Functions

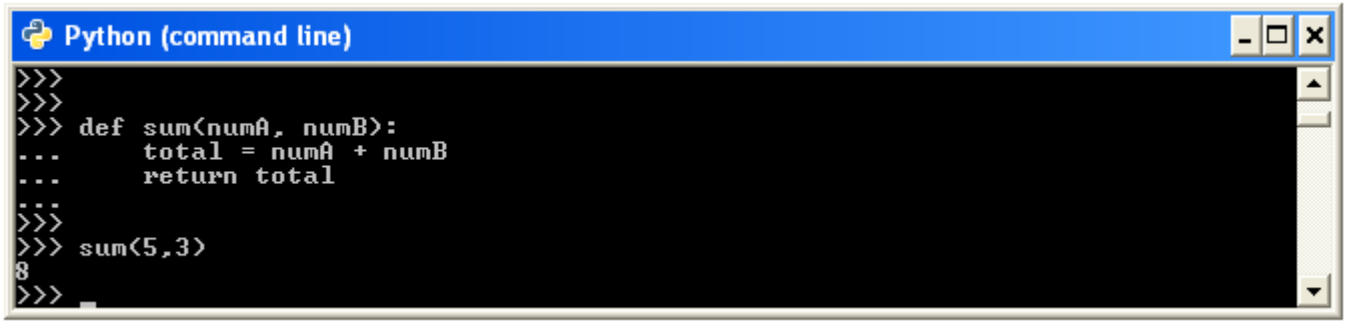
Introduction

- Each function is a collection of statements that can be executed more than once in a program.
- Functions can receive arguments and they can calculate and return a value back to the caller.

The `def` Statement

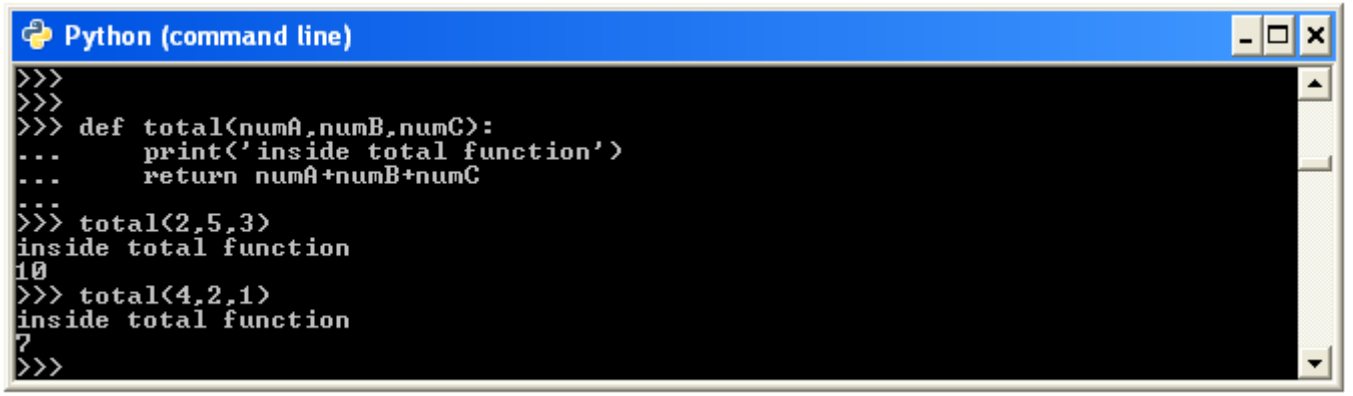
- We create a function by calling the def statement. Each function we create is assigned with a name. We can later use that name in order to call it.

```
def function_name (param1, param2, param3,... paramN):
    statements
```



The `def` Statement

- The execution of '`def`' takes place in run-time. Only then the object function is created.



- The definition of our function is a statement. We can place a function definition wherever we can place a statement.

The `def` Statement

```
def sum(a,b):
    total = a + b
    return total

print(sum(4,3))
```

The `def` Statement

- We can place different definitions for the same function and using a simple if statement choosing which of those versions will be defined.

```
...
if test:
    def func():
        ...
else:
    def func():
        ...
...
```

The `def` Statement

- Each function is just an object. The name assigned to each function is just a name. We use that name in order to call the function.

Function Attributes

- Because a function is an object we can add new attributes we choose.

```
def sum(a,b):
    c = a + b
    return c

sum.version = 101
sum.author = "haim michael"
sum.priority = 3
print(sum.author)
```

Variables Scope

- The place where we assign a name with a value in our code determines its scope.
- Names we assign within the scope of a function are considered as local variables. When the function ends they disappear.
- Names we assign within the scope of an enclosing def are considered as non local to the nested function.
- Names we assign outside of all functions are globals.

The Local Scope

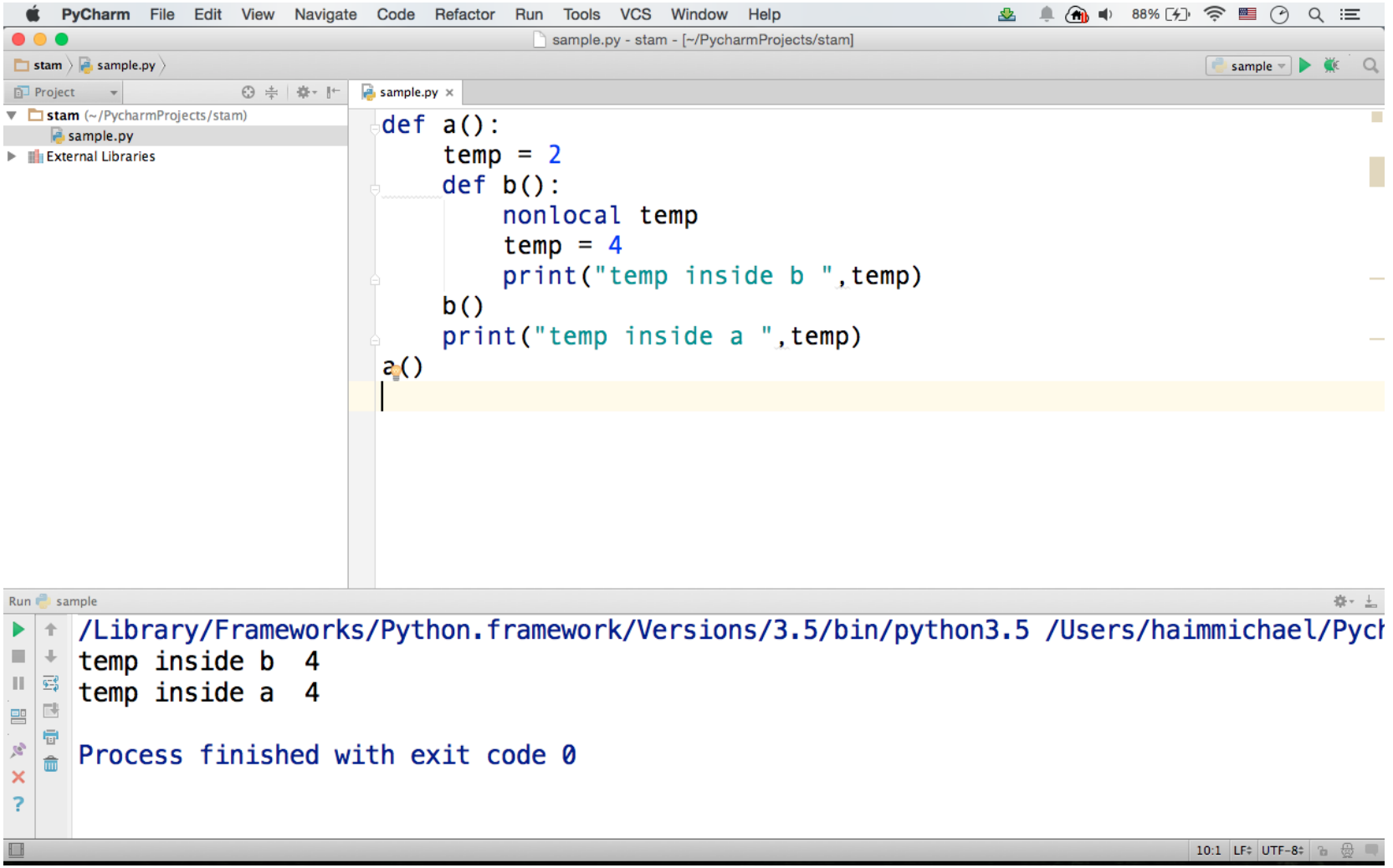
- Each time a function is called a new local scope is created. We can think of using '`def`' as of creating a new local scope. Each function call creates a new local scope. This behavior allows us to code recursive functions.

