

# Python: Functions

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# Content

- Import module
- Define & Invoking functions
- Parameters passing
- Return value
- List Comprehension
- Scope
- Lambda function

# Importing Modules

- Remember those `print()`, `input()` and `len()` that we used before?
- They belong to *built-in functions* provided by Python environment
- To support more complicated usages, Python provide different modules to be incorporated into our own program
- A few common modules:
  1. `math` – mathematics functions
  2. `sys` – system utilities such as file open, read/write etc
  3. `random` – random number generator for simulations
- All we need is to use *import* statement to use them

# import Statement (Example #1)

```
1  import math
2
3  while (1):
4      str1 = input("x? ")
5      x = float(str1)
6      if (x <= 0):
7          break;
8      print("square root = ", math.sqrt(x))
9  print("Bye!");
10
11
12
```

```
x? 15
square root =  3.872983346207417
x? 16
square root =  4.0
x? -3
Bye!
```

# Some of functions in math module

Functions	Description	Examples
<code>ceil( x )</code>	rounds $x$ to the smallest integer not less than $x$ $\lceil x \rceil$	<code>ceil(9.2)</code> is 10.0 <code>ceil(-9.8)</code> is -9.0
<code>floor( x )</code>	rounds $x$ to the largest integer not greater than $x$ $\lfloor x \rfloor$	<code>floor(9.2)</code> is 9.0 <code>floor(-9.8)</code> is -10.0
<code>exp( x )</code>	exponential function $e^x$	<code>exp(1.0)</code> is 2.71828
<code>fabs( x )</code>	absolute value of $x$ $ x $	<code>fabs(5.1)</code> is 5.1 <code>fabs(0.0)</code> is 0.0 <code>fabs(-8.76)</code> is 8.76
<code>pow( x, y )</code>	$x$ raised to power $y$ $x^y$	<code>pow(2, 7)</code> is 128.0 <code>pow(9, .5)</code> is 3.0
<code>sqrt( x )</code>	square root of $x$ $\sqrt{x}$	<code>sqrt(900.0)</code> is 30.0 <code>sqrt(9.0)</code> is 3.0

# Some of functions in math module

Functions	Description	Examples
<code>log ( x )</code>	natural logarithm of x (base e) $\log_e x$ or $\ln x$ $\ln e = 1$ $\ln e^x = x * \ln e = x$	<code>log(2.718282) ≈ 1.0</code> <code>log(exp(3.0)) is 3.0</code>
<code>log10 ( x )</code>	logarithm of x (base 10) $\log_{10} x$	<code>log(10.0) is 1.0</code> <code>log(100.0) is 2.0</code>
<code>sin( x )</code> <code>cos( x )</code> <code>tan( x )</code>	trigonometric sine, cosine and tangent of x (x in radians) $\sin x$ $\cos x$ $\tan x$ $90^\circ = \pi / 2$ $180^\circ = \pi$ $270^\circ = 3 * \pi / 4$	<code>sin(0.0) is 0.0</code> <code>cos(0.0) is 1.0</code> <code>tan(0.0) is 0.0</code>  <code>Let pi = 3.141592654</code> <code>sin(pi / 2) ≈ 1.0</code> <code>cos(pi / 2) ≈ 0.0</code> <code>tan(pi / 2) ≈ a large #</code>

## import Statement (Example #2)

- random module provide a random number generation
- randint() provide a random integer ranged between input parameters

1	<code>import random</code>	
2	<code>for i in range(5):</code>	
3	<code>    print(random.randint(1, 6))</code>	
4		
5		2
6		4
		2
		1
		6

# import Statement (Example #3)

- `sys.exit()` provide an early ending program option i.e. terminate

```
1 import sys
2
3 while True:
4     print('Type exit to exit.')
5     response = input()
6     if response == 'exit':
7         sys.exit()
8     print('You typed ' + response + '.')
```

```
Type exit to exit.
hello
You typed hello.
Type exit to exit.
exit
>>>
```



