

PMDS508L - Python Programming Functions and Modules

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Python

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- ▶ A function is a block of code which can be run when it is called.
- ▶ Functions can be re-used and reduce the programming complexity.
- ▶ In other words, a function is a piece of code written to carry out a specified task.
- ▶ To carry out that specific task, the function might or might not need multiple inputs (arguments).
- ▶ When the task is carried out, the function can or can not return one or more values.

- ▶ There are three types of functions in Python:
 - ▶ **Built-in functions**, such as `help()` to ask for help, `min()` to get the minimum value, `print()` to print an object to the terminal,... You can find an overview with more of these functions here.
 - ▶ **User-Defined Functions (UDFs)**, which are functions that users create to help them out; And
 - ▶ **Anonymous functions**, which are also called lambda functions because they are not declared with the standard `def` keyword.

Parameters vs Arguments



- ▶ The **parameters** are the variables that we can define in the function declaration.
- ▶ The **arguments** are the variables given to the function for execution.
- ▶ In other words, **parameters** are the names used when defining a function or a method, and into which **arguments** will be mapped.
- ▶ **Arguments** are the things which are supplied to any function, while the function code refers to the arguments by their **parameters**.
- ▶ **Parameters** are local variables which are assigned values of the arguments when the function is called.
- ▶ **Parameters** are known as *Formal Parameters* and **arguments** are known as *Actual Parameters*.

In Python a user-defined function is defined using the following four-steps:

1. Use the keyword `def` to declare the function and follow this up with the function name.
2. Add parameters to the function: they should be within the parentheses of the function. End your line with a colon.
3. Add statements that the functions should execute.
4. End your function with a return statement if the function should output something. Without the return statement, your function will return an object `None`.

User-Defined Functions



```
1 def my_first_function():  
2     print("Hellooo.. This is my first function")  
3  
4 my_first_function()
```

Python Functions

The return Statement



- ▶ If we want to continue to work with the result of your function and try out some operations on it, we will need to use the return statement to actually return a value, such as a String, an integer, etc.
- ▶ If we are only printing a message then we don't need to return any value.

```
1 def hello():
2     print("Hello World")
3     return("hello")
4
5 def hello_noreturn():
6     print("Hello World")
7
8 hello() * 2 # Multiply the output of `hello()` with 2
9
10 hello_noreturn() * 2 # (Try to) multiply the output of `
    hello_noreturn()` with 2
```

Python Functions

The return Statement



Functions immediately exit when they come across a return statement, even if it means that they won't return any value:

```
1 def test_fun():
2     for x in range(10):
3         if x == 5:
4             return
5     print("Run!")
6
7 test_fun()
```


Python Functions

The return Statement



Another thing that is worth mentioning when we're working with the return statement, we can use it to return multiple values.

```
1 # Define 'plus()'
2 def plus(a,b):
3     sumab = a + b
4     return (sumab, a)
5
6 # Call 'plus()'
7 sumab, a = plus(3,4)
8
9 print(sumab) # Print 'sumab'
10 print(sumab, ' ', a) # Print 'sumab' and 'a'
11 print(sumab, ' ', b) # Error
```

Python Functions

Function Arguments



We can pass arguments to functions and can evaluate them inside the function block.

```
1 def addnums(num1 , num2):  
2     print("The num1 is: ", num1)  
3     print("The num2 is: ", num2)  
4     print("The sum of the two numbers is: ", num1+num2)  
5  
6 addnums(2, 3)  
7 addnums(-5, 6)  
8 addnums(10.5, 2.6)  
9 addnums(10.5, 2)
```

Python Functions

Function Arguments



- ▶ By default, a function must be called with the correct number of arguments.
- ▶ If you try to call the function with lesser or greater arguments, the Python returns an error.

Python Functions

Variable No.of Arguments



- ▶ We can even pass the arbitrary number of arguments into a function.
- ▶ For this we add `*` before the parameter name in the function definition
- ▶ There are two types of variable arguments in Python.
 - ▶ `*args` for Non-Keyword Arguments
 - ▶ `**kwargs` for Keyword Arguments

Python Functions

Variable No.of Arguments



- ▶ The `*args` in Python function definitions is used to pass a non-key worded, variable number of arguments to a function.

