The cell above loads the visual style of the notebook when run.

```
In [1]: from IPython.core.display import HTML
    css_file = '../styles.css'
    HTML(open(css_file, "r").read())
Out[1]:
```

# **Creating Functions**

## Learning Objectives

- Define a function that takes parameters.
- · Return a value from a function.
- · Set default values for function parameters.
- Explain why we should divide programs into small, single-purpose functions.

At this point, we've written code to draw some interesting features in our star data, loop over all our data files to quickly draw these plots for each of them, and have Python make decisions based on what it sees in our data.

But our code is getting pretty long and complicated; what if we had thousands of datasets, and didn't want to generate a figure for every single one? Commenting out the figure-drawing code is a nuisance.

Also, what if we want to use that code again, on a different dataset or at a different point in our program? Cutting and pasting it is going to make our code get very long and very repetative, very quickly.

We'd like a way to package our code so that it is easier to reuse, and Python provides for this by letting us define things called 'functions' - a shorthand way of re-executing longer pieces of code.

Let's start by defining a function fahr\_to\_kelvin that converts temperatures from Fahrenheit to Kelvin:

```
In [2]: def fahr_to_kelvin(temp):
    return ((temp - 32) * (5/9)) + 273.15
```

The function definition opens with the word <code>def</code> , which is followed by the name of the function and a parenthesized list of parameter names. The <code>body</code> (reference.html#function-body) of the function - the statements that are executed when it runs - is indented below the definition line, typically by four spaces.

When we call the function, the values we pass to it are assigned to those variables so that we can use them inside the function. Inside the function, we use a <u>return statement</u> (<u>reference.html#return-statement</u>) to send a result back to whoever asked for it.

Let's try running our function. Calling our own function is no different from calling any other function:

```
In [3]: print ('freezing point of water:', fahr_to_kelvin(32) )
    print ('boiling point of water:', fahr_to_kelvin(212) )
    freezing point of water: 273.15
    boiling point of water: 373.15
```

### **Composing Functions**

Now that we've seen how to turn Fahrenheit into Kelvin, it's easy to turn Kelvin into Celsius:

```
In [4]: def kelvin_to_celsius(temp):
    return temp - 273.15

print( 'absolute zero in Celsius:', kelvin_to_celsius(0.0) )

absolute zero in Celsius: -273.15
```

What about converting Fahrenheit to Celsius? We could write out the formula, but we don't need to. Instead, we can <a href="mailto:compose">compose (reference.html#function-composition)</a> the two functions we have already created:

```
In [5]: def fahr_to_celsius(temp):
    temp_k = fahr_to_kelvin(temp)
    result = kelvin_to_celsius(temp_k)
    return result
```

```
In [6]: print( 'freezing point of water in Celsius:', fahr_to_celsius(32.0) )
    freezing point of water in Celsius: 0.0
```

This is our first taste of how larger programs are built: we define basic operations, then combine them in ever-large chunks to get the effect we want. Real-life functions will usually be larger than the ones shown here - typically half a dozen to a few dozen lines - but they shouldn't ever be much

longer than that, or the next person who reads it won't be able to understand what's going on.

### Tidying up

Now that we know how to wrap bits of code up in functions, we can make our star brightness

```
In [7]: def process(filename):
    data = numpy.loadtxt(fname=filename, delimiter=',')
    ave_brightness = data.mean(axis=0)
    processed_data = data / ave_brightness
    return processed_data
```

and another function that produces a plot of the processed data

```
In [8]: def plot(processed_data):
    image = matplotlib.pyplot.imshow(processed_data)
    matplotlib.pyplot.show(image)
```

and one more that checks for variable stars.

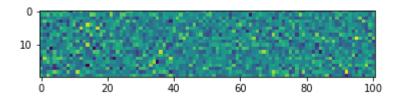
```
In [9]: def detect_variables(processed_data):
    # variation of each star
    deviations = processed_data.std(axis=1)
    # calculate the 'mean' of the variations
    mean_deviation = deviations.mean()
    std_deviations = deviations.std()
    for star_deviation in deviations:
        if (star_deviation - mean_deviation > 3.0*std_deviations):
            print('variable star in this data')
```

Notice that rather than jumbling this code together in one giant for loop, we can now read and reuse both ideas separately. We can reproduce the previous analysis with a much simpler for loop:

