

IDeaTe Program

<https://ideate.cmu.edu/>

SCS participates in the Integrative Design, Arts, and Technology (IDeaTe) program, which offers classes and minors in a range of technically creative fields.



Minors:

- Game Design
- Animation & Special Effects
- Media Design
- Sonic Arts
- Design for Learning
- Innovation & Entrepreneurship
- Intelligent Environments
- Physical Computing
- Soft Technologies
- Immersive Technologies in Arts & Culture

Function Definitions

15-110 – Wednesday 09/02

Announcements

- Feedback has been released for Hw1
 - **Tutorial:** how to view feedback
- Hw1 revisions due **next Tuesday noon**
 - If you want to update your submission based on feedback, just make the changes to your solution file and resubmit (applies to exercises and practice sets too)
 - TAs will regrade within a week
 - Note that revision submissions are capped at **90 points** – don't resubmit if you already scored a 90 or above. (Still look at your feedback, though!)

Announcements

- Next week: First Quizlet (on material from Week1)
 - There are 9 quizlets throughout the semester on Wednesdays
 - Lowest **two** scores dropped
 - Procedure:
 - We'll pass out single-page quizlets at the beginning of class
 - You'll have 5 minutes to answer the question on the paper
 - No computers, phones, notes, or collaboration
 - When time is up, pass your paper back to the TAs in the hallway

Learning Objectives

- Use **function definitions** 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

Function Definitions Run on Abstract Input

Now that we have all the individual components of functions, we can use **function definitions** to define custom algorithms.

The main difference between a function definition and regular code is that a function definition runs on **abstract input**, not specific values. This lets us call it on different values every time.

Core Function Definition

Let's start with a simple function that has no explicit input or output; instead, it has a side effect (printed lines).

```
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.

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. Use a function's name to call it.

Parameters are Abstracted Arguments

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("Sylvi")
```

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

Return Provides the Returned Value Output

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("Scottie")
```

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

Activity: Parsons Problem

You do: Rearrange the following lines of the `convertToQuarters` function. This function takes a number of dollars and converts it into quarters, printing and returning the number of quarters. For example, if you call `convertToQuarters` on `2` (\$2), the function should return `8` (8 quarters).

Correct line #	Mixed Code Lines
	<code>return quarterVal</code>
	<code>def convertToQuarters(dollars):</code>
	<code> print("Quarters for given dollars:", quarterVal)</code>
	<code> quarterVal = dollars * 4</code>

Control Flow

Using 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, keep in mind that that definition will not influence the program **until it is called**.

Example Code

For example, what will be printed when we run the following code?

```
def test(x):  
    print("A:", x)  
    return x + 5
```

```
y = 2  
print("B:", y)  
z = test(y + 1)
```

Interpreter:

B: 2

A: 3

We do not enter the function until it is called. That means B is printed before A, even though its line occurs further down in the code!

Scope

Variables Have Different Scopes

When working with variables, we'll need to pay attention to **scope** – where the variables will be available in the program.

```
def averageOfThree(x, y, z):  
    total = x + y + z  
    return total / 3
```

```
print(averageOfThree(1, 4, 10)) # 5.0  
print(total) # NameError!
```

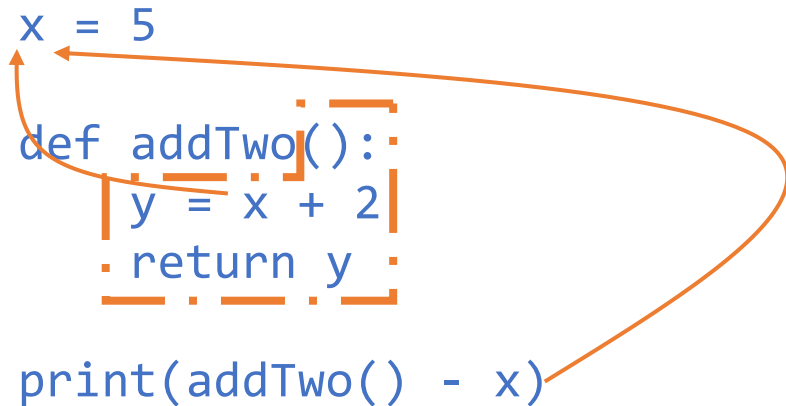
The variable `total` has a **local scope** and is accessible only within the function `averageOfThree`.

The parameters `x`, `y`, and `z` also have local scope, as they must be assigned values in a function call before we can use them.

Everything Can Access Global Variables

On the other hand, variables defined at the **top level** (not in a function) are in the **global scope**. Global variables can be used freely at the top level.

If a function is told to use a variable it hasn't defined, the function automatically looks in the global scope to see if the variable exists there. So **everyone** gets to use global variables!



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

The diagram illustrates the scope resolution process. An orange arrow originates from the variable `x` inside the `addTwo()` function and points to the `x = 5` line at the top level, indicating that the function looks for `x` in the global scope. Another orange arrow originates from the `x` in the `print(addTwo() - x)` statement and also points to the `x = 5` line, showing that the global scope can access the variable `x`.

It's like a one-way mirror. Functions can see global variables, but global-level code cannot see local variables.

When a global variable is changed inside a function, that's a **side effect**!

Scope is Like Names

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

