### Lesson 1: Week 3 - Functions

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#### **Functions**

Suppose you'd like to print lists of things in the following 'smart' way, which takes into account the number of items and uses commas and 'and' accordingly: A A and B A, B, and C A, B, C, and D You can't just use the join() method of a string, because it doesn't do this. You have to write a piece of code. And the code required is reasonably complicated: Print the list 'lst' in a smart way if len(lst) == 1: print(lst[0]) elif len(lst) == 2: print(|st[0] + ' and ' + |st[1]) else: print(', '.join(|st[:-1]) + ', and ' + |st[-1])Having to write this code every time you want to smart-print a list would be a pain. Also, if you find an error in the code, or if you think of a way to improve it, you'll have to find all instances of the code and update them one-by-one. Fortunately, there is a much better way, and that's to define a function which does this smart printing. Then whenever you want to smart-print a list you can just call the function and provide it with the list. Here's how your program might look (don't worry if you don't understand the "def" part - you'll be learning this):# Define the function def smart\_print(lst): if len(lst) == 1: print(lst[0]) elif len(lst) == 2: print(lst[0] + ' and ' + lst[1]) else: print(', '.join(lst[:-1]) + ', and ' + lst[-1]) # Use it smart\_print(['A']) smart\_print(['A', 'B']) smart\_print(['A', 'B']) 'C']) smart\_print(['A', 'B', 'C', 'D'])This is much better. If you find an error in the code you only need to fix it in one place. If you think of a way to improve it, you only need to improve it in one place. And, as a bonus, the function name itself makes your code more self-documenting - each time you invoke the function its name makes it clear what you are doing, with no need for any comments. Brilliant!Defining and using functions in this way is an example of code modularisation. It is an important and powerful technique, and is one of the cornerstones of good programming. You'll learn how to do it this week.

## **Defining functions**

So far you've been using functions that are built-in to Python, such as input(), print(), and len(). Like many other languages, Python allows you to define your own functions. Defining a function You can define a function using a def statement, which has the following form:def (): For example:def say\_hello(): print('Hello')Once you've defined the function you can call it like any other function:def say\_hello(): print('Hello') say\_hello()Notice that the code inside the body of the function is not executed when the function is defined - it is only executed when the function is called. Also notice that you must define the function before calling it:say\_hello() # Error - the function has not yet been defined def say\_hello(): print('Hello')Naming functionsThe rules for naming functions are the same as for naming variables. Although it is not required, it has become conventional to use snake case - lower case words, separated by underscores, for example say hello. You should choose names that help to document your code - naming the above function say\_hello, for example, is more explanatory than naming it hello, or, even worse, my\_func.Adding parametersYou can add parameters to a function, to specify that the function should receive one or more arguments when it is called. You do this by adding parameter names in the brackets after the function name:def say\_hello(name): # Add a parameter called "name" print('Hello,', name) say\_hello('James') # Provide 'James' as an argumentWhen you call a function you must supply it with the right number of arguments - one for each parameter. If the function has no parameters then you must supply no arguments; if the function has one parameter then you must supply exactly one argument; and so on. If you supply the wrong number of arguments then Python will raise an error. The say\_hello() function defined above has one parameter, so you must supply it with exactly one argument:def say hello(name); print('Hello.', name) say hello() # Error - not enough argumentsdef say hello(name); print('Hello,', name) say hello('James', 'Sarah') # Error - too many argumentsAdding default valuesYou can give parameters default values. If no argument is provided for that parameter then the function will use the default value.def say\_hello(name = 'James'): # Give the parameter a default value print('Hello,', name) say\_hello() # The default value will be used say\_hello('Sarah') # 'Sarah' will be used insteadYou can use this feature to make arguments optional - Python won't raise an error if the argument is not supplied, it will just use the default value. If you set the default value to None then you can use this to detect whether an argument was supplied for the parameter:def say hello(name = None): if name is None: print('No name was provided') else: print('Hello,', name) say\_hello() say\_hello('Sarah')Returning valuesA function always returns a value. By default it will return the object None, but you can use a return statement to get it to return whatever value you want.def sum(x, y): return x + y # Specify a return value print(sum(1, 2))The function will exit immediately after a return statement, so any further statements in the function body will not be executed.def sum(x, y): return x + y # The function exits here print('This will not be printed') # Not executed print(sum(1, 2))You can have multiple return statements (but only one will get executed):def

grade(mark): if mark >= 50: return 'Pass' else: return 'Fail' # Only one of these return statements will be executed print(grade(73)) print(grade(35))A function can only return one value. This value can, however, be a collection - a list, or a tuple, or a set, or a dictionary. It is fairly common to return a tuple. Here's an example in which a tuple with two elements is returned:def ends(string): first\_char = string[0] last\_char = string[-1] # Return a tuple with two elements # Note that only the comma is needed - round brackets are ass...

