

#2-1:

# Function Definitions

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CS SCHOLARS - PROGRAMMING

# Learning Objectives

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Use **function definitions** when reading and writing algorithms to implement procedures that can be repeated on different inputs

Recognize the difference between local and global **scope**

Trace program code to understand how Python keeps track of **nested function calls**

# Function Definitions

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# Function Definitions Run on Abstract Input

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Last week, we learned about how function calls work. Now we can write new function definitions ourselves, to implement our own functions.

To write a function, you need to determine what **algorithm** you want to implement. You'll convert that algorithm into code that runs on **abstract input**.

# Core Function Definition

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Let's start with a simple function that has no explicit input or explicit output; instead, it just prints some lines of text.

```
def helloWorld():  
    print("Hello World!")  
    print("How are you?")
```

```
helloWorld()
```

`def` is how Python knows the following code is a function definition

`helloWorld` is the **name** of the function. This is how we'll call it.

The **colon** at the end of the first line, and the **indentation** at the beginning of the second and third, tell Python that we're in the **body** of the function.

The body holds the algorithm. When the indentation stops, the function is done.

In this example, the last line **calls** the function we've written.

# Parameters are Abstracted Arguments

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To add input to the function definition, add **parameters** inside the parentheses next to the name.

These parameters are variables that are not given initial values. Their initial values will be provided by the arguments given each time the function is called.

```
def hello(name):  
    print("Hello, " + name + "!")  
    print("How are you?")
```

```
hello("Stella")  
hello("Dippy")
```

# Return Provides the Output

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To make our function have a non-`None` output, we need to have a **return statement**. This statement specifies the value that should be substituted for the function call when the function is called on a specific input.

```
def makeHello(name):  
    return "Hello, " + name + "! How are you?"  
  
s = makeHello("Scotty")
```

As soon as Python returns a value, it exits the function. Python ignores any lines of code after a return statement.

# Activity: Write a Function

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**You do:** write a function `convertToQuarters` that takes a number of dollars and converts it into quarters, returning the number of quarters.

For example, if you call `convertToQuarters` on `2` (\$2), the function should return `8` (8 quarters).



# Control Flow

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Writing code with function definitions introduces a new concept to our programs – **control flow**. This is the order that statements are executed in as we run a program.

Before, all our programs ran sequentially from the first statement to the last. But with function definitions, Python will need to **redirect** the control flow whenever we call a function that we've defined.

Control flow is an incredibly useful tool, but it also makes it more difficult to read and comprehend a program. In particular, when you read code with a function definition, you have to keep in mind that that definition will not influence the program until it is called.

# Analyzing Functions

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When a function you've defined **is** called, you can figure out what it will evaluate to by tracing through the definition.

```
def addTip(cost, percentToTip):  
    return cost + cost * percentToTip
```

```
total = addTip(20.00, 0.17)
```

For example, in this function call, we know the inputs (**20.00** and **0.17**), so the output must be **20.00 + 20.00 \* 0.17**, which is **23.4**.

Note that this only works because we defined **addTip** **before** we called it! Python will still execute all the statements in order.

# Activity: Analyze the function

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**You do:** what are the arguments of the **function call** in this code? What will the call return?

```
def distance(x1, y1, x2, y2):  
    xPart = (x2 - x1)**2  
    yPart = (y2 - y1)**2  
    print("Partial Work:", xPart, yPart)  
    return (xPart + yPart) ** 0.5  
  
result = distance(0, 0, 3, 4)
```

# Scope

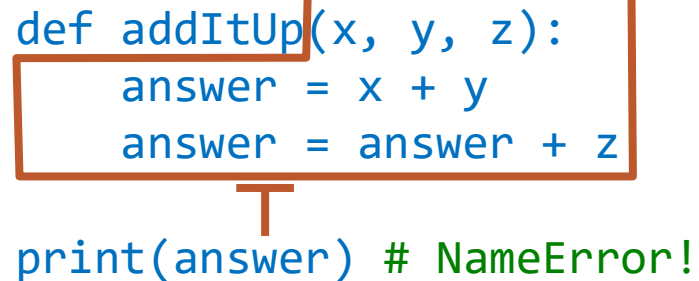
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# Variables Have Different Scopes

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All the work done in a function is only accessible in that function. In other words, if we make a variable in a function, the outer program can't access it; the only way to transmit its value is to return it.

```
def addItUp(x, y, z):  
    answer = x + y  
    answer = answer + z  
  
print(answer) # NameError!
```

A diagram illustrating variable scope. A blue-bordered box encloses the function definition and its body. Inside the box, the variable 'answer' is defined and updated. A vertical line extends from the bottom of the box to the 'answer' argument in the 'print' statement below, which is followed by a green comment '# NameError!'. This indicates that the 'answer' variable is not accessible outside the function's local scope.