# From import statement

- When we used those functions, we always need to provide the prefix of the module name eg. `math.sqrt()`
- Alternative way is to use *from*
- Not recommended in big project using \*

```
1 from random import *
2 for i in range(5):
3     print(randint(1, 6))
4
   from random import randint, random
   import tensorflow
```

# Functions

- What we have used in previous slides are "functions"
- Besides using those provided, we can write our own!
- Writing our function is defining it
- In terms of Python operation, we first define a function to Python, then used it
- A function is a block of organized, reusable code to perform a single, related action

# Function Syntax

- *functionName* : a valid identifier
- *Parameters* : information passing to function
- *'''function docstring'''*: an optional statement - the documentation string
- *return* : exit a function, optionally passing back an expression to caller

```
1  def functionName( parameters ):
2      '''function_docstring'''
3      statements
4      return [expression]
```

# Functions

- Functions must be defined before use
- Can be called more than once

```
1 def printBar():
2     print("*****")
3
4 printBar()
5 print(" Hello World!")
6 printBar()
7
8
```

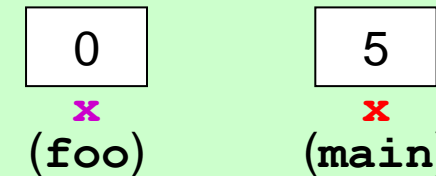
```
*****
      Hello World!
*****
>>>
```

# Functions

- Every function can have its own variables
- Variables declared in a function are said to be local to that function

```
1 def foo():
2     x = 0;
3     print("In foo(): x = ", x)
4
5 x = 5
6 print("Before: In main program: x = ", x);
7 foo();
8 print("After: In main program: x = ", x);
```

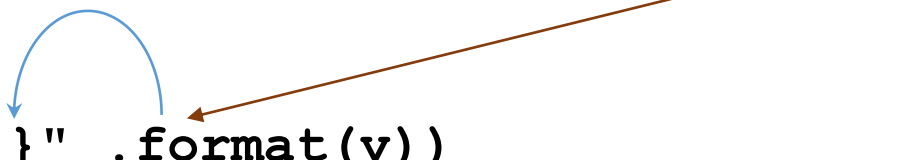
**x** in **foo()** and **x** in **main()**  
are two different variables.



```
Before: In main program: x = 5
In foo(): x = 0
After: In main program: x = 5
>>>
```

Variables defined in one function are not directly accessible in another function.

```
1 def bar():
2     y = 0;
3     print("In bar(): y = {}".format(y))
4
5
6 bar()
7 print("y = {}".format(y)) # error !
8
9
10
```



