can change it



Multiple Parameters with **kwargs

```
Example I: **kwargs
def print_info(**kwargs):
    for key, value in kwargs.items():
        print(f"{key}: {value}")

print_info(name="John", age=30, city="New York")

# Output: # name: John\n age: 30\n city: New York\n
```





Multiple Parameters with **kwargs (I)

```
Example II: **kwargs
def saludame(**kwargs):
    for key, value in kwargs.items():
        print("{0} = {1}".format(key, value))

saludame(nombre="Covadonga")

#Output: nombre = Covadonga
```





Combining *arg and **kwargs

• Let's consider this example:

```
Example I: Combining
def test_args_kwargs(arg1, arg2, arg3):
    print("arg1:", arg1)
    print("arg2:", arg2)
    print("arg3:", arg3)
```





Combining *args and **kwargs (I)

Example I: Combining

```
#With *args
args = ("dos", 3, 5)

test_args_kwargs(*args)

#output: arg1: dos \n arg2: 3 \n arg3: 5 \n

# With **kwargs:

kwargs = {"arg3": 3, "arg2": "dos", "arg1": 5}

test_args_kwargs(**kwargs)

#Output: arg1: 5 \n arg2: dos \n arg3: 3
```





Combining *args and **kwargs (II)

```
Example II: Combining
def print_details(*args, **kwargs):
    for arg in args:
        print(arg)

    for key, value in kwargs.items():
        print(f"{key}: {value}")

print_details(1, 2, 3, name="John", age=30, city="New York")
```





Combining *args and **kwargs

```
Example III: Combining
def funcion_mixta(*args, **kwargs):
    print("args:", args)
    print("kwargs:", kwargs)

funcion_mixta(1, 2, 3, a=4, b=5)

# Salida:
# args: (1, 2, 3)
# kwargs: {'a': 4, 'b': 5}
```





Combining all parameters

• If you want to use all three types of input arguments to a function: normal, *args, and **kwargs, you must do so in the following order:

```
Function_name(fargs, *args, **kwargs)
```



Unpacking

```
Example: Unpacking
def saludar(nombre, edad):
    print(f"Hola, {nombre}. Tienes {edad} años.")

datos = ["Alice", 30]
info = {"nombre": "Bob", "edad": 25}
saludar(*datos) # Desempaqueta la lista
saludar(**info) # Desempaqueta el diccionario
```





Exercise:

- Crear una función calculadora que reciba un número variable de argumentos posicionales y de nombre
- La función debe realizar una operación sobre los números recibidos, basada en el argumento con nombre operacion, que puede ser "suma", "multiplicacion", "resta", o "division"
- Define la función calculadora(*args, **kwargs)
- Usa el valor del argumento con nombre (e.g. operacion="multiplicacion") para decidir qué operación realizar
- Si no se especifica operacion, realiza la suma de los números



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Nested functions

- You can make your functions nested
- Purpose:
 - Encapsulation: helps to hide the inner function from the outside world
 - Code Organization: breaks down complex tasks into simpler, smaller functions



Nested functions

```
Example: Nested Function
def outer_function(text):
    def inner_function():
        print(text)
    inner_function()
outer_function("Hello, World!")
# Output: Hello, World!
```





Nested functions with Return Value

```
Example: Nested Function
def outer_function(x):
    def inner_function(y):
        return x + y
    return inner_function
adder = outer_function(10)
print(adder(5)) # Output: 15
```





Exercise:

- Crea una función: crear_multiplicador (factor) que reciba un número factor como argumento
- Defina una función interna llamada *multiplicar(numero)* que multiplique numero por factor
- Retorne la función interna *multiplicar()*
- Luego, usa la función *crear_multiplicador()* para:
 - Crear una función llamada duplicar que duplique cualquier número que se le pase
 - 2. Crear una función llamada triplicar que triplique cualquier número que se le pase





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Annotations

- A way of associating arbitrary metadata with function arguments and return values
- Purpose:
 - Provide additional information about the types and purposes of function arguments and return values
 - Improve code readability and support type hinting

```
Example: Annotations
```

```
def function_name(arg1: annotation1, arg2: annotation2) -> return_annotation:
    pass
```





Accessing Annotations

- Function annotations can be accessed using the <u>__annotations__</u> attribute
- The output is a dictionary where keys are parameter names and values are the annotations

```
Example: Annotations
def greet(name: str, age: int) -> str:
   return f"Hello, {name}. You are {age} years old."
print(greet. annotations )
# Output: {'name': <class 'str'>, 'age': <class 'int'>, 'return': <class 'str'>}
```





Combined with Default Values

```
Example: Annotations
def greet(name: str = "World") -> str:
    return f"Hello, {name}!"

def filtrar_pares(salida: list = []) -> list:
    return [i for i in salida if i % 2 == 0]

print(filtrar_pares([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]))
# Output: [2, 4, 6]
```





Customize Annotations

```
Example: Annotations - Custom Class
class ClassA:
    pass

def function(a: ClassA) -> ClassA:
    return a

a = ClaseA()
function(a)
```





Example to try

• Python uses dynamic typing. Annotations help specify expected types but do not enforce them

```
Example: Annotations
# suma_correcta.py

def suma22(a: int, b: int) -> int:
    return a + b

print(suma22(7.0, 3)) #output 10
```



