

STAT679

Computing for Data Science and Statistics

Lecture 1: Introduction to Python



Python: Overview

Python is a **dynamically typed, interpreted** programming language

Created by Guido van Rossum in 1991

Maintained by the Python Software Foundation

Design philosophy: simple, readable code

Python syntax differs from R, Java, C/C++, MATLAB

whitespace delimited

limited use of brackets, semicolons, etc



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In many languages, when you declare a variable, you must specify the variable's **type** (e.g., int, double, Boolean, string). Python does not require this.



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Some languages (e.g., C/C++ and Java) are **compiled**: we write code, from which we get a runnable program via **compilation**. In contrast, Python is **interpreted**: A program, called the **interpreter**, runs our code directly, line by line.

Compiled vs interpreted languages: compiled languages are (generally) faster than interpreted languages, typically at the cost of being more complicated.



Running Python

Several options for running Python on your computer

Python interpreter

Jupyter: <https://jupyter.org/>

PythonAnywhere: <https://www.pythonanywhere.com/>

Suggestions from Allen Downey:

<http://www.allendowney.com/wp/books/think-python-2e/>

Your homeworks must be handed in as Jupyter notebooks

But you should also be comfortable with the interpreter and running Python on the command line

Installing Jupyter: <https://jupyter.readthedocs.io/en/latest/install.html>

Note: Jupyter recommends Anaconda: <https://www.anaconda.com/>

I mildly recommend against Anaconda, but it's your choice

Python Interpreter on the Command Line

```
keith@Steinhaus:~/demo$ python3
Python 3.6.3 (default, Oct  4 2017, 06:09:05)
[GCC 4.2.1 Compatible Apple LLVM 8.0.0 (clang-800.0.42.1)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>>
keith@Steinhaus:~/demo$ python
Python 2.7.13 |Anaconda 4.4.0 (x86_64)| (default, Dec 20 2016, 23:05:08)
[GCC 4.2.1 Compatible Apple LLVM 6.0 (clang-600.0.57)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
Anaconda is brought to you by Continuum Analytics.
Please check out: http://continuum.io/thanks and https://anaconda.org
>>>
```

Python Interpreter on the Command Line

Python 3 vs Python 2

```
keith@Steinhaus:~/demo$ python3
Python 3.6.3 (default, Oct  4 2017, 06:09:05)
[GCC 4.2.1 Compatible Apple LLVM 8.0.0 (clang-800.0.42.1)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>>
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[GCC 4.2.1 Compatible Apple LLVM 6.0 (clang-600.0.57)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
Anaconda is brought to you by Continuum Analytics.
Please check out: http://continuum.io/thanks and https://anaconda.org
>>>
```

The **prompt** indicates that the system is waiting for your input.

I have Python 2 running inside Anaconda, by default.

Python Interpreter on the Command Line

```
keith@Steinhaus:~/demo$ python3
Python 3.6.3 (default, Oct  4 2017, 06:09:05)
[GCC 4.2.1 Compatible Apple LLVM 8.0.0 (clang-800.0.42.1)] on darwin
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[GCC 4.2.1 Compatible Apple LLVM 6.0 (clang-600.0.57)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
Anaconda is brought to you by Continuum Analytics.
Please check out: http://continuum.io/thanks and https://anaconda.org
>>>
```



Write Python commands (code) at the prompt



Python in Jupyter

Creates “notebook files” for running **Julia**, **Python** and **R**

Example notebook:

<https://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/jrjohansson/scientific-python-lectures/blob/master/Lecture-4-Matplotlib.ipynb>

Clean, well-organized presentation of code, text and images, in one document

Installation: <https://jupyter.readthedocs.io/en/latest/install.html>

Documentation on running: <https://jupyter.readthedocs.io/en/latest/running.html>

Good tutorials:

<https://www.datacamp.com/community/tutorials/tutorial-jupyter-notebook>

<https://jupyter-notebook-beginner-guide.readthedocs.io/en/latest/execute.html>

Running Jupyter

```
keith@Steinhaus:~/demo$ jupyter notebook
[I 17:11:41.129 NotebookApp] Serving notebooks from local directory:
/Users/keith/Dropbox/Academe/Teaching/STATS507/Lecs/L1_AdminIntro
[I 17:11:41.129 NotebookApp] 0 active kernels
[I 17:11:41.129 NotebookApp] The Jupyter Notebook is running at:
http://localhost:8888/?token=452d6d4b227f306f5bb57e72f5d4722fcbadf47d1d794441
[I 17:11:41.129 NotebookApp] Use Control-C to stop this server and shut down all
kernels (twice to skip confirmation).
[C 17:11:41.132 NotebookApp]

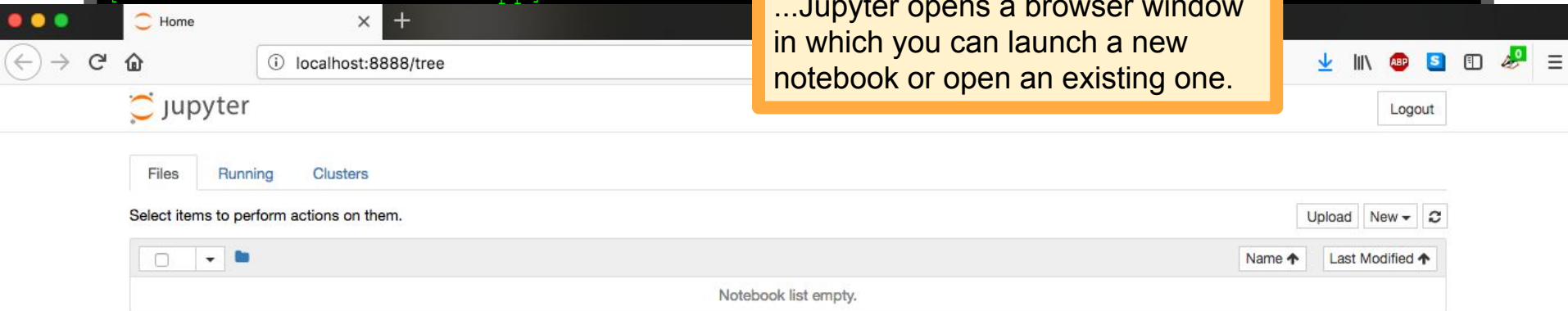
Copy/paste this URL into your browser when you connect for the first time,
to login with a token:
http://localhost:8888/?token=452d6d4b227f306f5bb57e72f5d4722fcbadf47d1d794441
[I 17:11:41.635 NotebookApp] Accepting one-time-token-authenticated connection from
::1
```