The `nonlocal` Keyword

- Adding the `nonlocal` keyword will turn the variable into a local variable that belongs to the enclosing scope.

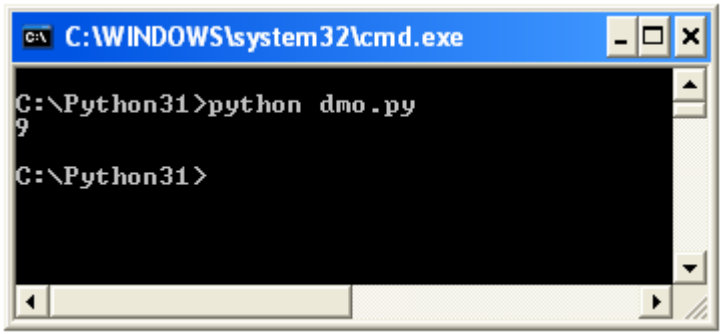
```
def a():
    temp = 2
    def b():
        nonlocal temp
        temp = 4
        print("temp inside b ",temp)
    b()
    print("temp inside a ",temp)
a()
```

The `nonlocal` Keyword



The `nonlocal` Statement

```
def doSomethingA():
    number = 7
    def doSomethingB():
        nonlocal number;
        number = 9;
    doSomethingB()
    print(number)

doSomethingA()
```



The Global Scope

- Each module is considered as a global scope. Each module has its own namespace.
- Variables we create within a given module become attributes of the module object itself.
- The global scope spans over one single file only. Variables created in one file aren't accessible from other files.

The Global Scope

- If we want to use variables created in a specific module (file) outside of it we must import that module (file).

The Global Scope

```
import other
sum = other.temp + 2
print(sum)
```

demo.py

```
temp = 12
```

other.py

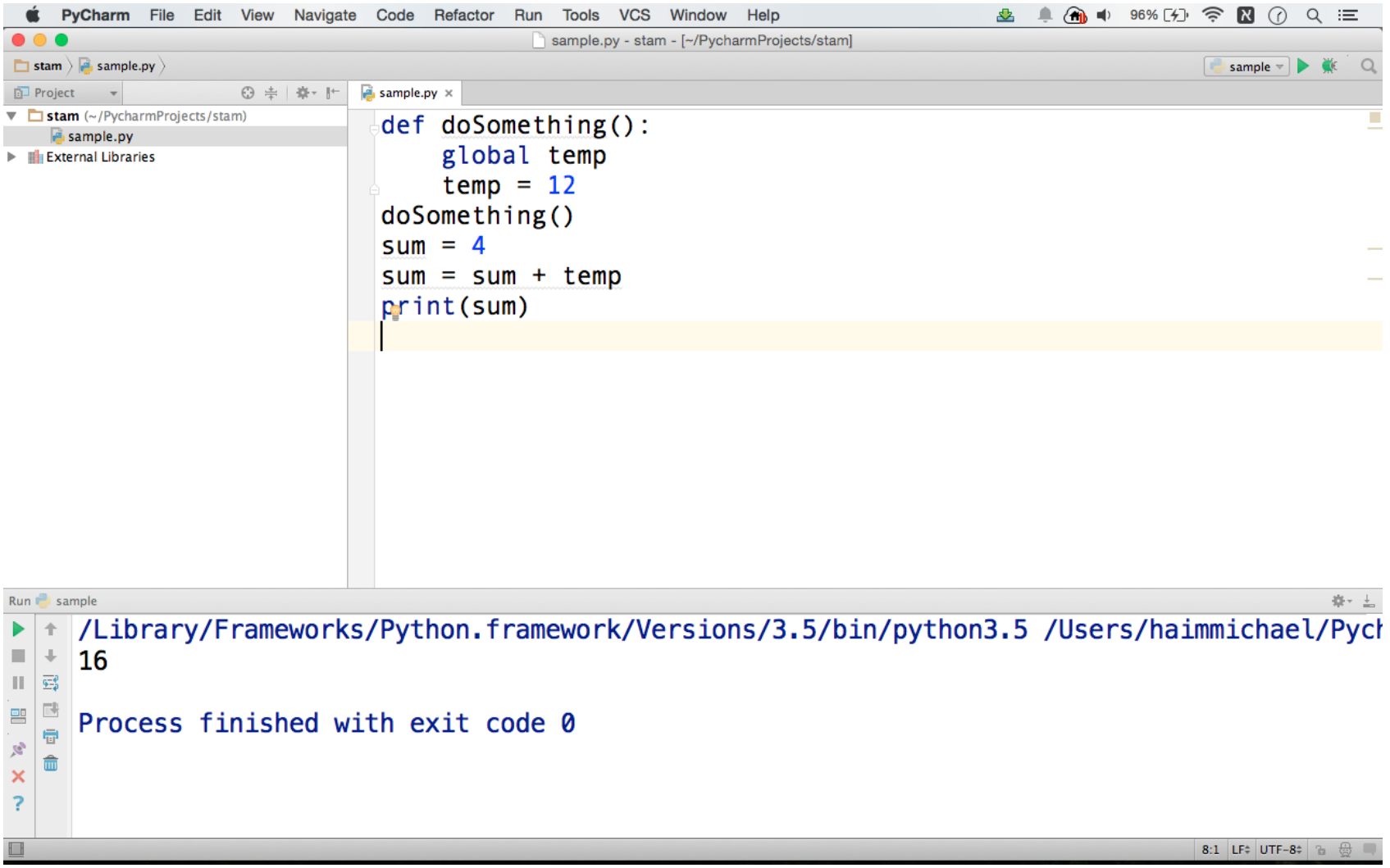
The Global Scope

- Defining a variable within a function together with the '`global`' keyword will turn it into a global variable.
- The variable will become a global variable for the top level enclosing module.

