



Massive Information &  
Knowledge Engineering

# Functions in Python

## 204113 Computer & Programming

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## What is a function?

- A **block of code** that performs a specific task.
- Suppose, you need to create a program to draw a circle and color it. We can create two functions to solve this problem:
  - create a circle function
  - create a color function
- Dividing a complex problem into smaller chunks makes our program **easy to understand** and **reuse**.

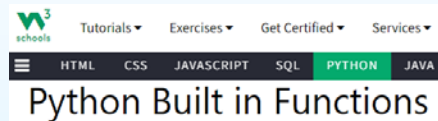


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## Types of function

- There are two types of function in Python programming:
  - **Standard library functions** - These are **built-in** functions in Python that are available to use.



- **User-defined functions** - We can create our own functions based on our requirements.

```
def my_function():  
    print("Hello from a function")
```



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## Python function declaration

The syntax to declare a function is:

```
1 # global variable  
2 def function_name(parameters):  
3     # function body  
4     return
```

Here,

- **def** – keyword used to **declare** a function
- **function\_name** – any **name given** to the function
- **parameters** – any **value passed** to a called function
- **return** (optional) – **returns value** from a function



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# Example of a defined function

```
2 def greet():<
    print('Hello World!')
3 greet()
# code
```



```
Shell x
>>> %Run -c $EDITOR_CONTENT
Hello World!
>>>
```

Here,

- When the function is called, the control of the program goes to the function definition.
- All codes inside the function are executed.
- The control of the program jumps to the next statement after the function call.

This function doesn't have any arguments and doesn't return any values.

<https://www.programiz.com/python-programming/function>



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# Function arguments

```
# function with two arguments
def add_numbers(num1, num2):
    sum = num1 + num2
    print("Sum: ",sum)

# function call with two values
add_numbers(5, 4)
# Output: Sum: 9
add_numbers(num2=4, num1=5)
# Output: Sum: 9
```

- A function can also have arguments.
- An **argument** is a value that is accepted by a function.
- If we create a function with arguments, we need to **pass** the **corresponding values** while calling them.
- Here, `add_number(5,4)` specifies that arguments `num1` and `num2` will get values 5 and 4 respectively.
- We can also call the function by **mentioning** the **argument name**, **not in order**, as illustrated by the last statement.



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# return statement

```
# function definition
def find_square(num):
    result = num * num
    return result

# function call
square = find_square(3)

print('Square:',square)

# Output: Square: 9
```

- A Python function may or may not **return** a **value**.
- If we want our function to return some value to a function call, we use the **return** statement.
- The **return** statement also denotes that the function has ended. Any code after return is not executed.
- In the example, we have created a function `find_square()`.
  - The function accepts a number and returns the square of that number.



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# Library functions

```
1 import math
2
3 # sqrt computes the square root
4 square_root = math.sqrt(4)
5
6 print("Square Root of 4 is",square_root)
7
8 # pow() computes the power
9 power = pow(2, 3)
10
11 print("2 to the power 3 is",power)
```

- In Python, standard library functions are the **built-in** functions that can be used directly in our program. For example,
  - `print()` - prints the string inside the quotation marks
  - `sqrt()` - returns the square root of a number
  - `pow()` - returns the power of a number
- These library functions are defined inside the **module**. And, to use them we must include the module inside our program.
  - For example, `sqrt()` is defined inside the `math` module.



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# Benefits of using functions

```
1 # function definition
2 def get_square(num):
3     return num * num
4
5 for i in [1,2,3]:
6     # function call
7     result = get_square(i)
8     print('Square of',i, '=',result)
```

## 1. Code Reusable

- We can use the same function multiple times in our program which makes our **code reusable**.
- In the example, we have created the function named **get\_square()** to calculate the square of a number.
- Here, the function is used to calculate the square of numbers from 1 to 3.
- Hence, the same method is used again and again.

## 2. Code Readability

- Functions help us break our code into chunks to make our program **readable** and **easy to understand**.



