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Python Built-in Functions – Learn the functions with syntax and examples

In this article, we are going to see all the **pre-defined functions** that are available in Python.

You have already used some of the Python built-in functions, for example, the print() function is used to output a string on the console. As of now, the latest version of Python 3.8 has 69 built-in functions.

We will go through each of them.

Python Built-in Functions

The Python interpreter contains a **number of functions** that are always **available** to use anywhere in the program. These functions are **built-in** functions.

Below is the list of all the available built-in functions in **chronological order**.

List of Python Built-in Functions

abs()	enumerate()	iter()	reversed()
all()	eval()	len()	round()
any()	exec()	list()	set()
ascii()	filter()	locals()	setattr()
bin()	float()	map()	slice()
bool()	format()	max()	sorted()
breakpoint()	frozenset()	memoryview()	staticmethod()
bytearray()	getattr()	min()	str()
bytes()	globals()	next()	sum()
callable()	hasattr()	object()	super()
chr()	hash()	oct()	tuple()
classmethod()	help()	open()	type()
compile()	hex()	ord()	vars()
complex()	id()	pow()	zip()
delattr()	input()	print()	import()
dict()	int()	property()	
dir()	isinstance()	range()	
divmod()	issubclass()	repr()	

Here is a detailed explanation of built-in functions in Python.

1. abs(x)

The **abs() function** returns the **absolute value** of the number which is the **distance of a point** from **zero index**. The **argument x** can be an **integer** or a **floating-point value**. In case of complex numbers, their **magnitude** is **returned**.

Code:

```
1. print( abs(4) )
2. print( abs(-2.5) )
3. print( abs(3j + 2) )
```

Output:

```
4
2.5
3.6055512754639896
```

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2. all(iterable)

The all() function takes an iterable container as an argument and returns True when all elements of the iterable are True(or is empty) otherwise it returns False.

Code:

```
    print( all([]))
    print( all([True, True, False]))
    print( all([1,3,5,2]))
```

Output:

```
True
False
True
```

3. any(iterable)

The any() function takes an iterable container as an argument and returns **True** when **one of the elements** inside the iterable container is **True**, **otherwise**, it returns **False**.

Code:

```
    print( any([]) )
    print( any([False, False, True, 1, 3]) )
    print( any({10,20,30,40}) )
```

Output:

```
False
True
True
```

4. ascii(object)

The ascii() function returns a printable representation of the object. It escapes the non-ASCII characters in the string.

The string returned by **ascii()** is similar to the **repr() function** in Python2.

Code:

```
    ascii(2020)
    ascii('a')
    ascii('Hello \n World')
```

Output:

```
'2020'
"'a'"
"'Hello \\n World'"
```

5. bin(x)

The function bin() will convert an integer into its binary representation in string format.

Binary numbers are **prefixed** with 'ob'. It only takes **integer numbers** and giving a **string** or a **float value** to the function will result in an **error**.

Code:

```
1. bin(12)
2. bin(-12)
```

Output:

```
'0b1100'
'-0b1100'
```

6. bool([x])

The **bool()** function returns a **True** or **False** by converting the argument into a **boolean value**. It returns **True** when the **argument passed** is **True** otherwise **empty containers** and **False** value will **return False**.

```
1. bool(False)
2. bool([])
3. bool(20)
4. bool({1,2,4})
```

Output:

```
False
False
True
True
```

7. breakpoint(*args, **kws)

The breakpoint() function is introduced from Python 3.7 and it helps in debugging.

For example, when you use **pdb debugger** then you **call** the **pdb.set_trace()** in your **program code**. Then for a machine that has **web-pdb debugger** will have to **change** the **code** to **web-pdb.set_trace()** method.

This becomes an **overhead** and for that, we have the **breakpoint()** method which allows us to write **loosely coupled debugging code**.

Code:

```
1. msg = "Hi"
2. breakpoint()
```

Output:

```
>
c:\users\Techvidvan\appdata\local\programs\python\python37-32\bp.py(4)<module>()
-> print(msg)
(Pdb) msg
'Hi'
(Pdb)
```

8. bytearray([source[, encoding[, errors]]])

It returns a mutable version of bytes array of integers between o-256.

- If an integer is passed, then it will return us an array of that size with null bytes.
- If a **string** is passed, then it is necessary to provide **encoding** in the second argument.

