# 732a74-le2

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# 1 Lecture 2: Functions and procedural abstraction, FP

- Functions
- Some brief notes on style, debugging and testing.
- Declarative patterns and functional programming.
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## 2 Bonus information

• Early preview of Python 3.8 available. (Featuring walrus operator, apparently).

# 2.1 Why procedural abstraction?

```
In []: # A totally made up script, that goes a little overboard (for demonstration purposes).

# First we read the data
with ...:
    # some lines

# Then remove all the duplicates
# ...

# Then extract the relevant parameters by some algorithm.

# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
# Make sure that model_is_consistent is True iff the model is consistent (with some pr
```

# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...

```
# ... many lines of code cut and pasted ...
        if model_is_consistent:
            # Lots of code for plotting.
            # (without any procedural abstraction this would be insane!)
In [1]: # Example, cleaned up.
        def run simulation(fname):
            """Generate a model of data in file fname, and plot it if consistent."""
            data = read data(fname)
            remove_duplicates(data)
            model = extracted_parameters(data)
            if model.is_consistent():
                plot(data, model)
        def read_data(fname):
            """Return the data contents of file named fname."""
            pass
        def remove_duplicates(dataset):
            """Remove duplicates from mutable input dataset."""
            pass
        def extracted_parameters(dataset):
            """Return a model based on the dataset, with features XYZ"""
            pass
```

- Structure and procedural abstraction.
  - Designing programs ("here I need something that reads the data and something that cleans up the input,..."), rather than "first I do instructions  $s_0, \ldots, s_{1000}$  then jump back to step  $s_{349}$  if x is even...").
  - Readability.
  - Encapsulating behaviour.
  - Modularity in testing. Did everything fail because of a mistake in the "remove duplicates" chunk of code? We can test that more easily now.
- Practical scripting issues:
  - less repeated code (less "did I remember to fix the bug in all of the copy-pasted code?").
  - redo this calculation, but with other inputs.
- ... and much more ...

Caveats: \*Sometimes having only a simple script makes sense. \*Sometimes replacing function calls with their code makes *enough* sense from a performance perspective.

## 2.2 Functions in Python

- Typically defined with def or a lambda.
- First-class (callable) values. *A function is just an object.* 
  - Corollary: you can't have two distinct f(x) and f(x,y) [without tricks].
- Called by function\_name(<arguments>).

give\_me\_five = lambda : 5

```
In [1]: def hungarian_method():
            print("My hovercraft is full of eels.")
        def print_args(x):
            print("I was called with: ", x)
            return x
In [2]: hungarian_method()
My hovercraft is full of eels.
In [4]: print_args(99)
I was called with: 99
Out[4]: 99
In [5]: print_args(99) + 1000
I was called with: 99
Out[5]: 1099
In [7]: # What will this do? Crash? Print? Return?
        print_args(hungarian_method)
I was called with: <function hungarian_method at 0x7fe97c4a21e0>
Out[7]: <function __main__.hungarian_method>
  • Lambdas contain a single expression, and have implicit return.
In [11]: # Single argument lambda
         sq = lambda x : x**2
         # Two argument lambda
         add = lambda x, y : x+y
         # No argument lambda
```

(Yes you can get around this, even without wrapping your code in a function, but you shouldn't. Use a def instead in that case.)

• When are arguments evaluated? Applicative-order evaluation.

```
In [15]: # What will this print?
         def f(n):
             print("--- Running f now!")
             return n
         print_args(print_args(f(100)))
--- Running f now!
I was called with: 100
I was called with: 100
Out[15]: 100
In [16]: # What happens to unused parameters?
         def test(use_2nd_arg, arg):
             if use_2nd_arg:
                 print(arg)
             else:
                 print("--- Didn't really need the value.")
         test(False, f(99))
```

```
--- Running f now!
--- Didn't really need the value.
```

Evaluates all arguments!

• Keyword arguments. Useful to clarify calls!

```
In [19]: test(arg=f(99), use_2nd_arg=False)
--- Running f now!
--- Didn't really need the value.
```

You can combine keyword arguments and regular positional, but positional come first. [Note: Core developer Raymond Hettinger argues for (over)using this in PyCon 2013: Transforming Code into Beautiful, Idiomatic Python]

• Default arguments. Should follow non-default arguments.