# Function argument with default values

```
1 def add_numbers(a = 7, b = 8):
2     sum = a + b
3     print('Sum:', sum)
4
5
6 # function call with two arguments
7 add_numbers(2, 3)
8
9 # function call with one argument
10 add_numbers(a = 2)
11
12 # function call with no arguments
13 add_numbers()
```

- In Python, we can provide **default** values to function arguments.
- We use the **=** operator to provide default values.
- In the example, we have provided default values 7 and 8 for parameters **a** and **b** respectively.
  - **add\_number(2, 3)** Both values are passed during the function call. Hence, these values are used instead of the default values.
  - **add\_number(2)** Only one value is passed during the function call. So, according to the **positional argument 2** is assigned to argument **a**, and the **default value** is used for parameter **b**.
  - **add\_number()** No value is passed during the function call. Hence, default value is used for both parameters **a** and **b**.



# Keyword argument

```
1 def display_info(first_name, last_name):
2     print('First Name:', first_name)
3     print('Last Name:', last_name)
4
5 display_info(last_name = 'Cartman',
6             first_name = 'Eric')
```

- In **keyword arguments**, arguments are assigned based on the name of arguments.
- In the example, we have **assigned** names to arguments **during the function call**.
- Here, **first\_name** in the function call is assigned to **first\_name** in the function definition. Similarly, **last\_name** in the function call is assigned to **last\_name** in the function definition.
- In such scenarios, the position of arguments doesn't matter.



# Function with arbitrary arguments

```
1 # program to find sum of multiple
   numbers
2
3 def find_sum(*numbers):
4     result = 0
5
6     for num in numbers:
7         result = result + num
8
9     print("Sum = ", result)
10
11 # function call with 3 arguments
12 find_sum(1, 2, 3)
13
14 # function call with 2 arguments
15 find_sum(4, 9)
```

- Sometimes, we do not know in advance the number of arguments that will be passed into a function. To handle this kind of situation, we can use **arbitrary** arguments.
- Arbitrary arguments allow us to pass a varying number of values during a function call.
- We use an asterisk (**\***) before the parameter name to denote this kind of argument in Python.
- Note in the example that after getting multiple values, **numbers** behave as an array (i.e., a **tuple**) so we are able to use the for loop to access each value.



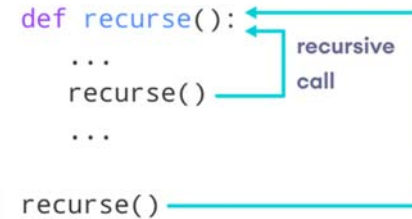
# Recursion?



- **Recursion** is the process of defining something in terms of itself.
- A physical world example would be to place two parallel mirrors facing each other. Any object in between them would be reflected recursively.



# Python recursive function



- In Python, we know that a function can call other functions.
- It is even possible for the function to **call itself**. These types of construct are termed as **recursive functions**.
- Left figure shows the working of a recursive function called **recurse**.

```
1 def recurse(n=5):
2     print(n, end=' ')
3     if n==1:
4         return
5     recurse(n-1)
6
7 recurse()
```

