

# Functions

## 1.3.1 Introduction

A function is a group (or block ) of statements that perform a specific task . Functions run only when it is called. One can pass data into the function in the form of parameters. Function can also return data as a result. Instead of writing a large program as one long sequence of instructions , it can be written as several small function , each performing a specific part of the task . They constitute line of code(s) that are executed sequentially from top to bottom by Python interpreter. A python function is written once and is used / called as many time as required . Functions are the most important building blocks for any application in Python and work on the divide and conquer approach. Functions can be conquered into the following three types :

- (i) User Defined
- (ii) Built in
- (iii) Modules

### i.User Defined Functions:

Functions should be defined and defined function can be called. Functions are also known as routines, subroutines, methods, procedures or sub-programs. The syntax for defining and calling a function is as illustrated below :

#### Syntax for Defining a function:

**Function is defined using def keyword in Python.**

```
def fun_name(comma_seprated_parameter_list):  
    stmt1  
    stmt2  
    stmt3  
    -----  
    stmtn  
    return stmt
```

**Statements below def begin with four spaces. This is called indentation. It is a requirement of Python that the code following a colon must be indented. A function definition consists of the following components;**

1. Keyword def marks the start of function header
2. A function name to uniquely identify it. Function naming follows the same rules as rules of writing identifiers in Python.
3. Parameters (arguments) through which we pass values to a function . They are optional.
4. A colon (:) to mark the end of function header.
5. Optional documentation string (docstring) to describe what the function does.
6. One or more valid Python statements that make up the function body. Statements must have same indentation level (usually) 4 spaces)
7. An optional return statement to return a value from the function .

**Example :**

```
def cube(n):  
    ncube = n**3  
    return ncube
```

**Syntax for calling a function:**

```
fun_name(parameter list)
```

**Example:** cube(3)

```
def cube(n):  
    ncube = n**3  
    return ncube
```

```
cube(10)
```

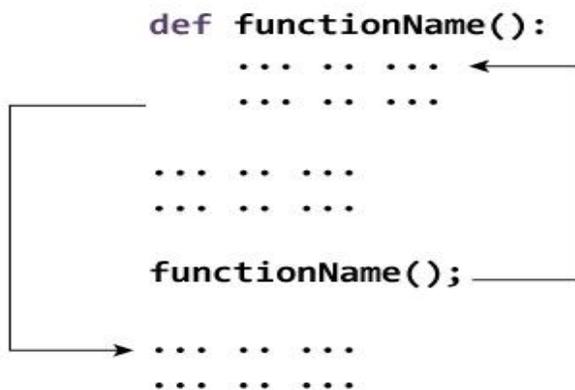
```
1000
```

## Parameters and arguments

Parameters are temporary variable names within functions. The argument can be thought of as the value that is assigned to that temporary variable.

- 'n' here is the **parameter** for the function 'cube'. This means that anywhere we see 'n' within the function will act as a placeholder until number is passed an argument.
- Here 3 is the **argument**.
- Parameters are used in **function definition** and arguments are used in **function call**.

## Working of function



## Example 1: Function without parameters

```
# Function without parameters  
  
# Function definition  
def display():  
    print("Rocky Robin")  
    print("Lucknow")  
    print("India")  
# Function Call  
display()
```

```
Rocky Robin  
Lucknow  
India
```

### Example 2 : Function with parameters but without returning values.

```
# function with paramters and without return values
def Simple_Interest( p,t,r):
    si = p*t*r/100
    print("Simple Interest: ",si)

p = float(input("Enter the value of Principal Amount in Rupees: "))
t = float(input("Enter the value of Time Period in years: "))
r = float(input("Enter the value of Rate of Interest in percentage: "))
Simple_Interest(p,t,r)
```

```
Enter the value of Principal Amount in Rupees: 1000
Enter the value of Time Period in years: 2.5
Enter the value of Rate of Interest in percentage: 1.5
Simple Interest: 37.5
```

### Example 3: Function with parameters and return values

```
# function with parameter and return value
def area_rect(length,breadth):
    area = length * breadth
    return area

length = float(input("Enter the length of rectangle: "))
breadth =float(input("Enter the breadth of rectangle: "))
area = area_rect(length,breadth)
print ("The area of rectangle :",area)
```

```
Enter the length of rectangle: 10
Enter the breadth of rectangle: 20
The area of rectangle : 200.0
```