Jupyter provides some information about its startup process, and then...

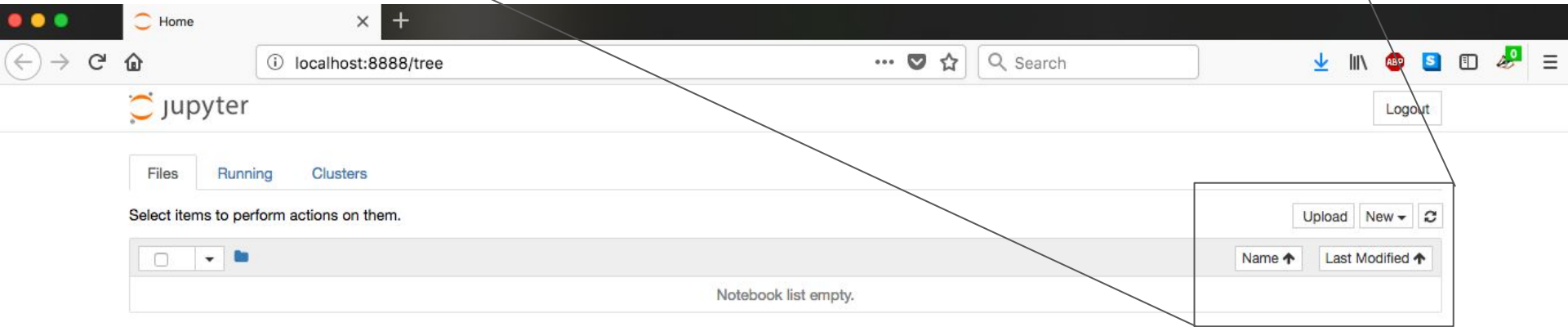
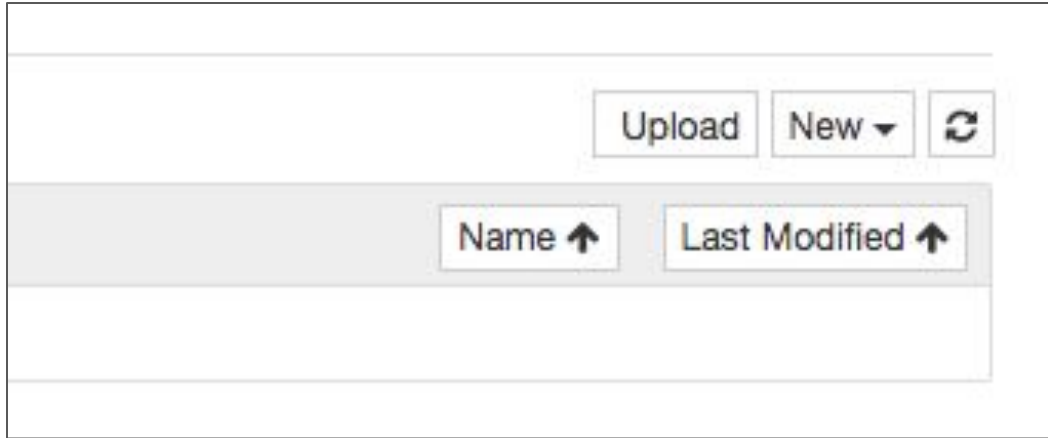
Running Jupyter

```
keith@Steinhaus:~/demo$ jupyter notebook
[I 17:11:41.129 NotebookApp] Serving notebooks from local directory:
/Users/keith/Dropbox/Academe/Teaching/STATS507/Lecs/L1_AdminIntro
[I 17:11:41.129 NotebookApp] 0 active kernels
[I 17:11:41.129 NotebookApp] The Jupyter Notebook is running at:
http://localhost:8888/?token=452d6d4b227f306f5bb57e72f5d4722fcbadf47d1d794441
[I 17:11:41.129 NotebookApp] Use Control-C to stop this server and shut down all
kernels (twice to skip confirmation).
[C 17:11:41.132 NotebookApp]
```

...Jupyter opens a browser window in which you can launch a new notebook or open an existing one.



The screenshot shows a web browser window with the address bar at `localhost:8888/tree`. The Jupyter logo is visible in the top left, and a "Logout" button is in the top right. Below the navigation tabs (Files, Running, Clusters), there is a message: "Select items to perform actions on them." To the right of this message are buttons for "Upload", "New", and a refresh icon. Below this is a file manager interface with a search box, a folder icon, and sorting options for "Name" and "Last Modified". At the bottom, a message states "Notebook list empty."

