

Graphics, Functions

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Lecture 6

Methods in Computational Linguistics I

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<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/lecture06final.ipynb>

Outline

Objects and graphics (Ch 4)

- Interactive graphics
- Getting mouse clicks
- Textual input

Functions (Ch 6)

- Overview
- Functions, informally
- Functions and parameters: the details
- Functions that return values
- Functions that modify parameters

Interactive graphics

Chapter 4

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter04.ipynb>

Interactive Graphics

- In a GUI environment, users typically interact with their applications by clicking on buttons, choosing items from menus, and typing information into on-screen text boxes.
- Event-driven programming draws interface elements (widgets) on the screen and then waits for the user to do something.

Interactive Graphics

- An event is generated whenever a user moves the mouse, clicks the mouse, or types a key on the keyboard.
- An event is an object that encapsulates information about what just happened.
- The event object is sent to the appropriate part of the program to be processed, for example, a button event.

Interactive Graphics

- The graphics module hides the underlying, low-level window management and provides two simple ways to get user input in a GraphWin.

Getting mouse clicks

Chapter 4

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter04.ipynb>

Getting Mouse Clicks

- We can get graphical information from the user via the `getMouse` method of the `GraphWin` class.
- When `getMouse` is invoked on a `GraphWin`, the program pauses and waits for the user to click the mouse somewhere in the window.
- The spot where the user clicked is returned as a `Point`.

Getting Mouse Clicks

- The following code reports the coordinates of a mouse click:

```
from graphics import *
win = GraphWin("Click Me!")
p = win.getMouse()
print("You clicked", p.getX(), p.getY())
```

- We can use the accessors like `getX` and `getY` or other methods on the point returned.

Getting Mouse Clicks

```
# Interactive graphics program to draw a
triangle

from graphics import *

def triangle():
    win = GraphWin("Draw a Triangle")
    win.setCoords(0.0, 0.0, 10.0, 10.0)
    message = Text(Point(5, 0.5),
                    "Click on three points")
    message.draw(win)

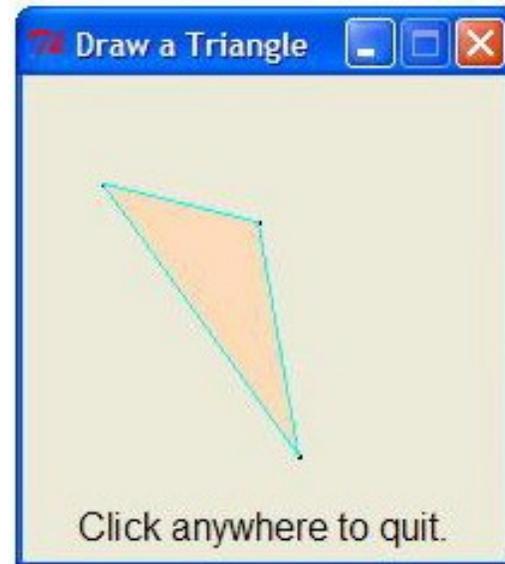
    # Get and draw three vertices of
triangle
    p1 = win.getMouse()
    p1.draw(win)
    p2 = win.getMouse()
    p2.draw(win)
    p3 = win.getMouse()
    p3.draw(win)
```

```
# Use Polygon object to draw the triangle
triangle = Polygon(p1,p2,p3)
triangle.setFill("peachpuff")
triangle.setOutline("cyan")
triangle.draw(win)

# Wait for another click to exit
message.setText("Click anywhere to quit.")
win.getMouse()
```

```
triangle()
```

Getting Mouse Clicks



Getting Mouse Clicks

- Notes:

- If you are programming in a windows environment, using the .pyw extension on your file will cause the Python shell window to not display when you double-click the program icon.
- There is no triangle class. Rather, we use the general Polygon class, which takes any number of points and connects them into a closed shape.

Getting Mouse Clicks

- Once you have three points, creating a triangle polygon is easy:

```
triangle = Polygon(p1, p2, p3)
```

- A single text object is created and drawn near the beginning of the program.

```
message = Text(Point(5, 0.5),  
                "Click on three points")
```

```
message.draw(win)
```

- To change the prompt, just change the text to be displayed.

```
message.setText("Click anywhere to quit.")
```

Handling textual input

Chapter 4

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter04.ipynb>

Handling Textual Input

- The triangle program's input was done completely through mouse clicks.
- The `GraphWin` object provides a `getKey()` method that works like the `getMouse` method.

Handling Textual Input

```
from graphics import *
def clickntype():
    win = GraphWin("Click and Type", 400, 400)
    for i in range(10):
        pt = win.getMouse()
        key = win.getKey()
        label = Text(pt, key)
        label.draw(win)
```

