Functions and Abstraction

BBM 101 - Introduction to Programming I

Hacettepe University
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Fuat Akal, Aykut Erdem, Erkut Erdem

Slides based on material prepared by Ruth Anderson, Michael Ernst and Bill Howe in the course CSE 140
University of Washington
Functions

• In math, you use functions: sine, cosine, ...
• In math, you define functions: \( f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1 \)

• A function packages up and names a computation
• Enables re-use of the computation (generalization)
• Don’t Repeat Yourself (DRY principle)
• Shorter, easier to understand, less error-prone

• Python lets you use and define functions
• We have already seen some Python functions:
  – len, float, int, str, range
Using ("calling") a Function

len("hello")  len(" ")
round(2.718)  round(3.14)
pow(2, 3)  range(1, 5)
math.sin(0)  math.sin(math.pi / 2)

• Some need no input:
  random.random()

• All produce output
A Function is a Machine

- You give it input
- It produces a result (output)

In math: \( \text{func}(x) = 2x + 1 \)
Creating a Function

Define the machine, including the input and the result

def dbl_plus(x):
    return 2*x + 1

Keyword that means: I am defining a function

Name of the function. Like “y = 5” for a variable

Input variable name, or “formal parameter”

Keyword that means: This is the result

Return expression (part of the return statement)
More Function Examples

Define the machine, including the input and the result

```python
def square(x):
    return x * x

def fahr_to_cent(fahr):
    return (fahr - 32) / 9.0 * 5

def cent_to_fahr(cent):
    result = cent / 5.0 * 9 + 32
    return result

def abs(x):
    if x < 0:
        return -x
    else:
        return x

def print_hello():
    print("Hello, world")

def print_fahr_to_cent(fahr):
    result = fahr_to_cent(fahr)
    print(result)
```

What is the result of:

- `x = 42`  
- `square(3) + square(4)`  
- `print(x)`  
- `boiling = fahr_to_cent(212)`  
- `c cold = cent_to_fahr(-40)`  
- `print(result)`  
- `print(abs(-22))`  
- `print(print_fahr_to_cent(32))`
Python Interpreter

• An expression evaluates to a value
  – Which can be used by the containing expression or statement

• `print("test")` statement writes text to the screen

• The Python interpreter (command shell) reads statements and expressions, then executes them

• If the interpreter executes an expression, it prints its value

• In a program, evaluating an expression does not print it

• In a program, printing an expression does not permit it to be used elsewhere
How Python Executes a Function Call

1. Evaluate the argument (at the call site)
2. Assign the formal parameter name to the argument’s value
   - A new variable, not reuse of any existing variable of the same name
3. Evaluate the statements in the body one by one
4. At a return statement:
   - Remember the value of the expression
   - Formal parameter variable disappears – exists only during the call!
   - The call expression evaluates to the return value
Example of Function Invocation

def square(x):
    return x * x

square(3) + square(4)
return x * x
return 3 * x
return 3 * 3
return 9
9 + square(4)
    return x * x
    return 4 * x
    return 4 * 4
    return 16
9 + 16
25

Variables:

(none)
x: 3
x: 3
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x: 3
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x: 4
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x: 4
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Expression with Nested Function Invocations:
Only One Executes at a Time

```python
def fahr_to_cent(fahr):
    return (fahr - 32) / 9.0 * 5

def cent_to_fahr(cent):
    return cent / 5.0 * 9 + 32

fahr_to_cent(cent_to_fahr(20))
    return cent / 5.0 * 9 + 32
    return 20 / 5.0 * 9 + 32
    return 68

fahr_to_cent(68)
    return (fahr - 32) / 9.0 * 5
    return (68 - 32) / 9.0 * 5
    return 20

20
```

Variables:
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Expression with Nested Function Invocations: Only One Executes at a Time

def square(x):
    return x * x

square(square(3))
    return x * x
    return 3 * x
    return 3 * 3
    return 9

square(9)
    return x * x
    return 9 * x
    return 9 * 9
    return 81

81

Variables:
(none)

x=3
x=3
x=3

x=3

(x=3)
Function that Invokes Another Function: Both Function Invocations are Active

```python
def square(z):
    return z*z
def hypoten_use(x, y):
    return math.sqrt(square(x) + square(y))

hypoten_use(3, 4)
    return math.sqrt(square(x) + square(y))
    return math.sqrt(square(3) + square(y))
        return z*z
        return 3*3
        return 9
    return math.sqrt(9 + square(y))
    return math.sqrt(9 + square(4))
        return z*z
        return 4*4
        return 16
    return math.sqrt(9 + 16)
    return math.sqrt(25)
return 5
```