Code:

```
    bytearray(4)
    bytearray('abc','utf-8')
    bytearray([1,2,3])
```

Output:

```
bytearray(b'\x00\x00\x00\x00')
bytearray(b'abc')
bytearray(b'\x01\x02\x03')
```

9. bytes([source[, encoding[, errors]]])

The byte() function is similar to the bytearray() function. The only difference is that bytes() returns an immutable object. We cannot change elements of a bytes function.

Code:

```
1. bytes(3)
2. bytes([3,2,1])
```

Output:

```
b'\x00\x00'
b'\x03\x02\x01'
```

10. callable(Object)

The **callable function** tells us whether an **object** is **callable** or **not**. It returns **True** when the argument passed is **callable** otherwise it returns **False**.

User-defined and all the built-in functions are callable.

Code:

```
1. callable(print)
2. callable([1,2,3])
3. callable(abs)
```

Output:

```
True
False
True
```

11. chr(i)

The function **chr()** is an **inverse** of **ord()** function. It takes **unicode code** point as an **argument** and **returns** the **string representation** of the **character**.

The $input \ range$ is from o to 1,114,111. Outside of this range, it will raise an error.

Code:

```
1. chr(65)
2. chr(120)
```

Output:

```
ε<sub>Α</sub>, εχ,
```

12. @classmethod()

The @classmethod() is a decorator that is used to create class methods that will be passed on all the objects just like self is passed.

Syntax:

```
1. @classmethod()
2. def func(cls, args...):
3. ...
```

Code:

```
1. class Person:
2.
3. @classmethod
4. def display(cls):
5. print("Person's age is 42")
6.
7.
8. Person.display()
```

Output:

```
Person's age is 42
```

13. compile(source, filename, mode)

The **compile()** functions **compiles** the **source code** into an **executable object**. The object can be **executed** by using **exec()** or **eval() functions**.

The first parameter is the **source code**, second is the **filename** and the third parameter is the **mode**.

Code:

```
1. exec(compile('num1=10;num2=20;print(num1+num2);','', 'exec'))
```

Output:

14. complex([real[, imag]])

The complex() function returns or converts a number into a complex number.

The first argument is the real part of the complex number and the second argument(optional) is the imaginary part.

Code:

```
1. complex(1,2)
2. complex(5.5)
3. complex(3+7j)
```

Output:

```
(1+2j)
(5.5+0j)
(3+7j)
```

15. delattr(object, name)

The **delattr()** function is used to **delete** an **attribute** of an **object**. It takes **two arguments**, the object from which you want to **delete** and the **attribute name** that you want to **delete**.

You can only delete the attribute when you have **permission** for it.

Code:

```
1. class Car:
2. color = 'Blue'
3.
4. c = Car()
5. print(c.color)
6. delattr(c, 'color')
7. print(c.color)
```

Output:

```
Blue
Traceback (most recent call last):
File "C:/Users/Techvidvan/AppData/Local/Programs/Python/Python37-32/bp.py", line 6, in <module>
delattr(c, 'color')
AttributeError: color
```

16. dict()

The dict() function returns or creates a new dictionary which is useful in mapping values. It takes an iterable.

Code:

```
    Numbers1 = dict(a=1, b=2, c=3, d=4)
    Numbers2 = dict([('a', 1), ('b': 2), ('c':3), ('d':4)])
    print(Numbers1)
    print(Numbers2)
```

Output:

```
{'a' : 1, 'b': 2, 'c':3, 'd':4 }
{'a' : 1, 'b': 2, 'c':3, 'd':4 }
```

17. dir([object])

The dir() object returns a list of all the names of the current local scope if no argument is passed.

Code:

```
1. Variable1 = 10
2. Variable2 = 'Hey'
3. dir()
```

Output:

```
['Variable1', 'Variable2', '__annotations__', '__builtins__', '__doc__', '__loader__', '__name__', '__package__', '__spec__']
```

When we pass an object as an argument then it will return a list of all the valid attribute names of that object.

