Lecture 3: Functions

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Overview

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Basic Functions

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Scope

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Indexing

String formatting

```
str1 = 'Hello'
str2 = 'world'
'{}, {}!'.format(str1, str2)
# => 'Hello, world!'
'{0}, {1}, {0}'.format('first', 'second')
# => 'first, second, first'
'{:.2f}'.format(2.71828)
\# = > 2.72
```

Lists can contain anything, thanks duck typing!

```
l = [1, 2, 3]
Lists denoted by square brackets
l = [1, 2, 'three']
l = [1, 2, [3, 4], [5]]

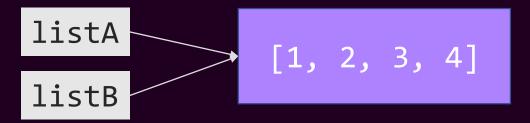
l.append('six') # => [1, 2, [3, 4], [5], 'six']
```

The in operator, again

```
jagged = [[0], [1, 2], [3, 4, 5]]
0 in jagged
                                     # => False
[0] in jagged
                                     # => True
[1, 2] in jagged
                                     # => True
for row in jagged:
    print('{} ({})'.format(row, len(row)))
   \# \Rightarrow [0] (1)
   \# = > [3, 4, 5] (3)
```

Digging a little deeper

```
listA = [1, 2, 3]
listB = listA
listB.append(4)
print(listA) # => [1, 2, 3, 4]
```



Digging a little deeper

```
listA = [1, 2, 3]
listB = listA.copy()
listB.append(4)
print(listA) # => [1, 2, 3]
```

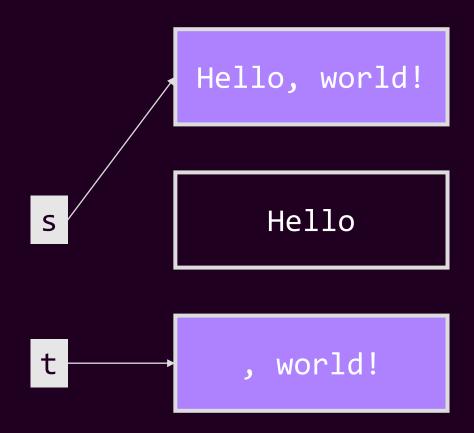


Tuple packing/unpacking

```
tup = 1, 2
               Comma-separated r-values pack into a tuple
               Comma-separated I-values unpack a tuple
print(a)
               # => 1
print(b)
              # => 2
a, b = b, a
print(a) # => 2
print(b)
             # => 1
```

What does "immutable" mean?

```
s = 'Hello
t = ', world!'
s = s + t
```



What does "immutable" mean?

```
tup = ([1, 2], 4)
tup[0].append(3)
tup[1] = 5  # => TypeError!
                            [1, 2, 3]
```

Sets can contain anything, thanks duck typing!

```
S = {1, 2, 3}
Sets denoted by curly braces

s = {1, 2, 'three'}

s = set([1, 2, 3, 3]) # => {1, 2, 3}

s = set('Hello') # => {'o', 'e', 'H', 'l'}

s[0] # => TypeError
```

Dicts

```
a = dict(one=1, two=2)
b = {'one': 1, 'two': 2}

a == b  # => True

Empty curly braces create dict, not set
empty = {}
```

Iterating over a dict

```
grades = {'Chirag': [93, 87], 'Cassidy': [100, 94]}

for name, grade in grades.items():
    print('{}: {}'.format(name, grade))
    # => Chirag: [93, 87]
    # => Cassidy: [100, 94]
```

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"The Zen of Python" — Tim Peters

Beautiful is better than ugly.

Explicit is better than implicit.

Simple is better than complex.

Complex is better than complicated.

Flat is better than nested.

Sparse is better than dense.

Readability counts.

Special cases aren't special enough to break the rules.

Although practicality beats purity.

Errors should never pass silently.

Unless explicitly silenced.

