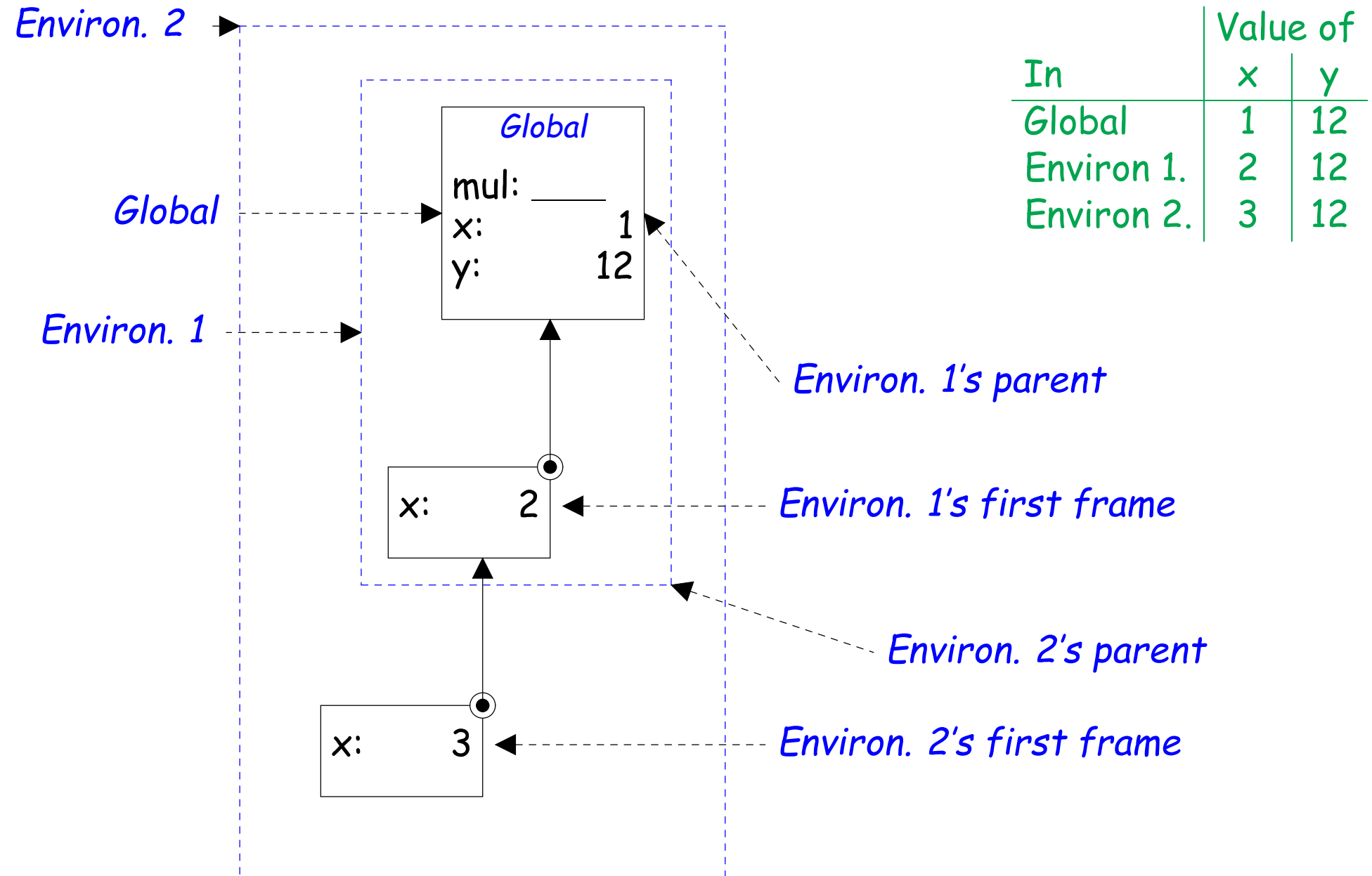


# Lecture #3: Recap of Function Evaluation; Control

# Summary: Environments

- *Environments* map names to values.
- They consist of chains of *environment frames*.
- An environment is either a *global frame* or a first (local) frame chained to a *parent environment* (which is itself either a global frame or ...).
- We say that a name is *bound to* a value in a frame.
- The *value (or meaning) of a name* in an environment is the value it is bound to in the first frame, if there is one, ...
- ...or if not, the meaning of the name in the parent environment (recursively).