Let's see the attributes of a **string**.

```
1. dir(str)
```

Output:

```
['__add__', '__class__', '__contains__', '__delattr__', '__dir__', '__dor__', '__eq__', '__ge__','__format__',
'__getattribute__', '__getitem__', '__getnewargs__', '__gt__', '__hash__', '__init__', '__init_subclass__', '__iter__',
'__len__', '__len__', '__lt__', '__mod__', '__mul__', '__new__', '__reduce__', '__repr__', '__reduce_ex__', '__rmod__',
'__rmul__', '__setattr__', '__sizeof__', '__str__', '__subclasshook__', 'capitalize', 'casefold', 'center', 'count', 'encode',
'endswith', 'expandtabs', 'find', 'format', 'format_map', 'index', 'isalnum', 'isdecimal', 'isalpha', 'isdigit', 'isidentifier',
'islower', 'isnumeric', 'isprintable', 'isspace', 'istitle', 'isupper', 'join', 'lstrip', 'ljust', 'lower', 'maketrans',
'partition', 'replace', 'find', 'rindex', 'rjust', 'rpartition', 'rsplit', 'rstrip', 'split', 'splitlines', 'startswith',
'strip', 'swapcase', 'title', 'translate', 'upper', 'zfill']
```

18. divmod(a,b)

The function **divmod()** takes **two integer** or **float numbers** as **arguments** and then **returns** a **tuple** whose **first element** is the **quotient** and **second element** is **remainder**.

Code:

```
1. divmod(20,2)
2. divmod(48,5)
3. divmod(11,2.5)
```

Output:

```
(10, 0)
(9, 3)
(4.0, 1.0)
```

19. enumerate(iterable, start=0)

The function returns us an **enumerate object** which is used in **loops** to **iterate** over **iterable objects**. It is useful when we want to have a **counter** to **calculate something**.

The **numbers start** from **zero** if you want to start with **another number** then you can **specify** that in the **second argument**.

Code:

```
    for i, countryin enumerate(['USA', 'UK', 'NYC', 'TKY']):
    print(i, country)
```

Output:

```
0 USA
1 UK
2 NYC
3 TKY
```

20. eval()

The eval() function evaluates a Python expression that is passed in a string. It parses into a Python expression and then the function evaluates it.

Code:

```
1. x=5
2. eval('10<20')
3. eval('x+ 10')
```

Output:

```
True
15
```

21. exec()

The exec() function is used to execute or run a Python code dynamically. We can write Python code in a string and pass it as an argument to the exec() function. It will parse the string and execute the Python code inside it.

```
1. exec('print("Hello")')
2. exec('a=20;b=30; print(a*b)')
```

```
Hello
600
```

22. filter(function, iterable)

The **filter function** is used to **filter out the data**. It does that by iterating on the **second iterable argument** and the **first argument** is a function that decides **how we will filter** the **elements**. This is mostly used with **lambda expressions**.

Code:

```
1. list(filter(lambda x:x>5 ,[1,2,3,4,5,6,8,10]))
```

Output:

```
[6,8,10]
```

Here we used a **lambda function** in which we want the **elements greater than 5** and the **list** is filtered out the elements **less** than or equal to 5.

23. float([x])

The **float** functions **returns** or **convert** the argument into a **floating-point** value if it is **compatible**. We can convert **integers** and **strings** that only contain **digits**.

Code:

```
1. float(45)
2. float('12')
```

Output:

```
45.0
12.0
```

A complex number or a string with other characters like alphabets will raise an error.

24. format(value[, format_spec])

The **format()** function is similar to the **format method** in **strings**. It is used to **modify** a value according to a **specific format**.

The first argument is the value that needs to be formatted and the second argument is the specifier of how value is specified.

Code:

```
    #format decimal number into binary value
    format(24, "b")
    #format a float value to have two decimal digits.
    format(123.456, "0.2f")
```

Output:

```
'11000'
'123.46'
```

25. frozenset([iterable])

The frozenset() function takes an iterable as an argument and converts it into an immutable set.

 $Sets are \ \textbf{mutable} \ by \ \textbf{default}. \ If we want the \ \textbf{same properties} \ of \ \textbf{set} \ but \ in \ an \ \textbf{immutable} \ \textbf{object} \ then \ we \ use \ \textbf{frozenset}.$

```
1. frozenset({1,2,3,4})
2. frozenset([30, 20, 10])
3. frozenset((1, 2.5, 8.5, 4))
```

```
frozenset({1, 2, 3, 4, 5})
frozenset({10, 20, 30})
frozenset({8.5, 1, 2.5, 4})
```

26. getattr(object, name)

The **getattr()** function is **used** to get the **value** of an **object's attribute**.

The **first argument** is the **object** from which you want the **value** and the **second argument** is a **string** that represents the **name** of the **attribute**.