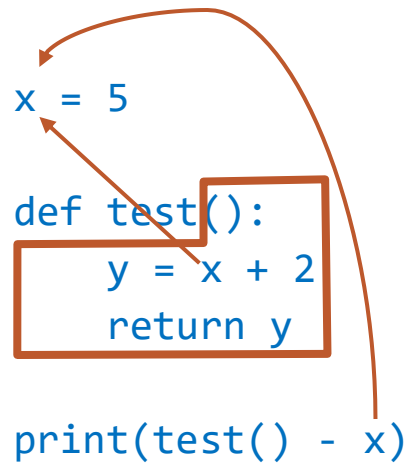
The variable `answer` has a **local scope** and is accessible only within the function `addItUp`.

# Everything Can Access Global Variables

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On the other hand, if a function is told to use a variable it hasn't defined, the function automatically looks in the **global scope** (outside the function at the **top level**) to see if the variable exists there.

```
x = 5  
  
def test():  
    y = x + 2  
    return y  
  
print(test() - x)
```



If you change a global variable in a function, that's a **side effect**! It's unlikely that you'll want to use this, but good to know for debugging.

# Scope is Like Names

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You can think of the scope of a variable as being like its last name. For example, consider the following code:

```
x = "bar"
```

```
def test():  
    x = "foo"  
    print("A", x)
```

```
test()  
print("B", x)
```

`x` exists in both the local and the global scope, but the two `x` variables are **separate** and have different values.

Analogy: knowing two people both named Andrew. They have the same first name, but **different last names**.

In the code above, the last name of the function's `x` would be *test*, while the last name of the top-level `x` would be *global*.

In general, it's best to keep variable names different to avoid confusion.

# Activity: Local or Global?

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Which variables in the following code snippet are global? Which are local?

For the local variables, which function can see them?

```
name = "Farnam"

def greet(day):
    punctuation = "!"
    print("Hello, " + name + punctuation)
    print("Today is " + day + punctuation)

def leave():
    punctuation = "."
    print("Goodbye, " + name + punctuation)

greet("Monday")
leave()
```



# Function Call Tracing

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# Function Calls in Function Definitions

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It isn't too hard to trace a function call when it goes through a single definition, but it gets a lot harder when that definition **calls another function**.

When the code to the right calls the function `outer`, `outer` will run a bit of code, then call the function `inner`.

Python needs to keep track of which variables are in scope at any given point, and where returned values should be sent. Let's look at how it does this!

```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4))
```

Interpreter:

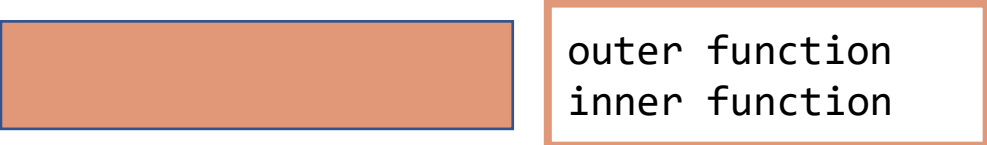
# Tracing the Code

When Python runs through this code, it adds `outer` to its state, then it adds `inner`.

```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4))
```

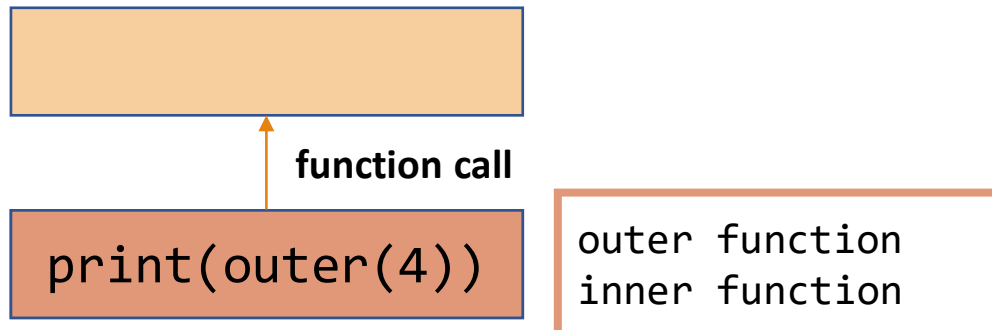


outer function  
inner function

# Tracing the Code

When it reaches the last line, it must call `outer` to evaluate the expression.

