

# Functions

adapted from material by Mike Scott and Bill  
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# Note: IPython

```
22:14:29 € › ipython
```

```
Python 3.10.4 (main, Mar 23 2022, 23:05:40) [GCC 11.2.0]  
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information  
IPython 8.2.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.
```

```
In [1]: x = int(input("Enter a number"))  
Enter a number 33
```

```
In [2]: print(f"{x} squared is {x**2}")  
33 squared is 1089
```

```
In [3]: x ** 2  
Out[3]: 1089
```

```
Python 3.10.4 (main, Mar 23 2022, 23:05:40) [GCC 11.2.0] on linux  
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.  
>>> x = int(input("Enter a number"))  
Enter a number33  
>>> print(f"{x} squared is {x**2}")  
33 squared is 1089  
>>> x ** 2  
1089
```

Sometimes, we want to do the same thing over and over again, maybe with slight variations.

Functions allow us to do this. We have already used several built-in functions in Python.

Built-in Functions			
<b>A</b> abs() aiter() all() any() anext() ascii()	<b>E</b> enumerate() eval() exec()	<b>L</b> len() list() locals()	<b>R</b> <u>range()</u> repr() reversed() round()
<b>B</b> bin() bool() breakpoint() bytearray() bytes()	<b>F</b> filter() <u>float()</u> <u>format()</u> frozenset()	<b>M</b> map() max() memoryview() min()	<b>S</b> set() setattr() slice() sorted() staticmethod() str() sum() super()
<b>C</b> callable() chr() classmethod() compile() complex()	<b>G</b> getattr() globals()	<b>N</b> next()	<b>T</b> tuple() type()
<b>D</b> delattr() dict() dir() divmod()	<b>H</b> hasattr() hash() help() hex()	<b>O</b> object() oct() open() ord()	<b>V</b> vars()
	<b>I</b> id() <u>input()</u> <u>int()</u> isinstance() issubclass() iter()	<b>P</b> pow() <u>print()</u> property()	<b>Z</b> zip()  <u>__import__()</u>

In addition, the python standard library comes with **lots of other *modules***.

Modules are Python code that contain related functions which we can reuse. When you downloaded Python, you also downloaded the standard modules (also referred to as the "standard library").

Most of these modules are beyond the scope of this class.

We will use the *math* module, which contains many common mathematical operations, and the *random* module, which contains functions for generating random numbers.

To use functions which are part of a module, we call the function with the name of the module, a period (pronounced "dot"), and the name of the function.

```
In [1]: math.sqrt(100)
-----
NameError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
Input In [1], in <cell line: 1>()
----> 1 math.sqrt(100)

NameError: name 'math' is not defined
```

and we have to import the module:

```
In [2]: import math

In [3]: math.sqrt(100)
Out[3]: 10.0
```

If you're writing a file, imports should go at the very top of the file.



# Lots of functions in math!

Function	Description	Example
<code>fabs(x)</code>	Returns the absolute value of the argument.	<code>fabs(-2)</code> is 2
<code>ceil(x)</code>	Rounds <code>x</code> up to its nearest integer and returns this integer.	<code>ceil(2.1)</code> is 3 <code>ceil(-2.1)</code> is -2
<code>floor(x)</code>	Rounds <code>x</code> down to its nearest integer and returns this integer.	<code>floor(2.1)</code> is 2 <code>floor(-2.1)</code> is -3
<code>exp(x)</code>	Returns the exponential function of <code>x</code> ( $e^x$ ).	<code>exp(1)</code> is 2.71828
<code>log(x)</code>	Returns the natural logarithm of <code>x</code> .	<code>log(2.71828)</code> is 1.0
<code>log(x, base)</code>	Returns the logarithm of <code>x</code> for the specified base.	<code>log10(10, 10)</code> is 1
<code>sqrt(x)</code>	Returns the square root of <code>x</code> .	<code>sqrt(4.0)</code> is 2
<code>sin(x)</code>	Returns the sine of <code>x</code> . <code>x</code> represents an angle in radians.	<code>sin(3.14159 / 2)</code> is 1 <code>sin(3.14159)</code> is 0
<code>asin(x)</code>	Returns the angle in radians for the inverse of sine.	<code>asin(1.0)</code> is 1.57 <code>asin(0.5)</code> is 0.523599
<code>cos(x)</code>	Returns the cosine of <code>x</code> . <code>x</code> represents an angle in radians.	<code>cos(3.14159 / 2)</code> is 0 <code>cos(3.14159)</code> is -1
<code>acos(x)</code>	Returns the angle in radians for the inverse of cosine.	<code>acos(1.0)</code> is 0 <code>acos(0.5)</code> is 1.0472
<code>tan(x)</code>	Returns the tangent of <code>x</code> . <code>x</code> represents an angle in radians.	<code>tan(3.14159 / 4)</code> is 1 <code>tan(0.0)</code> is 0
<code>fmod(x, y)</code>	Returns the remainder of <code>x/y</code> as double.	<code>fmod(2.4, 1.3)</code> is 1.1
<code>degrees(x)</code>	Converts angle <code>x</code> from radians to degrees	<code>degrees(1.57)</code> is 90
<code>radians(x)</code>	Converts angle <code>x</code> from degrees to radians	<code>radians(90)</code> is 1.57