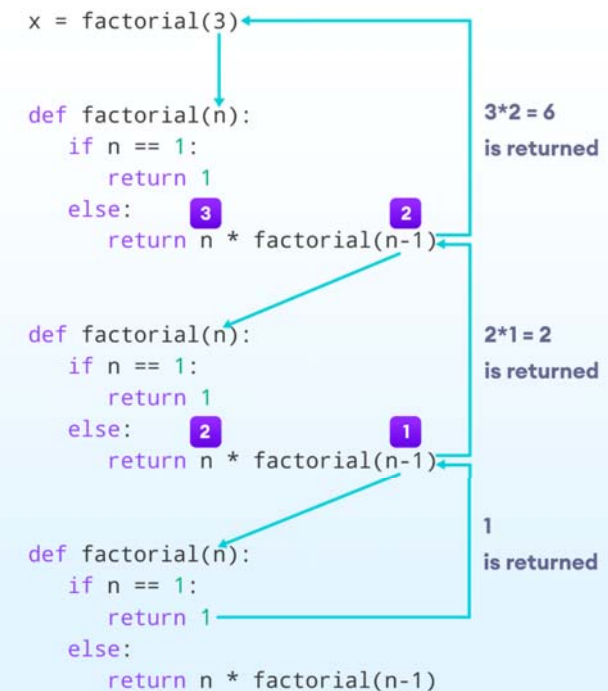


# factorial()

```
1 def factorial(x):
2     """This is a recursive function
3     to find the factorial of an
4     integer"""
5
6     if x == 1:
7         return 1
8     else:
9         return (x * factorial(x-1))
10
11 num = 3
12 print("The factorial of", num, "is",
13       factorial(num))
```

- Factorial of a number is the product of all the integers from 1 to that number.
  - For example, the factorial of 6 (denoted as 6!) is  $1*2*3*4*5*6 = 720$ .
- **factorial()** is a recursive function as it calls itself.
- When we call this function with a positive integer, it will recursively call itself by decreasing the number.
- Each function multiplies the number with the factorial of the number below it until it is equal to one.

```
factorial(3)    # 1st call with 3
3 * factorial(2) # 2nd call with 2
3 * 2 * factorial(1) # 3rd call with 1
3 * 2 * 1       # return from 3rd call as number=1
3 * 2          # return from 2nd call
6              # return from 1st call
```



# Recursion depth

```
def recursor():  
    recursor()  
    recursor()
```

Output

```
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "<string>", line 3, in <module>  
  File "<string>", line 2, in a  
  File "<string>", line 2, in a  
  File "<string>", line 2, in a  
  [Previous line repeated 996 more times]  
RecursionError: maximum recursion depth exceeded
```

```
1 def recurse():  
2     global n  
3     n = n + 1  
4     recurse()  
5  
6 n = 0  
7 recurse()
```

- Every recursive function must have a **base condition** that stops the recursion or else the function calls itself **infinitely**.
- The Python interpreter limits the depths of recursion to help avoid infinite recursions, resulting in **stack overflows**.
- By default, the maximum depth of recursion is 1000.
- If the limit is crossed, it results in **RecursionError**.



# Pro vs. Con of recursion

## • Advantages of Recursion

1. Recursive functions make the code look clean and elegant.
2. A complex task can be broken down into simpler sub-problems using recursion.
3. Sequence generation is easier with recursion than using some nested iteration.

## • Disadvantages of Recursion

1. Sometimes the logic behind recursion is hard to follow through.
2. Recursive calls are expensive (inefficient) as they take up a lot of memory and time.
3. Recursive functions are hard to debug.



# lambda function

- In Python, a **lambda** function is a special type of function without the function name.

```
>>> lambda : print('Hello World')  
<function <lambda> at 0x000001592FC2C430>  
>>> a = lambda : print('Hello World')  
>>> type(a)  
<class 'function'>  
>>> a  
<function <lambda> at 0x000001592FC2C3A0>  
>>> a()  
Hello World  
>>>
```



# lambda function declaration

**lambda arguments : expression**

- We use **lambda** keyword instead of **def** to create a lambda function.
- Here,
  - **arguments** – any value passed to the lambda function.
  - **expression** – expression is executed and returned.

```
1 # lambda that accepts one argument  
2 greet_user = lambda name : print('Hey there,',  
    name)  
3  
4 # lambda call  
5 greet_user('Delilah')  
6  
7 # greet_user()
```

- In the left example, we have defined a lambda function and assigned it to the **greet\_user** variable.
- When we call the lambda function with a string argument, **print()** statement inside is executed.



# Variable scope

- A variable **scope** specifies the **region** where we can access a variable.
- In Python, we can declare variables in three different scopes: **local** scope, **global**, and **nonlocal** scope.

```
def add_number():  
    sum = 5 + 4
```

- Here, the **sum** variable is created inside the function, so it can only be accessed within it (local scope). This type of variable is called a **local variable**.