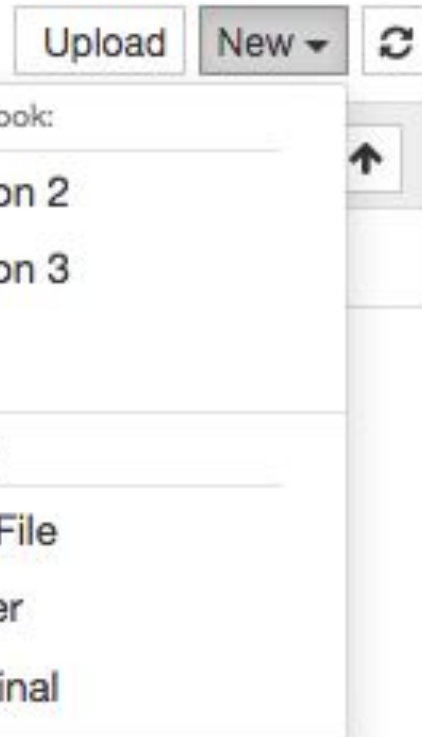


Creates a new notebook file running Python 2.

Creates a new notebook file running Python 3.

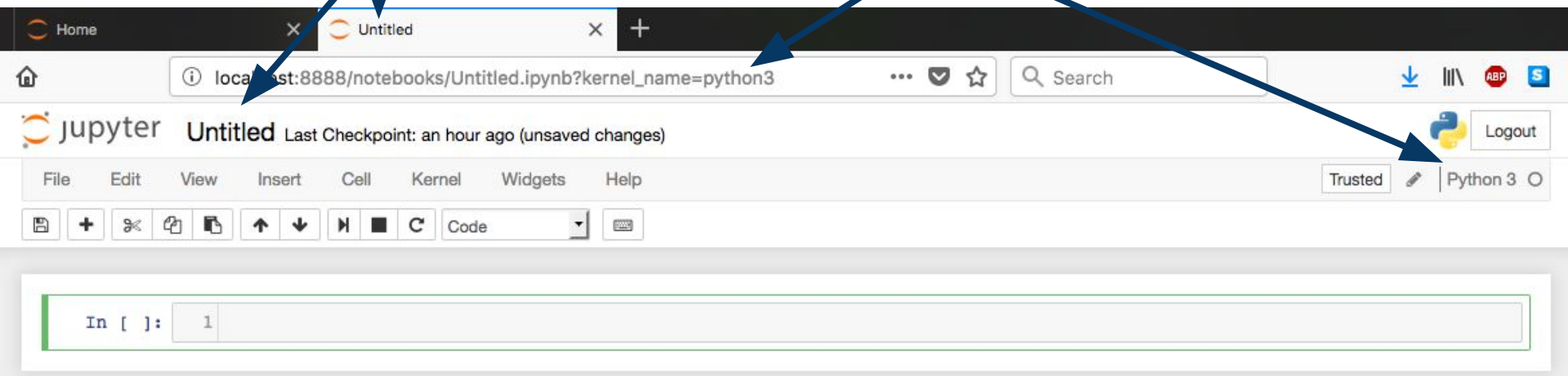
Creates a new notebook file running R.

Note: Jupyter can also run other programming languages, such as Julia, if they are installed.



Notebook doesn't have a title, yet.

Running Python 3

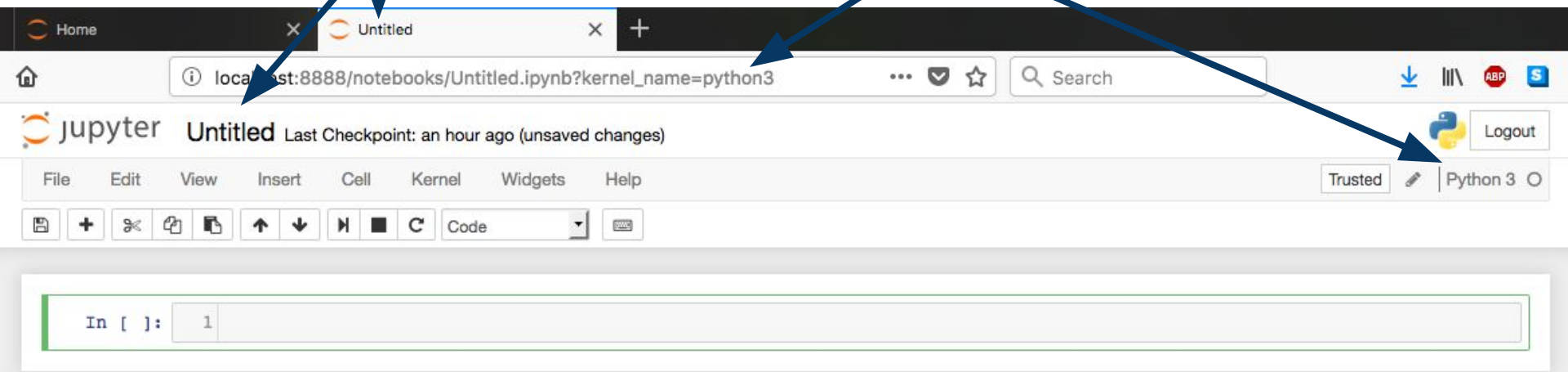


The screenshot shows a web browser window with a Jupyter Notebook interface. The browser's address bar displays the URL `localhost:8888/notebooks/Untitled.ipynb?kernel_name=python3`. The notebook's title bar shows "Untitled" and a status message "Last Checkpoint: an hour ago (unsaved changes)". The top navigation bar includes "File", "Edit", "View", "Insert", "Cell", "Kernel", "Widgets", and "Help". On the right side of the navigation bar, there is a "Trusted" indicator, a pencil icon, and the text "Python 3". A "Logout" button is also visible. The main content area contains a code cell with the prompt `In []:` followed by the number `1`. Two blue callout boxes are overlaid on the image: one pointing to the "Untitled" title and another pointing to the "Python 3" kernel name.

```
In [ ]: 1
```

Notebook doesn't have a title, yet.