Variables:
- x: 3
- y: 4
- z: 3

(None)
Shadowing of Formal Variable Names

def square(x):
    return x*x

def hypotenuse(x, y):
    return math.sqrt(square(x) + square(y))

hypotenuse(3, 4)
    return math.sqrt(square(x) + square(y))
    return math.sqrt(square(3) + square(y))
        return x*x
        return 3*3
        return 9
    return math.sqrt(9 + square(y))
    return math.sqrt(9 + square(4))
        return x*x
        return 4*4
        return 16
    return math.sqrt(9 + 16)
    return math.sqrt(25)
return 5

Variables:

    (none)
    x:3 y:4
    x:3 y:4
    x:3
    x:3
    x:3
    x:3
    x:3
    x:3
    x:4
    x:4
    x:4
    x:4
    x:3 y:4
    x:3 y:4
    x:3 y:4

5
Shadowing of Formal Variable Names

def square(x):
    return x*x

def hypotenuse(x, y):
    return math.sqrt(square(x) + square(y))

hypotenuse(3, 4)
    return math.sqrt(square(x) + square(y))
    return math.sqrt(square(3) + square(y))
        return x*x
    return 3*3
    return 9
    return math.sqrt(9 + square(y))
    return math.sqrt(9 + square(4))
        return x*x
    return 4*4
    return 16
    return math.sqrt(9 + 16)
    return math.sqrt(25)
    return 5

Same diagram, with variable scopes or environment frames shown explicitly

Variables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>hypotenuse()</th>
<th>square()</th>
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<td>x: 3 y:4</td>
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</table>
In a Function Body, Assignment Creates a Temporary Variable (like the formal parameter)

stored = 0
def store_it(arg):
    stored = arg
    return stored

★ y = store_it(22)
print(y)
★ print(stored)

Show evaluation of the starred expressions:

y = store_it(22)
    stored = arg; return stored
    stored = 22; return stored
    return stored
    return 22

y = 22
print(stored)
print(0)
How to Look Up a Variable

Idea: find the nearest variable of the given name

1. Check whether the variable is defined in the local scope
2. ... check any intermediate scopes (none in BBM 101!) ...
3. Check whether the variable is defined in the global scope

If a local and a global variable have the same name, the global variable is inaccessible (“shadowed”)

This is confusing; try to avoid such shadowing

```python
x = 22
stored = 100
def lookup():
    x = 42
    return stored + x
lookup()
x = 5
stored = 200
lookup()
```

```python
def lookup():
    x = 42
    return stored + x

x = 22
stored = 100
lookup()
x = 5
stored = 200
lookup()
```

What happens if we define stored after lookup?
Local Variables Exist Only while the Function is Executing

def cent_to_fahr(cent):
    result = cent / 5.0 * 9 + 32
    return result

tempf = cent_to_fahr(15)
print(result)

NameError: name 'result' is not defined
myvar = 1

def outer():
    myvar = 1000
    return inner()

def inner():
    return myvar

print(outer())

The handouts have a more precise rule, which applies when you define a function inside another function.
Abstraction

• Abstraction = ignore some details

• Generalization = become usable in more contexts

• Abstraction over computations:
  – functional abstraction, a.k.a. procedural abstraction

• As long as you know what the function means, you don’t care how it computes that value
  – You don’t care about the implementation (the function body)
Defining Absolute Value

```python
def abs(x):
    if val < 0:
        return -1 * val
    else:
        return 1 * val
```

```python
def abs(x):
    if val < 0:
        result = -val
    else:
        result = val
    return result
```

```python
def abs(x):
    if val < 0:
        result = -val
    else:
        result = val
    return result
```

```python
def abs(x):
    return math.sqrt(x*x)
```
def round(x):
    return int(x+0.5)

def round(x):
    fraction = x - int(x)
    if fraction >= .5:
        return int(x) + 1
    else:
        return int(x)
Two Types of Documentation

1. Documentation for users/clients/callers
   – Document the purpose or meaning or abstraction that the function represents
   – Tells what the function does
   – Should be written for every function

2. Documentation for programmers who are reading the code
   – Document the implementation – specific code choices
   – Tells how the function does it
   – Only necessary for tricky or interesting bits of the code

```python
def square(x):
    """Returns the square of its argument.""
    # "x*x" can be more precise than "x**2"
    return x*x
```
Multi-line Strings

• New way to write a string – surrounded by three quotes instead of just one
  – "hello"
  – 'hello'
  – """hello""
  – '''hello'''

• Any of these works for a documentation string

• Triple-quote version:
  – can include newlines (carriage returns),
    so the string can span multiple lines
  – can include quotation marks
Don’t Write Useless Comments

• Comments should give information that is not apparent from the code

• Here is a counter-productive comment that merely clutters the code, which makes the code harder to read:

```
# increment the value of x
x = x + 1
```
Where to Write Comments