The Global Scope

```
def doSomething():
    global temp
    temp = 12
doSomething()
sum = 4
sum = sum + temp
print(sum)
```

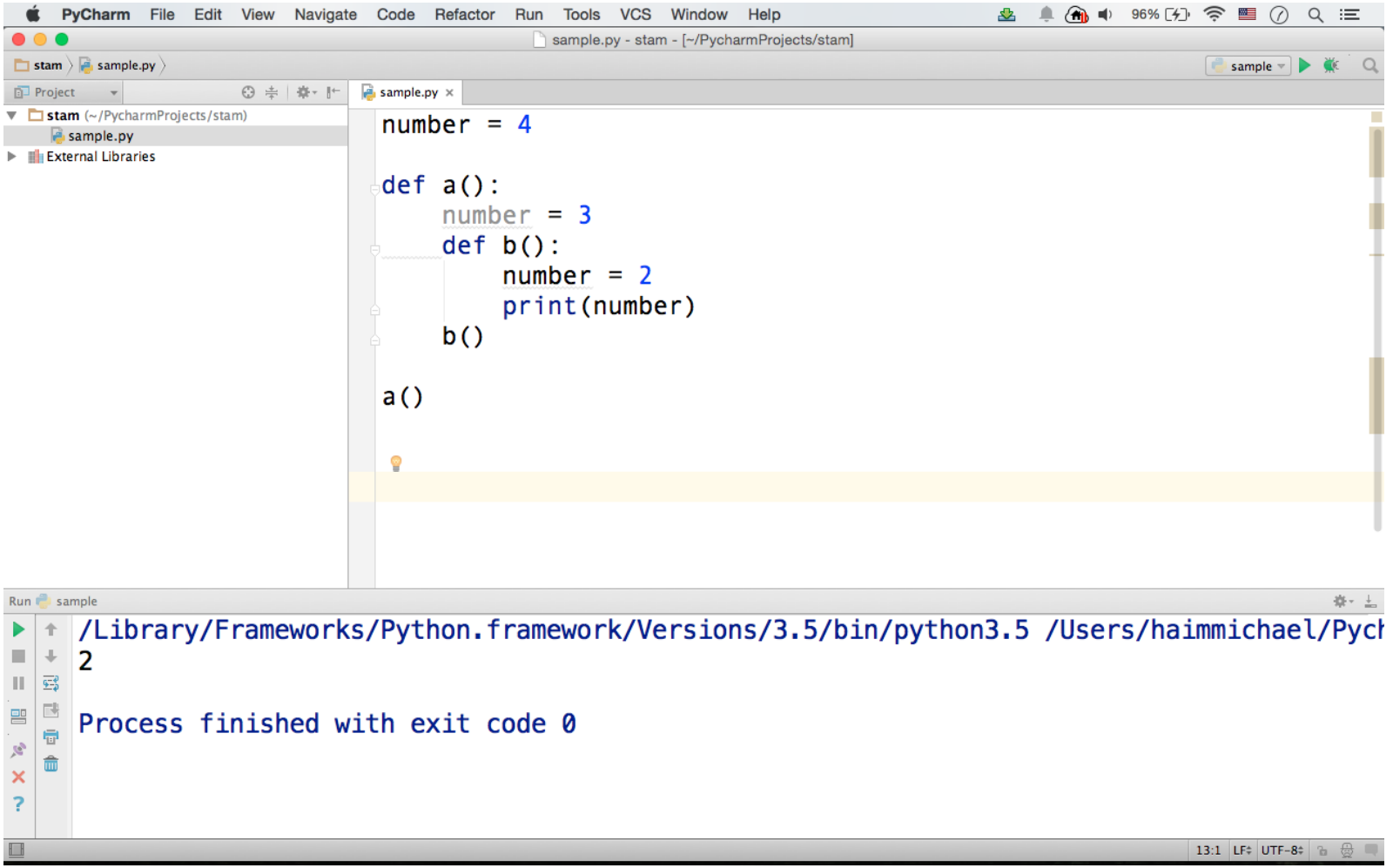
The Global Scope



The LEGB Rule

- When referring a name in our code the search is carried on through the following four scopes: `local`, `enclosing`, `global` and `built-in`.
- LEGB stands for Local, Enclosing, Global and Built-in.

The LEGB Rule

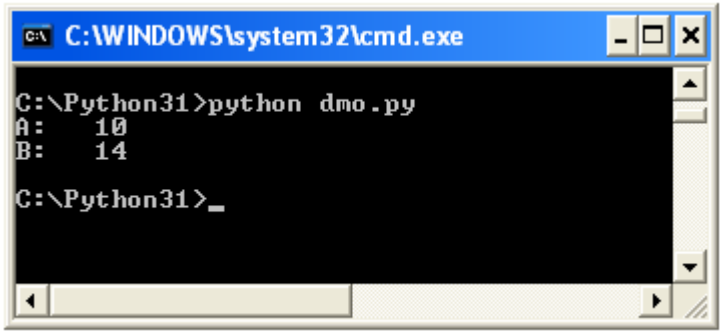


Accessing Globals

- Using the `global` keyword we can specify a specific variable we want to be treated as if it is a global variable.

Accessing Globals

```
number = 10

def doSomethingA():
    number = 12

def doSomethingB():
    global number
    number = 14

doSomethingA()
print("A:  ",number)

doSomethingB()
print("B:  ",number)
```



