

#### **Function**

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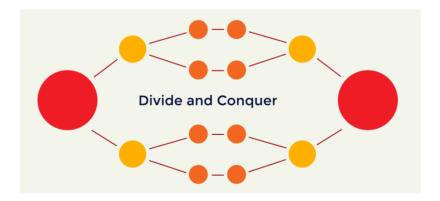


# Designing with Functions



### Introduction to Functions

- Function: group of statements within a program that perform a specific task
  - Usually one task of a large program
  - Known as divide and conquer approach (decomposition)
- Divide and Conquer Paradigm
  - Divide step
  - Conquer step
  - Combine step



source: [Divide and Conquer Paradigm in Algorithms, Gaurav Mishra]



#### Introduction to Functions

- Modular programming: a software design technique that emphasizes separating the functionality of a program into independent, interchangeable modules
  - each module contains everything necessary to execute only one aspect of the desired functionality
  - high-level decomposition of the code of an entire program into pieces: package(folder) -> module(file) -> function
- Abstraction: it allows the users of a function to use a piece of code as if it were a black box
  - o interior implementation details: users cannot see, don't need to see, and shouldn't even want to see
  - users of a function just have to know assumptions (about input) and guarantees (about output)
- Top-down design: technique for breaking an algorithm into functions



# Benefits of Modularizing a Program with Functions

- Simpler code
- Code reuse
  - write the code once and call it multiple times
- Better testing and debugging
  - can test and debug each function individually
- Faster development
- Easier facilitation of teamwork
  - different team members can write different functions



# Defining a Function



### **Function Definitions**

• In Python, each fuinction definition is of the form:

```
def name of function (list of formal parameters): body of function
```

• Example:

```
def maxVal(x, y): # function header
   """Return maximum of x and y."""
   if x > y:
       return x
   else:
      return y
```



# Indentation in Python

- Each block must be indented
  - Lines in a block must begin with the same number of spaces
  - Use tabs or spaces to indent lines in a block, but not both as this can confuse the Python interpreter
- IDLE automatically indents the lines in a block
- Blank lines that appear in a block are ignored



### **Function Definitions**

- A function is also an object.
- We can call a function after definition:

```
>>> maxVal
    <function maxVal at 0x7fb2c65751f0>
>>> maxVal(3, 4)
4
>>> mV = maxVal
>>> mV(3, 4)
4
>>>
```

- At the time of function invocation (or function call)
  - Formal parameters (x and y) are bound to actual parameters (3 and 4)
    - -> binding
  - actual parameters are also referred to as arguments

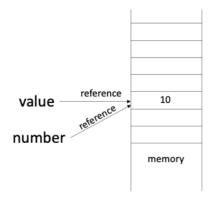


### Passing Arguments to Functions

- Argument: piece of data that is sent into a function
  - Function can use arguments in calculations
  - When calling the function, the argument is placed in parentheses following the function name
- Formal Parameter (Parameter variable): variable that is assigned the value of an argument when the function is called
  - The parameter and the argument reference the same value
- Scope of a parameter: within the function in which the parameter is used
  - Scope: the part of a program in which a variable may be accessed

```
def show_triple(number):
    result = number * 3
    print(result)

def main():
    value = 10
    show_triple(value)
```





### Local Variables

- Local variable: variable that is assigned a value inside a function
  - Belongs to the function in which it was created
  - Only statements inside that function can access it, error will occur if another function tries to access the variable
- Scope: the part of a program in which a variable may be accessed
  - For local variable: its scope is the function in which it is created
  - Local variable cannot be accessed by statements inside its function which precede its creation

```
def f(args):
    print(args, x)
    x = 3
```

- Different functions may have local variables with the same name
  - Each function does not see the other function's local variables, so no confusion



# Calling a Function



# When a function is called: e.g., maxVal(1+2, z)

```
z = 6
result = maxVal(1 + 2, z)
```

- The expressions that make up the actual parameters are evaluated.
- The formal parameters are bound to the evaluation results.

```
\circ x -> 3, y -> whatever value of z at the time of call
```

- The code in the body is executed.
- A return statement determins the value of invocation (or call).
  - If there is no return statement to execute, returns the value None.
- The value of the invocation (i.e., the function call) is the returned value.
  - main effect