Formatted output, y will replace placeholder {}

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "python/function6.py", line 7, in <module>
    print("y = {}".format(y)) # error !
NameError: name 'y' is not defined
```

Variables declared in a function are *local variables* and are only accessible in that function.

**y**, being declared in **bar()**, is not accessible in main program.

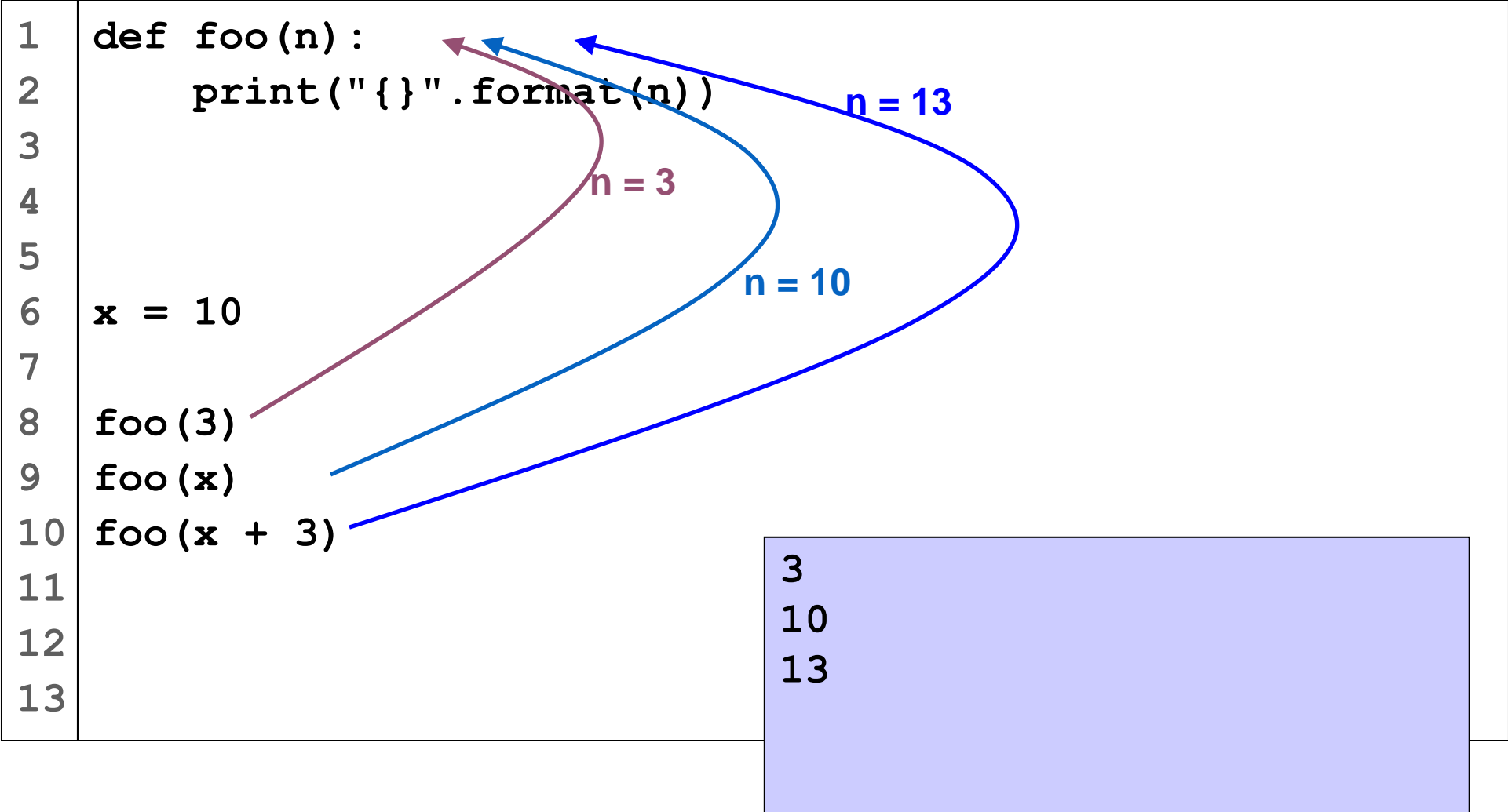
```
1 def foo(n):
2     print("{} ".format(n))
3
4
5
6 x = 10
7
8 foo(3)
9 foo(x)
10 foo(x + 3)
11
12
13
```

