

# STATS 701

## Data Analysis using Python

Lecture 10: Functional Programming II: `functools`

# What about reduce?

Saw map and filter last lecture, but we can't have MapReduce without **reduce**

Reduce operations **reduce** an iterator (i.e., a sequence) to a single element. Sum is a good example of a reduce function.

```
1 sum(range(1,11))
```

55

functools contains a bunch of useful functional programming functions, including reduce.

```
1 import functools
2 functools.reduce(lambda x,y: x+y, range(1,11))
```

55

functools.reduce takes a function and an iterator and performs a reduce operation on the iterator using the function.

```
1 functools.reduce(lambda x,y: x*y, range(1,11))
```

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# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable

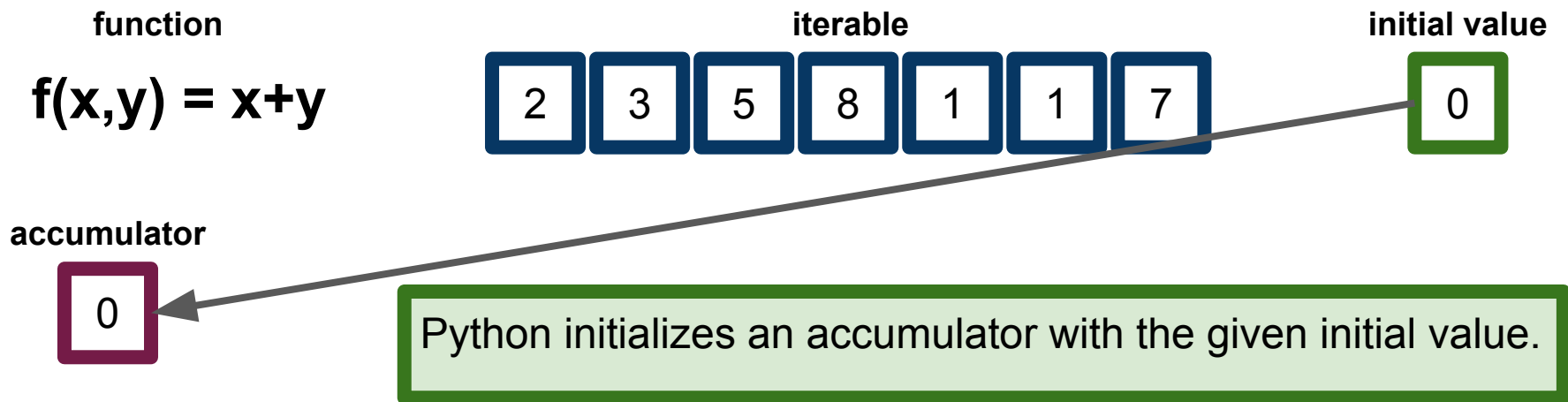


initial value



# Reduce operations

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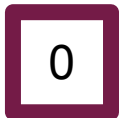
iterable



initial value



accumulator



Now, Python repeatedly updates the accumulator, with  
`acc += f(acc, y)`  
where `y` traverses the iterable

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

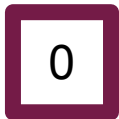
iterable



initial value



accumulator



$$f(0,2) = 2$$

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable



initial value



accumulator



$$f(0,2) = 2$$

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable



initial value



accumulator



$$f(2,3) = 5$$



# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable



initial value



accumulator



$$f(2,3) = 5$$

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable



initial value



accumulator



$$f(5,5) = 10$$

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable



initial value



accumulator



$$f(5,5) = 10$$

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable



initial value



accumulator



...and so on.

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable



initial value



accumulator



Once Python gets a `StopIteration` error indicating that the iterator has no more elements, it returns the value in the accumulator.

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:

function

$$f(x,y) = x+y$$

iterable



initial value



```
1 functools.reduce(lambda x,y:x+y, range(10), 0)
```

45

```
1 functools.reduce(lambda x,y:x+y, range(10))
```

45

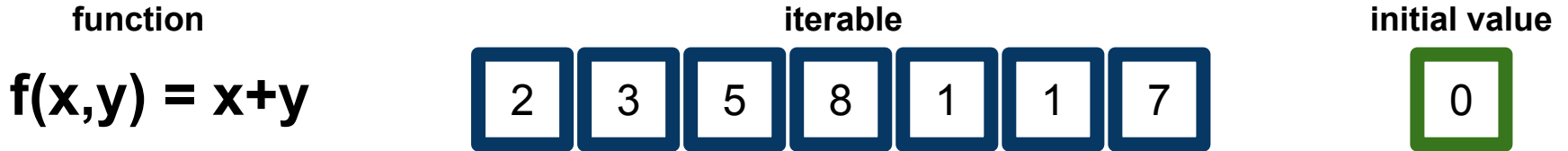
```
1 functools.reduce(lambda x,y:x+y, [2.71828])
```