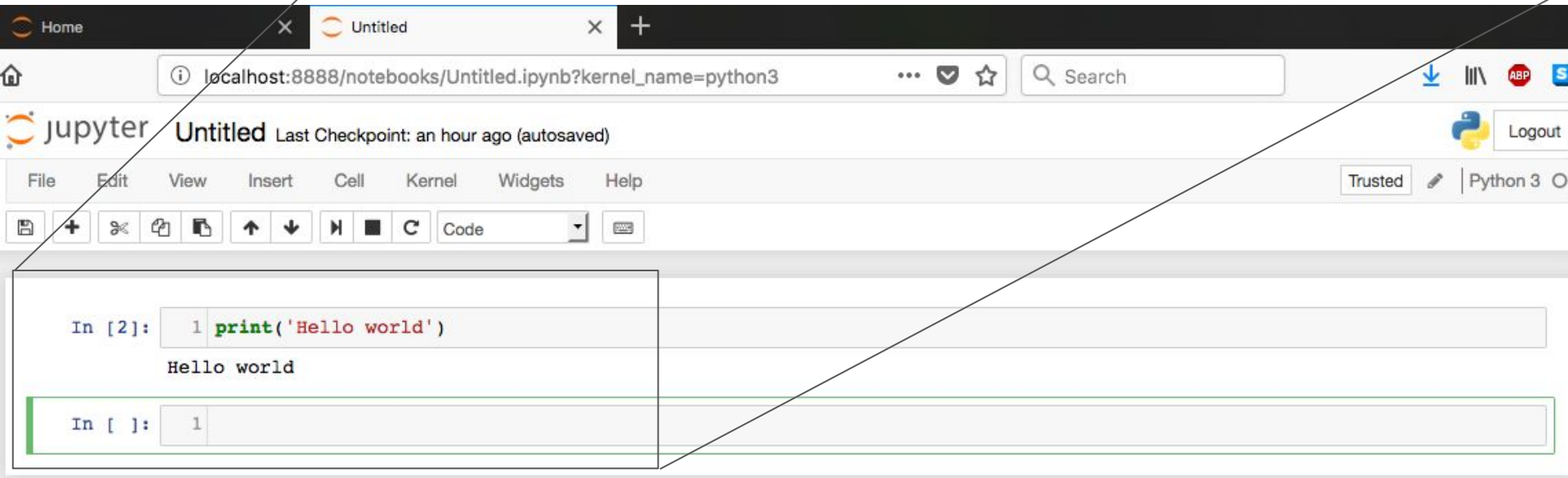
Running Python 3



I'll leave it to you to learn about the other features by reading the documentation. For now, the green-highlighted box is most important. That's where we write Python code.

Write code in the highlighted box, then press shift+enter to run the code in that box...

```
In [2]: 1 print('Hello world')  
Hello world  
  
In [ ]: 1
```



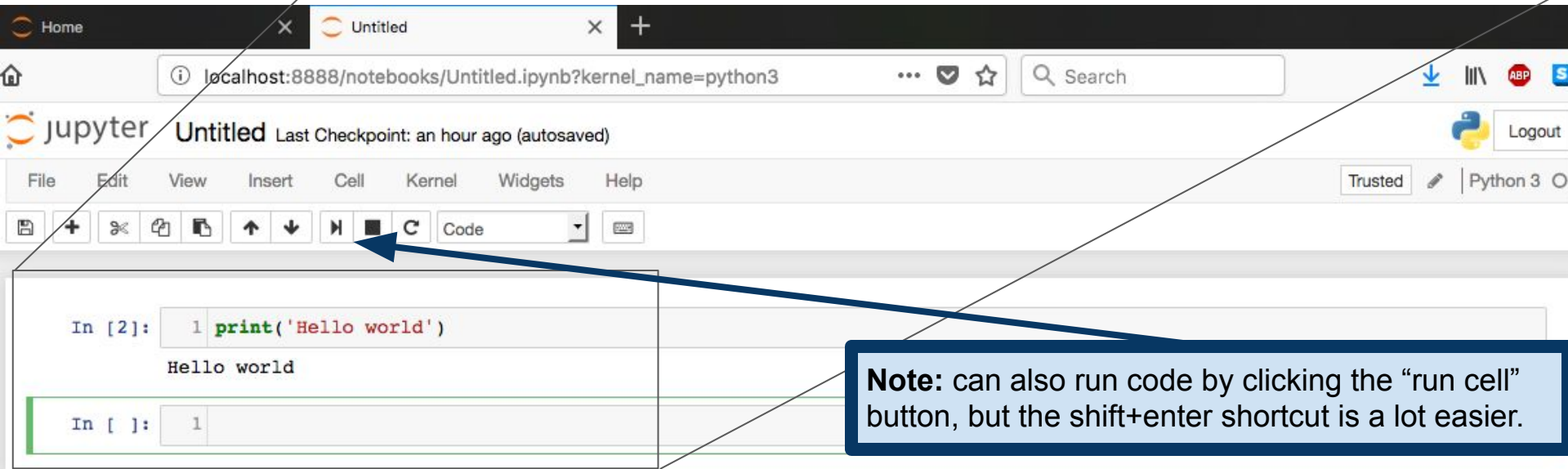
The screenshot shows the Jupyter Notebook interface. At the top, there are browser tabs for 'Home' and 'Untitled'. The address bar shows 'localhost:8888/notebooks/Untitled.ipynb?kernel_name=python3'. The Jupyter logo and 'Untitled' are visible, along with 'Last Checkpoint: an hour ago (autosaved)'. A menu bar includes 'File', 'Edit', 'View', 'Insert', 'Cell', 'Kernel', 'Widgets', and 'Help'. On the right, there are 'Trusted' and 'Python 3' indicators. The main area contains two code cells. The first cell, labeled 'In [2]:', contains the code '1 print('Hello world')' and has executed, showing 'Hello world' as output. The second cell, labeled 'In []:', contains the code '1' and is currently selected with a green border, indicating it is ready for input.

```
In [2]: 1 print('Hello world')  
Hello world  
  
In [ ]: 1
```