## Example 4: Function which return multiple values

```
1 def multireturn(n):
2     return n**2,n**3,n**4,n**5 # Returning four values
```

```
1 n = int(input("Enter the number: "))
2 np2,np3,np4,np5 = multireturn(n)
3 print("np2 : ",np2)
4 print("np3 : ",np3)
5 print("np4 : ",np4)
6 print("np5 : ",np5)
```

```
Enter the number: 2
np2 : 4
np3 : 8
np4 : 16
np5 : 32
```

## The None-Value

In Python there is a value called None, which represents the absence of a value. None is the only value of the None Type data type. (Other programming languages might call this value null, nil, or undefined.) Just like the Boolean True and False values, None must be typed with a capital N.

```
1 def f1():
2     print(1)
3
4 x= f1()
5 y = print("End")
6 print(x)
7 print(y)
```

```
1
End
None
None
```

## Keyword Arguments and print()

Keyword arguments are identified by the keyword put before them in the function call. Keyword arguments are often used for optional parameters. For example, the `print()` function has the optional parameters ***end*** and ***sep*** to specify what should be printed at the end of its arguments and between its arguments (separating them), respectively. Following examples illustrates the behavior of `print` with ***end***, without ***end*** and with ***sep***.

```
1 print('Hello', end=' ')
2 print('World')
```

Hello World

```
1 print('Hello')
2 print('World')
```

Hello  
World

```
1 print('Hello', end='##')
2 print('World')
```

Hello##World

```
1 print('cats', 'dogs', 'mice')
```

cats dogs mice

```
1 print('cats', 'dogs', 'mice', sep='>')
```

cats>dogs>mice

### 1.3.6 Local and Global Scope

Parameters and variables that are assigned in a called function are said to exist in that function's local scope. Variables that are assigned outside all functions are said to exist in the global scope. A variable that exists in a local scope is called a local variable, while a variable that exists in the global scope is called a global variable. A variable must be one or the other; it cannot be both local and global. Following example illustrates the difference between local and global variable .

```
1 x = 20 # global variable
2 def f1():
3     x = 15
4     l = 20 # Local variable
5     print("Function f1",x,l)
6
7 def f2():
8     y = x + 20
9     print("Function f2",x,y)
```

```
1 f1()
2 f2()
3 print(x)
```

```
Function f1 15 20
Function f2 20 40
20
```

### Local variable cannot be used in the global scope

Consider this program which will cause an error when you run it:

```
def fun1():
    x = 31337
fun1()
print(x)
```

If you run this program the output will look like this

```
-----
NameError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-12-8e05a42defd6> in <module>
      2     x = 31337
      3     fun1()
----> 4     print(x)

NameError: name 'x' is not defined
```

The error happens because the `x` variable exists only in the local scope created when `fun1()` is called. Once the program execution returns from `fun1()`, that local scope is destroyed, and there is no longer a variable named `x`. So when your program tries to run `print(x)`, Python gives you an error saying that `x` is not defined. This makes sense if you think about it; when the program execution is in the global scope, no local scopes exist, so there can't be any local variables. This is why only global variables can be used in the global scope.

### Local Scopes Cannot Use Variables in Other Local Scopes

A new local scope is created whenever a function is called, including when a function is called from another function. Consider this program:

```
def fun1():
    x = 10
    fun2()
    print(x)
def fun2():
    y = 21
    x = 0
fun1()
```

10

When the program starts the `fun1()` is called and a local scope is created . The local variable `x` is set to 10. Then `fun2()` is called and a second local scope is created . Multiple local scopes can exist at the same time . In this new local scope , the local variable `y` is set to 21 and a local variable `x` which is different from the one in `fun1()`'s local scope is also created and set to 0. When `fun2()` returns the local scope for the call to `fun1()` still exists here the `x` variable is set to 10. This is what the programs prints.

The local variables in one function are completely separate the local variable in another function.

### Global Variable Can be read from a local scope :

Consider the following program :

```
def fun1():  
    print(x)  
x = 42  
fun1()  
print(x)
```

42  
42

Since there is no parameter named x or any code that assigns x a value in the fun1() function , when x is used in fun1(), Python considers it a reference to the global variable x. This is why 42 is printed when the previous program is run.