The computer puts a 'bookmark' on the line it was on so it won't lose its place.



```
def outer(x):
    y = x / 2
    print("outer y:", y)
    return inner(y) + 3
```

```
def inner(x):
    y = x + 1
    print("inner y:", y)
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4)) ←
```

```
Interpreter:  
outer y: 2.0
```

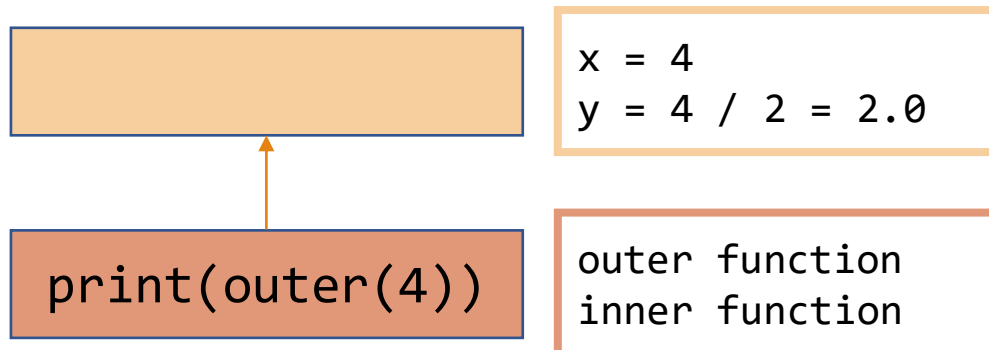
# Tracing the Code

Python traces through the **outer** function normally, keeping track of the **local state**, until it reaches the call to **inner**.

```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

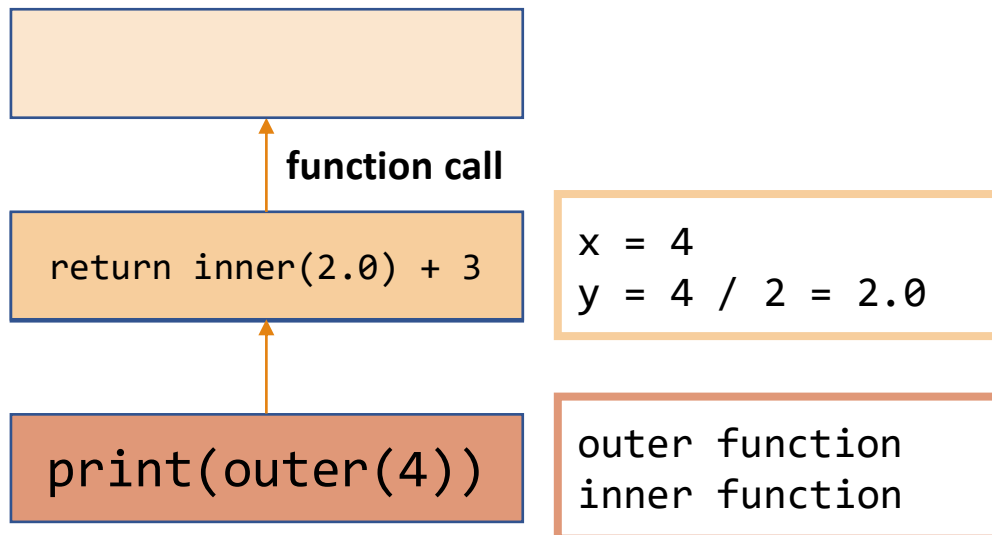
```
print(outer(4)) ←
```



```
Interpreter:  
outer y: 2.0
```

# Tracing the Code

Once again, Python leaves a 'bookmark' at its current location, then moves to the `inner` function to set up a new local state.