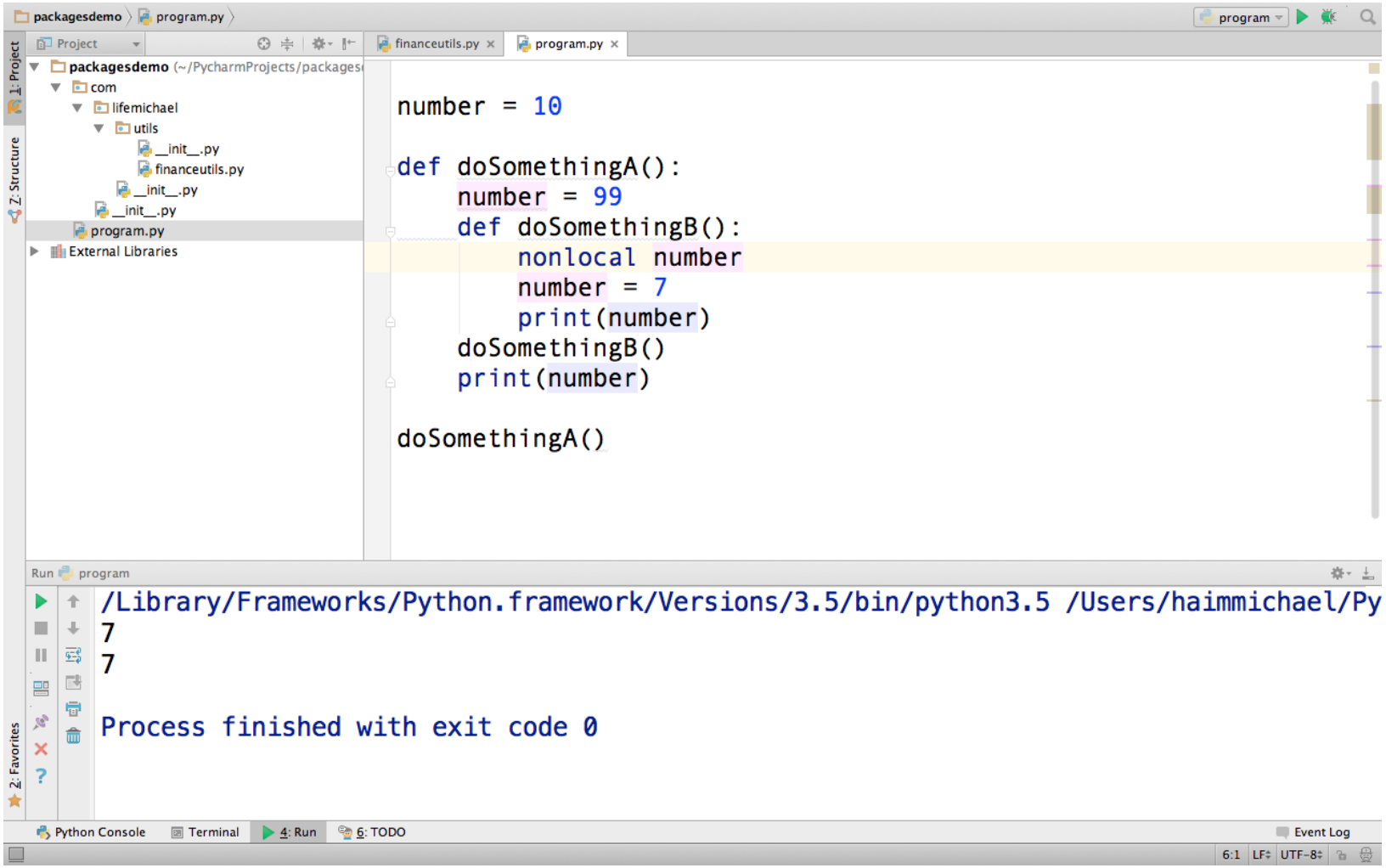
Nested Functions

- Defining functions we can get them one within the other.
- Referencing a variable ('x') from within a given current scope (function) first searches for a lexically enclosing function. From inner to outer till reaching the current global scope (the module file).

Nested Functions

- If the variable (x) is referenced as a `nonlocal` variable within our function the assignment will change the variable (x) in the closest enclosing function's local scope.

Nested Functions

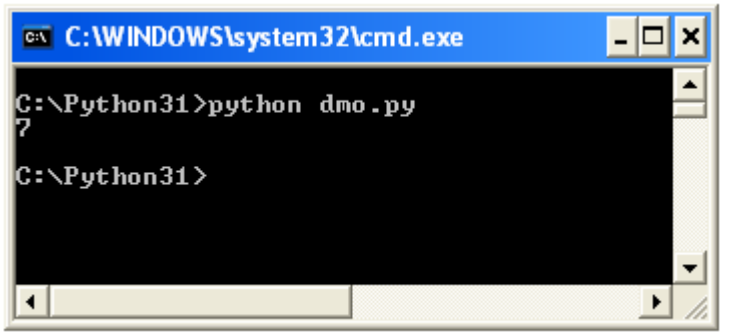


Returned Functions

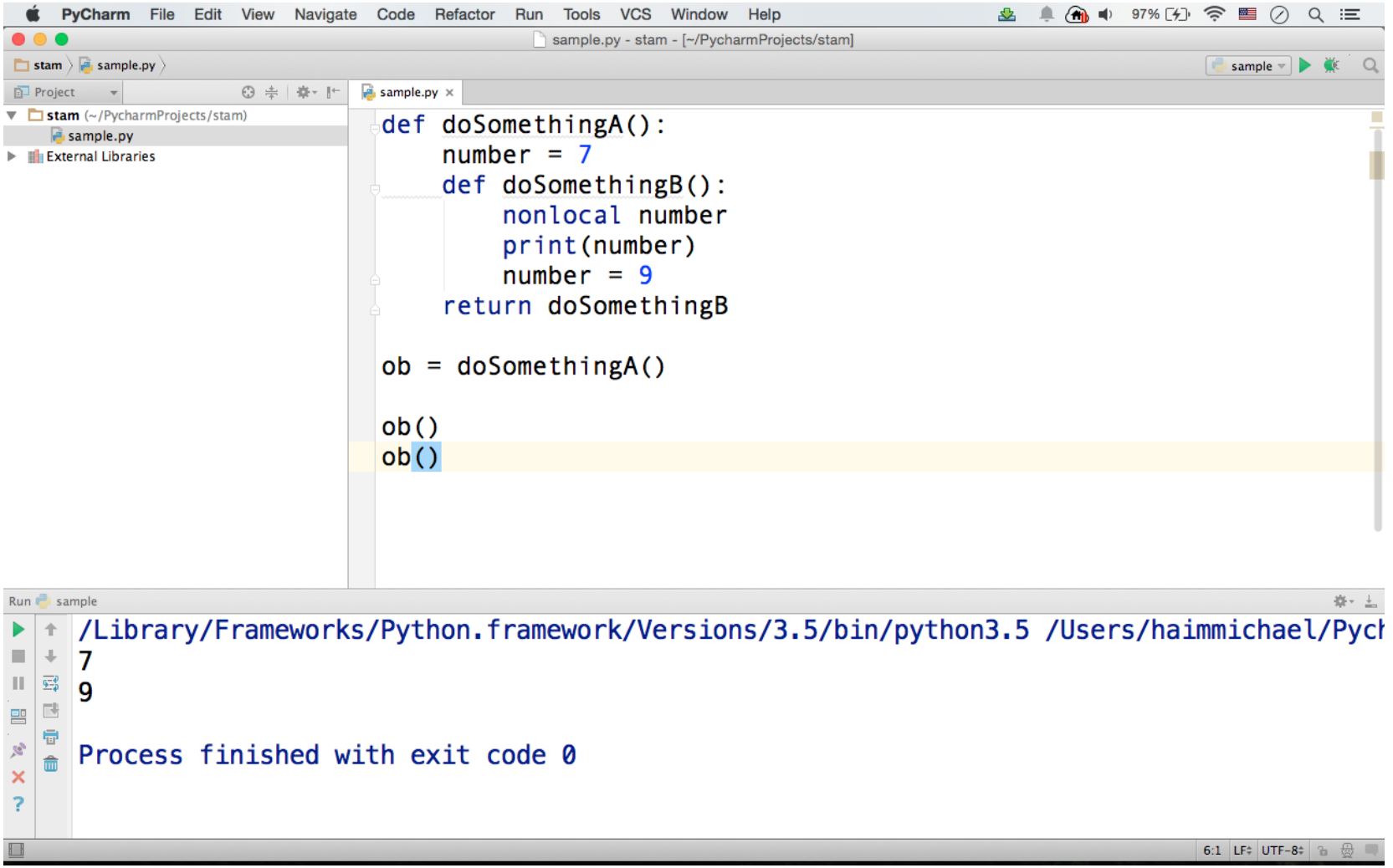
- We can define a function that its returned value is another function.
- When one function returns a function it includes its definition.
- The returned function is capable of referring variables that belong to the scope of the outer one.