2.71828

If the initial value isn't supplied, Python initializes the accumulator as  $acc = f(x, y)$  where  $x$  and  $y$  are the first two elements of the iterator. If the iterator is length 1, it just returns that element. All told, it's best to always specify the initial value, except in very simple cases (like these slides).

# Reduce operations

Three fundamental pieces:



```
1 functools.reduce(lambda x,y:x+y,[])
```

**Warning:** if the iterator supplied to `reduce` is empty, then we really do need the initial value!

**TypeError**

Traceback (most recent call last)

```
<ipython-input-116-a9df9cc43559> in <module>()
```

```
----> 1 functools.reduce(lambda x,y:x+y,[])
```

**TypeError:** reduce() of empty sequence with no initial value

# Reduce in Python

`reduce` is not included as a built-in function in Python, unlike `map` and `filter`  
Because developers felt that `reduce` is not “Pythonic”

The argument is that `reduce` operations can always be written as a for-loop:

```
1 import functools
2 functools.reduce(lambda x,y: x+y, range(10))
```

45

```
1 acc = 0
2 for i in range(10):
3     acc += i
4 acc
```

45



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3     acc += i
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```

45

This criticism is mostly correct, but we'll see later in the course when we cover MapReduce that there are cases where we really do want a proper `reduce` function.

# Reduce in Python

All of the standard reduce-like functions are easily reimplemented with reduce statements, like this example, with `max`. Note the use of Python's in-line conditional statement.

```
1 import random
2 numbers = [random.randint(1,1000) for _ in range(100)]
3 functools.reduce(lambda x,y:x if x > y else y, numbers)
```

989

More often, one has to implement the pairwise function. For example, here we have implemented a function for entrywise addition of tuples.

```
1 def tuple_add(x,y):
2     if len(x) != len(y):
3         raise TypeError('Tuple lengths must agree')
4     r = len(x)*[0]
5     for i in range(len(x)):
6         r[i] = x[i] + y[i]
7     return tuple(r)
8 functools.reduce(tuple_add, [(1,2),(1,3),(2,5),(3,7),(5,11)])
```

(12, 28)

**Note:** there are “more functional” ways to do this. Since tuples are themselves iterable, we could write a clever “function of functions” to do this more gracefully. More on this soon.

## Related: `itertools.accumulate`

`itertools.accumulate` performs a reduce operation, but it returns an iterator over the partial “sums” of its argument. Returns an empty iterator if argument is empty.

```
1 itertools.accumulate(range(1,10), lambda x,y:x+y)
<itertools.accumulate at 0x10a6aa348>
```

```
1 list(itertools.accumulate(range(1,10), lambda x,y:x+y))
[1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 21, 28, 36, 45]
```

```
1 list(itertools.accumulate([(1,2),(1,3),(2,5),(3,7),(5,11)], tuple_add))
[(1, 2), (2, 5), (4, 10), (7, 17), (12, 28)]
```

I put “sums” in quotes, because of course the function need not be addition. The point is that we get an iterator over the values of the accumulator at each step of the reduce operation.

# Python operator module

It's awfully annoying to have to write `lambda x, y: x+y` all the time

```
1 functools.reduce(lambda x,y:x*y, range(1,10))
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```

```
1 functools.reduce(*,range(1,10))
File "<ipython-input-90-461403074121>", line 1
  functools.reduce(*,range(1,10))
                    ^
SyntaxError: invalid syntax
```

```
1 import operator
2 functools.reduce(operator.mul,range(1,10))
362880
```

Here is what we'd *like* to write, but of course it's a syntax error.

`operator.mul` gives us `*`, but as a function, just as though we wrote a lambda expression.

`operator` includes many other functions:

- Math: `add()`, `sub()`, `mul()`, `abs()`, etc.
- Logic: `not_()`, `truth()`.
- Bitwise: `and_()`, `or_()`, `invert()`.
- Comparison: `eq()`, `ne()`, `lt()`, `le()`, etc.
- Identity: `is_()`, `is_not()`.

<https://docs.python.org/3/library/operator.html#module-operator>

# More functional patterns: `functools`

`functools` module provides a number of functional programming constructions

```
1 import functools
2 pow2 = functools.partial(math.pow, 2)
3 pow2
```

`functools.partial` takes a function and a set of arguments to pass to the function. Returns a function with some of its arguments “fixed”.