Write code in the highlighted box, then press shift+enter to run the code in that box...

```
In [2]: 1 print('Hello world')
Hello world

In [ ]: 1
```



The screenshot shows the Jupyter Notebook interface. At the top, there are browser tabs for 'Home' and 'Untitled'. The address bar shows 'localhost:8888/notebooks/Untitled.ipynb?kernel_name=python3'. The Jupyter logo and 'Untitled' are visible, along with a 'Last Checkpoint: an hour ago (autosaved)' message and a 'Logout' button. A menu bar includes 'File', 'Edit', 'View', 'Insert', 'Cell', 'Kernel', 'Widgets', and 'Help'. On the right, it says 'Trusted' and 'Python 3'. The toolbar contains icons for file operations, navigation, and execution. A blue arrow points to the 'run cell' button (a square with a play symbol). Below the toolbar, two code cells are shown. The first cell contains the code `print('Hello world')` and has already executed, showing the output 'Hello world'. The second cell is empty and highlighted with a green border. A blue callout box points to the 'run cell' button with the text: 'Note: can also run code by clicking the "run cell" button, but the shift+enter shortcut is a lot easier.'

Note: can also run code by clicking the "run cell" button, but the shift+enter shortcut is a lot easier.

Our first function: `print`

```
In [2]: 1 print('Hello world')  
Hello world
```

```
In [ ]: 1
```

Print displays whatever is inside the quotation marks.

If you haven't already guessed, `print` takes a Python **string** and prints it. Of course, “`print`” here means to display a string, not literally print it on a printer!

Note: if you know Python 2, you'll notice that `print` is a bit different in Python 3. That is because in Python 2, `print` was a **statement**, whereas in Python 3, `print` is a **function**.

Can also use double quotes

```
1 print('Hello world')  
Hello world
```

```
1 print("Hello world!")  
Hello world!
```

Arithmetic in Python

```
1 1+2
```

← Use + to add numbers.

3

```
1 2*3
```

← Use * to multiply.

6

```
1 2*3 - 1
```

← Order of operations is just like you learned in elementary school.

5

```
1 2**7
```

← Python is weird in that it uses ** for exponentiation instead of the more common ^.

128

/ for division.

```
1 6/3
```

2.0

```
1 8/3
```

2.6666666666666665

// performs division but rounds down.

```
1 8//3
```

2

% is modulo. x%y is remainder when x is divided by y.

```
1 8%3
```

2

Data Types

Programs work with **values**, which come with different **types**

Examples:

The value 42 is an **integer**

The value 2.71828 is a **floating point number** (i.e., decimal number)

The value "bird" is a **string** (i.e., a *string of characters*)

Variable's type determines what operations we can and can't perform

e.g., $2 * 3$ makes sense, but what is `'cat' * 'dog'`?

(We'll come back to this in more detail in a later lecture)

Variables in Python

Variable is a name that refers to a value

Assign a value to a variable via **variable assignment**

```
1 mystring = 'Die Welt ist alles was der Fall ist.'  
2 approx_pi = 3.141592  
3 number_of_planets = 9
```

Assign values to three variables

```
1 mystring
```

```
'Die Welt ist alles was der Fall ist.'
```

```
1 number_of_planets
```

```
9
```

```
1 number_of_planets = 8  
2 number_of_planets
```

Change the value of
number_of_planets via
another assignment statement.

```
8
```

Variables in Python

Variable is a name that refers to a value

Note: unlike some languages (e.g., C/C++ and Java), you don't need to tell Python the type of a variable when you declare it. Instead, Python figures out the type of a variable automatically. This has the amusing name **duck typing**, which we will return to in a few lectures.

Assign a value to a variable via **variable assignment**

```
1 mystring = 'Die Welt ist alles was der Fall ist.'  
2 approx_pi = 3.141592  
3 number_of_planets = 9
```

Assign values to three variables

```
1 mystring
```

```
'Die Welt ist alles was der Fall ist.'
```

Running a Jupyter cell with a variable on its last line will display that variable's value.

```
1 number_of_planets
```

```
9
```

Change the value of `number_of_planets` via another assignment statement.

```
1 number_of_planets = 8  
2 number_of_planets
```

```
8
```

Variables in Python

Variable is a name that refers to a value

Note: unlike some languages (e.g., C/C++ and Java), you don't need to tell Python the type of a variable when you declare it. Instead, Python figures out the type of a variable automatically. Python uses what is called **duck typing**, which we will return to in a few lectures.