Returned Functions

```
def doSomethingA():
    number = 7
    def doSomethingB():
        print(number)
    return doSomethingB

ob = doSomethingA()

ob()
```



Returned Functions



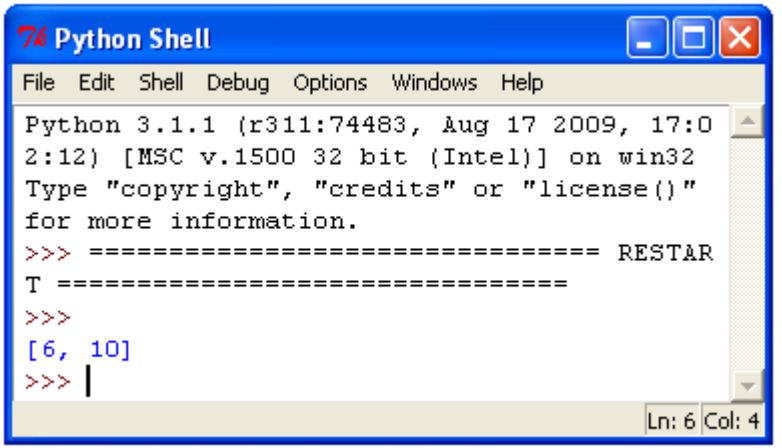
Arguments

- When calling a function passing over names, we actually pass the references held by these names.
- Assigning new references to the parameter names within the function scope doesn't effect the names the caller passed.
- Changing a mutable object from within the function the caller code should feel that as well.

Sequence Returned Value

- We can define a function that returns a tuple, or any other sequence type.

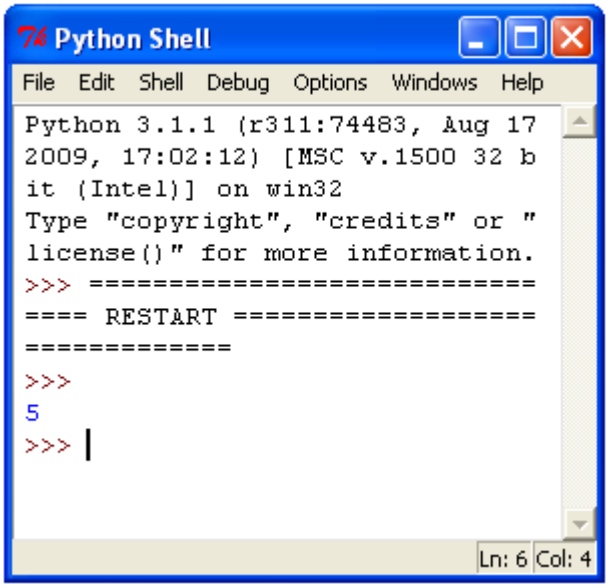
```
#dmo

def f(a,b):
    numA = 2 * a
    numB = 2 * b
    return [numA,numB]

x = f(3,5)

print(x)
```



The `func(name)` Syntax

- By default, the arguments we pass must match by position, left to right, and we must pass exactly as many arguments as required.

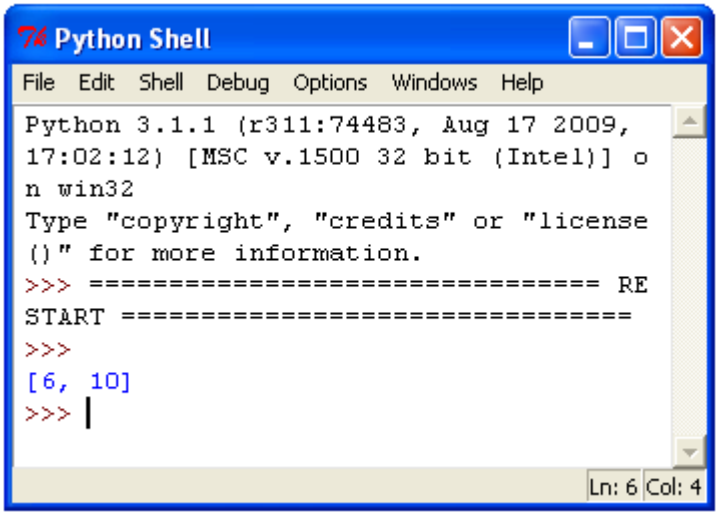
```
def f(a,b):
    sum = a+b
    print(sum)

f(2,3)
```



The `func(name=value)` Syntax

- Calling a function we can specify which parameters should receive a value by using the argument's name in the `name=value` syntax.

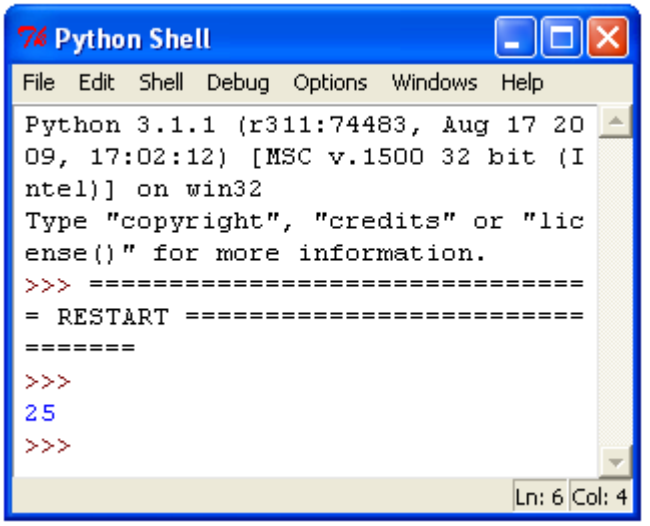
```
#dmo

def f(a,b):
    numA = 2 * a
    numB = 2 * b
    return [numA,numB]

x = f(a=3,b=5)

print(x)
```



The `func(*name)` Syntax

- Adding * to the sequence we pass over to the function, the function will be capable of unpacking the passed argument into discrete separated parameters.