# Local variables

```
1 def greet():  
2  
3     # local variable  
4     message = 'Hello'  
5  
6     print('Local', message)  
7  
8 greet()  
9  
10 # try to access message variable  
11 # outside greet() function  
12 print(message)
```

- When we declare variables inside a function, these variables will have a **local scope** (within the function). We **cannot** access them outside the function.
- These types of variables are called **local variables**.
- In the left example, **message** variable is local the **greet()** function, so it can only be accessed within the function.
- That's why we get an error (**NameError** in the example) when we try to access it outside the **greet()** function.



# Global variables

```
1 # declare global variable  
2 message = 'Hello'  
3  
4 def greet():  
5     # declare local variable  
6     # message = 'CPE'  
7     print('Local', message)  
8     # message = 'CPE'  
9  
10 greet()  
11 print('Global', message)
```

- In Python, a variable declared outside of the function or in **global scope** is known as a **global variable**. This means that a global variable can be accessed **inside** or **outside** of the function.
- In the left example this time we can access the **message** variable from outside of the **greet()** function. This is because we have created the **message** variable as the global variable.



# Nonlocal variables

```
1 # message = 'global'  
2 # outside function  
3 def outer():  
4     # local to outer  
5     message = 'local'  
6  
7     # nested function  
8     def inner():  
9  
10         # declare nonlocal variable  
11         nonlocal message  
12  
13         message = 'nonlocal'  
14         print("inner:", message)  
15  
16         inner()  
17         print("outer:", message)  
18  
19 outer()  
20 print('main:', message)
```

- In Python, **nonlocal variables** are used in **nested** functions whose local scope is not defined. This means that the variable can be neither in the local nor the global scope.
- In the left example, there is a nested **inner()** function. We used the **nonlocal** keyword to create a nonlocal variable.
- The **inner()** function is defined in the scope of another function **outer()**.
- Note that if we change the value of a nonlocal variable, the changes appear in the local variable.





# global keyword

```
1 # global variable
2 c = 1
3
4 def add():
5     print(c)
6
7 add()
8
9 # Output: 1
```

```
1 # global variable
2 c = 1
3
4 def add():
5
6     # increment c by 2
7     c = c + 2
8
9     print(c)
10
11 add()
```

- **global** keyword allows to modify the variable outside of the current scope.
- It is used to create a **global variable** and **make changes** to the variable in a **local context**.
- In the left above example, we have accessed a global variable from the inside of a function.
- However, if we try to modify the global variable from inside a function, we will get an error.
- This is because we can only access the global variable **but cannot** modify it from inside the function.

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<string>", line 11, in <module>
    File "<string>", line 7, in add
ERROR!
UnboundLocalError: cannot access local
variable 'c' where it is not associated
with a value
```



# Changing global variable inside a function

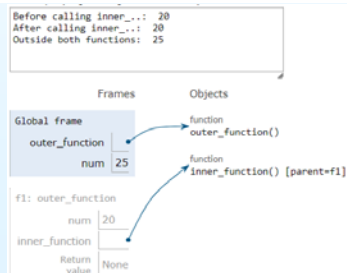
```
1 # global variable
2 c = 1
3
4 def add():
5     # use of global keyword
6     global c
7     # increment c by 2
8     c = c + 2
9
10    print(c)
11
12 add()
```

- We here have defined **c** with **global** keyword inside **add()**.
- Then, we have incremented the variable **c** by 2, i.e., **c = c + 2**
- As we can see while calling **add()**, the value of the global variable **c** is modified from 1 to 3.



# global in nested functions