Variables for holding the values passed into a function are called *formal parameters*. They have local scope in the function.

The values, variables, or expressions specified in the function calls are called the *actual arguments*.

## 2. Parameters

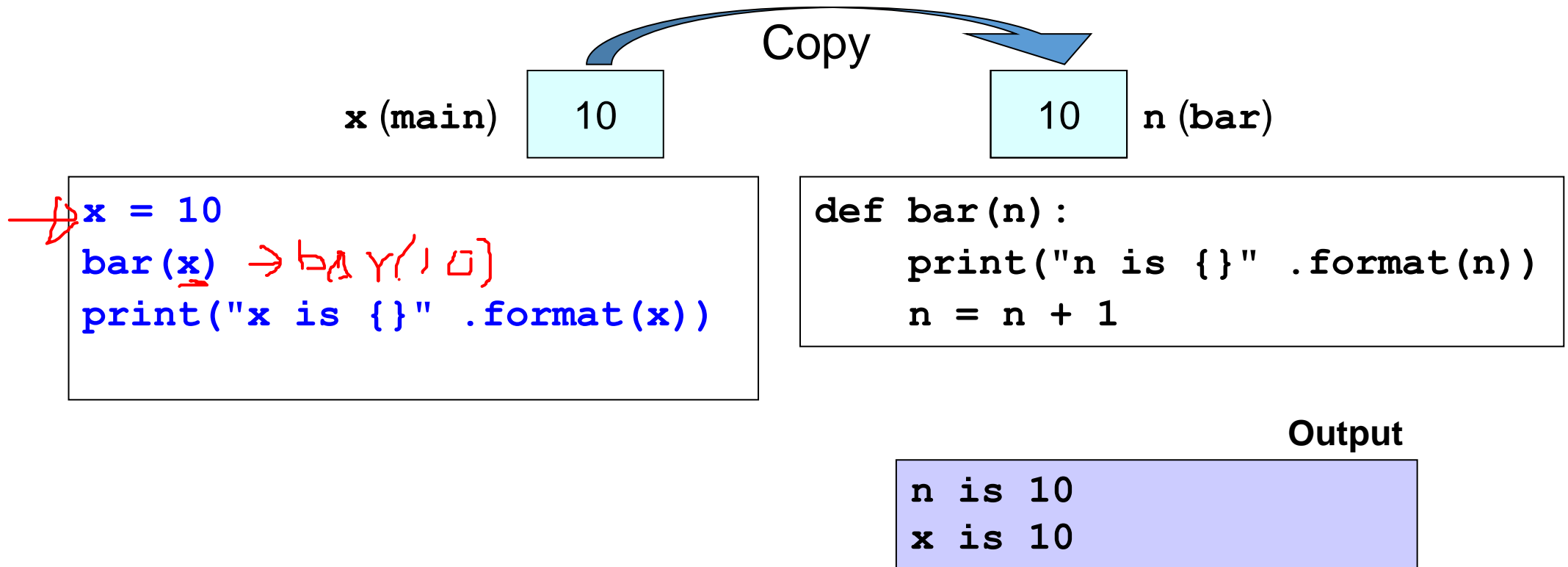
- Allows a function to accept data from its caller
- Allows programmers to reuse code for different values



- Values of the actual arguments are copied to the corresponding formal parameters.



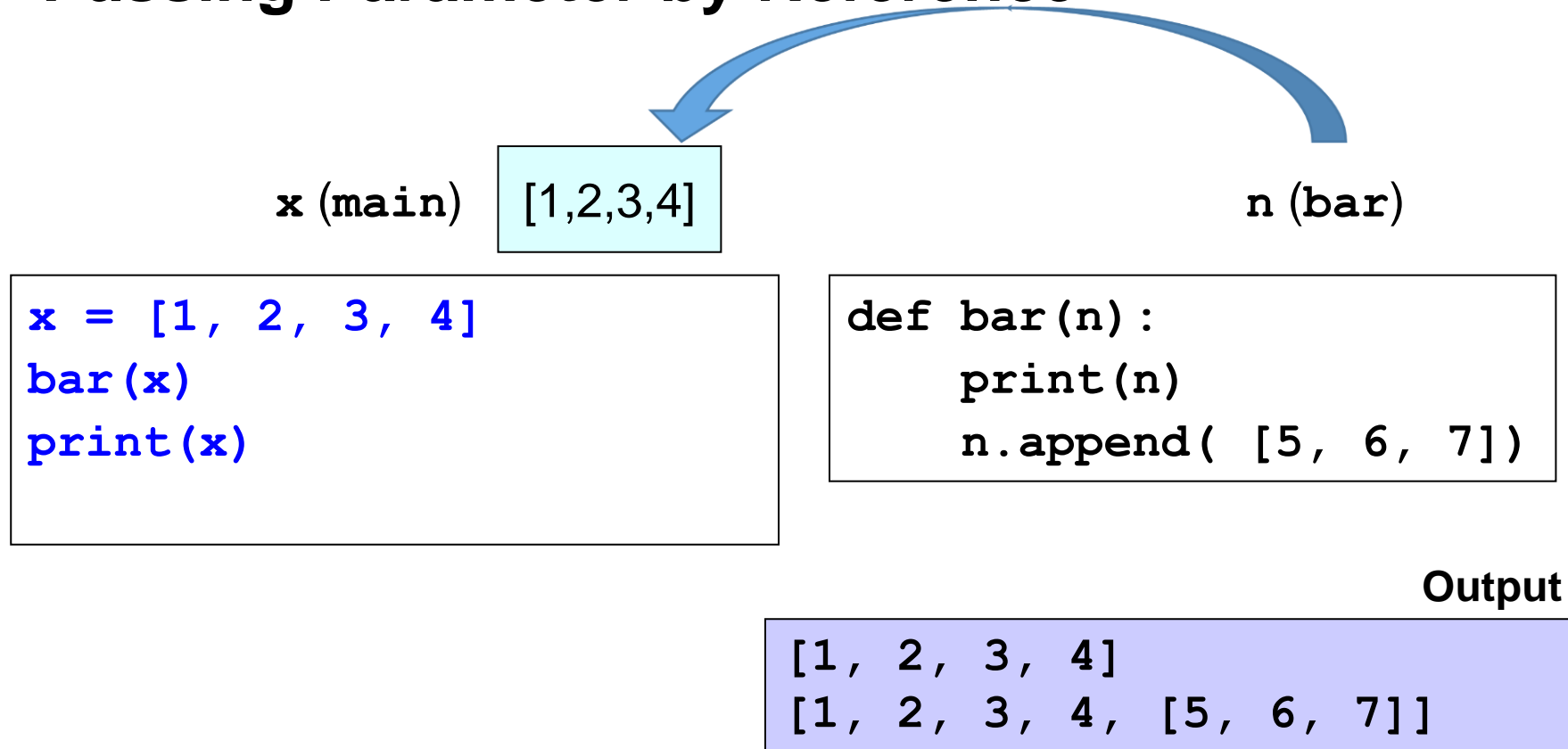
# Passing Parameter



**For numeric values, only value is passed.**

During the function call, only the value of **x** is copied to **n**. Changing **n** does not affect **x**.

# Passing Parameter by Reference



**n** keep the reference (location) of **x** (a list)

During the function call, any changes affecting **n** therefore also take effect on **x**.

# Pass By Reference

- You can make the following assumption for parameter passing in Python
  1. For simple data such as integer and floating point numbers, pass by value
  2. For **all other** data types such as list, ..., pass by reference

# Defining Functions with Parameters