Basic function syntax

```
def func_name(arg1, arg2):
    # do some stuff
    return arg1 + 1
func name(1, \theta) # => 2
func name(2, 0) \# \Rightarrow 3
Calls are just like C++
```

Start with: and then indent

Familiar return statements

Building a more realistic Hello World

```
lib.py
print('Hello, world!')
main.py
import lib
CLI
> python3 lib.py
Hello, world!
> python3 main.py
                        Shouldn't have printed anything!
Hello, world!
```

Building a more realistic Hello World

```
lib.py
if __name__ == '__main__':
    print('Hello, world!')
main.py
import lib
CLI
> python3 lib.py
Hello, world!
> python3 main.py
                        No output, as expected
```

Structure of a runnable Python program

```
def main():
    print('Hello, world!')

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

All functions return something

```
def do_nothing():
    return

type(do_nothing()) # => <class 'NoneType'>
```

What is *NoneType*?

- Something like a hybrid between void and NULL in C++
- A function that returns "nothing" returns NoneType
- Explicitly defined as None
- Evaluates to False in a conditional

Truthy and Falsy

Туре	True when	False when
NoneType	Never	Always
bool	True	False
str	Non-empty	Empty
int	Not 0	0
tuple	Non-empty	Empty
list	Non-empty	Empty
dict	Non-empty	Empty
set	Non-empty	Empty

Using Truthy and Falsy

```
Cannot call len on None
def fun(nums):
    if len(nums) == 0:
        print('empty')
    else:
        print('non-empty')
                 # => 'non-empty'
fun([1, 2, 3])
                   # => 'empty'
fun([])
                   # => TypeError!
fun(None)
```

Using Truthy and Falsy (better)

```
def fun(nums):
   if not nums:
        print('empty')
    else:
       print('non-empty')
fun([1, 2, 3]) # => 'non-empty'
fun([])
               # => 'empty'
                 # => 'empty' ←
fun(None)
```

Not really true

Using Truthy and Falsy (best)

```
def fun(nums):
   if nums is None:
       print('none')
   elif not nums:
       print('empty')
   else:
       print('non-empty')
fun([1, 2, 3]) # => 'non-empty'
              # => 'empty'
fun([])
fun(None)
          # => 'none'
```

is keyword checks if variables are pointing to the same memory block (just checks pointer addresses)

Works for None because None is cached

Duck typing, again and again

```
def do whatever(x):
   if x % 3 == 1: return 'lalala'
    elif x \% 3 == 2: return x
for i in range(3):
    print(do whatever(i)) # => None
                            # => 'lalala'
                            # => 2
```

LBE: Sum of a list (without the library)

```
def sum(nums):
                     Proper way to check if nums is non-empty and not None
    if nums: ←
         res = 0
         for i in nums:
             res += i
         return res
                             On the else path, we don't return anything
sum([1, 2, 3]) # => 6
sum([])
                  # => None
sum(None)
                 # => None
```

LBE: Max of a list (without the library)

```
def max(nums):
   if nums:
       res idx = 0
       for idx, val in enumerate(nums):
           if val > nums[res idx]:
               res idx = idx
       return res idx, nums[res idx]
idx, val = \max([3, 2, 1]) # => (0, 3)
                      # => ;;;
idx, val = max([])
```

LBE: Max of a list (without the library)

```
def max(nums):
    if nums:
       res idx = 0
       for idx, val in enumerate(nums):
            if val > nums[res idx]:
                res idx = idx
        return res idx, nums[res idx]
idx, val = \max([3, 2, 1]) # => (0, 3)
idx, val = max([])
                        # => TypeError!
```

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Default arguments

```
def func(x, y=0):
    return x + y

func(1) # => 1
func(1, 2) # => 3
```

Keyword arguments

```
def func(x, y=0):
    return x + y

func(1)  # => 1
func(1, y=2) # => 3
func(y=2, 1) # => SyntaxError!
```

Positional arguments must come before keyword arguments

Keyword arguments

```
def func(x, y=0):
    return x + y

func(1)  # => 1
func(1, z=2) # => TypeError!
```

Only valid keyword arguments may be used (unless using variadic keyword arguments)

LBE: Converting to integers

```
int('100') # => 100
int('100', 16) # => 256
int('100', base=8) # => 64
```

Variadic positional arguments

Variable number of arguments are packed into a tuple

```
def func(*args):
   for x in args:
       print(x)
func(0)
              # => 0
func(1, 2, 3) # => 1
```

Variadic positional arguments

```
def func(*args):
    print(*args, sep=', ')
               Unpack the tuple as individual arguments to print
print(0, sep=', ')
                              # => 0
print(1, 2, 3, sep=', ') # => 1, 2, 3
func(0)
                              # => 0
func(1, 2, 3)
                              \# = > 1, 2, 3
```

LBE: Arbitrary sized product