```
x = 5
```

```
def test():  
    x = 2  
    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 meaningful to avoid confusion.

Function Call Tracing

Analyzing functions

You do: what are the arguments and returned value of the highlighted **function call**, given the definition? What will it print?

```
def addTip(cost, percent):  
    tip = cost * percent  
    print("Tip:", tip)  
    return cost + tip
```

```
total = addTip(25, 0.2)
```

Function Calls in Function Definitions

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.

```
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))
```

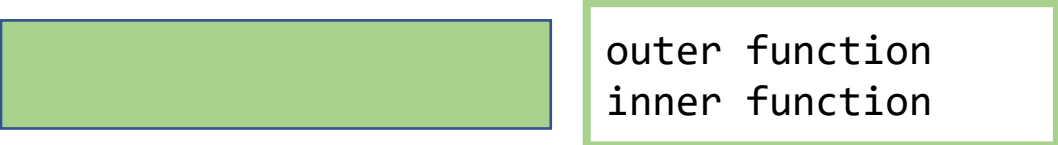
Tracing the Code

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))
```

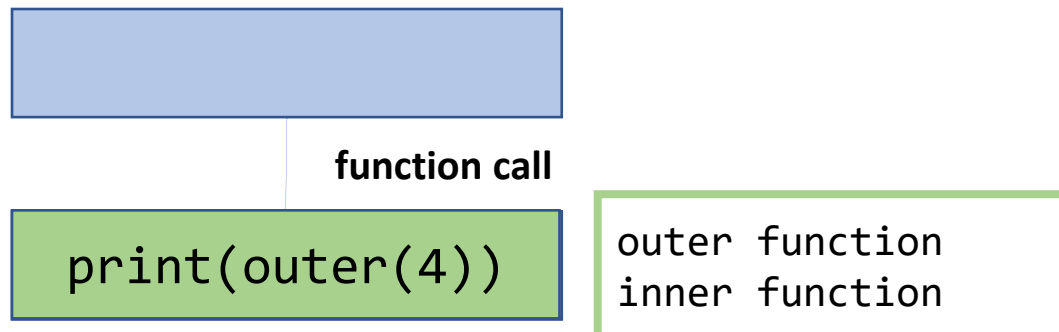


outer function
inner function

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)) ←
```