```
1 def outer_function():
2     num = 20
3
4     def inner_function():
5         global num
6         num = 25
7
8     print('Before calling inner...: ', num)
9     inner_function()
10    print('After calling inner...: ', num)
11
12 outer_function()
13 print('Outside both functions: ', num)
```



- Inside **outer\_function()**, **num** has no effect of the **global** keyword.
- Before and after calling **inner\_function()**, **num** takes the value of the local variable, i.e., **num=20**.
- Outside of the **outer\_function()** function, **num** will take the value defined in the **inner\_function()** function, i.e., **num=25**.
- This is because we have used the **global** keyword to create a global variable **num** inside the **inner\_function()** function (local scope). So, change inside the **inner\_function()** has the effect on **num** outside the **outer\_function()**.



# Rules of global keyword

The basic rules for **global** keyword in Python are:

- When we create a variable inside a function, it is local by default.
- When we define a variable outside of a function, it is global by default. We don't have to use the **global** keyword.
- We use the **global** keyword to read and write a global variable inside a function.
- Use of the **global** keyword outside a function has no effect.



## Function as an argument of a function

```
1 from math import sin,cos,sqrt,pi
2
3 def my_fn_plus_one(f, x):
4     return f(x) + 1
5
6 print(my_fn_plus_one(sin, pi/2))
7 print(my_fn_plus_one(cos, pi/2))
8 print(my_fn_plus_one(sqrt, 25))
9
10 a = my_fn_plus_one(lambda x: x + 2, 2)
11 print(a)
```



## Sample Problem Solving



## compute\_circle\_area

```
1 import math
2 def compute_circle_area(radius):
3     circle_area = math.pi*radius**2
4     return circle_area
5
6 r = float(input("Enter a radius: "))
7 area = compute_circle_area(r)
8 print(f"Area of the circle is {area:.2f}")
```



## myadder

```
1 def my_adder(a, b, c):
2     # variable out has local scope in my_adder() fn
3     out = a + b + c
4     print(f'The value out within the function is {out}')
5     return out
6
7 ## main begins here
8 out = 1 # here variable out is in the global scope
9 # now we call the fn to see whether variable out changes
10 d = my_adder(1, 2, 3)
11 # verify that the variable out does not change
12 print(f'The value out outside the function is {out}')
13 # print(a,b,c)
```





## Task: Flat\_washers

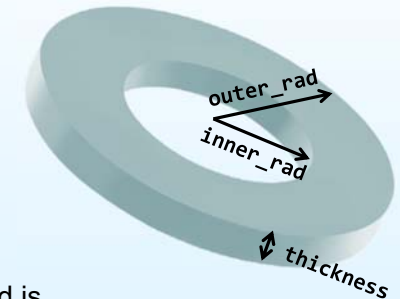
- You work for a hardware company that manufactures **flat washers**. To estimate shipping costs, your company needs a program that computes the weight of a specified quality of flat washers.



## Flat\_washers – Idea



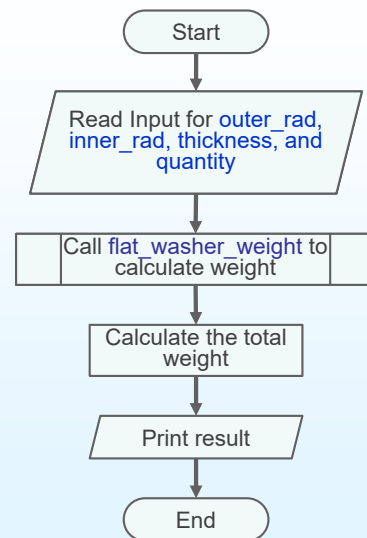
- A flat washer resembles a small donut (see the figure).
- To compute the weight of a single flat washer, you need to know its *rim area*, *thickness*, and *density* of the material
  - Here, we can **reuse** `compute_circle_area()` function
- Requirements:
  - Radius of flat washer and hole
  - Thickness
  - Density
  - Quantity
- We will assume that the material used is aluminum, whose density is well-known.



## Flat\_washers – Steps



- Get the washer's outer radius, inner radius, thickness, and quantity
- Compute the weight of one flat washer
  - $\text{unit\_weight} = \text{rim\_area} \times \text{thickness} \times \text{density}$
- Compute the weight of batch of washers
  - $\text{total\_weight} = \text{unit\_weight} \times \text{quantity}$
- Print the resulting weight of batch.



## Flat Washers – Program