Python Functions

Variable No.of Arguments



- ▶ The *args in Python function definitions is used to pass a non-key worded, variable number of arguments to a function.

```
1 def my_function(*args):  
2     l = len(args)  
3     print("The number of arguments passed are: ",l)  
4     for i in range(0,l):  
5         print('Argument ',i+1,'is: ',args[i])  
6  
7 my_function(2,6)  
8 my_function("a")  
9 my_function(2,"a",3.4)  
10 my_function(2,"a",[3,5.7,"Test"])
```

Python Functions

Variable No.of Arguments



- ▶ The `**kwargs` in function definitions in python is used to pass a keyworded, variable-length argument list.
- ▶ We use the name `kwargs` with the double star.
- ▶ A keyword argument is where you provide a name to the variable as you pass it into the function.
- ▶ One can think of the `kwargs` as being a dictionary that maps each keyword to the value that we pass alongside it.
- ▶ As a result, we can iterate over the `kwargs` and perform the necessary operations in a function call.

Python Functions

Variable No.of Arguments



```
1 def my_function(**kwargs):  
2     for key,value in kwargs.items():  
3         print('Key = ',key,'; Value = ',value)  
4  
5 my_function(First="One", Second=34.5, Third=True)  
6 my_function(First=1)  
7 my_function(Name="Prasad",Degree="PhD")  
8 my_function(Key1=2,Key2="a",Key3=[3,5.7,"Test"])
```


Python Functions

Use of *args and **kwargs



```
1 def my_function(*args, **kwargs):  
2     print("args: ", args)  
3     print("kwargs: ", kwargs)  
4  
5 my_function('one', 2, 3.14, first="Prasad", last="Bhuvanagiri", degree="PhD")
```

Python Functions

Default Parameter Values



We can use default parameter values for a function as follows:

```
1 def addnums(num1=0, num2=0):  
2     print("The num1 is: ", num1)  
3     print("The num2 is: ", num2)  
4     print("The sum of the two numbers is: ", num1+num2)  
5  
6 addnums(2, 3)  
7 addnums(2)  
8 addnums(num2=3)  
9 addnums(num1=5.6)  
10 addnums()
```

Python Functions

List of Arguments



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We can even pass a List as an argument to Python function

```
1 def addnums(myNums):  
2     numsum = 0  
3     for i in myNums:  
4         numsum += i  
5     print("The sum of the numbers is: ", numsum)  
6  
7 addnums([1, 20, 43, 52])
```

Python Functions

Returning a Value



Functions can return a value to the user:

```
1 def addnums(myNums):  
2     numsum = 0  
3     for i in myNums:  
4         numsum += i  
5     return numsum  
6  
7 print("The sum of numbers is: ", addnums([1, 20, 43,  
    52]))
```

Scope of the Variables in Python Functions



- ▶ In general, variables that are defined inside a function body have a local scope, and those defined outside have a global scope.
- ▶ That means that local variables are defined within a function block and can only be accessed inside that function, while global variables can be obtained by all functions that might be in our script.

Global vs Local Variables



```
1 # Global variable init
2 init = 1
3
4 # Define plus() function to accept a variable number of arguments
5 def plus(*args):
6     # Local variable total
7     total = 0
8     print('The initial value is: ',init)
9     for i in args:
10         total += i
11     return total
12
13 # Access the global variable
14 print("this is the initialized value " + str(init))
15
16 # (Try to) access the local variable
17 print("this is the sum " + str(total))
```

Recursive Functions



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- ▶ Recursion is a mathematical and programming concept, in which a function calls itself.
- ▶ This has the benefit that one can loop through data to reach a result.
- ▶ Recursion is a very efficient and mathematically-elegant approach to programming
- ▶ Developer/Programmer should be very careful while designing a recursion.
- ▶ It can be quite easy to slip into writing a recursion which never terminates, or uses excess amounts of memory or processor power.

Recursive Functions



```
1 def my_recursion(num):
2     if(num > 0):
3         result = num + my_recursion(num-1)
4         print(result)
5     else:
6         result = 0
7     return result
8
9 print("\nMy Recursion Example Results:")
10 finalAns = my_recursion(6)
11 print("\nThe Final Answer is: ",finalAns)
```


- ▶ We can write our very own Python functions using the `def` keyword, function headers, docstrings, and function bodies.
- ▶ However, there's a quicker way to write functions on the fly, and these are called lambda functions because you use the keyword `lambda`.
- ▶ A lambda function is a small anonymous function.
- ▶ A lambda function can take any number of arguments, but can only have one expression.