# Random

There are several useful functions defined in random:

- `randint(a, b)`: generate a random integer in  $[a..b]$
- `randrange(a,b)`: generate a random integer in  $[a..b)$
- `random()`: generate a float in the range  $(0..1)$

How should we simulate flipping a two-sided coin?

# Examples with random

```
>>> import random
>>> random.randint(1,2)
2
>>> random.randint(1,2)
2
>>> random.randint(1,2)
2
>>> random.randint(1,2)
1
>>> random.randint(1,2)
1
>>> random.randint(1,6)
1
>>> random.randint(1,6)
2
>>> random.randint(1,6)
6
>>> random.randint(1,6)
5
>>> random.randint(1,6)
5
>>> random.randint(1,6)
3
>>> random.randrange(1,2)
1
>>> random.randrange(1,2)
1
>>> random.randrange(1,2)
1
>>> random.randrange(1,2)
1
>>> random.randrange(1,2)
1
>>> random.randrange(1,2)
1
>>> random.randrange(1,2)
1
```

```
>>> random.random()
0.8331383484207157
>>> random.random()
0.37159337817219584
>>> random.random()
0.6945382999476001
>>> random.random()
0.2515359514910689
>>> random.random()
0.864217164416933
>>> random.random()
0.19093256538001913
>>> for x in range(10):
...     print(random.randint(1, 100))
...
93
95
51
30
88
12
43
67
49
54
```