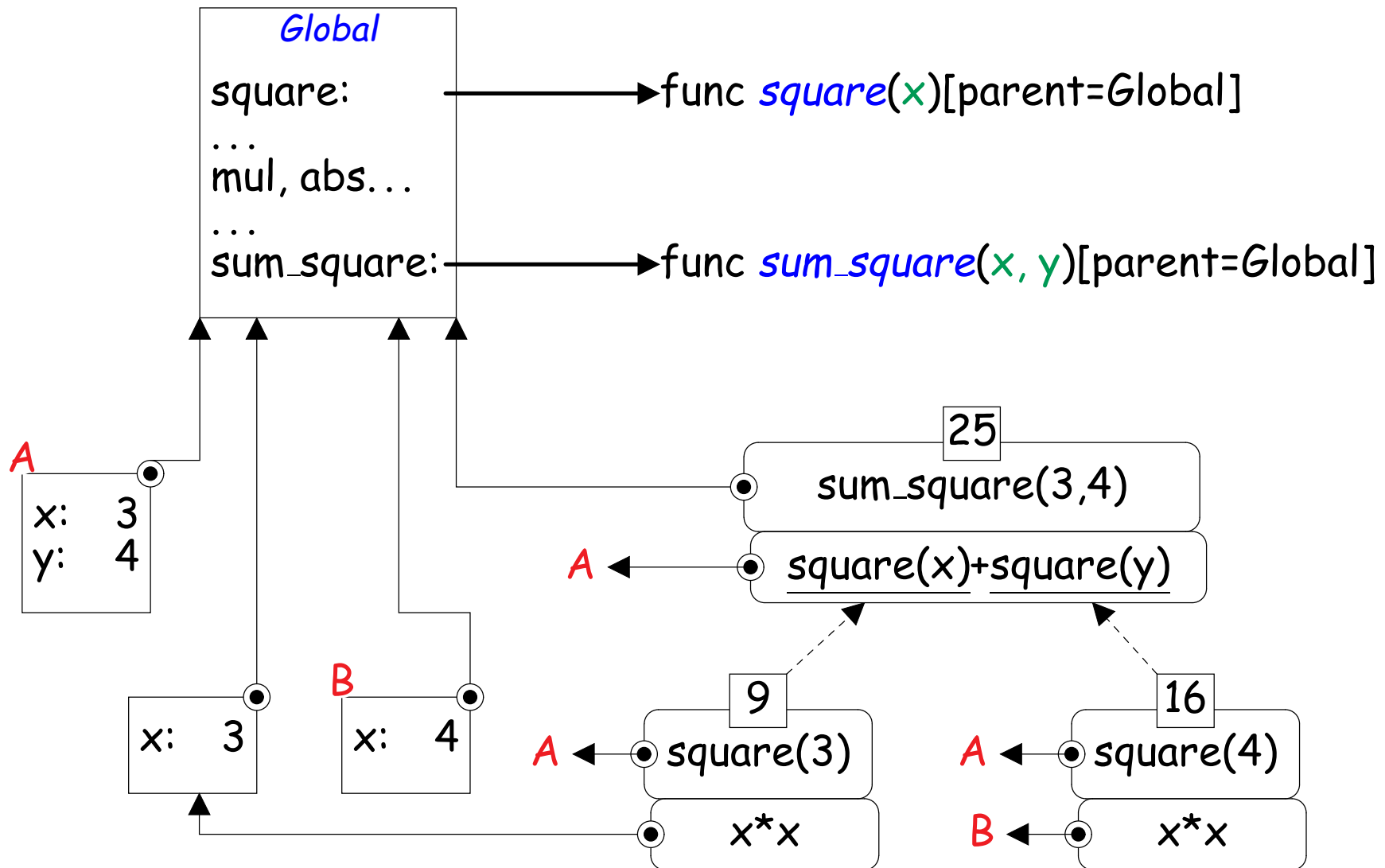
# A Sample Environment Chain



# Environments: Binding and Evaluation

- Every expression and statement is evaluated (executed) in an environment, which determines the meaning of its names.
- Expressions and subexpressions (pieces of an expression) are evaluated in the same environment as the statement or expression containing them.
- *Assigning* to a variable binds a value to it in (for now) the first frame of the environment in which the assignment is executed.
- *Def statements* bind a name to a function value in the first frame of the environment in which the *def* statement is executed.
- *Calling* a user-defined function creates a new local environment frame that binds the function's *formal parameters* to the operand values (*actual parameters*) in the call.
- This new local frame is attached to an existing (parent) frame that is taken from the function value that is called, forming a new local environment in which the function's body is evaluated.
- So far, the only parent frames we've seen have been global frames, but we'll see that it can get more complicated.