Lambda Function



Syntax

```
1 fn = lambda arguments : expression
```

Lambda Function



```
1 raise_to_power = lambda x, y: x ** y
2
3 raise_to_power(2, 3)
```

```
1 myfunc = lambda a, b, c : a+b*c
2
3 print(myfunc(2,3,5))
```

map() function



The `map()` function executes a specified function for each item in an iterable. The item is sent to the function as a parameter.

```
1 map(function, iterables)
```

function: (Required) The function to execute on each item.

iterables: (Required) A sequence, collection or an iterator object.

We can send as many iterables as we like. But need to make sure that the function has one parameter for each iterable.

map() function



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```
1 def myFunc(a, b):  
2     return a + b  
3  
4 x = map(myFunc, ('apple', 'banana', 'cherry'), ('orange'  
5     ', 'lemon', 'pineapple'))  
6  
7 print(x) #returns a map object  
8 print(list(x)) #convert the map into a list, for  
9     readability
```

map() function



```
1 def myFunc(x):  
2     return x**2  
3  
4 X = map(myFunc, [1,5,-2,3])  
5  
6 print(X) #returns a map object  
7 print(list(X)) #convert the map into a list, for  
   readability
```

map() function with lambda function



We can pass lambda function to the `map()` without even naming them, and in this case, we refer to them as anonymous functions.

```
1 nums = [48, 6, 9, 21, 1]
2
3 square_all = map(lambda num: num ** 2, nums)
4
5 print(square_all) # Returns a map object
6
7 print(list(square_all)) # To see what the above map
   object returns, we use list to turn into a list
```

filter() function



The `filter()` function returns an iterator where the items are filtered through a function to test if the item is accepted or not.

```
1 filter(function, iterable)
```

function: (Required) The function to execute on each item.

iterables: (Required) A sequence, collection or an iterator object.

filter() function



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```
1 ages = [5, 12, 17, 18, 24, 32]
2
3 def myFunc(x):
4     if x < 18:
5         return False
6     else:
7         return True
8
9 adults = filter(myFunc, ages)
10
11 for x in adults:
12     print(x)
```

filter() function



```
1 # function that filters vowels
2 def fun(variable):
3     letters = ['a', 'e', 'i', 'o', 'u']
4     if (variable in letters):
5         return True
6     else:
7         return False
8
9 sequence = ['b', 'e', 'i', 'l', 'k', 's', 'p', 'a']
10 filtered = filter(fun, sequence) # using filter function
11
12 print('The filtered letters are:')
13 for s in filtered:
14     print(s)
```

filter() function with lambda function



```
1 my_list = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
2
3 # Use lambda function with `filter()`
4 filtered_list = list(filter(lambda x: (x*2 > 10),
5                             my_list))
6
7 print(filtered_list)
```

Functions with function arguments

Higher order functions



- ▶ Python functions are nothing but objects and names we define are simply identifiers bound to these objects.

```
1 def first(msg):  
2     print(msg)  
3  
4 first("Hello")  
5  
6 second = first  
7 second("Hello")
```

- ▶ When we run the above code both functions `first` and `second` Return the same output as both refers to same object.

Functions with function arguments

Higher order functions



- ▶ We can even pass a function as argument to other function and these functions are called **higher order functions**

```
1 def inc(x):  
2     return x + 1  
3  
4 def dec(x):  
5     return x - 1  
6  
7 def operate(func, x):  
8     result = func(x)  
9     return result  
10  
11 operate(inc, 3)  
12 operate(dec, 3)
```

Nested Functions



- ▶ A function can return another function

```
1 def fun_called():
2     def fun_returned():
3         print("Hello!.. from inner function")
4     return fun_returned
5
6 new = fun_called() # Create the fun_called object
7
8 new() # Call the function new()
9
10 #Output: Hello!.. from inner function
```

Nested Functions



- ▶ Nested functions can access variables of the enclosing scope.
- ▶ Following is an example of a nested function accessing a non-local variable (a variable which is read-only by default)

```
1 def outer_fn(msg): #Outer function
2     def inner_fn():
3         print("Printing from inner function with
4             argument passed to outer function\n"+msg)
5         inner_fn()
6 outer_fn("Hello!.. Argument passed to outer function")
```

- ▶ Consider the following code, which is modification of above code replacing inner_fn() call with a return inner_fn

```
1 def outer_fn(msg): #Outer function
2     def inner_fn():
3         print("Printing from inner function with
4             argument passed to outer function\n"+msg)
5         return inner_fn
6 fun = outer_fn("Hello!.. Argument passed to outer
7             function")
8 fun()
```


- ▶ Here, we called the `outer_fn()` with string "Hello!.." and the returned function was bound to the name `fun`.
- ▶ On calling `fun()`, the message was still remembered although we had already finished executing `outer_fn()` function.
- ▶ This technique by which some data (in our case the `msg`) gets attached to the code is called **closure in Python**.
- ▶ This enclosing value is remembered even when the variable goes out of scope or the function itself is removed from the current namespace.