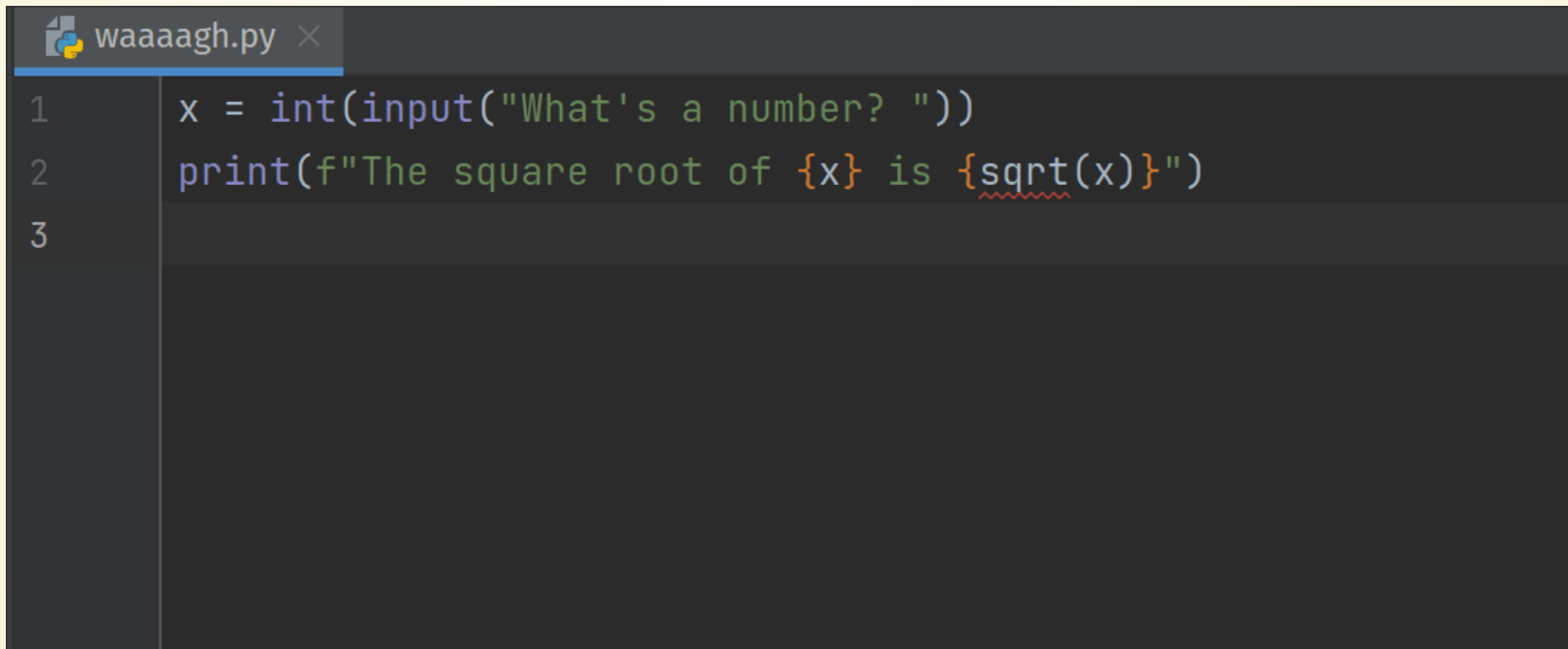




# How to Import

Typing the name of the module every time can be annoying.

Most IDEs have features to reduce the amount of typing needed.

A screenshot of a code editor window with a dark background. The window title is 'waaaagh.py' with a close button. The code is as follows:

```
1 x = int(input("What's a number? "))
2 print(f"The square root of {x} is {sqrt(x)}")
3
```

The code is color-coded: 'x' is blue, 'int' is green, 'input' is blue, 'sqrt' is green and underlined with red wavy lines, and 'x' is blue. The line numbers 1, 2, and 3 are on the left side of the editor.

# How to Import

We can also import specific functions from a module.

```
In [1]: from random import randint

In [2]: randint(1, 100)
Out[2]: 40

In [3]: randint(1, 10)
Out[3]: 2

In [4]: random()
-----
NameError      Traceback (most recent call last)
Input In [4], in <cell line: 1>()
----> 1 random()

NameError: name 'random' is not defined

In [5]: from random import *
In [6]: random()
Out[6]: 0.621890257623214
```

import everything  
from random

Why not always import all?

# Writing Functions

```
1 def compute_max_of(num1, num2, num3):
2     if num1 > num2 and num1 > num3:
3         return num1
4     elif num2 > num1 and num2 > num3:
5         return num2
6     else:
7         return num3
```

What happens when I call this?

```
1 x = compute_max_of(7, 10, 13)
2 print(x)
```

We've seen lots of system-defined functions. Now it's time to define our own.

```
1 def function_name( list of parameters ):
2     body_statement_1
3     body_statement_2
4     ...
```

This defines a block of code that performs a specific task. It can reference any variables in the list of parameters. It may or may not return a value. These are also called arguments.

## Function name

An identifier by which the function is called

## Arguments

Contains a list of values passed to the function

```
def name(arguments):
```

```
    statement
```

```
    statement
```

```
    ...
```

```
    return value
```

## Indentation

Function body must be indented

## Function body

This is executed each time the function is called

## Return value

Ends function call & sends data back to the program

**Parameters**

# Function Definition

```
def add(a, b):  
    return a + b
```

# Function Call

```
add(2, 3)
```

**Arguments**

getKT.com

Suppose you want to sum all the integers from 1 to n.

```
1 # Returns the sum of values from 1 to n.
2 def sum_to_n(n):
3     total = 0
4     for i in range(1, n+1):
5         total += i
6     return total
```

**Question: does this actually compute anything?**



We still need to call the function! Otherwise, nothing actually gets run. A function acts like a "recipe" to do some computation, but writing the recipe down doesn't cause a cake to be baked.

```
1 def main():  
2     print(sum_to_n(1))  
3     print(sum_to_n(1000))
```

Output:

1

500500

# Observations

```
def sum_to_n(n):  
    ...
```

Here, `n` is a formal parameter. It is used as a placeholder for an actual parameter (e.g. 100, 1000) used in an actual call.