#### Function returns a value

```
z = 6
result = maxVal(1 + 2, z) # maxVal returns a value, 6
print(result)
```

• Even void functions (without a return statement) do return a value, i.e., None

```
def naturalNumbers(n):
    i=1
    while i <= n:
        print(i)
        i += 1

naturalNumbers(10)  # prints natural numbers from 1 to 10
naturalNumbers(0)  # prints nothing
print(naturalNumbers(0)) # prints "None"</pre>

Run Code Visualize
```



# Returning Multiple Objects

```
def sum_and_mul(a, b):
    return a + b, a * b # returns a tuple

sum, mul = sum_and_mul(1, 2)
print(sum) # prints 3
print(mul) # prints 2

result = sum_and_mul(1, 2)
print(result) # prints (3, 2)
Run Code Visualize
```



# Positional Arguments vs. Keyword Arguments

- Two ways that formal parameters get bound to actual parameters
  - positional arguments (bound by position of argument)
  - keyword arguments (bound by the name of the formal parameter)

```
def printName(firstName, lastName, reverse):
    if reverse:
        print(lastName + ', ' + firstName)
    else:
        print(firstName, lastName)

printName('Jason', 'Mraz', False) # positional
printName('Jason', 'Mraz', True) # positional
printName('Jason', 'Mraz', reverse = False) # positional and keyword
```



# Positional Arguments vs. Keyword Arguments

```
def printName(firstName, lastName, reverse):
    if reverse:
        print(lastName + ', ' + firstName)
    else:
        print(firstName, lastName)

printName('Jason', 'Mraz', False) # positional
printName('Jason', 'Mraz', True) # positional
printName('Jason', 'Mraz', reverse = False) # positional and keyword

printName(reverse=False, lastName = 'Mraz', firstName = 'Jason') # keyword
printName('Jason', firstName = 'Jason', False) # error
```

- keyword arguments can appear in any order
- keyword arguments must follow positional arguments



# Keyword Arguments and Default (Argument) Values

- We can specify a default value for one or more arguments/parameters.
- Keyword arguments are commonly used with default argument values

```
def printName(firstName, lastName='Mraz', reverse=False):
    if reverse:
        print(lastName + ', ' + firstName)
    else:
        print(firstName, lastName)

printName('Jason')
printName('Jason', 'Bourne')
printName('Jackson', 'Brown', True)
printName(firstName='Jackson')

    Run Code Visualize
```



### More about Default Values

• The default values are evaluated at the point of function definition

```
i = 5

def f(arg = i):
    print(arg)

i = 6
f()
Run Code Visualize
```



#### More about Default Values

• The default values are evaluated only once.

```
def append2List(a, L = []):
    L.append(a)
    return L

print(append2List(1))  # prints [1]
print(append2List(2))  # prints [1, 2]
print(append2List(3))  # prints [1, 2, 3]
Run Code Visualize
```

- A reference to the default value (i.e., object) is saved in the function definition
- Don't use a mutable object as a default value!



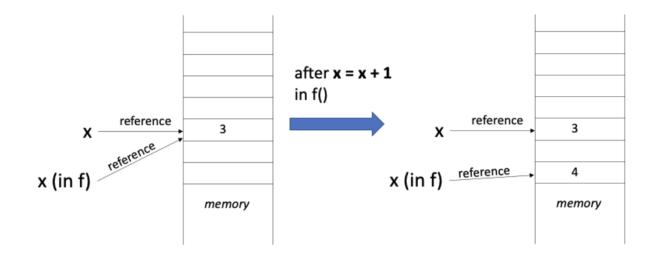
Scope



## Scoping

```
def f(x):
    x = x + 1
    print(x)
    # prints 4

x = 3
f(x)
print(x)
# prints 3
```



- Even though the actual and formal parameters have the same name, they are not the same variable
- Each function defines a new name space, also called a scope
- The formal parameter x exists (can be accessed) only within f
- The assignment statement x = x + 1 binds the local name x to the object 4
- This assignment have no effect on the bindings of the name x outside f