# Example: Evaluation of a Call: `sum_square(3,4)`



# What Does This Do (And Why)?

```
def id(x):  
    return x  
print(id(id)(id(13)))
```

Execute this

# Answer

```
def id(x):  
    return x  
print(id(id)(id(13)))
```

- We'll denote the user-defined function value created by `def id():...` by the shorthand `id`.
- Evaluation proceeds like this:

`id(id)(id(13))`

$\Rightarrow$  `id (id) (id (id)) (id (id) (13))`

$\Rightarrow$  `id (13)`

*(because `id` returns its argument).*

$\Rightarrow$  `13`

*(again because `id` returns its argument).*

- **Important:** There is nothing new on this slide! Everything follows from what you've seen so far.

# Nested Functions

- In lecture #2, I had this example:

```
def incr(n):  
    def f(x):  
        return n + x  
    return f
```

`incr(5)(6)`

- We evaluated the argument to `print` by substitution:

`incr(5)`  $\implies$ 

`def f(x): return 5 + x  
return f`

 $\implies \lambda x: 5 + x$

`incr(5)(6)`  $\implies (\lambda x: 5 + x)(6)$   $\implies 5 + 6$   $\implies 11$

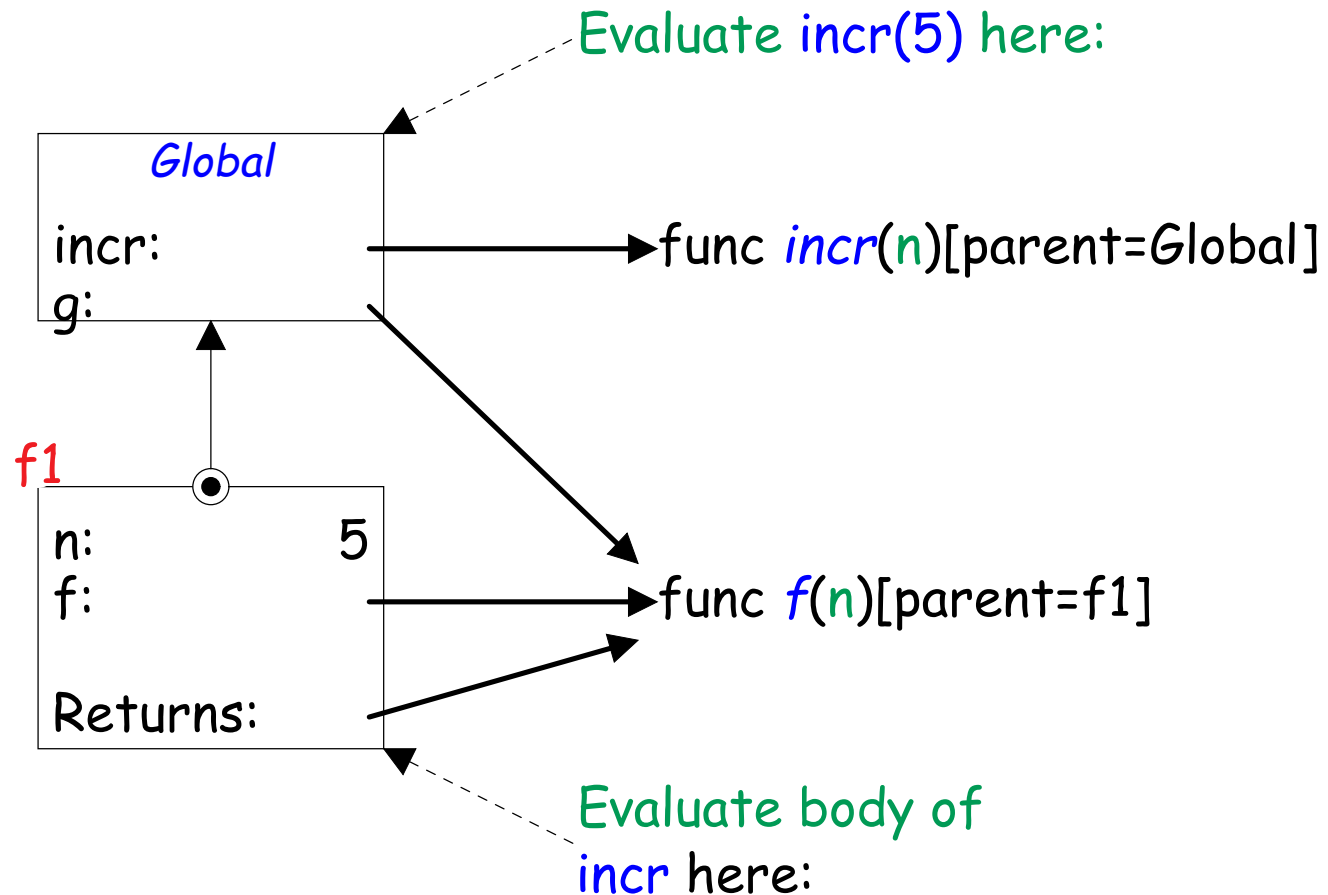
- So how does this work with environments?