### Variable scope

If you create a variable inside a function then that variable is only defined inside the function. We say that the variable's scope is limited to the function, or that the variable is locally defined. If you try to use a variable outside its scope then Python will raise an error.def my\_func(): x = 5 print(x) # Error - x is only defined inside the functionEven if you have used the same variable name outside the function, changes to variables defined inside the function are limited to occurring inside the function. This can be a problem if you use locally defined variables with the same name as globally defined variables (i.e. variables not declared within the scope of a function) - this is known as variable shadowing. x = 3 # Globally defined x = 3 # Globally defined x = 3 # Globally defined x = 3 # Occally defined to the globally defined variables inside functions, the safest approach is to provide them to the function as arguments.x = 3 def my\_func(y): return y + 2 # Add 2 to the number provided and return the result x = 3 # Occally # Assign to x = 3 # Occally # Prints 5

#### **Nested functions**

You can define a function inside another function. When you do, the inside function is called a nested function. Here's an example:def acronym(string): result = "words = string.split('') def upper\_first(string): # A nested function return string[0].upper() for word in words: result += upper\_first(word) return result print(acronym('World Health Organisation'))Because a nested function is defined inside an enclosing function, it is only available to be called inside that enclosing function. The following program generates an error, because the nested function is called outside its enclosing function:def acronym(string): result = "words = string.split('') def upper\_first(string): # Only available inside acronym return string[0].upper() for word in words: result += upper\_first(word) return result print(upper\_first('hello')) # Error - upper\_first is not available here

#### Lambda functions

You can refer to a function without giving it a name. Suppose, for example, you have a list of names and you want to sort those names by their last letter. You can use the list's sort() method to do this. By default, sort() sorts them alphabetically, but you can override this default by providing a function to use as the sorting key. If you like, you can first define the function, giving it a name, and then provide it by name to sort():names = ['Geoff', 'Kim', 'Louise', 'Tam', 'Helen'] def last\_letter(name): return name[-1] names.sort(key = last\_letter) # Use the function defined above print(names)But you don't need to. You can refer to the function directly when you call sort(), without giving it a name. You do this by using a lambda function:names = ['Geoff', 'Kim', 'Louise', 'Tam', 'Helen'] names.sort(key = lambda name: name[-1]) # Use a lambda function print(names)A lambda function is an expression (not a statement) whose value is a function. You can think of a lambda function as being a function literal. The syntax of a lambda function is as follows:lambda: Note that there is no return in a lambda function. Lambda functions can have more than one parameter. Here's a lambda function with two parameters:lambda a, b: a + bYou can use a lambda function just like you use function names. You can call the function it refers to by using the usual round brackets notation (note that you typically need to put parentheses around the lambda function when you call it, to avoid confusion with neighbouring code):print((lambda a, b: a + b)(2, 4))And you can use it to assign a value to a variable: f = lambda a, b: a + b print(f(2, 4))Note what is going on in this last example. We are using the lambda function lambda a, b: a + b to assign a value to a variable f. The value of the lambda function is a function - you can think of it as a literal for that function. So f is being assigned a function. We can then use f like any other function name. In line 2, we call the function, using f(2, 4). Compare the above with the following example: def f(a, b): return a + b print(f(2, 4)) The two examples are similar, but there are some subtle differences. In both examples we end up with f being the name of a function. But we get there in two different ways. In the first example, we assign f the function using an assignment statement and a lambda function that refers to the function. In the second example, we define f using a def statement that defines the function.

### **Functions are objects**

Functions are objects, and you can use them in the same way you use other objects, such as numbers, strings, lists, and so on. Just as you might set a variable's value to a number, such as 1, you might also set it to a function, such as len(). Also:You can assign a function to a variableA function can be an attribute of an objectA function can be an element of a collectionFunctions can be keys in a dictionaryYou can pass a function as an argument of a function callYou can return a function as the result of a function callAnd so on. Because of this we say that Python functions are first class.Because you can supply functions as arguments to functions, you can create functions that operate on functions:def add(x, y): return x + y def subtract(x, y): return x - y def apply(f, x, y): # This function applies function f to values x and y return f(x, y) print(apply(add, 10, 1)) print(apply(subtract, 10, 1))Here's another example. In this case we define a function compose, which takes two functions f and g as arguments and returns a function - the composition of f and g, which is the function that takes an argument x and returns f(g(x)):def add1(x): return x + 1 def subtract1(x): return x - 1 def compose(f, g): # This function returns a function return lambda x: f(g(x)) add2 = compose(add1, add1) # add2 is a new function print(add2(10)) do\_nothing = compose(add1, subtract1) # do\_nothing is a new function print(do\_nothing(10))Functions that take functions as arguments, or return functions as values, are known as higher order functions.

#### **Generators**

Before we leave the topic of functions, there is one special type of function that you should know about. Suppose you have a function that returns a collection of objects, perhaps a list. Suppose it is the following one:def squares(): result = [] for x in range(10): result.append( $x^*$ 2) return(result) print(squares())The function returns the full list, which you can then iterate over:def squares(): result = [] for x in range(10): result.append( $x^{**}$ 2) return(result) for x in squares(): print(x)Rather than getting the function to return the full list, you can get it to return the elements one at a time, by using a yield statement instead of a return statement:def squares(): for x in range(10): yield x\*\*2 # Use a yield statement for x in squares(): print(x)Notice what happens when you print:def squares(): for x in range(10): yield x\*\*2 print(squares())The function now returns a special kind of object, called a generator - it does not return the full list. This generator object generates the elements as they are needed. Why would you do this, rather than have the function return the full list at the outset? If the list is large, and if you don't need its elements all at once, then it is a good way to save memory. Generator expressionsThere is an even more concise way to make a generator. Rather than defining a function that returns a generator, you can use a generator expression. It is exactly like a comprehension, but you use round brackets. This is why there is no tuple comprehension - the round brackets are used for generator expressions instead.squares =  $(x^{**2})$  for x in range(10)) # Get a generator from a generator expression print(squares) for x in squares: print(x)

# Further reading

You might find the following helpful: The Python Tutorial at w3schools.com