### Local and Global Variables with the same Name :

One should avoid using local variables that have the same name as a global variable or another local variable. Consider the following program :

```
def fun1():  
    x = 'I am local to fun1'  
    print(x)  
def fun2():  
    x = 'I am local to fun2'  
    print(x)  
    fun1()  
    print(x)  
x = 'I am global'  
fun2()  
print(x)
```

When you run the program , it outputs the following :

```
I am local to fun2  
I am local to fun1  
I am local to fun2  
I am global
```

There are actually three different variables in this program, but confusingly they are all named x.

**A variable named x that exists in a local scope when fun1() is called.**

**A variable named x that exists in a local scope when fun2() is called**

**A variable named x that exists in the global scope**

**Since these three separate variables all have the same name, it can be confusing to keep of which one is being used at any given time . This is why you should avoid using the same variable name in different scopes.**

### Global Statement

If you need to modify a global variable from within a function , used the global statement . If you have a line such as global x at the top of a function , it tells Python, In this function, x refers to the global variable, so don't create a local variable with this name." For example, type the following code and run

```
def fun1():  
    global x  
    x = 'spam'  
x = "global"  
fun1()  
print(x)
```

**When you run this program the final print() call will output this :**

Because x is declared global at the top of spam() , when x is set to 'spam' , this assignment is done to the globally scoped x. No local x variable is created.

There are four rules to tell whether a variable is in a local scope or global scope:

1. If a variable is being used in the global scope (that is, outside of all functions), then it is always a global variable.
2. If there is a global statement for that variable in a function, it is a global variable.

3. Otherwise, if the variable is used in an assignment statement in the function, it is a local variable.
4. But if the variable is not used in an assignment statement, it is a global variable.

## .Exceptional Handling

Right now, getting an error, or exception, in your Python program means the entire program will crash. You don't want this to happen in real-world programs. Instead, you want the program to detect errors, handle them, and then continue to run. For example, consider the following program, which has a "divide-by-zero" error. Open a new file editor window and enter the following code, saving it as zeroDivide.py:

```
1 def spam(divideBy):
2     return 42 / divideBy
```

```
1 print(spam(2))
2 print(spam(12))
3 print(spam(0))
4 print(spam(1))
```

We've defined a function called spam, given it a parameter, and then printed the value of that function with various parameters to see what happens. This is the output you get when you run the previous code:

```
21.0
3.5
```

```
-----
ZeroDivisionError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-8-108f30dfb85b> in <module>
      1 print(spam(2))
      2 print(spam(12))
----> 3 print(spam(0))
      4 print(spam(1))

<ipython-input-7-6657c085a5bf> in spam(divideBy)
      1 def spam(divideBy):
----> 2     return 42 / divideBy

ZeroDivisionError: division by zero
```

A ZeroDivisionError happens whenever you try to divide a number by zero. From the line number given in the error message, you know that the return statement in spam() is causing an error.

## Try and Except :

Errors can be handled with try and except statements. The code that could potentially have an error is put in a try clause. The program execution moves to the start of a following except clause if an error happens. You can put the previous divide-by-zero code in a try clause and have an except clause contain code to handle what happens when this error occurs.

```
1 def spam(divideBy):
2     try:
3         return 42 / divideBy
4     except ZeroDivisionError:
5         print('Error: Invalid argument.')
```

```
1 print(spam(2))
2 print(spam(12))
3 print(spam(0))
4 print(spam(1))
```

When code in a try clause causes an error, the program execution immediately moves to the code in the except clause. After running that code, the execution continues as normal. The output of the previous program is as follows:

```
21.0
3.5
Error: Invalid argument.
None
42.0
```

Note that any errors that occur in function calls in a try block will also be caught. Consider the following program, which instead has the spam() calls in the try block:

```
1 # Consider the following program, which instead has the spam()
2 # calls in the try block:
3 def spam(divideBy):
4     return 42 / divideBy
5 try:
6     print(spam(2))
7     print(spam(12))
8     print(spam(0))
9     print(spam(1))
10 except ZeroDivisionError:
11     print('Error: Invalid argument.')
```

When this program is run, the output looks like this:

```
21.0
3.5
Error: Invalid argument.
```

The reason `print(spam(1))` is never executed is because once the execution jumps to the code in the except clause, it does not return to the try clause. Instead, it just continues moving down as normal.