```
def product(*nums, scale=1):
    res = scale
    for x in nums:
        res *= x
    return res
product(2, 3)
                           # => 6
nums = [2, 3, 4]
product(*nums)
                           # => 24
product(*nums, scale=2) # => 48
```

Variadic keyword arguments

```
Excess keyword arguments are packed into dict
def cite(quote, **info):
    print('>', quote)
    print('-' * (len(quote) + 2))
    for k, v in info.items():
        print(k, v, sep=': ')
cite('Readability counts.', # => > Readability counts.
     Title='The Zen of Python',
                                      Title: The Zen of Python
     Author='Tim Peters')
                                      Author: Tim Peters
```

Variadic keyword arguments

```
def cite(quote, **info):
    print('>', quote)
    print('-' * (len(quote) + 2))
    for k, v in info.items():
         print(k, v, sep=': ')
info = {
    'Title': 'The Zen of Python',
    'Author': 'Tim Peters'
                                    Unpack info dict into individual arguments
cite('Readability counts.', **info) # => > Readability counts.
                                             Title: The Zen of Python
                                             Author: Tim Peters
```

LBE: String formatting wrapper

```
def printf(frm str, *args, **kwargs):
    frm str = 'DEBUG: ' + frm str
    print(frm str.format(*args, **kwargs))
printf('{}, {}!', 'Hello', 'world!')
# => 'DEBUG: Hello, world!'
printf('{0}, {1}, {0}', 'first', 'second')
# => 'DEBUG: first, second, first'
printf('{} {e:.2f}', 3.14, e=2.71828)
# => 'DEBUG: 3.14 2.72'
```

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Scope in C++

```
std::string foo(bool test) {
    std::string msg = ""; *
    if(test) {
        int x; \leftarrow
        msg = "success!";
    } else {
        msg = "failure :(";
    return msg;
```

Need to declare msg outside of if statement so it's accessible for return

Braces create a new scope, so x is only accessible inside if statement

Scope in Python

```
def foo(test):
    if test:
        msg = 'success!'
    else:
        msg = 'failure :('
    return msg -
```

Only functions (and classes...) create new scope, and everything declared anywhere in the function is accessible

Querying scope

```
x = 1
def foo(y):
    z = 3
     print(locals())
     print(globals())
                                         ... because of lots of built-in things
foo(2) # => {'z': 3, 'y': 2}
           \# = \{ \ldots, 'x' : 1, \ldots \}
```

Variables bind to nearest scope

```
x in local and global scope
def foo(x):
     print(locals())
     print(globals())
                                       It picks the nearest scope for locals
foo(2) # => {'z': 3, 'x': 2}
            \# = \{ \ldots, 'x': 1, \ldots \}
                                        But globals are unchanged
```

Reading a file

```
f = open('input.txt', 'r')
f.readlines() # => ['From\n', 'the\n', 'file\n']
# some stuff
f.close()
```

Reading a file

```
f = open('input.txt', 'r')
f.readlines() # => ['From\n', 'the\n', 'file\n']
x = 1 / 0 # => ZeroDivisionError!
f.close()
```

Program crashes before releasing the file The OS won't be happy about that!

LBE: Reading a file

If there's an exception in the with block, f is properly destroyed

```
with open('input.txt', 'r') as f:
    lines = f.readlines()
print(lines) # => ['From\n', 'the\n', 'file\n']
    lines is still in scope
```

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Programming paradigms [1]

- Procedural (subcategory of Imperative): Programming with an explicit sequence of commands that updates state
 - Example: C
- Declarative: Programming by specifying the result you want, not how you get it
 - Examples: Prolog, SQL
- Object-Oriented: Programming by defining objects that send messages to each other over well-specified interfaces
 - Example: Java

Programming paradigms [1]

- Functional: Programming with function calls that avoid any global state
 - Example: Haskell
- Multi-Paradigm: Programming with multiple paradigms combined freely
 - Examples: C++, Python

Functional programming

- Program is composed of functions that do not have side effects
 - Do not modify global state
 - Do not perform I/O (e.g. printing on the screen is a side effect)
- Derived from lambda calculus
 - Easy to apply formal techniques
- Easy to reason about and test functions
- More conducive to being parallelized

type(example) != FunctionalProgramming