Code:

```
1. class Car:
2. color = 'Blue'
3.
4. c = Car()
5. print( getattr(c, 'color') )
```

Output:

```
Blue
```

27. globals()

The function returns a dictionary in which all the global objects are accessible in the current scope or module.

Let's create a list in global scope and see the dictionary of objects in the global scope.

Code:

```
1. list1=[1,2,3,4]
2. globals()
```

Output:

28. hasattr(object, name)

This function is also **similar** to the **getattr()** function instead it checks if the **object** contains the **specified attribute** or not. It returns a **boolean value**.

Code:

Output:

```
True
False
```

29. hash(object)

In Python, everything is an object, numbers, strings, etc. all are object.

The hashable objects are mapped with an integer value in Python. The function hash() returns us the hash of the specified object.

```
    print( hash(45) )
    print( hash("hello") )
    print( hash(94387593420) )
    print( hash(True )
    print(hash(2.5))
```

```
45
-1010369850
2045796599
1
1073741826
```

30. help([object])

Python has an inbuilt help system which you can use to see details about any module, method, object, keyword, symbol, etc.

Let's see details about the string object.

Code:

```
1. help(str)
```

Output:

```
class str(object)
| str(bytes_or_buffer[, encoding[, errors]]) -> str
| Create a new string object from the given object. If encoding or
| errors is specified, then the object must expose a data buffer
| that will be decoded using the given encoding and error handler.
| Otherwise, returns the result of object.__str__() (if defined)
| or repr(object).
| encoding defaults to sys.getdefaultencoding().
errors defaults to 'strict'.
| Methods defined here:
| __add__(self, value, /)
      Return self+value.
 __contains__(self, key, /)
      Return key in self.
| __eq__(self, value, /)
      Return self==value.
| __format__(self, format_spec, /)
      Return a formatted version of the string as described by format_spec.
| __ge__(self, value, /)
```

31. hex(x)

The **hex()** function **converts** or **returns** the **string representation** of the **hexadecimal** value of the **number**. It takes only **integer number** as an **argument**.

Code:

```
1. hex(123)
2. hex(-12)
```

Output:

```
'0x7b'
'-0xc'
```

32. id(object)

The id() function takes an object as an argument and returns the identity of the object. The id is unique and constant for each object.

```
1. id(131)
2. id("Hello")
```

```
1933365200
81300384
```

Two objects with the same value will have the same identity.

Code:

```
1. name = "TechVidvan"
2. person = "TechVidvan"
3. print( id(name) == id(person) )
```

Output:

True

33. input()

The Python has an **inbuilt function** for taking **input** from the **user**. The **input()** function **reads** a **string** from the **user**, which we can **store** in a **variable**.

Code:

```
1. msg = input("-->")
2. print(msg)
```

Output:

```
->Input as a string
'Input as a string'
```

The function only takes a string, if we want an integer value from the user then we have to use typecasting.

We can achieve this by using **int() function**.

Code:

```
1. num = int( input("Enter number : " ))
2. type(num)
```

Output:

34. int([x])

The int() function returns or converts a compatible number or string into an integer. A string containing only numbers or a float value can easily be converted into integer using this function.

Code:

```
1. int(10.2345)
2. int('12020')
```

Output:

```
10
12020
```

35. isinstance(object, classinfo)

The function **isinstance()** checks whether the **object argument** is an **instance** of the class given in the **second argument**, it returns a **boolean value**.

We can check this for $\bf built-in\ classes$ and also $\bf user-defined\ classes.$

```
1. isinstance("String object", str)
2. isinstance( 2.5, int)
3.
4. class Peep():
5. msg="Hey"
```

```
6. p = Peep()
7. isinstance(p, Peep)
```

```
True
False
True
```

36. issubclass(class, classinfo)

This function checks whether a **class (first argument)** is a **subclass** of the class in **second argument**. It will return **True** when there is a **direct** or an **indirect subclass relation** between the **classes**.

Code:

```
1. class A:
2. pass
3.
4. class B(A):
5. pass
6.
7. issubclass(B, A)
8. issubclass(A, B)
```

Output:

```
True
False
```

37. iter(object)

The **inbuilt** function **iter()** is used to **return** an **iterator object** that we can use to **iterate over the elements** in the **object**. This is mostly used in a **for loop**.

Code:

```
1. nums= [2,4,6,8,10,12]
2. for num in iter( nums):
3. print(num)
```

Output:

```
2
4
6
8
10
12
```

38. len(s)

The len() function takes an **argument** which can be **either** a **sequence(string, list, tuple, etc)** or a **collection(dictionary, set, etc)** and returns the **number of elements** present **inside** them.