```
functools.partial(<built-in function pow>, 2)
```

```
1 list(map( pow2, range(10) ))
```

So in this case, it's like we got a new function, `pow2(x) == math.pow(x, 2)`

```
[1.0, 2.0, 4.0, 8.0, 16.0, 32.0, 64.0, 128.0, 256.0, 512.0]
```

```
1 def my_pow(x=1, y=1):
2     return math.pow(x,y)
3 my_square = functools.partial(my_pow, y=2)
4 list(map( my_square, range(10) ))
```

`functools.partial` also lets us pass keyword arguments.

```
[0.0, 1.0, 4.0, 9.0, 16.0, 25.0, 36.0, 49.0, 64.0, 81.0]
```

# Higher-order functions and currying

`functools.partial` takes a function (and other stuff), returns a function  
Called a **higher-order function**

In most other languages, Python's `functools.partial` is called **currying**

```
1 f = lambda x,y,z : x*y*z
2 curry1 = functools.partial(f,2)
3 curry2 = functools.partial(curry1,3)
4 curry2(4)
```

`curry1` takes two arguments,  
returns their product times 2.

`curry2` takes one argument `z`, returns  
 $2*3*z$  (reminder: partial fills positional  
arguments in order).

24

```
1 par = functools.partial(f,2,3)
2 par(4)
```

Equivalently, just pass both  
arguments in one call to partial.

24

**Currying** is named after logician Haskell Curry  
<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Currying>

# Pure functions, again

Recall that a **pure function** was a function that did not have any side effects

Pure functions are especially important in functional programming

A pure function is really a function (in the mathematical sense)

Given the same input, it always produces the same output

(And doesn't change the state of our program!)

```
1 a = 0
2 def increment_mod():
3     global a
4     a += 1
5 def increment_pure(x):
6     return x+1
```

This function is a modifier.  
It has side effects.

This is a pure function.

# Pure functions, again

Recall that a **pure function** was a function that did not have any side effects

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```
1 a = 0
2 def increment_mod():
3     global a
4     a += 1
5 def increment_pure(x):
6     return x+1
```

Pure functions are also crucial to having **immutable data**. Think about processing the observations in a data set. We don't want to change the original data file in the process of our analysis! We want to be able to write a pipeline, in which we pass data from one function to another, producing a transformed version of the data at each step.



# Pure functions and higher-order functions

Pure functions are useful because they are very naturally composed and arise naturally in map/reduce frameworks

```
1 def compose(*funcs):  
2     '''Return a new function that is the  
3     composition of the argument functions.'''  
4     def inner(data, funcs=funcs):  
5         result = data  
6         for f in reversed(funcs):  
7             result = f(result)  
8         return result  
9     return inner  
10 f = lambda x: x**2  
11 g = lambda x: x+1  
12 # compose(g,f) == g(f(x)) == x**2 + 1  
13 list(map(compose(g,f), range(10)))
```

```
[1, 2, 5, 10, 17, 26, 37, 50, 65, 82]
```

Here's a good example of a higher-order function. `compose` takes functions and produces a new function.

Returning a function is okay, because Python has first-class functions.

You can see why we prefer pure functions for these kinds of tricks. If `f` and/or `g` had side effects, this would be a big mess!

# Functional vs Object-oriented Programming

```
1 class LetterCounter():
2     '''Counts letters in a text stream'''
3     def __init__(self, letter):
4         self.letter=letter
5         self.count=0
6     def increment(self):
7         self.count+=1
8     def process_file(self, filename):
9         with open(filename, 'r') as f:
10             for line in f:
11                 self.process_line(line)
12     def process_line(self, line):
13         for x in line:
14             if x==self.letter:
15                 self.increment()
16     def get_count(self):
17         return self.count
18 lc = LetterCounter('e')
19 fname = '/Users/keith/Downloads/mobydick.txt'
20 lc.process_file(fname)
21 lc.get_count()
```

Of course, I'm exaggerating the complexity of this object here, but this really is what object-oriented code ends up looking like in the wild.

Contrast that with the simplicity of this functional version of the same letter-counting operation.

```
1 def count_letter(fname, letter):
2     with open(fname, 'r') as f:
3         return(sum([c==letter
4                     for line in f
5                     for w in line
6                     for c in w]))
7 count_letter(fname, 'e')
```

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# Why use functional programming?