```
1: import math
2:
3: MATERIAL_DENSITY = 2.70 # in g/cc
4:
5: def compute_circle_area(radius):
6:     return math.pi*radius**2
7:
8: def flat_washer_weight(outer_r,inner_r,thickness):
9:     rim_area=compute_circle_area(outer_r)-compute_circle_area(inner_r)
10:    return rim_area*thickness*MATERIAL_DENSITY
11:
12: outer_rad = float(input('Enter the outer radius (cm.): '))
13: inner_rad = float(input('Enter inner radius (cm.): '))
14: thickness = float(input('Enter thickness (cm.): '))
15: quantity = int(input('Enter the quantity (pieces): '))
16: unit_weight = flat_washer_weight(outer_rad,inner_rad,thickness)
17: total_weight = unit_weight * quantity
18: print(f'Weight of the batch is {total_weight:.2f} grams')
```

Notice how the variable MATERIAL\_DENSITY is defined and used as a global variable

Enter the outer radius (cm.): 15  
Enter inner radius (cm.): 10  
Enter thickness (cm.): 3  
Enter the quantity (pieces): 10  
Weight of the batch is 31808.63 grams

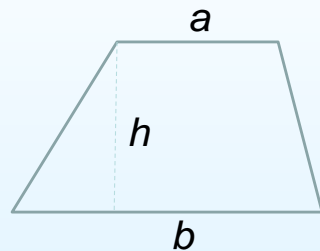


# Task: Trapezoid



- In [Euclidean geometry](#), a [convex quadrilateral](#) with at least one pair of [parallel](#) sides is referred to as a [trapezoid](#).

(ref: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trapezoid>)



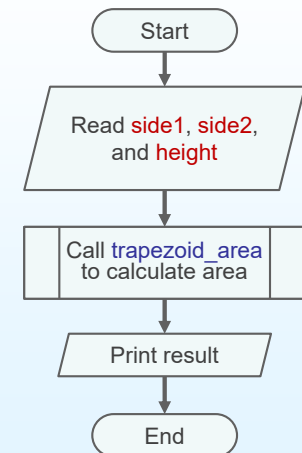
$$\text{area} = \frac{a + b}{2} h$$



# Trapezoid – Steps



- Get three double values from the user:
  - (parallel) side1
  - (parallel) side2
  - height
- Calculate the trapezoid area
  - area = ((side1 + side2)/2) × height
- Print the resulting area



# Trapezoid – Program



```

1: def read_trapezoid():
2:     print("Enter the properties of your trapezoid.")
3:     a = float(input("Length of parallel side 1: "))
4:     b = float(input("Length of parallel side 2: "))
5:     h = float(input("Height: "))
6:     return a,b,h
7:
8: def trapezoid_area(a,b,h):
9:     return 0.5*(a+b)*h
10:
11: # main program
12: a,b,h = read_trapezoid()
13: area = trapezoid_area(a,b,h)
14: print(f"Trapezoid's area is {area:.2f}")
    
```

Enter the properties of your trapezoid.  
 Length of parallel side 1: 10  
 Length of parallel side 2: 15  
 Height: 13  
 Trapezoid's area is 162.50

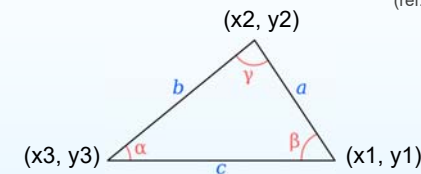


# Task: Triangle Area (Heron)



- In geometry, [Heron's formula](#) (sometimes called Hero's formula), named after [Heron of Alexandria](#), gives the area of a triangle by requiring no arbitrary choice of side as base or vertex as origin, contrary to other formulas for the area of a triangle, such as half the base times the height or half the norm of a cross product of two sides.

(ref: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heron's\\_formula](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heron's_formula))



- Heron's formula states that the area of a triangle whose sides have lengths  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  is

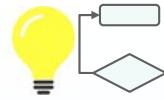
$$\text{area} = \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)},$$

where  $s$  is the [semiperimeter](#) of the triangle; that is,

$$s = \frac{a + b + c}{2}$$



## Triangle Area (Heron) – Ideas + Step



- Get the x-y coordinate of the triangle's 3 vertices
- Calculate the length of the lines  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  which are connected to those 3 vertices
- Calculate the semiperimeter
- Calculate the triangle's area using the Heron's formula
- Print the resulting area



## Triangle Area (Heron) – Program