• By convention, write a comment *above* the code that it describes (or, more rarely, on the same line)
  – First, a reader sees the English intuition or explanation, then the possibly-confusing code

```python
# The following code is adapted from
# "Introduction to Algorithms", by Cormen et al.,
# section 14.22.
while (n > i):
    ...
```

• A comment may appear anywhere in your program, including at the end of a line:

```python
x = y + x       # a comment about this line
```

• For a line that starts with #, indentation must be consistent with surrounding code
Each Variable Should Represent One Thing

```python
def atm_to_mbar(pressure):
    return pressure * 1013.25

def mbar_to_mmHg(pressure):
    return pressure * 0.75006

# Confusing
pressure = 1.2  # in atmospheres
pressure = atm_to_mbar(pressure)
pressure = mbar_to_mmHg(pressure)
print(pressure)

# Better
in_atm = 1.2
in_mbar = atm_to_mbar(in_atm)
in_mmHg = mbar_to_mmHg(in_mbar)
print(in_mmHg)

# Best

def atm_to_mmHg(pressure):
    in_mbar = atm_to_mbar(pressure)
in_mmHg = mbar_to_mmHg(in_mbar)
    return in_mmHg
print(atm_to_mmHg(1.2))
```

Corollary: Each variable should contain values of only one type

```python
# Legal, but confusing: don’t do this!
x = 3
...
x = "hello"
...
x = [3, 1, 4, 1, 5]
...
```

If you use a descriptive variable name, you are unlikely to make these mistakes
def cent_to_fahr(c):
    print(cent / 5.0 * 9 + 32)

print(cent_to_fahr(20))

def c_to_f(c):
    print("c_to_f")
    return c / 5.0 * 9 + 32

def make_message(temp):
    print("make_message")
    return ("The temperature is " + str(temp))

for tempc in [-40, 0, 37]:
    tempf = c_to_f(tempc)
    message = make_message(tempf)
    print(message)

def myfunc(n):
    total = 0
    for i in range(n):
        total = total + i
    return total

print(myfunc(4))

def double(7) + abs(-20 - 2) + 20

Use the Python Tutor: http://pythontutor.com/
What Does This Print?

def cent_to_fahr(cent):
    print (cent / 5.0 * 9 + 32)

print (cent_to_fahr(20))

68.0
None
What Does This Print?

def myfunc(n):
    total = 0
    for i in range(n):
        total = total + i
    return total

print (myfunc(4))
def c_to_f(c):
    print("c_to_f")
    return c / 5.0 * 9 + 32

def make_message(temp):
    print("make_message")
    return "The temperature is " + str(temp)

for tempc in [-40, 0, 37]:
    tempf = c_to_f(tempc)
    message = make_message(tempf)
    print(message)

The temperature is -40.0
The temperature is 32.0
The temperature is 98.6
Decomposing a Problem

• Breaking down a program into functions is the fundamental activity of programming!

• How do you decide when to use a function?
  – One rule: DRY (Don’t Repeat Yourself)
  – Whenever you are tempted to copy and paste code, don’t!

• Now, how do you design a function?
1. **Wishful thinking:**
   Write the program as if the function already exists
2. **Write a specification:**
   Describe the inputs and output, including their types
   - No implementation yet!
3. **Write tests:** Example inputs and outputs
4. **Write the function body (the implementation)**
   First, write your plan in English, then translate to Python

```python
print("Temperature in Farenheit:", tempf)
tempc = fahr_to_cent(tempf)
print("Temperature in Celsius:", tempc)

def fahr_to_cent(f):
    """Input: a number representing degrees Farenheit
    Return value: a number representing degrees centigrade
    """
    result = (f - 32) / 9.0 * 5
    return result

assert fahr_to_cent(32) == 0
assert fahr_to_cent(212) == 100
assert fahr_to_cent(98.6) == 37
assert fahr_to_cent(-40) == -40
```
Review: How to Evaluate a Function Call

1. Evaluate the function and its arguments to values
   – If the function value is not a function, execution terminates with an error
2. Create a new stack frame
   – The parent frame is the one where the function is defined
     • In CSE 140, this is always the global frame
   – A frame has bindings from variables to values
   – Looking up a variable starts here
     • Proceeds to the next older frame if no match here
     • The oldest frame is the “global” frame
     • All the frames together are called the “environment”
   – Assignments happen here
3. Assign the actual argument values to the formal parameter variable
   – In the new stack frame
4. Evaluate the body
   – At a return statement, remember the value and exit
   – If at end of the body, return None
5. Remove the stack frame
6. The call evaluates to the returned value
import math

def double(x):
    return 2*x

print(double)

myfns = [math.sqrt, int, double, math.cos]

myfns[1](3.14)
myfns[2](3.14)
myfns[3](3.14)

def doubler():
    return double
doubler()(2.718)