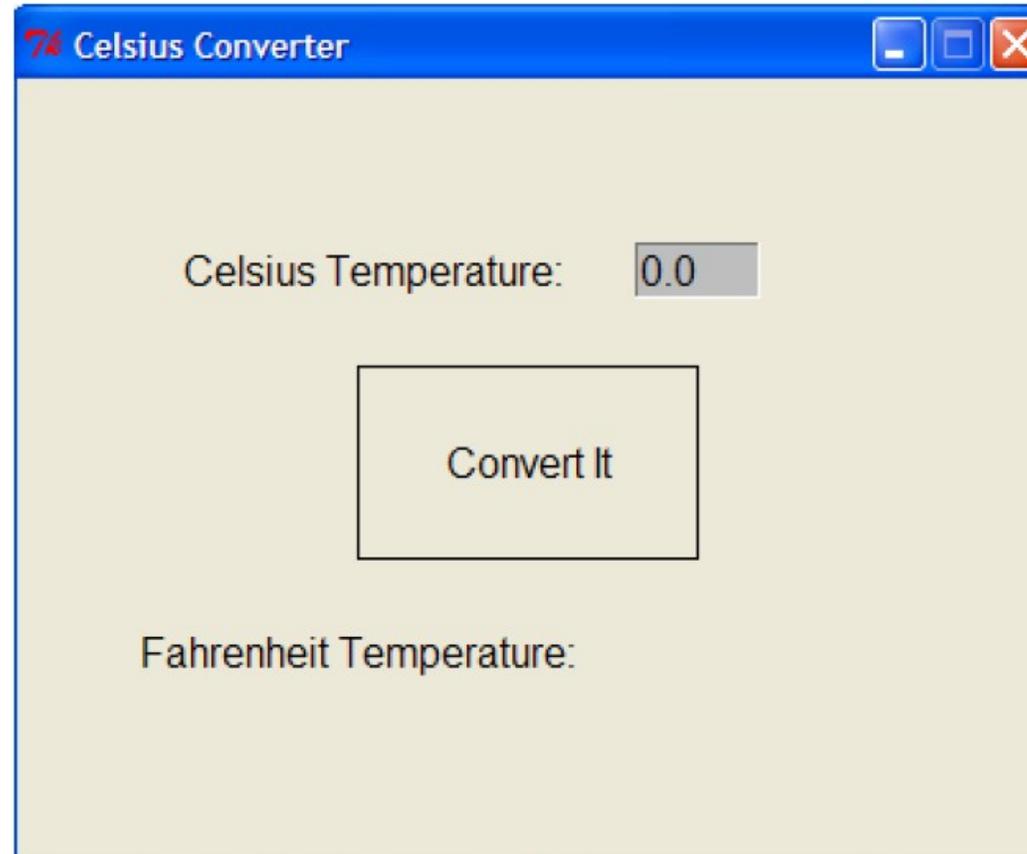
Handling Textual Input



Handling Textual Input

- There's also an `Entry` object that can get keyboard input.
- The `Entry` object draws a box on the screen that can contain text. It understands `setText` and `getText`, with one difference that the input can be edited.

Handling Textual Input



Handling Textual Input

```
# Program to convert Celsius to Fahrenheit using a
simple
# graphical interface.
```

```
from graphics import *
```

```
def convert_gui():
    win = GraphWin("Celsius Converter", 300, 200)
    win.setCoords(0.0, 0.0, 3.0, 4.0)

    # Draw the interface
    Text(Point(1,3), " Celsius
Temperature:").draw(win)
    Text(Point(1,1), "Fahrenheit
Temperature:").draw(win)
    input = Entry(Point(2,3), 5)
    input.setText("0.0")
    input.draw(win)
    output = Text(Point(2,1), "")
    output.draw(win)
    button = Text(Point(1.5,2.0), "Convert It")
    button.draw(win)
    Rectangle(Point(1,1.5), Point(2,2.5)).draw(win)
```

```
# wait for a mouse click
win.getMouse()

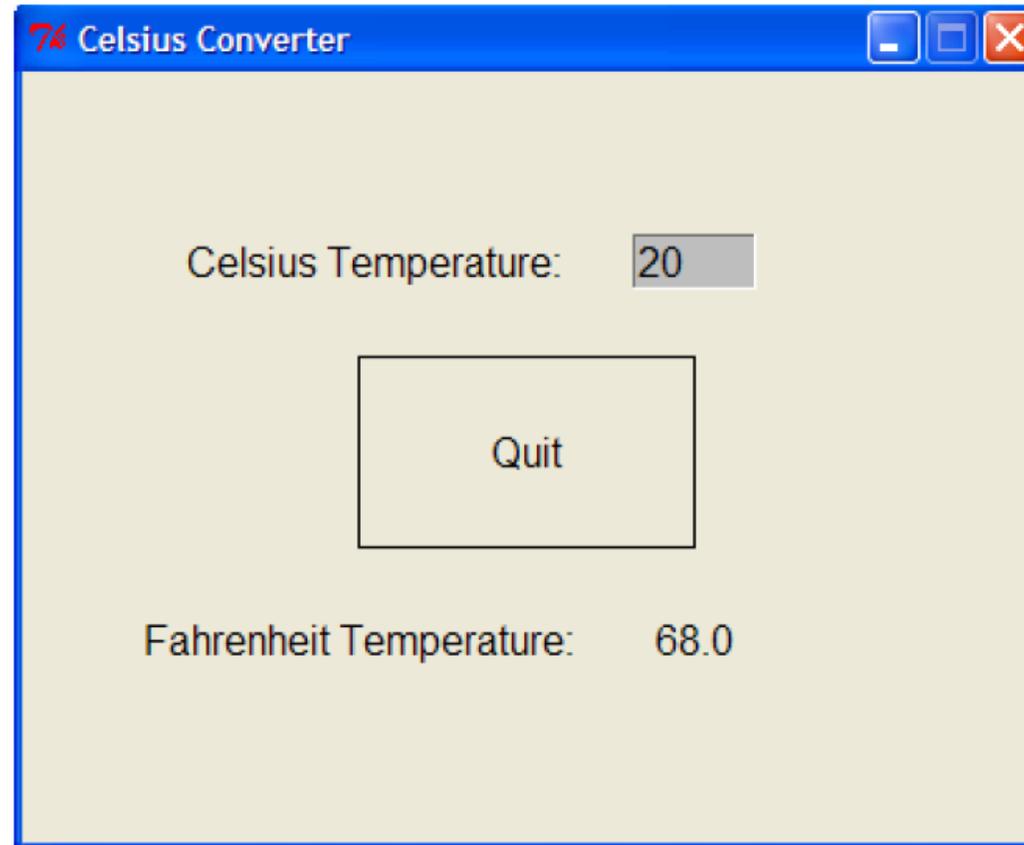
# convert input
celsius = eval(input.getText())
fahrenheit = 9.0/5.0 * celsius + 32

# display output and change button
output.setText(fahrenheit)
button.setText("Quit")

# wait for click and then quit
win.getMouse()
win.close()
```

```
convert_gui()
```