```
1: import math
2:
3: def line_length(x1, y1, x2, y2):
4:     """
5:     Given X-Y coordinates of 2 points, compute the line length that
6:     joins them
7:     """
8:     return math.sqrt((x1-x2)**2+(y1-y2)**2)
9:
10: def triangle_area(x1, y1, x2, y2, x3, y3):
11:     """
12:     Given the 3 vertices, compute triangle area using Heron's Formula
13:     """
14:     a = line_length(x1, y1, x2, y2)
15:     b = line_length(x2, y2, x3, y3)
16:     c = line_length(x3, y3, x1, y1)
17:     s = (a+b+c)/2
18:     return math.sqrt(s*(s-a)*(s-b)*(s-c))
```

(The code continues on the next page)



## Triangle Area (Heron) – Program



```
19: def read_coordinates():
20:     x = float(input("x? "))
21:     y = float(input("y? "))
22:     return x,y
23:
24: def read_triangle():
25:     """
26:     Read X-Y co-ordinates of 3 vertices of a triangle
27:     """
28:     print("Enter X-Y coordinates of the three vertices of triangle:")
29:     print("1st vertex:")
30:     x1,y1 = read_coordinates()
31:     print("2nd vertex:")
32:     x2,y2 = read_coordinates()
33:     print("3rd vertex:")
34:     x3,y3 = read_coordinates()
35:     return x1,y1,x2,y2,x3,y3
36:
37: x1,y1,x2,y2,x3,y3 = read_triangle()
38: area = triangle_area(x1,y1,x2,y2,x3,y3)
39: print(f"area of the triangle is {area:.2f}")
```

```
Enter X-Y coordinates of the three vertices of triangle:
1st vertex:
x? 1
y? 1
2nd vertex:
x? 2
y? 2
3rd vertex:
x? 2
y? 1
area of the triangle is 1.50
```



## Distance between 2D points

```
1 from math import sqrt
2
3 def my_dist_xyz(x, y, z):
4     """
5     x, y, z are 2D coordinates contained in a tuple
6     output:
7     d - list, where
8         d[0] is the distance between x and y
9         d[1] is the distance between x and z
10        d[2] is the distance between y and z
11     """
12     d0 = sqrt((x[0]-y[0])**2+(x[1]-y[1])**2)
13     d1 = sqrt((x[0]-z[0])**2+(x[1]-z[1])**2)
14     d2 = sqrt((y[0]-z[0])**2+(y[1]-z[1])**2)
15     return [d0, d1, d2]
16
17 ## main begins here
18 d = my_dist_xyz((0, 0), (0, 1), (1, 1))
19 print(d)
```



## Distance between 2D points (2)

```
1 def my_dist_xyz(x, y, z):
2     '''x, y, z are tuples represent the point in 3D
3     output - list, where
4         d[0] is the distance between x and y
5         d[1] is the distance between x and z
6         d[2] is the distance between y and z
7     '''
8     def my_dist(x, y):
9         '''x and y are tuples represent the point in 2D'''
10        res = (x[0]-y[0])**2 + (x[1]-y[1])**2
11        return res ** (1/2)
12    d0 = my_dist(x, y)
13    d1 = my_dist(x, z)
14    d2 = my_dist(y, z)
15    return [d0, d1, d2]
16
17 ## main begins here
18 d = my_dist_xyz((0, 0), (0, 1), (1, 1))
19 print(d)
20 a,b,c = d
21 print(f'a={a:.2f}, b={b:.2f} and c={c:.2f}')
22 # d = my_dist((0, 0), (0, 1))
```



To be continue..

つづく