Some problems are especially well-suited to this paradigm

**Example:** quicksort

```
1 def quicksort(t):
2     if len(t) <= 1:
3         return t # list is already sorted.
4     else:
5         pivot = t[0]
6         return(quicksort([x for x in t if x < pivot]) +
7                 [x for x in t if x==pivot] +
8                 quicksort([x for x in t if x > pivot]))
9 quicksort([3,5,4,2,1,6,5,7,4,0,0,2,4])
```

```
[0, 0, 1, 2, 2, 3, 4, 4, 4, 5, 5, 6, 7]
```

See the quicksort Wikipedia page for examples of what this looks like when written in a non-functional style.

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quicksort>

# A note on recursion in Python: tail call optimization

**M. R. Cook, *A Practical Introduction to Functional Programming*:**

“Tail call optimisation is a programming language feature. Each time a function recurses, a new stack frame is created. A stack frame is used to store the arguments and local values for the current function invocation. If a function recurses a large number of times, it is possible for the interpreter or compiler to run out of memory. Languages with tail call optimisation reuse the same stack frame for their entire sequence of recursive calls. Languages like Python that do not have tail call optimisation generally limit the number of times a function may recurse to some number in the thousands.”

Python doesn't have tail call recursion, so some functional programming patterns simply aren't well-suited if we may encounter many thousands of layers of recursion. Recall our memoized function for computing the Fibonacci numbers.

# Declarative Programming

Describe what the program **should do**, rather than how it does it

Implementation details are left up to the language as much as possible

In contrast to **imperative/procedural programming**

Sequence of statements describes **how** program should proceed

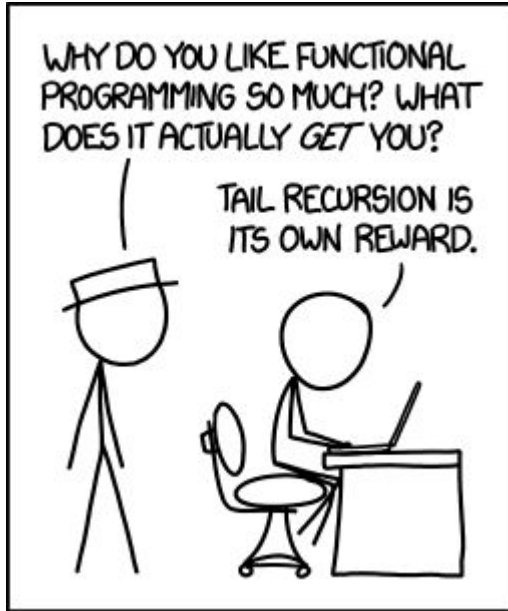
Most programming you have done in the past is procedural

Program consists of subroutines that get called, change state of program

Don't worry too much about these distinctions. Most languages are a mix of them, and no single approach is a silver bullet.

**Different applications call for different programming paradigms.**

# Congratulations! You know enough functional programming to get the joke in this xkcd comic!



**Alt-text:** Functional programming combines the flexibility and power of abstract mathematics with the intuitive clarity of abstract mathematics.

# Readings (this lecture)

## Required:

Python `functools` documentation

<https://docs.python.org/3/library/functools.html>

A. M. Kuchling. *Functional Programming HOWTO*

<https://docs.python.org/3/howto/functional.html>

## Recommended:

M. R. Cook. *A Practical Introduction to Functional Programming*

<https://maryrosecook.com/blog/post/a-practical-introduction-to-functional-programming>

D. Mertz. *Functional Programming in Python*.

<http://www.oreilly.com/programming/free/functional-programming-python.csp>

# Readings (next lecture)

## Required:

Numpy quickstart tutorial:

<https://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy-dev/user/quickstart.html>

Pyplot tutorial:

<http://matplotlib.org/tutorials/introductory/pyplot.html#sphx-glr-tutorials-introductory-pyplot-py>

## Recommended:

SciPy tutorial: <https://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy/reference/tutorial/index.html>

Pyplot API: [http://matplotlib.org/api/pyplot\\_summary.html](http://matplotlib.org/api/pyplot_summary.html)

*The Visual Display of Quantitative Information* by Edward Tufte

*Visual and Statistical Thinking: Displays of Evidence for Making Decisions*

by Edward Tufte This is essentially a reprint of Chapter 2 of the book above.