Closure Functions



```
1 del outer_fn
2
3 fun()
4
5 outer_fn("Hello!..")
```

Criteria for Closure Function Creation in Python



- ▶ The following criteria must be met to create closure in Python:
 - ▶ We must have a nested function (function inside a function)
 - ▶ The nested function must refer to a value defined in the enclosing (outer) function.
 - ▶ The enclosing function must return the nested function.

Use of Closures in Python



- ▶ Closures can avoid the use of global values and provide some form of data hiding.
- ▶ They can also provide an object oriented solution to the problem.
- ▶ When there are few methods (one method in most cases) to be implemented, closures can provide an alternative and more elegant solution.

Use of Closures in Python



```
1  def multiplier_of(n):
2      def multiplier(x):
3          return x * n
4      return multiplier
5
6  # Multiplier of 3
7  times3 = multiplier_of(3)
8
9  # Multiplier of 5
10 times5 = multiplier_of(5)
11
12 print(times3(9)) # Output: 27
13 print(times5(3)) # Output: 15
14 print(times5(times3(2))) # Output: 30
```

- ▶ A decorator takes in a function, adds some functionality and returns it.
- ▶ To understand the decorators in Python, we must recall that:
 - ▶ Functions are objects of Python and various different names can be bound to the same function object.
 - ▶ Functions can also take other functions as arguments and this type of functions are called higher order functions.
 - ▶ A nested function can also act as a closure function.

Python Decorators



```
1 def make_pretty(func):
2     def inner():
3         print("I got decorated")
4         func()
5     return inner
6
7 def ordinary():
8     print("I am ordinary")
```

```
1 >>> ordinary()  
2 I am ordinary  
3  
4 >>> pretty = make_pretty(ordinary)  
5 >>> pretty()  
6 I got decorated  
7 I am ordinary
```

In this example, `make_pretty()` is a decorator.

The assignment step `pretty = make_pretty(ordinary)` decorates the function `ordinary()` and returns a function with name `pretty`.

This decorator function added some new functionality to the original function.

Generally, we decorate a function and reassign it as

```
1 ordinary = make_pretty(ordinary)
```

This is a common construct for decorator functions. The above can be simplified as:

```
1 @make_pretty
2 def ordinary():
3     print("I am ordinary")
```

which is equivalent to

```
1 def ordinary():
2     print("I am ordinary")
3 ordinary = make_pretty(ordinary)
```

Python Decorators

Illustration



```
def deco(f):  
    def g(*args, **kwargs):  
        return f(*args, **kwargs)  
    return g  
  
def func(x):  
    return 2*x  
  
func = deco(func)
```

Closure

Decorator function

Decorated function

<https://towardsdatascience.com/closures-and-decorators-in-python-2551abbc6eb6>

```
1 def deco(f):  
2     def g(*args, **kwargs):  
3         :  
4         return f(*args, **  
5             kwargs)  
6     return g  
7 def func(x):  
8     return 2*x  
  
func = deco(func)  
func(2) # Output is 4
```

After the assigning the result, func refers to the closure g. So calling func(a) is like calling g(a).

Python Decorators

Illustration



Before decoration

func → `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

After decoration `func = deco(func)`

func → `def deco(f):`
`def g(*args, **kwargs):`
`return f(*args, **kwargs)`
`return g`

→ `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

Python Decorators

Illustration



Before decoration

func → `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

After decoration `func = deco(func)`

func → `def deco(f):`
`def g(*args, **kwargs):`
`return f(*args, **kwargs)`
`return g`

→ `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

- ▶ After decoration, the variable `func` refers to the closure `g`

Python Decorators

Illustration



Before decoration

func → `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

After decoration `func = deco(func)`

func → `def deco(f):`
`def g(*args, **kwargs):`
`return f(*args, **kwargs)`
`return g`

→ `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

- ▶ After decoration, the variable `func` refers to the closure `g`
- ▶ Inside `g`, `f` refers to the `func(x)` definition.