Assign a value to a variable via **variable assignment**

```
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2 approx_pi = 3.141592  
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```

```
1 mystring
```

```
'Die Welt ist alles was der Fall ist.'
```

```
1 number_of_planets
```

```
9
```

```
1 number_of_planets = 8  
2 number_of_planets
```

```
8
```

Python variable names can be arbitrarily long, and may contain any letters, numbers and underscore (`_`), but may not start with a number. Variables can have any name, except for the Python 3 reserved keywords: `None` `continue` `for` `lambda` `try` `True` `def` `from` `nonlocal` `while` `and` `del` `global` `not` `with` `as` `elif` `if` `or` `yield` `assert` `else` `import` `pass` `break` `except` `in` `raise`

Variables in Python

Sometimes we do need to know the type of a variable

Python `type()` function does this for us

```
1 mystring = 'Die Welt ist alles was der Fall ist.'  
2 approx_pi = 3.141592  
3 number_of_planets = 9  
4 type(mystring)
```

str

```
1 type(approx_pi)
```

float

```
1 type(number_of_planets)
```

int

Recall that `type` is one of the Python reserved words. Syntax highlighting shows it as green, indicating that it is a special word in Python.

Variables in Python

Note: changing a variable to a different type is often called **casting** a variable to that type.

We can (sometimes) change the type of a Python variable

Convert a float to an int:

```
1 approx_pi = 3.141592
2 type(approx_pi)
```

float

```
1 pi_int = int(approx_pi)
2 type(pi_int)
```

int

```
1 pi_int
```

3

Convert a string to an int:

```
1 int_from_str = int('8675309')
2 type(int_from_str)
```

int

```
1 int_from_str
```

8675309

Variables in Python

Note: changing a variable to a different type is often called **casting** a variable to that type.

We can (sometimes) change the type of a Python variable

Convert a float to an int:

```
1 approx_pi = 3.141592
2 type(approx_pi)
```

float

```
1 pi_int = int(approx_pi)
2 type(pi_int)
```

int

```
1 pi_int
```

3

Test your understanding:
what should be the value of
float_from_int?

Convert a string to an int:

```
1 int_from_str = int('8675309')
2 type(int_from_str)
```

int

```
1 int_from_str
```

8675309

```
1 float_from_int = float(42)
2 type(float_from_int)
```

Variables in Python

Note: changing a variable to a different type is often called **casting** a variable to that type.

We can (sometimes) change the type of a Python variable

Convert a float to an int:

```
1 approx_pi = 3.141592
2 type(approx_pi)
```

float

```
1 pi_int = int(approx_pi)
2 type(pi_int)
```

int

```
1 pi_int
```

3

Test your understanding:
what should be the value of
float_from_int?

Convert a string to an int:

```
1 int_from_str = int('8675309')
2 type(int_from_str)
```

int

```
1 int_from_str
```

8675309

```
1 float_from_int = float(42)
2 type(float_from_int)
```

float

Variables in Python

We can (sometimes) change the type of a Python variable

But if we try to cast to a type that doesn't make sense...

```
1 goat_int = int('goat')
```

```
-----  
ValueError                                Traceback (most recent call last)  
<ipython-input-72-6ee721a55259> in <module>()  
----> 1 goat_int = int('goat')
```

```
ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10: 'goat'
```

`ValueError` signifies that the type of a variable is okay, but its value doesn't make sense for the operation that we are asking for.
<https://docs.python.org/3/library/exceptions.html#ValueError>

Variables in Python

Variables must be declared (i.e., must have a value) before we evaluate them

```
1 answer = 2*does_not_exist
```

```
-----  
NameError                                Traceback (most recent call last)  
<ipython-input-78-7576fff000ce0> in <module>()  
----> 1 answer = 2*does_not_exist  
  
NameError: name 'does_not_exist' is not defined
```

`NameError` signifies that Python can't find anything (variable, function, etc) matching a given name. <https://docs.python.org/3/library/exceptions.html#NameError>

Comments in Python

Comments provide a way to document your code

Good for when other people have to read your code

But *also* good for you!

Comments explain to a reader (whether you or someone else) what your code is *meant* to do, which is not always obvious from reading the code itself!

```
1 # This is a comment.
2 # Python doesn't try to run code that is
3 # "commented out".
4 euler = 2.71828 # Euler's number
5 '''Triple quotes let you write a multi-line comment
6    like this one. Everything between the first
7    triple-quote and the second one will be ignored
8    by Python when you run your program'''
9 print(euler)
```

2.71828

Functions in Python

We've already seen examples of functions: e.g., `type()` and `print()`

Function calls take the form `function_name(function arguments)`

A function takes zero or more **arguments** and **returns** a value

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We've already seen examples of functions: e.g., `type()` and `print()`

Function calls take the form `function_name(function arguments)`

A function takes zero or more **arguments** and **returns** a value

```
1 import math
2 rt2 = math.sqrt(2)
3 print(rt2)
```

1.41421356237

```
1 a=2
2 b=3
3 math.pow(a,b)
```

8.0

Python **math module** provides a number of math functions. We have to **import** (i.e., load) the module before we can use it.

`math.sqrt()` takes one argument, returns its square root.

`math.pow()` takes two arguments. Returns the value obtained by raising the first to the power of the second.

Functions in Python

Note: in the examples below, we write `math.sqrt()` to call the `sqrt()` function from the `math` module. This “dot” notation will show up a lot this semester, so get used to it!

We’ve already seen examples of functions: e.g., `type()` and `print()`

Function calls take the form `function_name(function arguments)`

A function takes zero or more **arguments** and **returns** a value

```
1 import math
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3 print(rt2)
```

1.41421356237

Python **math module** provides a number of math functions. We have to **import** (i.e., load) the module before we can use it.

`math.sqrt()` takes one argument, returns its square root.