# Environments for incr (I)

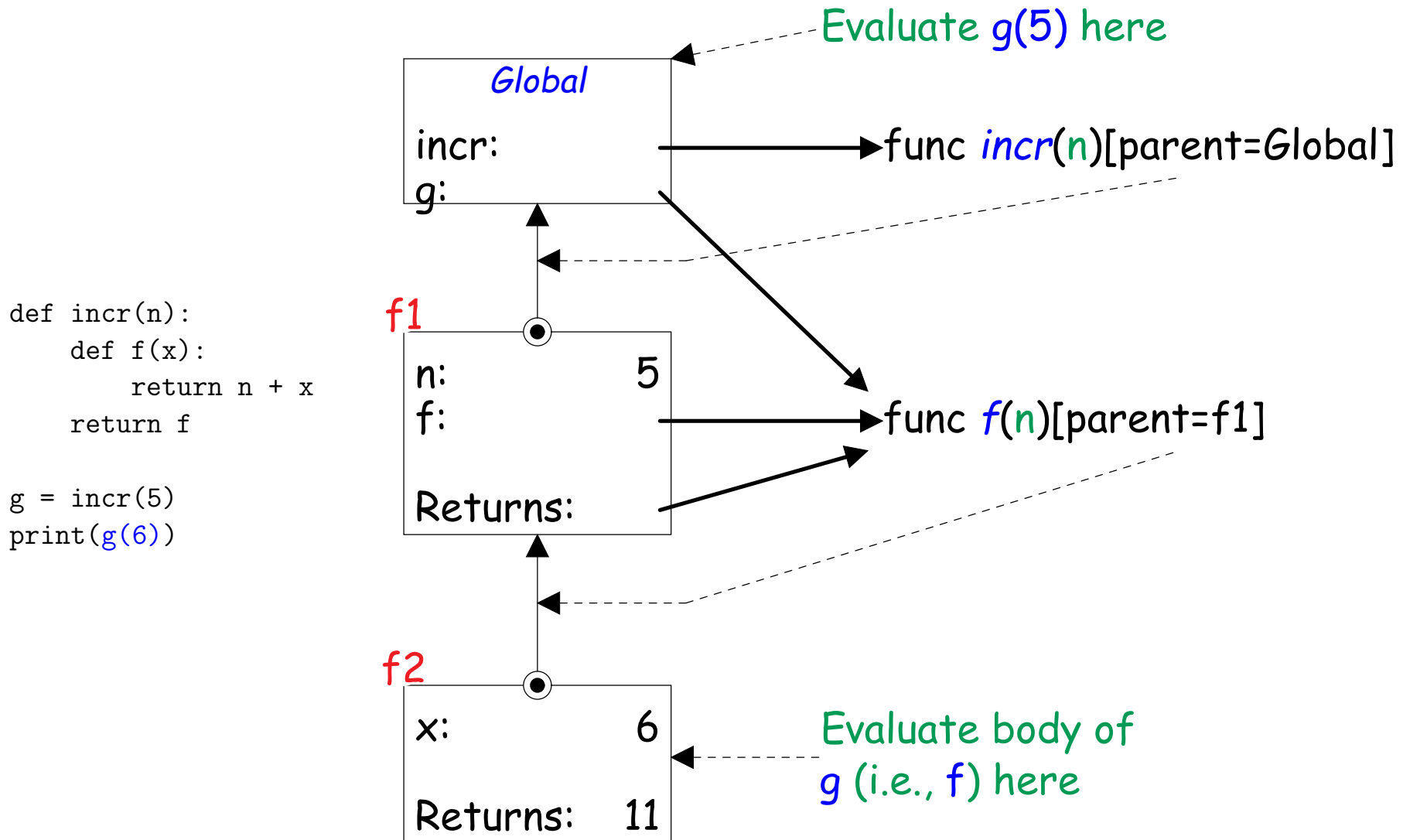
```
def incr(n):  
    def f(x):  
        return n + x  
    return f
```

```
# Break incr(5)(6)  
# into two steps:  
g = incr(5)  
print(g(6))
```