Python Decorators

Illustration



Before decoration

func → `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

After decoration func = deco(func)

func → `def deco(f):`
`def g(*args, **kwargs):`
`return f(*args, **kwargs)`
`return g`

→ `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

- ▶ In fact, g is now acting as an interface for the original function func(x) which was decorated.

- ▶ After decoration, the variable func refers to the closure g
- ▶ Inside g, f refers to the func(x) definition.

Python Decorators

Illustration



Before decoration

func → `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

After decoration `func = deco(func)`

func → `def deco(f):`
`def g(*args, **kwargs):`
`return f(*args, **kwargs)`
`return g`

→ `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

- ▶ In fact, g is now acting as an interface for the original function `func(x)` which was decorated.
- ▶ We cannot directly call `func(x)` outside g.

- ▶ After decoration, the variable `func` refers to the closure `g`
- ▶ Inside `g`, `f` refers to the `func(x)` definition.

Python Decorators

Illustration



Before decoration

func → `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

After decoration `func = deco(func)`

func → `def deco(f):`
`def g(*args, **kwargs):`
`return f(*args, **kwargs)`
`return g`

→ `def func(x):`
`return 2*x`

- ▶ After decoration, the variable `func` refers to the closure `g`
- ▶ Inside `g`, `f` refers to the `func(x)` definition.

- ▶ In fact, `g` is now acting as an interface for the original function `func(x)` which was decorated.
- ▶ We cannot directly call `func(x)` outside `g`.
- ▶ Instead, we first call `func` to call `g`, and then inside `g` we can call `f` to call the original function `func(x)`.

Python Decorators

Illustration



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Before decoration

func → `def func(x):
 return 2*x`

After decoration `func = deco(func)`

func → `def deco(f):
 def g(*args, **kwargs):
 return f(*args, **kwargs)
 return g`

→ `def func(x):
 return 2*x`

- ▶ After decoration, the variable `func` refers to the closure `g`
- ▶ Inside `g`, `f` refers to the `func(x)` definition.

- ▶ In fact, `g` is now acting as an interface for the original function `func(x)` which was decorated.
- ▶ We cannot directly call `func(x)` outside `g`.
- ▶ Instead, we first call `func` to call `g`, and then inside `g` we can call `f` to call the original function `func(x)`.
- ▶ So, we are calling the original function `func(x)` using the closure `g`.

Python Decorators

Examples



```
1 def smart_divide(func):
2     def inner(a, b):
3         print("I am dividing", a, "by", b)
4         if b == 0:
5             print("Whoops! Denominator is Zero. Cannot divide")
6             return
7
8         return func(a, b)
9     return inner
10
11 @smart_divide
12 def divide(a, b):
13     print(a/b)
```

Python Decorators

Examples



```
1 >>> divide(2,5)
2 I am dividing 2 by 5
3 0.4
4
5 >>> divide(2,0)
6 I am dividing 2 by 0
7 Whoops! Denominator is Zero. Cannot divide
```

Stacked Decorators



```
1 def deco1(f):
2     def g1(*args, **kwargs):
3         print("Calling ", f.__name__, "using deco1")
4         return f(*args, **kwargs)
5     return g1
6 def deco2(f):
7     def g2(*args, **kwargs):
8         print("Calling ", f.__name__, "using deco2")
9         return f(*args, **kwargs)
10    return g2
11 def func(x):
12     return 2*x
13 func = deco2(deco1(func))
14 func(2)
```

Stacked Decorators



```
1 def deco1(f):
2     def g1(*args, **kwargs):
3         print("Calling ", f.__name__, "using deco1")
4         return f(*args, **kwargs)
5     return g1
6 def deco2(f):
7     def g2(*args, **kwargs):
8         print("Calling ", f.__name__, "using deco2")
9         return f(*args, **kwargs)
10    return g2
11 @deco2
12 @deco1
13 def func(x):
14     return 2*x
```

Stacked Decorators

Example



```
1 def star(func):
2     def inner(*args, **kwargs):
3         print("*" * 30)
4         func(*args, **kwargs)
5         print("*" * 30)
6     return inner
7
8 def percent(func):
9     def inner(*args, **kwargs):
10        print "%" * 30
11        func(*args, **kwargs)
12        print "%" * 30
13    return inner
```