Helps with understanding the documentation.

```
In [30]: # What will happen here?
         def add_to_list(e, lst=[]):
             lst.append(e)
             return 1st
         my_list = add_to_list(999)
         add_to_list(123, my_list)
         print(my_list)
         my_other_list = add_to_list("bat")
         add_to_list("man", my_other_list)
         print(my_other_list)
[999, 123]
[999, 123, 'bat', 'man']
In [ ]: # Think about later.
        def add_to_list(e, lst=None):
            if 1st is None:
                lst = []
            lst.append(e)
            return 1st
```

- Functions can be defined within functions.
- Static/lexical scoping. What will the following print?

```
In [31]: # What will this print?

x = 5
    def f():
        print("I'm in f! Now x is ", x)

def g(x):
        print("I'm in g! Now x is ", x)
        f()

print("--- Calling f.")
    f()

print("--- Calling g (which in turn calls f).")
    g(99)
--- Calling f.
I'm in f! Now x is 5
```

```
--- Calling g (which in turn calls f). I'm in g! Now x is 99
I'm in f! Now x is 5
```

What x was where f() was called from doesn't matter.

- LEGB lookup (first Local, then Enclosing, Global and finally Builtin scope).
- Binds values locally (unless told otherwise).

```
In [32]: # What will happen?
         x = 1
         print("Before, x is", x)
         def f():
             print("In f, x is", x)
         f()
         print("Afterwards, x is", x)
Before, x is 1
In f, x is 1
Afterwards, x is 1
In [33]: # What will happen?
         x = 1
         print("Before, x is", x)
         def f():
             x = 5
             print("In f, x is", x)
         f()
         print("Afterwards, x is", x)
Before, x is 1
In f, x is 5
Afterwards, x is 1
In [34]: # What will happen?
         x = 1
         print("Before, x is", x)
         def f():
             x = x + 1
             print("In f, x is", x)
         f()
         print("Afterwards, x is", x)
```

```
UnboundLocalError
                                                   Traceback (most recent call last)
        <ipython-input-34-1c6c658e8533> in <module>()
               print("In f, x is", x)
    ---> 9 f()
         10 print("Afterwards, x is", x)
        <ipython-input-34-1c6c658e8533> in f()
          4 print("Before, x is", x)
          5 def f():
    ----> 6
               x = x + 1
          7
                print("In f, x is", x)
        UnboundLocalError: local variable 'x' referenced before assignment
In [ ]: # Exercise: play around with the keywords nonlocal and global.
  • Function + their scope/context (the latter word used losely) form a closure (or "lexical clo-
    sure").
In [37]: x = 1
         y = 2
         def f(x):
             def g():
                 print("In this g, x is", x, " and y is ", y)
             return g
         f(100)
         h100 = f(100)
         h55 = f(55)
In [39]: h55()
In this g, x is 55 and y is 2
In [40]: # Note: the lambda doesn't get x0 or x1 by parameter. It has to get them from somewhe
```

```
def points_close_to(points, x0, y0, max_dist):
    is_near = lambda coord : (coord[0] - x0)**2 + (coord[1] - y0)**2 <= max_dist**2
    return list(filter(is_near, points))

points = [ (1,2), (5,9), (3,3), (2, 5) ]
    points_close_to(points, 3,3, 3)

Out[40]: [(1, 2), (3, 3), (2, 5)]

In [170]: # Bonus exercise (way outside the scope of this course): can we reach into a closure
    # Python is flexible with certain things, and others not so much.

h100 = f(100)
    print(h100)
    # Play around with h100. Check the dunder methods. (those that start and end with ___</pre>

<function f.<locals>.g at 0x7f1758418598>
```

# 3 A note on naming, style, testing

- You should understand your code.
- Others should understand your code (and convince themselves of its correctness).
- ... one of those 'other people' is future you.

#### 3.0.1 Python function style interlude

Names that are visible to the user as public parts of the API should follow conventions that reflect usage rather than implementation.