Code:

```
1. len([1,2,3,4,5])
2. len({10,20})
3. len("Give me food!")
```

Output:

```
5
2
13
```

39. list()

The list() function returns or creates a new list. It takes iterable like sets, tuples, etc. and converts them into the list.

```
1. list("Hello")
2. list((1,3,4,5,3,2))
3. list(("rose", "hibiscus", "lily"))
```

```
['H', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o']
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
['rose', 'hibiscus', 'lily']
```

40. locals()

The locals() in-built method is similar to the globals() method which we saw earlier. It returns a dictionary of the current local symbol table.

Code:

```
1. locals()
```

Output:

```
{'__name__': '__main__', '__doc__': None, '__package__': None, '__loader__': <class '_frozen_importlib.BuiltinImporter'>, '__spec__': None, '__annotations__': {}, '__builtins__': <module 'builtins' (built-in)>, 'var1': 3, 'var2': 3, 'name': 'Shrangi', 'person': 'Shrangi', 'msg': 'Input as a string', 'num': 342, 'Car': <class '__main__.Car'>, 'c': <__main__.Car object at 0x04D891C0>, 'A': <class '__main__.A'>, 'B': <class '__main__.B'>}
```

41. map(function, iterable)

The **map()** function is used to **map each element** of an **iterable element** to a **function**. It is similar to the **filter()** method that we saw before. It is **useful** in **modifying** each **element** of an iterable according to a **function**.

Code:

```
1. list(map(lambda x:x+10, [1,2,3,4,5] ))
```

Output:

```
[11, 12, 13, 14, 15]
```

42. max(iterable)

The max() function is **self-explanatory**, it takes an **iterable container** or **sequence** as an argument and returns the **maximum value** from the **list**.

Code:

```
1. max([1,3,5,7,123, 435,-2678,65])
2.
3. max( {-20, 80, 20, 30} )
```

Output:

```
435
80
```

43. memoryview(object)

The **memoryview()** function takes a **bytes object** as **argument** and **returns** a view of the **memory** and it's a **safe** way to expose **buffer protocol**.

Code:

```
1. var = bytes(6)
2. memoryview(var)
```

Output:

```
<memory at 0x04C60328>
```

44. min(iterable)

The min() function is also similar to the max() functions. It returns the minimum value from a group of items in an iterable.

```
1. min([7,4,2,1])
2.
3. min({-6, -10, 20, 30})
```

```
1
-10
```

45. next(iterator)

The **next() function** is used to get the **next item** from the **iterator object**. Every time we call the **next() method** the iterator points to the **next element**.

When there are **no next element** present, then the function raises a **StopIteration error**.

Code:

```
1. myIterator = iter([10,20,30])
2. next(myIterator)
3. next(myIterator)
4. next(myIterator)
5. next(myIterator)
```

Output:

```
10
20
30
Traceback (most recent call last):
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
StopIteration
```

46. object()

The **object() method** does not take any arguments and it **returns** a **featureless object**. It is the **base** for all **classes** and it contains methods that are **common** to all the Python objects.

Code:

Output:

```
<class 'object'>
['__class__', '__delattr__', '__dir__', '__doc__', '__eq__', '__format__', '__ge__', '__getattribute__', '__gt__', '__hash__',
'__init__', '__init_subclass__', '__le__', '__lt__', '__new__', '__reduce__', '__reduce_ex__', '__repr__',
'__setattr__', '__sizeof__', '__str__', '__subclasshook__']
```

47. oct(x)

The oct() function converts or returns an octal representation of a number.

Octal numbers are **prefixed** with "oo". It only takes an **integer value** and **returns** its **octal value**.

Code:

```
1. oct(10)
2. oct(-200)
```

Output:

```
'0012'
'-00310'
```

48. open(file, mode='r')

The open() function is used in working with files. It can open any file.

The **first argument** is the **file path** and the **second argument** is the **mode** by which we open the file, **for example**, **read**, **write**, **append**, etc. we use characters '**r**', 'w' and 'a' respectively to **represent** these **modes**.

The default mode is **read mode**.

```
    f=open('E:\\techvidvan/test.txt')
    print(f)
```

Output:

```
<_io.TextIOWrapper name='E:\\techvidvan/test.txt' mode='r' encoding='cp1252'>
```

To read the contents of the file we use the **read() method** on the file.