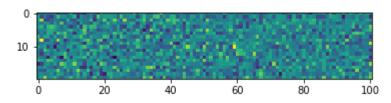
```
In [10]: import numpy
    import matplotlib.pyplot
    import glob
    %matplotlib inline

filenames = glob.glob('data/*.csv')
    for f in filenames:
        print(f)
        processed_data = process(f)
        plot(processed_data)
        detect_variables(processed_data)
```

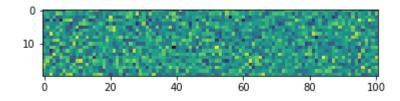
data\star\_data\_01.csv



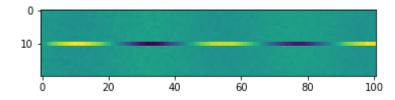
data\star\_data\_02.csv



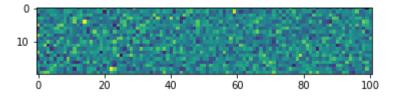
data\star\_data\_03.csv



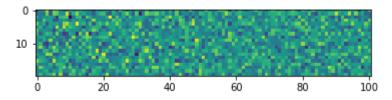
data\star\_data\_04.csv



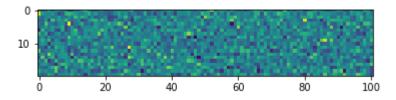
variable star in this data
data\star\_data\_05.csv



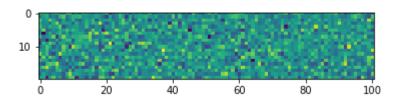
data\star\_data\_06.csv



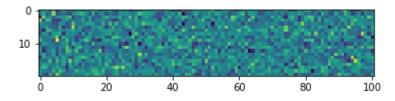
data\star\_data\_07.csv



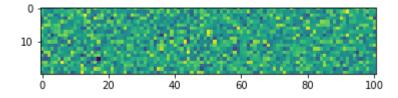
data\star\_data\_08.csv



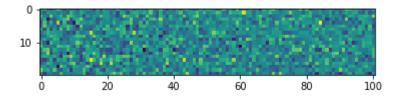
data\star\_data\_09.csv



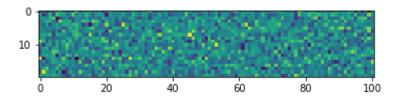
data\star\_data\_10.csv



data\star\_data\_11.csv



data\star\_data\_12.csv



By giving our functions human-readable names, we can more easily read and understand what is happening in the for loop. Even better, if at some later date we want to use either of those pieces of code again, we can do so in a single line.

### **Testing and Documenting**

Once we start putting things in functions so that we can re-use them, we need to start testing that those functions are working correctly. To see how to do this, let's write a function to center a dataset around a particular value:

```
In [11]: def center(data, desired):
    return (data - data.mean()) + desired
```

We could test this on our actual data, but since we don't know what the values ought to be, it will be hard to tell if the result was correct. Instead, let's use NumPy to create a matrix of 0's and then center that around 3:

That looks right, so let's try center on our real data:

It's hard to tell from the default output whether the result is correct, but there are a few simple tests that will reassure us:

```
In [14]: print ('original min, mean, and max are:', data.min(), data.mean(), data.max())
    centered = center(data, 0)
    print ('min, mean, and and max of centered data are:', centered.min(), centered
```

original min, mean, and max are: 16.44777007222038 22.500200371916634 26.974721 031238875 min, mean, and max of centered data are: -6.052430299696255 -1.072849180231

min, mean, and and max of centered data are: -6.052430299696255 -1.072849180231 8344e-15 4.474520659322241

That seems right. The mean of the centered data isn't quite zero - we'll explore why not in the challenges - but it's pretty close.

We can even go further and check that the standard deviation hasn't changed:

It looks like our function works. It's still possible that our function is wrong, but it seems unlikely enough that we should probably get back to doing our analysis. We have one more task first, though: we should write some <u>documentation</u> (<u>reference.html#documentation</u>) for our function to remind ourselves later what it's for and how to use it.