- The parent pointer of `incr` is `Global` because the definition of `incr` was evaluated in the global environment.
- The parent pointer for the value of `g` (returned by `incr(5)`) is `f1`, not `Global`, because the definition of `f` was evaluated in `f1`.

## Environments for incr (II)



- `f2` gets its parent pointer from `g`'s value, since it is the local frame for evaluating a call to `g`. (Same rule for `f1`.)

# Recap

- Every expression or statement is evaluated in an environment—a sequence of frames.
- Every frame (except the global frame) is linked to a parent frame.
- Every function *value* is linked to the environment in which its **def** is evaluated.
- Every function *call* creates a new local frame that is linked to the same frame as the function value being called.
- The total effect is the same as for the substitution model, but we can also handle changes in the values of variables.
- Looking ahead, there are still two constructs—*global* and *nonlocal*—that will require additions.
- But what we have here basically covers how names work in most of Python.

# Control

- The expressions we've seen evaluate all of their operands in the order written.
- While there are very clever ways to do everything with just this [challenge!], it's generally clearer to introduce constructs that *control* the order in which their components execute.
- A *control expression* evaluates some or all of its operands in an order depending on the kind of expression, and typically on the values of those operands.
- A *statement* is a construct that produces no value, but is used solely for its side effects.
- A *control statement* is a statement that, like a control expression, evaluates some or all of its operands, etc.
- We typically speak of statements being *executed* rather than evaluated, but the two concepts are essentially the same, apart from the question of a value.

# Conditional Expressions (I)

- The most common kind of control is *conditional evaluation (execution)*.

- In Python, to evaluate

*TruePart* if *Condition* else *FalsePart*

- First evaluate *Condition*.
- If the result is a "*true value*," evaluate *TruePart*; its value is then the value of the whole expression.
- Otherwise, evaluate *FalsePart*; its value is then the value of the whole expression.

- **Example:**

If x is 2:

---

1 / x if x != 0 else 1  
1 / x if 2 != 0 else 1  
 $\Rightarrow$  1 / x if True else 1  
 $\Rightarrow$  1 / x  
 $\Rightarrow$  1 / 2  
 $\Rightarrow$  0.5

If x is 0:

---

1 / x if x != 0 else 1  
1 / x if 0 != 0 else 1  
 $\Rightarrow$  1 / x if False else 1  
 $\Rightarrow$  1  
 $\Rightarrow$  1

# “True Values”

- Conditions in conditional constructs can have any value, not just True or False.
- For convenience, Python treats a number of values as indicating “false”:
  - False
  - None
  - 0
  - Empty strings, sets, lists, tuples, and dictionaries.
- All else is a “true value” by default.
- For example: `13 if 0 else 5` and `13 if [] else 5` both evaluate to 5.