`sum_to_int(n)` returns an `int` value. This means that it can be used **anywhere** an `int` could be used.

```
1 x = sum_to_n(30)  
2 print(x)  
3 print("Even" if sum_to_n(5) % 2 == 0 else "Odd")  
4 for i in range(1, 30):  
5     print(i, sum_to_n(i))
```

# Return

When a return statement is executed, you immediately return to the calling environment.

If you call return with a value, the caller gets that value.

If you call return without a value, Python implicitly returns None for you. **Do this carefully.**

Every function has an implicit return at the end.

```
1 def print_x(x):  
2     print(x)  
3  
4 x = 10  
5 y = print_x(x)  
6 print(y)
```

# Function In/Out

An important note: when we've been writing scripts so far, we've been using `input()` and `print()` to communicate with the user.

In general, for functions, you want to get inputs from arguments and pass outputs using `return`.

A common mistake:

```
1 def double_num(x):
2     y = 2 * x
3     print(y)
4
5 def main():
6     x = int(input("Enter a number to double: "))
7     y = double_num(x)
8     print(f"Double of {x} is {y}")
```

# **The Power of Abstraction**

Once we've defined `sum_to_n`, we can use it without worrying about the definition.

**We need to know what it does, but we do not care about how it does it.**

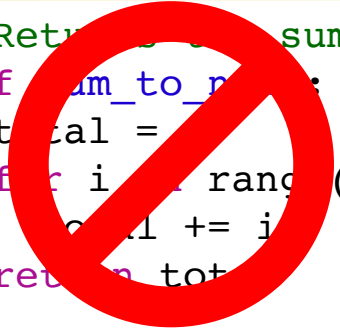
This is called abstraction.

Used properly, it is incredibly, unbelievably powerful.



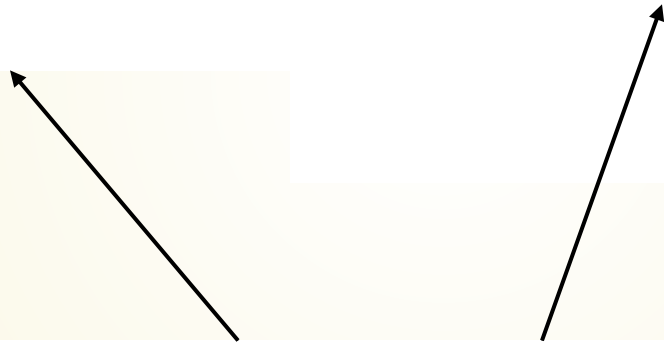
One day, we realize we can program  
sum\_to\_n much more efficiently using a  
method discovered by Gauss:

```
1 # Returns the sum of values from 1 to n.  
2 def sum_to_n(n):  
3     total = 0  
4     for i in range(1, n+1):  
5         total += i  
6     return total
```



```
1 # Returns the sum of values from 1 to n.  
2 def sum_to_n(n):  
3     return (n + 1) * n // 2
```

```
1 def main():  
2     max_num = 1000000  
3     max_sum = sum_to_n(max_num)  
4     print(f"The sum of the first {max_num} numbers is {max_sum}")
```



We don't have to change any other code!! If we'd written  
the code in-line, we'd have to find all other instances.

# More Examples

and docstrings



# Docstrings

Python supports a special version of documentation for a function called a docstring. It goes right below the function definition at the same indentation as the body.

```
1 def add_nums(a, b):  
2     """Adds a and b together"""  
3     return a + b
```

```
1 def dummy_func(a, b):  
2     """If we need them to, docstrings can even be multiline!  
3  
4     a: an input  
5     b: an input  
6     returns: the sum of a and b  
7     """  
8     return a + b
```

# Other Examples

```
1 def multiply_to_n(n):
2     """Multiplies all values from 1 to n. This is
3         also known as a factorial function"""
4     result = 1
5     for i in range(2, n+1):
6         result *= result
```

This function...doesn't work.

# Convert °C to °F, and °F to °C

```
1 def fahrenheit_to_celsius(degrees_f):  
2     return 5 / 9 * (degrees_f - 32)  
3  
4 def celsius_to_fahrenheit(degrees_c):  
5     return 9 / 5 * degrees_c + 32
```

# Write a program which prints a conversion table.

Convert °F in the range [-80, 130] every 10 °F.

# Primes

# Suppose you want to print out a table of the first 100 primes, 10 per line

You could do this without functions, but it would be a *mess*.

Much better idea: find and use functional abstraction. Find parts of the algorithm that can be coded separately and "packaged" as functions.