Stacked Decorators

Example



```
1 @star                                     def printer(msg):
2 @percent                                 print(msg)
3 def printer(msg):                       printer = star(percent(printer))
4     print(msg)
5
6 printer("Hello")                       printer("Hello")
```

Output:

```
1 *****
2 %%%%%%%%%%
3 Hello
4 %%%%%%%%%%
5 *****
```

Stacked Decorators

Example



The order in which we chain decorators matter. If we had reversed the order as,

```
1 @percent
2 @star
3 def printer(msg):
4     print(msg)
5
6 printer("Hello")
```

the output would be:

```
1 %%%%%%%%%%%
2 *****
3 Hello
4 *****
5 %%%%%%%%%%%
```


Generator functions in Python



- ▶ A generator is a function that returns an (iterator) object which we can iterate over (one value at a time).
- ▶ Generator function in Python is defined in the same way as the functions are defined but with a **yield** statement instead of **return** statement.
- ▶ If a function contains at least one **yield** (it may contain other **yield** or **return** statements), it becomes a generator function.
- ▶ Both **yield** and **return** will return some value from a function.
- ▶ The difference is that while a **return** statement terminates a function entirely, **yield** statement pauses the function saving all its states and later continues from there on successive calls.

Difference between Generator function and Normal function



- ▶ Generator function contains one or more **yield** statements.
- ▶ When called, it returns an object (iterator) but does not start execution immediately.
- ▶ We can iterate through the items using **next()**.
- ▶ Once a function yields, the function is paused and the control is transferred to the caller.
- ▶ Local variables and their states are remembered between successive calls.
- ▶ Finally, when the function terminates **StopIteration** is raised automatically on further calls.

Generator functions in Python

Example



```
1 # A simple generator function
2 def my_gen():
3     n = 1
4     print('This is printed first')
5     # Generator function contains yield statements
6     yield n
7
8     n += 1
9     print('This is printed second')
10    yield n
11
12    n += 1
13    print('This is printed at last')
14    yield n
```

Generator functions in Python

Example



```
1 >>> a = my_gen() # It returns an object but does not start execution immediately.
2
3 >>> next(a)
4 This is printed first
5 1
6
7 >>> next(a)
8 This is printed second
9 2
10
11 >>> next(a)
12 This is printed last
13 3
14
15 >>> next(a)
16 Traceback (most recent call last):
17 ...
18 StopIteration
```

Generator functions in Python



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- ▶ Observe that the value of variable n is remembered between the calls.
- ▶ The local variables are not destroyed when the function yields. This is exactly the opposite to how the normal functions works.
- ▶ Furthermore, the generator object can be iterated only once.
- ▶ To restart the process we need to create another generator object using some thing like `a = my_gen()`
- ▶ We can use generators directly with **for** loops.

Generator functions in Python



```
1 for item in my_gen():  
2     print(item)
```

Generators with a Loop



```
1 def rev_str(mystr):
2     length = len(mystr)
3     for i in range(length-1, -1, -1):
4         yield mystr[i]
5
6 for ch in rev_str("Hello!"):
7     print(ch)
```

Generators with a Loop



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3     for i in range(length-1, -1, -1):
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5
6 for ch in rev_str("Hello!"):
7     print(ch)
```

This generator function not only works with strings, but also with other kinds of iterables like list, tuple, etc

Python Generator Expression

Anonymous generator functions



- ▶ Simple generators can be easily created on the fly using generator expressions.
- ▶ Generator expression create anonymous generator functions. This is similar to lambda function, which create anonymous functions.
- ▶ The syntax of generator expression similar to that of **list comprehension in Python** but, the square brackets are replaced by round parentheses.

Python Generator Expression

Anonymous generator functions



- ▶ Simple generators can be easily created on the fly using generator expressions.
- ▶ Generator expression create anonymous generator functions. This is similar to lambda function, which create anonymous functions.
- ▶ The syntax of generator expression similar to that of **list comprehension in Python** but, the square brackets are replaced by round parentheses.
- ▶ The main difference between a list comprehension and a generator expression is that a list comprehension produces list while the generator expression produces one item at a time.
- ▶ Generator expressions have lazy execution (i.e., produce items only when needed/asked for)
- ▶ As a result, generator expression is much more memory efficient than an equivalent list comprehension.

Python Generator Expressions

Anonymous generator functions