```
def function_name( parameter_list ):
    doc string
    statements
```

- **parameter\_list**

- Zero or more parameters separated by commas in the form

**param<sub>1</sub>, param<sub>2</sub>, ..., param<sub>N</sub>**

```

1 def printBar(n, ch):
2     "A function that prints ch n times"
3     while (n > 0):
4         print(ch, end="")
5         n = n - 1
6     print("")
7
8 printBar(17, '#')
9 print("  Hello World!")
10 printBar(17, '*')
11
12
13
14
15

```

↑  
Documentation string

```

#####
  Hellow World!
*****

```

## Example:

An improved version of `printBar()`

```
1  def foo(x, y):  
2      print("{} {}".format(x, y))  
3  
4  x = 3  
5  y = 2  
6  
7  foo(x, y)  
8  
9  foo(y, x)  
10
```

**Example:** Defining and calling a function with multiple parameters

- What is the output produced in the above example?
- Arguments and parameters are matched by positions (not by names !).

```
1 def foo(x, y):  
2     print("{} {}".format(x, y))  
3  
4 foo(x=3, y=2)  
5  
6 foo(y=2, x=3)  
7  
8 foo(3, y=2)  
9  
10
```

```
3 2  
3 2  
3 2
```

## Keyword arguments

- Arguments in function call can also be in the form of keyword (match by names)
- Must use keyword argument for all others once used for the first of them

```
1 def foo(x, y=2):
2     print("{} {}".format(x, y))
3
4 foo(x=3)
5
6 foo(3)
7
8 foo(x=2, y=3)
9
10 foo(2, 3)
```

```
3 2
3 2
2 3
2 3
```

## Default arguments

- an argument that assumes a default value if a value is not provided in the function call for that argument
- Default argument must appear later than those without default value i.e. (x=3, y) is not allowed



### 3. Returning a Value From a Function

1	<code>def cube(x) :</code>	A function can return a value to its caller.
2	<code>    return x * x * x</code>	
3		We need to explicitly specify what value (of the proper type) to be returned using the keyword <b>return</b> .
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9	<code>print( "Cube of 3 is {}" .format(cube(3)) )</code>	
10	<code>print( "Cube of 8 is {}" .format(cube(8)) )</code>	

```
Cube of 3 is 27
Cube of 8 is 512
```

# Defining Functions That Returns a Value

```
def function_name( parameter_list ):  
    ...  
    return expression
```

- **return expression**

- **return** is a keyword, it returns the value of **expression** to the caller.
- **expression** is evaluated first before **return** is executed.

# Evaluating functions that return a value

```
def cube(x) :  
    return x * x * x
```

**cube (3)** is called first

```
print( "Cube of 3 is {}".format(cube(3)) )
```

When **cube (3)** finishes, the value it returns becomes the value of the expression represented by "**cube (3)**", which is 27.

```
print( "Cube of 3 is 27" )
```

# Evaluating functions that return a value

In general, functions are called first if they are part of an expression.

```
x = cube(1) + cube(2) * cube(3) ;
```

```
x = 1 + cube(2) * cube(3) ;
```

```
x = 1 + 8 * cube(3) ;
```

```
x = 1 + 8 * 27 ;
```

```
x = 1 + 216 ;
```

```
x = 217 ;
```

## Interrupting Control Flow with **return**

A **return** statement can also force execution to leave a function and return to its caller immediately.

```
def smaller(x, y):  
    if (x > y):  
        return y  
    return x
```

When "**return y**" is executed, execution immediately stops in **smaller()** and resumes at its caller.  
So in this example, if **(x > y)** is true, "**return x**" will not be executed.


# Example (with multiple **return** 's)

```
def daysPerMonth(m, y):  
    " Returns number of days in a particular month "  
    if (m == 1 or m == 3 or m == 5 or  
        m == 7 or m == 8 or m == 10 or m == 12):  
        return 31  
  
    if (m == 4 or m == 6 or m == 9 or m == 11):  
        return 30;  
  
    # if y is a leap year  
    if (y % 4 == 0 and y % 400 == 0):  
        return 29  
  
    return 28
```

Only one of the "return"  
statements will be executed.

# Example (with only one **return**)

```
def daysPerMonth(m, y):  
    " Returns number of days in a particular month "  
    if (m == 1 or m == 3 or m == 5 or  
        m == 7 or m == 8 or m == 10 or m == 12):  
        days = 31  
  
    elif (m == 4 or m == 6 or m == 9 or m == 11):  
        days = 30;  
    else:  
        # if y is a leap year  
        if (y % 4 == 0 and y % 400 == 0):  
            days = 29  
        else:  
            days = 28  
    return days
```



A function is easier to debug if there is only one **return** statement because we know exactly where an execution leaves the function.

# The **return** keyword

- If there is no data to be returned, write **return**