```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3 ←
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4)) ←
```

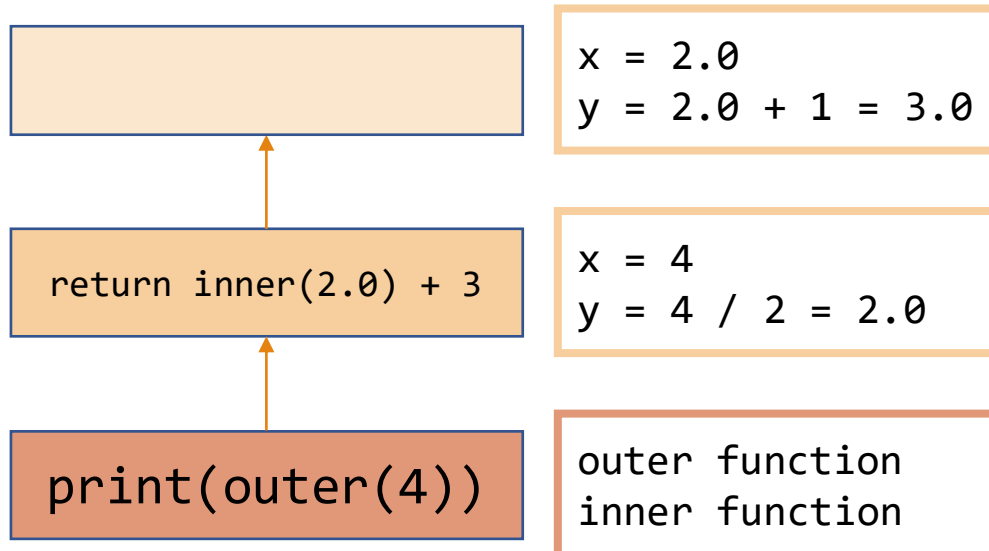
**Interpreter:**

outer y: 2.0

inner y: 3.0

# Tracing the Code

Python can fully execute `inner` without calling another function.



```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3 ←
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4)) ←
```

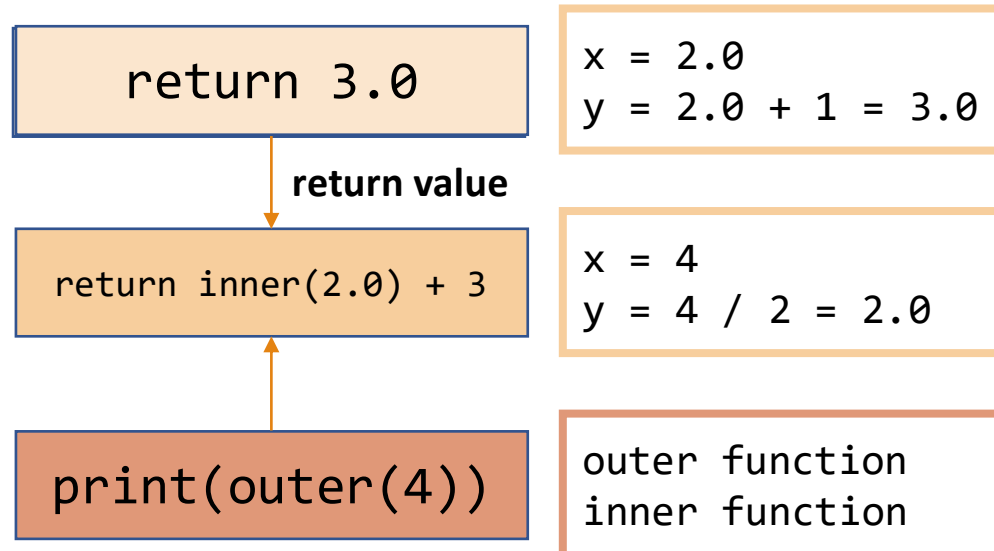
Interpreter:

outer y: 2.0

inner y: 3.0

# Tracing the Code

When Python reaches the return statement of `inner`, it returns `3.0` to the function that previously called it, `outer`, by checking the bookmark.