```
1 a=2
2 b=3
3 math.pow(a,b)
```

8.0

`math.pow()` takes two arguments. Returns the value obtained by raising the first to the power of the second.

Functions in Python

Note: in the examples below, we write `math.sqrt()` to call the `sqrt()` function from the `math` module. This notation will show up a lot this semester, so get used to it!

We've already seen examples of functions: e.g., `type()` and `print()`

Function calls take the form `function_name(function arguments)`

A function takes zero or more **arguments** and **returns** a value

```
1 import math
2 rt2 = math.sqrt(2)
3 print(rt2)
```

1.41421356237

```
1 a=2
2 b=3
3 math.pow(a,b)
```

8.0

Documentation for the Python `math` module:
<https://docs.python.org/3/library/math.html>

Functions in Python

Functions can be **composed**

Supply an expression as the argument of a function

Output of one function becomes input to another

```
1 a = 60
2 math.sin( (a/360)*2*math.pi )
```

```
0.8660254037844386
```

`math.sin()` has as its argument an expression, which has to be evaluated before we can compute the answer.

```
1 x = 1.71828
2 y = math.exp( -math.log(x+1) )
3 y # approx'y e^{-1}
```

```
0.36787968862663156
```

Functions can even have the outputs of other functions as their arguments.

Defining Functions

We can make new functions using **function definition**

Creates a new function, which we can then call whenever we need it

```
1 def print_wittgenstein():  
2     print("Die Welt ist alles")  
3     print("was der Fall ist")
```

```
1 print_wittgenstein()
```

```
Die Welt ist alles  
was der Fall ist
```

Let's walk through this line by line.

Defining Functions

We can make new functions using **function definition**

Creates a new function, which we can then call whenever we need it

```
1 def print_wittgenstein():  
2     print("Die Welt ist alles")  
3     print("was der Fall ist")
```

This line (called the **header** in some documentation) says that we are defining a function called `print_wittgenstein`, and that the function takes no argument.

```
1 print_wittgenstein()
```

```
Die Welt ist alles  
was der Fall ist
```

Defining Functions

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```

```
1 print_wittgenstein()
```

```
Die Welt ist alles  
was der Fall ist
```

The `def` keyword tells Python that we are defining a function.

Defining Functions

We can make new functions using **function definition**

Creates a new function, which we can then call whenever we need it

```
1 def print_wittgenstein()  
2     print("Die Welt ist alles")  
3     print("was der Fall ist")
```

```
1 print_wittgenstein()
```

```
Die Welt ist alles  
was der Fall ist
```

Any arguments to the function are giving inside the parentheses. This function takes no arguments, so we just give empty parentheses. In a few slides, we'll see a function that takes arguments.

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1 def print_wittgenstein( :  
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```

```
1 print_wittgenstein()
```

```
Die Welt ist alles  
was der Fall ist
```

The colon (:) is required by Python's syntax. You'll see this symbol a lot, as it is commonly used in Python to signal the start of an indented block of code. (more on this in a few slides).

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1 print_wittgenstein()
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Die Welt ist alles  
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This is called the **body** of the function.
This code is executed whenever the
function is called.

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Die Welt ist alles  
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Note: in languages like R, C/C++ and Java, code is organized into **blocks** using curly braces (`{` and `}`). Python is **whitespace delimited**. So we tell Python which lines of code are part of the function definition using indentation.

Defining Functions

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```
1 def print_wittgenstein():  
2     print("Die Welt ist alles")  
3     print("was der Fall ist")
```

This whitespace can be tabs, or spaces, so long as it's consistent. It is taken care of automatically by most IDEs.

```
1 print_wittgenstein()
```

```
Die Welt ist alles  
was der Fall ist
```

Note: in languages like R, C/C++ and Java, code is organized into **blocks** using curly braces (`{` and `}`). Python is **whitespace delimited**. So we tell Python which lines of code are part of the function definition using indentation.

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1 def print_wittgenstein():  
2     print("Die Welt ist alles")  
3     print("was der Fall ist")
```

```
1 print_wittgenstein()
```

```
Die Welt ist alles  
was der Fall ist
```

We have defined our function. Now, any time we call it, Python executes the code in the definition, in order.

Defining Functions

After defining a function, we can use it anywhere, including in other functions

```
1 def wittgenstein_sandwich(bread):  
2     print(bread)  
3     print_wittgenstein()  
4     print(bread)  
5 wittgenstein_sandwich('here is a string')
```

```
here is a string  
Die Welt ist Alles  
was der Fall ist.  
here is a string
```

This function takes one argument, prints it, then prints our Wittgenstein quote, then prints the argument again.

Defining Functions

After defining a function, we can use it anywhere, including in other functions

```
1 def wittgenstein_sandwich(bread)
2     print(bread)
3     print_wittgenstein()
4     print(bread)
5 wittgenstein_sandwich('here is a string')
```

```
here is a string
Die Welt ist Alles
was der Fall ist.
here is a string
```

This function takes one argument, which we call `bread`. All the arguments named here act like variables **within the body of the function**, but not outside the body. We'll return to this in a few slides.

Defining Functions

After defining a function, we can use it anywhere, including in other functions