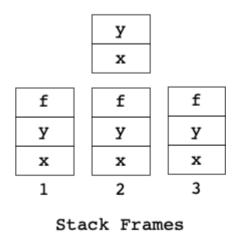


## Symbol Table and Stack Frame

- At top level, i.e., the level of the shell, a symbol table (often called a stack frame) keeps track of all names defined at that level and their current bindings
- When a function is called, a new symbol table is created for the function
  - It keeps track of all names defined within the function and their current bindings
  - If a function is called from within the function, another stack frame is created
  - Functions can reference variables from the containing scope
- When the function completes, its stack frame goes away (is popped off)

```
def f(x):
    y = 1
    x = x + 1
    print(x) # prints 4

x = 3
y = 2
f(x)
print(x) # prints 3
print(y) # prints 2
Run Code Visualize
```





## Static (or Lexical) Scoping

- We can determine the scope of a name by just looking at the program text
  - what matters is the context of where it is defined
  - without considering the run-time context, i.e., call stack (dynamic scoping)
- The order in which references to names occur is not relevant
  - If an object is bound to a name anywhere in the function body, it is treated as local to that function

```
def f():
    print(x) # x references the x outside f

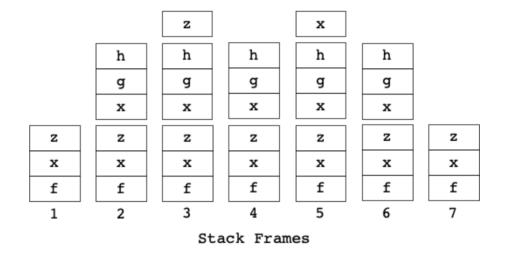
def g():
    print(x) # x references the local x
    x = 1

x = 3
f() # prints 3
x = 3
g() # unboundLocalError: local variable 'x' referenced before assignment
Run Code Visualize
```



# **Nested Scopes**

```
def f(x):
    def g():
       x = 'abc'
       print('x =', x)
   def h():
       z = x
       print('z =', z)
   x = x + 1
    print('x =', x)
    h()
    g()
    print('x =', x)
    return q
x = 3
z = f(x)
print('x =', x)
print('z =', z)
z()
                                   Run Code
                                            Visualize
```



#### Result:

```
x = 4
z = 4
x = abc
x = 4
x = 3
z = <function f.<locals>.g at 0x7fd7552ec1f0>
x = abc
```



### Global Variable



#### Global Variable

- Global variable is created by assignment statement written outside all the functions
- Can be accessed by any statements in the program file, including from within a function
- If a function needs to assign a value to a global variable, the global variable must be redeclared within the function global variable\_name
- In Python, variables that are only referenced inside a function are implicitly global.
  - don't have to redeclare it with global variable\_name
- If a variable is assigned a value anywhere within the function's body, it's assumed to be a local unless explicitly declared as global.



## Referencing a Global Variable

• In Python, variables that are only referenced inside a function are implicitly global.

```
# Create a global variable.
my_value = 10

# The show_value function prints
# the value of the global variable.

def show_value():
    print(my_value)

# Call the show_value function.
show_value()
Run Code Visualize
```



## To Change a Global Variable

- If a function needs to assign a new value to a global variable, the global variable must be redeclared with the keyword global within the function
  - o gernal format: global variable\_name

```
# Create a global variable.
number = 0
def main():
    global number
    number = int(input('Enter a number: '))
    show number()
def show number():
    print('The number you entered is', number)
main()
                                                                                                        Run Code
                                                                                                                 Visualize
```



#### Hide/Shadow a Global Variable

- If you do not redeclare a global variable with the global keyword inside a function,
  - you cannot change the variable's value inside that function
  - you are creating a new local variable with the same name
  - --> hiding/shadowing the global variable

```
# Create a global variable.
number = 0
def main():
    global number # redeclare the variable, number
    number = int(input('Enter a number: '))
    show number()
def show_number():
    number = 100 # shadow the global variable
    print('The number you entered is', number)
main()
```



### **Global Constants**

- Named Constants in Global Scope
  - You should use named constants instead of magic numbers.
- If you do not redeclare a global variable with the global keyword in side a function, you cannot change the variable's value inside that function.
  - o global constant: global name that references a value that cannot be changed.
  - o CONTRIBUTION\_RATE = 0.05 (next page)