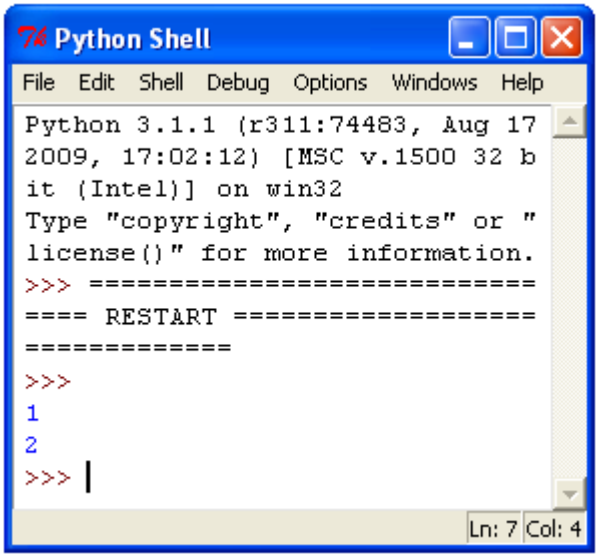
```
def f(x1,y1,x2,y2):
    return (y2-y1)*(y2-y1)+(x2-x1)*(x2-x1)

ob = [0,0,4,3]
num = f(*ob)
print(num)
```



The `func(**name)` Function

- Adding ** to the argument name, when calling the function a collection of key/value pairs in the form of a dictionary will be expected to be passed over to the function as individual keyword arguments.

```
def f(a,b):
    print(a)
    print(b)

ob = {'a':1,'b':2}
f(**ob)
```



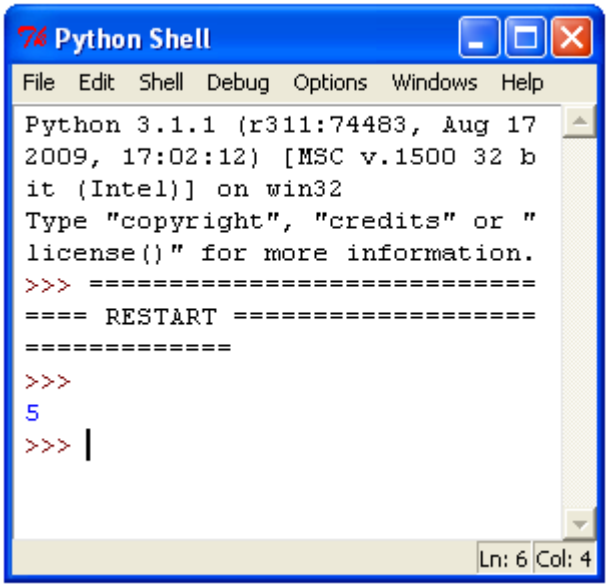
The `func(**name)` Function

- When defining a function we must specify the parameters in the following order. The first should be the normal parameters. After these parameters we should specify the default parameters followed by the *name parameters and followed by the **name ones.

The `def func(name)` Syntax

- Defining a simple function, the passed values should match by position or name.

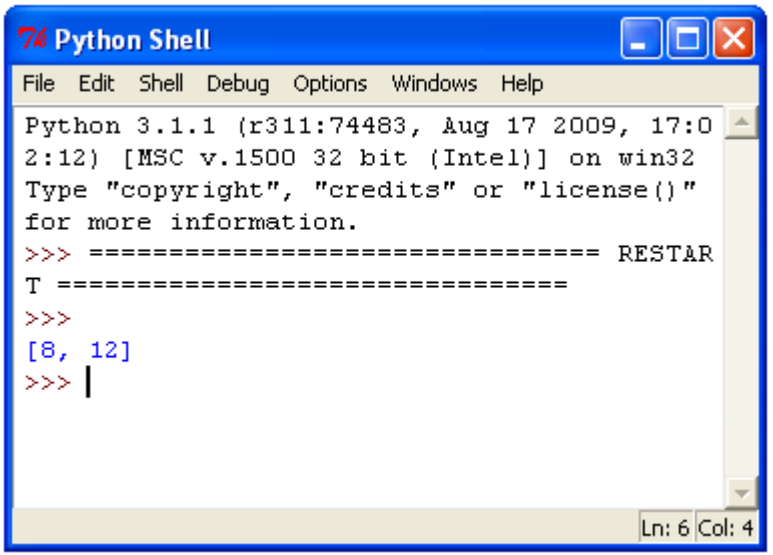
```
def f(a,b):
    sum = a+b
    print(sum)

f(2,3)
```



The `def func(name=value)` Syntax

- Defining a function we can use the argument's name in the `name=value` syntax in order to specify default values for specific arguments.

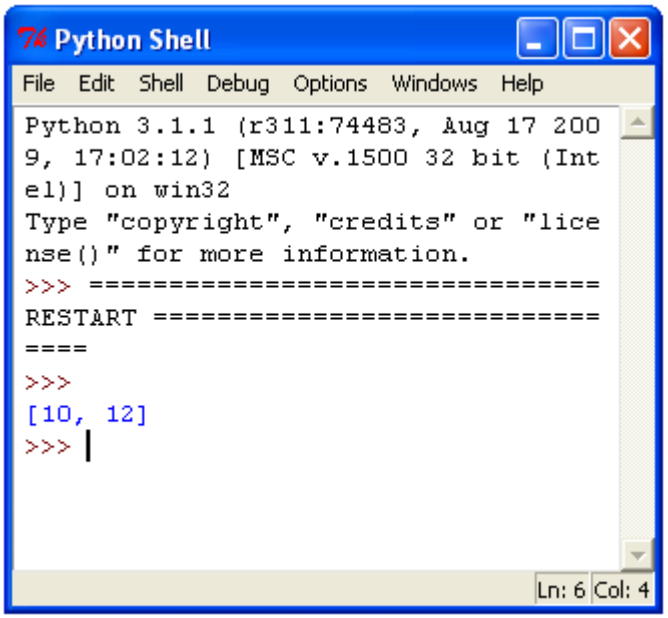
```
def f(a=4,b=6):
    numA = 2 * a
    numB = 2 * b
    return [numA,numB]

x = f()

print(x)
```



The `def func(name=value)` Syntax

- This code sample includes a function with two parameters. The first is a normal positioned one. The second has a default value.

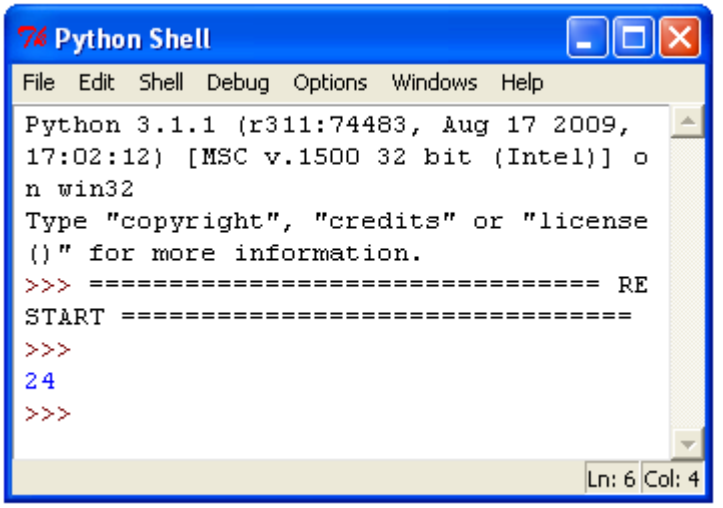
```
def f(a,b=6):
    numA = 2 * a
    numB = 2 * b
    return [numA,numB]

x = f(5)

print(x)
```