```
1 def wittgenstein_sandwich(bread):  
2     print(bread)  
3     print_wittgenstein()  
4     print(bread)  
5 wittgenstein_sandwich('here is a string')
```

```
here is a string  
Die Welt ist Alles  
was der Fall ist.  
here is a string
```

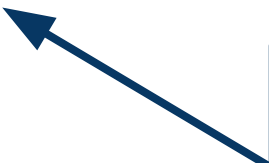
Body of the function specifies what to do with the argument(s). In this case, we print whatever the argument was, then print our Wittgenstein quote, and then print the argument again.

Defining Functions

After defining a function, we can use it anywhere, including in other functions

```
1 def wittgenstein_sandwich(bread):  
2     print(bread)  
3     print_wittgenstein()  
4     print(bread)  
5 wittgenstein_sandwich('here is a string')
```

```
here is a string  
Die Welt ist Alles  
was der Fall ist.  
here is a string
```



Now that we've defined our function, we can call it. In this case, when we call our function, the variable `bread` in the definition gets the value `'here is a string'`, and then proceeds to run the code in the function body.

Defining Functions

After defining a function, we can use it anywhere, including in other functions

```
1 def wittgenstein_sandwich(bread):  
2     print(bread)  
3     print_wittgenstein()  
4     print(bread)  
5 wittgenstein_sandwich('here is a string')
```

```
here is a string  
Die Welt ist Alles  
was der Fall ist.  
here is a string
```

Note: this last line is **not** part of the function body. We communicate this fact to Python by the indentation. Python knows that the function body is finished once it sees a line without indentation.

Now that we've defined our function, we can call it. In this case, when we call our function, the variable `bread` in the definition gets the value `'here is a string'`, and then proceeds to run the code in the function body.

Defining Functions

Using the `return` keyword, we can define functions that produce results

```
1 def multiply_by_two(x):  
2     return 2*x  
3 multiply_by_two(5)
```

10

```
1 y = multiply_by_two(-1.5)  
2 print(y)
```

-3.0

Defining Functions

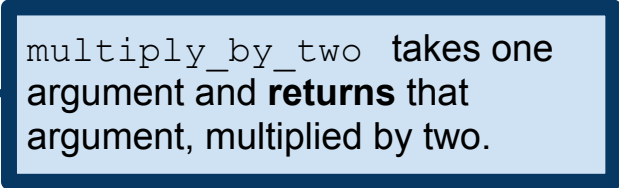
Using the `return` keyword, we can define functions that produce results

```
1 def multiply_by_two(x):  
2     return 2*x  
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```

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```
1 y = multiply_by_two(-1.5)  
2 print(y)
```

-3.0



`multiply_by_two` takes one argument and **returns** that argument, multiplied by two.

Defining Functions

Using the `return` keyword, we can define functions that produce results

```
1 def multiply_by_two(x):  
2     return 2*x  
3 multiply_by_two(5)
```

10

```
1 y = multiply_by_two(-1.5)  
2 print(y)
```

-3.0

So when Python executes this line, it takes the integer 5, which becomes the parameter `x` in the function `multiply_by_two`, and this line **evaluates** to 10.

Defining Functions

Using the `return` keyword, we can define functions that produce results

```
1 def multiply_by_two(x):  
2     return 2*x  
3 multiply_by_two(5)
```

10

```
1 y = multiply_by_two(-1.5)  
2 print(y)
```

-3.0

Alternatively, we can call the function and assign its result to a variable, just like we did with the functions in the `math` module.

Defining Functions

Using the `return` keyword, we can define functions that produce results

```
1 def multiply_by_two(x):  
2     return 2*x  
3 multiply_by_two(5)
```

10

```
1 y = multiply_by_two(-1.5)  
2 print(y)
```

-3.0

Notice that the argument is a `float`, now, instead of an `int`. This doesn't bother Python at all. We know how to multiply a float by an integer.

Defining Functions

Using the `return` keyword, we can define functions that produce results

```
1 def multiply_by_two(x):  
2     return 2*x  
3 multiply_by_two(5)
```

10

```
1 y = multiply_by_two(-1.5)  
2 print(y)
```

-3.0

```
1 multiply_by_two('goat')
```

'goatgoat'

`2*'goat'` is `'goatgoat'`?! It makes sense, but... where did that come from? We'll see what's going on here in a few lectures.

Defining Functions

```
1 def wittgenstein_sandwich(bread):
2     local_var = 1 # define a useless variable, just as example.
3     print(bread)
4     print_wittgenstein()
5     print(bread)
6 print(bread)
```

```
-----
NameError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-96-8745f5bed0d2> in <module>()
      4     print_wittgenstein()
      5     print(bread)
----> 6 print(bread)

NameError: name 'bread' is not defined
```

Variables are **local**. Variables defined inside a function body can't be referenced outside.

```
1 print(local_var)
```

```
-----
NameError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-97-38c61bb47a8e> in <module>()
----> 1 print(local_var)

NameError: name 'local_var' is not defined
```


Defining Functions

When you define a function, you are actually creating a variable of type **function**

Functions are objects that you can treat just like other variables

```
1 type(print_wittgenstein)
```

```
function
```

```
1 print_wittgenstein
```

```
<function __main__.print_wittgenstein>
```

```
1 print(print_wittgenstein)
```

```
<function print_wittgenstein at 0x10aa0aaa0>
```

This number is the address in memory where `print_wittgenstein` is stored. It may be different on your computer.