```
def askSomething( code ) :  
    if (code != 7):  
        print("Who are you?")  
        return    # Leave the function immediately  
    print("How are you today, James?");  
    return;    # This return statement is optional
```

If nothing to return, placing a return as the last statement is optional (it is implied).



# None Value

- In Python, there is a value called None, which means absence of value
- In other language , it is called Nil, null , etc.
- For function return nothing, None is being returned

```
def answerNothing( ):  
    print("do something")  
    return  
  
>>> code = answerNothing()  
do something  
>>> code == None  
True
```

None is being returned

```
1 def outerFun(a, b):  
2     def innerFun(c, d):  
3         return c + d  
4     return innerFun(a, b)  
5  
6 res = outerFun(5, 10)  
7 print(res)  
8  
9  
10
```

15

## Nested Function

- Allows function defined within a function
- innerFun only available within outerFun

# Return List and Tuple

- Used as body of a function

```
def ListofSquares( a ):
    b = []
    for x in a: b.append(x*x)
    return b
>>> ListofSquares([1,2,3])
[1, 4, 9]
```

- Return multiple values as a tuple, the braces are optional

```
def TupleofGP( a ):
    return (a, a*a, a*a*a)
>>> TupleofGP(3)
(3, 9, 27)
```

# List Comprehensions

- Used as body of a function

```
def ListofSquares( a ):  
    return [x*x for x in a]  
>>> ListofSquares([1,2,3])  
[1, 4, 9]
```

- Operations on dictionaries (to be discussed) performed by selecting values from range of keys, then returning items with selected keys

```
d = {1:'fred', 7:'sam', 8:'alice', 22:'helen'}  
>>>[d[i] for i in d.keys() if i%2==0]  
['alice', 'helen']
```

# Name Scope

- Names defined outside functions have *global* scope
- Any local names will shadow the global (same name)
- All values & names destroyed after return

```
>>> x=4
>>> def scopetest(a):
...     return x + a
...
>>> print (scopetest(3))
7
>>>
```

```
>>> x=4
>>> def scopeTest(a):
...     x=7
...     return x + a
...
>>> print (scopeTest(3))
10
```

# Recursive Function

- Python also accepts function recursion, which means a defined function can call itself.

```
def f( n ) :  
    if( n==1 ) :  
        result = 1  
    else:  
        result = n * f(n-1)  
    return result  
>>> print (f(3))  
6
```

# Using globals

- To have assignment access on global variables, use global statement

```
>>> def scopeTest (a):  
...     global b  
...     b = 4  
...     print ('inside func, b is ', b)  
...  
>>> a = 1  
>>> b = 2  
>>> scopeTest(a)  
inside func, b is 4  
>>> print ('after func, b is ', b)  
after func, b is 4
```

# Raise exception

- When a program is running at a point that the current scope/function cannot solve the problem, we can raise an exception
- Raise exception will cause program execution halted, thus programmer can check for the error using information provided

```
def compoundYear( balance, rate, numYears):  
    if rate < 0:  
        raise RuntimeError("-ve interest rate")  
    if numYears < 0:  
        raise RuntimeError("-ve number of years")  
    for year in range(9, numYears):  
        balance = compound(balance, rate)  
    return balance  
print ('after 10 yrs,', compoundYear(1000, -5, 3))
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "COURSE/python/function20.py", line 10, in <module>  
    print ('after 10 yrs,', compoundYear(1000, -5, 3))  
  File "COURSE/python/function20.py", line 3, in compoundYear  
    raise RuntimeError("-ve interest rate")  
RuntimeError: -ve interest rate
```



# Lambda function

- Passing function to another function, say filter, we may do it this way

```
def even(x):  
    return x % 2 == 0  
a = [1,2,3,4,5]  
print (list(filter(even, a)))  
>>> [2, 4]
```

- We may just want to define a very simple function
- using *def* function becomes quite cumbersome
- lambda is used to pass simple function

```
print (list(filter( lambda x : x % 2 == 0, a)))  
[2, 4]
```