Code:

```
    contents = f.read()
    print(contents)
```

Output:

```
Hello World!
```

49. ord(c)

The **ord()** method takes a **Unicode character** as an **argument** and **returns** an **integer representation** of the **character**. It is the **opposite** of the **chr()** function.

Code:

```
1. ord('a')
2. ord('$')
3. ord('9')
```

Output:

```
97
36
57
```

50. pow(base, exp)

The **pow()** function is used for **calculating** the **mathematical power** of a number. This function returns the **base** to the **power of exp**.

For example **pow(a,b)** will return a to the **power of b**.

Code:

```
1. pow(2, 4)
2. pow(5.5, 2)
3. pow(8,-1)
```

Output:

```
16
30.25
0.125
```

51. print(*objects, sep=" ", end="\n")

You have already used this function thousands of times.

The **print()** function **prints** the objects to the **text stream file**. It **separates** the object by **space** by **default** and in the end, it appends a **newline** by **default**. We can change this by specifying **different arguments**.

Code:

```
1. print("Hello!")
2. print(1,2,3,4, sep="-")
3. print("$$", end="");
4. print("@@")
```

Output:

```
Hello!
1-2-3-4
$$@
```

52. property()

The property() method is used to return a property attribute from the given getter, setter, or deleter.

The syntax of property() method is -

Syntax:

```
1. property(fget=None, fset=None, fdel=None, doc=None)
```

- The fget is a function used to get attribute value.
- The fset is a function for setting an attribute value.
- The fdel is a function for deleting an attribute.
- The doc is a string used for docstrings.

53. range(start, stop, step)

The range() function is used to generate a sequence of numbers from a starting range to the stop number. It is useful to iterate over a range of elements.

Code:

```
1. for i in range(5,10): print(i)
```

Output:

```
5
6
7
8
9
```

54. repr()

The repr() function is used to return a printable version of the Python objects.

Code:

```
1. repr("Hey")
2. a = 5.5
3. repr(a)
4. repr({1,2,3,4})
```

Output:

```
"'Hey'"
'5.5'
'{1, 2, 3, 4}'
```

55. reversed(seq)

The reversed() function takes a sequence as an argument and returns a reverse iterator to the sequence. It is used when we want to iterate the elements backward.

Code:

```
1. for i in reversed([1,2,4,6,8]): print(i)
```

Output:

```
8
6
4
2
1
```

56. round(numbers [,digits])

The **round()** function round offs a number to specified **n-digits.** If the **digits** are **not specified** then it round offs to a **natural number**.

```
1. round(3.5)
2. round(3.2)
3. round(1.666666, 2)
```

Output:

```
4
3
1.67
```

57. set([iterable])

Set is a built-in class in Python.

The set() function takes an **iterable** as an **argument** and **returns** a set object of that **iterable**.

Code:

```
1. set([1,3,3,5,6,5])
2. set((10,20,50,20))
```

Output:

```
{1, 3, 5, 6}
{10,20,50}
```

58. setattr(object, name, value)

We have seen **getattr()** and **hasattr()**.

Now the **setattr()** function is used to set a **value** of an **attribute**. We can set a **new attribute** or **update** an attribute if the class **allows** us to **modify**.

Code:

```
1. class Student:
2. pass
3.
4. s= Student()
5. setattr(s, "name", "Rambo")
6. s.name
```

Output:

Rambo

59. slice(start, stop [,step])

The **slice()** function returns a **slice object** just like a **range**. We can use the slice object to slice a **sequence** like **lists**, **strings**, etc.

Code:

Output:

```
slice(None, 4, None)
slice(1,6,2)
1234
246
```

60. sorted(iterable)

The **sorted()** function sorts the given **iterable** and **returns** a list of all the elements in **ascending order** by **default**. It will sort a **list, string, sets**, etc and will always return a list.

```
    sorted([7,5,3,2,1])
    sorted("Hello")
    sorted({1,2,3,4,5}, reverse=True)
```

```
[1, 2, 3, 5, 7]
['H', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o']
[5, 4, 3, 2, 1]
```

61. @staticmethod()

This is a decorator which is used to **transform** a method into a **static method**. A static method can be **directly called** with the **class name** without **creating any instance**.