Tracing the Code

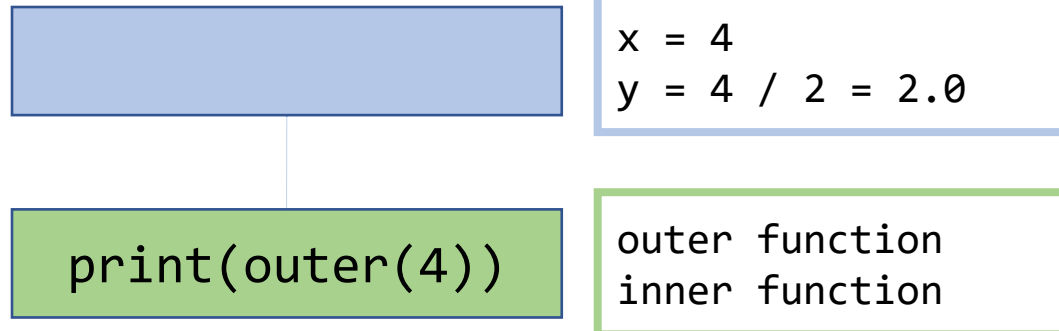
Interpreter:
outer y: 2.0

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
```

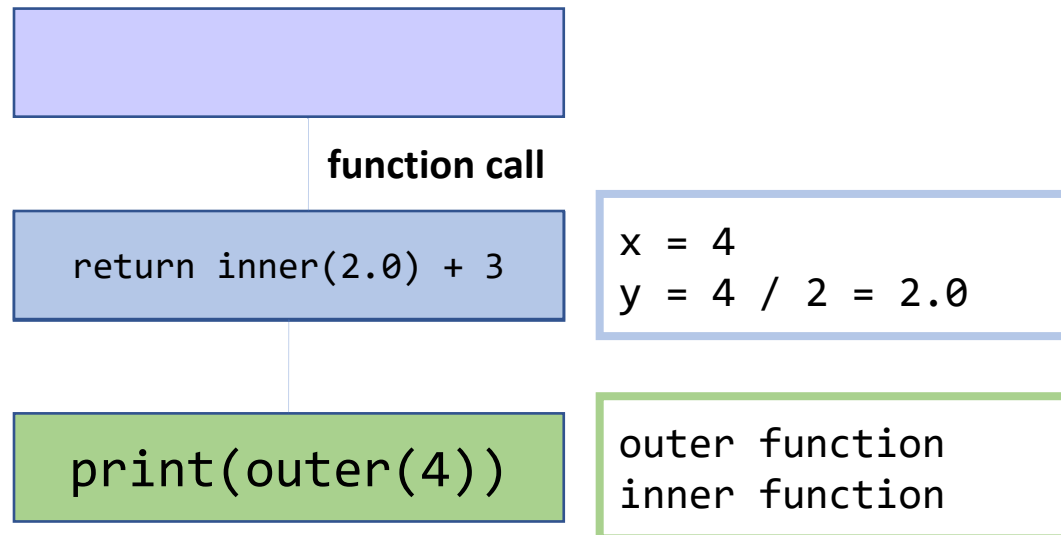
```
print(outer(4)) ←
```



Tracing the Code

Interpreter:
outer y: 2.0

First, Python evaluates `y` to its held value, `2.0`. Second, Python again leaves a 'bookmark' at its current location, then moves to the `inner` function to set up a new local state with `2.0` as the argument value.



```
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))
```



Variables can't be passed as argument values – we pass their values instead!

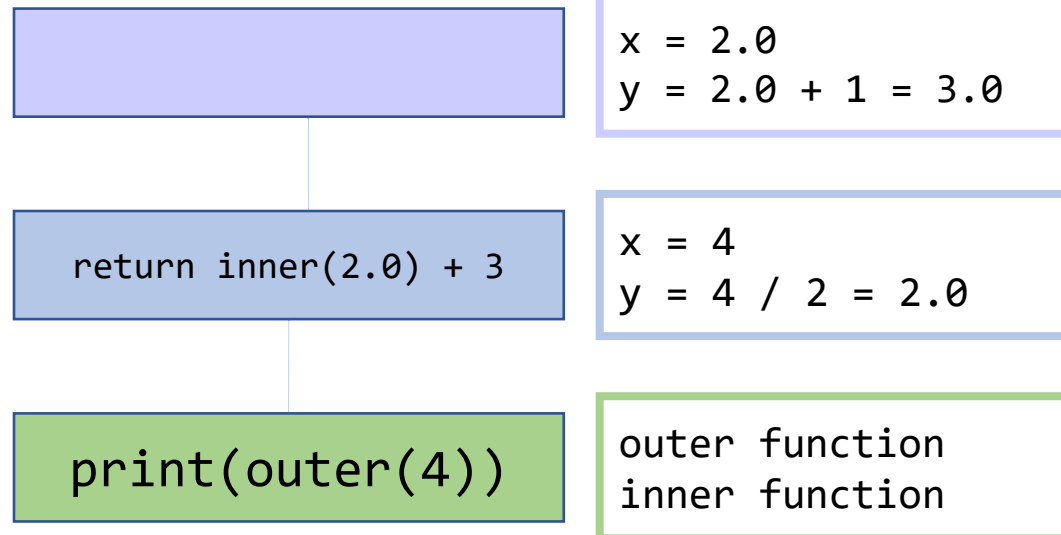
Tracing the Code

Interpreter:

outer y: 2.0

inner y: 3.0

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))
```