```
nums = [3, 4, 1, 5, 2]
nums.sort()
Side effect: nums is changed
print(nums) # => [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

type(example) == FunctionalProgramming

```
nums = [3, 4, 1, 5, 2]
sorted_nums = sorted(nums)

No side effects

print(nums)  # => [3, 4, 1, 5, 2]
print(sorted_nums)  # => [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

Higher order functions [2]

A function that does at least one of the following

- Takes one or more functions as arguments
- Returns a function

Functions are objects

Functions are objects

```
def foo(x):
    print('foo with {}'.format(x))

type(foo) # => <class 'function'>
foo(foo) # => foo with <function foo at 0x7f16530ede18>
```

Functions are objects

```
def add(x, y):
    return x + y
def operate(fun, x, y):
    return fun(x, y)
operate(add, 1, 2) # => 3
```

Function factory

```
def factory(x):
   def helper(y):
       return x + y
   return helper
add1 = factory(1)
add2 = factory(2)
add1(10) # => 11
add2(10) # => 12
factory(3)(10) # => 13
```

Function factory, detailed

```
def factory(x):
    def helper(y):
        return x + y
    return helper
Scope A

Scope B
```

```
add1 = factory(1)
add2 = factory(2)
add1(10)  # => 11
add2(10)  # => 12
factory(3)(10) # => 13
```

Scope B includes the values from Scope A

- Mutable types are copied by reference
- Immutable types are copied by value Imagine everything in Scope A being copied into Scope B using the assignment operator

LBE: Simple calculator paradigm

```
def add(x, y): return x + y
def sub(x, y): return x - y
def operate(op, x, y):
   if op == '+': func = add
    elif op == '-': func = sub
    return func(x, y)
operate('-', 1, 2) \# = > -1
```

LBE: Logging functions (before)

```
def printMsg(msg type, msg):
   print('{}: {}'.format(msg type, msg))
def printErrMsg(msg):
    printMsg('Error', msg)
def printWarnMsg(msg):
    printMsg('Warn', msg)
printErrMsg('no file!') # => 'Error: no file!'
printWarnMsg('found typo') # => 'Warn: found typo'
```

LBE: Logging functions (after)

```
def printMsg(msg type):
    def printMsgHelper(msg):
        print('{}: {}'.format(msg_type, msg))
    return printMsgHelper
printErrMsg = printMsg('Error')
printWarnMsg = printMsg('Warn')
printErrMsg('no file!') # => 'Error: no file!'
printWarnMsg('found typo') # => 'Warn: found typo'
```

LBE: Tail recursive sum

```
def sum(nums):
   def helper(nums, res):
       if nums:
           num = nums.pop()
           return helper(nums, res + num)
        return res
    return helper(nums, 0)
sum([1, 2, 3])
                 # => 6
helper([1, 2, 3], 0) # => NameError!
```

LBE: Tail recursive sum (corrected)

```
def sum(nums):
   def helper(nums, res):
       if nums:
           num = nums.pop()
           return helper(nums, res + num)
        return res
    return helper(nums.copy(), 0)
sum([1, 2, 3])
                 # => 6
helper([1, 2, 3], 0) # => NameError!
```

Don't forget the Zen

```
def sum(nums, idx=0, res=0):
    if idx < len(nums):
        num = nums[idx]
        return sum(nums, idx + 1, res + num)
    return res

sum([1, 2, 3]) # => 6
```

LBE: Closures

```
def create counter():
    count = 0
    def helper():
        count += 1
        return count
    return helper
counter = create counter()
                               # => UnboundLocalError!
counter()
counter()
```

LBE: Closures (corrected)

```
def create_counter():
    count = [0]
                                 No longer functional; helper modifies
    def helper():
                                 something outside its scope
        count[0] += 1
        return count[0]
    return helper
                                     Called a closure because it encompasses
                                     all state
counter1 = create_counter()
counter1()
                                  # => 1
counter1()
                                  # => 2
counter2 = create_counter()
counter2()
                                  # => 1
```

Key insights

- You have lots and lots of options
- Learning different design paradigms takes time
 - Eventually you'll know which is best for the job
- Don't get bogged down by everything that's available, and use what you're comfortable with...and then a little bit more

References

- [1] http://cs.lmu.edu/~ray/notes/paradigms/
- [2] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Higher-order function
- [3] http://stanfordpython.com/