Code:

```
1. class Letter:
2.  @staticmethod
3.  def msg():
4.     print("static method")
5.
6. Letter.msg()
```

Output:

```
Static method
```

62. str(object)

The str() function is used to convert an object into a string. str is the built-in class for strings. It can be used in type conversion of numbers into strings.

Code:

```
1. str()
2. str(125)
3. str("Hello")
4. str({1,10,60})
```

Output:

```
.,
'125'
'Hello'
'{1, 10, 60}'
```

63. sum(iterable)

The function sum() is also self-explanatory. It takes an iterable collection or sequence as an argument and returns the sum of all the elements.

The elements should be **only numbers** else it will not be able to **add elements** and **throw errors**.

Code:

```
1. sum([1,2,3,4,5])
2. sum((10,30,10))
3. sum([1, 4.5, 8.6, 100])
```

Output:

```
15
50
114.1
```

64. super()

The **super()** method is used to **return** a **proxy object** that refers to the **parent class**. By using the super() method we can access the **parent class methods** or **attributes**.

```
1. class A:
2. def __init__(self):
3. print("Class A")
```

```
4.
5. class B(A):
6. def __init__(self):
7. super().__init__()
8. print("Class B")
9.
10. b = B()
```

```
Class A
Class B
```

65. tuple([iterable])

Tuple is an immutable sequence of elements. The tuple() function is used to create or convert other sequences like lists, strings, etc into tuples.

Code:

```
1. tuple([1,2,3,4,5])
2. tuple("Techvidvan")
```

Output:

```
(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
('T', 'e', 'c', 'h', 'v', 'i', 'd', 'v', 'a', 'n')
```

66. type()

The type() function returns the type of the Python objects or the class of the Python objects.

Code:

```
1. type("Tech")
2. type(3.5)
3. type([])
4. type({1,2,3})
```

Output:

```
<class 'str'>
<class 'float'>
<class 'list'>
<class 'set'>
```

67. vars([object])

The vars() function returns the <u>__dict__</u> attribute of a module, class, instance, or any Python object. If arguments are not passed then it is similar to the locals() function.

Code:

```
1. vars(tuple)
```

Output:

mappingproxy({'._repr__': <slot wrapper '__repr__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__hash__': <slot wrapper '__hash__' of 'tuple'
objects>, '__getattribute__': <slot wrapper '__getattribute__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__lt__': <slot wrapper '__lt__' of 'tuple'
objects>, '__le__': <slot wrapper '__le__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__eq__': <slot wrapper '__eq__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__ne__':
<slot wrapper '__ne__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__gt__': <slot wrapper '__gt__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__ge__': <slot wrapper '__gt__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__ge__': <slot wrapper '__iter__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__len__': <slot wrapper '__len__' of
'tuple' objects>, '__getitem__': <slot wrapper '__getitem__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__add__': <slot wrapper '__add__' of 'tuple'
objects>, '__mul__': <slot wrapper '__contains__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__remul__': <slot wrapper '__for 'tuple' objects>,
'__contains__': <slot wrapper '__contains__' of 'tuple' objects>, '__new__': <method '__getnewargs__' of 'tuple' objects> builtin method __new__ of type object at 0x73388588>, '__getnewargs__': , 'index': <method 'index' of 'tuple' objects>, '__ount':
<method 'count' of 'tuple' objects>, '__doc__': "Built-in immutable sequence.\n\nIf no argument is given, the constructor
returns an empty tuple.\nIf iterable is specified the tuple is initialized from iterable's items.\n\nIf the argument is a tuple,
the return value is the same object."})

68. zip(*iterables)

The zip function returns us iterators of tuples. It can take any number of iterables and packs their same index positions into tuples.

```
for i in zip([10,20,30,40],[1,2,3],[1,2,3,4,5]):
```

```
(10, 1, 1)
(20, 2, 2)
(30, 3, 3)
```

69. __import__(name)

This is an advanced function that is not used in everyday programming.

Whenever we use an import statement like - import numpy, it calls the __import__O function automatically which imports the statements.

Syntax:

```
__import__(name, globals, locals, fromlist, level)
```

Code:

```
1. __import__('math', globals(), locals(), [], 0)
```

This statement is equivalent to 'import math'. This function is useful when we want to import a module during runtime.

Summary

This article is a bit lengthy and you should congratulate yourself for making this far.

We have discussed all the 69 Python built-in functions. The built-in functions are available to use anywhere in the Python programme.

You can use TechVidvan's Python built-in functions article as a reference when you want to quickly grasp information about a function.



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