The usual way to put documentation in software is to add <u>comments (reference.html#comment)</u> like this:

```
In [16]: # return a new array containing the original data centered around the desired voldef center(data, desired):
    return (data - data.mean()) + desired
```

There's a better way, though. If the first thing in a function is a string that isn't assigned to a variable, that string is attached to the function as its documentation:

```
In [17]: def center(data, desired):
    '''Return a new array containing the original data centered around the desir
    return (data - data.mean()) + desired
```

This is better because we can now ask Python's built-in help system to show us the documentation for the function:

A string like this is called a <u>docstring (reference.html#docstring)</u>. We don't need to use triple quotes when we write one, but if we do, we can break the string across multiple lines:

```
In [19]: def center(data, desired):
    '''Return a new array containing the original data centered around the desir
    Example: center([1, 2, 3], 0) => [-1, 0, 1]'''
    return (data - data.mean()) + desired

help(center)

Help on function center in module __main__:
    center(data, desired)
        Return a new array containing the original data centered around the desired value.
        Example: center([1, 2, 3], 0) => [-1, 0, 1]
```

### **Defining Defaults**

We have passed parameters to functions in two ways: directly, as in center(data), and by name, as in numpy.loadtxt(fname='something.csv', delimiter=',').

In fact, we can pass the filename to loadtxt without the fname=:

```
numpy.loadtxt('inflammation-01.csv', delimiter=',')
```

but we still need to say delimiter=:

```
In [20]: numpy.loadtxt('data/star data 01.csv', ',')
         Traceback (most recent call last):
           File "C:\ProgramData\Anaconda3\lib\site-packages\IPython\core\interactiveshel
         1.py", line 3418, in run_code
             exec(code obj, self.user global ns, self.user ns)
           File "<ipython-input-20-e0fa9f3411a1>", line 1, in <module>
             numpy.loadtxt('data/star_data_01.csv', ',')
           File "C:\ProgramData\Anaconda3\lib\site-packages\numpy\lib\npyio.py", line 10
         80, in loadtxt
             dtype = np.dtype(dtype)
           File "C:\ProgramData\Anaconda3\lib\site-packages\numpy\core\_internal.py", li
         ne 199, in commastring
             newitem = (dtype, ast.literal_eval(repeats))
           File "C:\ProgramData\Anaconda3\lib\ast.py", line 59, in literal eval
             node or string = parse(node or string, mode='eval')
           File "C:\ProgramData\Anaconda3\lib\ast.py", line 47, in parse
             return compile(source, filename, mode, flags,
           File "<unknown>", line 1
         SyntaxError: unexpected EOF while parsing
```

To understand what's going on, and make our own functions easier to use, let's re-define our center function like this:

```
In [ ]: def center(data, desired=0.0):
    '''Return a new array containing the original data centered around the desir
    Example: center([1, 2, 3], 0) => [-1, 0, 1]'''
    return (data - data.mean()) + desired
```

The key change is that the second parameter is now written <code>desired=0.0</code> instead of just <code>desired</code>. If we call the function with two arguments, it works as it did before:

```
In [ ]: test_data = numpy.zeros((2, 2))
print (center(test_data, 3))
```

But we can also now call it with just one parameter, in which case desired is automatically assigned the <u>default value</u> (reference.html#default-value) of 0.0:

```
In [ ]: more_data = 5 + numpy.zeros((2, 2))
    print ('data before centering:')
    print (more_data)
    print ('centered data:')
    print (center(more_data))
```

This is handy: if we usually want a function to work one way, but occasionally need it to do something else, we can allow people to pass a parameter when they need to but provide a default to make the normal case easier.

The example below shows how Python matches values to parameters:

```
In [ ]: def display(a=1, b=2, c=3):
    print ('a:', a, 'b:', b, 'c:', c)

print ('no parameters:')
    display()
    print ('one parameter:')
    display(55)
    print ('two parameters:')
    display(55, 66)
```

As this example shows, parameters are matched up from left to right, and any that haven't been given a value explicitly get their default value. We can override this behavior by naming the value as we pass it in:

```
In [ ]: print ('only setting the value of c')
display(c=77)
```

With that in hand, let's look at the help for numpy.loadtxt:

```
In [ ]: help(numpy.loadtxt)
```

There's a lot of information here, but the most important part is the first couple of lines:

This tells us that loadtxt has one parameter called fname that doesn't have a default value, and eight others that do. If we call the function like this:

```
numpy.loadtxt('data/star_data_01.csv', ',')
```

then the filename is assigned to fname (which is what we want), but the delimiter string ',' is assigned to dtype rather than delimiter, because dtype is the second parameter in the list. However', isn't a known dtype so our code produced an error message when we tried to run it. When we call loadtxt we don't have to provide fname= for the filename because it's the first item in the list, but if we want the ',' to be assigned to the variable delimiter, we do have to provide delimiter= for the second parameter since delimiter is not the second parameter in the list.