The "Overriding Principle" from the official PEP 8 – Style Guide for Python Code. In other words: focus on *what* it does (or return), not *how* it does it.

```
---> 2 f(seq)
        <ipython-input-43-177c42108ed8> in f(x)
          3 \text{ def } f(x):
                for y in x:
    ---> 5
                    x[y] += 1
        IndexError: list index out of range
In [47]: d = {"a"} : 0, "b" : 1}
         f(d)
         d
Out[47]: {'a': 1, 'b': 2}
In [85]: def increment_vals(mapping):
             """Increase all values in dictionary mapping by one."""
             for key in mapping:
                 mapping [key] += 1  # note that mapping [key] += uses a method of the mappi
         help(increment_vals)
Help on function increment_vals in module __main__:
increment_vals(mapping)
    Increase all values in dictionary mapping by one.
In [86]: # Clarification after lecture: ad hoc code to demonstrate modifications within an obj
         # (As opposed to changing what a certain name means locally, see result = \dots example
         def square(seq):
             for i, val in enumerate(seq):
                 \#seq[i] = val*val \# change something at place i
                 seq.append(val*val) # even clearer extension.
         # rule of thumb: brackets and = or += likely changes
In [52]: increment_vals.__doc__
Out[52]: 'Increase all values in dictionary mapping by one.'
  Consider * function name. * parameter names. * variables.
In [41]: help(max)
```

```
Help on built-in function max in module builtins:
max(...)
  max(iterable, *[, default=obj, key=func]) -> value
  max(arg1, arg2, *args, *[, key=func]) -> value

With a single iterable argument, return its biggest item. The
  default keyword-only argument specifies an object to return if
  the provided iterable is empty.
  With two or more arguments, return the largest argument.
```

**Not** required in labs, but useful. Official guidelines: PEP 257 – Docstring Conventions.

#### 3.1 A few general hints for design and naming

Caveat: large subject, involving personal preferences and official guidelines (sometimes at company level).

- Struggling with naming can mean that a function does too many different things.
  - Separate effects (print this, write file, change data by deaveraging...) from computation (is this valid data? What is the mean of this?).
- Take the calling function's perspective when naming.
  - Ex: When writing a consistency-checking function, consider if if is\_consistent(data) ... would more sense than if calculate\_if\_data\_consistent(data) ... for the function calling the one you're writing.
- **Don't mislead**. is\_consistent(data) should test if it is consistent, not change the data, print something or the like.
- **Consider the application!** What does the name represent? (Cf last lecture.)

- In *small-scale* top-down design, creating "empty" functions with a certain contract can be helpful.
  - Example: "In my program I will need a function read\_data which takes a file name for a CSV file and returns a data set on format X." (this is the contract) "I'll define it, and fill it in later."
  - A Python function body cannot be empty. pass is your friend.

## 3.2 A note on testing and (unsystematic) debugging

It has been just so in all of my inventions. The first step is an intuition, and comes with a burst, then difficulties arise - this thing gives out and [it is] then that 'Bugs' - as such little faults and difficulties are called - show themselves and months of intense watching, study and labor are requisite.

Thomas Edison, quoted in Ammann & Offutt (2017) - Intro to Software Testing, 2nd ed.

- Plenty of tools out there for debugging.
  - One example: pdb.
- We will focus on simpler print-style and asserts.

```
In [2]: def is_prime(x):
            # Check to see if we can find something that divides the number.
            answer = True
            for y in range(2,x):
                #print("is", x, "div by", y)
                if x % y == 0:
                    answer = False
                    return False
                #print(answer)
            return answer
        # Print values.
        # What is the expected state? Should False change to True? True to False?...
        # Errors. Runtime. (not nice way)
        is_prime(53)
Out[2]: True
In [72]: is_prime(4)
is 4 div by 1
is 4 div by 2
is 4 div by 3
Out [72]: True
  What are the issues? Found how?
In [222]: # What is expected?
          # Printing!
          #...
Out[222]: True
In [1]: def update_result(result, i):
            # print("update result got: ", result, i)
            result = result + i  # Merely changes the label "result".
            # With brackets, .append or the like => probably changes the
            # state of the object.
            \# This only sticks the local label "result" on old result + i
        def sum_values(n):
            result = 0
            for i in range(n):
                print("Before: ", result)
```

```
update_result(result, i) # Original line from the code.
                result = result + i
                print("After: ", result) # Strategy: we printed before and expected this to
                print()
            return result
       print(sum_values(5))
Before: 0
After: 0
Before: 0
After: 1
Before: 1
After: 3
Before: 3
After: 6
Before: 6
After: 10
10
In [3]: # Bonus segment: an obvious programming way to make it faster (without square roots et
        # Declarative,
        def is_prime_length_based(n):
            return len([d for d in range(2,n) if n % d == 0]) == 0
            # could be written not len(...)
        def is_prime_breaking(n):
           return None not in (None for d in range(2,n) if not n % d)
        # What happens if we change () into []?
        import profile
        N = 999999999
        print("--- is_prime")
       profile.run("is_prime({})".format(N))
       print("--- is_prime_breaking")
       profile.run("is_prime_breaking({})".format(N))
       print("--- is_prime_length_based")
       profile.run("is_prime_length_based({})".format(N))
```