Handling Textual Input



Handling Textual Input

- When run, this program produces a window with an entry box for typing in the Celsius temperature and a button to “do” the conversion.
 - The button is for show only! We are just waiting for a mouse click anywhere in the window.

Handling Textual Input

- Initially, the input entry box is set to contain “0.0”.
- The user can delete this value and type in another value.
- The program pauses until the user clicks the mouse – we don’t care where so we don’t store the point!

Handling Textual Input

- The input is processed in three steps:
 - The value entered is converted into a number with `float`.
 - This number is converted to degrees Fahrenheit.
 - This number is then converted to a string and formatted for display in the output text area.

Functions

Chapter 6

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter06.ipynb>

Objectives

- To understand why programmers divide programs up into sets of cooperating functions.
- To be able to define new functions in Python.
- To understand the details of function calls and parameter passing in Python.

Objectives

- To write programs that use functions to reduce code duplication and increase program modularity.

The Function of Functions

- So far, we've seen four different types of functions:
 - Our programs comprise a single function called `main()`.
 - Built-in Python functions (`print`, `abs`)
 - Functions from the standard libraries (`math.sqrt`)
 - Functions from the graphics module (`p.getX()`)

The Function of Functions

- Having similar or identical code in more than one place has some drawbacks.
 - Issue one: writing the same code twice or more.
 - Issue two: This same code must be maintained in two separate places.
- Functions can be used to reduce code duplication and make programs more easily understood and maintained.

Functions, informally

Chapter 6

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter06.ipynb>

Functions, Informally

- A function is like a *subprogram*, a small program inside of a program.
- The basic idea – we write a sequence of statements and then give that sequence a name. We can then execute this sequence at any time by referring to the name.

Functions, Informally

- The part of the program that creates a function is called a *function definition*.
- When the function is used in a program, we say the definition is *called* or *invoked*.

Functions, Informally

- Happy Birthday lyrics...

```
def main():  
    print("Happy birthday to you!" )  
    print("Happy birthday to you!" )  
    print("Happy birthday, dear Fred...")  
    print("Happy birthday to you!")
```

- Gives us this...

```
>>> main()  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday, dear Fred...  
Happy birthday to you!
```

Functions, Informally

- There's some duplicated code in the program! (`print("Happy birthday to you!")`)
- We can define a function to print out this line:

```
def happy():  
    print("Happy birthday to you!")
```
- With this function, we can rewrite our program.

Functions, Informally

- The new program –

```
def happy():  
    print("Happy birthday to you!")  
  
def singFred():  
    happy()  
    happy()  
    print("Happy birthday, dear Fred...")  
    happy()
```

- Gives us this output –

```
>>> singFred()  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday, dear Fred...  
Happy birthday to you!
```

Functions, Informally

- Creating this function saved us a lot of typing!
- What if it's Lucy's birthday? We could write a new `singLucy` function!

```
def singLucy():  
    happy()  
    happy()  
    print("Happy birthday, dear Lucy...")  
    happy()
```

Functions, Informally

- We could write a main program to sing to both Lucy and Fred

```
def main():  
    singFred()  
    print()  
    singLucy()
```

- This gives us this new output

```
>>> main()  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday, dear Fred..  
Happy birthday to you!  
  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday, dear Lucy...  
Happy birthday to you!
```

Functions, Informally

- This is working great! But... there's still a lot of code duplication.
- The only difference between `singFred` and `singLucy` is the name in the third `print` statement.
- These two routines could be collapsed together by using a *parameter*.

Functions, Informally

- The generic function *sing*

```
def sing(person):  
    happy()  
    happy()  
    print("Happy birthday, dear", person + ".")  
    happy()
```

- This function uses a parameter named `person`. A *parameter* is a variable that is initialized when the function is called.

Functions, Informally

- Our new output –

```
>>> sing("Fred")
Happy birthday to you!
Happy birthday to you!
Happy birthday, dear Fred.
Happy birthday to you!
```

- We can put together a new main program!

Functions, Informally

- Our new main program:

```
def main():  
    sing("Fred")  
    print()  
    sing("Lucy")
```

- Gives us this output:

```
>>> main()  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday, dear Fred.  
Happy birthday to you!  
  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday to you!  
Happy birthday, dear Lucy.  
Happy birthday to you!
```

Future value with a function

Chapter 6

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter06.ipynb>

Future Value with a Function

- In the future value graphing program, we see similar code twice:

```
# Draw bar for initial principal
bar = Rectangle(Point(0, 0), Point(1, principal))
bar.setFill("green")
bar.setWidth(2)
bar.draw(win)
```

```
bar = Rectangle(Point(year, 0), Point(year+1, principal))
bar.setFill("green")
bar.setWidth(2)
bar.draw(win)
```

Future Value with a Function

- To properly draw the bars, we need three pieces of information.
 - The year the bar is for
 - How tall the bar should be
 - The window the bar will be drawn in
- These three values can be supplied as parameters to the function.