2	3	5	7	11	13	17	19	23	29
31	37	41	43	47	53	59	61	67	71
73	79	83	89	97	101	103	107	109	113
127	131	137	139	149	151	157	163	167	173
179	181	191	193	197	199	211	223	227	229
233	239	241	251	257	263	269	271	277	281
283	293	307	311	313	317	331	337	347	349
353	359	367	373	379	383	389	397	401	409
419	421	431	433	439	443	449	457	461	463
467	479	487	491	499	503	509	521	523	541

Here's some Python-like pseudocode to print 100 primes:

```
1 def print_100_primes():
2     prime_count = 0
3     num = 0
4     while prime_count < 100:
5         if (we already printed 10 on this line):
6             go to a new line
7         next_prime = (the next prime > num)
8         print next_prime on the current line
9         num = next_prime
10        prime_count = 1
```

Note that most of this is straightforward python. The only new part is how to find the next prime. Let's make that a function.

**Assuming we can get the next prime, write a function to print the first n primes, 10 per row.**



# Now that we have that, let's write a function to get the next prime.

Pseudocode:

```
1 def get_next_prime(num):
2     if num < 2:
3         return 2
4     else:
5         guess = num + 1
6         while (guess is not prime)
7             guess += 1
8         return guess
```

**Now we just need to  
figure out if a  
number is prime.**

# Final Example

Let's say we just want to find and print  $k$  primes, starting from a given number.

# Positional Arguments

and kwargs

```
1 def some_function(x1, x2, x3, x4):  
2     ...
```

```
1 some_function(2, 10, "speed", 7.1)
```

Four black arrows point from the arguments in the function call below to the corresponding parameters in the function definition above. The first arrow points from '2' to 'x1', the second from '10' to 'x2', the third from '"speed"' to 'x3', and the fourth from '7.1' to 'x4'.

Arguments are matched to the parameters by position (i.e. where they show up). This is called using **positional** arguments.

```
1 def some_function(x1, x2, x3, x4):  
2     print("My arguments are", x1, x2, x3, x4)
```

We can also pass parameters by **keyword**:

```
1 some_function(5, 12, -7, 13)  
2 some_function(x3=-7, x1 = 5, x2 = 12, x4 = 13)
```

These two calls are equivalent!

You can list the keyword arguments in any order, but they all must still be specified.

```
In [1]: def some_function(x1, x2, x3, x4):
...:     print("My arguments are", x1, x2, x3, x4)
...:

In [2]: some_function(x3 = 7, x4 = 2)
-----
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Input In [2], in <cell line: 1>()
----> 1 some_function(x3 = 7, x4 = 2)

TypeError: some_function() missing 2 required positional arguments: 'x1' and 'x2'
```

You can even mix them, though the positional arguments have to come first.

```
1 def some_function(x1, x2, x3, x4):  
2     print("My arguments are", x1, x2, x3, x4)
```

```
In [4]: some_function(1, 2, x4 = 7, x3 = 4)  
My arguments are 1 2 4 7
```

```
In [5]: some_function(x1 = 1, 2, 7, 4)
```

```
Input In [5]
```

```
some_function(x1 = 1, 2, 7, 4)
```

```
^
```

```
SyntaxError: positional argument follows keyword argument
```



# Default Arguments

You can also specify **default arguments** for a function. If you don't specify a corresponding argument, the default is used.

```
1 def print_rectangle_area(width = 1.0, height = 2.0):
2     area = width * height
3     print("A rectangle with width", width,
4           "and height", height,
5           "has area", area)
```

```
1 # What do these print?
2 print_rectangle_area()
3 print_rectangle_area(4.5, 7.6)
4 print_rectangle_area(height = 20.5, width = 5.2)
5 print_rectangle_area(4.5)
6 print_rectangle_area(height = 10.0)
7 print_rectangle_area(width = 5.25)
```

You can mix default and non-default arguments in the definition of a function. Again, the non-default arguments have to come first.

```
1 def email(address, message=""):      #Okay!  
2     ...  
3  
4  
5 def email(message="", address):     #Not okay!  
6     ...
```

Have any of the built-in functions we've used so far had default arguments?

**main()**

Python lets us write code outside of functions.