The `def func(*name)` Syntax

- Adding * to the parameter name in the function definition collects unmatched positional arguments into a tuple.

```
#dmo

def sum(*tpl):
    sum = 0
    for num in tpl:
        sum = sum + num
    return sum

print(sum(3,4,6,2,3,6))
```



The `def func(*name)` Syntax

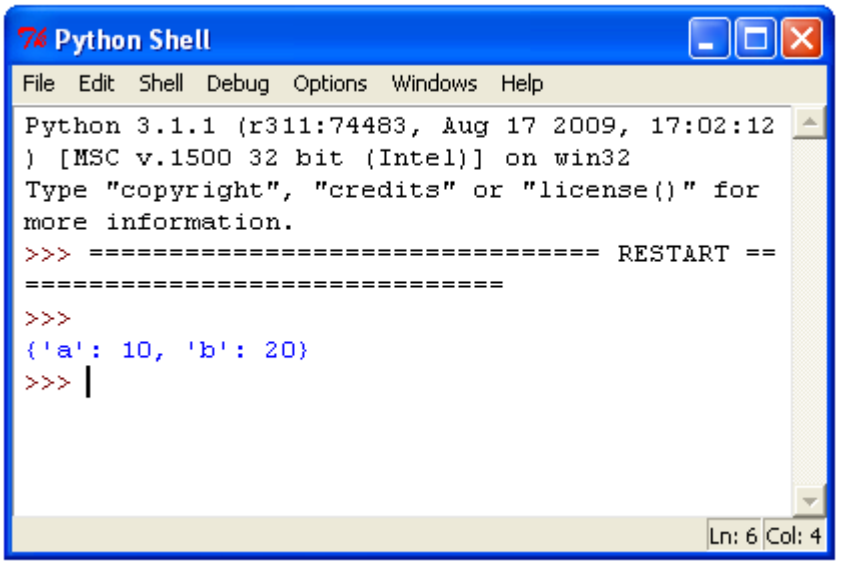
- It is common to name the parameter in these cases with `args`. This way it is clear that the function can get any number of arguments. They will be all packed in one itrable object.

```
def sum(*args):
    sum = 0
    for num in tpl:
        sum = sum + num
    return sum

print(sum(3,4,6,2,3,6))
```

The `def func(**name)` Syntax

- Adding ** to the parameter name in the function definition collects unmatched positional arguments into a dictionary.

```
def f(**args):
    print(args)

f(a=10,b=20)
```



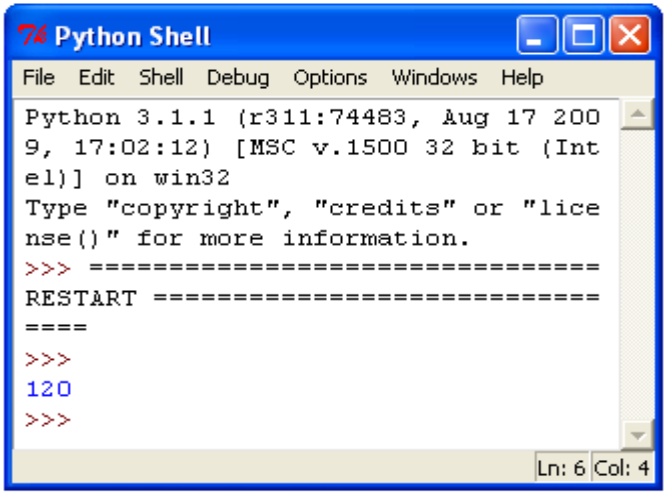
The `def func(**name)` Syntax

- Adding ** to the parameter name in the function definition collects unmatched positional arguments into a dictionary.

Indirect Function Call

- When assigning a function to one of our variables we can append `()` to that variable and use it in order to call that function.

```
def factorial(a):
    if a==0:
        return 1
    else:
        return a * factorial(a-1)

f = factorial
print(f(5))
```



Functions Are Objects

- Because the functions are objects we can process a function as any other object.

```
>>> dir(factorial)
['__annotations__', '__call__', '__class__', '__closure__',
'__code__', '__defaults__', '__delattr__', '__dict__',
'__doc__', '__eq__', '__format__', '__ge__', '__get__',
'__getattribute__', '__globals__', '__gt__', '__hash__',
'__init__', '__kwdefaults__', '__le__', '__lt__',
'__module__', '__name__', '__ne__', '__new__', '__reduce__',
'__reduce_ex__', '__repr__', '__setattr__', '__sizeof__',
'__str__', '__subclasshook__']
>>>
```

Function Annotations

- When we define a function we can optionally specify the types of its parameters and the type of the returned value.

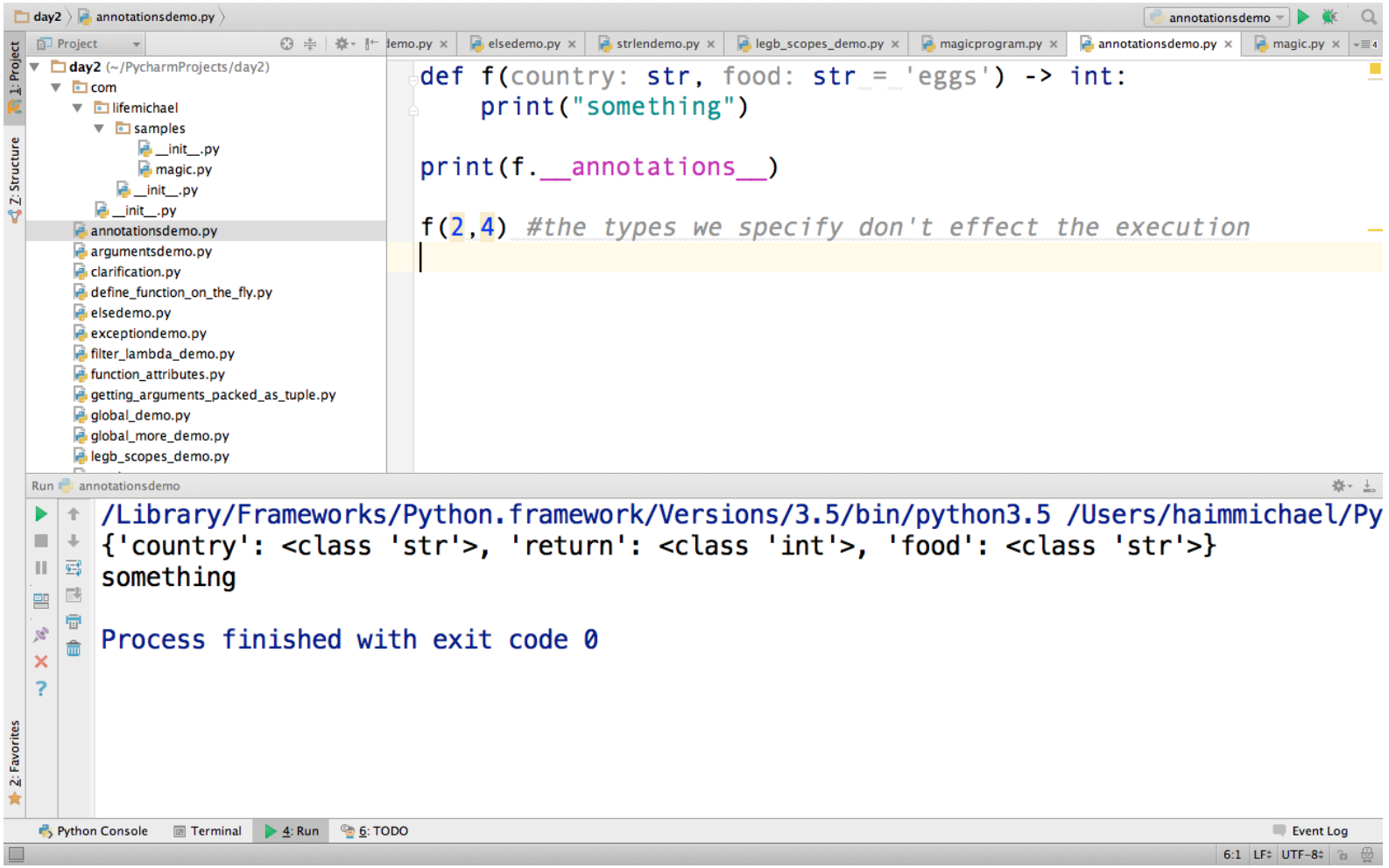
```
def f(country: str, food: str = 'eggs') -> int:
    print("something")
```