Future Value with a Function

- The resulting function looks like this:

```
def drawBar(window, year, height):  
    # Draw a bar in window starting at year with given height  
    bar = Rectangle(Point(year, 0), Point(year+1, height))  
    bar.setFill("green")  
    bar.setWidth(2)  
    bar.draw(window)
```

- To use this function, we supply the three values. If win is a Graphwin, we can draw a bar for year 0 and principal of \$2000 using this call:

```
drawBar(win, 0, 2000)
```

Functions and parameters: the details

Chapter 6

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter06.ipynb>

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- It makes sense to include the year and the principal in the `drawBar` function, but why send the window variable?
- The *scope* of a variable refers to the places in a program a given variable can be referenced.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- Each function is its own little subprogram. The variables used inside of a function are *local* to that function, even if they happen to have the same name as variables that appear inside of another function.
- The only way for a function to see a variable from another function is for that variable to be passed as a parameter.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- Since the `GraphWin` in the variable `win` is created inside of `main`, it is not directly accessible in `drawBar`.
- The `window` parameter in `drawBar` gets assigned the value of `win` from `main` when `drawBar` is called.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- A function definition looks like this:

```
def <name> (<formal-parameters>) :  
    <body>
```

- The name of the function must be an identifier
- Formal-parameters is a (possibly empty) list of variable names

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- Formal parameters, like all variables used in the function, are only accessible in the body of the function. Variables with identical names elsewhere in the program are distinct from the formal parameters and variables inside of the function body.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- A function is called by using its name followed by a list of *actual parameters* or *arguments*.
`<name> (<actual-parameters>)`
- When Python comes to a function call, it initiates a four-step process.
 1. The calling program suspends execution at the point of the call.
 2. The formal parameters of the function get assigned the values supplied by the actual parameters in the call.
 3. The body of the function is executed.
 4. Control returns to the point just after where the function was called.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- Let's trace through the following code:

```
sing("Fred")  
print()  
sing("Lucy")
```

- When Python gets to `sing("Fred")`, execution of `main` is temporarily suspended.
- Python looks up the definition of `sing` and sees that it has one formal parameter, `person`.

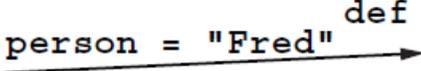
Functions and Parameters: The Detail

- The formal parameter is assigned the value of the actual parameter. It's as if the following statement had been executed:

```
person = "Fred"
```

Functions and Parameters: The Details

```
def main():  
    sing("Fred")  
    print()  
    sing("Lucy")  
def sing(person):  
    happy()  
    happy()  
    print ("Happy birthday, dear", person + ".")  
    happy()
```



```
person: "Fred"
```

Note that the variable `person` has just been initialized.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- At this point, Python begins executing the body of `sing`.
- The first statement is another function call, to `happy`. What happens next?
- Python suspends the execution of `sing` and transfers control to `happy`.
- `happy` consists of a single `print`, which is executed and control returns to where it left off in `sing`.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

```
def main():  
    sing("Fred")  
    print()  
    sing("Lucy")  
  
def sing(person):  
    happy()  
    print ("Happy birthday, dear", person + ".")  
    happy()  
  
def happy():  
    print ("Happy Birthday to you!")
```

person: "Fred"

- Execution continues in this way with two more trips to `happy`.
- When Python gets to the end of `sing`, control returns to `main` and continues immediately following the function call.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

```
def main():  
    sing("Fred")  
    print()  
    sing("Lucy")  
  
def sing(person):  
    happy()  
    happy()  
    print("Happy birthday, dear", person + ".")  
    happy()
```



- Notice that the `person` variable in `sing` has disappeared!
- The memory occupied by local function variables is reclaimed when the function exits.
- Local variables do **not** retain any values from one function execution to the next.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- The next statement is the bare `print`, which produces a blank line.
- Python encounters another call to `sing`, and control transfers to the `sing` function, with the formal parameter “Lucy”.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

```
def main():  
    sing("Fred")  
    print()  
    sing("Lucy")  
def sing(person):  
    happy()  
    happy()  
    print ("Happy birthday, dear", person + ".")  
    happy()  
person: "Lucy"
```

- The body of `sing` is executed for Lucy with its three side trips to `happy` and control returns to `main`.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

```
def main():  
    sing("Fred")  
    print()  
    sing("Lucy")  
↓  
  
def sing(person):  
    happy()  
    happy()  
    print ("Happy birthday, dear", person + ".")  
    happy()
```

The diagram illustrates the execution flow between two functions. The `main()` function calls `sing("Fred")`. The `sing(person)` function calls `happy()` three times and prints a message. The `sing()` function also calls itself, as indicated by the arrow from the bottom `happy()` call back to the `sing()` definition. Finally, the `sing()` function returns control to `main()`, which then calls `sing("Lucy")`.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- One thing not addressed in this example was multiple parameters. In this case the formal and actual parameters are matched up based on *position*, e.g. the first actual parameter is assigned to the first formal parameter, the second actual parameter is assigned to the second formal parameter, etc.

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- As an example, consider the call to `drawBar`:

```
drawBar(win, 0, principal)
```

- When control is passed to `drawBar`, these parameters are matched up to the formal parameters in the function heading:

```
def drawBar(window, year, height):
```

Functions and Parameters: The Details

- The net effect is as if the function body had been prefaced with three assignment statements:

```
window = win  
year = 0  
height = principal
```

Functions that return values

Chapter 6

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter06.ipynb>

Functions That Return Values

- Passing parameters provides a mechanism for initializing the variables in a function.
- Parameters act as inputs to a function.
- We can call a function many times and get different results by changing its parameters.