### --- is\_prime

5 function calls in  $0.000 \ \text{seconds}$ 

## Ordered by: standard name

ncalls	tottime	percall	cumtime	percall	filename:lineno(function)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	:0(exec)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	:0(setprofile)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	<pre><ipython-input-2-140e1278863b>:1(is_prime)</ipython-input-2-140e1278863b></pre>
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	<pre><string>:1(<module>)</module></string></pre>
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	<pre>profile:0(is_prime(99999999))</pre>
0	0.000		0.000		<pre>profile:0(profiler)</pre>

## --- is\_prime\_breaking

7 function calls in 0.000 seconds

### Ordered by: standard name

ncalls	tottime	percall	cumtime	percall	filename:lineno(function)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	:0(exec)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	:0(setprofile)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	<pre><ipython-input-3-ee01cef06ea4>:8(is_prime_breaking)</ipython-input-3-ee01cef06ea4></pre>
2	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	<pre><ipython-input-3-ee01cef06ea4>:9(<genexpr>)</genexpr></ipython-input-3-ee01cef06ea4></pre>
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	<string>:1(<module>)</module></string>
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	<pre>profile:0(is_prime_breaking(99999999))</pre>
0	0.000		0.000		<pre>profile:0(profiler)</pre>

# --- is\_prime\_length\_based

7 function calls in 6.200 seconds

### Ordered by: standard name

ncalls	tottime	percall	cumtime	percall	filename:lineno(function)
1	0.000	0.000	6.200	6.200	:0(exec)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	:0(len)
1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	:0(setprofile)
1	0.000	0.000	6.200	6.200	<pre><ipython-input-3-ee01cef06ea4>:4(is_prime_length</ipython-input-3-ee01cef06ea4></pre>
1	6.200	6.200	6.200	6.200	<pre><ipython-input-3-ee01cef06ea4>:5(<listcomp>)</listcomp></ipython-input-3-ee01cef06ea4></pre>
1	0.000	0.000	6.200	6.200	<string>:1(<module>)</module></string>
1	0.000	0.000	6.200	6.200	<pre>profile:0(is_prime_length_based(99999999))</pre>
0	0.000		0.000		<pre>profile:0(profiler)</pre>

• We can add assertions to show that our (pure) function passed some useful tests. Corner

cases to illustrate?

```
In [92]: # assert is_prime(???) == ???, "????"
    assert True, "this should succeed"
    #assert False, "this should fail"
    assert not is_prime(4), "known non-prime 4 should not be considered prime"
    assert is_prime(2), "the even number 2 should be considered prime"
    #assert ...

# assert statement

# Add corner cases. 2 is the only non-odd prime. Empty lists...
# Cases both for expected success and failure.

print("All tests OK.")
All tests OK.
```

[Note: We might have other forms of properties that might be suitable for automatic testing. For instance "all return values should be True/False", "all multiples of two integers should be non-prime" or the like. This is outside the scope of this course, but an interesting subject to look into.

Modest focus here: strategies to find good test cases to convince ourselves somewhat.]

• Some of these can be expressed as input-output pairs. How to use?

```
In [98]: def test_is_prime():
    # tuple of test cases
    tests = (
        (4, False, "known non-prime 4 should not be considered prime"),
        (2, True, "the even number 2 should be considered prime"))

for inputs, expected_output, error_msg in tests:
        assert is_prime(inputs) == expected_output, error_msg

print("--- test_is_prime succeeded")
test_is_prime()

--- test_is_prime succeeded
```

## 3.3 New type interlude: namedtuples

• [Note and heading added after lecture, for easy reference.] Behave like tuples, but also allow member access by names. Eg mytuple.args instead of mytuple[0]. Enhanced readability.

```
def test_is_prime():
    # tuple of test cases
    tests = (
        test_case(4, False, "known non-prime 4 should not be considered prime"),
        test_case(2, True, "the even number 2 should be considered prime"))

for case in tests:
        assert is_prime(case.args) == case.expected_output, case.error_msg

        print("--- test_is_prime succeeded")
        test_is_prime()
--- test is prime succeeded
```

[Note: we can test functions which depend on state as well. We need to set up (relevant) state, run tests and tear it down afterwards. You might want to look at eg unittest or other frameworks if you are interested in this.]

# 4 Paradigms

- Philosophies about code.
  - Execution model.
  - Code organization.
- Python is a multi-paradigm language (sort of).