## Conditional Expressions (II)

- To evaluate

*Left* and *Right*

- Evaluate *Left*.
  - If it is a false value, that becomes the value of the whole expression.
  - Otherwise the value of the expression is that of *Right*.
- This is an example of something called "*short-circuit evaluation*."
  - For example,

5 and "Hello"  $\Rightarrow$  "Hello".

[] and 1 / 0  $\Rightarrow$  []. (1/0 is not evaluated.)

# Conditional Expressions (III)

- To evaluate

*Left* or *Right*

- Evaluate *Left*.
  - If it is a true value, that becomes the value of the whole expression.
  - Otherwise the value of the expression is that of *Right*.
- Another example of "*short-circuit evaluation*."
  - For example,

*5* or *"Hello"*  $\Rightarrow$  5.

*[]* or *"Hello"*  $\Rightarrow$  "Hello".

*[]* or *1 / 0*  $\Rightarrow$  ?.



# Conditional Statement

- Finally, this all comes in statement form:

```
if Condition1:  
    Statements1           # Indented blocks are called suites  
    ...                   # They group statements  
elif Condition2:  
    Statements2  
    ...  
...  
else:  
    Statementsn  
    ...
```

- Execute (only) *Statements1* if *Condition1* evaluates to a true value.
- Otherwise execute *Statements2* if *Condition2* evaluates to a true value (optional part).
- ...
- Otherwise execute *Statementsn* (optional part).

# Example

# Alternative Definition

```
def signum(x):  
    if x > 0:  
        return 1  
    elif x == 0:  
        return 0  
    else:  
        return -1
```

```
def signum(x):  
    return 1 if x > 0 else 0 if x == 0 else -1
```

# Indefinite Repetition

- With conditionals and function calls, we can conduct computations of any length.
- For example, to sum the squares of all numbers from 1 to  $N$  (a parameter):

```
def sum_squares(N):  
    """The sum of K**2 for K from 1 to N (inclusive)."""  
    if N < 1:  
        return 0  
    else:  
        return N**2 + sum_squares(N - 1)
```

- This will repeatedly call `sum_squares` with decreasing values (down to 1), adding in squares: Execute here

```
sum_squares(3) => 3**2 + sum_squares(2)  
               => 3**2 + 2**2 + sum_squares(1)  
               => 3**2 + 2**2 + 1**2 + sum_squares(0)  
               => 3**2 + 2**2 + 1**2 + 0 => 14
```

# Explicit Repetition

- But in the Python, C, Java, and Fortran communities, it is more usual to be explicit about the repetition.

- The simplest form is **while**:

```
while Condition:  
    Statements
```

means "If condition evaluates to a true value, execute statements and repeat the entire process. Otherwise, do nothing."

- The effect is (nearly) identical to

```
def loop():  
    if Condition:  
        Statements  
    loop()
```

```
loop()    # Start things off
```

- ...**except** that (for most Python implementations) the latter eventually runs out of memory; **and** we'll have to do something about assignments to variables (more on that later).

# Sum\_squares Iteratively?

- Our original `sum_squares` was

```
def sum_squares(N):  
    """The sum of K**2 for K from 1 to N (inclusive)."""  
    if N < 1:  
        return 0  
    else:  
        return N**2 + sum_squares(N - 1)
```

- How do we do the same thing with a **while** loop?

```
def sum_squares(N):  
    """The sum of K**2 for K from 1 to N (inclusive)."""
```

## Sum\_squares Iteratively (II)

```
def sum_squares(N):  
    """The sum of K**2 for K from 1 to N (inclusive)."""  
    result = 0  
    k = 1  
    while k <= N:  
        result += k**2  
        k += 1  
    return result
```

Execute this

## Another Way

- Alternatively, I can make this a little shorter by adding the other way:

```
def sum_squares(N):  
    """The sum of K**2 for K from 1 to N (inclusive)."""  
    result = 0  
    while N >= 1:  
        result += N**2    # Or result = result + N**2  
        N -= 1           # Or N = N-1  
    return result
```

Execute here