This is actually somewhat unusual!

```
1 x = 3 + 5
2 print("Hello world!")
```

```
1 #include<stdio.h>
2 int x = 3 + 5;
3 printf("Hello world!\n");
```

```
test.c:2:8: error: expected declaration specifiers or '...' before string constant
 2 | printf("Hello world!\n");
   |         ^~~~~~
```

```
1 import math
2 def main():
3     x = int(input("Enter a number: "))
4
5     is_prime = x % 2 != 0
6     divisor = 3
7     limit = math.sqrt(x)
8     while divisor < limit and is_prime:
9         if x % divisor == 0:
10             is_prime = False
11             divisor += 2
12
13     if is_prime:
14         print(x, "is prime.")
15     else:
16         print(x, "is not prime.")
17
18 main() ←
```

# Error Handling

```
1 inp = int(input("Command: "))
2
3 if inp != "quit":
4     cmd_number = int(inp)
5     if cmd_number != 0:
6         cmd = get_command(cmd_number)
7         if cmd != "invalid":
8             print("You entered", cmd, ". Executing now...")
9             exec_cmd(cmd)
10        else:
11            print("Command lookup gave an invalid command")
12    else:
13        print("You entered command 0, which cannot be looked up")
14 else:
15    print("Goodbye!")
```

# Error Handling

```
1 inp = int(input("Command: "))
2
3 if inp == "quit":
4     print("Goodbye!")
5     return
6
7 cmd_number = int(inp)
8 if cmd_number == 0:
9     print("You entered command 0, which cannot be looked up")
10    return
11
12 cmd = get_command(cmd_number)
13 if cmd == "invalid":
14     print("Command lookup gave an invalid command")
15     return
16
17 print("You entered", cmd, ". Executing now...")
18 exec_cmd(cmd)
```

What's our big problem here?

# Error Handling

```
1 def main():
2     inp = int(input("Command: "))
3
4     if inp == "quit":
5         print("Goodbye!")
6         return
7
8     cmd_number = int(inp)
9     if cmd_number == 0:
10        print("You entered command 0, which cannot be looked up")
11        return
12
13    cmd = get_command(cmd_number)
14    if cmd == "invalid":
15        print("Command lookup gave an invalid command")
16        return
17
18    print("You entered", cmd, ". Executing now...")
19    exec_cmd(cmd)
20
21 main()
```



There are two kinds of Python objects:

- **mutable**: you can change them in your program
- **immutable**: you cannot change them in your program

```
>>> x = 37
>>> x
37
>>> id(x)
140509108241776
>>> x = x + 10
>>> x
47
>>> id(x)
140509108242096
```

Actually makes a new copy!

<b>Data Type</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Example</b>	<b>Mutability</b>
int	Integer. A counting number of unlimited value.	42	immutable
float	A real number.	3.1415926	immutable
str	A sequence of characters. Usually used to model text.	"Hello world"	immutable
bool	A truth value (True or False)	True, False	immutable
tuple	Immutable sequence of mixed types	(4.0, True)	immutable
list	Mutable sequence of mixed types	[1,2,3,4,5]	mutable
set	Collection without duplicates		mutable
dict	A map from keys onto values	{'a': 3, 'b': 4}	mutable

**If you pass a mutable object as an argument,  
it can be changed by your function**

**If you pass an immutable object, it can't be  
changed.**

```
1 def increment(x):
2     x += 1
3     print(f"Value of x in the function: {x}")
4
5 x = 3
6 print(f"x is {x}")
7 increment(x)
8 print(f"x after function call: {x}")
```

```
1 def reverse_list(l):
2     l.reverse()
3     print(f"List in the function: {l}")
4
5 l = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
6 print(f"List is {l}")
7 reverse_list(l)
8 print(f"List after function call: {l}")
```

# Last Bits

# Scope

A variable in python has a **scope**, or a region where it's valid.

```
1 def main():
2     x = 3
3     y = 4
4     f1(x)
5
6 def f1(x):
7     return x + y
```

A **global variable** is defined outside of a function and is visible everywhere after it's defined. Using these is usually considered bad practice.

A **local variable** is defined inside of a function, and is visible from its definition until the end of the function.

A local definition **overrides** a global one.

```
1 x = 1
2
3 def func():
4     x = 2
5     print(x)
6
7
8 func()
9 print(x)
```



# Returning Multiple Values

```
1 def increment_multiple(x, y):  
2     return (x + 1, y + 1)  
3  
4 x1, x2 = increment_multiple(4, 5.2)  
5 print(f"x1 is {x1} and x2 is {x2}")
```