```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3 ←
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4)) ←
```

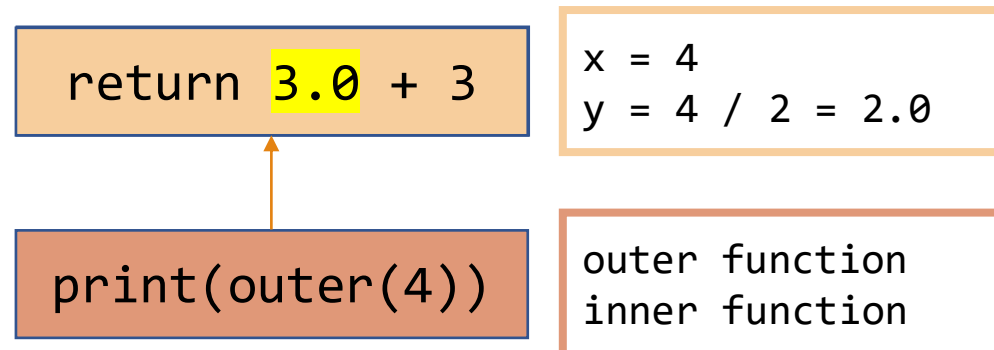


```
Interpreter:  
outer y: 2.0  
inner y: 3.0
```

# Tracing the Code

When the value `3.0` is returned, it **takes the place** of the function call expression.

Now Python can finish running the `outer` function.



```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4)) ←
```

```
Interpreter:
```

```
outer y: 2.0
```

```
inner y: 3.0
```

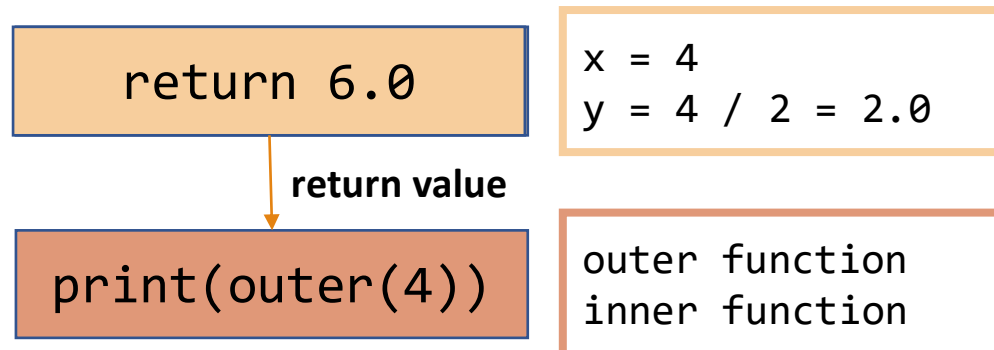
# Tracing the Code

When `outer` finishes, it returns `6.0` to the next bookmarked function, the original call.

```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4)) ←
```



# Tracing the Code

**Interpreter:**

outer y: 2.0

inner y: 3.0

6.0

6.0 takes the place of `outer(4)`, the value is printed, and the code is done!

```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    print("outer y:", y)  
    return inner(y) + 3
```