- The function annotations hold metadata information about the function, and specifically about the types of its parameters and the type of the returned value.

Function Annotations

- We can access the function annotations by referring the `__annotations__` attribute each function has.
- The function annotations hold optional meta data that doesn't effect the way the function is executed.

Function Annotations



Anonymous Functions (Lambda)

- Using the `lambda` keyword we can define an anonymous function.

```
lambda param1, param2, param3...paramN : expression
```

- Unlike using `def`, when using `lambda` we get an expression. Not a statement.

Anonymous Functions (Lambda)

```
ob = lambda a,b,c:a+b+c
print(ob(1,2,3))
```

Anonymous Functions (Lambda)

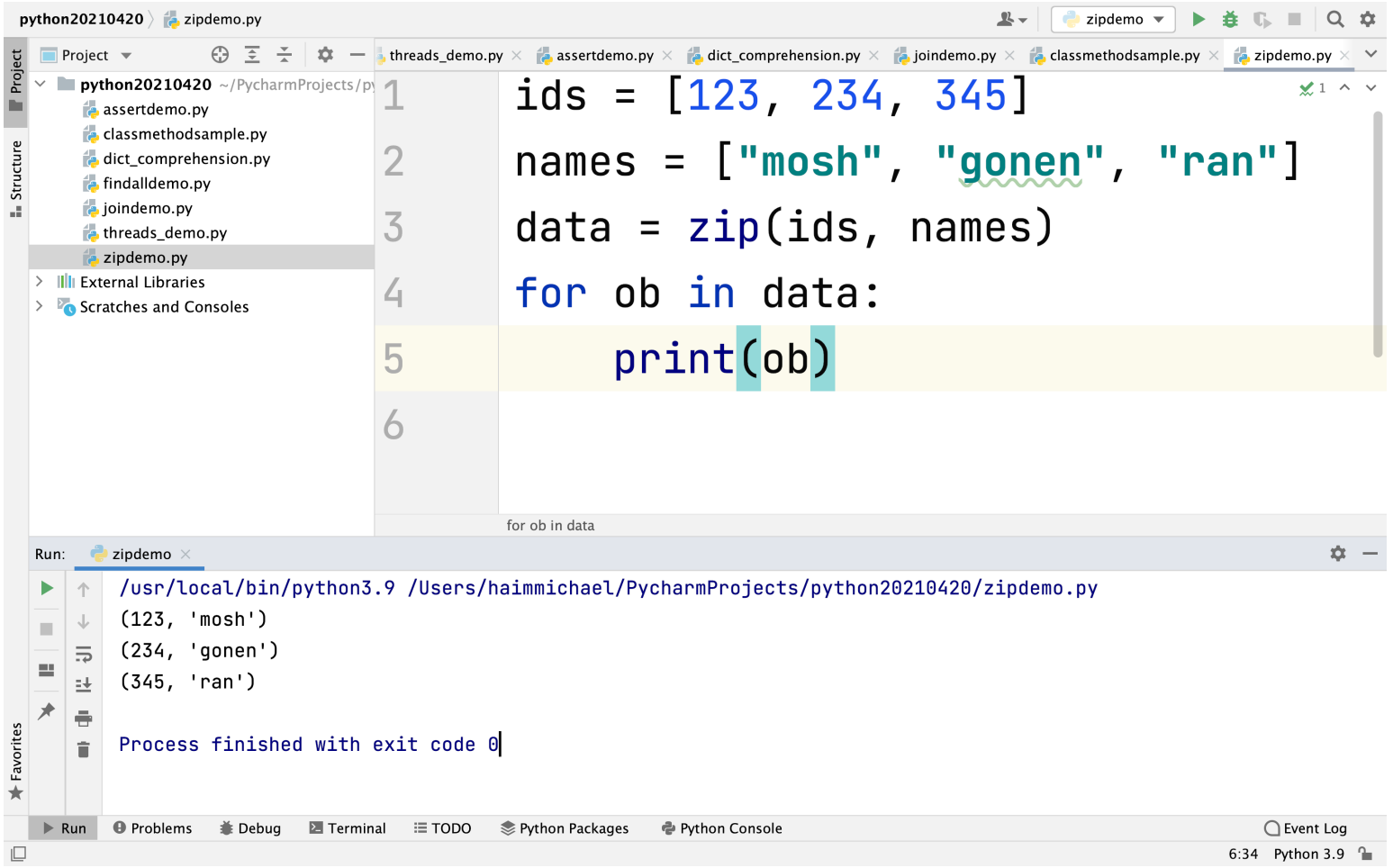
- Unlike using `def`, when using `lambda` we can have one single expression. We cannot have a block of statements.

The `zip()` Function

- Using the `zip` function we can zip together the elements coming from two different iterable objects and get a new iterable object that holds tuples that include those elements.

```
ids = [123, 234, 345]
names = ["mosh", "gonen", "ran"]
data = zip(ids, names)
for ob in data:
    print(ob)
```

The `zip()` Function



The `main()` Function

- When the Python runtime environment reads our source file, it executes the code it finds there.
- When the Python runtime is running a module (the source file) as the main program, it sets the special `__name__` variable to be with the value "`__main__`".
- When a file is being imported from another module, `__name__` will be set to the module's name.

The `main()` Function

```
def main():
    print("hello python!")

if __name__=="__main__":
    main()

print("yalla")
```