Functions That Return Values

- We've already seen numerous examples of functions that return values to the caller.

```
discRt = math.sqrt(b*b - 4*a*c)
```

- The value $b*b - 4*a*c$ is the actual parameter of `math.sqrt`.
- We say `sqrt` *returns* the square root of its argument.

Functions That Return Values

- This function returns the square of a number:

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

- When Python encounters `return`, it exits the function and returns control to the point where the function was called.
- In addition, the value(s) provided in the `return` statement are sent back to the caller as an expression result.

Functions That Return Values

- ```
>>> square(3)
9
```
- ```
>>> print(square(4))
16
```
- ```
>>> x = 5
>>> y = square(x)
>>> print(y)
25
```
- ```
>>> print(square(x) + square(3))
34
```

Functions That Return Values

- We can use the square function to write a routine to calculate the distance between (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) .

```
def distance(p1, p2):  
    dist = math.sqrt(square(p2.getX() - p1.getX()) +  
square(p2.getY() - p1.getY()))  
    return dist
```

Functions That Return Values

- The order of the function definitions in the program is not important.
- We just have to make sure a function is defined before the program actually tries to run it.
- Since our call to `main` does not usually happen until the every last line of the module, all of the functions will be defined before the program starts running.

Functions That Return Values

- Sometimes a function needs to return more than one value.
- To do this, simply list more than one expression in the `return` statement.

```
def sumDiff(x, y):  
    sum = x + y  
    diff = x - y  
    return sum, diff
```

Functions That Return Values

- When calling this function, use simultaneous assignment.

```
num1, num2 = eval(input("Enter two numbers (num1, num2) "))  
s, d = sumDiff(num1, num2)  
print("The sum is", s, "and the difference is", d)
```

- As before, the values are assigned based on position, so *s* gets the first value returned (the sum), and *d* gets the second (the difference).

Functions That Return Values

- One “gotcha” – all Python functions return a value, whether they contain a `return` statement or not. Functions without a `return` hand back a special object, denoted `None`.
- A common problem is writing a value-returning function and omitting the `return`!

Functions That Return Values

- If your value-returning functions produce strange messages, check to make sure you remembered to include the `return`!

Functions that modify parameters

Chapter 6

<https://github.com/ling78100/lectureExamples/blob/master/chapter06.ipynb>

Functions that Modify Parameters

- Return values are the main way to send information from a function back to the caller.
- Sometimes, we can communicate back to the caller by making changes to the function parameters.
- Understanding when and how this is possible requires the mastery of some subtle details about how assignment works and the relationship between actual and formal parameters.

Functions that Modify Parameters

- Suppose you are writing a program that manages bank accounts. One function we would need to do is to accumulate interest on the account. Let's look at a first-cut at the function.

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):  
    newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)  
    balance = newBalance
```

Functions that Modify Parameters

- The intent is to set the balance of the account to a new value that includes the interest amount.
- Let's write a main program to test this:

```
def test():  
    amount = 1000  
    rate = 0.05  
    addInterest(amount, rate)  
    print(amount)
```

Functions that Modify Parameters

- We hope that that the 5% will be added to the amount, returning 1050.
- ```
>>> test()
1000
```
- What went wrong? Nothing!

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- The first two lines of the test function create two local variables called `amount` and `rate` which are given the initial values of `1000` and `0.05`, respectively.

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):
 newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)
 balance = newBalance

def test():
 amount = 1000
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amount, rate)
 print(amount)
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- Control then transfers to the `addInterest` function.
- The formal parameters `balance` and `rate` are assigned the values of the actual parameters `amount` and `rate`.
- Even though `rate` appears in both, they are separate variables (because of scope rules).

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):
 newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)
 balance = newBalance

def test():
 amount = 1000
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amount, rate)
 print(amount)
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- The assignment of the parameters causes the variables `balance` and `rate` in `addInterest` to refer to the *values* of the actual parameters!

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):
 newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)
 balance = newBalance
```

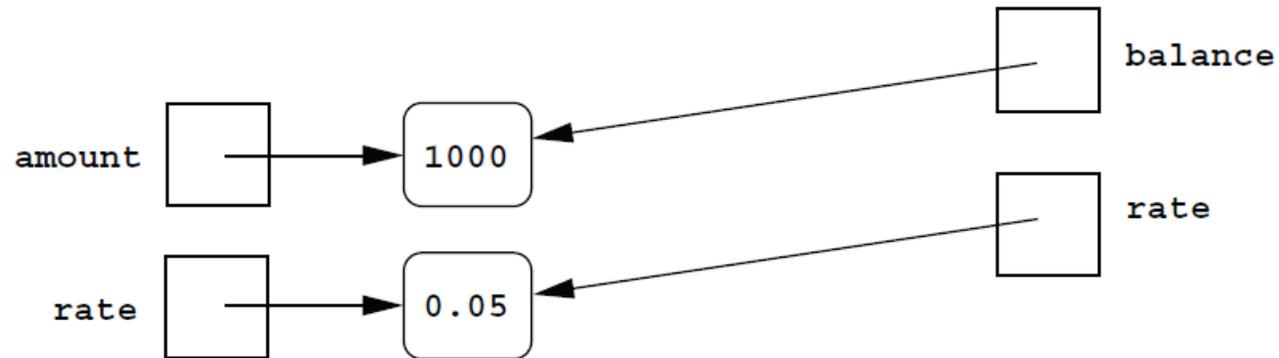
```
def test():
 amount = 1000
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amount, rate)
 print(amount)
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters

```
def test():
 amount = 1000
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amount, rate)
 print(amount)
```

*balance=amount*  
*rate=rate*

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):
 newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)
 balance = newBalance
```



# Functions that Modify Parameters

- Executing the first line of `addInterest` creates a new variable, `newBalance`.
- `balance` is then assigned the value of `newBalance`.