Dynamic Checking

• Dynamic Type Checking with *isinstance*

```
Example: Annotations - Dynamic type checking
def add1(a: int, b: int) -> int:
    if not isinstance(a, int) or not isinstance(b, int):
        print(f"Arguments must be integers, got {type(a).__name__}} and
{type(b).__name__}\")
    else:
        return a + b
print(add1(7.0, 3))
```





Static Checking

• Static Type Checking with *mypy*

```
Example: Annotations — Static type checking

$pip install mypy

$pip install typing

[(base) MacBook-Pro-de-Maria-2:pythonProjects mariadr-moreno$ mypy suma.py
suma.py:5: error: Argument 1 to "suma" has incompatible type "float"; expected "int" [arg-type]
Found 1 error in 1 file (checked 1 source file)
(base) MacBook-Pro-de-Maria-2:pythonProjects mariadr-moreno$
```





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Lambda Functions

- Also known as anonymous functions
- Small, one-line functions without a name
- Defined using the 'lambda' keyword
- Can have any number of arguments, but only one expression



Why Use Lambda Functions?

- Concise way to create simple functions
- Useful for short, one-time use functions
- Can make code more readable in certain situations
- Can only contain expressions, not statements
- Limited to a single expression
- Can be less readable for complex operations
- Debugging can be more difficult due to lack of a name





Lambda

```
Example: Lambda Function
# Regular function

def square(x):
    return x ** 2

# Equivalent lambda function

square_lambda = lambda x: x ** 2

print(square(4)) # Output: 16

print(square_lambda(4)) # Output: 16
```





Example: Lambda with Multiple Arguments

```
# Regular function
def multiply (x, y):
   return x * y
# Equivalent lambda function
multiply lambda = lambda x, y: x * y
print(multiply(3, 4)) # Output: 12
print(multiply_lambda(3, 4)) # Output: 12
```





Example: Lambda with conditional expressions

```
# Lambda function with a conditional expression
max_lambda = lambda a, b: a if a > b else b

print(max_lambda(5, 3)) # Output: 5
print(max_lambda(2, 7)) # Output: 7
```





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Decorators

- Decorators are a powerful way to modify or extend the behavior of functions or classes without changing their source code
- They are functions that take another function (or class) as an argument and return a new, modified function (or class)
- Syntax: @decorator_name
- Lambda functions do not allow the use of decorator syntax



Mission

- Adding functionality to existing functions or methods
- Modifying the behavior of functions or classes
- Logging function calls
- Measuring execution time
- Verifying permissions or authentication
- Handling caching
- And many other uses...



```
Example: Decorator
def my decorator (function):
    def wrapper():
        print("Before calling the function")
        function()
        print("After calling the function")
    return wrapper
@my decorator
def greet():
    print("Hello!")
greet()
```

Before calling the function Hello! After calling the function





Example: Decorator with arguments

```
def repeat (times):
    def decorator (function):
        def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
            for in range (times):
                result = function(*args, **kwargs)
            return result
        return wrapper
    return decorator
@repeat(3)
def greet (name):
   print(f"Hello, {name}")
```

Hello, Alice Hello, Alice Hello, Alice



Example: Class Decorators

```
def singleton(cls):
    instances = {}
    def get instance(*args, **kwargs):
        if cls not in instances:
            instances[cls] = cls(*args, **kwargs)
        return instances[cls]
    return get instance
@singleton
class Database:
    def init (self):
       print("Initializing the database")
```

Example: Class Decorators

```
db1 = Database()

# Prints: Initializing the database

db2 = Database() # Prints nothing,
uses the same instance

print(db1 is db2) # Prints: True
```



Example: Lambda and Decorator (WRONG)

```
def celsius_to_fahrenheit(func):
    return lambda c: func(c) * 9/5 + 32

# This will cause a syntax error

@celsius_to_fahrenheit

lambda c: c

# SyntaxError: invalid syntax
```

Example: Lambda and Decorator (RIGHT)

```
def celsius to fahrenheit (func):
    return lambda c: func(c) * 9/5 + 32
# Create a lambda function
celsius = lambda c: c
# Manually apply the decorator
fahrenheit = celsius to fahrenheit (celsius)
# Test the converter
print(fahrenheit(0)) # Output: 32.0
print(fahrenheit(100)) # Output: 212.0
```



Exercise

- Create a decorator called log_event that will add a timestamp to the function call and print the function name along with its arguments. It will contain a nested function called "wrapper"
- Create lambda functions for different types of events (e.g., user_login, data_update, error_occurred)
- Use *args and **kwargs in your decorator (wrapper function) to handle any number of positional and keyword arguments
- Apply the decorator to the lambda functions and test them with various inputs
- Use *import time*





Exercise

```
def log_event(func):
    pass
# Create lambda functions for events
user_login = lambda username: f"User {username} logged in"
#...
# Apply decorator to lambda functions
logged_user_login = log_event(user_login)
#....
# Try the functions
logged_user_login("Alice")
logged_data_update("user_count", 42)
logged_error_occurred(404, "Page not found")
```