```
1 my_list = [2,4,6,8,10]
2 listComprehension = [x**2 for x in my_list]
3 generator = (x**2 for x in my_list)
4
5 print(listComprehension)
6 print(generator)
```

Python Generator Expressions

Anonymous generator functions



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```
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2 listComprehension = [x**2 for x in my_list]
3 generator = (x**2 for x in my_list)
4
5 print(listComprehension)
6 print(generator)
```

- ▶ We can use generator expression as function arguments
- ▶ While doing so, the round parentheses can be dropped.

```
sum((x**2 for x in my_list))
max(x**2 for x in my_list)
```

1. Easy of Implement

```
1 def PowTwoGen(max=0):
2     n = 0
3     while n < max:
4         yield 2 ** n
5         n += 1
6
7 gen_fn = PowTwoGen(5)
8
9 for i in gen_fn:
10     print(i)
```

2. Memory Efficient

- ▶ A normal function return a sequence and create the entire sequence in memory before returning the result.
- ▶ If the sequence is very large then the above process drains our memory.
- ▶ Generator implementation of such sequences is memory friendly as it produces one item at a time.

3. Represent Infinite Stream of Data

- ▶ A normal function return a sequence which is finite data.
- ▶ Generators are excellent mediums to represent an infinite stream of data.
- ▶ Infinite streams cannot be stored in memory, and since generators produce only one item at a time, they can represent an infinite stream of data.
- ▶ In theory, below code generates all even numbers

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- ▶ Generators are excellent mediums to represent an infinite stream of data.
- ▶ Infinite streams cannot be stored in memory, and since generators produce only one item at a time, they can represent an infinite stream of data.
- ▶ In theory, below code generates all even numbers

```
1 def all_even():  
2     n = 0  
3     while True:  
4         yield n  
5         n += 2
```


4. Pipelining Generators

- ▶ Multiple generators can be used to pipeline a series of operations.

```
1 def fibonacci_numbers(nums):  
2     x, y = 0, 1  
3     for _ in range(nums):  
4         x, y = y, x+y  
5         yield x  
6  
7 def square(nums):  
8     for num in nums:  
9         yield num**2  
10  
11 print(sum(square(fibonacci_numbers(10))))
```

This example prints the sum of the squares of the first n Fibonacci numbers.

- ▶ A module is a file containing Python definitions and statements.
- ▶ A file containing Python code, for e.g.: `example.py`, is called a module and its module name would be `example`.
- ▶ A module can define functions, classes and variables.
- ▶ A module can also include runnable code.
- ▶ Grouping related code into a module makes the code easier to understand and use.
- ▶ We can define our most used functions in a module and import it, instead of copying their definitions into different programs.

Python Modules



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Let us create a module. Type the following and save it as myCalc.py.

```
1 # Python Module example
2 def add(a, b):
3     return a + b
4
5 def subtract(a, b):
6     return a - b
7
8 def multiply(a, b):
9     return a * b
10
11 def divide(a, b):
12     return a / b
```

Using a Module



Now we can use the module we just created, by using the **import** statement:

```
1 import myCalc
2
3 myCalc.add(2,3)
4 myCalc.subtract(4,5)
5 myCalc.multiply(3,5)
6 myCalc.divide(3,7)
```

Importing a Module with Re-naming



We can import a module by renaming it as follows.

```
1 import myCalc as mc
2
3 mc.add(2,3)
4 mc.subtract(4,5)
5 mc.multiply(3,5)
6 mc.divide(3,7)
```

Python from...import statement



We can import a specific variable or function from a Module using **from ... import**
...

```
1 from myCalc import add
2
3 add(2,3)
4 multiply(2,3) #Returns error
```

Note: When importing using the from keyword, do not use the module name when referring to elements in the module.

Python in-built Modules



```
1 import math
2
3 print(math.pi)
4 print(math.e)
```

Python in-built Modules



```
1 import math as m
2
3 print(m.pi)
4 print(m.sin(30)) #Prints the sin of 30 radians
```


Python in-built Modules



```
1 from math import pi, e
2
3 print(pi)
4 print(e)
5
6 from math import *
7
8 print(sin(30))
```

The `dir()` function



- ▶ The `dir()` built-in function returns a sorted list of strings containing the names defined by a module.
- ▶ The list contains the names of all the modules, variables and functions that are defined in a module.

```
1 import math
2 dir(math)
3
4 import random
5 dir(random)
6
7 import statistics
8 dir(statistics)
```