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):
 newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)
 balance = newBalance
```

```
def test():
 amount = 1000
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amount, rate)
 print(amount)
```

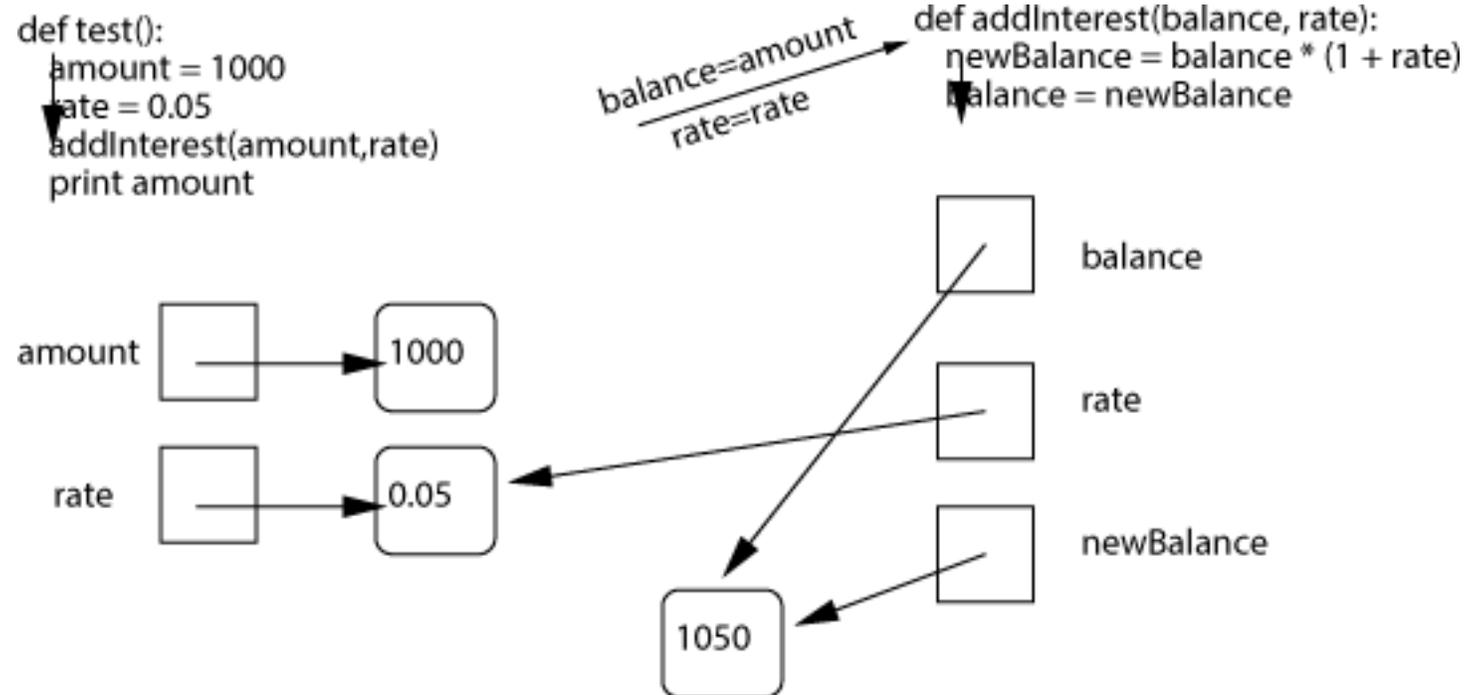
# Functions that Modify Parameters

- `balance` now refers to the same value as `newBalance`, but this had no effect on `amount` in the `test` function.

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):
 newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)
 balance = newBalance
```

```
def test():
 amount = 1000
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amount, rate)
 print(amount)
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters



# Functions that Modify Parameters

- Execution of `addInterest` has completed and control returns to `test`.
- The local variables, including the parameters, in `addInterest` go away, but `amount` and `rate` in the `test` function still refer to their initial values!

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):
 newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)
 balance = newBalance
```

```
def test():
 amount = 1000
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amount, rate)
 print(amount)
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- To summarize: the formal parameters of a function only receive the *values* of the actual parameters. The function does not have access to the variable that holds the actual parameter.
- Python is said to pass all parameters *by value*.

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- Some programming languages (C++, Ada, and many more) do allow variables themselves to be sent as parameters to a function. This mechanism is said to pass parameters *by reference*.
- When a new value is assigned to the formal parameter, the value of the variable in the calling program actually changes.

# Functions that *Modify* Parameters

- Since Python doesn't have this capability, one alternative would be to change the `addInterest` function so that it returns the `newBalance`.

# Functions that Modify Parameters

```
def addInterest(balance, rate):
 newBalance = balance * (1 + rate)
 return newBalance
```

```
def test():
 amount = 1000
 rate = 0.05
 amount = addInterest(amount, rate)
 print(amount)
```