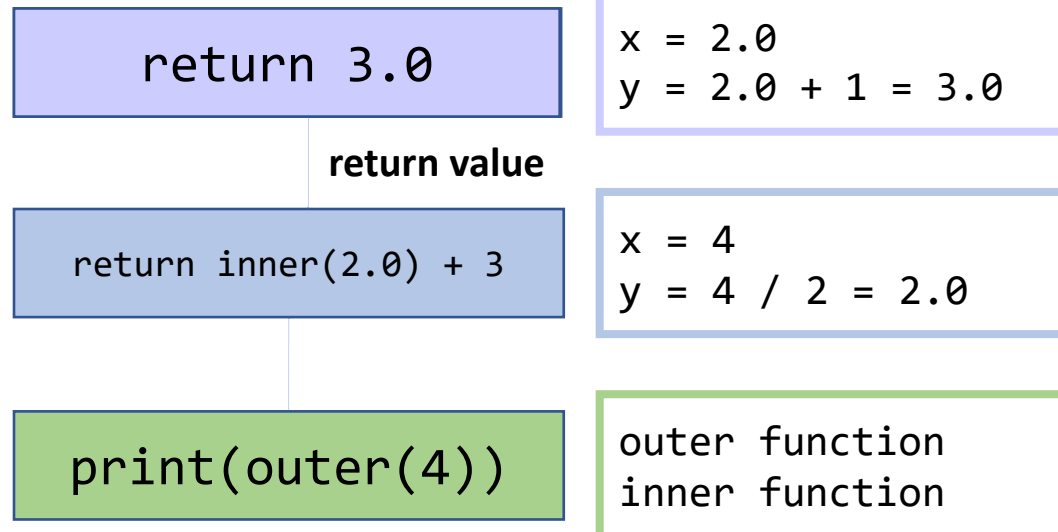
Tracing the Code

Interpreter:

outer y: 2.0

inner y: 3.0

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))
```



Tracing the Code

Interpreter:

outer y: 2.0

inner y: 3.0

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

Now Python can finish running the `outer` function.

```
return 3.0 + 3
```

```
x = 4  
y = 4 / 2 = 2.0
```

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

```
outer function  
inner 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))
```



Tracing the Code

Interpreter:

outer y: 2.0

inner y: 3.0

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))
```



return 6.0

return value

print(outer(4))

x = 4
y = 4 / 2 = 2.0

outer function
inner function

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

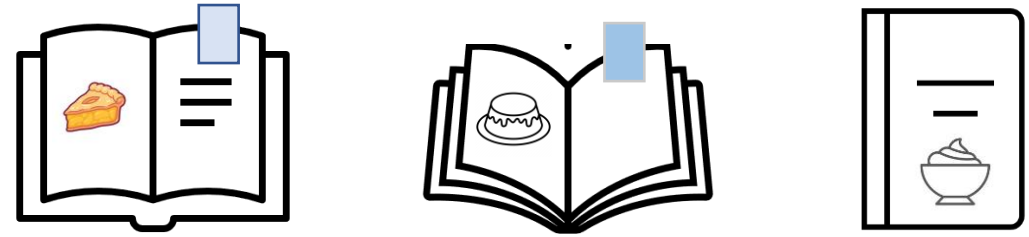
Analogy: Baking with Bookmarks

Function call tracing is 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.



```
creamButterSugar(butter, sugar)
```

calls

```
makeFrangipane(subIngredients)
```

calls

```
makeAppleTart(ingredients)
```

Function Calls in Error Messages

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 "C:\Users\river\Downloads\example.py", line 10, in <module>  
    print(outer(4))  
  File "C:\Users\river\Downloads\example.py", line 3, in outer  
    return inner(y) + 3  
  File "C:\Users\river\Downloads\example.py", line 7, in inner  
    print(oops) # will cause an error  
NameError: name 'oops' is not defined
```

Activity: Trace the Function Calls

You do: given the code to the right, trace through the execution of the code and the function calls.

Consider writing down variable tables for each separate scope, so you don't have to hold them all in your head.

What will be printed at the end?

```
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)
```

Learning Objectives

- Use **function definitions** 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**