Lecture 5.1: Functions

Introduction

- Functions facilitate a divide-and-conquer approach to problem-solving: when confronted with a
 complex problem we break it down into a number of simpler subproblems. The solution to each
 subproblem is implemented as a function. This approach allows us to create better quality, more
 readable code that is simpler to write and maintain.
- Inside a function we place code that typically takes some information (passed to it in the form of arguments), uses that information to calculate a result and returns that result to a caller. To use the function we do not need to know how it calculates its result, we merely need to know how to invoke the function. This hiding of implementation details is called **encapsulation**.
- Duplication of code is to be avoided. Once a function has been coded it can be called from anywhere in your program. Thus functions support code **reuse**. Functions can also be placed in a module to be imported and invoked by other programs. Thus functions support code **sharing**.
- Because of their simplicity, individual functions are more easily tested and verified compared to
 more complex, monolithic code blocks. Using functions thus produces more secure and reliable
 code.

Functions

```
import sys

def celsius2fahrenheit(c):
    f = c * 1.8 + 32
    print('That is {:.2f} degrees Fahrenheit'.format(f))

def main():
    temp = float(sys.argv[1])
    celsius2fahrenheit(temp)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 celsius_01.py 30
That is 86.00 degrees Fahrenheit
```

- Above we see the definition of a function celsius2fahrenheit. The c variable in the definition of the function is called a *parameter*. A parameter is essentially a variable that is *local* to the function: the c variable thus cannot be referenced outside of celsius2fahrenheit function.
- Variables which are created within a function are said to be *local* to the function. They are created during the execution of the function, and do not survive after the invocation has completed.
- Initial values for parameters, supplied at invocation, are called arguments or actual parameters. We see that when we call the celsius2fahrenheit function (from the main function) we pass to it an argument. The argument in this case is the temp variable. What is the relationship between the argument temp and the parameter c? Well, when the function is invoked the contents of temp are copied into c.

- By default, arguments and parameters are matched by position i.e. the first argument is copied into the first parameter, the second argument is copied into the second parameter, etc.
- Note how the celsius2fahrenheit function does not return any data to the caller. It calculates
 the temperature in Fahrenheit and prints it. Functions which do not return any value are called
 procedures. (It turns out that functions that lack a return statement do in fact return a value to
 their caller in Python, that value is None.)
- Procedures effect a change in the world. For example, they display something on a screen, or change the values of variables, or change the contents of a file, or delete a file from a disk. Functions on the other hand merely inspect the world without changing it. The result of their inspection is a value. We can use the function invocation anywhere an expression of the type returned by the function can be used.
- Another way to describe the difference between procedures and functions is to say that procedures are like complex *statements* while functions are like complex *expressions*.
- Suppose we want our function to make available, to the caller, the newly calculated temperature in Fahrenheit. How can we do that?

Return values

```
import sys

def celsius2fahrenheit(c):
    return c * 1.8 + 32

def main():
    temp = float(sys.argv[1])
    f = celsius2fahrenheit(temp)
    print('That is {:.2f} degrees Fahrenheit'.format(f))

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 celsius_02.py 30
That is 86.00 degrees Fahrenheit
```

• Above we have added a return statement to our celsius2fahrenheit function. The effect is to hand back to the caller of the function the value of c * 1.8 + 32. Since the function returns a value its caller is expected to collect that value. Above we see the caller collects the returned value and assigns it to the variable f.

Multiple return statements

```
import sys

def biggest(x, y):
    if x > y:
        return x
    return y

def main():
    x = int(sys.argv[1])
    y = int(sys.argv[2])
    print('The biggest value is {}'.format(biggest(x, y)))
```

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

As illustrated above, a function may have more than one return statement. Execution of the
function terminates and control returns to the caller as soon as the first return statement is executed however.

Returning multiple values

```
import sys
import math

def sphere(r):
    v = (4.0 / 3.0) * math.pi * r**3
    sa = 4.0 * math.pi * r**2
    return (v, sa)

def main():
    radius = float(sys.argv[1])
    (v, sa) = sphere(radius)
    print('Volume: {:.3f} m^3'.format(v))
    print('Surface area: {:.3f} m^2'.format(sa))

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 sphere.py 5
Volume: 523.599 m^3
Surface area: 314.159 m^2
```

- A function can return only a single object. If we wish to return multiple values, such as in the example above where we require a function to return both the volume and surface area of a sphere, then we must wrap up those values in a single object and return that object. In the case above the object returned is a tuple. The caller extracts the values from the tuple using multiple assignment and prints them separately.
- Note that although a tuple is used above to wrap the two returned values, any object capable of capturing the two values will do e.g. a list, dictionary, custom object, etc.

Variable scope

- When a function is executed it creates its own scope. Any variables that come into existence
 over the course of execution of the function belong to its namespace and are local to it. A variable comes into existence once it is assigned a value. Variables that are local to a function can
 only be referenced within that function and are inaccessible outside that function.
- If a function is invoked repeatedly, its local variables and parameters are created anew for each invocation, and they die when the function has completed its execution for that invocation. The final value of a local variable does not carry over to any following invocation of the function.

```
import sys
```

```
def celsius2fahrenheit(c):
    f = c * 1.8 + 32

def main():
    temp = float(sys.argv[1])
    celsius2fahrenheit(temp)
    print('That is {:.2f} degrees Fahrenheit'.format(f))

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 scope_01.py 30
NameError: global name 'f' is not defined
```

- Above we see that a variable f is assigned inside the celsius2fahrenheit function and thus
 only comes into existence in that function and so is local to that function. The reference to f in
 main is therefore illegal since f does not exist outside of celsius2fahrenheit and an error is
 generated.
- Note that assignments to a parameter can never affect the associated argument. Assignments
 through a mutable parameter will however affect the argument and thus be visible to the caller.