```
test()
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- Instead of looking at a single account, say we are writing a program for a bank that deals with many accounts. We could store the account balances in a list, then add the accrued interest to each of the balances in the list.
- We could update the first balance in the list with code like:  

```
balances[0] = balances[0] * (1 + rate)
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- This code says, “multiply the value in the 0<sup>th</sup> position of the list by (1 + rate) and store the result back into the 0<sup>th</sup> position of the list.”
- A more general way to do this would be with a loop that goes through positions 0, 1, ..., length – 1.

# Functions that Modify Parameters

```
addinterest3.py
Illustrates modification of a mutable parameter (a list).

def addInterest(balances, rate):
 for i in range(len(balances)):
 balances[i] = balances[i] * (1+rate)

def test():
 amounts = [1000, 2200, 800, 360]
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amounts, 0.05)
 print(amounts)

test()
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- Remember, our original code had these values:

```
[1000, 2200, 800, 360]
```

- The program returns:

```
[1050.0, 2310.0, 840.0, 378.0]
```

- What happened? Python passes parameters by value, but it looks like `amounts` has been changed!

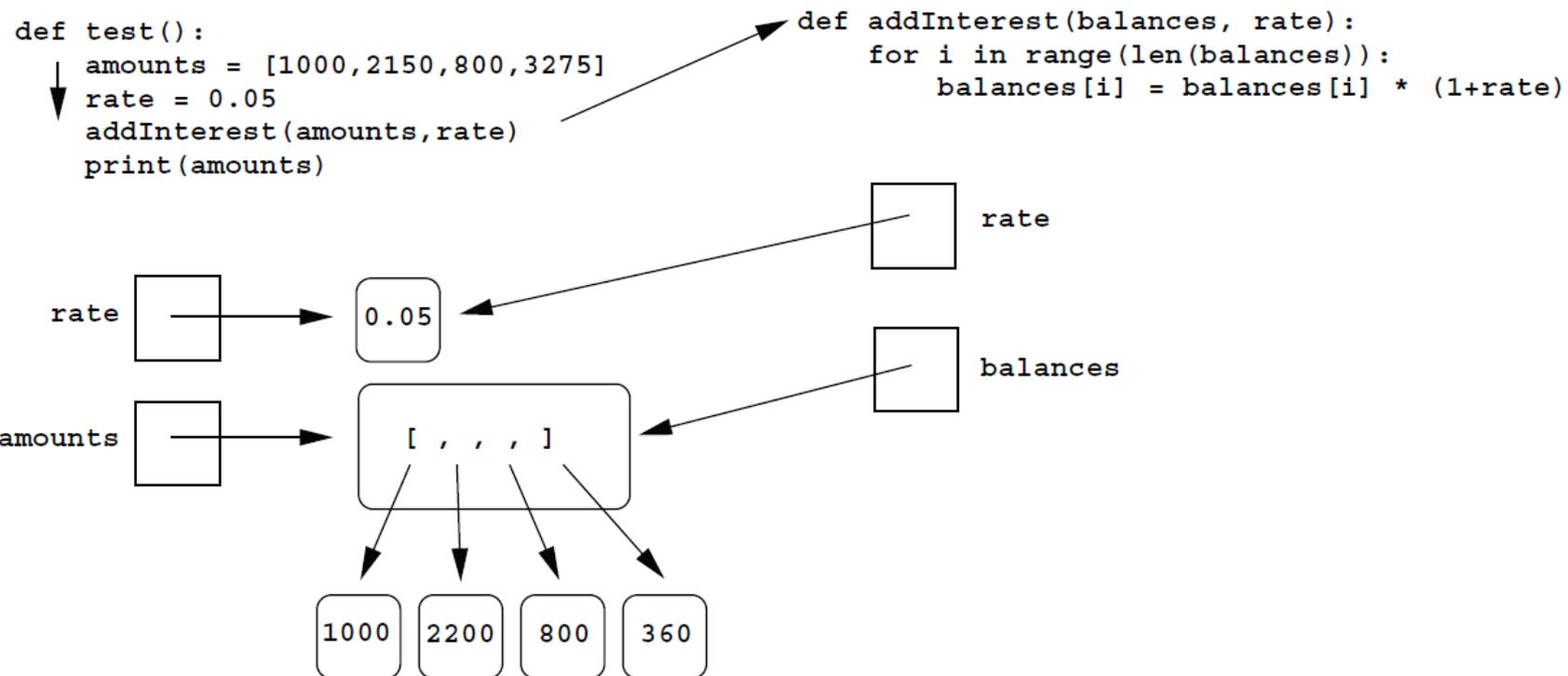
# Functions that Modify Parameters

- The first two lines of `test` create the variables `amounts` and `rate`.
- The value of the variable `amounts` is a list object that contains four `int` values.

```
def addInterest(balances, rate):
 for i in range(len(balances)):
 balances[i] = balances[i] *
 (1+rate)

def test():
 amounts = [1000, 2200, 800, 360]
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amounts, 0.05)
 print(amounts)
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters



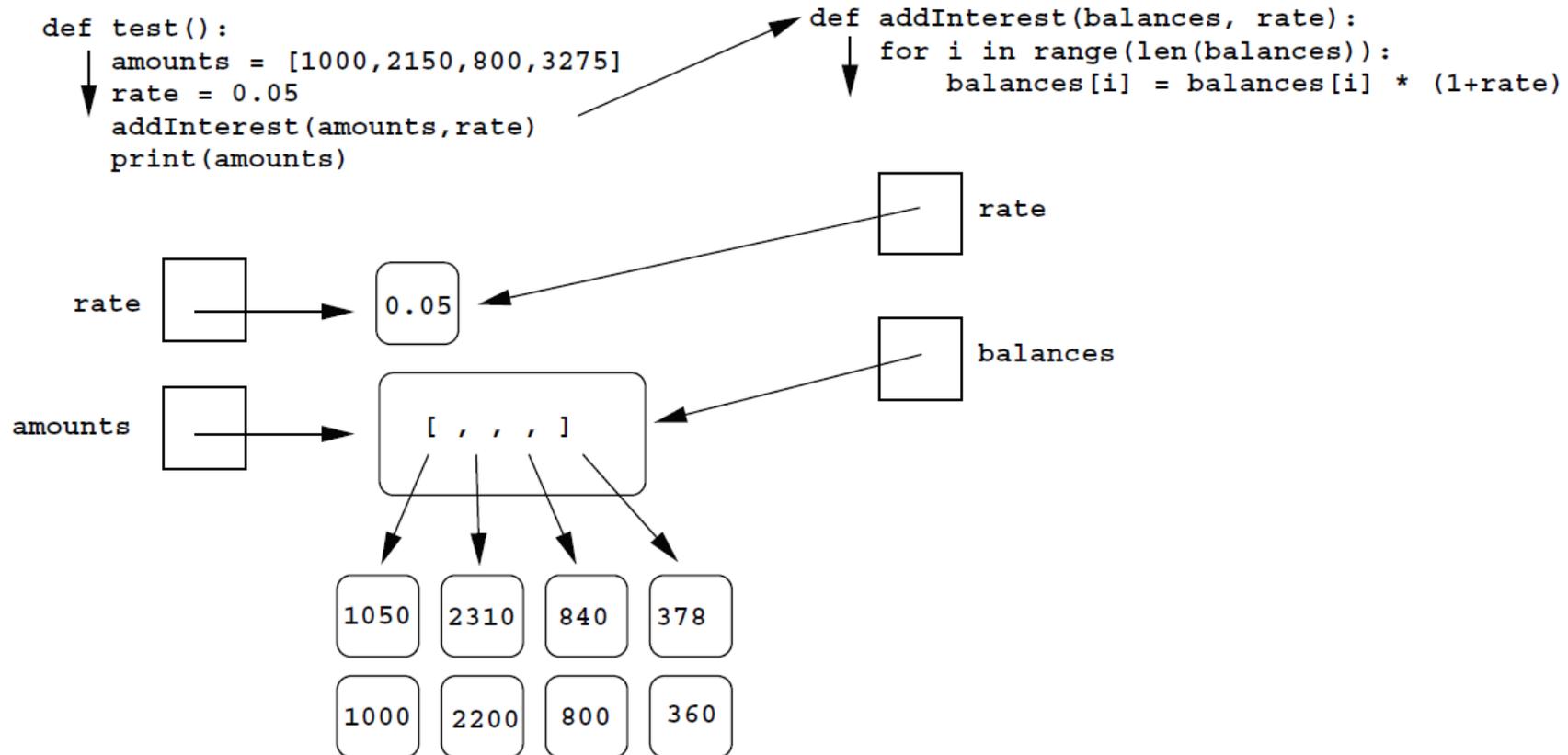
# Functions that Modify Parameters

- Next, `addInterest` executes. The loop goes through each index in the range `0, 1, ..., length - 1` and updates that value in `balances`.

```
def addInterest(balances, rate):
 for i in range(len(balances)):
 balances[i] = balances[i] *
 (1+rate)

def test():