# 5 Functional programming

- Typically declarative.
- Purity (see below) makes it easy to reason about. (Not necessarily write...)
  - In particular for parallel computation.
  - MapReduce.

#### 5.0.1 Pure functions

- No side causes.
  - Doesn't depend on the state (of the world).

```
In [123]: import datetime

    def has_side_causes():
        return datetime.datetime.now()

    def no_side_causes():
```

- No side effects.
  - Doesn't change the state of the world.

Corollary: In (purely) functional programming, \* there will be less of hidden dependencies on state. \* reduced complexity. \* referential transparency. Calling function f with input X will always yield the same result. \* mathematical resoning useful (not just "do X, then Y").

## 5.1 Feature: higher order functions

• Functions with functions as outputs are generally considered higher-order. Have you seen those before? (Functions + scope.)

```
In [2]: # Exercise.
```

• Similarly with functions taking functions as input, or returning functions as output.

```
In [202]: # Implementing our own filter, with a list comprehension.

def points_satisfying(points, to_keep): # to_keep behaves as a function
    """Return a list of points which satisfy the criterion set out by the to_keep fu
    return [p for p in points if to_keep(p)] # if we treat it like one

points = [ (1,2), (-2,3), (5,100) , (0,-1) ]
    points_satisfying(points, lambda p : p[0] >= 0 and p[1] >= 0)
```

### 5.2 Declarative patterns

Out[202]: [(1, 2), (5, 100)]

- Many declarative-style patterns are Pythonic.
- Often implemented with iterators.
- Useful to chain together, one result feeding into the next.
- Often well-implemented.
- Example: map.

```
Out[124]: (1, 4, 9)
In [125]: # Caveat: in Python this produces something which generates the values as you ask fo
          squares = map(lambda x : x**2, [1,2,3])
          print(squares)
          print(list(squares)) # Consumes all the values.
          print(tuple(squares)) # All consumed.
<map object at 0x7fe97c3f2d30>
[1, 4, 9]
()
  Corollary: this can be quite efficient. Doesn't generate values in vain.
  • Example: filter
In [126]: # filter keeps those values which conform to a predicate (function which - ideally -
          # on if a criterion has been satisfied).
          is_even = lambda n : n \% 2 == 0
                                           # could be written "not n % 2"
          filter(is_even, [1,2,3])
          list(filter(is_even, [1,2,3]))
Out[126]: [2]
  • Example reduce.
In [232]: from functools import reduce
          reduce(lambda acc, e : [acc] + [e], [1,2,3, 4]) # [ [[1,2]] + [3]] + [4]
Out[232]: [[[1, 2], 3], 4]
  • These can be combined.
In [129]: sq = lambda x : x**2
          seq = range(100)
          square_evens = map(sq, filter(lambda n : n % 2 == 0, seq))
          #list(square_evens)
Out[129]: [0,
           4,
           16,
           36,
           64,
           100,
           144,
```

196, 256, 324, 400, 484, 576, 676, 784, 900, 1024, 1156, 1296, 1444, 1600, 1764, 1936, 2116, 2304, 2500, 2704, 2916, 3136, 3364, 3600, 3844, 4096, 4356, 4624, 4900, 5184, 5476, 5776, 6084, 6400, 6724, 7056, 7396, 7744, 8100, 8464, 8836, 9216,

### 5.3 A note on recursion

9604]

- Practiced in lab 2B.
- Function values defined in terms... of function values.

- Focus on mathematical identities.
- Sometimes useful in its own right.
- Sometimes inefficient, but useful when turned into non-recursive algorithms.
- Use cases here: many tree-structures.
- Strategy
  - "Pretend" that we know the solution to a smaller case, extend that.
  - What do we know about the *smallest* case (or the smallest cases)?

```
In [4]: # What is the sum 0 + 1 + ... + (n-1) + n?

# Helper function (during program construction).
def sum_reference(n):
    """Return the sum 0+...+n."""
    return sum(range(n+1))

# If we knew the sum 0 + 1 + ... + (n-1)?

def sum_rec(n):
    pass
```

- Handwaving explanation above. Good mathematical foundations.
  - Closely related to inductive proofs.
  - Well-orderings.
- Sanity checks:
  - base case (or base cases). No more subdivision of the problem. Typical examples: empty list, zero, reached the leaves in a decision tree.
  - recursive case. Split into smaller case, and write the solution to this case. (Typically: rest of the list, traverse left or/and right branches of the tree...)