## ii. Built in functions

Built in functions are the predefined functions that are already available in python. Functions provide efficiency and structure to a programming language. python has many useful built in functions to make programming easier, faster and more powerful.

Some of the important builtin functions are listed below :

- `abs()` Returns the absolute value of a number
- `ascii()` Returns a readable version of an object. Replaces none-ascii characters with escape character
- `bin()` Returns the binary version of a number
- `bool()` Returns the boolean value of the specified object
- `bytearray()` Returns an array of bytes
- `bytes()` Returns a bytes object
- `chr()` Returns a character from the specified Unicode code.
- `classmethod()` Converts a method into a class method
- `complex()` Returns a complex number
- `delattr()` Deletes the specified attribute (property or method) from the specified object
- `dict()` Returns a dictionary (Array)
- `dir()` Returns a list of the specified object's properties and methods
- `divmod()` Returns the quotient and the remainder when argument1 is divided by argument2
- `enumerate()` Takes a collection (e.g. a tuple) and returns it as an enumerate object
- `eval()` Evaluates and executes an expression
- `filter()` Use a filter function to exclude items in an iterable object
- `float()` Returns a floating point number
- `format()` Formats a specified value

`getattr()` Returns the value of the specified attribute (property or method)

`globals()` Returns the current global symbol table as a dictionary

`hex()` Converts a number into a hexadecimal value

`id()` Returns the id of an object

`input()` Allowing user input

`int()` Returns an integer number

`isinstance()` Returns True if a specified object is an instance of a specified object

`issubclass()` Returns True if a specified class is a subclass of a specified object

`iter()` Returns an iterator object

`len()` Returns the length of an object

`list()` Returns a list

`locals()` Returns an updated dictionary of the current local symbol table

`map()` Returns the specified iterator with the specified function applied to each item

`max()` Returns the largest item in an iterable

`min()` Returns the smallest item in an iterable

`next()` Returns the next item in an iterable

`object()` Returns a new object

`oct()` Converts a number into an octal

`open()` Opens a file and returns a file object

`ord()` Convert an integer representing the Unicode of the specified character

`pow()` Returns the value of x to the power of y

`print()` Prints to the standard output device

`property()` Gets, sets, deletes a property

`range()` Returns a sequence of numbers, starting from 0 and increments by 1 (by default)

`round()` Rounds a numbers

`set()` Returns a new set object

`setattr()` Sets an attribute (property/method) of an object

`slice()` Returns a slice object

`sorted()` Returns a sorted list

str() Returns a string object  
sum() Sums the items of an iterator  
tuple() Returns a tuple  
type() Returns the type of an object  
vars() Returns the `__dict__` property of an object  
zip() Returns an iterator, from two or more iterators

### iii. Modules :

## Sample Programs

Example1: A Short Program , Guess the Number

```
1 # This is a guess the number game.
2 import random
3 secretNumber = random.randint(1, 20)
4 print('I am thinking of a number between 1 and 20.')
```

I am thinking of a number between 1 and 20.

```
1 # Ask the player to guess 6 times.
2 for guessesTaken in range(1, 7):
3     print('Take a guess.')
4     guess = int(input())
5     if guess < secretNumber:
6         print('Your guess is too low.')
7     elif guess > secretNumber:
8         print('Your guess is too high.')
9     else:
10        break # This condition is the correct guess!
11 if guess == secretNumber:
12     print('Good job! You guessed my number in ' + str(guessesTaken) + ' guesses!')
13 else:
14     print('Nope. The number I was thinking of was ' + str(secretNumber))
```

```
Take a guess.  
8  
Your guess is too low.  
Take a guess.  
17  
Your guess is too high.  
Take a guess.  
13  
Your guess is too low.  
Take a guess.  
15  
Your guess is too high.  
Take a guess.  
14  
Good job! You guessed my number in 5 guesses!
```

## Project:

```
1 def collatz(n):  
2     if n%2==0:  
3         print(n//2)  
4         return n//2  
5     elif n%2==1:  
6         print(3*n+1)  
7         return 3*n+1
```

```
1 while True:  
2     try:  
3         n = int(input("enter a number "))  
4     except ValueError:  
5         print("Invalid Argument")  
6     x = collatz(n)  
7     if x==1:  
8         break
```

```
enter a number 5  
16  
enter a number 3  
10  
enter a number 4  
2  
enter a number 2  
1
```