### Combining Strings

"Adding" two strings produces their concatenation: 'a' + 'b' is 'ab'. Write a function called fence that takes two parameters called original and wrapper and returns a new string that has the wrapper character at the beginning and end of the original. A call to your function should look like this:

```
print (fence('name', '*'))
*name*
```

```
In [ ]: # Write your own code here
        def fence(original, wrapper):
            new = wrapper + original + wrapper
            return new
        print (fence('name', '*'))
```



### Selecting characters from strings

If the variable s refers to a string, then s[0] is the string's first character and s[-1] is its last. Write a function called outer that returns a string made up of just the first and last characters of its input. A call to your function should look like this:

```
print ( outer('helium') )
hm
```

```
In [ ]: # Write your own code here
        def outer(word):
            first = word[0]
            last = word[-1]
            new = first + last
            return new
        print(outer('helium'))
```

### Rescaling an array

Write a function rescale that takes an array as input and returns a corresponding array of values scaled to lie in the range 0.0 to 1.0. (Hint: If L and H are the lowest and highest values in the original array, then the replacement for a value vshould be (v-L)/(H-L).)

```
In [ ]: # Write your own code here
        # chosen array
        array = [1,2,3,4]
        def rescale(array):
            low = array [0] # assuming array is ordered low to high
            high = array [-1]
            # new array to store rescaled values
            rescale = []
            # looping through array to rescale each element
            for i in array:
                a = (i-low) / (high - low)
                rescale.append(a)
            return(rescale)
        print(rescale(array))
```

### Testing and documenting

Run the commands <code>help(numpy.arange)</code> and <code>help(numpy.linspace)</code> to see how to use these functions to generate regularly-spaced values, then use those values to test your <code>rescale</code> function. Once you've successfully tested your function, add a docstring that explains what it does.

```
In [ ]: help(numpy.arange)
In [ ]: help(numpy.linspace)
In [ ]: # Write your own code here
        import numpy as np
        # chosen array
        array = [1,2,3,4]
        def rescale(array):
            low = array [0] # assuming array is ordered low to high
            high = array [-1]
            # new array to store rescaled values
            rescale = []
            # looping through array to rescale each element
            for i in array:
                a = (i-low) / (high - low)
                rescale.append(a)
            return(rescale)
        print(rescale(array))
        print(np.arange(0,1,.333333))
        print(np.linspace(0.0,1.0,num=4))
```

## Defining defaults

Rewrite the rescale function so that it scales data to lie between 0.0 and 1.0 by default, but will allow the caller to specify lower and upper bounds if they want. Compare your implementation to your neighbour's: do the two functions always behave the same way?

```
In [29]: # Write your own code here
         # chosen array
         array = [1,2,3,4]
         def rescale(array,scale1,scale2):
             low = array [0] # assuming array is ordered low to high
             high = array [-1]
             # new array to store rescaled values
             rescale = []
             final = []
             # looping through array to rescale each element
             for i in array:
                 a = (i-low) / (high - low) # normalize from 0.0 to 1.0
                 rescale.append(a)
             for j in rescale:
                 b = j*(scale2 - scale1) + scale1 #scales up
                 final.append(b)
             return(final)
         print(rescale(array, 1.0, 6.0))
```

[1.0, 2.666666666666665, 4.33333333333333, 6.0]

### Variables inside and outside functions

What does the following piece of code display when run - and why?

For discussion and understanding, the following two examples at http://pythontutor.com (http://pythontutor.com) may be illuminating

### example1

(http://www.pythontutor.com/visualize.html#code=f+%3D+0%0Ak+%3D+0%0A%0Adef+f2k(1 ((f-32%29\*

(5.0/9.0%29%29+%2B+273.15%0A++++return+k%0A%0Af2k(8%29%0Af2k(41%29%0Af2k (k%29&mode=display&origin=opt-

frontend.js&cumulative=false&heapPrimitives=false&textReferences=false&py=3&raw|nputL

If you find this example confusing - try reading the following chapter of [How to Think Like a Computer Scientist](

**→** 

The following code will display 0 because k was defined outside the function as 0 and the function was never called upon to run so k still remains as 0

```
In []: f = 0
k = 0

def f2k(f):
    k = ((f-32)*(5.0/9.0)) + 273.15
    return k

f2k(8)
    f2k(41)
    f2k(32)
    print (k)
```

```
In [ ]:
```