Global and local scope

```
x = 42

def foo():
    x = 33
    print(x)

def main():
    foo()
    print(x)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 globals_01.py
33
42
```

• It is the act of assignment that creates a variable. The assignment x = 42 (outside of any function) creates a *global* variable called x. The assignment of x = 33 inside the foo function creates a *new* variable x that is *local* to foo.

```
x = 42

def foo():
    print(x)
    x = 33
    print(x)

def main():
    foo()
    print(x)
```

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 globals_02.py
UnboundLocalError: local variable 'x' referenced before assignment
```

• The reference to x in the first print(x) is a reference to the global variable x. The assignment x = 33 creates a new local variable x. Thus x is both local and global in the same function. Python does not permit this kind of ambiguity and deems x to be local throughout the function. Thus the reference to x in the first print(x) is an error since the local variable x has not yet been initialised.

```
x = 42

def foo():
    x = x + 1
    print(x)

def main():
    foo()
    print(x)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 globals_03.py
UnboundLocalError: local variable 'x' referenced before assignment
```

• This is a similar case to the one above. The reference to x on the right hand side of x = x + 1 is a reference to the *global* variable x. The assignment x = x + 1 however creates a *new* local variable x. Thus x is both local and global in the same function. Python does not permit this kind of ambiguity and deems x to be local throughout the function. Thus the reference to x on the right hand side of x = x + 1 is an error since the local variable x has not yet been initialised.

```
x = 42

def foo():
    y = x + 1
    print(y)

def main():
    foo()
    print(x)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 globals_04.py
43
42
```

• There are no problems here. The reference to x in y = x + 1 is to the global variable x and the assignment to y creates a new local variable called y.

```
1 = []

def foo():
    l.append(99)
    print(1)

def main():
    foo()
    print(1)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 globals_05.py
[99]
[99]
```

• There are no problems here. We write *through* the reference in *I* to update the underlying global list. Since there is no assignment no new local variables are created.

```
x = 42

def foo():
    global x
    x = 33
    print(x)

def main():
    foo()
    print(x)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

```
$ python3 globals_06.py
33
33
```

• The global x statement marks x in this function as always a reference to the global variable x. Thus the assignment x = 33 in this case does *not* create a new local variable and instead updates the global variable x.

Programs, modules and functions

- As the programs you write get longer and more complex you may want to group related functions
 in separate files to facilitate maintenance. You may also have a handy function that you would
 like to use in several programs without having to copy its definition into each. In Python we place
 function definitions in a module from where we can import them into a program.
- For example, below we import the random module before calling its random and select functions:

```
>>> import random
>>> random.random()
0.5367186947938044
>>> random.random()
```

```
0.9155009876145279
>>> random.sample([1,2,3,4,5],3)
[1, 5, 2]
>>> random.sample([1,2,3,4,5],3)
[3, 5, 1]
```

• Should we wish to import only particular functions from a module we can do so as follows (note how we can then reference such directly imported functions in our program without going through the module reference):

```
>>> from random import random, sample
>>> random()
0.6005839537277994
>>> random()
0.23831832488473992
>>> sample([1,2,3,4,5],3)
[3, 5, 4]
>>> sample([1,2,3,4,5],3)
[5, 2, 1]
```

Programs as modules

 Suppose we have the following program called handy_functions.py that includes some code to test the count vowels function:

```
# handy_functions.py
vowels = 'aeiouAEIOU'
def count_vowels(s):
    return sum([1 for c in s if c in vowels])

test_words = ['apple', 'Orange', 'pineapple']
for word in test_words:
    print('{}: {}'.format(word, count_vowels(word)))
```

```
$ python3 handy_functions.py
apple : 2
Orange : 3
pineapple : 4
```

Pleased with our function we would like to make it available to other programs for import: We
would like our program to also serve as a module. However, look what happens when we try to
import handy_functions.py:

```
>>> import handy_functions
apple : 2
Orange : 3
pineapple : 4
```

- We have a problem. When we import handy_functions.py any code it contains that is not in a
 function is executed. That leads to the unwanted situation above where importing
 handy_functions.py causes some output to be printed as a result of our test code.
- · What we really want is two behaviours:

- 1. If handy_functions.py is being executed as a program then we want the test code to be executed.
- 2. If handy_functions.py is being imported as a module (i.e. as a set of functions) then we do not want the test code to be executed.
- It turns out we can achieve the desired behaviour by taking advantage of the fact that within a
 module, the module's name (as a string) is available as the value of the global variable
 name
- If handy_functions.py is executed as a program then __name__ == '__main__' while if handy functions.py is imported then __name _ == '__handy functions '.
- Rewriting our code as follows achieves the desired behaviour:

```
# handier_functions.py
vowels = 'aeiouAEIOU'
def count_vowels(s):
    return sum([1 for c in s if c in vowels])

def main():
    test_words = ['apple', 'Orange', 'pineapple']
    for word in test_words:
        print('{} : {}'.format(word, count_vowels(word)))

if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

 Running the code from the command line (i.e. as a program) causes the main function to be executed:

```
$ python3 handier_functions.py
apple : 2
Orange : 3
pineapple : 4
```

• Loading the code as a module skips the execution of the main function and simply makes the count vowels function available to the importer:

```
>>> import handier_functions
>>> handier_functions.count_vowels('tangerine')
4
```

Module/program template

• Thus the following template will work irrespective of whether you are asked to write a program or a module:

```
# Module/program template

# Global variables go here...

# Function definitions go here...

def main():
    # Put here the code that calls the other functions...
```

```
pass
# Am I a module or a program?
if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```