```
def inner(x):  
    y = x + 1  
    print("inner y:", y)  
    return y
```

```
print(outer(4))
```

```
print(6.0)
```

```
outer function  
inner function
```

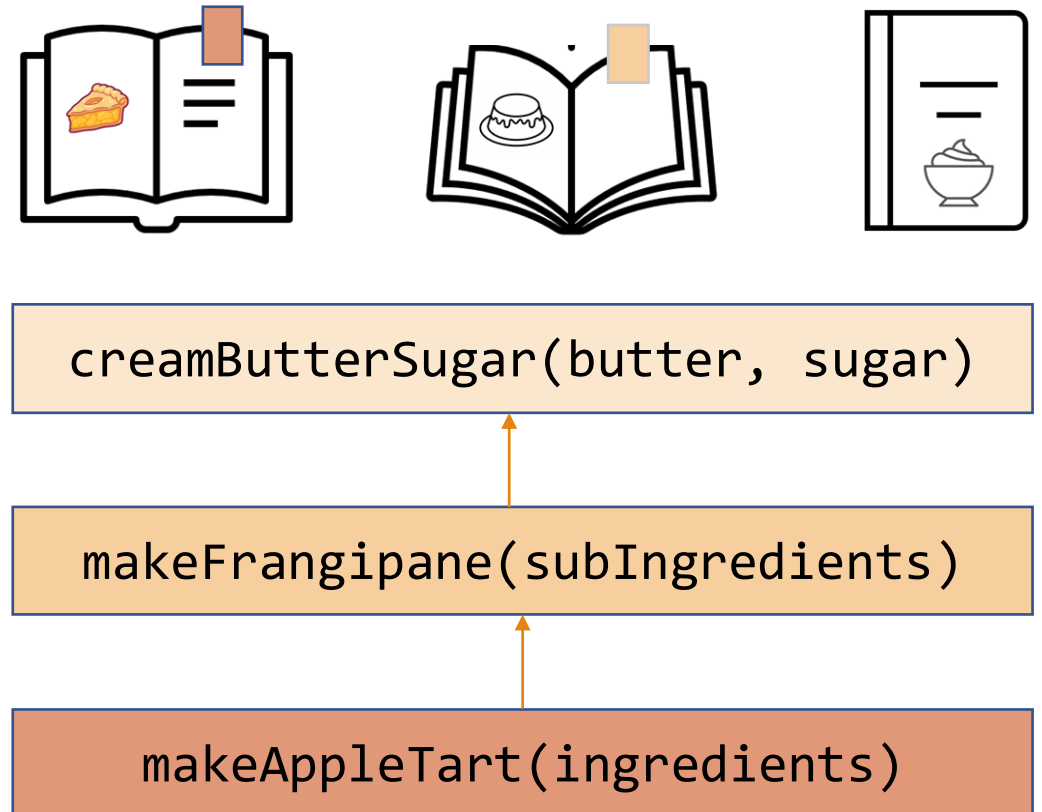
# Analogy: Baking with Bookmarks

You can think of the function call tracing like a series of **bookmarks** that help you keep your place as you trace the code.

For example, perhaps I'm following a recipe to make an apple tart. One step of the recipe tells me to make a frangipane (custard), but I don't know how to do that!

I can put a bookmark on my current step and find another cookbook with a recipe for making frangipane, then start following that recipe.

Maybe that recipe tells me to cream the butter and sugar, and I have to look in yet another cookbook to learn how to do that. Each new recipe is another function call.



# Activity: Trace the Function Calls

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**You do:** given the code to the right, trace through the execution of the code to determine what will be printed.

You should jot down the current variable values as well, so you don't have to hold them all in your head.

```
def calculateTip(cost):  
    tipRate = 0.2  
    return cost * tipRate
```

```
def payForMeal(cash, cost):  
    cost = cost + calculateTip(cost)  
    cash = cash - cost  
    print("Thanks!")  
    return cash
```

```
wallet = 20.00  
wallet = payForMeal(wallet, 8.00)  
print("Money remaining:", wallet)
```

# Function Calls in Error Messages

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Function call 'bookmarks' will show up naturally in your code whenever you encounter an **error message**.

The lines of the error message show you exactly which function calls led to the location where the error occurred.

If we insert an error into the middle of the code, you can see how each 'bookmark' is listed out.

```
def outer(x):  
    y = x / 2  
    return inner(y) + 3  
  
def inner(a):  
    b = a + 1  
    print(oops) # will cause an error  
    return b  
  
print(outer(4))
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "example.py", line 10, in <module>  
    print(outer(4))  
  File "example.py", line 3, in outer  
    return inner(y) + 3  
  File "example.py", line 7, in inner  
    print(oops) # will cause an error  
NameError: name 'oops' is not defined
```

# Sidebar: `input` function

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There's another built-in function that will be handy to learn about now!

The built-in function `input(msg)` displays a message in the interpreter, lets the user type a response in the interpreter, then **returns the response** as a string when the user presses enter.

```
name = input("Enter your name: ")  
print("Hello, " + name + "!")
```

This is pretty different from what we're used to, but it makes it possible for you to write **interactive** programs more easily!

# input() Returns a String

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`input()` will **always** return a string. If we want to use a user's response as a number, we need to use type-casting to change it.

```
age = int(input("Enter your age: "))  
print("You'll be", age + 1, "next year")
```

This won't handle the case where the user enters something they weren't supposed to- we'll talk more about how to handle that later.



# Example `input` algorithm

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We could use `input` to set up a basic dialogue with the user.

```
name = input("What's your name?")
age = int(input("Hi, " + name + "! How old are you?"))
print("Nice! I'm a computer, I don't have an age.")
```

# Activity: Greeting Program

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Write a program that asks the user for their name and where they're from, then prints out a personalized greeting using those two pieces of information.

For example, if I entered "Kelly" and "Maryland", my program might respond:

```
"Hello Kelly! I hear Maryland is nice this time of year."
```

# Learning Objectives

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Use **function definitions** when reading and writing algorithms to implement procedures that can be repeated on different inputs

Recognize the difference between local and global **scope**

Trace program code to understand how Python keeps track of **nested function calls**