 amounts = [1000, 2200, 800, 360]
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amounts, 0.05)
 print(amounts)
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters



# Functions that Modify Parameters

- In the diagram the old values are left hanging around to emphasize that the numbers in the boxes have not changed, but the new values were created and assigned into the list.
- The old values will be destroyed during garbage collection.

```
def addInterest(balances, rate):
 for i in range(len(balances)):
 balances[i] = balances[i] *
 (1+rate)

def test():
 amounts = [1000, 2200, 800, 360]
 rate = 0.05
 addInterest(amounts, 0.05)
 print amounts
```

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- When `addInterest` terminates, the list stored in `amounts` now contains the new values.
- The variable `amounts` wasn't changed (it's still a list), but the state of that list has changed, and this change is visible to the calling program.

# Functions that Modify Parameters

- Parameters are always passed by value. However, if the value of the variable is a mutable object (like a list or graphics object), then changes to the state of the object *will* be visible to the calling program.
- This situation is another example of the aliasing issue discussed in Chapter 4!

# Summary

# Outline

## Objects and graphics (Ch 4)

- Interactive graphics
- Getting mouse clicks
- Textual input

## Functions (Ch 6)

- Overview
- Functions, informally
- Functions and parameters: the details
- Functions that return values
- Functions that modify parameters

# Things to do...

- Readings from Textbook for next time:
  - Chapter 8: Loop structures and booleans
- Practicum 7
  - Practice defining functions
- Homework 3 released, due on 11/6
  - Turn in via github classroom
- Go through code examples again
  - [Lecture 6](#)
  - [Chapter 4](#)
  - [Chapter 6](#)

*Any Questions?*

# Acknowledgements

- Slides adapted & reused from Rachel Rakov's 'Methods in Computational Linguistics 1' course, Fall 2016
- Some slides in this presentation have been adapted from the following sources:
  - Python Programming: An Introduction to Computer Science (third edition) textbook slides, by John Zelle, Franklin, Beedle & Associates, <http://mcsp.wartburg.edu/zelle/python/>