## Gobal Constant - Example

```
# The following is used as a global constant
# the contribution rate.
CONTRIBUTION RATE = 0.05
def main():
    gross pay = float(input('Enter the gross pay: '))
    bonus = float(input('Enter the amount of bonuses: '))
    show pay contrib(gross pay)
    show bonus contrib(bonus)
def show pay contrib(gross):
    contrib = gross * CONTRIBUTION RATE
    print('Contribution for gross pay: $', format(contrib, ',.2f'), sep='')
def show bonus contrib(bonus):
    contrib = bonus * CONTRIBUTION RATE
    print('Contribution for gross pay: $', format(contrib, ',.2f'), sep='')
main()
```



## Avoid Using Global Variables

- Global variables make debugging difficult
  - Many locations have to be checked to track down a bug
- Functions that use global variables are usually dependent on those variables
  - Makes such functions hard to transfer to another programs
- Global variables make a program hard to understand
  - The key to making programs readable is locality
  - Global variables can be modified or read in a wide variety of places
- There are times when global variables are just what is needed
  - for debugging or analyzing purpose
  - o e.g., count how many times a function has been called



# Arbitrary Argument Lists



## Arbitrary Argument Lists

• a function can be called with an arbitrary number of arguments.

```
def sum_many(*args):
    args: passed as a tuple
    11 11 11
    print(args)
    sum = 0
    for i in args:
        sum = sum + i
    return sum
result = sum_many(1, 2, 3)
print(result) # prints 6
result = sum_many(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10)
print(result) # prints 55
                                                                                                        Run Code
                                                                                                                Visualize
```



## Arbitrary Argument Lists

```
def sum_mul(ops, *args):
    if ops == 'sum':
       result = 0
       for i in args:
            result = result + i
    elif ops == 'mul':
       result = 1
       for i in args:
            result = result * i
    else:
       result = None
    return result
result = sum_mul('sum', 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
print(result) # prints 15
result = sum_mul('mul', 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
print(result) # prints 120
```

Run Code



## **Arbitrary Argument Lists**

```
def sum(*values, **options):
    0.00
    values: passed as a tuple
    options: passed as a dictionary
    11 11 11
    sum = 0
    answer = ''
    for i in values:
        sum = sum + i
    if 'neg' in options:
        if options['neg']:
            sum = -sum
    if 'explain' in options:
        if options['explain']:
            answer = "The answer is "
    return answer + str(sum)
```

- \*\*options expects keyword arguments
  - of the form parameter = value pairs
  - passed as a dictionary to the function

```
>>> sum(1, 2, 3)
'6'
>>> sum(1, 2, 3, neg = True)
'-6'
>>> sum(1, 2, 3, neg = False)
'6'
>>> sum(1, 2, 3, explain = True)
'The answer is 6'
>>> sum(1, 2, 3, neg = True, explain = True)
'The answer is -6'
```



## **Anonymous Functions**



• Small anonymous functions can be created with the lambda keyword.

```
>>> (lambda a, b: a+b)(1, 2)
3
>>> f = lambda a, b: a+b  # define a lambda function
>>> f
<function <lambda> at 0x7fc9657ac5e0>
>>> f(1, 2)
3
```

This lambda function is equivalent to:

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



- Lambda functions can be used wherever function objects are required.
- They are syntactically restricted to a single expression.
- Semantically, they are just syntactic sugar for a normal function definition.
- Like nested function definitions, lambda functions can reference variables from the containing scope.

```
>>> def make_incrementor(n):
...    return lambda x: x + n
...    # lambda function can reference the formal parameter (local variable, n)
...
>>> f = make_incrementor(42)
>>> f(0)
42
>>> f(1)
43
```



• Let's translate the following code using lambda expression

```
def is_even(x):
    if x % 2 == 0:
        return True
    else:
        return False

source_list = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]

filtered_list = list(filter(is_even, source_list))

print(filtered_list)  # prints [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]
```

- Built-in function: filter(function, iterable)
  - Construct an iterator from those elements of iterable for which function returns True.



• Another use of Lambda expression is to pass a small function as an argument:

```
# Program to filter out only the even items from a list
source_list = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
filtered_list = list(filter(lambda x: (x % 2 == 0) , source_list))
print(filtered_list)  # prints [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]
Run Code Visualize
```



A&Q



## Acknowledgement

- The Python Tutorial, <a href="https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/index.html">https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/index.html</a>
- Lecture Notes, Professor Hyungjoo Kim
- Starting out with Python, Professor Tony Gaddis and Pearson Education, Ltd.
- Introduction to Computation and Programming Using Python, John V. Guttag